



Hypochlorous Acid-Generating Electrochemical Catheter Prototype for Prevention of Intraluminal Infection

® Edison J. Cano,^{a,b} ® Laure Flurin,^b ® Abdelrhman Mohamed,^c Kerryl E. Greenwood-Quaintance,^b ® Yash S. Raval,^b Haluk Beyenal,^c ® Robin Patel^{a,b}

^aDivision of Infectious Diseases, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota, USA ^bDivision of Clinical Microbiology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota, USA ^cThe Gene and Linda Voiland School of Chemical Engineering and Bioengineering, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, USA

Edison J. Cano and Laure Flurin are co-first authors and contributed equally to this article. Author order was determined alphabetically.

ABSTRACT Central line-associated bloodstream infection (CLABSI) contributes to mortality and cost. While aseptic dressings and antibiotic-impregnated catheters prevent some extraluminal infections, intraluminal infections remain a source of CLABSIs. In this proof-of-concept study, an electrochemical intravascular catheter (e-catheter) prototype capable of electrochemically generating hypochlorous acid intraluminally using platinum electrodes polarized at a constant potential of 1.5 electrode potential relative to saturated silver/silver chloride reference electrode measured in volts ($V_{Ag/AgCl}$) was developed. After 24 h of prepolarization at 1.5 $V_{Ag/AgCl}$, their activity was tested against clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Enterococcus faecium*, and *Escherichia coli* derived from catheter-related infections. e-catheters generated a mean HOCl concentration of 15.86 ± 4.03 μ M and had a mean pH of 6.14 ± 0.79. E-catheters prevented infections of all four species, with an average reduction of 8.41 ± 0.61 log₁₀ CFU/ml at 48 h compared to controls. Polarized e-catheters which generate low amounts of HOCl continuously should be further developed to prevent intraluminal infection.

IMPORTANCE Catheter-related infections constitute an economic and mortality burden in health care. Several options are available to reduce the risk of infection, but only a few focus on preventing intraluminal infection, which occurs in long-term catheters, most often used for dialysis, prolonged treatment, or chemotherapy. A prototype of a catheter called an "e-catheter" composed of three electrodes, capable of producing hypochlorous acid (HOCI) electrochemically in its lumen, was developed. When polarized at 1.5 V, chloride ions in the solution are oxidized to continuously produce low amounts of HOCI, which exhibits antibacterial activity in the lumen of the catheter. Here, this prototype was shown to be able to generate HOCI as well as prevent infection in a preliminary *in vitro* catheter model. This approach is a potential strategy for catheter infection prevention.

KEYWORDS catheter-related bloodstream infection, hypochlorous acid, electrochemistry, infection prevention

ntravascular catheters are essential devices in health care for a wide range of applications. They are particularly needed in critically ill patients (e.g., for fluid administration or resuscitation) but have also been increasingly used in noncritically ill patients for long-term medication delivery, hemodialysis, or parenteral nutrition administration (1). Unfortunately, conventional catheters pose a direct route of entry for bacteria to the bloodstream, resulting in central line-associated bloodstream infection (CLABSI). CLABSI contributes to excess health care expenses in the United States, with up to US \$90,000 per patient and excess mortality of 15% to 25% per episode (2). In 2019 alone, Citation Cano EJ, Flurin L, Mohamed A, Greenwood-Quaintance KE, Raval YS, Beyenal H, Patel R. 2021. Hypochlorous acid-generating electrochemical catheter prototype for prevention of intraluminal infection. Microbiol Spectr 9:e00557-21. https://doi.org/10.1128/ Spectrum.00557-21.

Editor N. Esther Babady, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center

Copyright © 2021 Cano et al. This is an openaccess article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

Address correspondence to Robin Patel, patel.robin@mayo.edu.

Received 11 June 2021 Accepted 15 September 2021 Published 27 October 2021 the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention reported more than 30,000 CLABSI events in the United States (3), although underreporting is a concern with these figures (4).

The pathophysiology of CLABSI comprises two main routes of infection, the extraluminal route for short-term central venous catheters (CVCs), where microorganisms enter from the insertion site and colonize the catheter tip, and the intraluminal route for long-term catheters (planned for >5 days duration), where frequent manipulation of the line results in introduction of pathogens into the lumen (5, 6). Many available technologies developed for CLABSI prevention focus on aseptic techniques to mitigate extraluminal infections. For instance, use of chlorhexidine-impregnated dressings (7) or externally impregnated chlorhexidine/silver sulfadiazine catheters has shown a decrease in CLABSI (8). However, intraluminal infections remain a major source of CLABSI, particularly for long-term catheters, with intraluminal bacterial colonization rates as high as 40% in lines older than 30 days (9). Intraluminal strategies to prevent CLABSI include intraluminal antibiotic/antimicrobial agent locks, antimicrobial-impregnated catheter lumens, and antiseptic barrier caps. Intraluminal antibiotic solutions have shown a reduction in CLABSI rates, although this approach is prone to selection of bacterial resistance, side effects from contents infused systemically, and catheter damage due to high concentrations of these solutions (10, 11). Antiseptic barrier caps constitute one of the most widely implemented strategies to decrease intraluminal contamination from bacteria entering the catheter hub, although they are only active at the hub or injection site (12). Other techniques, such as silver-impregnated central venous catheters, have shown variable rates of CLABSI reduction and bacterial colonization but have overall not proved superior to conventional catheters (13, 14). Silver-platinum-carbon-impregnated catheters were shown to be inferior to rifampin-minocycline-coated catheters (15), despite the in vitro antimicrobial activity of these metals (16, 17). Another technology that delivers silver particles into the lumen, silver iontophoretic catheters, showed no benefit in comparison to regular catheters in a clinical trial (18). Although implementation of care bundles and enhancement of extraluminal/skin asepsis have decreased CLABSI rates, development of new approaches to prevent intraluminal infections is needed to further reduce CLABSI rates (9).

The most common pathogens found in CLABSI in the United States are coagulasenegative staphylococci and *Staphylococcus aureus*, which were resistant to methicillin in more than 50% of cases between 2011 and 2014 (19), followed by *Enterococcus* sp., *Candida* sp., and Gram-negative bacteria such as *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (20). Up to 20% of CLABSIs are caused by multidrug-resistant (MDR) organisms; such infections are difficult to treat, targeted with a limited number of effective antibiotics, and associated with high mortality in intensive care units (21). Hence, there is a need for nonantibiotic alternative approaches.

In previous work, we demonstrated that HOCI can be continuously generated at low concentrations on the surface of inert conductive electrodes polarized at a constant potential (22). Briefly, HOCI can be generated on polarized electrodes through oxidation of chloride ions in solution. At electrode potentials (*E*°) above 1.138 electrode potential relative to saturated silver/silver chloride reference electrode measured in volts ($V_{Ag/AgCI}$), chloride ions are oxidized to generate Cl₂ gas (equation 1) (23). Dissolved chlorine rapidly hydrolyzes in water to form a mixture of HOCI and hypochlorite (equations 2 and 3).

$$2\text{Cl}^- \to \text{Cl}_2 + 2e^- \text{ E}^\circ = 1.138 \text{ V}_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} \qquad (\text{equation 1})$$

$$Cl_2 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons Cl^- + HOCl + H^+$$
 (equation 2)

$$HOCl = H^+ + OCl^-$$
 (equation 3)

Electrochemical HOCI generation could be applied as a strategy to prevent intraluminal catheter infections. However, such technology requires controlled generation of HOCI. In our previous work, we have demonstrated its efficacy in treating monomicrobial and

polymicrobial biofilms formed by antibiotic-resistant organisms using an *in vitro* biofilm model (24). It was hypothesized that this concept could be applied in an *in vitro* catheter model in which HOCI is electrochemically generated at low continuous levels, such that it could prevent bacterial growth in the catheter lumen, thereby preventing infection. An electrochemical catheter (e-catheter) prototype consisting of a Tygon S3 E-3603 tube with three electrodes embedded within its lumen, two platinum wires as the working and counter electrodes, and a silver/silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) wire as a reference electrode was designed and evaluated. Once one of the platinum electrodes is polarized, HOCI is produced along the e-catheter's intraluminal volume, from the hub to the tip.

In this study, the three objectives were (i) to develop a prototype *in vitro* e-catheter model, (ii) to verify electrochemical generation of HOCl in the prototype catheter's lumen, and (iii) to preliminarily test its activity in an *in vitro* e-catheter prevention model with four bacterial isolates derived from catheter-related infections.

RESULTS

Electrochemical characterization. Preliminary electrochemical experiments were performed to verify the region where anodic reactions occur in the e-catheter. In these preliminary experiments, the e-catheter was operated without inoculated bacteria. Cyclic voltammetry experiments showed background current levels when the electrode potential was between 0.0 V_{Ag/AgCl} and 1.1 V_{Ag/AgCl} (Fig. 1A). Anodic current was observed above the onset potential of ~1.1 V_{Ag/AgCl}. Anodic current increased with increasing potential, plateauing above ~1.26 V_{Ag/AgCl} and then continuing to increase above ~1.35 V_{Ag/AgCl}. During treatment, e-catheters were polarized at a constant potential of 1.5 V_{Ag/AgCl}. Figure 1B shows a representative chronoamperometric scan recorded while the working electrode was controlled at 1.5 V_{Ag/AgCl}. The working electrode current started initially at 9.87 A/m² and continued to decrease afterward, reaching 2.25 A/m² after 5 h of polarization. The current density began to stabilize at 1.48 \pm 0.08 A/m² after 10 h of polarization, reaching 1.93 \pm 0.19 A/m² after 20 h.

pH and HOCI measurements. The mean pH measured at 48 h in polarized e-catheters was 6.14 \pm 0.79 (Fig. 2). One replicate of *Enterococcus faecium* IDRL-11625 had a short circuit in the e-catheter that led to a pH of 4. The HOCI concentration at 48 h was calculated based on free chlorine measurements. The mean concentration of HOCI across all isolates at 48 h in e-catheters was 15.86 \pm 4.03 μ M. The mean HOCI concentrations in polarized e-catheters infected with *S. aureus* IDRL-10296, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* NRS34, *E. faecium* IDRL-11625, and *E. coli* IDRL-7343 at 48 h were 16.31 \pm 4.91 μ M, 15.38 \pm 3.94 μ M, 15.40 \pm 5.19 μ M, and 16.33 \pm 4.61 μ M, respectively. Since the current was higher in the first two than at 48 h, HOCI concentrations were measured at 0.5, 1, and 2 h in a noninfected polarized e-catheter in triplicate. Mean HOCI concentrations were 123.45 \pm 12.09, 152.07 \pm 34.98, and 179.96 \pm 5.64 μ M at 0.5, 1, and 2 h, respectively. Detailed results are shown in Fig. S1 in the supplemental material.



FIG 1 Representative data set showing a cyclic voltammogram of the e-catheter working electrode at a scan rate of 0.010 V/s (A) and a chronoamperometric scan with the working electrode polarized at 1.5 $V_{Ag/AgCl}$ over 48 h (B).





FIG 2 Measurement of pH and HOCI at 48 h in polarized e-catheters. Each dot represents a replicate; bars represent means.

Preliminary assessment of e-catheter antimicrobial activity. (i) *S. aureus* **IDRL-10296.** For *S. aureus* IDRL-10296, mean bacterial cell concentrations were 8.08 \pm 0.22 log₁₀ CFU/ml in blank catheters, 7.01 \pm 0.24 log₁₀ CFU/ml in nonpolarized e-catheters, and 0 \pm 0 log₁₀ CFU/ml in polarized e-catheters (*P* = 0.004). In comparison to blank catheters, the average reduction in bacterial cell concentration at 48 h was 1.07 \pm 0.36 log₁₀ CFU/ml for nonpolarized e-catheters and 8.08 \pm 0.22 log₁₀ CFU/ml for polarized e-catheters (Fig. 3A).

(ii) *S. epidermidis* NRS34. For *S. epidermidis* NRS34, after 48 h, mean bacterial cell concentrations were 8.84 \pm 0.55 log₁₀ CFU/ml in blank catheters, 3.57 \pm 3.57 log₁₀ CFU/ml in nonpolarized e-catheters, and 0 \pm 0 log₁₀ CFU/ml in polarized e-catheters (*P* = 0.014) (Fig. 3B).

(iii) *E. faecium* **IDRL-11625.** For *E. faecium* **IDRL**-11625, after 48 h, mean bacterial cell concentrations were 8.82 \pm 0.79 log₁₀ CFU/ml in blank catheters, 3.75 \pm 4.19 log₁₀ CFU/ml in nonpolarized e-catheters, and 0 \pm 0 log₁₀ CFU/ml in polarized e-catheters (*P* = 0.05) (Fig. 3C).

(iv) *E. coli* IDRL-7343. For *E. coli* IDRL-7343, after 48 h, mean bacterial cell concentrations were 7.92 \pm 0.25 log₁₀ CFU/ml in blank catheters and 0 \pm 0 log₁₀ CFU/ml in nonpolarized e-catheters and polarized e-catheters (*P* = 0.036) (Fig. 3D). Given that in nonpolarized and polarized e-catheters, bacterial cell concentrations were reduced to the limit of detection for *E. coli* IDRL-7343, the antibacterial effects of platinum electrodes alone and Ag/AgCl electrodes alone were compared in the catheter model using *E. coli* IDRL-7343 alongside *S. epidermidis* NRS34; it was found that the Ag/AgCl electrodes had an antibacterial effect. The Ag/AgCl effect on bacterial cell reduction was less for *S. epidermidis* NRS34 (3.49 \pm 1.40 log₁₀ CFU/ml) than for *E. coli* IDRL-7343 (8.74 log₁₀ CFU/ml) (Fig. S2).

Polarized e-catheters reduced bacterial concentrations below the limit of detection for all isolates, with a mean reduction of 8.41 \pm 0.61 log₁₀ CFU/ml compared to blank catheters. Nonpolarized e-catheters had a variable effect, from minimal with *S. aureus* IDRL-10296 to maximal with *E. coli* IDRL-7343.

DISCUSSION

Here, a novel intravascular catheter prototype, referred as an e-catheter, which generates HOCI intraluminally when polarized at a constant potential of 1.5 $V_{Ag/AgCI'}$ is described. Polarized e-catheters exerted antimicrobial activity, reducing viable cell counts below the limit of detection for *S. aureus* IDRL-10296, *S. epidermidis* NRS34, *E. faecium* IDRL-11625, and *E. coli* IDRL-7343 in an *in vitro* infection prevention model. HOCI concentrations were measured, confirming electrochemical HOCI generation via



FIG 3 Prevention of infection after 48 h of polarization (24 h of infections) using e-catheters (polarized and nonpolarized) compared to blank catheters. Asterisks indicates statistically significant reductions in cell counts in polarized e-catheter compared to blank catheter groups (P < 0.05).

chloride oxidation on the surface of the polarized electrodes. The average HOCl concentration after 48 h of polarization was 15.86 \pm 4.03 μ M at a mean pH of 6.14 \pm 0.79. In this range of pHs (5 to 6.5), HOCl is the predominant form, accounting for >90% of free chlorine in solution, with the remainder consisting of OCl⁻ ions (25). Ono et al. (26) showed that the bactericidal effect of HOCl was highest under weakly acidic conditions (pH 5.0 to 6.0), suggesting that e-catheters operate near optimum pH for antimicrobial effect.

Hypochlorous acid is generated from anodic oxidation of chloride ions (equations 1, 2, and 3). Electrons delivered through the working electrode oxidize chloride ions to chlorine (equation 1), which in turn dissociates to HOCI (equation 2) and hypochlorite (equation 3). The oxidation rate is measured as positive current, which is shown for 48 h in Fig. 1B. The current density is highest initially (between 7.8 and 4.5 A/m² within the first 2 h) due to the capacitive response associated with changing the potential of the working electrode, in addition to chloride oxidation. The current density then continues to decrease (between 4.5 and 2.2 A/m² between 2 h and 20 h), likely due to consumption of chloride ions near the surface of the electrode. Finally, current density stabilizes at 1.93 ± 0.19 A/m² after 20 h due to equilibrium between the mass transport rates of chloride ions at the surface of the electrodes and the rates of chloride oxidation. Based on current measurements which are correlated with the HOCI generation rates, the e-catheter is active for at least 48 h, while the HOCI generation rate is highest at the start of polarization.

In previous work, Raval et al. (27) determined the MICs of HOCI for 27 isolates, including *S. aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *E. faecium*, and *E. coli*. The MICs for 6 *S. aureus* and 3 *S. epidermidis* isolates ranged from 990 to 1,690 μ M, and the MICs for *E. faecium* and *E. coli* isolates were 990 μ M HOCI; concentrations above 286 μ M are cytotoxic to mammalian cells (28). The described e-catheter prototype produced 179.96 \pm 7.45 μ M HOCI after 2 h of polarization. Continuous production of HOCI in the e-catheter prevented bacterial infection, even though the final concentration measured after 48 h of polarization was below the MIC. With MIC measurements, initial HOCI concentrations may decrease with time as HOCI reacts with planktonic bacteria. The described e-catheter overcomes such limitations by generating HOCI continuously at lower amounts corresponding to lower concentrations. Such continuous generation of low concentrations may apply consistent antibacterial pressure on potential pathogens.

For the four isolates tested, the average reduction in viable cell concentration was $8.41 \pm 0.61 \log_{10}$ CFU/ml, which is both statistically and potentially clinically significant.

Although the antimicrobial effect of polarized e-catheters is postulated to be due to electrochemical generation of HOCI, alternative antimicrobial mechanisms, such as the previously described electricidal effect (seen with the application of direct electric current) (29), other active by-products of polarization, or the presence of an Ag/AgCl electrode, have yet to be systematically ruled out. Indeed, nonpolarized e-catheters showed antimicrobial activity against some bacterial isolates studied, even without electrical current application. The reduction in bacterial cell concentrations and the high standard deviation in the nonpolarized e-catheters infected with *S. epidermidis* NRS34 and *E. faecium* IDRL-11625 in comparison to blank catheters suggests an inconsistent antibacterial activity of nonpolarized e-catheters. On the other hand, with polarized e-catheters, the reduction in bacterial cells compared to blank catheters for those two isolates was consistent and clinically significant: 8.84 \pm 0.55 log₁₀ CFU/ml for *S. epidermidis* NRS34 and 8.82 \pm 0.79 log₁₀CFU/ml for *E. faecium* IDRL-11625.

Antimicrobial activity was documented in the presence of the Ag/AgCl reference but not platinum electrodes (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). Ag/AgCl has shown antimicrobial activity against Gram-negative bacteria (e.g., *E. coli, K. pneumoniae, P. aeruginosa*), achieving significant bacterial cell reductions in less than 8 h (30). Gram-positive bacteria (*S. aureus* and *Streptococcus equi*) require longer exposure times to achieve significant bacterial cell reductions, consistent with findings with nonpolarized e-catheters infected with *S. aureus* IDRL-10296. This presents a limitation to the model; future work will explore a replacement or modification of the Ag/AgCl electrode.

There are several limitations to the described work. Intraluminal fluid was studied; it is possible that the bacteria formed biofilms on the walls of infected e-catheters and/or the wires. Methods which sample biofilms should be used in future studies. Another limitation of this work is the design of the e-catheter. In the described prototype, the wires are in the lumen. Future development may focus on applying wires directly to catheter walls to minimize impedance to fluid flow. After further development of the model, the device will need testing on a broader selection of microorganisms involved in CLABSI, such as Klebsiella species, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Candida albicans, at different growth phases and after 48 h, to better determine the bacterial inhibition duration and effect, as well as assess HOCI production over time. e-catheters can produce HOCI if chloride ions are provided in the intraluminal solution (here, 0.9% NaCl); future experiments could assess when chloride ions are consumed and HOCI is no longer produced and therefore determine the ideal time to replace intraluminal solutions. In addition, further studies are warranted to assess the toxicity of HOCI on endothelial cells and blood cells and its reaction with different blood components and to assess its performance in an in vitro flow system. Ultimately, the described e-catheter prototype provides a proof of concept demonstrating antimicrobial activity of electrochemically generated HOCI to prevent intraluminal catheter infection. The prototype serves as a preliminary model to move from handmade devices to custom-built e-catheters in future testing.

In conclusion, the described e-catheter represents a novel *in vitro* system capable of electrochemical generation of intraluminal HOCI when polarized at 1.5 $V_{Ag/AgCI}$, which shows preliminary antimicrobial activity against bacterial species commonly implicated in CLABSI.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Catheter model. Catheters were built from 10-cm, 4-mm-inner-diameter Tygon S3 E-3603 catheter tubing (Fisher Scientific, Hanover Park, IL) with female Luer lock barb connectors (Qosina Corp., Ronkonkoma, NY) inserted on each end, capped with polycarbonate male Luer injection hubs (Qosina Corp., Ronkonkoma, NY) on each end (Fig. 4A).

Electrochemical catheters. E-catheters consisted of catheters (described above) in which two 25-cm (200- μ m-diameter) platinum wires (referred to as working and counter electrodes) and one 25-cm silver/ silver chloride-plated wire (Ag/AgCl, referred to as the reference electrode) were inserted. To prevent the three wires from touching one another during polarization, they were inserted through three 5-mm-long by 2.3-mm-diameter plastic tubes referred to as e-core bands (Fig. 4C). Wires at both extremes were insulated with a 32 AWG polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) extruded tube and passed through a polycarbonate male Luer injection hub, leaving exposed electrodes at both ends (Fig. 4B). The bottom injection hub was used to prevent leakage of intraluminal contents during experiments.



FIG 4 In vitro catheter and e-catheter models.

Catheters and e-catheters were inserted into uncapped 15-ml Falcon tubes (Fisher Scientific, Hanover Park, IL) to maintain them in an upright position during experiments. Catheters underwent autoclave sterilization at 121°C for 30 min with the upward hub open to avoid deformation due to buildup of pressure inside. After sterilization, catheters and e-catheters were filled with 1 ml sterile 0.9% NaCl using a 3-ml syringe inserted through the top injection hub, with a 25-gauge by 1.6-cm needle inserted simultaneously at the bottom injection site (to avoid intraluminal pressure buildup and remove air bubbles). After filling, the upward hub was closed and needles were removed. Preliminary electrochemical experiments were conducted using a Gamy G300 potentiostat (Gamy Instruments, Warminster, PA) to determine the potential range suitable for generating HOCI in the e-catheter in the absence of bacteria. Cyclic voltammograms were recorded while sweeping the working electrode potential from 0.0 V_{Ag/AgCI} to 2.0 V_{Ag/AgCI} and then back to 0.0 V_{Ag/AgCI} at a scan rate of 0.010 V/s. Three cycles were recorded for each experiment; the third cycle is reported as a representative data set. Cyclic voltammetry results were used to verify the potential at which anodic reactions occur. Chronoamperometric scans were recorded to measure the current magnitude, while the working electrode potential was controlled at 1.5 V_{Ag/AgCI}.

pH and HOCI measurement. pH and HOCI measurements were performed in infected (see below) e-catheters after 48 h of polarization. The intraluminal solution was centrifuged for 10 min at 5,000 rpm (rpm) to remove planktonic bacteria. One hundred microliters of supernatant obtained after centrifugation of the intraluminal contents was applied to pH indicator strips (pH range, 4.0 to 7.0, ColorpHast; EMD Chemicals, Inc., Burlington, MA), and the pH defined using a colorimetric scale from the vendor.

A free chlorine test was used to determine HOCl concentrations in the intraluminal fluid (TNTplus 866; Hach, Loveland, CO). Chlorine (Cl₂) is produced electrochemically via chloride oxidation, which dissociates in water to produce HOCl and hypochlorite (24). For each polarized e-catheter at 48 h (see below), 1 ml of the supernatant was added to 7 ml of sterile water to fill the test vials, and free chlorine was measured using a DR1900-01H portable spectrophotometer (Hach, Loveland, CO). Free-chlorine concentrations measured in milligrams per liter were first corrected by the dilution used to fill the test vials. Then, the HOCl concentration in micromolar was estimated according to the dissociation equilibrium of HOCl/OCl⁻ at the pH measured for each replicate (25). The lower limit of detection of the free-chlorine test for Cl₂ was 0.05 mg/liter, corresponding to 5.42 μ M HOCl at pH 6.14 (mean pH in experiments reported here).

Evaluation of preventative antimicrobial activity of e-catheters. To preliminarily test the antimicrobial prevention effect of the e-catheters, four clinical isolates derived from catheter-associated infections were studied, *S. aureus* IDRL-10296, *S. epidermidis* NRS34, *E. faecium* IDRL-11625, and *E. coli* IDRL-7343. Bacterial inocula were selected to target a concentration of $>8 \log_{10}$ CFU/ml after 48 h in blank catheters. An initial bacterial concentration of 10^4 CFU/ml was used for *S. aureus* IDRL-10296, 10^7 CFU/ml for *S. epidermidis* NRS34, 10^5 CFU/ml for *E. faecium* IDRL-11625, and 10^4 CFU/ml for *E. coli* IDRL-7343. Different inoculum sizes were used to establish 48-h concentrations that would allow determination of a 3-log reduction in bacterial concentrations between treatment groups.

Bacteria were subcultured from frozen aliquots onto BBL Trypticase soy agar (TSA II) with 5% sheep blood plates (Becton, Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) and incubated at 37°C overnight. One bacterial colony from this first plate was then subcultured on a second TSA II plate for 24 h. One to three colonies from this second plate were added to 2 ml of Trypticase soy broth (TSB) and incubated for 2 h at 37°C on an orbital shaker at 120 rpm to reach a 0.5 McFarland standard ($\sim 1.5 \times 10^8$ CFU/ml). The bacterial suspension was then diluted in TSB to the targeted bacterial inoculum concentration for each isolate (see above).

Experimental setup. Each experiment set comprised one catheter and two e-catheters filled with 1 ml 0.9% NaCl. The catheter referred as the "blank catheter" served as a control to assess any effect of platinum and Ag/AgCl wires, as described elsewhere (30). One e-catheter was unpolarized and served as a control for the polarized e-catheter. One e-catheter was polarized using a custom 4-channel potentiostat (31) and is referred to as "polarized"; the working electrode was polarized at a constant potential of 1.5 $V_{Ag/AgCl}$ for 48 h at 37°C to generate HOCl. After 24 h, the blank catheter, nonpolarized e-catheter, and polarized e-catheter were inoculated with 100 μ l of bacterial broth and incubated in an air incubator at 37°C for an additional 24 h. The final volume in each catheter was 1.1 ml.

Intraluminal bacterial cell quantification. After 48 h of polarization (i.e., 24 h after bacterial challenge), catheters were unplugged from the setup, hubs were uncapped in a sterile fashion, and catheters were force-fully flushed with 0.9 ml of sterile water and 2 ml of air into a sterile 15-ml Falcon tube using a 3-ml syringe. Intraluminal fluid was then centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 10 min, and the supernatant was aspirated without disturbing the bacterial pellet at the bottom of the tube. The cell pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of sterile water and vortexed; quantitative cultures were performed using serial dilutions. Bacterial concentrations were calculated in \log_{10} CFU/ml with an estimated lower limit of quantification of 1 \log_{10} CFU/ml. For samples below this limit of quantification, 1 ml of TSB was added to the remainder of the intraluminal fluid, and growth was reported based on turbidity of the broth, bringing the limit of detection to 1 CFU/ml. Values were reported as 0 \log_{10} CFU/ml if the broth culture was negative after 48 h.

Statistical analysis. Comparison of intraluminal bacterial cell concentrations at 48 h among the three experimental groups (polarized, nonpolarized, and blank catheters) was performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test for nonparametric samples. Bonferroni's correction was not performed due to the small sample size. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Summary statistics are reported as the mean with standard deviation (for triplicates). All tests were two sided; *P* values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant. A clinically significant antimicrobial effect was defined as a >3 log₁₀ CFU/ml mean reduction in bacterial concentrations compared to the blank catheter. This mathematically represents a 99.9% mean reduction in viable bacterial cell count (32). Analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.

Data availability. Data from this study are available from the corresponding author.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available online only. **SUPPLEMENTAL FILE 1**, PDF file, 0.1 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the National Institutes of Health (award number R01 AI091594).

The following reagent was provided by the Network on Antimicrobial Resistance in *S. aureus* (NARSA) for distribution by BEI Resources, NIAID, NIH: *S. epidermidis*, strain NRS34, NR-45879.

R.P. reports grants from Merck, ContraFect, TenNor Therapeutics Limited, and Shionogi. R.P. is a consultant to Curetis, Specific Technologies, Next Gen Diagnostics, PathoQuest, Selux Diagnostics, 1928 Diagnostics, PhAST, and Qvella; monies are paid to Mayo Clinic. R.P. is also a consultant to Netflix. In addition, R.P. has a patent on *Bordetella pertussis/ parapertussis* PCR issued, a patent on a device/method for sonication with royalties paid by Samsung to Mayo Clinic, and a patent on an antibiofilm substance issued. R.P. receives an editor's stipend from the IDSA and honoraria from the NBME, Up-to-Date, and the Infectious Diseases Board Review Course. H.B. holds a patent (33), "Electrochemical reduction or prevention of infections."

EJ.C. contributed to the work's conception and design, as well as data acquisition, analysis, and interpretation. L.F. contributed to the work's design and conception, as well as data acquisition, analysis, and interpretation. A.M. contributed to data acquisition and analysis. Y.S.R., A.M., H.B., K.E.G.-Q., and R.P. contributed to the work's conception and data interpretation.

REFERENCES

- Patel AR, Patel AR, Singh S, Singh S, Khawaja I. 2019. Central line catheters and associated complications: a review. Cureus 11:e4717. https://doi.org/ 10.7759/cureus.4717.
- Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. 2017. Estimating the additional hospital inpatient cost and mortality associated with selected hospital-acquired conditions. https://www.ahrq.gov/hai/pfp/haccost2017-results .html. Accessed 26 January 2021.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2020. Current HAI progress report. https://www.cdc.gov/hai/data/portal/progress-report.html. Accessed 26 January 2021.
- 4. Woodward B, Umberger R. 2016. Review of best practices for CLABSI prevention and the impact of recent legislation on CLABSI reporting. SAGE Open 6:215824401667774. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016677747.
- 5. Frasca D, Dahyot-Fizelier C, Mimoz O. 2010. Prevention of central venous catheter-related infection in the intensive care unit. Crit Care 14:212. https://doi.org/10.1186/cc8853.
- Rupp ME, Karnatak R. 2018. Intravascular catheter-related bloodstream infections. Infect Dis Clin North Am 32:765–787. https://doi.org/10.1016/j .idc.2018.06.002.

- Wei L, Li Y, Li X, Bian L, Wen Z, Li M. 2019. Chlorhexidine-impregnated dressing for the prophylaxis of central venous catheter-related complications: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Infect Dis 19:429. https://doi.org/ 10.1186/s12879-019-4029-9.
- Ramritu P, Halton K, Collignon P, Cook D, Fraenkel D, Battistutta D, Whitby M, Graves N. 2008. A systematic review comparing the relative effectiveness of antimicrobial-coated catheters in intensive care units. Am J Infect Control 36:104–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2007.02.012.
- Mermel LA. 2011. What is the predominant source of intravascular catheter infections? Clin Infect Dis 52:211–212. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciq108.
- James MT, Conley J, Tonelli M, Manns BJ, MacRae J, Hemmelgarn BR, Alberta Kidney Disease Network. 2008. Meta-analysis: antibiotics for prophylaxis against hemodialysis catheter-related infections. Ann Intern Med 148:596–605. https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-148-8-200804150-00004.
- Mermel LA, Alang N. 2014. Adverse effects associated with ethanol catheter lock solutions: a systematic review. J Antimicrob Chemother 69: 2611–2619. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dku182.
- Voor In 't Holt AF, Helder OK, Vos MC, Schafthuizen L, Sülz S, van den Hoogen A, Ista E. 2017. Antiseptic barrier cap effective in reducing central line-associated bloodstream infections: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Int J Nurs Stud 69:34–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2017 .01.007.
- Chong HY, Lai NM, Apisarnthanarak A, Chaiyakunapruk N. 2017. Comparative efficacy of antimicrobial central venous catheters in reducing catheter-related bloodstream infections in adults: abridged Cochrane Systematic Review and network meta-analysis. Clin Infect Dis 64:S131–S140. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cix019.
- Gilbert RE, Harden M. 2008. Effectiveness of impregnated central venous catheters for catheter related blood stream infection: a systematic review. Curr Opin Infect Dis 21:235–245. https://doi.org/10.1097/QCO.0b013e3282ffd6e0.
- Fraenkel D, Rickard C, Thomas P, Faoagali J, George N, Ware R. 2006. A prospective, randomized trial of rifampicin-minocycline-coated and silver-platinum-carbon-impregnated central venous catheters. Crit Care Med 34:668–675. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.CCM.0000201404.05523.34.
- Arya A, Gupta K, Chundawat TS. 2020. *In vitro* antimicrobial and antioxidant activity of biogenically synthesized palladium and platinum nanoparticles using *Botryococcus braunii*. Turk J Pharm Sci 17:299–306. https:// doi.org/10.4274/tjps.galenos.2019.94103.
- Jung WK, Koo HC, Kim KW, Shin S, Kim SH, Park YH. 2008. Antibacterial activity and mechanism of action of the silver ion in *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli*. Appl Environ Microbiol 74:2171–2178. https://doi .org/10.1128/AEM.02001-07.
- Bong JJ, Kite P, Wilco MH, McMahon MJ. 2003. Prevention of catheter related bloodstream infection by silver iontophoretic central venous catheters: a randomised controlled trial. J Clin Pathol 56:731–735. https:// doi.org/10.1136/jcp.56.10.731.
- Weiner LM, Webb AK, Limbago B, Dudeck MA, Patel J, Kallen AJ, Edwards JR, Sievert DM. 2016. Antimicrobial-resistant pathogens associated with healthcare-associated infections: summary of data reported to the National Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011–2014. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 37:1288–1301. https://doi .org/10.1017/ice.2016.174.

- 20. Mermel LA, Allon M, Bouza E, Craven DE, Flynn P, O'Grady NP, Raad II,
- Rijnders BJ, Sherertz RJ, Warren DK. 2009. Clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of intravascular catheter-related infection: 2009 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin Infect Dis 49:1–45. https://doi.org/10.1086/599376.
- Kuo SH, Lin WR, Lin JY, Huang CH, Jao YT, Yang PW, Tsai JR, Wang WH, Chen YH, Hung CT, Lu PL. 2018. The epidemiology, antibiograms and predictors of mortality among critically-ill patients with central line-associated bloodstream infections. J Microbiol Immunol Infect 51:401–410. https://doi.org/10 .1016/j.jmii.2017.08.016.
- Kiamco MM, Zmuda HM, Mohamed A, Call DR, Raval YS, Patel R, Beyenal H. 2019. Hypochlorous-acid-generating electrochemical scaffold for treatment of wound biofilms. Sci Rep 9:2683. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598 -019-38968-y.
- 23. Haynes WM. 2014. CRC handbook of chemistry and physics. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- 24. Flurin L, Raval YS, Mohamed A, Greenwood-Quaintance KE, Cano EJ, Beyenal H, Patel R. 2021. An integrated HOCI-producing e-scaffold is active against m/microbial and polymicrobial biofilms. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 65:e02007-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02007-20.
- 25. Black and Veatch Corporation. 2009. Chemistry of aqueous chlorine, p 68–173. *In* White's handbook of chlorination and alternative disinfectants. Wiley, New York, NY.
- Ono T, Yamashita K, Murayama T, Sato T. 2012. Microbicidal effect of weak acid hypochlorous solution on various microorganisms. Biocontrol Sci 17:129–133. https://doi.org/10.4265/bio.17.129.
- Raval YS, Flurin L, Mohamed A, Greenwood-Quaintance KE, Beyenal H, Patel R. 2021. *In vitro* activity of hydrogen peroxide and hypochlorous acid generated by electrochemical scaffolds against planktonic and biofilm bacteria. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 65:e01966-20. https://doi .org/10.1128/AAC.01966-20.
- 28. Wang L, Bassiri M, Najafi R, Najafi K, Yang J, Khosrovi B, Hwong W, Barati E, Belisle B, Celeri C, Robson MC. 2007. Hypochlorous acid as a potential wound care agent: part I. Stabilized hypochlorous acid: a component of the inorganic armamentarium of innate immunity. J Burns Wounds 6:e5.
- del Pozo JL, Rouse MS, Mandrekar JN, Steckelberg JM, Patel R. 2009. The electricidal effect: reduction of *Staphylococcus* and *Pseudomonas* biofilms by prolonged exposure to low-intensity electrical current. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 53:41–45. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00680-08.
- Adams AP, Santschi EM, Mellencamp MA. 1999. Antibacterial properties of a silver chloride-coated nylon wound dressing. Vet Surg 28:219–225. https://doi.org/10.1053/jvet.1999.0219.
- Renslow R, Donovan C, Shim M, Babauta J, Nannapaneni S, Schenk J, Beyenal H. 2011. Oxygen reduction kinetics on graphite cathodes in sediment microbial fuel cells. Phys Chem Chem Phys 13:21573–21584. https:// doi.org/10.1039/c1cp23200b.
- Christen JA, Parker AE. 2020. Systematic statistical analysis of microbial data from dilution series. J Agric Biol Environ Stat 25:339–364. https://doi .org/10.1007/s13253-020-00397-0.
- Beyenal HCD, Fransson BA, Sultana ST. 2018. Electrochemical reduction or prevention of infections. U.S. patent 20180207301A1, international patent WO/2017/011635.