

1 ***In vitro* and *in situ* tests to evaluate the bacterial colonization of**  
2 **cementitious materials in the marine environment**

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26

27 **Highlights:**

- 28       • The pre-carbonation accelerates the bacterial colonization of cementitious surface in  
29       marine environment
- 30       • CEM III mortars are more bioreceptive than the CEM I mortars
- 31       • Laboratory tests could be quickly identified the bioreceptivity of a cementitious material

32

33 **Abstract**

34 Civil engineers have a responsibility to take measures to protect marine biodiversity by  
35 selecting more bioreceptive construction materials in the design of marine infrastructure, for  
36 better biodiversity conservation. In this study, it was shown that pre-carbonation of  
37 cementitious materials accelerates their bacterial colorization by lowering the pH of their  
38 surface. It has been shown both in the laboratory and *in-situ* tests that the bacterial colonization  
39 of cementitious materials is influenced by the pH and the type of cement. By comparing the  
40 bacterial colonization of Portland cement mortars, CEM I, and slag cement, CEM III, mortars,  
41 it was found that the CEM III mortars are more bioreceptive than the CEM I mortars. This study  
42 presented and verified a novel experimental laboratory approach which can be used to evaluate  
43 the bacterial colonization (bioreceptivity) of cementitious materials in marine environment. The  
44 approach could be taken up in future recommendations to enable engineers to eco-design more  
45 eco-friendly marine infrastructure and develop green-engineering projects.

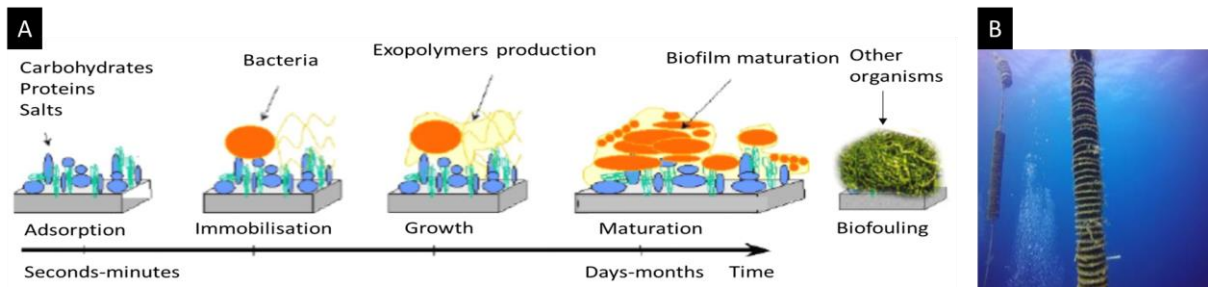
46 **Keywords:** Cementitious materials, bacterial colonization, marine environment *in-vitro/in-situ*  
47 tests, ecological engineering

## 48 **1. Introduction**

49 There is a world concern to develop a new project based on ecological reconciliation, through  
50 a “win-win” approach between human and nature [1]. Today, cementitious materials such as  
51 concrete are essential materials for the construction of marine structures such as marine ports  
52 and coastal structures [2–4]. There is an increasing research effort into ways that coastal  
53 infrastructure can be built to meet engineering requirements, while also increasing its value as  
54 habitat for marine life to the benefit of both engineering and nature [5–10]. Structures are aimed  
55 to be constructed with a minimal impact on the existing environment and with a maximal  
56 possible development of new ecological habitat to encourage ecosystems that replace those that  
57 may be lost [11,12]. Combining engineering techniques and ecological understanding can  
58 provide cost-effective ways of maintaining or enhancing biodiversity [7,13,14].

59 The engineers who design civil engineering structures must carry out intensive investigations  
60 to ensure a minimum service life of the structures while respecting the economic constraints  
61 [15]. In the marine environment, cementitious materials are exposed to a multitude of actions  
62 of different natures (physical, chemical and biological) which can be aggressive towards the  
63 material and act synergistically, leading to the deterioration of the structure [15–18]. Although  
64 actions of a mechanical and physicochemical nature are generally well understood and are  
65 subject to standards and recommendations, the actions of a biological nature are much less  
66 considered and often neglected [19]. However, it should be noted that the durability of the  
67 material and biological interactions between the material and the environment are  
68 interconnected, as degradation of concrete structures has been observed to vary in intensity and  
69 rate of appearance and propagation due to the presence of microorganisms [20–23]. The  
70 biological interactions between concrete and the marine environment can lead to biodegradation  
71 or bioprotection of marine structure [23–25]. Any undesirable change in the properties caused  
72 by the activities of living organisms is considered as biodeterioration of concrete [26].  
73 Microorganisms affect the stability of concrete by contributing to surface erosion, which  
74 increases the porosity of the surface and thus reduces the protection of the concrete cover.  
75 Increased porosity of the concrete cover leads to more efficient transport of aggressive ions ( $\text{Cl}^-$   
76 ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{OH}^-$ ) which can accelerate reinforcement corrosion, cracking, flaking and other damage  
77 [20,21,27]. In contrast, microorganisms can also protect the colonized concrete by forming a  
78 physical barrier that reduces surface permeability, leading to better durability of the  
79 cementitious materials [24,28–32].

80 In seawater, concrete and any natural or artificial substrata quickly become fouled [33–35]. The  
81 term “fouling” is defined as the colonization of any solid surface, living or dead, natural or  
82 artificial by living organisms in a marine or wet environment [36–39]. This colonization can be  
83 divided into two main stages, micro-fouling and macro-fouling, which are characterized  
84 respectively by the formation of bacterial biofilm on the surface and the adhesion of macro-  
85 organisms such as algae, barnacles and larvae (macro-fouling) (Figure 1) [14,34,40].



86

87 Figure 1. Biofouling in the marine environment. (A) Schematic representation of marine biofouling  
 88 formation [40]. (B) Photo of marine biofouling [14].

89 Within minutes of immersing, organic molecules and particles are adsorbed onto the surface of  
 90 cementitious materials, which is later colonized by bacteria that form a biofilm. Bacterial  
 91 biofilms are composed of one or multiple bacteria species attached to the substratum (and to  
 92 each other) and encased within a matrix of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) [33]. The  
 93 formation of bacterial biofilm involves i) the reversible and irreversible adhesion of microbial  
 94 cells to the surface of the cementitious material, ii) the growth and maturation of the biofilm  
 95 with the secretion of EPS, iii) the partial detachment and dispersion of microbial cells. Mature  
 96 biofilms have complex, three-dimensional structures, which depend on the species composition  
 97 of the biofilm, bacterial activity and environmental conditions [41–43]. However, bacteria  
 98 (bacterial biofilm) are the first colonizers that facilitate the adhesion of other organisms such as  
 99 fungi, microalgae, macroalgae and invertebrates [44–47]. Fouled structure is characterized by  
 100 the thickness, density, structure, composition, bioadhesive strength and weight of fouling  
 101 organisms (Figure 1).

102 Understanding the interactions between microorganisms and cementitious materials is crucial  
 103 and constitutes a fundamental step towards more durable, safer and higher quality structures in  
 104 many contexts [30,48–50]. However, as mentioned, the material’s bioreceptivity (ability to be  
 105 colonized by living organisms) is determined by the nature and the physico-chemical properties  
 106 of the surface [48,51]: the chemical composition [52–55], roughness [56,57], porosity [57–59],  
 107 hydrophobicity [53,60–62], and pH [57,63]. In the marine environment, additional studies are  
 108 necessary to determine the different factors that can influence the biocolonization of  
 109 cementitious materials. The main factors seem to be the pH, the chemical composition and the  
 110 surface roughness [62,64–66].

111  
 112 In order to study the influence of the type of cement (chemical compositions) and surface pH  
 113 on the bacterial colonization of cementitious materials immersed in seawater, this paper  
 114 presents laboratory and field experiments allowing quantification of bacterial biofilm formed  
 115 on cementitious materials with different cement and surface pH. The longer-term objective of  
 116 this study is to develop an experimental approach that could help civil engineers to design  
 117 green-marine structures by specifying the type and physicochemical characteristics of  
 118 cementitious material to be used.

119

## 120 2. Materials and methods

### 121 2.1. Preparation of cementitious materials specimens

122 Three types of cementitious materials were produced: concrete, cement paste and mortar. Table  
123 5 gives an overview over the investigated samples, the pre-treatment, the exposure and the  
124 techniques applied.

### 125 2.1.1. Preparation of cement paste specimens

126 In order to test our laboratory experimental approach, a Portland cement paste was prepared by  
127 mixing (mixer, 500 rpm for 60 seconds and 1000 rpm for 30 seconds) in a ratio w/c of 0.5,  
128 Portland cement (Portland cement CEM I 52,5 N PM ES) and water. After mixing, the cement  
129 pastes were cast in cylindrical molds with 2.2 cm diameter and 2 cm height and were kept 7  
130 days at 20 °C in a laboratory room. Then, the cement pastes were demolded and placed for 7  
131 days in the laboratory room at 20 °C.

### 132 2.1.2. Preparation of mortar specimens

133 In order to study the influence of the type of cement and surface pH on the natural bacterial  
134 colonization of mortars, four types of mortar specimens were prepared; two with CEM I  
135 Portland cement (Portland cement CEM I 52.5 N PM ES), and two with CEM III (composed of  
136 60% of ground granulated blast-furnace slag NF EN 15167-1, provided by Ecocem, N° CAS:  
137 65996-69-2). Table 1 shows the major constituents of this type of slag.

138 Table 1. Chemical composition of the blast furnace slag (traces of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>O and K<sub>2</sub>O are also  
139 detected in the slag [67])

Component	Percentage (%)
CaO	35-48
SiO <sub>2</sub>	32-41
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9-18
MgO	1-9
MnO <sub>2</sub>	0.4-0.7
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.2-3
SO <sub>3</sub>	0.4-1

140

141 The mortar had a water-cement-ratio (w/c) of 0.5 and was composed of 450 g cement and 1350  
142 g sand (see Table 2). After mixing, the mortars were cast in cylindrical molds with 5.5 cm  
143 diameter and 6 cm height and were kept sealed with a lid at 20 °C. After 7 days of hardening,  
144 mortar samples with a diameter of 2.8 cm and a height of 3 cm were cut out from mortar  
145 cylinders. In order to reduce excessive leaching of Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> during the test, the cut mortar  
146 specimens were first immersed in distilled water for at least 14 days with weekly water  
147 replacement. This pre-leaching has the role of lowering the pH of the surface and then makes  
148 easier material colonization.

149 After the pre-leaching procedure, half of the mortar samples were placed at 20 °C in an aerated  
150 chamber for 7 days to obtain carbonated mortar samples (Table 2). The surface pH was  
151 evaluated using pH paper (described below) and the phenolphthalein solution [68]. When  
152 applied, phenolphthalein indicators give a pink color to the non-carbonated surface while the  
153 surface becomes colorless if it is carbonated.

154 Table 2 gives an overview of the four types of mortar specimens: 1- carbonated CEM I, 2- Non-  
155 carbonated CEM I, 3- carbonated CEM III, 4- Non-carbonated CEM III. The abbreviation,  
156 cement type used, composition and pre-treatment for the four specimens are specified.

157 Table 2. Types and compositions of mortar specimens investigated in this study.

Mortar specimen	Cement	w/c	CEM I (g)	Ecocem (g)	Water (g)	Sand (g)	pre-treatment
1C	CEM I	0.5	450	0	225	1350	14 days in distilled water
1NC							7 days in aerated chamber
3C	CEM III	0.5	180	270	225	1350	14 days in distilled water
3NC							7 days in aerated chamber
							14 days in distilled water

158

159 **2.1.3. Preparation of concrete specimens**

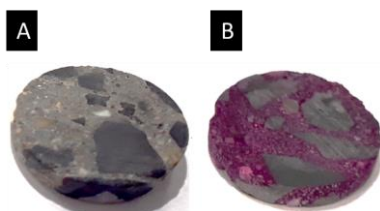
160 Concrete specimens used in this study (Table 5) were extracted from concrete discs (diameter  
 161 11 cm and height 7 cm) already prepared in 2016 by Souche *et al* [14,56]. Table 3 shows  
 162 information regarding the composition of the concrete. The concrete was prepared with water  
 163 to cement ratio of 0.6, a Portland cement CEM I 52.5 N PM ES (the same type of cement is  
 164 used in mortar and cement paste samples), sand (0/4, Languedoc Roussillon Matériaux, LRM),  
 165 a natural silica-limestone gravel (5.6/11.2, LRM), and a superplasticizer with a high water  
 166 reducing properties.

167 Table 3. Composition of concrete prepared in 2016 by Souche *et al* [56].

Compound	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Quantity (kg/m <sup>3</sup> ) of concrete
CEM I 52.5 N PM ES	3.19	333.3
sand (0/4)	2.62	827.0
Gravel (5.6/11.2)	2.56	961.0
Superplasticizer	1.06	2.4
Water	1.00	220.3

168

169 The concrete samples used in this study (diameter 2 cm and height 0.3 cm) were obtained by  
 170 coring (with a crown of 2.2 cm) and sawing the concrete discs. Each concrete sample obtained  
 171 after sawing was inspected and selected to be representative (presence of paste and aggregates).  
 172 The samples obtained from the end of the discs were considered as carbonated samples and the  
 173 rest of the cylinder was considered as non-carbonated. The samples obtained were hermetically  
 174 stored in sealed tubes for 1 day and then emerged in seawater. As was the case for mortars, the  
 175 pH of the concrete surface was evaluated using pH paper and the pH indicator phenolphthalein.  
 176 The phenolphthalein test revealed that the sawn samples at the end of the discs are carbonated,  
 177 which is not the case with the sawn samples from the rest of the discs (Figure 2).



178

179 Figure 2. Phenolphthalein tests on the surface of the concrete samples obtained after sawing.  
 180 (A) Sample taken from the end of the concrete disc. (B) Sample taken from the rest of the  
 181 concrete disc.

182

## 183 2.2. Biofilm laboratory test

184 Biofilm laboratory test was performed on both concrete and cement paste samples. In both  
185 cases, the medium used was seawater recovered from the IFREMER station at Palavas (Biology  
186 Research Unit for exploited marine organisms) in sterile glass bottles (autoclave, 121°C for 15  
187 minutes). The chemical composition of this seawater resembles to that of the Mediterranean  
188 Sea (Table 4)

189 Table 4. Main ionic species present in the Mediterranean seawater [69].

Ionic species	Cl <sup>-</sup>	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	Br <sup>-</sup>	Na <sup>+</sup>	Mg <sup>2+</sup>	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	K <sup>+</sup>
Concentration (g/L)	17.8	2.5	0.2	10.0	1.5	0.4	0.3

190

191 In the case of concrete, two types of samples were used, carbonated and non-carbonated  
192 concrete, while in the case of cement paste the variable was the medium used; natural and sterile  
193 seawater (natural seawater autoclaved by an autoclave at 121°C for 15 minutes). An overview  
194 of the samples prepared, how they are exposed, and how they are investigated is proposed in  
195 Table 5

196 To carry out this test, sterile samples of concrete or cement paste (sterilized by autoclave at  
197 121°C for 15 minutes) were deposited on the bottom of the 250 ml sterile Erlenmeyer flasks  
198 (Duran, Dutscher 092049) containing 50 ml of seawater (4 samples / Erlenmeyer flask) [29].  
199 The Erlenmeyer flasks, sealed with caps (screw cap GL45 with Polytetra-Fluorethylene filter  
200 membranes), were then incubated at 20 °C and 80 rpm to ensure the oxygenation of the medium  
201 which is necessary for the growth of microorganisms. After each incubation period (0, 1, 2, 8,  
202 10, 15, 25 and 35 days), the samples were recovered from the Erlenmeyer flasks and were gently  
203 rinsed three times with 1 ml of sterile seawater to remove non-adhered microorganisms from  
204 their surfaces. Then, the adhering bacteria were detached from the surface using an ultrasonic  
205 bath (Bandelin SONOREX™) for 10 minutes at 20 °C (the samples are placed in sterile tubes  
206 containing sterile seawater and the tubes are immersed in the ultrasonic bath). The obtained  
207 solution was diluted using sterile seawater. Then, 100 µl of diluted solution were spread on  
208 plates containing Marine Agar (Dutscher, 490614). These plates were then incubated at 20 °C  
209 and colony count was performed at least 72 hours. The results are expressed as colony forming  
210 units per cm<sup>3</sup> of cementitious materials (CFU / cm<sup>3</sup>). This biofilm quantification method known  
211 as “culture-based methods” is widely used in the literature [25,70,71]. In this method, the  
212 culture medium has a major impact on microorganism growth. We used in this study the Marine  
213 Agar, a medium which is widely used for the culture of marine bacteria [43,72,73].

## 214 2.3. pH measurement

215 pH measurements of the seawater and the surface of the cementitious materials were performed  
216 using pH electrode (Hanna instrument, HI1230, accuracy 0.1 pH unit) and pH indicator paper  
217 (Whatman, 0.0 to 14.0, accuracy 1 pH unit) respectively. In the case of the pH measurement of  
218 seawater, the pH electrode was rinsed thoroughly with distilled water before being dipped in a  
219 well-agitated seawater (30 ml). The pH value was noted when the pH reading is stable. In the  
220 case of cementitious materials, one ml of ultra-pure water (Milli-Q water) was added to the  
221 surface of the sample. After one minute, the pH paper was deposited on the surface and the pH  
222 value was evaluated after 30 seconds of contact between the pH paper and the surface [57,58].  
223 Then, this pH was verified using phenolphthalein indicator (goes from colorless to pink at pH  
224 ≥ 9). This method allows evaluating the pH of the surface and not the pH of the complete

225 material. It should be noted that this evaluated pH can be influenced by the biofilm present on  
226 the surface. However, the use of phenolphthalein and pH indicator paper allows the rather  
227 qualitative evaluation of the pH of the surface and does not give an accurate quantification of  
228 the pH of the material [68].

## 229 **2.5. Biofilm *in-situ* test**

230 Biofilm *in-situ* test was carried out using the 4 types of mortars. The *in-situ* exposure site is  
231 located at the IFREMER station in Palavas (France). It is a flat basin (polyester, length 6 m  
232 height 0.6 m and width 2 m) with a seawater inlet and outlet, which allows for an open water  
233 circuit.

234 To ensure the correct progress of the experiment and to avoid any type of contamination, the  
235 basin was first cleaned and disinfected. Mortar samples sterilized in the laboratory by autoclave  
236 were then placed in the basin and completely covered with seawater.

237 After each incubation time (0, 1, 3, 8, 15 and 45 days), three mortar samples of each mortar  
238 type were used to quantify the formation of bacterial biofilm. The bacterial colonization are  
239 quantified as described above and the results are presented as colony forming units per cm<sup>3</sup> of  
240 mortar (CFU / cm<sup>3</sup>).

## 241 **2.6. Statistical analyses**

242 To evaluate the significance of the different results obtained, statistical analysis was done via  
243 GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) using t-test, one-way and two-  
244 way ANOVA tests. Statistical significance was accepted by  $P_{\text{value}} < 0.05$  obtained using  
245 Bonferroni or Tukey multiple comparison post-tests.



## 246 **3. Results and discussion**

### 247 **3.1. Biofilm laboratory test using cement paste samples**

248 Several studies have been dedicated to the development of a laboratory test for the evaluation  
249 of the bioreceptivity of cementitious materials [29,61,74–76]. The laboratory test must be  
250 reproducible, inexpensive and easy to carry out. It should also discriminate the intrinsic  
251 parameters of cementitious materials for biocolonization. The studies carried out are rather  
252 focused on building materials with air as an environment, or sewer systems with wastewater as  
253 an environment. However, no study to date has been carried out on maritime structures meaning  
254 with seawater as environment, as is done in the current study. The bacterial biofilm developed  
255 on the surface of paste samples immersed in seawater under laboratory conditions was  
256 quantified during 34 days. Since the development of bacterial biofilm is influenced by the  
257 alkalinity of the medium and that of the surface to be colonized, the pH of the surface of the  
258 cement paste samples and seawater was measured throughout the experiment. The results  
259 obtained are shown in figure 3.

#### 260 **3.1.1. pH of cement paste surfaces**

261 The pH of the surface is very basic already from the start of this test, with a value equal to 11.75  
262 (Figure 3 A). The pH was also verified using phenolphthalein indicators which gave a pink  
263 coloration after contact with the surface of the cement paste indicating a pH higher than 9. The  
264 pH of the pore solution of hydrated cement paste with CEM I ranges generally between 13 and  
265 14 [77]. The measured pH of the surface is therefore lower than expected. This might be due to  
266 the pre-treatment of the samples.

267 When cement paste is immersed or in contact with seawater, it will leach due to the high ionic  
268 strength of the pore solution of the cement paste compared to the seawater. The pH of a CEM  
269 I paste is generally between 13 and 14 whereas the pH of seawater varies between 7.5 and 9.0,  
270 with an average of around 8.2 [78,79]. Alkali metals such as potassium, as well as calcium and  
271 hydroxide ions will leach out of the cement paste which will lead to a decrease in the pH of the  
272 material [80]. However, the pH of the surface of the cement paste remained almost constant  
273 throughout our test. There are two potential reasons for this: (1) the cement paste has been pre-  
274 leached during the pre-treatment and reached some kind of steady state prior to the experiment.  
275 (2) the volume of the exposure solution (seawater) is constant a rather small (50 mL) which can  
276 have lead to rapid saturation of the solution with alkali metals, calcium and hydroxide limiting  
277 further leaching during the experiment.

#### 278 **3.1.2. pH of seawater**

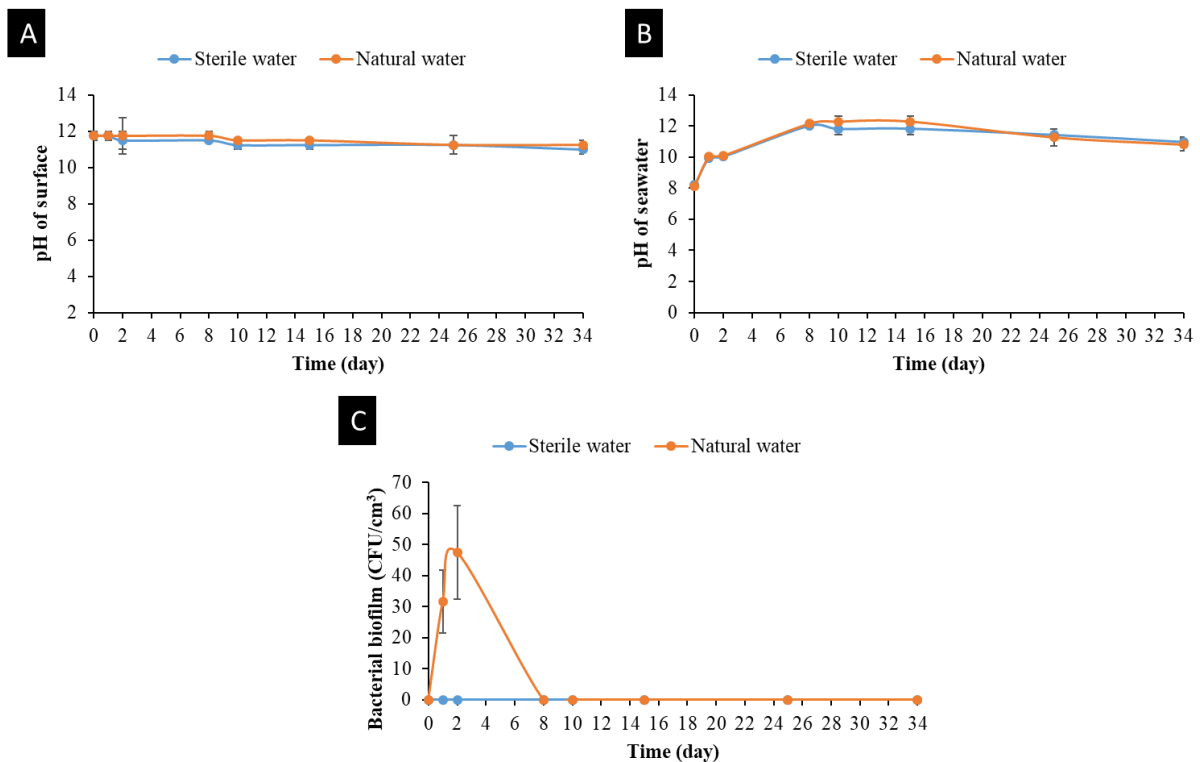
279 The “carbonic acid – bicarbonate - carbonate” system is the main pH buffer for seawater. The  
280 pH of seawater varies between 7.5 and 9.0, with an average of around 8.2 [78,79]. Figure 3 B  
281 shows that the pH measured for seawater was 8.2 at the start of the experiment. Due to leaching,  
282 the pH of seawater gradually increases to reach a value of 12 after 8 days of immersion. Then,  
283 the pH remains almost constant throughout the experiment at a value between 11.5 and 12.

#### 284 **3.1.3 Quantification of bacterial biofilm**

285 In their natural or artificial environment, the majority of microorganisms adhere to biotic or  
286 abiotic surfaces. This microorganism-surface duality is conditioned by the properties of the

287 substrate, properties of the bacterial surface, and environmental conditions [48]. In seawater,  
 288 the microorganisms live at pH values around 8.2 and colonize all natural or artificial surfaces  
 289 emerged [81,82]. Figure 3 C shows that the adhesion of bacteria to cement pastes was  
 290 impossible throughout the experiment. This can be explained by the very basic pH of the  
 291 seawater and of the cement paste surface (Figure 3 A and B); a very basic or very acidic pH can  
 292 inhibit the biofilm formation by marine microorganisms [83–85].

293



294

295 Figure 3. Results obtained with the biofilm laboratory test cement paste samples in seawater. A. pH  
 296 evaluation of cement surface. B. pH measurement of seawater. C. Quantification of bacterial biofilm.  
 297 Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the error bars present the standard deviation from the  
 298 obtained values.

### 299 3.2. Biofilm laboratory test using concrete samples

300 The results obtained with the laboratory test on cement paste show that the pH of the surface  
 301 and the seawater alkalinity have a crucial role in the bacterial colonization of cementitious  
 302 materials under laboratory conditions. Under these conditions, it is impossible to work with  
 303 non-pre-carbonated or non-pre-leached cementitious materials whose high surface pH inhibits  
 304 the adhesion of marine bacteria on the surface.

305 In order to avoid this high surface pH, another test was carried out in the laboratory under the  
 306 same conditions as the previous one. This time, the test was carried out using concrete discs  
 307 naturally cured for 4 years and stored at 20 °C in a laboratory room [56]. Two types of concrete  
 308 discs were obtained from these specimens; carbonated (low pH) and non-carbonated (basic pH)  
 309 (see materials and methods). The advantage of working with these samples is to use concrete  
 310 with a moderate pH (pH < 10) which does not affect the alkalinity of seawater during  
 311 immersion.

312 In order to validate our experimental approach and study the influence of carbonation on the  
313 biocolonization of concrete surfaces in the marine environment, carbonated (low pH) and non-  
314 carbonated (basic pH) concrete samples were incubated in the laboratory (Erlenmeyer flasks)  
315 at 20 °C and 80 rpm in natural seawater. The bacterial biofilm formed on the concrete surface  
316 was quantified after 0, 1, 3, 7, 10, 15, 24, 29 and 60 days. Similarly, the pH of the concrete  
317 surface and the pH of seawater were determined. The results obtained are shown in figure 4.

### 318 **3.2.1. pH of concrete surfaces**

319 The pH at the surface of the carbonated and non-carbonated samples at T0 is 8 and 10  
320 respectively (Figure 4 A). The surface has also been sprayed with phenolphthalein indicator,  
321 resulting in a pink coloration only for the non-carbonated surface. Then, the pH measured at T0  
322 is smaller than the known pH for carbonated and non-carbonated concrete surfaces, 9 and 12  
323 respectively [86,87]. This difference can be explained by the aging of these concrete samples  
324 prepared and stored in a laboratory room before 4 years (natural carbonation). In contact with  
325 air, concrete is under the action of a carbonation reaction (aging) due to CO<sub>2</sub>. CO<sub>2</sub> from the  
326 atmosphere diffuses in gaseous form into the pores of concrete and dissolves in the pore  
327 solution, and reacts to CaCO<sub>3</sub> thereby lowering the pH of the pore solution. This phenomenon  
328 gradually changes the chemical composition and the pH of concrete [84,88,89].

329 Upon immersion, leaching and colonization by bacteria [80,90] lead to a gradually decrease of  
330 the pH of the carbonated and non-carbonated surfaces and reaching a value of 6.5 after 15 days  
331 of immersion. Upon further immersion the pH remains almost constant until the end of the  
332 experiment (Figure 4 A).

### 333 **3.2.2. pH of seawater**

334 Figure 4 B shows that the pH of the seawater containing non-carbonated samples increases to  
335 10 after 1 day of immersion due to Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> and KOH release (leaching). Hereafter, the pH  
336 gradually decreases to 8 after 7 days of incubation and then remains almost constant until T60.  
337 However, in the case of carbonate samples the pH remains almost constant throughout the  
338 experiment, which indicates that the use of pre-carbonated samples in the laboratory prevents  
339 the increase of the pH of the seawater and then allows continuous growth of microorganisms.

### 340 **3.2.3 Quantification of bacterial biofilm**

341 Figure 4 C shows that the formation of bacterial biofilm on the carbonated and non-carbonated  
342 samples started with a latency phase followed by a phase of growth and accumulation of cells  
343 on the surface. These kinetics of the colonization process were also observed by Tran *et al*  
344 during *in vitro* and *in-situ* colonization tests on mortar samples in air [57,58].

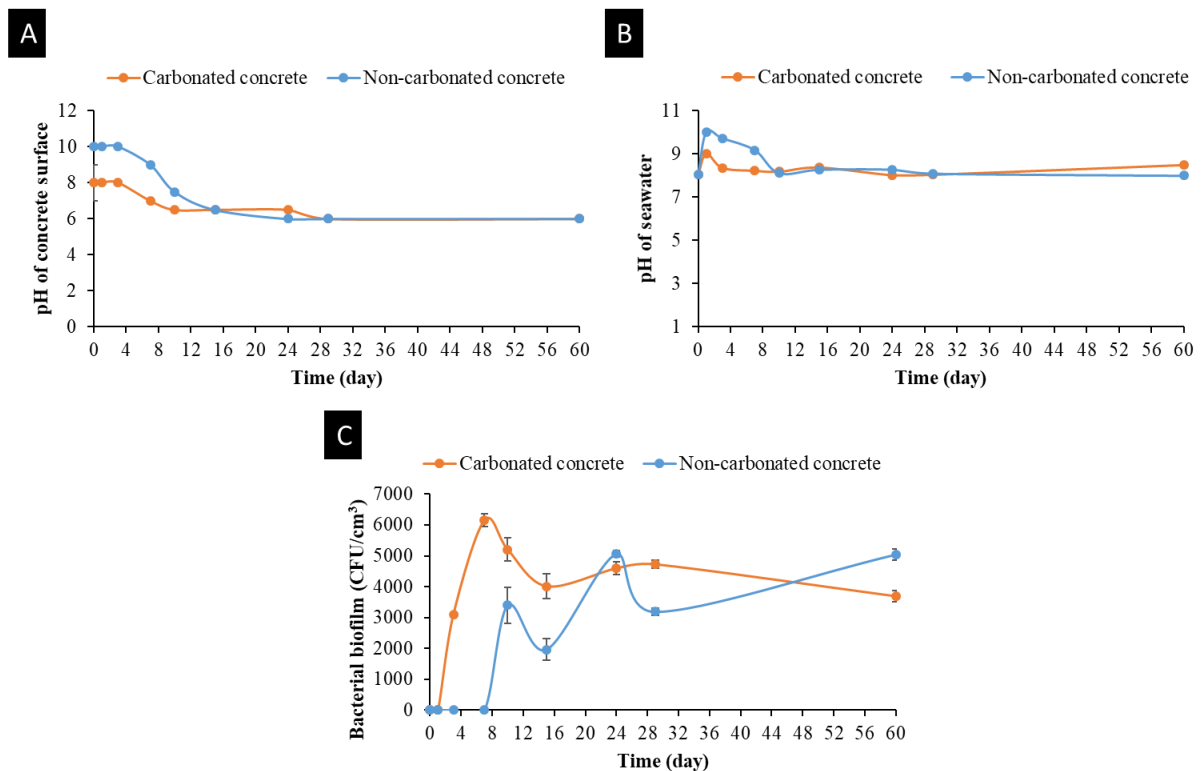
345 In the case of carbonated samples, the formation of bacterial biofilm was spontaneous with an  
346 almost non-existent lag phase. The biofilm accumulation on the surface reaches a maximum  
347 after 7 days of incubation and then decreases slightly to reach a plateau phase. However, in the  
348 case of non-carbonated samples, an induction phase of 7 days was observed and the biofilm  
349 formation reached a maximum after 24 days of incubation with a value equal to that in the case  
350 of carbonated samples (Figure 4 C). Then, a plateau phase was observed until T60.

351 The lag period difference between this two sample cases can be explained by the basic (value  
352 equal 10) and lower pH (value equal 8) at T0 of the non-carbonated and carbonated samples

353 respectively. This influence of surface pH has also been identified in several studies concerning  
 354 the biocolonization of cementitious materials. These studies showed a higher lag phase in the  
 355 case of non-carbonated samples [57,58,91]. Similarly, Dooley *et al.* (1999), Guilbeau *et al.*  
 356 (2003), Prieto *et al.* (2004) showed that carbonation promotes the attachment and growth of  
 357 microorganisms (algae) during accelerated laboratory tests [92–94].

358 In addition, a decrease in the surface pH was found to be necessary for the bacterial biofilm  
 359 development on non-carbonated samples; the biofilm growth started at 5 days when a decrease  
 360 in the surface pH from 10 (T0) to 9 (T5) was observed. These results indicate that carbonation  
 361 plays a primary role in concrete biocolonization in seawater. This pH effect of concrete is  
 362 widely known in the literature: it has been proven that a concrete surface must have a low pH  
 363 (carbonated surface) in order to be colonized by microorganisms [58,85,95].

364 In summary, the presented laboratory test is effective and allows a quick and inexpensive way  
 365 to test the bioreceptivity of cementitious material intended to be immersed in seawater. With  
 366 this work, it has been shown that the pre-carbonation of concrete accelerates the development  
 367 of bacteria on their surface by lowering their pH, which shortens the latency phase observed in  
 368 the case of carbonated samples.



369  
 370 Figure 4. Results obtained with the biofilm laboratory test using concrete samples. A. pH evaluation of  
 371 the concrete surface. B. pH evaluation of seawater containing the carbonated and non-carbonated  
 372 samples. C. Quantification of bacterial biofilm. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the  
 373 error bars present the standard deviation of the obtained values.

### 374 3.3. Biofilm *in-situ* test using mortar samples

375 In order to (i) compare the results obtained in the laboratory test with the natural bacterial  
 376 colonization of cementitious materials (ii) study the influence of the type of cement and surface  
 377 pH on the bioreceptivity of cementitious materials, four types of mortar specimens (non-

378 carbonated CEM I, carbonated CEM I, non-carbonated CEM III, carbonated CEM III) were  
379 immersed in seawater under natural conditions at IFREMER institute (Palavas – France). The  
380 bacterial biofilm formed on the mortar surface was quantified after 0, 1, 3, 8, 10, 15 days. At  
381 the same time, the pH of the mortar surface and the pH of seawater were determined.

### 382 **3.3.1. pH of mortar surfaces**

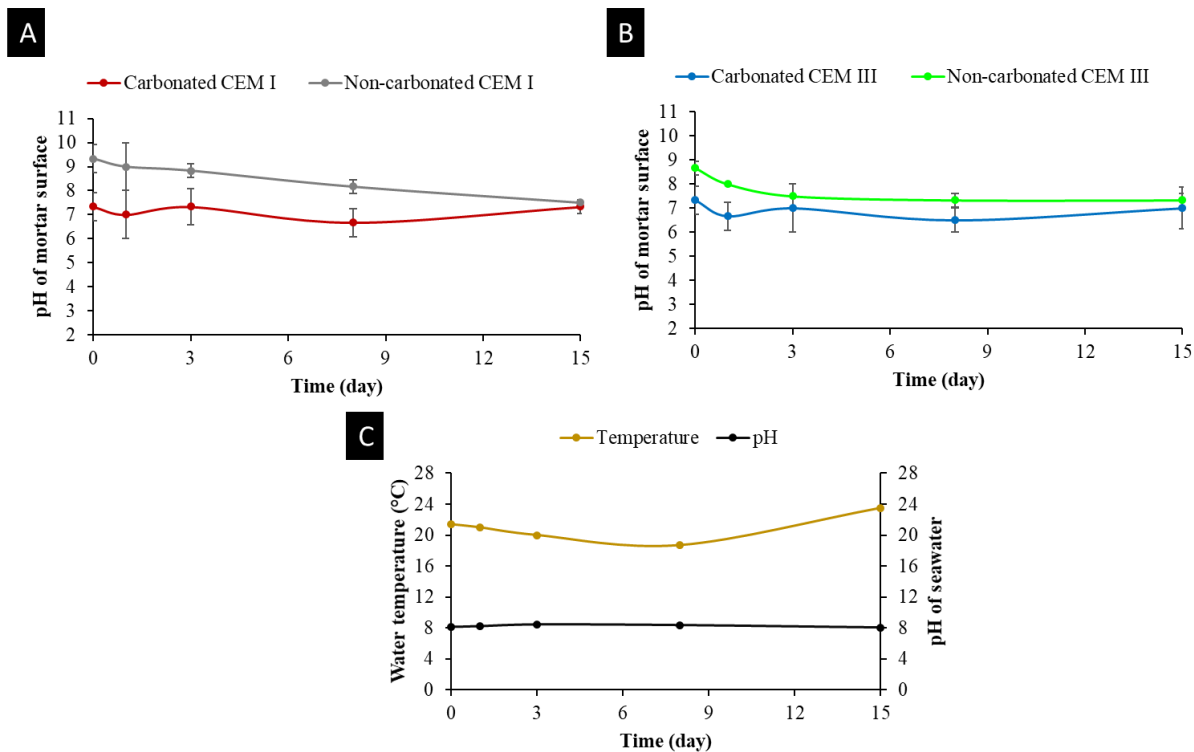
383 Figure 5 A shows that the pH of CEM I mortar samples at T0 is around 9.3 and 7.3 in the case  
384 of non-carbonated and carbonated mortars respectively, which indicates that the carbonation  
385 and leaching of the samples during their preparation succeeded in lowering the pH of the  
386 mortars (see materials and methods). After immersion, in the case of non-carbonated samples,  
387 the pH decreases gradually and reaches a value of 7.5 at T15 due to leaching. However, in the  
388 case of the carbonated samples, the pH of the mortar surface remains nearly constant throughout  
389 the experiment.

390 The CEM I and CEM III mortar samples were prepared in the same way and they were subjected  
391 to the same carbonation and leaching conditions. Similarly to the case of CEM I samples, the  
392 pH of CEM III mortars at T0 is of the order of 8.6 and 7.3 for non-carbonated and carbonated  
393 samples respectively (Figure 5 B). As in the case of CEM I mortars, the pH of non-carbonated  
394 CEM III mortars gradually decreases over time and reaches a value of 7.3 at T15 while the pH  
395 remains almost constant in the case of carbonated samples.

### 396 **3.3.2. Temperature and pH of seawater**

397 Figure 5 C shows that the seawater temperature remained almost constant throughout the  
398 experiment with an average of 20.8 °C (between 21.4 °C at T0 and 23.5 °C at T15), which is  
399 an optimal temperature for the growth of most marine bacteria [43,96–98]. Temperature is an  
400 environmental factor which acts on the biocolonization of cementitious materials [99–102].  
401 Maintaining optimal environmental conditions for the growth of microorganisms facilitates the  
402 discrimination of the support parameters (intrinsic parameters of cementitious materials) for  
403 biocolonization of cementitious materials. In 2014, Tran *et al.* compared laboratory and *in-situ*  
404 colonization of carbonated and non-carbonated mortar samples in air. With laboratory tests,  
405 they found that carbonation affects colonization, whereas this was not observed in the case of  
406 the *in-situ* tests. They explained this observation by climate conditions unfavorable to  
407 microorganisms growth during *in-situ* tests [57].

408 Moreover, the pH of seawater remains constant throughout this test (Figure 5 C). The release  
409 of Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> and KOH resulting from the leaching reaction of the mortar samples after  
410 immersion did not affect the pH stability of seawater because the test was carried out here in an  
411 open seawater circuit.

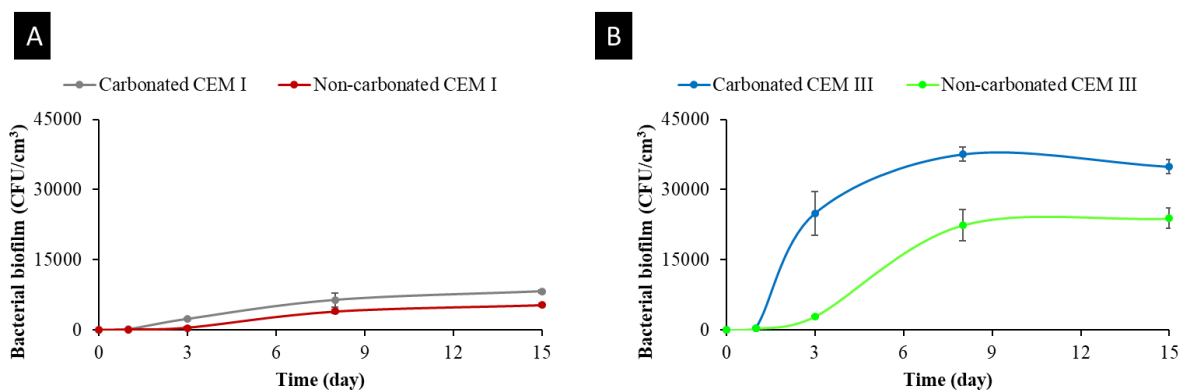


412

413 Figure 5. Results of temperature and pH obtained in the biofilm *in-situ* test using mortar samples. A. pH  
 414 evaluation of the CEM I mortar samples. B. pH evaluation of the CEM III mortar samples. C.  
 415 temperature and pH evaluation of seawater. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the error  
 416 bars present the standard deviation of the obtained values.

### 417 3.3.3. Quantification of bacterial biofilm

418 Figure 6 shows that the bacterial colonization of CEM I and CEM III mortar samples. It starts  
 419 with a latency phase followed by a phase of growth and accumulation of cells on the surface,  
 420 as was the case in the laboratory test. The formation of a bacterial biofilm is faster and higher  
 421 in the case of carbonated samples compared to the non-carbonated both of CEM I and CEM III  
 422 mortars. These results confirm the conclusion obtained from the laboratory test; carbonation  
 423 promotes the attachment and growth of bacterial biofilm on cementitious materials in marine  
 424 environment.



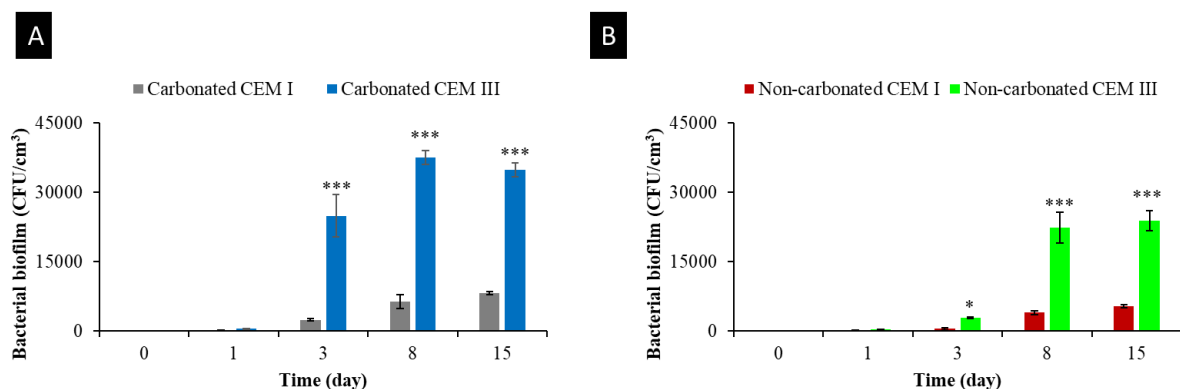
425

426 Figure 6. Quantification of bacterial colonization of mortar samples. A. CEM I mortar samples. B. CEM  
 427 III mortar samples. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the error bars present the standard  
 428 deviation of the obtained values.

429 However, carbonation of cementitious materials leads to a decrease in pH but also to a change  
 430 in the mineral phases on the surface such as the appearance of calcium carbonate [103,104]. In  
 431 the marine environment, the formation of bacterial biofilm is influenced by the presence of  
 432 divalent cations such as  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  [105–110]. In general,  $Ca^{2+}$  enhanced the biofilm  
 433 growth in a dose-dependent manner by binding to the EPS components of the biofilm  
 434 (especially extracellular DNA), whereas  $Mg^{2+}$  significantly increased the cell growth in biofilm  
 435 [105,111]. We propose that the pre-carbonation of the samples before immersion increases the  
 436 formation of bacterial biofilm not only by the decrease in pH but also by the change in the  
 437 mineral phases on the surface.

### 438 3.3.4. CEM I vs CEM III mortar samples

439 Figure 7 shows that the type of cement has a large influence on the bacterial colonization of  
 440 cementitious materials in marine environment. The formation of bacterial biofilm is  
 441 significantly higher in the case of CEM III mortars regardless of the state of carbonation. For  
 442 example, at 3 days of incubation, the bacterial colonization of carbonated CEM III mortar is  
 443 approx. 10 times greater than that of carbonated CEM I mortars (Figure 7 A). At 8 days of  
 444 incubation, the bacterial colonization of non-carbonated CEM III mortars is about 5 times  
 445 greater than that of carbonated CEM I mortars (Figure 7 B). These results are in agreement with  
 446 the literature in which a similar effect of chemical composition on the biocolonization of  
 447 cementitious materials has been reported [56,60,64,106]. In addition, Ahmed showed that  
 448 cementitious materials prepared with CEM III are more bioreceptive than those formulated by  
 449 CEM I using laboratory and field-scale tests in river water [112].



450  
 451 Figure 7. Formation of bacterial biofilm results using mortar samples. A. Quantification of bacterial  
 452 biofilm on carbonated CEM I and CEM III mortars. B. Quantification of bacterial biofilm on non-  
 453 carbonated CEM I and CEM III mortars. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the error bars  
 454 present the standard deviation of the obtained values. The experiments highlighted by asterisks were  
 455 significantly different compared to its control (Bonferroni; \*:  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*:  $p < 0,001$ ) at the indicated  
 456 time.

457  
 458 In the marine environment, bacterial biofilms are known to interact directly with macro-fouling  
 459 organisms [44,106] and differences in biofilm community structure and quantity may influence  
 460 their attachment [34,113]. The physical properties of bacterial biofilms, biotic composition of  
 461 biofilms, and accumulation of chemical compounds, as well as the dynamics of these  
 462 parameters provide a discriminative mechanism in shaping biofouling communities including  
 463 algal, larvae and invertebrate colonization [36,47]. For these reasons, we propose that the

464 chemical composition of submerged cementitious materials can influence not only the quantity  
465 of bacterial biofilm, but also macrofouling and subsequently biodiversity in the marine  
466 environment. To enhancing marine biodiversity, it is better to manufacture marine structures  
467 using CEM III cement.

### 468 **3.4. Laboratory versus *in-situ* tests**

469 Table 5 summarizes the results of the laboratory and field tests.

470 The first laboratory immersion test was carried out with non-carbonated cement paste samples.  
471 The pH at T0 of these samples was of the order of 12 which increased the pH of the seawater  
472 and inhibited the growth of bacteria. This test have shown that biocolonization in laboratory  
473 immersion tests only occurs on carbonated or leached samples whose pH is lower than 12.

474 The second laboratory immersion test was carried out on samples of long-term cured concrete.  
475 The pH at T0 of these samples was of the order of 8 and 10 for the carbonated and non-  
476 carbonated samples respectively. This low pH of samples kept the average pH of seawater at  
477 8.33. Then, the bacteria were in good growth conditions and they colonized the samples. The  
478 results obtained with this laboratory immersion test show that the carbonated samples are  
479 colonized more quickly and with a greater amount of bacteria.

480 Finally, *in-situ* immersion test was carried out with CEM I and CEM III mortar samples. This  
481 immersion test confirmed the results obtained with the second laboratory immersion test;  
482 surface carbonation promotes the attachment and growth of bacterial biofilm on cementitious  
483 materials in marine environment. However, in the case of CEM I mortars, the lag phase is  
484 smaller than that observed in the laboratory immersion test for non-carbonated samples (3 days  
485 versus 7 days respectively). Furthermore, in the laboratory immersion test the quantity of  
486 bacterial biofilm on the surface is higher. These differences can be explained by the different  
487 conditions between the laboratory and the field immersion tests; (i) the use of an open seawater  
488 circuit for the field immersion test allowed faster leaching of the non-carbonated samples. (ii)  
489 The seawater flow allowed a continuous washing of the sample surfaces, which leads to a partial  
490 detachment of the bacterial biofilm throughout the experiment [74].



491 Table 5. Results of the laboratory and *in-situ* tests.

Test	Type of samples	Storage before immersion	pH at T0	Duration of lag phase during bacterial colonization (days)	Maximum bacterial colonization (CFU/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Time to reach the maximum (day)	pH average of seawater during immersion	Results
Laboratory test	Cement paste	7 days in laboratory room at 20°C	12	ND	ND	ND	11.50	Absence of bacterial colonization; it is impossible do have biocolonization in the laboratory (closed water circuit) using non-carbonated or non-leached samples
Laboratory test	Carbonated concrete samples	4 years in laboratory room at 20°C	8	1	61711	7	8.33	Surface carbonation promotes bacterial colonization with a lower latency phase
	Non-carbonated concrete samples	4 years in laboratory room at 20°C	10	7	50601	24	8.71	
<i>In-situ</i> test	Carbonated CEM I mortar samples	14 days in distilled water 7 days in aerated chamber	7.3	1	8229	15	8.23	Surface carbonation promotes the attachment and growth of bacterial biofilm on cementitious materials in marine environment  The type of cement has a large influence on the bacterial colonization of cementitious materials in marine environment; CEM III mortar are more bioreceptive than CEM I mortar
	Non-carbonated CEM I mortar samples	14 days in distilled water	9.3	3	5378	15	8.23	
	Carbonated CEM III mortar samples	14 days in distilled water 7 days in aerated chamber	7.3	1	37538	8	8.23	
	Non-carbonated CEM III mortar samples	14 days in distilled water	8.6	3	22378	8	8.23	

492

#### 493 **4. Conclusions**

494 This study proposes a new fast and reliable laboratory test to control factors that can influence  
495 the bacterial colonization of cementitious materials in the marine environment in an easy and  
496 inexpensive way. This test allows reproducing, with a simple experiment in Erlenmeyer flasks,  
497 the results observed with *in-situ* tests. The study shows that the laboratory tests have made it  
498 possible to mimic the natural environment and to lead to similar conclusions: the carbonation  
499 (surface pH) and the type of cement play a primary role in cementitious materials colonization  
500 by bacteria in the marine environment. Carbonated concrete and mortar are more bioreceptive  
501 than the non-carbonated ones in the primary days which is consistent with the literature [54].  
502 The type of cement influences the kinetics and the amount of the development of bacterial  
503 biofilm and might have an influence on the biocolonization quality in the marine environment  
504 (biodiversity). However, after two weeks, both the materials are colonized in accordance with  
505 the study of Jakobsen *et al.*, (2016) [110]. Pre-carbonation of the exposed surface seems to have  
506 a stronger beneficial effect on biocolonization compared to the chemical composition of the  
507 cement.

508 Eco-design of marine structures is a major focus for many researchers and construction  
509 companies working in marine environment, to enhance durability and also since few years to  
510 minimize and mitigate human impacts toward “no net loss” on biodiversity policies [14,114].  
511 These companies have long experience in the field of the design of the marine structures and  
512 are seeking to improve the construction in marine ecosystems by for example the inspection of  
513 the old structures or the use of innovative concrete “eco-blocks” (e.g.  
514 <https://www.concretelayer.com>). We will collaborate with one of these companies to validate  
515 the laboratory test proposed in this paper on an industrial scale by carrying out parallel *in vitro*  
516 and *in-situ* test on real marine structures. We will also delve deeper into some issues such as  
517 the effect of hydrophobicity material on biocolonization in marine environments and the effect  
518 of formwork oil and curing products on the kinetic of biofilm formation.

519

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