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1 **Prophylactic properties of biofloc- or Nile tilapia-conditioned water against *Vibrio***
2 ***parahaemolyticus* infection of whiteleg shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*)**

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12 Running title: AHPND, biofloc and tilapia-conditioned water

13

14 *Key words:* Acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND), bath challenge, disease
15 management, greenwater, Imhoff cone, *Oreochromis niloticus*, shrimp disease.

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27

28 **Research highlights:**

29

30 1. Whiteleg shrimp *Penaeus vannamei* were bath challenged with *Vibrio*
31 *parahaemolyticus* and shrimp had significantly greater survival in biofloc than clear
32 seawater during 96 h post-challenge.

33

34 2. Shrimp stocking density (1 to 5 shrimp per 400 mL) did not influence survival of
35 shrimp bath challenged with *V. parahaemolyticus* in either biofloc or clear seawater
36 conditions.

37

38 3. Survival of shrimp bath challenged with *V. parahaemolyticus* was significantly
39 greater in Nile tilapia-conditioned water prepared at 5 ppt and 10 ppt compared to at 15 ppt
40 and in clear seawater at 5, 10 and 15 ppt.

41

42 4. Biofloc and Nile tilapia-conditioned water may protect against acute
43 hepatopancreas necrosis disease (AHPND), and these are inexpensive potential disease
44 management control strategies that could be adopted by the shrimp industry.

45

46 **Statement of relevance:**

47

48 Managed biofloc and Nile tilapia-conditioned water culture conditions can reduce whiteleg
49 shrimp losses due to *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (134 characters with spaces)

50 **Abstract**

51

52 Isolates of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (Vp_{AHPND}) that carry a plasmid encoding two *Pir*-like
53 toxins cause acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND), a disease that has caused
54 devastating economic losses to the shrimp industry, particularly in Asia. However, lower
55 prevalence of AHPND infection has been associated with farms that operate with biofloc
56 or lower salinity culture water. Therefore, the aim of this present study was to investigate
57 the effects of biofloc, different culture water salinity and Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis*
58 *niloticus*)-conditioned water on survival of whiteleg shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*) bath
59 challenged experimentally with Vp_{AHPND} . First, groups of shrimp were bath challenged
60 with Vp_{AHPND} in clear 15 ppt seawater (CW) or in the presence of a pre-cultured biofloc at
61 25%, 50% and 100% (v/v). Survival during 96 h post-challenge was significantly greater in
62 groups cultured in 50% and 100% biofloc ($p < 0.05$). In a second trial, the effect of shrimp
63 stocking density on biofloc protection against bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND} was determined
64 and shrimp challenged in 100% biofloc again had significantly greater survival ($p < 0.05$)
65 compared to the CW group, whilst under our experimental conditions stocking density had
66 no significant influence on survival post-challenge. In a third trial, shrimp were challenged
67 with Vp_{AHPND} in three different salinities of CW or Nile tilapia-conditioned (NTC) water (5
68 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt). Survival in this final trial was 33% at 96 h in 5 ppt CW compared
69 to just 7% in the 10 ppt and the 15 ppt CW groups, though these differences were not
70 statistically significant. Moreover, shrimp survival in the 5 ppt and 10 ppt NTC water
71 groups was significantly greater than in the 15 ppt NTC water group ($p < 0.05$), while
72 significantly greater survival was observed in 10 ppt NTC water compared to 10 ppt CW
73 ($p < 0.05$). The results indicate that biofloc and NTC water may provide some protection
74 against AHPND, whilst low salinity culture water may also offer a degree of protection
75 against this bacterium. These findings may allow for the implementation of inexpensive
76 strategies in the shrimp industry to assist in minimising the impact of Vp_{AHPND} as part of
77 pond management practices.

78 **1. Introduction**

79

80 Infection of tiger shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*) and whiteleg shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*) by
81 pathogenic isolates of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* that carry a plasmid encoding two *Pir*-like
82 toxins can cause progressive degeneration of the hepatopancreas resulting in high
83 mortalities of juvenile shrimp and often entire loss of stocks within 30 days (Lightner *et*
84 *al.*, 2012; Network of Aquaculture Centres Asia-Pacific [NACA], 2012; Zorriehzahra &
85 Banaederakhshan, 2015). Since 2009 this infection, known as acute hepatopancreatic
86 necrosis disease (AHPND), has resulted in collective losses exceeding an estimated US\$
87 43 bn across Asia (China, Malaysia, Thailand, Vietnam) and in Mexico (Flegel, 2012; Tran
88 *et al.*, 2013; Chonsin *et al.*, 2016; Pakingking *et al.*, 2016; Office International des
89 Epizooties [OIE], 2017; Shinn *et al.*, in press b). AHPND infections, however, are also
90 known in India (Ananda Raja *et al.*, 2017), the Philippines (Dabu *et al.*, 2015; de la Peña *et*
91 *al.*, 2015), Costa Rica and Honduras (Jun *et al.*, 2016), while mortalities of *P. monodon*
92 attributed to an AHPND-like condition have been reported from Cambodian ponds (Lang
93 and Sothea, 2016). In Thailand, AHPND caused whiteleg shrimp production to reduce
94 from *ca.* 600,000 tons in 2011 to *ca.* 200,000 tons by 2015. In turn, this meant that
95 Thailand has been surpassed by Vietnam, China and India as the largest exporters of
96 shrimp (Pakingking *et al.*, 2016; Portley, 2016), and these differentials correlate positively
97 with levels intensification in these countries, *i.e.* Vietnam, China and India retains a greater
98 mix of less and more intensive culture systems with the former type being less impacted by
99 AHPND.

100

101 Lower prevalence of infection has been associated with lower salinity culture
102 conditions, and use of biofloc systems and lined ponds (Gabaudan, 2012; NACA, 2012; De
103 Schryver *et al.*, 2014; Boonyawiwat *et al.*, 2017). Juvenile shrimp, *i.e.* post-larvae (PL)
104 stage 1 to PL stage 30, are reared typically in clear water with the addition of
105 phytoplankton, zooplankton (*Artemia* sp.), commercial feeds and other supplementary
106 feeds such as microalgae, *e.g.* *Chaetoceros* spp. (Suita, 2016). As detritivores, shrimp can
107 also feed on biofloc, a flocculent, organic, protein-rich suspension consisting of
108 prokaryotic and eukaryotic microbes. Moreover, the basic principle of a biofloc system is
109 to recycle the ammonia and nitrite resulting from uneaten food and faeces into microbial
110 biomass that can be used either *in situ* by the cultured animals as a source of protein or
111 subsequently harvested and processed into a feed (Avnimelech, 1999; Hari *et al.*, 2004; De

112 Schryver *et al.*, 2008; Kuhn *et al.*, 2009; Crab *et al.*, 2012; Avnimelech, 2014; Ekasari *et*
113 *al.*, 2014).

114

115 The use of biofloc can increase feed utilization, growth, survival and the reproductive
116 performance of cultured animals (Xu *et al.*, 2012; Ekasari *et al.*, 2014; Suita, 2016;
117 Ballester *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, some studies have investigated the beneficial
118 immunological effects of the organisms found in biofloc, and their cellular components
119 and metabolites can act as immunostimulants to enhance the shrimp innate immune system
120 and provide improved protection against pathogens (Vazquez *et al.*, 2009; Crab *et al.*,
121 2010; Ekasari *et al.*, 2014; de Jesus Becerra-Dorame *et al.*, 2014; Xu *et al.*, 2014; Kim *et*
122 *al.*, 2014; Shinn *et al.*, in press a). Critically, biofloc may also have a direct ‘probiotic’
123 effect in the pond or gut microbiome, *i.e.* as benign commensal heterotrophic bacteria with
124 potential to displace pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. (facultative anaerobes) under intensively
125 aerated production conditions (Arias-Moscoso *et al.*, 2018)

126

127 Production of biofloc is optimised through managed addition of organic carbon under
128 highly aerated and minimal water-exchange culture conditions, and biofloc may be
129 managed *in* or *ex situ*, *i.e.* directly with the target culture species or separately
130 (Avnimelech, 1999). Biofloc systems are further differentiated as brown or green water
131 systems contingent on lighting levels and thus the relative mix of ‘brown’ heterotrophic
132 bacteria and ‘green’ phytoplankton (Taw, 2012). Hereafter, we differentiate between this
133 interpretation and a more generalised use of ‘greenwater’ (conjoined) to describe any
134 phytoplankton dominated culture system, with or (more typically in the case of tilapia
135 culture) without aeration and lacking any directed carbon:nitrogen management.

136

137 Biofloc and greenwater approaches to culture shrimp precede the recent emergence of
138 AHPND-causing strains of *V. parahaemolyticus* (*Vp*_{AHPND}) in many places (Hargreaves,
139 2013) but, in the Philippines and Vietnam, greenwater technology has been adopted
140 alongside improved biosecurity practices at grow-out pond sites to prevent AHPND (Usero
141 & Apostol-Albaladejo, 2015; Cadiz *et al.*, 2016; Pakingking, 2016). Since 1996, tilapia-
142 conditioned water with a high *Chlorella* content has been used in shrimp farming to
143 prevent *Vibrio* spp. infections (Dash *et al.*, 2017). Meanwhile, bacteria isolated from tilapia
144 skin and mucus from the gut and skin have demonstrated potent anti-*Vibrio* spp. properties
145 (Lio-Po *et al.*, 2005). Aside from reducing the burden of certain bacteria in the water, co-

146 culture of tilapia in shrimp ponds is recommended for improving soil and water quality
147 (Tendencia *et al.*, 2015). Tendencia *et al.* (2004, 2015) reported that rearing tilapia at >300
148 g m⁻³ inhibited the growth of *Vibrio* spp. in shrimp biomass stocked at 80 g m⁻³ and
149 improved shrimp survival.

150

151 This present study aimed to investigate the effects of biofloc and Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis*
152 *niloticus*)-conditioned (NTC) water prepared at different salinities to protect whiteleg
153 shrimp against experimental bath challenge with a pathogenic *Vp*_{AHPND} isolate.

154

155 **2. Materials and methods**

156

157 *2.1 Bacteria, shrimp and tilapia*

158

159 The *Vp*_{AHPND} isolate FVG0001 was used for all challenge trials. During May to June 2017,
160 batches of juvenile whiteleg shrimp were acquired from a commercial shrimp hatchery
161 located in Chachoengsao Province, Thailand, and transferred to the quarantine unit at the
162 Fish Vet Group Asia Limited (FVGAL) Research Aquarium in Chonburi, Thailand. On
163 receipt of each shipment, the shrimp were surface-disinfected with 0.1 mg L⁻¹ povidone
164 iodine and a sub-sample (n = 20 individuals; mean of 0.4 g) were confirmed to be negative
165 for seven major shrimp diseases (*Vp*_{AHPND}; the microsporidian *Enterocytozoon*
166 *hepatopenaei* [EHP]; infectious hypodermal and haemotopoietic necrosis virus [IHHNV];
167 infectious myonecrosis virus [IMNV]; Taura syndrome virus [TSV]; white-spot syndrome
168 virus [WSSV]; and, yellow head virus [YHV]) by iiPCR test kits (GeneReach
169 Biotechnology Corporation, Taichung, Taiwan) and OIE approved methodologies (OIE,
170 2017). Furthermore, 24 mixed sex Nile tilapia were sourced from a commercial farm
171 (119.8 ± 33.4 g) and transferred to the FVGAL Diagnostic Laboratory (*ca.* 2 km from the
172 FVGAL Research Aquarium).

173

174 *2.2 Shrimp holding conditions and preparation of biofloc*

175

176 Disease-free shrimp were stocked into 400-L tanks (positioned out of direct sunlight)
177 containing mature biofloc. The biofloc in each tank had been established in 300 L of 15 ppt
178 seawater. This water had been pre-treated with 50 mg L⁻¹ chlorine and then treated with a
179 further 10 mg L⁻¹ chlorine for at least 1 h by addition of calcium hypochlorite, with any

180 residual chlorine driven off with vigorous aeration. Absence of residual chlorine was
181 confirmed using an orthotolidine-based chlorine test kit (Monitor®; Pet Wonderland
182 Group, Thailand). The biofloc was initiated by adding 5 g rice bran, 1.5 g ground shrimp
183 feed and 3 g white sugar (as sources of carbon) to each tank and incubating for 2 days at
184 28–29°C with intensive aeration (this provided greenwater biofloc given the ambient
185 lighting typical of sub-tropical shrimp pond production conditions). Thereafter, 1 g ground
186 shrimp feed and 3 g white sugar were added on a daily basis. At day 3, physicochemical
187 water parameters were measured *in situ* and adjusted by changing rates of carbon substrate
188 addition to adhere within the following limits: <0.03 mg L⁻¹ ammonia and <1 mg L⁻¹ nitrite
189 (measured with a TetraTM test kit; Tetra GmbH, Melle, Germany), pH 7.5–8.0 (maintained
190 through the addition of calcium carbonate as necessary), alkalinity 80–150 mg L⁻¹ CaCO₃,
191 15 ppt salinity and 28–29°C (measured using a hand-held automatic temperature
192 compensation refractometer; Bellingham & Stanley Ltd, United Kingdom), and >5 mg L⁻¹
193 dissolved oxygen (DO) (measured with a hand-held DO meter; YSI 550A; Xylem Inc.,
194 United States). A system of inverted air pipes provided continuous aeration to maintain
195 DO at >5 mg L⁻¹ and salinity, DO and temperature readings were taken daily thereafter.
196 The shrimp were maintained on commercial feed (Starbird 5093 S shrimp feed; Charoen
197 Pokphand Co., Bangkok, Thailand) at 10% body wt d⁻¹, given daily in three equal rations
198 at 08:00, 14:00 and 18:00. Additionally, white sugar was added at a ratio of white
199 sugar:shrimp feed (2.3:1). The condition of the shrimp and biofloc were monitored
200 microscopically every day to ensure that the shrimp were in good condition (*i.e.*, no
201 evidence of necrosis, biofouling or infection of the shrimp). The biofloc was considered to
202 be ready for application when Imhoff cone readings were >10 ml L⁻¹ after a 30-min
203 settlement period, and 10–15 mL L⁻¹ is considered ideal for shrimp culture (Hargreaves,
204 2013). Total suspended solids readings were confirmed by filtering 1 L of biofloc
205 suspension through pre-weighed filter paper (Whatman No. 93; GE Healthcare UK
206 Limited, Buckinghamshire, UK) and then drying for 24 h at 50°C before massing the dried
207 matter. Biofloc was collected at >14 d and used for the experimental challenge trials.
208 Generally, 10–15% of the water volume was exchanged daily with pre-treated and
209 dechlorinated 15 ppt seawater (except for the day prior to the start of a challenge trial to
210 preserve the condition of the biofloc); however, volume exchanges deviated occasionally
211 to ensure Imhoff cone readings were maintained at 10–15 mL L⁻¹.

212

213 *2.3 Tilapia holding conditions and preparation of NTC water*

214

215 The tilapia were stocked into a single 600-L aerated (70 L min^{-1}) tank containing
216 dechlorinated freshwater (partially shaded from direct sunlight) and allowed to acclimate
217 for 7 days. Water temperature ($32.1 \pm 2.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and surface light (mean intensity of 60,346
218 lux d^{-1} [maximum = 297,602 lux d^{-1}] and mean duration of $12.91 \pm 0.18 \text{ h sunlight d}^{-1}$
219 [range: 12.5–13 h d^{-1}]) was recorded every 15 min with data loggers (Onset HOBO UA-
220 001-64; Bourne, MA, USA). After acclimation, the fish were split such that 8 fish were
221 assigned at random to each of three 200-L tanks (biomass of *ca.* 960 g tank^{-1}). Aeration
222 was then split between the three tanks, while DO, pH, ammonia and nitrate were measured
223 daily and adjusted where necessary to maintain $>5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ DO, 7.5–8.0 pH, $<0.03 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$
224 ammonia and $<1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ nitrite. Salinity and temperature were also measured daily.
225 Salinity in each tank was adjusted at a rate of 2 ppt each day until salinities of 5 ppt, 10 ppt
226 and 15 ppt were achieved. The fish were maintained on a 2% body wt d^{-1} feeding regime
227 using a commercial pelleted feed (CP 9921; Charoen Pokphand Co., Bangkok, Thailand)
228 for $>14 \text{ d}$ before the NTC water was collected and used for the experimental challenge
229 trials. At collection, the chlorophyll *a* content of each tank was determined from 1-L
230 samples collected in acid-washed polyethylene bottles and analysed by the Institute of
231 Marine Science at Burapha University (Chonburi, Thailand) following the procedure
232 described by Strickland & Parsons (1972). The chlorophyll *a* concentration of the NTC
233 water was determined to be 1,150 mg m^{-3} (5 ppt), 1,917 mg m^{-3} (10 ppt) and 1,292 mg m^{-3}
234 (15 ppt). Meanwhile, total suspended solids in 1 L from each tank was determined by
235 Imhoff cone (readings were between 11–15 mL L^{-1}) and filtering as described above, and
236 the dry weight of organic material from each of the three tanks was 4.7 mg L^{-1} (5 ppt), 6.8
237 mg L^{-1} (10 ppt) and 4.9 mg L^{-1} (15 ppt).

238

239 *2.4 Preparation for shrimp bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND}*

240

241 The inoculum for the challenge trial was prepared by inoculating the Vp_{AHPND} isolate
242 FVG0001 into tryptone soya broth (TSB) supplemented with 2% NaCl and culturing for 12
243 h at 28°C with shaking (*ca.* 250 rpm). Bacterial cells were collected by centrifugation at
244 $900 \times g$ for 10 min at 10°C and then the bacterial pellet was re-suspended in sterile 15 ppt
245 seawater. The number of colony-forming units (CFU) mL^{-1} in the suspension was
246 estimated by measuring the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}), as an OD_{600} of 1.0 AU
247 equated to *ca.* $3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$. The suspension was adjusted to the desired OD_{600} ($=1.0$

248 AU) with sterile 15 ppt seawater, and then CFU mL⁻¹ verified by diluting and plating
249 suspensions across tryptone soya agar and incubating at 28°C until CFU could be
250 enumerated. Each challenge trial was performed in 1-L vessels and the quantity of bacteria
251 required for each challenge was determined from virulence pre-tests performed typically
252 <48 h earlier. Each virulence pre-test was conducted on shrimp from the same population
253 intended for use in the trial and under the same conditions as the actual challenge. The pre-
254 tests used a minimum of three bacterial concentrations and three individually-housed
255 shrimp per dose to determine the CFU mL⁻¹ required to give *ca.* 66% mortality at 48 h
256 post-infection. For all challenge trials, a semi-randomised block design was used to
257 allocate the test vessels on the benching within the challenge room; however, the negative
258 (non-challenged) control shrimp vessels were isolated on a separate bench to minimise
259 potential cross-contamination.

260

261 *2.5 Trial 1: Effect of biofloc on survival of shrimp bath challenged with Vp_{AHPND}*

262

263 Shrimp (0.36 ± 0.12 g) were maintained in clear 15 ppt seawater (CW) for ≥7 days prior to
264 challenge in 200-L tanks. The day before the challenge, the shrimp were transferred to
265 static 1-L glass vessels in a temperature-controlled challenge room maintained at 27.2 ±
266 0.2°C and monitored every 15 min with data loggers (Onset HOBO UA-001-64) placed
267 inside two additional glass vessels in the challenge room. Then 3 shrimp were placed into
268 each 1-L glass vessel containing 400 mL of 25%, 50% or 100% (v/v) biofloc, where 100%
269 biofloc was from a 14-day old culture, with an Imhoff cone reading of 11 mL L⁻¹ (0.54 g
270 dry matter [DM] L⁻¹). Each vessel was aerated at *ca.* 5 L min⁻¹. From the virulence pre-test,
271 3.2 mL of *Vp* inoculum was added to each challenge group vessel. Then the shrimp were
272 monitored for survival every 3 h up to 96 h and mortalities were recorded and carcasses
273 removed. At 24 h, a further 400 mL of the appropriate culture medium was added to each
274 vessel (*i.e.*, 15 ppt CW or a biofloc suspension as appropriate) and shrimp were fed *ad*
275 *libitum* with commercial feed (Starbird 5093 S shrimp feed). At 48 h and 72 h, 400 mL of
276 tank water was removed and replaced with 400 mL of appropriate culture medium. In total,
277 15 replicates per treatment were prepared in addition to 15 negative (non-challenged)
278 control vessels.

279

280 *2.6 Trial 2: Effect of shrimp stocking density on biofloc-conferred survival of shrimp bath* 281 *challenged with Vp_{AHPND}*

282

283 Earlier studies have reported correlation between shrimp stocking density and increased
284 risk of AHPND (Boonyawiwat *et al.*, 2017; OIE, 2018). As before, shrimp (0.36 ± 0.12 g)
285 were maintained in 15 ppt CW for ≥ 7 days prior to challenge. Then the shrimp were
286 transferred into 1-L glass vessels containing 400 mL of 50% or 100% biofloc at 1, 3 or 5
287 shrimp per vessel (temperature and aeration conditions as described in Section 2.5). In
288 addition, a positive control group was prepared such that these vessels contained a single
289 shrimp in 15 ppt CW and were challenged with Vp_{AHPND} . From the virulence pre-test
290 (single shrimp held in 50% biofloc in this case), 6.2 mL Vp inoculum was added to each
291 challenge group vessel. Shrimp survival was determined as described in Section 2.5, while
292 culture medium exchange was also performed as before. In total, 10 replicates per
293 treatment were prepared in addition to 10 negative (non-challenged) control vessels.

294

295 *2.7 Trial 3: Effect of Nile tilapia-conditioned water at different salinities on survival of*
296 *shrimp bath challenged with Vp_{AHPND}*

297

298 Shrimp (0.36 ± 0.12 g) were maintained in three salinities of CW (5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt)
299 for 14 days prior to challenge, and then transferred into 1-L glass vessels (1 shrimp per
300 vessel) containing 400 mL of 5 ppt, 10 ppt or 15 ppt CW or 5 ppt, 10 ppt or 15 ppt NTC
301 water (to avoid salinity shock the shrimp were transferred to identical salinity conditions).
302 Temperature and aeration conditions of the vessels were as described in Section 2.5. From
303 the virulence pre-test, 3.2 mL Vp inoculum was added to each challenge group vessel, and
304 again culture medium exchange was performed as described in Section 2.5. In total, 10
305 replicates per treatment were prepared in addition to an equivalent number of negative
306 (non-challenged) control vessels.

307

308 *2.8 Disposal of experimental materials*

309

310 On completion of each trial, all remaining shrimp were euthanized in icy water and
311 incinerated. All glass vessels and tank water were sterilised with 70 mg L^{-1} calcium
312 hypochlorite for ≥ 24 h. Thereafter, the water was dechlorinated, airlines and airstones were
313 discarded, while glass vessels were scrubbed, rinsed and allowed to dry.

314

315 *2.9 Ethics statement*

316

317 These experiments were reviewed by and conducted under the approval of the University
318 of Stirling Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body and the FVGAL internal ethical
319 review board. Scientists conducting aquatic pathogen trials at FVGAL Research Aquarium
320 hold licences for the use of “Animals for Scientific Purposes” issued by the Institute for
321 Animals for Scientific Purpose Development, National Research Council of Thailand. The
322 FVGAL laboratories and challenge facilities are registered with the relevant authorities and
323 are inspected as required under current Thai legislation.

324

325 *2.10 Statistical analysis*

326

327 Survival in each shrimp group was plotted for each trial and Mantel-Cox log-rank tests
328 (two-way) were performed to determine whether significant differences existed in survival
329 between groups. A statistically significant difference was accepted at $p < 0.05$ and Holm’s
330 correction was applied to account for multiple comparisons (Holm, 1979).

331

332 **3. Results**

333

334 *3.1 Trial 1: Effect of biofloc on survival of shrimp bath challenged with Vp_{AHPND}*

335

336 In the trial to determine whether different concentrations of biofloc would protect against a
337 bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND} , few mortalities were observed in the non-challenged control
338 groups (Figure 1). Indeed, no significant differences existed in shrimp survival between the
339 15 ppt CW control and each control group maintained in 25%, 50% and 100% biofloc
340 ($p > 0.05$; Figure 1), thus indicating neither 15 ppt CW nor biofloc affected shrimp survival
341 *per se*.

342

343 For shrimp challenged with Vp_{AHPND} , greatest mortality was observed for those maintained
344 in 15 ppt CW (60% mortality at 96 h post-challenge; Figure 1), which confirmed that the
345 Vp_{AHPND} challenge had been successful. Importantly, there was significantly greater
346 survival during 96 h post-challenge for shrimp maintained in 50% and 100% biofloc
347 compared to those maintained in 15 ppt CW ($p < 0.05$; Figure 1).

348

349 3.2 Trial 2: Effect of shrimp stocking density on biofloc-conferred survival of shrimp bath
350 challenged with Vp_{AHPND}

351 In the trial to determine whether shrimp stocking density affected biofloc protection
352 against a bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND} , few mortalities were observed in the non-
353 challenged control groups and no significant differences existed in percentage shrimp
354 survival between the 15 ppt CW control (1 shrimp per vessel) and each control group
355 maintained in 25%, 50% and 100% biofloc and containing 1, 3 or 5 shrimp per vessel
356 ($p>0.05$; Figure 2), which again indicated that neither 15 ppt CW nor biofloc affected
357 shrimp survival *per se* at any of the stocking densities.

358

359 For shrimp challenged with Vp_{AHPND} , the greatest percentage mortality was observed for
360 shrimp maintained in 15 ppt CW (100% mortality at 33 h post-challenge; Figure 2), which
361 confirmed that the Vp_{AHPND} challenge had been successful. There was significantly greater
362 survival during 96 h post-challenge for shrimp maintained in 100% biofloc (1 shrimp per
363 vessel) compared to the 15 ppt CW (1 shrimp per vessel) group ($p<0.05$); however, there
364 was no difference in survival between the 50% biofloc (1 shrimp per vessel) and 15 ppt
365 CW (1 shrimp per vessel) groups ($p>0.05$; Figure 2). The absence of a protective effect by
366 the 50% biofloc compared to the first trial where a significant enhancement in survival was
367 observed compared to shrimp challenged in CW may be due to the greater dose of bacteria
368 used in this second trial (means of 2.65 and 4.47 $\times 10^6$ CFU mL⁻¹ in trials 1 and 2,
369 respectively). Furthermore, shrimp density in the vessels did not influence shrimp survival
370 during 96 h post-challenge, as there were no significant differences between the 50%
371 biofloc group containing 1 shrimp per vessel and the 50% biofloc groups containing either
372 3 or 5 shrimp per vessel, or between the 100% biofloc group containing 1 shrimp per
373 vessel and the 100% biofloc groups containing either 3 or 5 shrimp per vessel ($p>0.05$;
374 Figure 2).

375

376 3.3 Trial 3: Effect of Nile tilapia-conditioned water at different salinities on survival of
377 shrimp bath challenged with Vp_{AHPND}

378

379 In the trial to determine whether NTC water at different salinities could protect against a
380 bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND} , again few mortalities were recorded in non-challenged
381 control groups (Figure 3). There were no significant differences in shrimp survival
382 between the 5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt CW control groups ($p>0.05$), or between the 5 ppt, 10

383 ppt and 15 ppt NTC water control groups ($p>0.05$), or when comparing each 5 ppt, 10 ppt
384 and 15 ppt CW control group with each respective salinity NTC water control group
385 ($p>0.05$). These observations for the non-challenged control groups indicate that neither
386 salinity nor the NTC water affected shrimp survival *per se*.

387

388 For shrimp challenged with Vp_{AHPND} , there was no significant differences in shrimp
389 survival between 5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt CW groups ($p>0.05$), though this may be due to
390 the stringency of our statistical analyses because survival in the 5 ppt CW group was much
391 greater at 96 h (33%) compared to the 10 ppt and the 15 ppt CW groups (both 7%).
392 Moreover, shrimp survival in the 5 ppt and 10 ppt NTC water groups was significantly
393 greater than in the 15 ppt NTC water group ($p<0.05$; Figure 3). Indeed, it is interesting that
394 there were no significant differences ($p>0.05$) in shrimp survival between the 5 ppt CW
395 and 5 ppt NTC water groups (relatively high survival of 33% and 80%, respectively) or
396 between the 15 ppt CW and 15 ppt NTC water groups (relatively low survival of 7% and
397 13%, respectively). Taken together, these observations indicate that low salinity may in
398 itself provide a degree of protection against a bath challenge with Vp_{AHPND} . Furthermore,
399 and confirming the trend of a protective effect of NTC water against a bath challenge with
400 Vp_{AHPND} , significantly greater shrimp survival was confirmed in the 10 ppt NTC water
401 group compared to the 10 ppt CW group ($p<0.05$; Figure 3).

402

403 **4. Discussion**

404

405 This present study aimed to investigate the effects of biofloc and NTC water prepared at
406 different salinities to protect whiteleg shrimp against an experimental bath challenge with a
407 pathogenic Vp_{AHPND} isolate. Shrimp challenged with Vp_{AHPND} in biofloc and NTC water
408 prepared at 10 ppt had significantly increased survival during 96 h post-challenge.

409

410 In the first trial, a direct relationship was found to exist between biofloc concentration and
411 shrimp survival post-challenge with Vp_{AHPND} , and 50% and 100% biofloc (14-day old
412 culture; dry weight of 0.54 g L^{-1}) provided significant protection, which is in agreement
413 with an earlier study performed under similar conditions (Shinn *et al.*, in press a).
414 Moreover, the observations are in line with other reports that demonstrate biofloc to be
415 beneficial against shrimp pathogens, possibly through probiotic or immunostimulatory
416 effects as distinct from simply reducing the probability of exposure to pathogens through

417 operating a very low-water exchange system (Crab *et al.*, 2010; Haslun *et al.*, 2012; Moss
418 *et al.*, 2012; Zhao *et al.*, 2012, Dash *et al.*, 2017). Excessive biofloc concentrations might
419 exert detrimental effects on shrimp health, *e.g.* by causing a reduction in gill function,
420 biofouling of the carapace and induction of a stressful state; however, our findings
421 demonstrate potential for highly effective protection against Vp_{AHPND} at relatively low
422 biofloc concentrations (*e.g.*, $< 0.6 \text{ g DM L}^{-1}$). Furthermore, prophylactic biofloc treatment
423 limited to the most AHPND-sensitive first 30 days of shrimp culture may also preclude
424 biofloc build-up and instability problems associated with extended culture and elevated
425 feed inputs under closed production conditions (Little *et al.*, 2008). In addition, this
426 prophylactic approach would also support policy objectives to reduce antimicrobial usage
427 in intensive shrimp culture, linked to food safety and antimicrobial resistance concerns.
428 Notably, a number of studies have reported on antimicrobial-resistant strains of *V.*
429 *parahaemolyticus* (Han *et al.*, 2007; Lai *et al.*, 2015; Saifedden *et al.*, 2016)

430

431 A further aim of this present study was to investigate whether NTC water was effective to
432 protect whiteleg shrimp against a Vp_{AHPND} challenge. Farming shrimp at lower salinity has
433 been associated with reduced risk of an AHPND outbreak (Gabaudan, 2012; NACA,
434 2012). However, little information is available regarding whether different salinities of
435 tilapia-conditioned water exert differential effects on bacterial pathogens such as Vp_{AHPND} .
436 In this present study, NTC water prepared at 10 ppt increased shrimp survival significantly
437 during 96 h post-challenge with Vp_{AHPND} compared to the 10 ppt CW control, thus
438 confirming a protective effect of the NTC water against Vp_{AHPND} . The protection afforded
439 by the NTC water at 10 ppt could be due to the microbial community in this milieu, as
440 microorganisms with anti-*Vibrio* effects have been isolated from tilapia skin and gut
441 mucus and from NTC water shrimp ponds (Lio-Po *et al.*, 2005; Dash *et al.*, 2017).
442 Nevertheless, DM and chlorophyll *a* concentrations in the 10 ppt NTC water were greater
443 than in the 5 ppt and 15 ppt NTC water, and this additional material may explain the
444 greater survival of the shrimp in this group. Interestingly, the shrimp groups challenged in
445 5 ppt and 10 ppt NTC water had significantly greater survival than in the 15 ppt group, and
446 it could be that the different NTC waters were composed of distinct microbial communities
447 with differential effects on Vp_{AHPND} and shrimp. Meanwhile, the 5 ppt CW group had
448 greater survival than the 10 ppt and the 15 ppt CW groups, though no significant difference
449 was detected but, taken in conjunction with the NTC water observations, the findings
450 suggest that low water salinity may provide some protection against Vp_{AHPND} , which is

451 worthy of further investigation. The results suggest that tilapia-conditioned water at low
452 salinity could be employed as a strategy to reduce incidence of AHPND.

453

454 One shortcoming of the present study is that the shrimp challenged in the biofloc
455 conditions continued to feed throughout the trial, whereas those challenged in CW did not,
456 meaning that the shrimp in biofloc would have had a better nutritional status and thus
457 likely to be less susceptible to infection by *Vp_{AHPND}*. Furthermore, the data from this
458 present study do not allow for determining whether the biofloc and NTC water led to
459 increased survival of challenged shrimp through stimulating the immune response or direct
460 inactivation of the pathogen. As the *Vp_{AHPND}* bacterium was introduced concurrently with
461 the biofloc or NTC water, antibacterial effects perhaps explain the protective effects on
462 shrimp survival because immunostimulation would be expected to take longer to take
463 effect, though this requires experimental confirmation. Therefore, follow up studies should
464 examine the direct effects of biofloc, NTC water and water salinity on the *Vp_{AHPND}*
465 bacterium, such as reductions in cell division rates and viability, because these data may
466 reveal the mechanisms underlying the increased shrimp survival. Importantly, the
467 experimental *Vp_{AHPND}* challenge used may not well mimic what happens in the culture
468 ponds where there is a slow build-up of bacteria, and therefore the development of
469 improved challenge models that more closely reflect field conditions is warranted. Finally,
470 the Nile tilapia and whiteleg shrimp used in the NTC water trial were gradually adjusted to
471 the desired salinities at a rate of 2 ppt each day and the stress of this procedure may have
472 impacted subsequent shrimp survival and this requires further investigation. Indeed, the
473 population of whiteleg shrimp used in this present study was reared at 15 ppt from PL
474 stage 14, and it would be interesting to rear shrimp at 5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt and repeat
475 the trial to see if further survival improvements could be achieved.

476

477 In conclusion, NTC water prepared at 10 ppt and biofloc protected whiteleg shrimp against
478 experimental bath challenge with a pathogenic *Vp_{AHPND}* isolate. This suggests that
479 inexpensive strategies could be developed by the shrimp industry that would reduce the
480 impact of *Vp_{AHPND}*.

481

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483

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494

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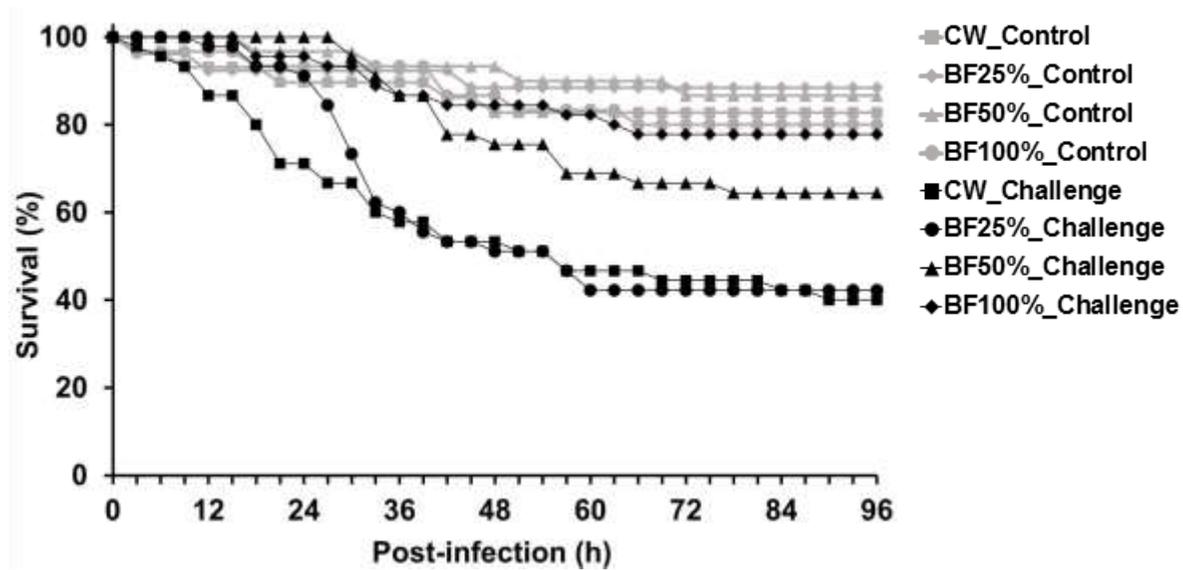
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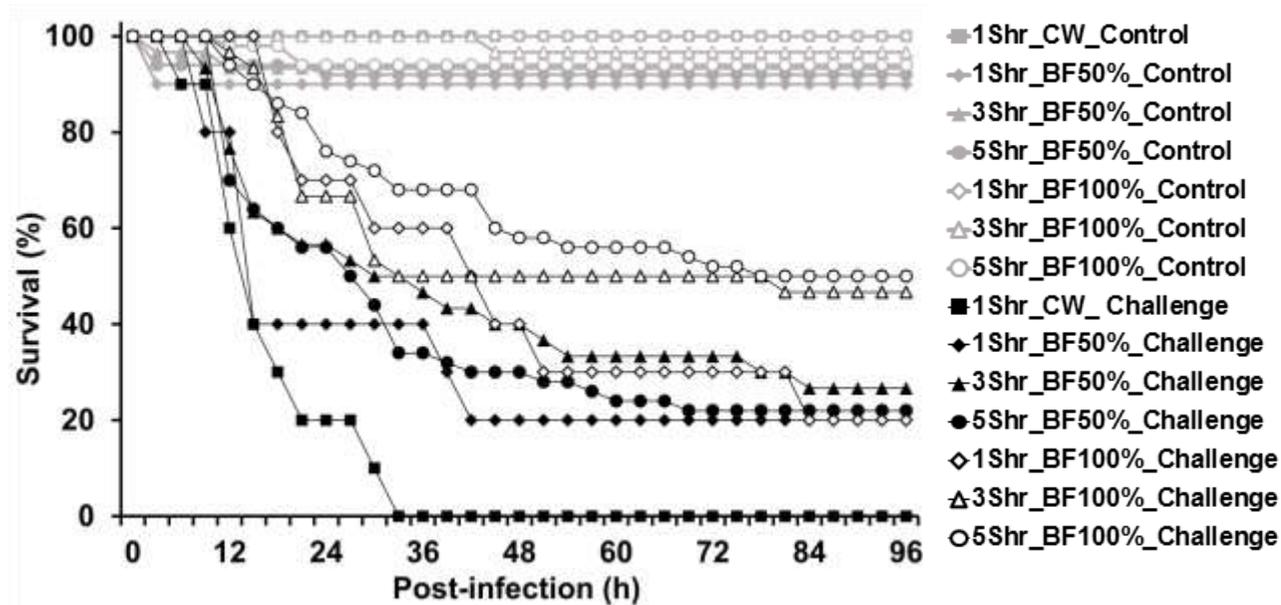
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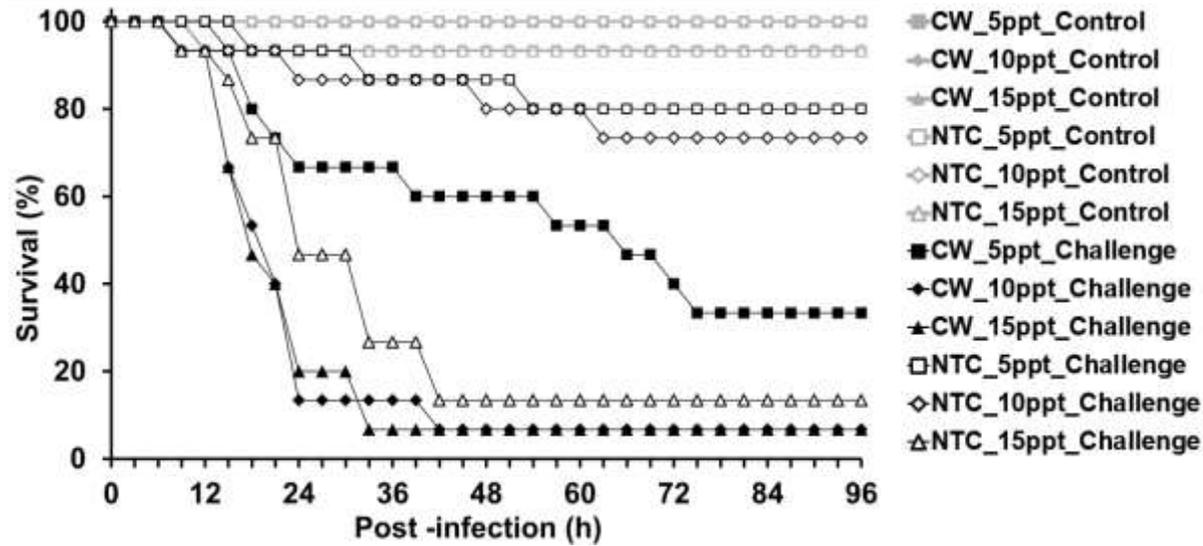
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Figure 1. Survival of *Penaeus vannamei* bath challenged with the pathogenic AHPND-causing *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolate FVG0001 in clear 15 ppt seawater (CW) or biofloc (BF) at 25%, 50% and 100% (v/v) at 28–29°C in 1-L vessels containing 3 shrimp per vessel. n=15 vessels per group.



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Figure 2. Survival of *Penaeus vannamei* bath challenged with the pathogenic AHPND-causing *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolate FVG0001 in clear 15 ppt seawater (CW) or biofloc (BF) at 50% and 100% (v/v) at 28–29°C in 1-L vessels containing 1, 3 and 5 shrimp per vessel. n=10 vessels per group.



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Figure 3. Survival of *Penaeus vannamei* bath challenged with the pathogenic AHPND-causing *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolate FVG0001 in clear seawater (CW) at 5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt or Nile tilapia-conditioned (NTC) water at 5 ppt, 10 ppt and 15 ppt at 28–29°C in 1-L vessels containing 1 shrimp per vessel. n=10 vessels per group.