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Reduced Graphene-Oxide-Embedded Polymeric Nanofiber Mats: An ² "On-Demand" Photothermally Triggered Antibiotic Release 3 Platform

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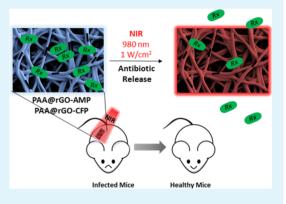
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S Supporting Information 14

ABSTRACT: The steady increase in antimicrobial resistance in different 15 pathogens requires the development of alternative treatment strategies 16 next to the oral delivery of antibiotics. A photothermally activated 17 platform based on reduced graphene oxide (rGO)-embedded polymeric 18 nanofiber mats for on-demand release of antibiotics upon irradiation in 19 the near-infrared is fabricated. Cross-linked hydrophilic nanofibers, 20 obtained by electrospinning a mixture of poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) and 21 rGO, show excellent stability in aqueous media. Importantly, these PAA@ 2.2 rGO nanofiber mats exhibit controlled photothermal heating upon 23 irradiation at 980 nm. Nanofiber mats are efficiently loaded with 24 antibiotics through simple immersion into corresponding antibiotics 25 solutions. Whereas passive diffusion based release at room temperature is 26 extremely low, photothermal activation results in increased release within 27 few minutes, with release rates tunable through power density of the 28



applied irradiation. The large difference over passive and active release, as well as the controlled turn-on of release allows 29

regulation of the dosage of the antibiotics, as evidenced by the inhibition of planktonic bacteria growth. Treatment of superficial 30

skin infections with the antibiotic-loaded nanofiber mats show efficient wound healing of the infected site. Facile fabrication and 31

implementation of these photothermally active nanofiber mats makes this novel platform adaptable for on-demand delivery of 32

33 various therapeutic agents.

KEYWORDS: electrospinning, nanofibers, reduced graphene oxide, antibiotic release, photothermal effect 34

INTRODUCTION 35

36 One of the challenges frequently encountered in traditional 37 methods of drug delivery relates to poor control over proper 38 dosage of therapeutic agent.¹⁻³ Maintaining the drug 39 concentration within a particular therapeutic window and 40 below toxic concentrations is challenging, and lack of efficient 41 treatment can lead to severe side effects, along with the 42 development of drug resistance in cells and pathogens. These 43 problems have fostered the development of different 44 approaches that enable the controlled release of a precisely 45 defined amount of drug, but allow in addition the release of the 46 therapeutic dose on demand, upon the application of an 47 external trigger rather than by passively driven diffusion

processes. In the last decade, several delivery systems have 48 been fabricated to deliver drug locally by controlling release 49 kinetics through utilization of various types of stimuli, either 50 external or intrinsic to the disease site.^{4,5} The capability to tune 51 the physicochemical properties of polymeric nanostructures as 52 well as other advantages such as their stability in vitro and in 53 vivo conditions and good biocompatibility has laid the 54 foundation for the emergence of a large number of polymeric 55 nanosystems for controlled drug release.⁶⁻⁹ 56

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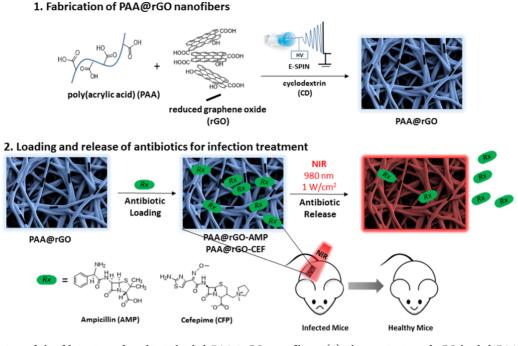


Figure 1. Illustration of the fabrication of antibiotic-loaded PAA@rGO nanofibers: (1) electrospinning of rGO-loaded PAA nanofiber mats followed by (2) loading with different antibiotics and photothermal-triggered antibiotic release.

Over the past decades, there is considerable evidence of the 57 ⁵⁸ benefits polymeric materials as antibiotic delivery plat-⁵⁹ form. ¹⁰⁻¹² Polymeric materials have shown to solve problems 60 related to the solubility of hydrophobic antibiotics, as well as 61 provide a protective coating against environmental degradation 62 and deactivation through the body's clearing mechanisms. The 63 structures proposed range from discrete soluble polymers 64 conjugated with antibiotics¹³ to materials where polymers are 65 chemically or physically assembled in the form of hydro-66 gels,^{14–17} micelles,¹⁸ nanogels,¹⁹ nanoparticles,²⁰ and nano-67 fibers.²¹ Polymeric nanoparticles are well suited for addressing 68 bacterial infections inside the body as the nanometric size of 69 antibiotic-loaded nanoparticles enables efficient penetration 70 through the mucus layer around bacteria biofilms, thus 71 increasing the local concentration of antibiotic in the biofilm.¹ 72 On the other hand, antibiotic-loaded bandages, foams, and 73 dressings are preferential for external applications such for the 74 management of chronic wounds.^{22,23} In this regard, antibiotic-75 loaded nonwoven fibrous materials obtained using polymeric 76 nanofibers could be ideal candidates for wound infection 77 treatment, as they can be directly fabricated in the form of 78 ready-to-apply materials. One of the most commonly 79 encountered challenge in wound healing is infection. Next to 80 iodine- or silver-ion-containing dressing, antibiotic ointments ⁸¹ are regularly used to prevent wound infection.²⁴ In the case of 82 antibiotic ointments, discomfort caused to the patient, along 83 with the chances of developing resistance to antibiotics and 84 contact dermatitis, has put their efficiency into question.²⁵

One attractive alternative as a wound-healing material and a 86 protective scaffold after surgical procedures favoring site-87 specific therapy by increasing the local antibiotic concentration 88 might be the use of antibacterial-loaded nanofiber mats. These 89 polymeric scaffolds are engineered via a polymer-processing 90 technique called electrospinning, which allows usage of a 91 variety of polymers with different chemical composition and 92 morphology.^{26–28} This enables to select the most appropriate 93 material for the intended application and enables tailoring of

drug release profiles.²⁹ Hadjiargyrou and co-workers demon- 94 strated the incorporation of hydrophilic antibiotics (mefoxin 95 and cefoxitin) and their release in a sustained manner from 96 poly(lactide-co-glycolide) nanofiber-based scaffolds obtained 97 using electrospinning, without any compromise in their 98 bioactivity and structure.³⁰ A passive diffusion release of 99 about 70% of loaded cefoxitin was observed in the first hour, 100 and the rest of the loaded antibiotic was released over 1 week. 101 Although the antibiotic that was released from these nanofibers 102 was effective in inhibiting Staphylococcus aureus growth 103 (>90%), burst release is an undesirable feature. To achieve 104 an antibiotic release at the constant rate over a prolonged time 105 period, stimuli-responsive nanofibers have been designed, 106 mainly using pH-based triggers.^{31,32} For example, ciproflox- 107 acin-loaded pH-responsive electrospun nanofibers fabricated 108 from a copolymer of vinyl benzoic acid and vinylbenzyl- 109 trimethylammonium chloride, as reported by Uyar and co- 110 workers, undergo enhanced drug release at pH 5.8. Although 111 external modulation of pH is nontrivial, modulation of 112 temperature is unique, as it can be considered to be either 113 internal stimuli as some infections are naturally at elevated 114 temperature, or to be external through the application or 115 generation of heat in the nanostructure. In the case of 116 polymers, a temperature change can result in rapid swelling of 117 its structures, leading to high volume alterations and thus 118 inducing enhanced drug release.⁷ Some photothermal active 119 nanofibers formed through the incorporation of gold 120 nanostructures,^{33–35} carbon nanotubes,^{36,37} carbon nano- 121 particles, 38 or more recently Cu_2S^{39} have been described. We $_{122}$ have shown lately the interest in reduced graphene-oxide 123 (rGO)-loaded hydrogels for photothermal-initiated insulin 124 release.40 125

Interestingly, although reports of graphene oxide (GO) and 126 rGO-containing nanofibers have emerged in recent years,⁴¹⁻⁴⁴ 127 only one report used the photothermal properties of the 128 resulting nanocomposite,⁴⁵ and showed photothermal erad- 129 ication of captured cancer cells. The photothermally triggered 130

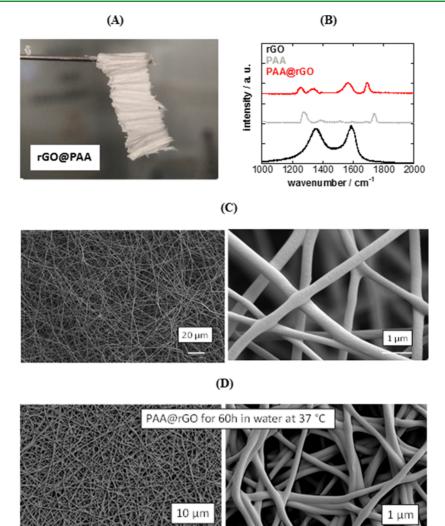


Figure 2. Characterization rGO-loaded PAA nanofiber mats formed by electrospinning: (A) photograph of electrospun PAA@rGO; (B) Raman spectra of rGO (black), PAA (gray), and PAA@GO (red); (C) scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of fabricated PAA@rGO nanofiber mats at different scales; and (D) stability of β -cyclodextrin cross-linked PAA@rGO nanofibers in water at 37 °C for 60 h.

131 release of antibiotics from rGO-containing nanofibers and its 132 use for the treatment of infections has not been explored until 133 now. Herein, we disclose rGO-containing poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) based nanofiber mats (PAA@rGO) for the loading of 134 different antibiotics due to their swelling and noncovalent 135 136 interaction with rGO, as well as demonstrate controlled and 137 on-demand release promoted by near-infrared photothermal 138 heating (Figure 1). To allow facile diffusion of antibiotics 139 under aqueous environment into nanostructures, we opted for 140 the formation of rGO-loaded hydrophilic nanofibers by 141 electrospinning PAA in the presence of cyclodextrin as a 142 cross-linker. These nanofiber mats showed controlled photo-143 thermal heating ability, with the temperature reaching 67 ± 2 144 °C using a light source of 980 nm and 1 W cm⁻¹ power 145 density. The PAA@rGO nanomats showed high loading 146 capability for ampicillin (AMP) and cefepime (CFP) with 147 minimal passive antibiotic release. Ampicillin, part of the 148 aminopenicillin family, was chosen for its favorable structure 149 (aromatic ring together with the presence of amine and acid 150 functional groups), enabling ampicillin to interact with rGO 151 through electrostatic and π -stacking interactions (Figure 1). 152 The same is true for cefepime (CFP), an antibiotic belonging

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to the class of cephalosporin commonly applied for the 153 treatment of bacterial conditions such as pneumonia, kidney, 154 urinal, as well as skin infections. This antibiotic works by 155 simply stopping the growth of bacteria.^{46,47} Enhanced drug 156 release was achieved under irradiation of the antibiotic-loaded 157 PAA@rGO nanofiber mats with near-infrared light at 980 nm, 158 where the antibiotic release rate can be tuned upon using 159 different power densities. In vitro antibacterial assay demon- 160 strates clearly that the released antibiotics did not lose their 161 biological activity to inhibit growth of pathogens. The 162 nanofiber platform could be reloaded with antibiotic and 163 release was achieved in a controlled fashion, thus demonstrat- 164 ing recyclability of the platform. Furthermore, through in vivo 165 studies on S. aureus infected Balb/c mice, the antibiotic-loaded 166 PAA@rGO nanofiber mats demonstrated excellent wound- 167 healing capability, making them viable candidates for clinical 168 applications. 169

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

170

Materials. Poly(acrylic acid) (PAA, $M_n = 450\,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$), 171 hydrazine, β -cyclodextrin, phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4) 172 and cefepime were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ampicillin (AMP) 173 174 was obtained from Fisher BioReagents (BP1760-25). Graphene oxide 175 (GO) in powder form was purchased from Graphenea (Spain).

176 **Characterizations and Photothermal Setup.** Details of 177 characterization techniques and instrumental details for photothermal 178 setup employed in this study can be found in the Supplementary 179 Information.

180 Fabrication of rGO-Loaded PAA Nanofiber (PAA@rGO). A 181 GO precursor was chemically reduced to reduced graphene oxide (rGO) using hydrazine according to a procedure previously reported 182 183 by us. 40,48 Briefly, GO aqueous suspension (5 mL, 0.5 mg mL⁻¹) was 184 treated with hydrazine (0.50 mL, 32.1 mM) at 100 °C for 24 h. After 185 this time, the reduced GO gradually precipitates. Filtration through a poly(vinylidene difluoride) membrane (0.45 μ m pore size) is used to 186 collect the product. Obtained residue is washed with copious amounts 187 of water $(5 \times 20 \text{ mL})$ and methanol $(5 \times 20 \text{ mL})$. Finally, the product 188 189 is dried in an oven for 18 h at 100 °C. Thereafter, to rGO aqueous 190 suspension (1.2 mL, 2.5 mg mL⁻¹) was added PAA (100 mg) and β -191 cyclodextrin (20 mg) and the resulting mixture was stirred for 24 h at 192 room temperature. This corresponds to rGO (2.4 wt %), PAA (81.4 193 wt %), and β -cyclodextrin (16.2 wt %). Clear polymer solution of 194 PAA, β -cyclodextrin, and rGO was electrospun using a 1 mL syringe 195 fitted with a 14-gauge blunt needle at the rate of 0.005 mL min⁻¹ with 196 15 kW. The distance was kept at 15 cm during the electrospinning 197 process. Resulting electrospun fibers were cross-linked under vacuum 198 at 140 °C for 30 min.

Loading of Antibiotics onto Nanofibers. Antibiotics loading 199 200 into the nanofibers was achieved by immersing the nanofiber mat (4 201 mg) into the aqueous solution of ampicillin (80–400 μ g mL⁻¹) or cefepime (80–400 μ g mL⁻¹) and shaking (150 rpm) at 4 °C for 72 h. 202 The concentration of ampicillin and cefepime loaded into the 2.03 204 nanofibers was determined from the absorption intensity of the AMP 205 and cefepime remaining in the solution using high-performance liquid 206 chromatogram (HPLC). Ampicillin and cefepime calibration curves were obtained using a series of antibiotic-containing solutions (1-100)207 $\mu g m L^{-1}$) (Figure S2). 208

Photothermal-Triggered Antibiotics Release. Antibiotic 209 210 release was assessed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (1 mL, pH 211 7.4) through direct irradiation of the nanofibers using a continuous 212 wave laser at 980 nm at varying power densities $(1-2 \text{ W cm}^{-2})$ for 213 several minutes. The amount of antibiotics released was determined 214 from HPLC results of the solution collected after irradiation using 215 previously established calibrations curves (Figure S2). Control 216 experiments were carried out in an environmentally controlled 217 cabin at 37 °C, and the samples were gently shaken during incubation. Wound Healing and Histology. Full details of the study can be 218 219 found in the Supplementary Information. Briefly, 6-8-week-old male 220 Balb/c mice were used for this study. The superficial skin damaged infection model was performed as described by us previously⁴⁹ with 221 222 some modifications. After removing the fur, a plaster was applied to 223 the mouse skin (1 cm²) several times to remove the superficial 224 epidermis. The skin damaged was visible and characterized by 225 reddening and glistening but no regular bleeding. Then, 10 μ L of S. 226 aureus bacterial cells (4×10^7 cfu mL⁻¹) were applied to the skin and allowed to dry for 10 min. Superficial skin infection established after 2.2.7 24 h and PAA- or cefepime-loaded PAA@rGO nanofiber mats were 228 applied to the skin of the anesthetized mice. Untreated mice were 229 used as control. The mat was irradiated for 10 min with a near-230 231 infrared light-emitting diode (LED) array ($6 \times 6 \text{ mm}^2$ in size, 8 W, 232 2A, 940 nm), previously shown to be a safe condition for animals.⁴⁵ 233 The temperature was monitored by an infrared camera (Thermovision A40). Mice were photographed and images were processed with 234 ImageJ software to detect erythema, and its area before and after a 24 235 236 h treatment was evaluated. After 24 h, the mice were sacrificed and 237 the skin was removed and subjected to histological analysis.

238 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

Fabrication and Characterization of rGO-Containing Nanofibers. First, rGO-containing PAA nanofibers were obtained through electrospinning of an aqueous dispersion of rGO (2.4 wt %), PAA (81.4 wt %), and β-cyclodextrin (16.2 wt 242 %) as a cross-linker (Figure 1). Upon electrospinning, a free 243 standing mat of electrospun fibers is obtained (Figure 2A). 244 f2 Raman spectra of PAA and PAA@rGO were recorded to 245 confirm the incorporation of rGO into the nanofibers (Figure 246 2B). Raman analysis revealed the presence of the expected 247 bands at $\approx 1350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (D-band) and $\approx 1580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (G-band) 248 due to the defects and disorders, and the graphitized structure 249 of rGO, respectively (Figure 2B). The I_D/I_G intensity ratio was 250 found to be 0.93 for rGO. The PAA fibers did show a Raman 251 band at 1728 cm⁻¹ assigned to C=O functional groups, 252 whereas the bands at 1235 and 1285 cm⁻¹ are ascribed to 253 -CH₂- bonds.⁵⁰ In the case of PAA@rGO, the bands of rGO 254 are identifiable in the Raman spectrum. Additionally, Fourier 255 transform infrared (FTIR) and X-ray photoelectron spectros- 256 copy (XPS) spectra of PAA@rGO were obtained, where the 257 FTIR analysis did not provide any information about rGO 258 incorporation due to its low amount, but the presence of 259 delocalized π -electrons was evident in the XPS spectra (C 1s 260 scan) (Figure S3). 261

To ensure long-term stability in the aqueous media of the 262 hydrophobic PAA@rGO nanofibers, the fibers were cross- 263 linked to prevent their dissolution. As reported earlier, β - 264 cyclodextrin, a molecule containing multiple hydroxyl groups 265 can be efficiently used to cross-link the PAA polymer upon 266 heat treatment under vacuum for 30 min.⁵¹ The morphology 267 of the resulting cross-linked PAA@rGO nanofibers was probed 268 using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figure 2C shows 269 the formation of dense mats of interwoven nanofibers 400 \pm 270 150 nm in diameter. Furthermore, the integration of rGO did 271 not alter the morphology of the nanofibers (see the Supporting 272 Information, Figure S1). The stability of the cross-linked 273 PAA@rGO nanofibers was validated by immersing them into 274 aqueous solutions for several days at 37 °C. From the SEM 275 images in Figure 2D, it is evident that the cross-linked PAA@ 276 rGO nanofibers preserve their nanostructures and no 277 dissolution of the fiber networks occurs even after immersion 278 for days. 279

After fabrication, the photothermal properties of the PAA@ 280 rGO nanofiber mats were explored (Figure 3A). Whereas PAA 281 f3 displayed only a negligible photothermal heating, direct 282 irradiation of PAA@rGO (4 mg immersed in 1 mL PBS) 283 with a continuous wave laser at 980 nm (1 W cm⁻²) for 5 min 284 results in a surface temperature of about 67 \pm 2 °C. Even 285 decreasing the laser power density to 0.5 W cm⁻² showed a 286

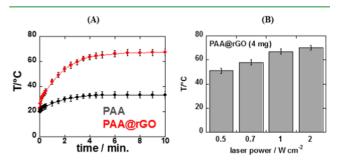


Figure 3. Photothermal properties of cross-linked PAA@rGO: (A) photothermal heating curves of PAA (gray) and PAA@rGO (red) nanofiber patches (4 mg) immersed in PBS (0.1 M, pH 7.4) and irradiated at 980 nm (1 W cm⁻²) for 10 min and (B) temperature profile of PAA@rGO nanofiber mats upon 10 min irradiation at varying power densities.

287 rapid increase in the surface temperature of PAA@rGO 288 nanofibers, reaching saturation at approximately $51 \pm 2 \ ^{\circ}C$ 289 within 5 min in a wet environment. No melting of nanofibers 290 occurred under the used conditions, thus preserving the 291 structural integrity of the fibrous mats. Thus, with modulation 292 of laser power density, these nanofiber mats exhibited 293 controlled photothermal heating ability within a temperature 294 range from 20 to $67 \pm 2 \ ^{\circ}C$.

Loading and Release of Antibiotics into Nanofibers. 296 Integration of antibiotics into the cross-linked PAA@rGO 297 nanofiber mats was achieved by simply immersing the 298 nanofibers into the aqueous solution of ampicillin or cefepime 299 in water at 4 °C for 72 h. Both antibiotics contain aromatic 300 structures together with amino and carboxylic acid functional 301 groups, thus promoting their interaction with rGO through 302 $\pi-\pi$ stacking and/or electrostatic interactions. The loading 303 capacity of PAA@rGO nanofibers for AMP and cefepime was 304 determined from the amount of the antibiotic in the solution 305 before and after loading using HPLC. The loading capacity of 306 PAA@rGO for ampicillin and cefepime is comparable as seen 307 in Figure 4A. Using the solution concentration of 400 μ g mL⁻¹

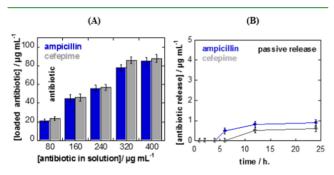


Figure 4. (A) Loading capacity of PAA@rGO nanofiber mats (4 mg) with ampicillin and cefepime upon incubation for 24 h into PBS (0.1 M, pH 7.4) under shaking at different drug concentration. (B) Passive release from antibiotic-loaded cross-linked PAA@rGO nanofibers when immersed in 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.4) for 24 h at 37 °C.

308 of the antibiotics resulted in the loading of about 85 \pm 3 μ g $_{309} \text{ mL}^{-1}$ (21%) and 89 ± 3 µg mL⁻¹ (22%) for ampicillin and 310 cefepime, respectively. Ampicillin has a pK₂ \approx 4–5 (COOH) 311 and pKa ≈ 9 (NH₂), making it zwitterionic at physiological 312 pH. A fair amount of the amine groups are positively ionized at 313 physiological pH and this promotes their interaction with the 314 PAA@rGO nanofiber mats $(pK_a \approx 4.5)$.⁵² The quaternary 315 ammonium group of the N-methylpyrrolidine groups in 316 cefepime (Figure 1) makes the drug positively charged and 317 results in interaction with the ionized carboxylic acid groups in 318 PAA and negatively charged rGO that has a ζ -potential of -50 \pm 2 mV. Due to their hydrophilic nature, it can be expected 319 320 that the nanofibers swell in aqueous media and thus load the antibiotics efficiently. Remarkably, the passive release from the 321 322 antibiotic-loaded PAA@rGO nanofibers, PAA@rGO-AMP, 323 and PAA@rGO-CFP, was found to be negligible. For the first 324 5 h, the amount of antibiotic release was below the detection 325 limit of the HPLC analysis. After 24 h incubation in PBS (0.1 326 M, pH 7.4) about $0.8 \pm 0.1\%$ was released via passive diffusion 327 (Figure 4B).

Encouraged by the excellent stability of the PAA@rGO to properties of the PAA@rGO nanofiber mat to trigger the drug release. Figure 5A shows the release profiles for ampicillin as

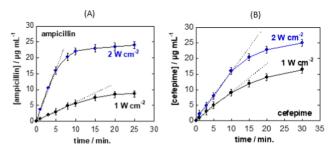


Figure 5. Photothermal-triggered antibiotics' release for PAA@rGO nanofibers: (A) release profile of ampicillin from a PAA@rGO nanofibers loaded with ampicillin $(25 \,\mu g \, mL^{-1})$ when activated at 980 nm at 2 and 1 W cm⁻² and (B) release profile of cefepime from PAA@rGO nanofibers loaded with cefepime (25 $\mu g \, mL^{-1})$ when activated at 980 nm at 2 and 1 W cm⁻².

well as cefepime upon irradiating PAA@rGO nanofibers 332 loaded with ampicillin (25 μ g mL⁻¹) and cefepime (25 μ g 333 mL⁻¹) with NIR light. Using a laser power density of 2 W 334 cm⁻² results in an almost complete release of ampicillin (24 μ g 335 mL⁻¹; \approx 96% of loaded ampicillin) with a release rate of 3.2 μ g 336 mL⁻¹ min⁻¹, which can be lowered to 0.5 μ g mL⁻¹ min⁻¹ using 337 a phototrigger of 1 W cm⁻². The released ampicillin 338 concentrations are much larger than the minimum inhibitory 339 concentration (MIC) value of ampicillin for Gram-negative 340 *Escherichia coli* K12 (Table 1). Ampicillin shows no activity for 341 t1 *S. aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. 342

Table 1. Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations of Ampicillin and Cefepime for Different Bacteria Strains

antibiotic	MIC ₅₀ /µg mL ⁻ E. coliK12)	$= MIC_{50}/\mu g mL^{-1} (S.$ <i>ureus</i> ATCC 25923)	$MIC_{50}/\mu g mL^{-1}$ (S. epidermidis)	Ţ
ampicillin cefepime	4.9 ± 0.5 1.1 ± 0.3	4.1 ± 0.8	10 ± 1.8	

In the case of cefepime-loaded nanofiber mats, photothermal 343 activation of the fibers with 2 W cm⁻² leads to a complete 344 release of the entrapped antibiotic (25 μ g mL⁻¹) in a time 345 frame of \approx 25 min, with a release rate of 1.36 μ g mL⁻¹ min⁻¹ 346 for cefepime for the first 10 min. The release rate can be tuned 347 upon using a lower power density: using a laser power of 1 W 348 cm⁻², the release rate of cefepime decreased to 0.91 μ g mL⁻¹ 349 min⁻¹. Importantly, no burst release was observed in any of 350 these examples and the maximal amount released is about 351 twice of the MIC value for cefepime for *S. epidermidis* and 352 several times larger than the MIC value for cefepime for *E. coli* 353 K12 and *S. aureus* ATCC 25923 (Table 1).

Antibacterial Activity under Passive and Active 355 Release. Although ampicillin has sufficient stability in the 356 dry state, it is only short lived in a solution. Following 357 photothermal-triggered ampicillin release, their antibiotic 358 efficiency was assessed by determining the titer of viable 359 bacteria able to grow. Figure 6A shows the change in OD₆₀₀ 360 f6 values upon E. coli K12 incubation with different ampicillin- 361 released samples at 1 W cm $^{-2}$. In agreement with the 362 photothermal release profile (Figure 5A), about 2.5 μ g mL⁻¹ 363 of ampicillin are released in the first minute, below the MIC₅₀ 364 value, whereas 6.8 μ g mL⁻¹ ampicillin (above the MIC₅₀ value) 365 was released after 3 min, resulting in the inhibition of E. coli 366 growth. This underlines the fact that the photothermal- 367 triggered ampicillin release does not effect the biological 368 activity of the antibiotic. 369

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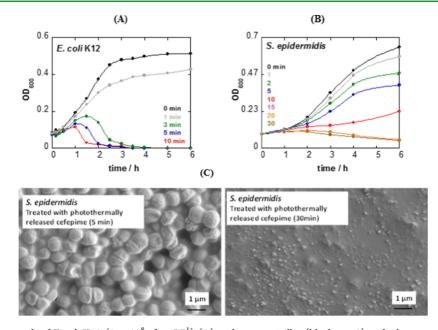


Figure 6. (A) Planktonic growth of *E. coli* K12 (1×10^8 cfu mL⁻¹) (A) without ampicillin (black, t = 0) and when treated with ampicillin released photothermally from PAA@rGO nanofiber mats at different time intervals corresponding to Figure 5A. (B) Planktonic growth of *S. epidermisis* without cefepime (black, t = 0) and when treated with cefepime released photothermally from PAA@rGO nanofiber mats at different time intervals corresponding to Figure 5B. (C) SEM images of *S. epidermidis* treated with cefepime photothermally released from PAA@rGO nanofiber mats for 5 and 30 min.

Whereas ampicillin is only effective toward Gram-negative E. 370 371 coli K12, cefepime is active for Gram-negative and Gram-372 positive strains, with a higher MIC for S. epidermidis strain. S. 373 epidermidis are known to be one of the most frequently encountered skin-colonizing bacteria and the predominant 374 causes of nosocomial and community-associated skin in-375 376 fections. As expected, cefepime doses proved to be active 377 against S. epidermidis. Cefepime released from cefepime-loaded 378 nanofibers shows a release-dependent killing effect on S. 379 epidermidis in accordance with the release profile determined in 380 Figure 5B. Figure 6C shows the SEM images of S. epidermidis 381 treated with photothermally released cefepime. Whereas the 382 amount of cefepime is below the MIC value after 5 min and 383 does not effect in any way the S. epidermidis growth, the 384 pathogen is completely destroyed above the MIC value (corresponding to times >10 min). This indicates that the 385 developed approach can be easily adapted for any desired 386 387 antibiotic to eliminate a particular bacterial strain.

In addition to sustained antibiotic release, an important feature of any drug-release system is its reusability. Reloading of PAA@rGO with ampicillin or cefepime, as well as photothermally induced release could be attained with the similar efficiency over several cycles (Figure 7). Apart from just he possibility of reuse, the multiple loadings and release of antibiotics also demonstrate that the extent of upload and release is highly reproducible for these nanofibrous mats.

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Infectious Wound-Healing Studies Using rGO Nano-396 fibers. There are different experimental models of skin 397 infections that are caused by S. aureus. 53,54 In our research, 398 the bacteria were directly applied on the previously damaged 399 skin. The tape-stripping approach, one of the most common 400 models for the generation of superficial skin infection in 401 402 mice,⁵⁵ was used here, as it allows to establish superficial 403 infections in the epidermis, as well as the upper layer of the 404 dermis. We monitored the skin infection progress in three 405 animal groups: those treated with skin application of cefepime-

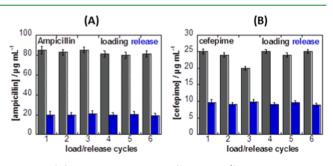
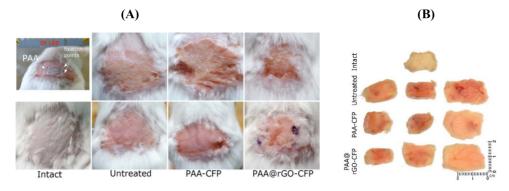
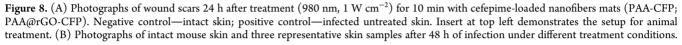


Figure 7. (A) Loading of ampicillin $(85 \ \mu g \ mL^{-1})$ and the amount of photothermally released ampicillin after 10 min laser irradiation (1 W cm⁻¹). (B) Loading of cefepime (25 $\mu g \ mL^{-1})$ and release of cefepime when activated at 980 nm at 2 W cm⁻².

loaded either PAA (PAA-CFP) or PAA@rGO (PAA@rGO- 406 CFP) nanofiber mats and untreated mice (controls). The 407 treatment in all groups started 24 h following the infection 408 induction. Figure 8 displays images of the noninfected- and 409 f8 infected-wound groups untreated and treated with antibiotic- 410 loaded nanofiber mats 48 h after infection initiation. The 411 dressing (white arrows) was applied tightly to the wound area. 412 The untreated areas and those treated with cefepime-loaded 413 PAA nanofiber mats (PAA-CFP) and light activated for 10 min 414 to release the antibiotics revealed inflammation and areas with 415 abundant edema, erythema, and bacterial infiltration/pus. 416 Blood vascularization and bacterial infiltration are in addition 417 detected in the untreated groups and cefepime-loaded PAA 418 fiber mats without embedded rGO (Figure 8B). This is in 419 contrast to cefepime-loaded PAA@rGO mats, wherein the 420 photothermal treatment prevented the bacteria from spreading 421 (Figure 8A). Infected layers after 10 min illumination with a 422 LED array through the antibiotic-loaded PAA@rGO nanofiber 423 mats (PAA@rGO-CFP) show signs of resolution of inflam- 424 mation (Figure 8A) and reduced blood vascularization and 425 bacterial infiltration (Figure 8B). No damage to skin was 426





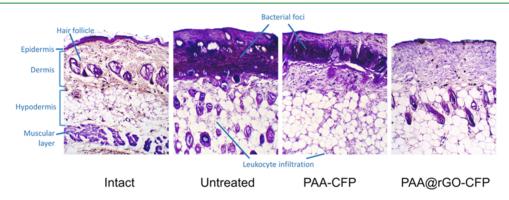


Figure 9. Histological examination of skin wound healing 48 h after the infection. Sections of skin tissues with Gram staining. Intact mouse skin; untreated skin (after infection); and photothermally treated infected skin part of the wound (PAA-CFP and PAA@rGO-CFP).

427 observed with LED illumination of the PAA@rGO nanofiber 428 patch during the in vivo experiments, as the skin surface 429 temperature was kept maximal at 52 °C. This is opposed to 430 skin heating up to 67 °C when tissue damage could be 431 observed in-meat samples (Figure S4).

432 Histological section of a representative skin specimen 433 (harvested at day 2 postinfection) after Gram staining (Figure 434 9) showed that *S. aureus* was superficially localized in the 435 epidermis and penetrated the dermis layers of untreated and 436 PAA-CFP skin samples. In addition, the-leukocytic infiltration 437 was abundant in the deep layer of hypodermis, indicating 438 abundant bacterial presence. However, the infected wound 439 irradiated through the antibiotic-loaded PAA@rGO patch for 440 10 min indicated active wound healing without marks of 441 inflammation and bacterial foci. Epidermis revealed signs of 442 active regeneration. Thus, it could be concluded that the 443 topical application of PAA@rGO-CFP mats for photothermal 444 therapy exhibited the best wound-healing capability among 445 those tested.

446 CONCLUSIONS

447 In summary, a novel nanofiber-based platform for "on-448 demand" release of antibiotics is fabricated using rGO-449 containing polymeric nanofibers. The rGO-embedded hydro-450 philic nanofibers obtained using solution electrospinning are 451 loaded with two different antibiotics, namely, ampicillin and 452 cefepime. Although negligible release of antibiotic is observed 453 under physiological conditions, exposure to NIR irradiation 454 leads to release amounts sufficient to kill Gram-positive and 455 Gram-negative bacteria alike. A clear correlation between the 456 NIR-triggered antibiotic release and bactericidal activity is observed. It can be anticipated that the facile fabrication and 457 modular nature of the construct reported here provides a 458 platform that can be adapted for on-demand delivery of various 459 drugs for combating different diseases. Although only two 460 specific antibiotics were chosen in this study, the platform is 461 amenable to loading of other antibiotics, either solo or in 462 combination to combat a plethora of bacterial infections. 463

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the 466 ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.8b14784. 467

SEM images of fabricated PAA nanofiber mats at 468 different scales, HPLC plot, and calibration curves of 469 antibiotic release studies, FTIR and XPS of PAA@rGO 470 and images of skin samples treated with NIR irradiation 471 (PDF) 472

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487 The manuscript was written through contributions of all the 488 authors.

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495 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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