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1 Effect of water treatment on the growth potential of *Vibrio cholerae* and *V.*
2 *parahaemolyticus* in seawater.

3
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10

11

12 **Abstract**

13

14 In laboratory experiments we added *Vibrio cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* to bottles with seawater previously
15 treated by filtration, UV, chlorine or ozone. The purpose was to investigate the influence of different treatment
16 techniques on the growth potential of these bacteria in simulated ballast water tanks. Residual oxidants were
17 removed before inoculation, and the bottles were incubated at 21 ± 1 °C. The growth potential of the vibrios was
18 investigated in two different experimental setups, i.e. in presence and absence of added natural microorganisms.
19 In general, *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* rapidly lost their culturability after inoculation and storage in
20 untreated seawater, but showed increased survival or growth in the treated water. Highest growth was observed
21 in water previously exposed to high concentrations of ozone. Addition of natural microorganisms reduced the
22 growth of *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus*.

23

24

25 *Keywords: Ballast water; Bacteria; Water treatment; Ozone; Vibrio cholerae; Vibrio parahaemolyticus*

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27

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30

31 The introduction of invasive marine species into new environments by ships' ballast water has
32 been identified as one of the greatest threats to the world's oceans. For avoiding such bio
33 invasions, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) Convention on ballast water
34 management has required overseas vessels to limit the number of viable organisms and
35 indicator microbes in ballast water prior to discharge (IMO, 2004). To meet these
36 requirements ships may install ballast water treatment equipment. Technologies for treatment
37 of ballast water often include disinfection (e.g. UV treatment, ozonation or chlorination) for

38 inactivation of microorganisms. While disinfection of ballast water during uptake
39 substantially reduces the number of viable bacteria, it does not sterilize the water, allowing
40 surviving bacteria or bacteria already present in the ballast tank (seed reservoir) to multiply
41 during storage in the ballast tanks (Waite *et al.* 2003; Perrins *et al.* 2006; Hess-Erga *et al.*
42 2010).

43
44 Ballast water treatment systems generally do not include removal of natural occurring
45 dissolved organic matter (DOM) and other nutrients for bacterial growth. Oxidation-based
46 disinfection processes (e.g. ozonation) are well known to increase the fraction of bio-available
47 DOM in drinking water by oxidizing non biodegradable organic molecules to smaller and
48 more biodegradable molecules, thereby promoting growth of heterotrophic bacteria in the
49 distribution system (Yavich *et al.* 2004; Swietlik *et al.* 2009). Ozonation and UV-treatment
50 are also shown to create easily degradable substrates for bacterial growth in seawater (Hess-
51 Erga *et al.* 2010).

52
53 For avoiding regrowth of heterotrophic bacteria in ballast tanks, the importance of obtaining a
54 high level of total residual oxidant (TRO) was reported by Perrins *et al.* (2006). They treated
55 marine ballast water with ozone and showed that when the TRO concentration fell below the
56 bacterial inhibition threshold (below 0.5-1.0 mg/L as Br₂), heterotrophic bacteria grew
57 rapidly, sometimes to higher levels than in the controls.

58
59 Additional disinfection at discharge is an approach to reduce the number of heterotrophic
60 bacteria in the discharged water. For technologies which do not include disinfection at
61 discharge, large numbers of viable bacteria, grown up during storage in ballast tanks, can be
62 discharged to surface water by ships' ballasting operations. This does not represent a problem
63 as long as the bacteria are harmless for humans and aquatic life. As a reference, heterotrophic
64 bacteria multiplying in drinking water in general is not considered as a significant health risk
65 for people with normal immune defence (WHO, 2003).

66
67 Little is known about the potential health relevance of the regrowth in ballast tanks after
68 different disinfection processes. A previous study indicated that ozonation of seawater, with
69 subsequent removal of TRO by sodium thiosulphate, created conditions that favoured the
70 growth of vibrios at 20 °C, most likely by production of bio-available DOM (Tryland *et al.*,
71 2010). The vibrio group includes the causative agent of cholera, *V. cholerae* and other human

72 pathogenic species like *V. vulnificus* and *V. parahaemolyticus*, but also other non-harmful
73 species (Farmer and Hickman-Brenner, 1991). Regrowth of vibrios relative to other
74 heterotrophic bacteria is known to depend on factors such as temperature, salinity, predation
75 by eukaryotes, infection by viruses and bio-available DOM. For example cyanobacterial-
76 derived DOM (homogenized *Nodularia spumigena*) was shown to stimulate growth of *V.*
77 *cholerae* and *V. vulnificus*, and the contribution of *V. cholerae* to total *Vibrio* spp. abundance
78 and total bacterial counts increased with increasing DOM concentration (Eiler *et al.*, 2007).

79

80 The purpose of this study was to investigate whether treatment of seawater (filtration, UV-,
81 chlorine- or ozone treatment) altered the growth potential of *V. cholerae* and *V.*
82 *parahaemolyticus*. Simulation of recontamination in ballast tanks was studied by adding *V.*
83 *cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* to treated seawater in microcosms/bottles with or without a
84 natural community of microorganisms. TRO was removed by sodium thiosulphate before
85 inoculation, and bacterial survival and growth was studied at 21 ± 1 °C for 5 days.

86

87 **2. Materials and methods**

88

89 *2.1. Water samples*

90 Seawater samples were collected from the Inner Oslofjord, at the Huk beach the three first
91 sampling days, and at Bjørvika (near the outlet of river Akerselva) the last sampling day.
92 Characteristics of the water samples are shown in Table 1.

93

94 *2.2. Treatment of water samples*

95 The seawater samples were treated by different techniques in laboratory experiments at room-
96 temperature: 1) No treatment, 2) Sterile filtration using a 0.2 µm pre-washed cellulose nitrate
97 filter, 3) UV-treatment (120 mWs/cm²) using collimated beam equipment as described by
98 Liltved *et al.* (1995), 4) Chlorination by adding sodium hypochlorite (3 mg/L) (total residual
99 oxidant (TRO) was measured to 1.0-1.9 mg Cl₂/L after 30 minutes contact time using the
100 colorimetric DPD-method (Hach Lange GmbH, Düsseldorf, Germany)), and 5) Ozonation by
101 bubbling ozone-containing oxygen (Liltved *et al.* 1995) to 300-600 ml test waters in glass
102 flasks via a diffuser for 4 sec (low dose) or 30 sec (high dose). Immediately after removal of
103 the diffuser the TRO level was measured to 1.6-1.9 mg Cl₂/L (low dose) and 5-6 mg Cl₂/L
104 (high dose), and the TRO level remained constant for 30 min. Sodium thiosulphate (30 mg/L)

105 was added to the chlorinated and ozonated water samples after 30 min reaction time for
106 neutralizing the residual oxidants.

107

108 2.3. Bacterial strains and inoculum preparation

109 2.3.1. Bacterial strains

110 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (CCUG 14474) was used in the three first experiments, i. e. in all
111 experiments dealing with *V. parahaemolyticus*. The strain is pathogenic to man and was
112 isolated from shirasu food poisoning in Japan. Different *V. cholerae* strains were used in the
113 different experiments because a low recovery on selective agar was observed for the strains
114 used in the first experiments. This encouraged the testing of different *V. cholerae* strains: In
115 the first experiment, *V. cholerae* (CCUG 537) was used. This strain was anhaemolytic and is
116 an opportunistic pathogen to man. The strain belongs to serotype O:13 and the cholera toxin
117 gene *ctxA* is not present. In experiment 3, a β -haemolytic strain of *V. cholerae* (NCTC 7254)
118 was used. This strain is pathogenic to man, and belongs to serovar O:1/Subgroup I. The strain
119 was isolated from a cholera epidemic in Egypt. In experiment 4, *V. cholerae* strain 503 (NVH
120 isolate from beach water, non O:1/O:139, with a good recovery on selective agar) was used.

121

122 2.3.2. Broth enrichment of test bacteria and preparation of inoculum

123 *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus*, stored as stock cultures in freezer at -80 °C, were
124 streaked on blood agar plates (BA) and incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C. One single colony of
125 each strain was transferred to enrichment broth. *V. cholerae* was inoculated in nutrient broth.
126 For *V. parahaemolyticus* nutrient broth with 6 % sodium chloride was used. Broth cultures
127 were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. Tenfold dilutions were plated on Blood agar and/or
128 thiosulfate-citrate-bile salts-sucrose agar (TCBS) (experiment 4) and incubated for 24 hours at
129 37 °C to determine the concentration.

130

131

132 The broth cultures of *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* were washed in sterile seawater by
133 a repeated centrifugation and further diluted in sterile seawater for preparation of bacterial
134 inoculum.

135

136 2.4. Experimental design

137 Four experiments were performed:

- 138 1. Addition of pure cultures of *V. cholerae* (CCUG 537) or *V. parahaemolyticus* to
139 treated and untreated seawater
- 140 2. Addition of *V. parahaemolyticus* and natural microorganisms to treated and untreated
141 seawater
- 142 3. Addition of *V. cholerae* (NCTC 7254) or *V. parahaemolyticus* and natural
143 microorganisms to treated and untreated seawater
- 144 4. Addition of *V. cholerae* strain 503 and natural microorganisms to untreated and
145 ozonated water, followed by detection with PCR

146

147 The following procedure was used for all experiments:

148 Fifty ml of the different seawater samples (no treatment, sterile filtered, UV-treated,
149 chlorinated, low-ozonated and high-ozonated) were placed in 100 ml brown glass
150 bottles/microcosms (simulating ballast tanks). The bottles were inoculated with *V.*
151 *parahaemolyticus* (Experiment 1, 2 and 3) or *V. cholerae* (experiment 1, 3 and 4) to a final
152 expected concentration of 10^2 - 10^3 cfu/ml. All experiments were done with triplicate bottles.
153 For investigating the potential growth in presence of a natural environment (with both
154 competitive heterotrophic bacteria, viruses and predators), native inoculum (0.5 ml untreated
155 seawater from the same locality as the treated) was also added to a set of 3 bottles in
156 experiment 2, 3 and 4. After the addition of inoculum the microcosms were stored at 21 ± 1 °C
157 and the numbers of *V. cholerae*/*V. parahaemolyticus* and HPC were measured after 0, 2 and 5
158 days storage. Quantification of bacteria on day 0 verified the expected bacterial numbers in
159 the added inoculums.

160

161 2.5. Microbiological methods

162 From appropriate dilutions of the microcosms *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* were
163 recovered by spread plate technique on TCBS (TCBS-agar CM 333, Oxoid Ltd, Basingstoke,
164 Hampshire, UK) agar and blood agar (BA). Colonies were examined based on morphology
165 and counted after 24 h incubation at 37 °C.

166 TCBS is the standard selective agar medium for human pathogenic vibrios in food (Nordic
167 Committee on Food Analysis, 1997, International Organization for Standardization, 2007), and
168 is frequently used for detection of *V. cholerae* in ballast water. BA is a commonly used non-
169 selective medium for isolation of bacteria. For *V. cholerae* strains (CCUG 537) and (NCTC

170 7254), a much higher recovery on BA compared to TCBS was observed, i. e. the recovery on
171 TCBS was only about 1% compared with the recovery on BA. As a consequence we did our
172 calculations for the numbers of *V. cholerae* strains (CCUG 537) and (NCTC 7254) from the
173 counts on BA. *V. cholerae* (CCUG 537) was counted as anhaemolytic, grey, opaque colonies
174 with 2-3 mm in diameter when no other heterotrophic bacteria were added. In the experiments
175 adding natural microorganisms (1 % seawater) the background growth interfered with *V.*
176 *cholerae* (CCUG 537), and a satisfactory recognition of anhaemolytic target colonies could
177 not be conducted. Consequently, *V. cholerae* (NCTC 7254) was used for experiment 2
178 because it produced a clear zone of β -haemolysis on BA and was easy to distinguish from the
179 background growth.

180

181 For *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. cholerae* strain 503 the recovery on TCBS compared to BA
182 was much better, 84 % and 73%, respectively, and TCBS counts were used for calculation of
183 the bacterial numbers.

184

185 As an indicator of the natural microbial community the total number of culturable bacteria
186 (heterotrophic plate count, HPC) was examined by spread plate on Difco Marine agar (Marine
187 Agar 2216, Catalogue no. 212185. BD Diagnostics, Maryland, USA). Colonies were counted
188 after 3 days incubation at 22°C.

189

190 2.6. PCR method

191 Experiment 4 was conducted to verify the results in experiment 1 and 3 with a culture
192 independent method. Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) targeting the *groEl* gene specific for
193 *V.cholerae* was used to monitor the concentration of *V. cholerae* 503 in experiment 4.

194 Samples (2 x 1ml) were withdrawn on day 0, 2 and 5, and concentrated in PCR grade water
195 (100 μ l) by centrifugation for 5 min. at 10 000rpm. qPCR was performed on Bio-Rad CFX96
196 (Bio-Rad) with a PCR reaction mix (20 μ l reaction volume) consisting of: SooFast™ Probes
197 Supermix (Biorad) (10 μ l), *groEl* primer forward and reverse (0.25 μ M final concentration),
198 *groEl* hydrolysis probe (0.25 μ M final concentration) and 2 μ l template. The primer and probe
199 sequence and specificity has been documented in Fykse *et al.*, 2012. The reaction mixture was
200 denatured at 95°C for two min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 10sec and 64°C for 30sec.
201 The experimental setup had tree parallels of each treatment, thus two technical parallels were
202 considered sufficient for each experimental parallel. Thus, duplicate reactions were run for
203 each template and standard concentration. The results were managed in Bio-Rad software

204 program: CFX Manager Version: 2.1.1022.0523 software. A standard curve with three tenfold
205 dilution of *V. cholerae* 503 was run parallel to the samples for calculation of sample
206 concentrations. The *V. cholerae* 503 culture used for the standard curve was 10 fold diluted
207 and quantified by spread plate technique on TCBS, and the CFX Manager software used this
208 information to calculate probable concentration of the unknown samples.

209

210 2.7. Calculation of bacterial numbers

211 From the three parallels in each experiment arithmetic mean were calculated and presented.

212

213

214 3. Results and discussion

215

216 In untreated seawater, the number of culturable *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus*
217 decreased significantly ($> 1 \log_{10}$ unit reduction) after 5 days storage (Figure 1-4). Although
218 the temperature during storage ($21 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) was adequate for growth of *V. cholerae* and *V.*
219 *parahaemolyticus*, other conditions in the untreated seawater, like presence of competitive
220 bacteria, predators and viruses and low levels of bio-available nutrients, may have prevented
221 the establishment and growth of the added vibrios.

222

223 Previous disinfection of the seawater strongly affected the survival and growth of the added *V.*
224 *cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus*. In the first experiment, where no natural microorganisms
225 were added, growth of both *V. cholerae* (Figure 1A) and *V. parahaemolyticus* (Figure 1B)
226 were observed in all bottles containing treated seawater. The strongest growth (close to 10^6
227 cfu/ml at day 5) was observed in seawater previously exposed to high levels of ozone (Figure
228 1). This may be explained by lower levels or absence of predators and competitors in the
229 disinfected seawater, as well as higher levels of easy degradable substrates generated by the
230 strong oxidation process. An increase of available nutrients for bacterial growth after
231 disinfection may take place by different mechanisms: Rupture or killing of cells with a
232 concurrent release of cellular matter, which is further degraded by released enzymes into
233 DOM, and by chemical modification (oxidation) of existing DOM by the disinfectants
234 (Swietlik *et al.* 2009; Hess-Erga *et al.* 2010).

235

236 The experimental design without added natural microorganisms (Figure 1), may have
237 overestimated the growth of the two added bacteria compared to a realistic ballast water

238 management situation. Under real conditions, *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* will not
239 be present as the sole or dominating bacteria in the treated ballast water. If some *V. cholerae*
240 or *V. parahaemolyticus* survive the disinfection of influent ballast water, e. g. protected by
241 particles during disinfection (Liltved and Cripps 1999, Hess-Erga *et al.*, 2008) or if a
242 contamination occur downstreams (e. g. from sediments or biofilms in the ballast tanks), there
243 will always be other heterotrophic bacteria present, competing for available growth substrates.

244
245 A following up study was therefore performed. In these experiments 0.5 ml untreated
246 seawater was inoculated to the microcosms simultaneously with the *V. cholerae* or *V.*
247 *parahaemolyticus*. The volume of untreated seawater should illustrate a practical situation
248 where an assumed fraction of approximately 1% of the native heterotrophic bacteria, viruses
249 and predators bypass the water treatment. The purpose of this experiment was to identify if
250 any of the water treatment processes produced conditions which gave the potential pathogenic
251 vibrios a competitive advantage relative the other heterotrophic bacteria in a more natural
252 microbial environment.

253
254 Growth of *V. cholerae* was only observed in the microcosms with seawater previously
255 exposed to high ozone doses (Figure 2A). A rapid decrease of culturable *V. cholerae* was
256 observed in the untreated and filtered seawater. A slower decrease was observed in the
257 seawater previously treated by UV, chlorine and low ozone dose (Figure 2A). The
258 corresponding HPC are shown in Figure 2B. An increase in HPC was observed in all the
259 disinfected water samples, and the results therefore indicate that all the applied disinfection
260 processes will increase the regrowth potential with regard to heterotrophic bacteria. Increased
261 growth of *V. cholerae* was not revealed, except in water treated with high ozone dose.
262 Absence of growth can be explained by outnumbering of *V. cholerae* by the competitive
263 heterotrophic bacteria, e. g. due to available growth factors and/or higher survival from
264 predators and viruses.

265
266 Growth of *V. parahaemolyticus* was observed in most of the microcosms containing
267 disinfected seawater, even in presence of added natural microorganisms (Figure 3). Results
268 from two different experiments based on seawater collected in January 2010 and April 2010
269 are shown in figure 3A and 3B, water characteristics are reported in Table 1. Although the
270 pattern of Figure 3A and 3B are somewhat different, it illustrates how *V. parahaemolyticus*
271 can grow in disinfected seawater, in contrast to the rapid decay observed in untreated

272 seawater. The disinfected seawater initially contained only 1% of native microorganisms
273 compared with untreated seawater. Lower competition- and predation pressure, as well as
274 higher levels of easy degradable substrates generated by oxidation processes, may explain the
275 different fate of *V. parahaemolyticus* in the disinfected seawater compared with untreated
276 seawater.

277

278 In the present study both TCBS and BA were used for the isolation and enumeration of *V.*
279 *cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus*. While *V. parahaemolyticus* and the environmental isolate
280 *V. cholerae* strain 503 showed good recovery on TCBS, the strains *V. cholerae* (CCUG 537)
281 and *V. cholerae* (NCTC 7254) showed only 1% recovery on TCBS compared to BA. *V.*
282 *cholerae* (CCUG 537) is an opportunistic pathogen to man. The strain belongs to serotype
283 O:13 and the cholera toxin gene *ctxA* is not present. *V. cholerae* (NCTC 7254) is pathogenic
284 to man. It belongs to serovar O:1/Subgroup I. The strain was isolated from a cholera epidemic
285 in Egypt. *V. cholerae* (NVH 503) is a non O:1/O:139 environmental isolate. These results
286 indicate that the different *V. cholerae* strains may behave different after dilution in seawater,
287 i.e. some strains may no longer be culturable on the highly selective TCBS, but still be
288 culturable on BA.

289

290

291 It is well known that species of several bacterial genera, including the vibrios, are able to enter a viable
292 but non-culturable (VBNC) state in seawater (Kogure *et al.* 1979, Eiler *et al.*, 2007). This will also
293 apply to ballast water, indicating that specific bacteria can be present in a sample even though growth
294 is absent on a conventional media. It has further been reported that some human pathogens, most
295 notably *Vibrio cholerae*, can maintain their infectious potential even after entering the VBNC state
296 (Grimes *et al.* 1986). A follow up study was performed, including a culture independent
297 method, to investigate whether the plating techniques affected the result. In experiment 4 *V.*
298 *cholerae* strain 503 was added to untreated seawater and seawater treated with high
299 concentration of ozone with and without competitive native inoculum. The *V. cholerae* strain
300 used in this experiment grew well on both TCBS and BA. The recovery of *V. cholerae* on
301 TCBS was followed on day 0, 2 and 5 together with a quantification by qPCR and plating of
302 HPC. The seawater quality deviated from the earlier experiments (see table 1), but the result
303 of the plating techniques showed a similar development of the cultures to the earlier
304 experiments (Figure 4 A and C): *V. cholerae* had increased growth in ozonated water, and
305 decreased growth in untreated water. The result of the qPCR (Standardcurve Efficiency 94%,

306 Slope – 3.473, R^2 : 0.968) confirmed the result of the plate technique: *V. cholerae* multiplied
307 in ozonated seawater, but was repressed by competitive heterotrophic bacteria (Figure 4 B).
308 The decrease in the number of *V. cholerae* in untreated seawater demonstrated by qPCR
309 showed that *V. cholerae* were killed (i.e. by predators or virus), not just in an unculturable
310 state. The qPCR method might have overestimated the concentration of viable bacteria since
311 the DNA in the PCR reaction target can be intact after the cell is dead. However, the possible
312 error in concentration due to dissolved DNA in the culture was reduced by centrifugation of
313 the samples and replacing the seawater medium with PCR grade water.

314

315 Growth of potential pathogenic vibrios relative to other harmless heterotrophic bacteria in
316 ballast tanks is a complex process which depends on factors such as temperature ($\geq 20^\circ\text{C}$),
317 salinity, predation by eukaryotes, infection by viruses, bio-available DOM, as well as initial
318 population of microorganisms. In our experiments *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. cholerae* were
319 added after the disinfection process and after removal of residual oxidants, thus simulating
320 recontamination. In a realistic situation, initial presence of pathogens is of course required for
321 their growth. In general, disinfection of influent ballast water is expected to reduce the risk of
322 human pathogens in the ballast water since most pathogens seem to be more sensitive to
323 common disinfection processes than several other competitive heterotrophic bacteria (Hijnen
324 *et al.*, 2006; Yasar, 2007). Introduction of pathogens may, however, potentially occur
325 downstream the disinfection, e. g. from sediments or biofilms in the ballast tanks. Presence of
326 a residual oxidant in the ballast tank will also affect the microbial ecology. For the highest
327 ozone dose used in our experiment, without addition of sodium thiosulphate a significant
328 TRO would most probably have been maintained for several days in a real ballast tank and
329 thus prevented bacterial growth (Perrins *et al.*, 2006; Wright *et al.*, 2010), unless high levels
330 of oxidant-consuming materials were present.

331

332 Time of storage will also affect the microbial ecology in ballast tanks. Immediately after
333 disinfection (if not a significant disinfection residual is present), growth of bacteria with high
334 maximum growth rate will occur. After such an initial phase, competition due to crowding
335 and nutrient limitation will favour bacteria with high substrate affinity (Hess-Erga *et al.*
336 2010). Joachimsthal *et al.* (2003) found a gradual creation of anaerobic conditions in a ballast
337 tank and suggested that this could lead to the accumulation of facultative anaerobic
338 microorganisms, which might represent a potential source of pathogenic species.

339

340

341 **4. Conclusion**

342 Disinfection and consecutive storage in ballast tanks may alter the bacterial community in the
343 ballast water both due to selective inactivation and due to selective regrowth. In our
344 experiments low levels of bio-available substrates and presence of competitive heterotrophic
345 bacteria and predators seemed to prevent the growth of the added pathogenic vibrios in
346 untreated seawater. The experiments illustrated how disinfection of seawater, most probably
347 by generating more easy degradable substrates and removing predators and competitors, can
348 alter the growth potential with regard to rapid multiplying heterotrophic bacteria, including *V.*
349 *parahaemolyticus* and *V. cholerae*.

350

351 Growth of potential pathogenic bacteria relative to other harmless heterotrophic bacteria in
352 ballast tanks is a complex process which depends on several factors, including possible
353 contamination routes, survival in sediments, different physiological and chemical growth
354 factors and different sensitivity to treatments. More work is required to study this complex
355 mechanism, to be able to give recommendations with regard to the relevance of regrowth of
356 heterotrophic bacteria in disinfected ballast water (both for humans and aquatic life) and the
357 potential requirement for additional disinfection at discharge.

358

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360

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424

425 **Figure captions**

426

427 Figure 1. Fate of *V. cholera* (Figure A) and *V. parahaemolyticus* (Figure B) inoculated to
428 seawater previously treated by different disinfection methods, after 0, 2 and 5 days storage at
429 20 °C. Each data point represents mean value from 3 microcosms.

430

431 Figure 2. Fate of *V. cholerae* (Figure A) inoculated to seawater previously treated by different
432 disinfection methods, in presence of added competitive heterotrophic bacteria, after 0, 2 and 5
433 days storage at 20 °C. Corresponding HPC are shown in Figure B. Each data point represents
434 mean value of 3 microcosms.

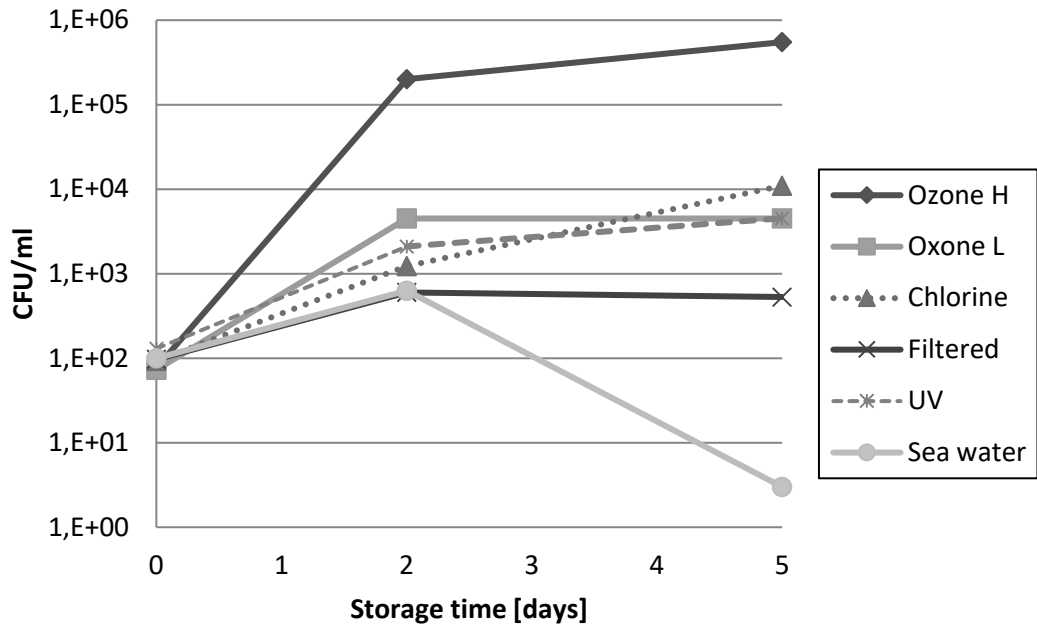
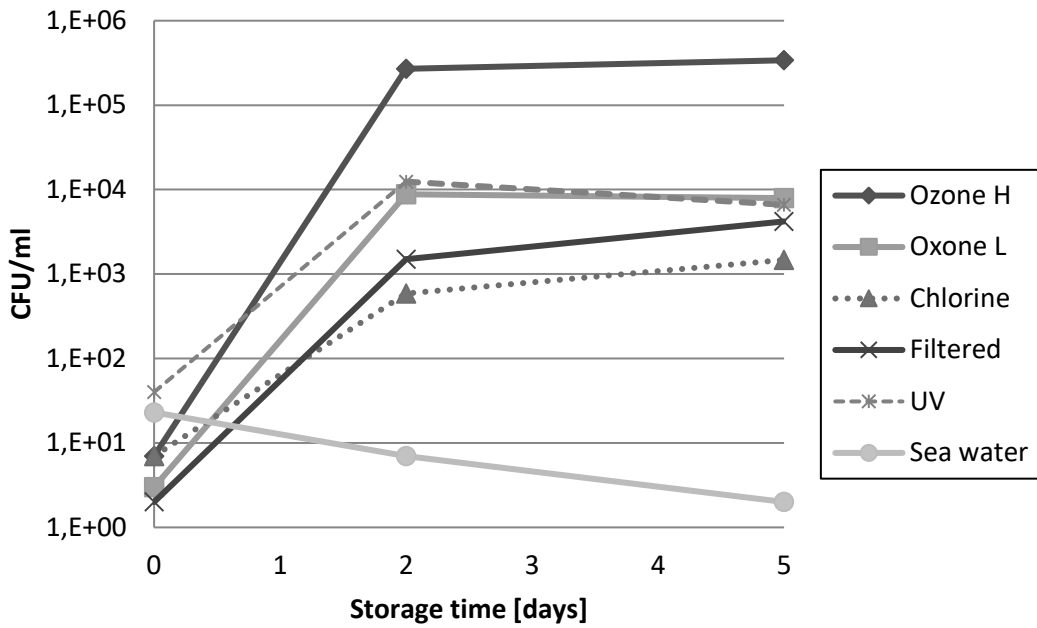
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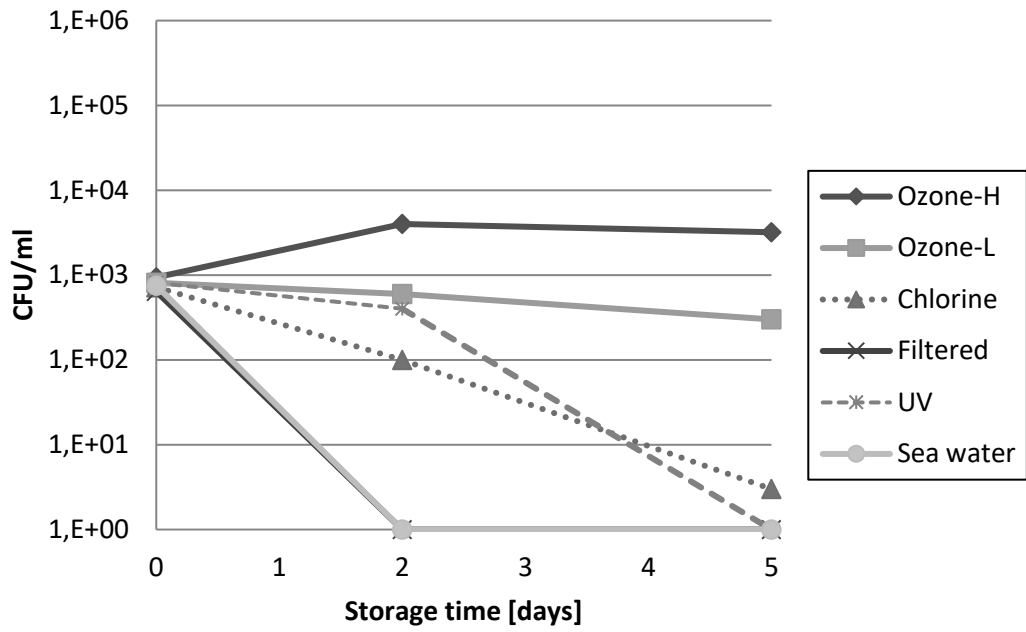
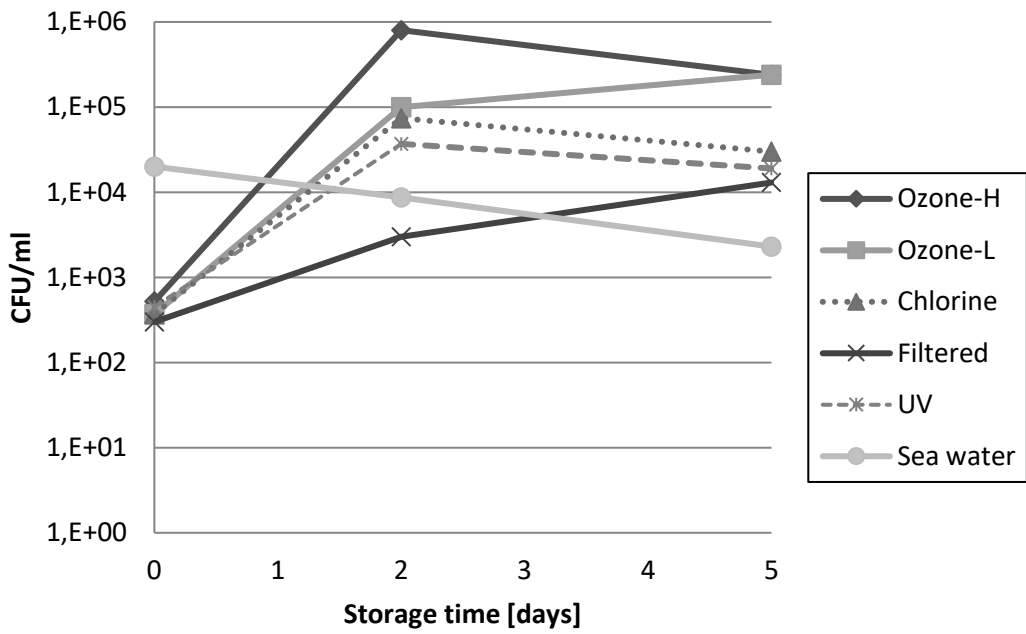
436 Figure 3. Fate of *V. parahaemolyticus* added to seawater previously treated by different
437 disinfection methods, in presence of added competitive heterotrophic bacteria, after 0, 2 and 5
438 days storage at 20 °C. Results from two different experiments are shown in Figure A and B.
439 Each data point represents mean value of 3 microcosms.

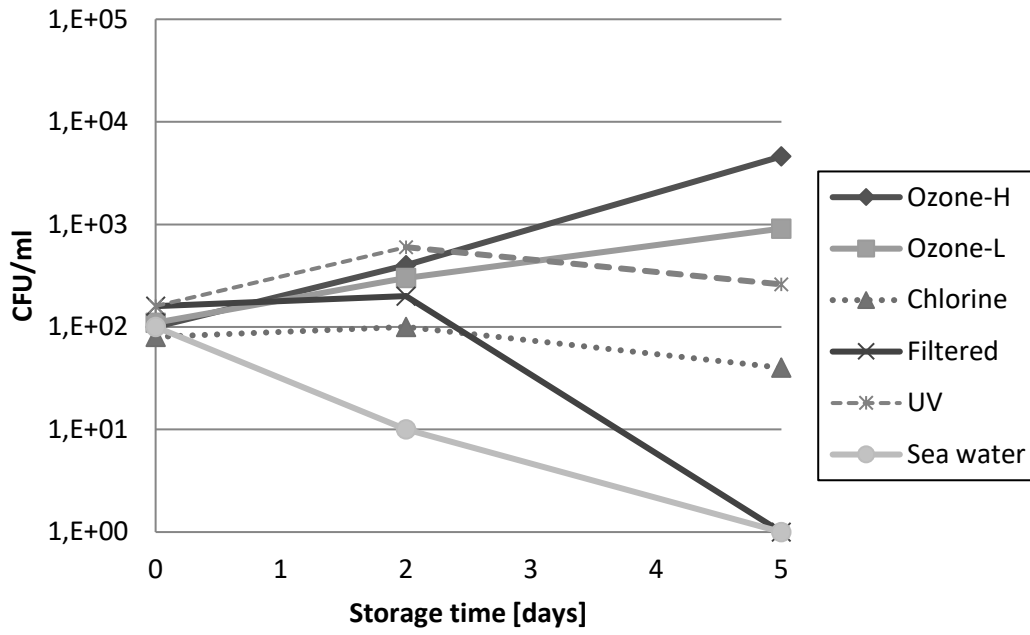
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441 Figure 4. Recovery on TCBS agar of *V. cholerae* (Figure A) inoculated to seawater previously
442 treated by ozonation, after 0, 2 and 5 days storage at 22 °C with and without competitive
443 heterotrophic bacteria. Corresponding qPCR results targeting *V. cholerae* specific *groEl* DNA are
444 shown in Figure B, and corresponding HPC are shown in Figure C. Each data point represents mean
445 value of 3 microcosms with standard deviation presented as error bars.

446

A**B**

A**B**

A**B**