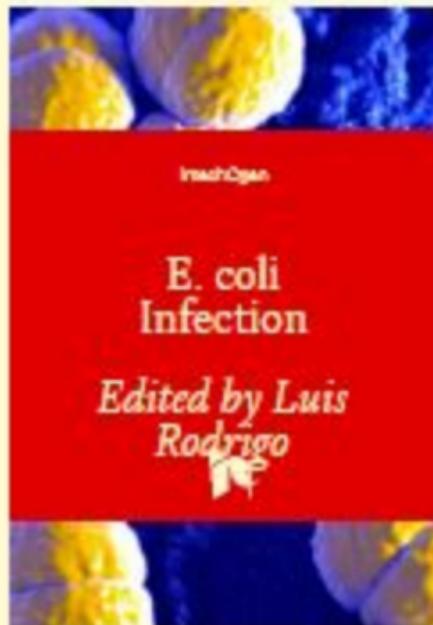


E. coli Infection



E. COLI INFECTION

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02 Disinfection Efficiencies of
03 UV-LED Irradiation on *E. coli*
04 in Water05 *Paul Onkundi Nyangaresi, Baoping Zhang and Liang Shen*

06 Abstract

07 Ultraviolet light-emitting diode (UV-LED) is a newly emerging UV light source
08 with a potential of replacing the conventional chemical methods, mercury UV
09 lamps and xenon lamps in water disinfection applications. In this chapter, we will
10 first give a general description on the status of *E. coli* disinfection in water by
11 UV-LEDs. Then the main text will concentrate on our experimental studies. We will
12 discuss the effects of single and combined UV-LED irradiation on *E. coli* in water,
13 including the inactivation efficiency, the recover percentage after the UV-LED
14 irradiation, the best wavelength for low energy consumption, differences in pulsed
15 and continuous operations of UV-LEDs, effect of UVA-LED followed by UVC-LED
16 irradiation and vice versa, and finally the effect of TiO₂ photo-catalyst.

17 **Keywords:** UV-LED, disinfection, photolytic, photocatalytic, simultaneous,
18 sequential, synergistic effect, electrical energy efficiency

19 1. Introduction

20 Millions of people including children die every year from infectious diseases
21 caused by various waterborne pathogens [1]. Among the pathogens, a group of
22 bacteria called *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) is one of the known carrier of the diseases
23 such as diarrhea, urinary tract infections, respiratory illness, pneumonia [2]. Since
24 *E. coli* are typically found in the environment, foods and intestines of humans and
25 animals, they have been widely used as fecal indicator bacteria in water quality
26 analysis [3]. Numerous countries and world organizations put a limit count of zero
27 per 100 ml *E. coli* for drinking water. Pass this limit, it is an indication of the
28 presence of faecally related pathogens in water, and hence a potential risk of high
29 level of microbial waterborne disease outbreak [4]. Therefore, different water dis-
30 infection methods have been employed in inactivation of the *E. coli* either in labo-
31 ratory tests or in water disinfection plants. Among the different methods,
32 conventional use of chemicals such as chlorine can lead to introduction of
33 disinfectant-resistance to bacteria [5], change of water taste and production of odor
34 [6] and harmful disinfection by-products (DBPs) such as trihalomethane (THM)
35 compounds, and haloacetic acids (HAAs) that are carcinogenic, mutagenic and
36 reproductive toxicants [7]. Ozone is reported as an effective alternative disinfectant
37 to chlorine due to its ability of reducing microbiological challenge to downstream
38 disinfection. However, the ozone is also known in forming by-products, particularly

01 bromate [4], that can cause irreversible effects on humans such as renal failure and
02 deafness [8]. The latest water disinfection method employs the use of ultraviolet
03 (UV) light irradiation whose wavelength ranges from 200 to 400 nm. The UV light
04 irradiation is currently attracting extensive attention in water and wastewater
05 disinfection because of it is DBPs-free, and no need of chemicals that can cause
06 ecological problems [9].

07 UV light is usually divided into four regions: vacuum (V) UV (100–200 nm),
08 UV-C (200–280 nm), UV-B (280–315 nm) and UV-A (315–400 nm) [10]. Note
09 that, water and air absorb all wavelengths below 190 nm. Therefore, only the
10 wavelengths between 190 and 380 nm can be used for biological effects [11].
11 Absorption of UV light by deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid
12 (RNA) of a microorganism or virus inhibits its normal replication leading to cell
13 death [12]. However, the UV damaged DNA of some microorganisms particularly
14 *E. coli* bacterium is known to undergo repair by mechanisms such as photo-repair
15 that requires light in the 300–500 nm wavelength range to activate a photolyase
16 enzyme and dark repair that is light independent [13, 14]. This can greatly decrease
17 the UV light disinfection efficiency hence posing a great chance of health risks of
18 infection. The common UV light sources include: the sun, mercury pressure lamps,
19 xenon lamps and newly emerging UV-light emitting diodes (UV-LEDs). Although
20 the sun gives a cheap and green natural source of light, it is mostly unreliable and
21 only UVA, and approximately 10% of UVB light reaches the earth's surface [15].
22 Mercury pressure lamps which exists in two types: low pressure (LP) and medium
23 pressure (MP) mercury lamps emitting a monochromatic emission at a wavelength
24 of 254 nm and polychromatic emission light at a broad range of wavelengths,
25 185–600 nm respectively [12], are the commonly used UV light sources in the
26 current water disinfection systems [16]. However, these lamps are usually charac-
27 terized with fixed wavelengths and limitations like short bulb lifetime, low energy
28 efficiency, high operating temperatures and environmental pollution due to mer-
29 cury [17]. On the other hand, xenon lamps are characterized by a broad range of
30 wavelength (200–1100 nm), with 40% being UV consisting of UVC, UVB and UVA
31 of about 20%, 8% and 12%, respectively [18]. Therefore, the xenon lamp can exhibit
32 both photochemical effect due to the effect of the UV light, photophysical and
33 photothermal effects due to its high intense pulses [19]. The three multi-target
34 effects can lead to complete destruction of the cell wall and the nucleic acid struc-
35 ture of a microorganism [20]. In addition, the xenon lamps have high penetration,
36 high energy conversion, no pre-heating is needed, faster start-up and no ozone
37 generation [21]. Although the xenon lamp exhibits the above mentioned advantages
38 over the sun and mercury pressure lamps, they have a high energy demand which is
39 un-preferable especially in developing countries. The lamps are also limited in
40 adjusting the duty rates and pulse frequency due to overheating hence affecting
41 disinfection efficiency [22]. The newly emerging UV-LEDs are characterized with
42 diversity in wavelengths within the UV range and have advantages such as envi-
43 ronmental friendly (no mercury), compact and durable, faster start-up time,
44 potential less energy consumption, longer lifetime, and a similar characteristic as
45 xenon lamps of high frequency switching [23–25].

46 Therefore, due to their characteristics and advantages, the UV-LEDs have a high
47 potential of replacing the other aforementioned UV light sources in water disinfec-
48 tion applications as demonstrated in literature [23, 26–28]. In addition, UV-LED
49 reactors can best be utilized in small scale, which is convenient especially in remote
50 areas since they can be photovoltaic powered [29–31]. Although the wall plug
51 efficiency (WPE) of UV mercury lamps (15–35%) is higher than that of UV-LEDs
52 (< 10%), the latter is expected to be improved significantly, being similar to the
53 case seen in visible LEDs whose WPE is currently around 80% [32, 33]. In water

01 disinfection, the UV-LED irradiation can be applied in two modes: (i) pulsed light
02 (PL) and (ii) continuous wave (CW) mode. Whereas PL irradiation is a fast non-
03 thermal technology for decontamination based on the application of short pulses of
04 high intensity of light [22], CW application on the other hand is based on the
05 application of low light intensity [34]. Furthermore, the diverse nature of the UV-
06 LED wavelengths allows for tailored irradiation in which the wavelengths can be
07 irradiated at the same time (simultaneous) or one after the other (sequential).
08 During the disinfection applications, the mechanism of the two irradiation modes
09 can either be photolytic or photocatalytic. In photolytic disinfection, only UV light
10 is involved such that the absorbed photons inactivate the pathogen in question [12].
11 Meanwhile, photocatalytic disinfection involves combining UV light and a
12 photocatalyst such as TiO₂, that has the ability to absorb UV light of appropriate
13 photon energy (Eq. (1)), and in an air-saturated or water environment, radicals
14 such as OH• and •O₂⁻ that are highly toxic towards microorganisms are produced
15 [35]. Therefore, this chapter discusses effects of single and combined UV-LED
16 irradiation on *E. coli* in water, including inactivation efficiency, recover percentage
17 after the UV-LED irradiation, the best wavelength for low energy consumption,
18 differences in PL and CW operations of UV-LEDs, effect of UVA- followed by
19 UVC-LED irradiation and vice versa, and finally the effect of TiO₂ photo-catalyst.

$$E = h \frac{c}{\lambda} \quad (1)$$

AQ01 20 where E is the photon energy, h is the plank's constant = 6.63×10^{-34} J s, c is
21 the speed of light in a vacuum = 3.0×10^8 m/s and λ is the wavelength of the UV
22 light (m).

23 **2. Indices of inactivation and repair performance for UV-LED** 24 **disinfection**

25 **2.1 Evaluation of inactivation**

26 *2.1.1 Inactivation efficiencies*

27 The inactivation efficiency of *E. coli* was analyzed by calculating log inactivation
28 using Eq. (2).

$$\text{Log inactivation} = \text{Log} \left(\frac{N_0}{N} \right) \quad (2)$$

29 where N₀ and N are the colony count (CFU/mL) before and immediately after
30 inactivation, respectively.

31 *2.1.2 Synergistic inactivation efficiencies*

32 Synergistic effect of combined wavelengths on the *E. coli* inactivation is com-
33 pared from the results of log inactivation by combined UV-LEDs and the results
34 from the sum of log inactivation by individual UV-LEDs. Therefore, the synergy
35 values were calculated using the relation:

36 Synergy (Log units) = Log inactivation by combined UV-LEDs – Sum of log
37 inactivation by individual UV-LEDs.

01 **2.2 Evaluation of repair**

02 *2.2.1 Repair efficiencies*

03 The percentage of repair either due to photo-repair or dark repair was quantified
04 using Eq. (3) [36].

$$\text{Percentage of repair (\%)} = \frac{N_t - N}{N_0 - N} \cdot 100\% \quad (3)$$

05 where N_0 is the cell number before UV irradiation (CFU/mL), N is the immedi-
06 ate cell number after UV irradiation (CFU/mL), N_t is the cell number after repair
07 for a period of time, t (CFU/mL).

08 In addition, the repair can be expressed as a function of the survival ratio
09 (Eq. (4)) in respect of the initial microorganism concentration before the
10 inactivation process [37].

$$S = \frac{N_t}{N_0} \cdot 100\% \quad (4)$$

11 where S is the survival ratio at time t (%); N_0 and N_t have the same meaning as
12 above.

13 *2.2.2 Repair kinetics*

14 *2.2.2.1 Modeling photo-repair*

15 A non-linear regression model was used to model photo-repair (Eq. (5))
16 [38, 39].

$$S = \frac{S_m}{1 + \left(\frac{S_m}{S_0} - 1\right) \cdot e^{-k_2 \cdot S_m \cdot t}} \quad (5)$$

17 where S_m is the maximum limit of the microorganisms' survival by repair and S_0
18 is the survival ratio immediately after UV irradiation, k_2 is the growth second-order
19 repair rate constant.

20 Note that k_2 is not a pure repair rate constant, it is rather a model parameter
21 that is adjusted to predict the experimental data whose physical meaning is related
22 to the time required to reach S_m and then the stabilization phase [38, 39]. Therefore,
23 a pure repair rate constant, K (Eq. (6)) can be obtained from the derivatives of
24 Eq. (5) and its maximum value, K_{\max} (Eq. (7)) is obtained when S reaches half of
25 S_m [40].

$$K = \frac{ds}{dt} = k_2(S_m - S) \cdot S \quad (6)$$

$$K_{\max} = \frac{k_2(S_m)^2}{4} \quad (7)$$

26 *2.2.2.2 Modeling dark repair*

27 A model that considers a low and brief repair period and a decay phase was used
28 in modeling dark repair (Eq. (8)) [38, 39].

$$S = \frac{S_m}{1 + \left(\frac{S_m}{S_0} - 1\right) \cdot e^{-k_2 \cdot S_m \cdot t}} - M \cdot t \quad (8)$$

01 where M is the mortality, a zero-order decay rate constant, while the other
 02 parameters have the same meaning as in Eq. (5). Note that, S, S_m, S₀, k₂, M and t in
 03 Eqs. (5) and (8) have a clear physical significance.

04 2.3 UV-LED technical parameters

05 2.3.1 Emission spectrum and optical power

06 The action spectrum of a microorganism is directly related to the LED emission
 07 spectrum i.e., wavelength and the FWHM [41–44]. Therefore, determination of
 08 LED emission spectrum before any experimental study is crucial. In this chapter,
 09 UV-LEDs with emissions at 265, 280, 310 and 365 nm, optical power of 1.8, 1.6, 1.3,
 10 100 mW respectively at current of 20, 20, 20, 350 mA achieved at voltages of 6.0,
 11 4.0, 6.0 and 4.0 V respectively (Great Bright Company, China) were used. The
 12 optical power was measured by an integrating sphere. Meanwhile the emission
 13 spectra measured with Spectro 320 Optical Scanning Spectrometer exhibited peak
 14 wavelengths at 267, 275, 310 and 370 nm with full widths at half-maximum of about
 15 12, 10, 9 and 8 nm respectively (**Figure 1**).

16 2.3.2 Fluence measurement

17 The log inactivation of most pathogens is proportional to applied UV light
 18 fluence as given in Eq. (9), where k is the inactivation rate constant that varies from
 19 one microorganism to another.

$$\text{Log inactivation} = k \cdot \text{Fluence} \quad (9)$$

20 Therefore, determination of fluence is critical for UV-LED disinfection applica-
 21 tions. The common UV fluence determination methods include: Radiometry and
 22 chemical actinometry (iodide-iodate (KI) and ferrioxalate (FeO_x) actinometry). For
 23 UV-LEDs, fluence determination protocol employing the two methods for pathogen

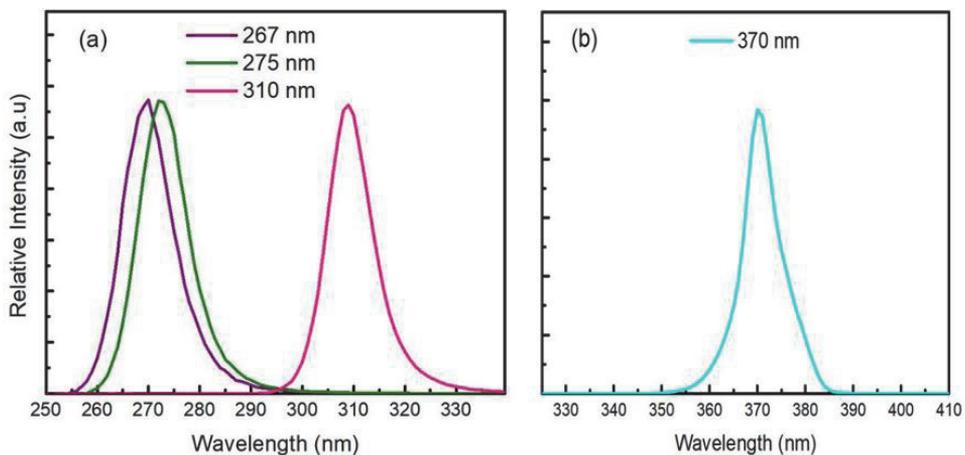


Figure 1.
 Emission spectra from the (a) 267, 275, 310 and (b) 370 nm UV-LEDs.

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01 inactivation is well described in [45]. Therefore, this chapter employed radiometry
 02 only in the UV-LED fluence determination.

03 Average incident irradiance, \overline{E}_0 (mW/cm²) was first determined at the same
 04 water surface level (1 mm) from the UV-LEDs using IL-1700 radiometer with SED
 05 270 detector (International Light, USA). Average fluence \overline{F}_0 (mJ/cm²) inside the
 06 Petri dish was then calculated using Eq. (10) [45].

$$\overline{F}_0 = \frac{\overline{E}_0 \cdot PF \cdot DF \cdot WF \cdot RF \cdot t}{CF} \quad (10)$$

07 where PF the petri factor, DF the divergence factor calculated using Eq. (11),
 08 WF the water factor calculated using Eq. (12), RF the reflection factor taken to be
 09 0.975 [46], t (s) the exposure time and CF is the collimation factor which was taken
 10 to be 1.

$$DF = \frac{l}{l + D} \quad (11)$$

11 where l (cm) is the distance between microbial suspension surface and the
 12 UV-LED and D (cm) the microbial suspension depth (**Figure 2**).

$$WF = \frac{I_\lambda \cdot (1 - 10^{-\alpha_\lambda \cdot l})}{I \cdot \alpha_\lambda \cdot l \cdot \ln(10)} \quad (12)$$

13 where I (mW/cm²) and I_λ (mW/cm²/nm) are the total radiant power of the
 14 UV-LED and the radiant power at λ of the UV-LED, respectively, α_λ (cm⁻¹) is the
 15 decadic absorption coefficient of the microbial suspension at λ, and l (cm) is the
 16 microbial suspension depth. The decadic absorption coefficient (absorbance for a
 17 1 cm path length).

18 2.3.3 Electrical energy determination

19 The electrical energy (E_{E,N}) for a specific N-log inactivation of microorganisms
 20 can be determined using Eq. (13).

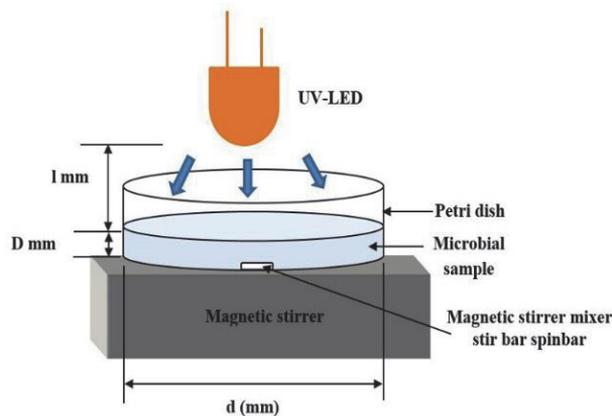


Figure 2.
 Set-up of a batch disinfection reactor.

$$E_{E,N} = \frac{\pi \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 \cdot F_N}{3.6 \cdot 10^3 \cdot V \cdot C \cdot WF} \quad (13)$$

01 where $E_{E,N}$ is the electrical energy for a specific N -log reduction of each sample,
02 (in kWh/m³), d (cm) the internal diameter of the Petri dish (**Figure 2**) and F_N is the
03 fluence required for N -log inactivation (mJ/cm²). The value of 3.6×10^3 is a unit
04 conversion constant for W and kW, s and h, mL and m³, V is the volume of sample
05 (mL). C is the wall plug efficiency calculated using Eq. (14) [47] and WF is the
06 water factor calculated using Eq. (12) [46].

$$C = \frac{P_{\text{output}}}{P_{\text{input}}} = \frac{F_A}{I_A \cdot V_A} \quad (14)$$

07 where P_{output} is optical power (mW) of the UV-LEDs, P_{input} is the applied
08 electrical power (mW), I_A is the applied current (mA), V_A is the applied voltage
09 (V), and F_A is the radiant flux (mW).

10 3. Disinfection efficiencies

11 The UV-LED disinfection efficiencies were discussed in four parts: (i) inactiva-
12 tion; (ii) repair; (iii) synergistic effect; and (iv) electrical energy efficiency.

13 3.1 *E. coli* inactivation efficiency

14 Comparative experiments with or without TiO₂ confirmed that, after 40 min of
15 stirring in the dark, no inactivation occurred (data not shown). This indicates that
16 UV light is the key requirement in both photolytic and photocatalytic inactivation. In
17 both the photolytic and photocatalytic experiments, lower wavelengths were found
18 to have a higher inactivation efficiency than longer wavelengths
19 (267 > 275 > 310 > 370 nm) [48]. Specifically, in photolytic inactivation, an average
20 fluence of 5, 7, 800 and 900 mJ/cm² was required by the 267, 275, 310 and 370 nm
21 UV-LEDs, respectively per order log inactivation. Note that, a 4-log inactivation is
22 required especially in Austria and Germany [12] in the inactivation of most micro-
23 organisms. Therefore, the 267 and 275 nm UV-LEDs required an average fluence of
24 12 and 15 mJ/cm², respectively for the 4-log to be achieved in *E. coli* inactivation.
25 Meanwhile the other UV-LEDs required a relatively higher fluence for the same
26 4-log inactivation to be achieved [48, 49]. This finding indicated that UVC wave-
27 lengths have a higher germicidal effect in the inactivation of *E. coli* as also con-
28 firmed by their relatively higher average inactivation rate constant (k) of 0.4 and
29 0.3 for the 267 and 275 nm UV-LEDs, respectively compared to insignificant <0.03
30 for the 310 and 365 nm UV-LEDs. The finding was also consisted with the other
31 studies in literature as reviewed in Ref. [50]. The DNA of most microorganisms is
32 believed to have an absorption maximum of light between 260 and 270 nm [51],
33 hence confirming the findings.

34 In photocatalytic disinfection, addition of TiO₂ (1.0 g/L) resulted to an interest-
35 ing finding. Whereas the inactivation efficiency was increased in both the 310 and
36 370 nm UV-LEDs by the addition of TiO₂, that for the 267 and 275 nm UV-LEDs
37 was drastically decreased [48]. Note that, anatase phase of TiO₂ that was used in our
38 work has a bandgap of around 3.20 eV [52]. Therefore, in an air saturated or water
39 environment, UV photon energy, $E \sim 5.12 \times 10^{-19}$ J is required to induce the gener-
40 eration of the reactive OH• radicals from the TiO₂ surface. The photon energy from

01 the 267, 275, 310 and 370 UV-LEDs was calculated and found to be 7.45×10^{-19} ,
 02 6.87×10^{-19} , 6.42×10^{-19} , and 5.11×10^{-19} J, respectively. This indicates that,
 03 UVA wavelength is the most appropriate in photocatalytic disinfection as was
 04 confirmed by a significant enhanced inactivation efficiency by the 370 nm UV-LED
 05 when anatase phase of TiO₂ was added in the *E. coli* suspension [48]. The enhanced
 06 inactivation efficiency by the 370 nm UV-LED with TiO₂ is therefore attributable to
 07 the huddle effect of the UV photons and OH^{*} radicals. Other than their lower
 08 capability of radical production from the TiO₂ surface due to UV photon energy not
 09 within the optimum, the inactivation efficiency by the 267 and 275 nm UV-LEDs
 10 decreased with addition of the TiO₂ due to a screening effect by the TiO₂ which
 11 protected the *E. coli* against the strong UV photon of the UV-LEDs [53].

12 In another experiment, PL and CW UV-LED irradiation showed similar inacti-
 13 vation efficiency at equivalent average fluence [54]. Although similar inactivation
 14 efficiency was found, 267 nm UV-LED still had a slightly higher inactivation effi-
 15 ciency than the 275 nm UV-LED (**Figure 3**), which is in agreement with previous
 16 findings explained in the preceding paragraphs and also confirmed by reports in
 17 Ref. [51]. Although different UV-LEDs were employed, similar findings were also
 18 reported in other studies reported in literature [55–57]. However, an enhanced
 19 inactivation efficiency by PL over CW UV-LED irradiation is reported [58–61].
 20 These discrepancies could be attributed mainly to unequal fluences between the PL
 21 and CW UV-LEDs, which is key in microbial inactivation. PL from xenon lamps is
 22 reported to cause enhanced inactivation efficiency than CW UV irradiation by
 23 mercury lamps [62]. The finding is due to xenon lamps' broad-spectrum UV con-
 24 tent, short duration intense pulses and the high peak power which can lead to three
 25 multi-target mechanisms (photochemical, photophysical and photothermal) [63]. It
 26 should be noted that, the PL irradiation produced by xenon lamps is much different
 27 from that of the UV-LEDs in terms of emission spectrum, intensity, frequency
 28 switching. Therefore, the inactivation mechanisms of the PL xenon lamp may not
 29 apply to the UV-LEDs whose wavelengths are just within 200–400 nm and if a
 30 single UV-LED is used, almost a monochromatic wavelength is obtained compared
 31 with the broad range (200–1100 nm) from the xenon lamp. In addition, the current
 32 peak power of the UV-LEDs is still low (mW) which requires more improvements
 33 [64], compared to that of xenon lamps which is relatively high (kW) [65]. Unless
 34 the optical power is significantly improved, the *E. coli* inactivation efficiency by PL

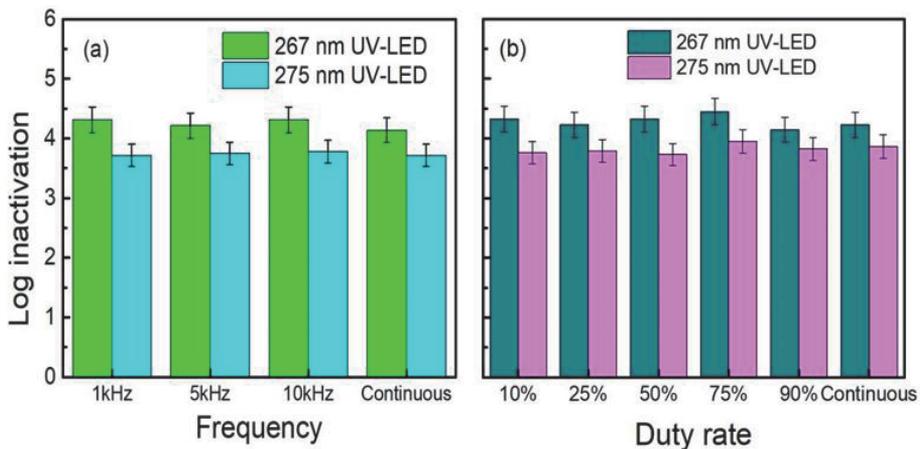


Figure 3. Log inactivation at equivalent fluence of $17.3 \text{ mJ}/\text{cm}^2$ on *E. coli* inactivation by the PL and CW UVC-LED irradiation after (a) varying frequency at 50% pulse rate and (b) varying duty rate at frequency = 1 kHz. Error bars represent standard deviation from triplicate experimental data.

01 and CW UV-LED will still be equivalent. The only significant advantage of PL over
02 CW UV-LED is its ability to suppress the heat generated during the UV-LED
03 operation [54, 56]. This is due to the PL irradiation's ability to generate heat only
04 during the short pulse and a cooling period can occur between each pulse. This
05 ability was clearly observed when the PL showed a lower solder temperature as
06 compared to the CW UV-LED at similar driving currents and ambient temperature
07 (Figure 4).

08 Diversity of UV-LED wavelengths allows for tailored UV-LED irradiation
09 involving 2 or more wavelengths either in simultaneous or sequential manner. Note
10 that, irradiation by UVC and UVB wavelength is known in inducing lesion forma-
11 tion in the genomic DNA of a microorganism [66–68]. Meanwhile, irradiation by
12 UVA causes formation of active substances such as reactive oxygen species that
13 have lethal effects to a microorganism [69]. Due to their different inactivation
14 mechanisms, this part of the chapter therefore concentrated only on simultaneous
15 and sequential irradiation involving a combination of UVC(B) and UVA wave-
16 lengths. Note that, “UVC(B)” used here and henceforth in this chapter implies UVC
17 or UVB. Compared to sum of corresponding single wavelength, simultaneous irra-
18 diation of 267, 275 or 310 with 370 nm UV-LED led to lower log inactivation values
19 of 1.27, 1.23 and 0.64, respectively. Similarly, lower log inactivation of 0.92, 0.90
20 and 0.63 was also obtained in sequential irradiation of 267, 275 and 310 nm followed
21 by the 370 nm UV-LED, respectively (Figure 5). These results indicate that the
22 370 nm UV-LED irradiation could have functioned in repairing the already UV
23 damaged DNA, rather than damaging it [70, 71]. This assumption could be possible
24 since the 370 nm is within the range of photo-repair light, 300–480 nm [13, 14]. On
25 the other hand, higher log inactivation of 2.15 and 2.13 were achieved in sequential
26 irradiation of 370 nm followed by 267 or 275 nm UV-LEDs, respectively. This log
27 inactivation was also higher than that from the sum of corresponding single wave-
28 length UV-LED irradiations, except for sequential irradiation of 370 nm followed by
29 310 nm UV-LEDs which achieved 0.98 log inactivation (Figure 5). Although the
30 370 nm (UVA) radiation can repair an already UV damaged DNA, the radiation on
31 the other hand has an adverse effect when irradiated on un UV damaged DNA [72].
32 This phenomenon is known as concomitant photo-repair phenomenon in which
33 inactivating light itself has the potential to photo-repair the UV-injured DNA [66].

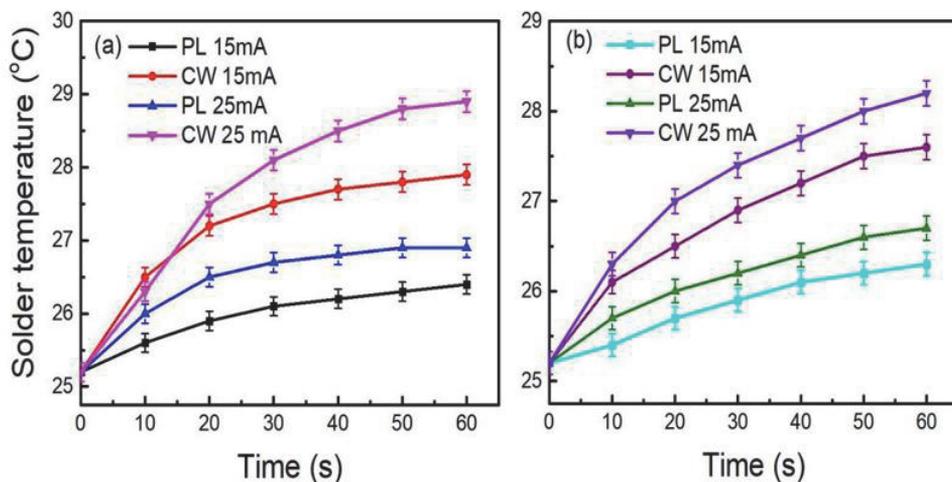


Figure 4. Solder temperature as a function of operation period of the UVC-LEDs when operating in PL and CW mode; an ambient temperature of $\sim 25^{\circ}\text{C}$, 50% duty rate at a frequency = 1 kHz for 267 nm (a) and 275 nm (b). Error bars represent standard deviation from triplicate experimental data.

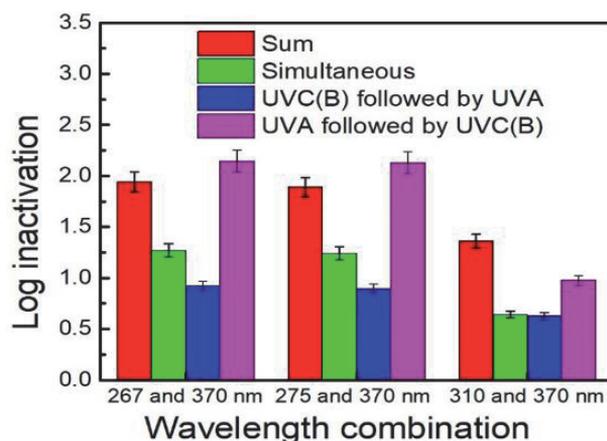


Figure 5.

E. coli inactivation by combined wavelengths from different UV-LEDs. The 267, 275, 310 and 370 nm UV-LEDs provided an average fluence of 2.6, 2.6, 511.3 and 539.6 mJ/cm², respectively. Error bars represent standard deviation from triplicate experimental data.

01 Note also that, the 310 nm could have a concomitant photo-repair phenomenon
 02 similar to the 370 nm wavelength. The 310 nm is within UVB band which is also
 03 known to produce lesions that damage microorganism DNA. In addition, the
 04 310 nm is within the photo-repair light (300–480 nm), hence explaining this
 05 finding. These findings are consistent with the other studies in literature [71, 73].

06 3.2 *E. coli* repair efficiency

07 As mentioned earlier in the introduction section, *E. coli* has the ability to undergo
 08 repair after damage from UV light irradiation. In all the experiments conducted,
 09 photo-repair was more dominant with an average of above 5% of photo-repair and
 10 negligible or no dark repair occurred [48, 49], demonstrating that photo-effect is the
 11 dominant mechanism of *E. coli* repair. The dominance of photo-effect in *E. coli* repair
 12 was also reported in other studies in Refs. [40, 74, 75]. Considering the 267, 275 nm
 13 UV-LED, the same observation was confirmed by highest rate of photo-repair con-
 14 stant, $K_{\max} > 4\% \text{ h}^{-1}$ compared to that of dark repair, $K_{\max} < 0.02\% \text{ h}^{-1}$ [49]. By
 15 analyzing photo-repair after photolytic inactivation, 275 and 370 nm wavelengths
 16 were found to be appropriate in suppressing the photo-repair. In addition, when the
 17 same wavelengths were applied such that 275 nm followed after the 370 nm UV-LED
 18 irradiation, a much lower % of photo-repair is obtained compared to simultaneous,
 19 and 275 nm followed by 370 nm UV-LED irradiation. This observation is attributed
 20 mostly to damage of *E. coli*'s membrane at 370 nm [76], and both DNA and proteins at
 21 275 nm [77]. Note that, no significant difference was observed in % of photo-repair
 22 for PL and CW UV-LED irradiation [54]. However, addition of TiO₂ led to an
 23 insignificant % of *E. coli* photo-repair (<1%) and for dark repair, mortality was
 24 registered [48]. The observation is attributed to the concomitant effect of the photons
 25 from the UV-LEDs and the OH^{*} radicals generated from the surface of UV irradiated
 26 TiO₂ that led to more damage to the *E. coli*. In addition, the mortality in the dark
 27 repair is attributed to a residual disinfecting effect of the OH^{*} [78].

28 3.3 Synergistic effect

29 During the *E. coli* inactivation, different wavelengths were combined and their
 30 synergistic effect evaluated. The irradiations were performed in both simultaneous

01 and sequential manner. From the results obtained, simultaneous irradiation involv-
02 ing 267/275, 267/310 and 275/310 wavelength combinations from the UV-LEDs
03 yielded absence of synergy in *E. coli* inactivation [49]. Note that, the 267 and 275 nm
04 belong in the UVC band, meanwhile the 310 nm belong in the UVB band of UV
05 wavelengths. The UVC and UVB wavelengths have similar inactivation mechanism
06 [66–68], explaining the absence of synergy in this case. Although UVC(B) and UVA
07 wavelengths are reported to have different disinfection mechanisms as highlighted
08 in the introduction section, interesting findings were found both in simultaneous
09 and sequential irradiation on *E. coli* inactivation. Simultaneous irradiation of 267,
10 275, 310 nm and their combination with 370 nm UV-LED led to lower log inactiva-
11 tion compared to the sum of log inactivation of the corresponding single wave-
12 lengths. Similarly, lower log inactivation was achieved for 267, 275 and 310 nm
13 followed by 370 nm UV-LED irradiation (**Figure 6**). These findings highlighted the
14 concomitant photo-repair phenomenon of the 370 nm UV-LED. It should be noted
15 that, the 370 nm is within the range of photo-repair light (300–500 nm). Therefore,
16 other than damaging the *E. coli* bacteria, the 370 nm light could have performed the
17 role of photo-repair as also discussed in Refs. [70, 71]. Contrary, synergistic effect
18 was found for 370 nm followed by 267 or 275 nm UV-LED. However, no synergy
19 was found for 370 nm followed by 310 nm UV-LED irradiation (**Figure 6**). Due to
20 the 370 nm light's ability to cause membrane damage to un UV damaged bacteria,
21 when irradiated first then followed by the UVC wavelengths, more damage was
22 realized which led to the found synergy. However, irradiating 310 nm UV-LED
23 after the 370 nm could have resulted to the repair of the *E. coli* since the 310 nm
24 UV-LE is within the photo-repair light, hence absence of synergy in that case.

25 3.4 Electrical energy efficiency

26 To make a viable decision in choosing an appropriate UV-LED to be applied in
27 disinfection applications, it is necessary to determine the electrical energy efficiency
28 ($E_{E,N}$) of the UV-LEDs for microorganism inactivation in water. For combined
29 wavelengths, sequential irradiation involving UVA followed by UVC-LED showed
30 higher inactivation and repair efficiencies of *E. coli* compared to the other combi-
31 nations. Therefore, the electrical energy efficiency per order of magnitude ($E_{E,0}$)

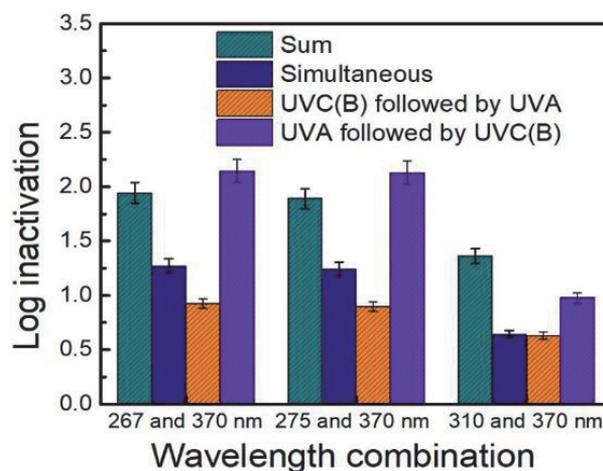


Figure 6. Synergy from the combined UV-LEDs. The 267, 275, 310 and 370 nm UV-LEDs provided an average fluence of 2.6, 2.6, 511.3 and 539.6 mJ/cm², respectively. Error bars represent standard deviation from 3 experimental data.

01 was determined only for single wavelength irradiation (in both photolytic and
 02 photocatalytic) and UVA followed by UVC(B)-LED irradiation on the *E. coli* in
 03 water (**Table 1**). In both photolytic and photocatalytic disinfection, the 275 nm UV-
 04 LED required lower $E_{E,O}$. Although the addition of TiO_2 to the *E. coli* suspension led
 05 to an increase in the $E_{E,O}$ for the 267 and 275 nm UV-LEDs, that for the 310 and
 06 370 nm UV-LEDs decreased. Meanwhile, for combined wavelengths, the 370 nm
 07 followed by 275 nm UV-LED irradiation required lower $E_{E,O}$ compared to the other
 08 combinations. The lower $E_{E,O}$ for the 275 nm UV-LED, and 370 nm followed by
 09 275 nm UV-LED irradiation is attributed majorly to the higher wall plug efficiencies
 10 of the two UV-LEDs compared to the others [48, 49], a similar finding that is also
 11 reported in Ref. [79]. Note that, the decrease in $E_{E,O}$ for mostly the 370 nm UV-LED
 12 in photocatalytic disinfection is attributed two things: (i) its higher wall plug effi-
 13 ciency; and (ii) its photon energy being within the required to induce radicals on
 14 TiO_2 surface.

15 4. Conclusions

16 In this chapter, a general description on the status of *E. coli* disinfection in water
 17 by UV-LEDs has been highlighted. The main text concentrated more on our exper-
 18 imental studies in which the effects of single and combined UV-LED irradiation on
 19 *E. coli* in water, including the inactivation efficiency, the recover percentage after
 20 the UV-LED irradiation, the best wavelength for low energy consumption, differ-
 21 ences in pulsed and continuous operations of UV-LEDs, effect of UVA-LED
 22 followed by UVC-LED irradiation and vice versa, and finally the effect of TiO_2
 23 photo-catalyst, were discussed. Whereas the 267 nm UV-LED showed higher
 24 inactivation efficiency, the 275 nm UV-LED had competitive inactivation effi-
 25 ciency, higher repressive ability on *E. coli* repair and higher electrical energy
 26 efficiency. For photocatalytic disinfection, the 370 nm UV-LED was the most

Mode of irradiation	Photolytic/photocatalytic inactivation	UV-LED wavelength (nm)	$E_{E,O}$ (kWh/m ³)
Single wavelength	Photolytic	267	0.4
		275	0.3
		310	17.2
		365	4.0
	Photocatalytic	267	0.6
		275	0.4
		310	16.0
		365	2.0
Combined wavelength (UVA followed by UVC or UVB)	Photolytic	370 followed by 267	0.7
		370 followed by 275	0.5
		370 followed by 310	1.7

Table 1. Average values of $E_{E,O}$ for different wavelength irradiations in *E. coli* inactivation in water.

01 appropriate. Although PL UV-LED was found to be effective in suppressing
02 temperature rising CW operation, the two modes showed insignificant difference in
03 *E. coli* inactivation and repair efficiency. For combined wavelengths, UVA
04 (370 nm) followed by UVC-LED (275 nm) irradiation was effective in both inacti-
05 vation, repair and electrical energy efficiencies.

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10 **Conflict of interest**

11 None.

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