

Absence of bacterial resistance to medical-grade manuka honey

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Abstract: Clinical use of honey in the topical treatment of wounds has increased in Europe and North America since licensed wound care products became available in 2004 and 2007 respectively. Honeyresistant bacteria have not been isolated from wounds, but there is a need to investigate whether honey has the potential to select for honey resistance. Two cultures of bacteria from reference collections (Staphylococcus aureus NCTC 10017 and Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853) and four cultures isolated from wounds (Escherichia coli, MRSA, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus epidermidis) were exposed to sub-lethal concentrations of manuka honey in continuous and stepwise training experiments to determine whether susceptibility to honey diminished. Reduced susceptibilities to manuka honey in the test organisms during long-term stepwise resistance training were found, but these changes were not permanent and honey-resistant mutants were not detected. The risk of bacteria acquiring resistance to honey will be low if high concentrations are maintained clinically.

Response to Reviewers: Dear Editor,

Thank you for the reviewers' comments on our paper entitled "Absence of bacterial resistance to medical-grade manuka honey". We were pleased that they liked the design and execution of our study and we understood the reservations that reviewer had about our conclusions. We have made the following changes in response to each specific observation, which we feel strengthen our paper: Reviewer 1.

We have inserted line numbers into the paper.

In order to rebut the reservations about our conclusions we have recently performed further tests on the four clinical isolates that were collected at the end of the recovery period and stored at -80°C. For each of the thawed cultures, MICs and MBCs were determined in duplicate on three separate occasions. We found that three cultures (P.aeruginosa, S. epidermidis and MRSA) had returned to pre-training levels of susceptibility and that the MIC of E. coli was only 1.4 times higher than at time 0. That information is included as Table 2 (line 370) and described in lines 201 to 209. We respectfully maintain that honey-resistant mutants were not recovered. To support this conclusion as advised we noted (lines 241-243) that antibiotic-resistance training led to MICs that increased by factors of either 32 or 64 (citation 17-Blair et al, 2009), while honey resistance training led to an increase of 1.4. We

also used the EUCAST definition of clinical resistance to show that honey susceptibility which had increased by a factor of 1.4 is unlikely to lead to therapeutic failure when wound care products normally contain at least 80% manuka honey and normally 95%(w/v) (lines 258 to 260). We have removed the statement "gradually increased towards pre-treatment levels".

We have made clear the proportional changes in MICs (lines 195 to 197 and 208 and 251). We have commented on the need to maintain high concentrations of manuka honey in wounds to avoid the selection of resistant strains (lines 278 to 284).

We have modified the Abstract (lines 42 to 45) to explain that reduced susceptibility was found during long-term training and we have commented on the need to maintain high concentrations of manuka honey during clinical use (lines 45 to 46). In the concluding paragraph we also note that prolonged exposure to antimicrobial agents should be avoided.

We have deleted statements about the development of antibiotic resistance from the Introduction and the Discussion.

We have inserted "preceding days' culture" into line 169, and "day" into line 194.

We have removed the reference to high sugar content, low water content and acidity.

We have changed the captions to Figure 1 and 2.

Reviewer 2.

We were encouraged that our conclusions were considered to be robust.

We have changed MIC against manuka honey to "MICs to manuka honey" throughout the paper. We have clarified which honey was used in which experiments by changing "preliminary" to "short-term" (line 91) and explained the activity associated with each honey (lines 100 to 103).

We have inserted "preceding days' culture" in line 133.

In order to clarify the number of MIC tests performed and the experimental design we have inserted a brief explanation in lines 210 to 217.

We hope that you will now be able to accept our manuscript for publication,

Yours sincerely, Rose Cooper

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4 5	1 2	Absence of bacterial resistance to medical-grade manuka honey
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31 Abstract

32	Clinical use of honey in the topical treatment of wounds has increased in
33	Europe and North America since licensed wound care products became
34	available in 2004 and 2007 respectively. Honey-resistant bacteria have not
35	been isolated from wounds, but there is a need to investigate whether honey
36	has the potential to select for honey resistance. Two cultures of bacteria from
37	reference collections (Staphylococcus aureus NCTC 10017 and
38	Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853) and four cultures isolated from
39	wounds (Escherichia coli, MRSA, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and
40	Staphylococcus epidermidis) were exposed to sub-lethal concentrations of
41	manuka honey in continuous and stepwise training experiments to determine
42	whether susceptibility to honey diminished. Reduced susceptibilities to
43	manuka honey in the test organisms during long-term stepwise resistance
44	training were found, but these changes were not permanent and honey-
45	resistant mutants were not detected. The risk of bacteria acquiring resistance
46	to honey will be low if high concentrations are maintained clinically.
47	Introduction
48	For thousands of years wounds were treated topically with relatively poorly
49	characterised preparations of antimicrobial agents derived from animal,
50	vegetable and mineral sources [1]. Apart from honey, many of those
51	substances were too toxic for internal use [2]. During the nineteenth century,
52	the chemical industry yielded a variety of antiseptic compounds that were
53	utilised for preventing and treating wound infections [3], but in recent times
54	cytotoxicity has limited their acceptance [4]. A systematic strategy of

discovering and evaluating promising chemotherapeutic antimicrobial agents was initiated by Paul Ehrlich at the beginning of the twentieth century; it paved the way for the advent of antibiotics, which revolutionised the treatment of infection. These antimicrobial agents with their specific mechanisms of inhibition exhibited selective toxicity against microbial species, rather than patients and were initially effective in controlling infections. Although not universally susceptible to all antibiotics, most microbial species were susceptible to at least one type of antibiotic. To date seventeen classes of antibiotic have been introduced, but the rate of discovery of new antibiotics has slowed within the past twenty years. The therapeutic value of many antibiotics has been curtailed by the acquisition of resistance in species that were once susceptible, as well as the emergence of species with resistance to multiple antibiotics. This is a real concern because species resistant to every known antibiotic have emerged [5], antiseptic resistant strains have been isolated and organisms with both antibiotic and antiseptic resistance determinants have been discovered [6]. The speed of emergence of antimicrobial resistance is unpredictable [7], but whenever a new inhibitory agent is introduced, resistant organisms emerge in due course. With fewer effective antimicrobial agents to manage wound infections, impacts such as increased morbidity, treatment costs and mortalities have ensued [8]. Novel antimicrobial remedies are needed, but there is always the possibility that organisms with resistance to these agents will arise.

Since medical-grade honey was first licensed for treating wounds in Australia
in 1999, the clinical use of wound care products containing honey has

extended to Canada, Europe, Hong Kong, New Zealand and United States of America. As with antibiotics, extensive use of honey may well provide a selective pressure for the emergence of honey resistant strains of wound pathogens. This can be tested *in vitro* by either repeated cultivation of bacteria in a sub-lethal concentration of the agent, or by incubation in stepwise increasing concentrations. The aim of this study, therefore, was to determine whether bacteria continuously exposed to low concentrations of manuka honey changed their susceptibility to manuka honey and whether resistant strains were selected.

89 Methods

90 Organisms tested

In short-term resistance training experiments Staphylococcus aureus NCTC 10017 and Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853 were utilised with a sample of sterile manuka honey provided by the New Zealand Natural Food Company. For the rest of the study clinical isolates of MRSA, Staphylococcus epidermidis, Escherichia coli and Pseudomonas aeruginosa were tested with a sample of manuka honey that was provided by Comvita UK (Manukacare 18+). This product is available as Medihoney in Canada and the United States. The clinical isolates were cultures of bacteria that had been isolated from patients with chronic wounds attending a local out-patient clinic at University Hospital of Wales, Cardiff. Using a bioassay [9], the antibacterial activity of New Zealand Natural Food company honey sample was found to be equivalent to 19%(w/v) phenol and Manukacare 18+ was equivalent to 18%(w/v) phenol.

104 Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs)

105	MICs were determined in 96 well, flat bottomed microtitre plates (Nunc,
106	Roskilde, Denmark) using manuka honey dissolved in either nutrient broth
107	(NB; Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) or isosensitest broth (ISB; Oxoid, Basingstoke,
108	UK). Honey concentrations varying by $1\%(w/v)$ were used in successive wells
109	and all wells contained 200 $\mu I.$ Wells were inoculated with $1\mu I$ undiluted
110	overnight broth cultures of test organisms (approximately 1 x 10 ⁶ cfu/ml) and
11	incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Positive (broth and inoculum) and negative
112	controls (broth and honey) were included. MICs were determined visually and
113	confirmed by measuring absorbance at 400 nm in a microtitre plate reader
114	(Anthos Labtec Instruments).
115	Short-term resistance training by exposure to a single sub-lethal concentration
116	of manuka honey.
117	To one 100 ml conical flask with 20 ml NB containing 2.5%(w/v) manuka
118	honey, 40 μ l overnight broth culture of <i>S. aureus</i> was inoculated and to
119	another 100 ml conical flask with 20 ml NB containing 8%(w/v) manuka
120	honey, 40 µl P. aeruginosa was inoculated. Both flasks were incubated at
121	37°C in a shaking water bath (100 cycles per min) for 24 h. On 10 successive
122	days similar, freshly prepared flasks were inoculated with 40 μl from each
123	preceding days' culture, respectively. MICs for each test organism were
124	determined on days 0 and 10 and compared by the Mann-Whitney test using
125	Minitab version 14.
126	Short-term resistance training by exposure to stepwise increasing
127	concentrations of manuka honey.
128	Cultures were set up as above using an initial concentration of 1%(w/v)
129	manuka honey in NB for <i>S. aureus</i> and 5%(w/v) manuka honey in NB for <i>P.</i>

aeruginosa and incubated at 37°C with shaking for 24 h. At 24 h intervals on 10 consecutive days, freshly prepared broths with honey concentrations increased by 0.5%(w/v) for S. aureus and 1%(w/v) for P. aeruginosa were inoculated with 40 µl from the preceding days' culture. Throughout the training period the identity of each culture was confirmed daily by BBL Crystal kits (Becton Dickinson, Basingstoke, UK). For both test organisms MICs of manuka honey were determined before and after the training period. Stepwise resistance training of clinical isolates by long-term exposure to sub-

138 inhibitory concentrations of manuka honey.

MICs of manuka honey for each of the clinical isolates were determined before continuous exposure to honey. In a 96 well, flat bottomed microtitre plate for each of the 4 test organisms a range of 15 concentrations of manuka honey (Comvita manukacare 18+) in ISB that varied by 1%(w/v) intervals and included concentrations above and below the initial MIC of each test organism was prepared. Each well contained 200 µL ISB and honey and was inoculated on day 0 with 5 µl overnight broth culture, then incubated at 37°C for 24 h. MIC was determined visually as the lowest concentration of honey to prevent growth. A fresh microtitre plate was prepared every 24 h with a new range of 15 honey concentrations contained in ISB that increased by 1%(w/v)increments and included the last MIC in the middle of the range. With time, increasingly higher concentrations of honey in ISB were required, but the range always included honey concentrations above and below the expected MIC. On each successive day of the experiment, wells in the new microtitre plate were inoculated with 5 µl of each respective test organism taken from the well of the previous microtitre plate containing the highest concentration of

honey with viable cells (i.e. one well below the actual MIC). Also, the purity of each inoculum was checked by dropping 20 µl onto nutrient agar plates and streaking out to achieve isolated colonies after incubation at 37°C for 24 hours. The experiment was continued for 28 successive days with each test organism using an appropriate range of honey concentrations above and below the last recorded MIC value. Cultures obtained after 28 days continuous exposure to a sub-lethal concentration of honey were frozen and stored at -80°C for future reference.

163 Recovery of cultures of clinical isolates following long-term exposure to 164 honey.

Each 'honey-trained' culture obtained after 28 days continuous exposure to manuka honey was inoculated into 20 ml isosensitest broth (ISB) contained within a 100 ml conical flask and incubated in a shaking water bath at 37°C for 24 hours. On each successive day, one of four fresh flasks of ISB were inoculated with 100 µl of each culture transferred from the preceding days' culture, respectively until 28 days had elapsed. At each daily transfer MIC against manuka honey was determined. Cultures obtained after the 28 day recovery period were frozen and stored at -80°C.

173 Cultural characteristics.

174 Identity of the test organisms before the start of the long-term training regime,
175 collected after the 28 day training period and after the 28 day recovery period
176 was determined by Crystal kits (Becton Dickinson, Basingstoke, UK) and by
177 RAPD typing.

- **Results**
- 179 Short-term resistance training with reference cultures.

When S. aureus NCTC 10017 was cultured in a sub-lethal concentration of manuka honey for 10 consecutive days, susceptibility to manuka honey did not decrease significantly (Table 1). Conversely the MIC for P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 increased significantly from 15.7 to 19.7%(w/v), indicating that the culture had become less susceptible to manuka honey. However, after 6 subcultures in honey free NB, there was no significant difference in MIC compared to the starting value. When these two test organisms were successively cultured in stepwise increasing concentrations of honey, viable bacteria were not recovered above their starting MIC values. Hence honey resistance was not observed in either S. aureus or P.aeruginosa. Resistance training of clinical isolates by long-term exposure to honey. The susceptibility of the 4 clinical isolates tested in this study for manuka honey decreased during the 28 day resistance training period (Fig. 1), with the greatest proportional change observed for E. coli (2.1) and the least in P. aeruginosa (1.4). MICs of MRSA and S. epidermidis increased by factors of 1.6 and 1.7, respectively. However during the recovery period, MIC values returned to pre-training values within 9 and 14 days for S. epidermidis and P. aeruginosa respectively, demonstrating that honey-resistant strains of these bacteria had not been selected (Fig. 2). Neither MRSA nor *E. coli* returned to the pre-training MIC values within the 28 day recovery period. Several months later the cultures frozen at the end of the recovery period were thawed and MICs were determined in duplicate on three separate occasions (Table 2). MBCs were also determined by streaking out samples from microtitre plate

wells showing no growth onto nutrient agar. It was seen that the susceptibility of three of the clinical isolates was similar to those values obtained before resistance training (Fig. 1), but the MIC of manuka honey in *E.coli* remained 1.4 times higher. MBC values were close to MICs indicating that manuka honey was bactericidal for the recovered cultures. It is perhaps worth noting that by exposing each test organism to a range of honey concentrations simultaneously during the long-term training experiment, MIC values were obtained daily at each transfer step. This meant that only one determination was obtained at each time point. MICs obtained later on stored cultures were done in replicate (Table 2). Unlike antibiotic testing where serial doubling dilutions series are normally utilised, here honey concentrations differing by 1%(w/v) intervals were used to get a more precise estimate of MIC. Purity plates and biochemical characteristics confirmed that culture identities were maintained throughout the training and recovery periods; RAPD profiles remained constant. Discussion The excessive use and misuse of antibiotics is known to favour the selection of resistant strains and to inhibit sensitive strains. In Norway, for example, where mupirocin was not available, mupirocin-resistant strains of S. aureus were not detected [10]. Restricting mupirocin use in an American medical centre caused an immediate reduction in the occurrence of mupirocin-resistant MRSA [11] and an association between exposure to fusidic acid and fusidic acid-resistance in *S.aureus* has been established [12]. Resistance to biocides used for skin and wound care has also been demonstrated [6]. In the

230	first 'acclimatization' experiments in 1887, reduced sensitivity to mercuric
231	chloride and boric acid was noted [13]; increased tolerance towards many
232	other antibiotics and antiseptics has since been investigated. Inability to select
233	for resistance to povidone iodine has been reported [13], yet Pseudomonas
234	stutzeri was shown to develop stable resistance to each of chlorhexidine
235	diacetate and cetylpyridinium chlorine when exposed to stepwise increases in
236	concentration [14]. Bacterial resistance to silver, which is often used in wound
237	care, is well defined and debated [15 and16]. Furthermore, short-term
238	stepwise resistance training of P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 to each of
239	tetracycline, ciprofloxacin and honey, and of S.aureus ATCC 9144 to each of
240	tetracycline, oxacillin and honey demonstrated acquisition of antibiotic
241	resistance but not honey resistance [17]. In that study antibiotic-resistant
242	strains recovered after stepwise resistance training to antibiotics exhibited
243	antibiotic susceptibilities significantly reduced by factors of 32 and 64 [17].
244	
245	Our study showed that continuous exposure to sub-lethal concentrations of
246	manuka honey for up to 28 days failed to select for honey resistant mutants in
247	any of two reference cultures or four clinical isolates. Reduced susceptibility to
248	manuka honey was observed throughout the long-term training period in each
249	of the clinical isolates. Unlike the large changes in susceptibilities seen in
250	antibiotic resistance training [17], honey MICs increased in <i>P. aeruginosa</i> ,
251	MRSA, S. epidermidis and E. coli by factors of 1.4, 1.6, 1.7 and 2.1,
252	respectively (Fig. 1). These changes, however, were not permanent because
253	susceptibility to honey was found to increase during cultivation in honey-free
254	media and during storage at -80°C. MICs of final cultures (Fig. 2 and Table 2)

were close to pre-training MIC values (Fig. 1), except for *E. coli* which remained 1.4 times higher than at the start of the honey resistance training period. It is not known why susceptibility to honey increased in *E.coli* and MRSA during storage at -80°C. The European consensus of a clinically resistant organism is one in which the level of antimicrobial susceptibility has a high likelihood of clinical failure [18]. Since the concentrations of medical-grade manuka honey that are contained in contemporary licensed wound care products usually exceed 80% (w/v) and many are 95% (w/v), the honey susceptibilities found in our experiments are not likely to give rise to clinical failure. Topical application of honey to wounds will invariably result in dilution, depending on the extent of exudation, and concentrations in vivo must always exceed those shown to be inhibitory in vitro by a significant margin. Providing that the concentration of manuka honey in practice exceeds the highest MBC recorded here by a factor of three, the risk of selecting honey-resistant organisms should be low. Regular dressing changes will help to keep levels of manuka honey high, particularly in highly exuding wounds. Maintaining high levels of antimicrobial agents in the wound environment is always necessary to effectively inhibit viable bacteria before resistant strains emerge. For some biocides cytotoxicity may then become a limitation, but this should not be an issue with manuka honey. Our findings confirm and extend those of Blair and colleagues [17]. With increasing topical use of honey in wounds, the possibility of selecting for honey-resistant wound pathogens is raised. This study suggests that this

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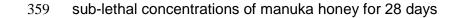
Table 1: Sensitivity of two reference cultures to manuka honey before and

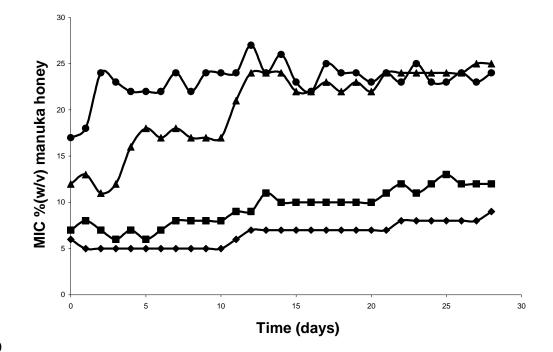
	Mean MIC %(w/v) ± sd (n)		
	P.aeruginosa ATCC 27853	S.aureus NCTC 10017	
Before training	15.7 ± 2.0 (8)	2.8 ± 0.4 (5)	
After training	19.7 ± 1.4 (7)	3.8 ± 0.08 (5)	
p	0.03	>0.05	

after culture in sub-lethal concentrations of honey for 10 successive days.

357 sd = standard deviation; n = number of assays

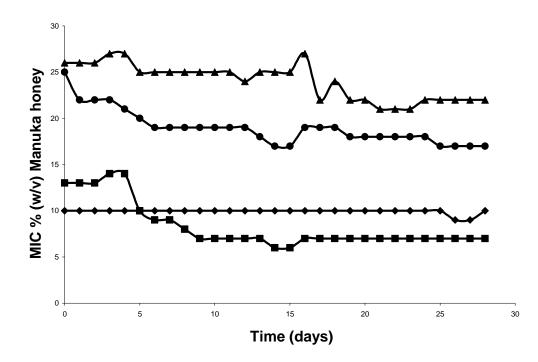
358 Fig.1: Sensitivity of four clinical isolates to manuka honey during exposure to





MICs of manuka honey in subcultures of four clinical isolates during a longterm honey resistance training experiment. Cultures were isolated from patients with chronic wounds: *E. coli* (triangles), MRSA (diamonds), *P. aeruginosa* (circles) and *S. epidermidis* (squares).

Fig. 2: Sensitivity of four clinical isolates to manuka honey during recovery by
 cultivation in nutrient broth following long-term honey-training



MICs of manuka honey in subcultures of four 'honey-trained' clinical isolates during a 28 day recovery period in honey-free media: *E. coli* (triangles),

370 MRSA (diamonds), *P. aeruginosa* (circles) and *S. epidermidis* (squares)

Table 2: Sensitivity of clinical isolates to manuka honey following long-term
exposure, recovery in honey free media and storage at -80°C.

Test organism	MIC*	MBC*	
E. coli	16.17 ± 1.47	18.0 ± 1.67	
MRSA	5.83 ± 1.6	8.5 ± 2.5	
P. aeruginosa	15.33 ± 2.25	15.67 ± 3.2	
S. epidermidis	5.67 ± 1.63	8.33 ± 2.56	
*Mean manuka honey concentration as %(w/v) ± standard deviation (tests			

374 were done in duplicate on three separate occasions)