

Recovery of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* culturability following copper- and chlorine-induced stress

Running Title: *P. aeruginosa* culturability recovery after induced stress

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NonTechnical Summary: The authors investigated the loss of culturability of *P. aeruginosa* in presence of copper and chlorine concentrations typically found in drinking water and demonstrated culturability recovery once stressors were removed.

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1 **Abstract**

2 This study investigated how quickly cells of the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
3 recover culturability after exposure to two of the most common environmental stressors present in
4 drinking water, free chlorine and copper ions. Viable but non-culturable (VBNC) *P. aeruginosa*
5 undetected by direct culturing following exposure to free chlorine or copper ions can survive in
6 drinking water systems, with potential to recover, multiply and regain infectivity. Cells were
7 exposed to copper sulphate ($0.25 \text{ mg Cu}^{2+} \text{ L}^{-1}$) or free chlorine (initial dose of $2 \text{ mg Cl}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$) for 24h.
8 Despite total loss of culturability and a reduction in viability from 1.2×10^7 to 4×10^3 cells mL^{-1} (3.5
9 log), cells exposed to chlorine recovered viability quickly after the depletion of free chlorine, while
10 culturability was recovered within 24 hours. Copper ions did not depress viability, but reduced
11 culturability from 3×10^7 to 2.3×10^2 cells mL^{-1} (5.1 log); VBNC cells regained culturability
12 immediately after copper ion chelation. A comparison between direct culturing and Pseudalert, a
13 specific enzyme-based assay, was performed. Both detection methods were well correlated in the
14 range of 10^2 - 10^{10} cells L^{-1} . However, correlations between the methods declined after exposure to
15 copper ions.

16 **Introduction**

17 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an important source of nosocomial infections and the most frequently
18 recovered Gram-negative bacterium from patients with nosocomial pneumonia in the USA
19 (Weinstein *et al.*, 2005). For cystic fibrosis patients, it is the primary cause of morbidity (Pier, 2012)
20 and a major predictor of mortality (Emerson *et al.*, 2002). It can also cause bacteraemia, urosepsis
21 and secondary wound infections, including burns infection (Kerr & Snelling, 2009). Sources of
22 transmission are multiple, but water is believed to be an important contributor for the transmission of

23 *P. aeruginosa* in hospitals (Trautmann *et al.*, 2005). In most intensive care unit outbreaks
24 investigated, water has been implicated either directly or indirectly (Ferroni *et al.*, 1998, Ehrhardt *et*
25 *al.*, 2006, Vianelli *et al.*, 2006, Hota *et al.*, 2009, Durojaiye *et al.*, 2011, Yapicioglu *et al.*, 2011,
26 Schneider *et al.*, 2012). According to recent information, 30 to 50% of *P. aeruginosa* infections in
27 intensive care units are associated with water (Exner, 2012).

28 The detection of *P. aeruginosa* in drinking water presents several challenges, including its
29 preference for biofilm vs planktonic state as well as its presence in low and variable concentrations.
30 Moreover, environmental factors such as nutrient-poor conditions and the presence of inhibitors and
31 stressors can lead to a dominance of the viable but non-culturable (VBNC) state. Cells in the VBNC
32 state are still alive and capable of metabolic activity but fail to multiply and grow on routine media
33 on which they would normally grow (Oliver, 2005). A VBNC state has not been typically associated
34 with *P. aeruginosa* and its presence in environmental samples has not fully been assessed. When
35 monitoring for *P. aeruginosa* at drinking water taps, two main environmental stresses can be present:
36 disinfectant residual and metals ions from plumbing (copper, zinc and lead). Depending on prior
37 stagnation and residual chlorine concentration at the time of sampling, traditional culture methods
38 may fail to reveal the presence of VBNC *P. aeruginosa* because of the impact of these factors on
39 culturability. This is a well-known phenomenon for *Vibrio cholerae* in aquatic environments (Xu *et*
40 *al.*, 1982). The toxicity of copper ions to culturable *P. aeruginosa* cells has been documented at
41 relatively high concentrations (Teitzel & Parsek, 2003, Harrison *et al.*, 2005, Teitzel *et al.*, 2006,
42 Elguindi *et al.*, 2009). However, the direct relevance of these results to conditions prevailing in
43 drinking water systems is limited because of: (1) the use of growth media or mineral salt solutions in
44 which the availability of toxic free copper ions varies with the level of chelation and binding; and (2)
45 the systematic quenching of copper ions before enumeration. The impact of copper ions on

46 culturable and VBNC *P. aeruginosa* was verified in drinking water containing realistic copper
47 concentrations ($63.5 \mu\text{g Cu}^{2+} \text{L}^{-1}$) showing a greater sensitivity to copper ions and an overwhelming
48 effect of added chelators (Moritz *et al.*, 2010). VBNC *P. aeruginosa* cells undetected by culture can
49 survive in the system, and eventually recover and multiply when stressors are removed, e.g. free
50 chlorine depletion during stagnation periods. Furthermore, VBNC cells can also recover cytotoxicity
51 as shown by the reversible VBNC state of suspended *P. aeruginosa* induced by copper ions
52 (Dwidjosiswojo *et al.*, 2011).

53 The objectives of this study were 1) to estimate the impact of free chlorine and copper ions stresses
54 on culturable and VBNC suspended *P. aeruginosa* cells under conditions representative of internal
55 plumbing, 2) to test a new specific enzymatic activity-based assay for the increased recovery of
56 stressed bacteria and 3) to quantify the recovery of *P. aeruginosa* after stress interruption for both
57 free chlorine and copper ions.

58 **Materials and Methods**

59 **Bacterial strain and culture conditions**

60 Experiments were performed with *P. aeruginosa* strain PA14 (Lee *et al.*, 2006) grown in Tryptic
61 Soy Broth (Difco, Detroit, USA) overnight at 37°C . Cells were harvested by centrifugation ($3000 \times$
62 g for 30 min), washed twice in sterile 2 mM phosphate buffer, and suspended at a final estimated cell
63 density of 5×10^9 cells mL^{-1} .

64 **Experimental conditions**

65 Sterile polypropylene bottles containing 500 mL of 2 mM phosphate buffer ($\text{pH } 7.3 \pm 0.1$) were
66 inoculated (final concentration 10^7 cells mL^{-1}). A control cell suspension was not exposed to free

67 chlorine or copper ions. A chlorine solution was added to inoculated water to obtain an initial free
68 chlorine concentration of $2 \text{ mg Cl}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$. Free chlorine concentrations were measured by the *N,N*-
69 diethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine method using a DR5000 spectrophotometer (HACH, USA). Sodium
70 thiosulfate (1%) was added to neutralize chlorine prior to conducting microbiological analysis.
71 Copper sulphate was used as the source of copper ions and was added to the water prior to
72 inoculation (CuSO_4 , final concentration $0.25 \text{ mg Cu}^{2+} \text{ L}^{-1}$). Copper ions were chelated after 24 hours
73 by the addition of diethyldithiocarbamate (Moritz, 2011). All samples were mixed thoroughly and
74 divided to perform selected analytical methods.

75 For the enzyme-based assay and culture methods comparison in absence of free chlorine and copper
76 ions, serial dilutions of an early exponential phase bacterial suspension were prepared ($1 \text{ to } 10^6 \text{ cells}$
77 mL^{-1}).

78 **Microbiological analysis**

79 Culture was performed according to International Organization for Standardization method
80 16266:2006 for *P. aeruginosa* detection and enumeration in water (International Organization for
81 Standardization, 2006). Briefly, three dilutions were done in duplicate for each sample, filtered on a
82 $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ pore size, 47 mm diameter mixed cellulose ester membrane. The filters were deposited on
83 ceftrimide-nalidixic acid agar plates (45.3 g L^{-1} of Ceftrimide Selective Agar (Remel, Lenexa, USA),
84 10 mL L^{-1} glycerol (Fisher, Fair Lawn, USA), 0.015 g L^{-1} nalidixic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim,
85 Germany) and incubated at 37.5°C for 24 h before enumeration. Detection was also performed on
86 two sample dilutions using the Pseudalert/QuantiTray2000 (IDEXX, Chicago, USA) according to
87 the manufacturer's instructions. Viable and total cell counts were determined using LIVE/DEAD
88 BacLight Bacterial Viability Kit (Molecular Probes, Eugene, USA) (Boulos *et al.*, 1996). This kit
89 differentiates viable from dead cells using membrane integrity criteria. Total cells are defined as the

90 sum of viable (green) and dead (red) cells (Fig. 1). Briefly, 1 mL of sample or dilution in 0.85%
91 sterile saline solution was mixed with 3 µl of stain (propidium iodide and SYTO9), incubated in the
92 dark for 15 min and filtered on black 0.2 µm pore diameter, 25 mm diameter polycarbonate filter
93 (Millipore, Bedford, USA). Enumeration was done at 1000-fold magnification, with an
94 epifluorescence microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). VBNC cells were estimated as the difference
95 between the viable and culturable cells.

96 **Real-time qPCR amplification**

97 A volume of 25 mL was filtered through a 0.45 µm pore diameter, 47 mm diameter mixed cellulose
98 ester membrane for DNA extraction performed directly on filters using the bead beating method
99 adapted from Yu & Mohn, 1999. Briefly, the filter was inserted into an extraction tube (Lysing
100 Matrix A, MP Biomedicals, Solon, USA). Extraction buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH8), 5
101 mM EDTA (pH8), 3% sodium dodecyl sulphate and RNase (20 µg mL⁻¹, Invitrogen, Carlsbad,
102 USA) was added to each tube prior to the bead beating step performed on a FastPrep-24 (MP
103 Biomedicals, Solon, USA), followed by ammonium acetate precipitation (2M, Sigma-Aldrich,
104 St.Louis, USA) and successive cold 70% ethanol washes. Quantification by quantitative polymerase
105 chain reaction (qPCR) was performed on *gyrB* gene, using primers and probes previously described
106 (Lee *et al.*, 2011). The *gyrB* gene was chosen for its specificity and sensitivity for *P. aeruginosa*.
107 The following protocol was applied: 10 min initial denaturation at 95 °C followed by 50 cycles with
108 denaturation at 95°C for 30s, annealing and elongation at 60°C for 90 s (Corbett Rotor-Gene 6000,
109 San Francisco, USA). Final reaction volume (20 µl) included 5 µl of DNA, 2X Universal MasterMix
110 (Life Technologies, Foster City, USA) and TaqMan Exogenous Internal Positive Control Reagent
111 (Applied Biosystems, Austin, USA).

112 **Results and Discussion**

113 The objective was to measure the impact of chlorine-based disinfectant and copper-containing water
114 on the detection of *P. aeruginosa* under environmental conditions and to document its culturability
115 recovery after those stressors were removed. Suspensions of *P. aeruginosa* cells were monitored for
116 up to 8 days, with free chlorine and copper ions present only during the first 24h.

117 **Effect of chlorine stress on *P. aeruginosa* culturability**

118 A representative concentration of free chlorine found in drinking water distribution systems was
119 selected to reach a target concentration of $< 0.1 \text{ mg Cl}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ after 24 h. Figure 2 shows the loss of
120 culturability (final to initial CFU mL^{-1} , N/N_0) of *P. aeruginosa* as a function of exposure to free
121 chlorine expressed as the product of concentration and contact time (also expressed as Ct in the
122 literature) observed during the first 24 hours. Similar data at lower exposure to chlorine values
123 reported by Xue *et al.*, 2013 are also presented. Elevated initial rates of apparent inactivation of
124 culturable *P. aeruginosa* by chlorine have been documented in batch and chemostat experiments
125 (Behnke *et al.*, 2011, Xue *et al.*, 2013) showing large reductions (3.5 to 6 log) at initial free chlorine
126 dosage of $> 1 \text{ mg Cl}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$. Results presented in Fig. 2 show a trend of inactivation similar to the one
127 obtained by Xue *et al.* The loss of culturability observed in this study increased with exposure to free
128 chlorine (product of concentration and contact time) resulting from low chlorine concentrations
129 maintained over long periods of time (24h). These chlorination conditions are representative of those
130 found in the internal plumbing of buildings of drinking water systems.

131 Cell inactivation (final to initial measured cell count ratio, N/N_0) as a function of time is shown for
132 the various detection methods in Figure 3a. Despite complete loss of culturability during the
133 exposure to free chlorine and a poor nutrient environment (phosphate-buffered water), recovery of
134 culturability after an additional delay of 24 hours following stress interruption was observed with

135 both CFU-based and enzyme-based detection methods. A decrease in viable counts was also
136 observed during exposure to chlorine (Fig 3a), indicating membrane injury for a large portion of
137 cells. After the onset of chlorination, the majority of cells labelled with LIVE/DEAD stain (total and
138 viable) showed poor fluorescence in the presence of free chlorine, an observation in agreement with
139 the documented loss of DAPI fluorescence after chlorination at 5 mg Cl₂ L⁻¹ (Saby *et al.*, 1997).
140 Poor fluorescence was attributed to the inability of the dye to bind to chlorine-modified DNA or to
141 physical damage to the DNA. However, as chlorine concentrations declined over time, a transition in
142 cell marking was observed, from typical red-stained associated with membrane permeabilization to
143 orange and light yellow before reverting to light green (Fig. 1). The dye combination of SYTO9 and
144 PI can detect both inner and outer membrane permeabilization in Gram negative bacteria as detected
145 by flow cytometry, and outer membrane damage can be reversible (Berney *et al.*, 2007). According
146 to Xue *et al.* 2013, similar intermediate states of binding after chlorination are an indication of
147 reversible cell injury (i.e. enzyme activity or functional group deformation) as opposed to lethal
148 membrane damage. Although it is not possible to confirm the state of the cells showing intermediate
149 staining, the observed trends in viable and cultivable cells provide evidence that most cells can
150 survive and regrow rapidly after the dissipation of free chlorine. This is clearly observed for VBNC
151 cells after 24 hours, corresponding to the loss of significant concentration in free chlorine (Fig. 3a).
152 qPCR results show a decrease within the first hours of contact time with free chlorine, but revert to
153 levels comparable to total cell counts obtained by LIVE/DEAD staining after 24 h.

154 These results are highly relevant to conditions prevailing in drinking water distribution systems. The
155 levelling off of the inactivation curves observed in disinfection studies show that a significant
156 fraction of suspended bacteria can breakthrough primary disinfection and enter the distribution
157 system (Behnke *et al.*, 2011, Xue *et al.*, 2013). Secondary disinfection conditions are not sufficient

158 to completely inactivate suspended or clustered cells as free chlorine concentrations decline
159 progressively with water age (Rossman *et al.*, 1994). Internal plumbing in large buildings offer
160 highly favorable conditions for biofilm development because of the large surface area provided by
161 small diameter pipes and corrosion, long residence times including dead-end sections and
162 disinfectant consumption (Prévost *et al.*, 1997). A significant fraction of chlorine-injured cells in the
163 present study are still viable but unlikely to be detected by standard culture methods.

164 **Effect of copper ions stress on *P. aeruginosa* culturability**

165 The current World Health Organization guideline value for copper concentrations in drinking water
166 is set at 2 mg Cu²⁺ L⁻¹ (World Health Organization, 2008). In the United States, the Environmental
167 Protection Agency fixed the maximum contaminant level goal for copper at 1.3 mg Cu²⁺ L⁻¹ (United
168 States Environmental Protection Agency, 2009). California has the lowest recommended level with
169 an established public health goal of 0.3 mg L⁻¹ (California Environmental Protection Agency *et al.*,
170 2008). In the present study, copper stress was evaluated by adding 0.25 mg Cu²⁺ L⁻¹, representative
171 of concentrations found in internal plumbing of large buildings in the study area (data not shown)
172 and meeting recommended levels in drinking water. *P. aeruginosa* counts dropped from 3x10⁷ to
173 2.3x10¹ CFU mL⁻¹ (6.1 log) in culture and from 2.9x10⁷ to 1.6x10² MPN mL⁻¹ (4.7 log) as measured
174 by the enzyme-based method within 2 hours of exposure to copper ions (Fig. 3b). These results agree
175 with prior reports of steep decline in culturable *P. aeruginosa* and persistence of a resistant sub-
176 population at lower copper ions levels (Teitzel & Parsek, 2003, Huang *et al.*, 2008, Dwidjosiswojo *et*
177 *al.*, 2011). Unlike free chlorine, ionic copper did not affect viability and no transition period was
178 observed with fluorescent staining (suggesting the absence of significant membrane
179 permeabilization, data not shown). Results obtained by qPCR were constant throughout the
180 experiment and comparable with total cell count. Copper ions were neutralized after 24 hours of

181 contact time by adding a chelating agent (100 μM diethyldithiocarbamate) that was demonstrated to
182 have no inhibitory impact (data not shown). The quenching resulted in recovery of culturability
183 within 3 days, with cell densities approaching initial concentrations. No measurable changes in total
184 or viable cell counts were noted, minimizing the importance of cell multiplication in the apparent
185 recovery of culturability of *P. aeruginosa* although some contribution from surviving cells is
186 possible. These results are in agreement with a previous study documenting the reversible inhibition
187 of *P. aeruginosa* culturability by copper ions (Dwidjosiswojo *et al.*, 2011). Slightly higher losses of
188 culturable cells (from 10^6 CFU mL^{-1} to below detection limit) than those observed here (were
189 reported following exposure of an environmental strain of *P. aeruginosa* to $0.635 \text{ mg Cu}^{2+} \text{ L}^{-1}$
190 copper, with complete recovery in 14 days (Dwidjosiswojo *et al.*, 2011).

191 These results have significant implications for monitoring *P. aeruginosa* in drinking water of health
192 care establishments because of the presence of copper in internal plumbing. While newer copper
193 piping might inhibit *P. aeruginosa* attachment initially, passivation of the material results in biofilm
194 colonization after 1 or 2 years of utilization (Critchley *et al.*, 2001, van der Kooij *et al.*, 2005).

195 Although the main source of copper in water is piping, brass present in valves, faucets, meters, and
196 fittings can also leach copper in water during stagnation. In spite of the impact of brass elements,
197 environmental conditions in the volume of water contained in the tap and its connecting pipe (< 50
198 mL) are most favorable to culturable state. Indeed, copper concentrations will be lower than in the
199 connecting copper piping and free chlorine will be depleted. Therefore, the selection of sampling
200 volumes carries direct implications for culturability and the interpretation of monitoring results.
201 Recommended and typical sampling volumes vary between 50 mL and 500 mL (Ferroni *et al.*, 1998,
202 Trautmann *et al.*, 2001, Chaberny & Gastmeier, 2004, Department of Health (DH), 2013), large
203 enough to include water from the connecting pipe containing potentially high copper concentration.

204 Cells from the initial stagnant volume would then be exposed to enough copper to enter a VBNC
205 state, potentially leading to cell count underestimation when using standard culture methods.
206 Bacteria collected in copper-rich water continue to be exposed to this inhibitor until processing for
207 detection (up to 24 h), unless sufficient quencher or chelating agent are added.

208 **Impact of free chlorine and copper ions stresses on enzyme-based detection compared to** 209 **culture method**

210 Pseudalert is a new enzyme-based assay used to provide a quick response detection of *P. aeruginosa*
211 currently applied to pools, spas and bottled water. It is based on the same platform as Colilert, a US
212 Environmental Protection Agency-approved kit used for the detection of *Escherichia coli*. The
213 enzyme-based assay for *P. aeruginosa* offers an attractive alternative to culture and is currently
214 undergoing validation for monitoring of *P. aeruginosa* at water points of use in healthcare
215 establishments. Technical data from the manufacturer and recent publications provide information
216 on the positive correlation with culture enumerations in pool samples and bottled water (Idexx
217 Laboratories, 2010 a, b, Mannisto 2012, Semproni *et al.* 2014). However, the influence of direct
218 exposure to free chlorine or copper ions stress on the performance of the test has not been
219 documented in drinking water on a wide range of cell concentrations.

220 Figure 4 shows that paired measurements for a control culture in early exponential phase using direct
221 culturing and the enzyme-based methods are highly correlated ($R^2 = 0.99$, $n = 24$) as confirmed by
222 the 95% prediction interval (Fig. S1a). This correlation is observed over a wide range of
223 concentrations and remains in agreement with the previously published dataset on pool and spa
224 water samples ($R^2 = 0.95$, $n = 14$) established with lower detected concentrations of *P. aeruginosa*
225 (Idexx Laboratories, 2010 a). Overall, results obtained by the enzyme-based assay led to slightly
226 higher estimates than direct culturing with a positive bias of 7% (Fig. 4).

227 Figure 5 presents paired measurements by enzyme-based assay and culture methods on stressed
228 cells. Exposure to free chlorine did not modify the correlation observed in the absence of stress ($R^2 =$
229 0.99) (Fig 5). The 95% prediction intervals on the log transformed data without a forced intercept
230 confirms that chlorine exposure does not modify the correlation between the enzyme-based and the
231 culture results (Fig . S1a and b). However, for copper ion induced stress conditions, an apparent
232 scatter from the regression line is noted (Fig. 5) and the 95% prediction interval on the log
233 transformed data without a forced intercept clearly shows the poor correlation in the presence of 0.25
234 mg Cu^{2+} mL^{-1} (Fig. S1c). As no interference with the reagent was observed (data not shown), the
235 increased response of the enzymatic assay may be attributed to the interference of copper ions with
236 the enzymatic hydrolysis of the substrate, possibly because of the enhanced production of the
237 targeted enzyme (Teitzel *et al.*, 2006) .

238 **Implications for environmental monitoring**

239 Culture-based methods are most commonly prescribed to monitor *P. aeruginosa*, and standards and
240 guidelines in drinking water and clinical settings are still almost entirely expressed in CFU mL^{-1} .
241 Results obtained in this study demonstrate the presence of viable *P. aeruginosa* cells in some water
242 samples that would not be detected by standard plate count culturing or by an enzyme-based assay
243 due to prior exposure to free chlorine or copper ion stress, a common situation within internal
244 plumbing. Residual chlorine is often detected in municipal cold water and standard sampling
245 protocols recommend the addition of sodium thiosulfate to neutralize residual chlorine upon sample
246 collection (American Public Health Association (APHA) *et al.*, 2012). Even with neutralization,
247 bacteria previously exposed to free chlorine may not fully recover culturability before the start of
248 culture, as samples are processed within 24h of sampling. Resulting counts may then be an
249 underestimation, providing a false sense of security. The comparison of results from culture and the

250 enzymatic assay suggest a greater sensitivity of the enzymatic assay that, coupled with the quicker
251 response time (< 26 hours), may provide additional surveillance value and contribute to prevention.

252 Results of this study reveal the presence of a large proportion of VBNC cells in the presence of
253 common environmental stressors such as free chlorine and copper ions. It was shown that *P.*
254 *aeruginosa* exposed to chlorine and copper ions are unlikely to be measured by standard culture
255 methods, or even newer quicker response methods based on enzymatic reactions. This raises the
256 question of the sanitary significance of the presence of *P. aeruginosa* in a VBNC state. Although
257 some cells in the VBNC state are avirulent, the potential for VBNC cells to become infectious once
258 resuscitated has been clearly documented (Oliver, 2010, Dwidjosiswojo *et al.*, 2011). Conditions and
259 time lag for such resuscitation vary greatly, and the time of recovery in nutrient-rich environments
260 such as a sink drain or susceptible host is poorly documented. As disinfectant residuals are not stable
261 or are often absent in internal plumbing, VBNC cells could regain culturability and infectivity
262 between sampling events. Copper ion concentrations in large building drinking water systems can
263 reach and surpass 0.25 mg L⁻¹. This is especially the case in large buildings such as hospitals, where
264 copper is a commonly used pipe material and stagnation between uses can lead to elevated copper
265 concentrations. These results also highlight the need to revisit the evaluation of Cu-Ag based-
266 disinfection methods efficacy. Moreover, they highlight the importance of using an appropriate
267 monitoring protocol, including sampling volume, sample treatment and analytical method to assess
268 the risks to which patients are directly or indirectly exposed.

269 On the other hand, the use of qPCR as routine monitoring in hospitals is still infrequent. The main
270 drawback cited against its wide use is its inability to distinguish between viable and dead cells, as all
271 intact DNA can be amplified. Nevertheless, qPCR can still be used as a monitoring tool, especially
272 to interpret changes to the baseline values in a drinking water system. Clearly, an increase in the

273 qPCR signal indicates cell multiplication and proactive action could be taken to resolve the issue
274 before it is detected by culture methods. In critical situation, this approach could complement culture
275 and enzymatic methods and help reduce the risk associated with the presence of *P. aeruginosa* in
276 water. Viability PCR is being developed, where an intercalating dye prevents the amplification of
277 DNA in membrane compromised dead cells, but it still suffers from practical limitations. Given the
278 demonstration of the potential of VBNC cells to regain virulence, viability PCR holds great promise
279 for future monitoring improvements.

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403

404 **Figure legends**

405 **Fig. 1.** LIVE/DEAD stained *P. aeruginosa* PA14 in buffered sterile water (pH = 7.3) for various
406 contact times after chlorination illustrating the transient cell marking observed: green prior to

407 chlorination (a), red at $t = 0.5$ h (b), faded yellow at $t = 48$ h (c), light green $t = 96$ h (d) and green at
408 $t = 192$ h (e). Green cells represent viable cells and red cells represent dead cells.

409 **Fig. 2.** Loss of culturability for *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (Xue *et al.* 2013) and PA14 (this study)
410 assessed by culture method (final to initial CFU mL^{-1} ratio, N/N_0) as a function of free chlorine
411 concentration ($\text{mg Cl}_2 \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) and contact time (min) product expressed as Ct. Error bars for this study
412 indicate standard deviation.

413 **Fig. 3.** Cell survival of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 in buffered sterile water ($\text{pH} = 7.3$) as a function of time
414 elapsed after application of $2.0 \text{ mg Cl}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ of free chlorine (a) and $4 \mu\text{M}$ copper ions (b). Cell
415 survival is expressed as the logarithm of N/N_0 , where N_0 is the initial cell count and N is the cell
416 count at sampling time. Enumeration was done by culture (\blacktriangle , $\text{CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$), enzyme-based assay (Δ ,
417 $\text{MPN} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$), qPCR (\times , $\text{genomic units} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) and LIVE/DEAD staining (\diamond , viable cells and \blacklozenge , total
418 cells). Viable cells are defined as cells with membrane integrity and total cells as the sum of viable
419 and dead cells. Error bars indicate standard deviation ($n = 3$). Free chlorine concentration decay (\bullet)
420 and copper ion concentration (\circ) are presented on the secondary y axis. Copper ions were chelated
421 with diethyldithiocarbamate at $t = 24$ h (b).

422 **Fig. 4.** *P. aeruginosa* PA14 cells concentrations suspended in buffered sterile water measured by
423 enzyme-based assay in Most Probable Number (MPN) $\cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ and standard culture methods in
424 $\text{CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ ($n = 24$; $y = 1.07 x$; $R^2 = 0.995$). Error bars indicate 95% confidence range for MPN and
425 standard deviation for culture.

426 **Fig. 5.** *P. aeruginosa* PA14 cells concentrations measured by the enzyme-based assay in Most
427 Probable Number (MPN) $\cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ and standard culture methods in $\text{CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ in presence of 2 mg L^{-1}
428 initial chlorine concentration (\bullet , $n = 7$; $y = 0.99 x$; $R^2 = 0.99$) and $4 \mu\text{M}$ copper (\circ , $n = 7$).