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### Sonic cracking of blue-green algae

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#### Abstract

Algae are aquatic organisms classified separately from plants. They are known to cause many hazards to humans and the environment. Algae strands contain nitrogen-producing cells that help them float (heterocysts). It is hypothesized that if the membranes of these cells are disrupted by means of ultrasound, the gas may be released analogous to sonic cracking, causing the strands to sink. This is a desirable ecological effect, because of the resulting suppressed release of toxins into the water.

We subjected small quantities of blue-green algae of the Anabaena sphaerica species to ultrasound of frequencies and pressures in the clinical diagnostic range, and observed the changes in brightness of these solutions over time. Blue green algae were forced to sink at any ultrasonic frequency we studied, supporting our hypothesis that heterocysts release nitrogen under ultrasound insonification in the clinical diagnostic range.

Although the acoustic fields we used to eradicate blue-green algae are perfectly safe in terms of mechanical index, the acoustic pressures surpass the NURC Rules and Procedures by over 35 dB. Therefore, caution should be taken when using these techniques in a surrounding where aquatic or semi-aquatic animals are present.

#### Key words:

PACS:

#### 1 1 Introduction

Algae are aquatic, eukaryotic, photosynthetic organisms, ranging in size from
single-celled forms to large kelps. Algae are classified separately from plants
since they lack true roots, stems, leaves and embryos. Algae are known to
cause many health hazards to humans including skin rashes, gastrointestinal,

respiratory [1], allergic reactions, [2] and liver cancer [3]. In addition,
blue-green algae may have implications on aquatic and semi-aquatic animals
[4]. Eutrophication is the increase in chemical nutrients within the ecosystem,
causing blooms of algae and plant life and the subsequent decomposition of
blue-green algae by bacteria, an oxygen-consuming process [5]. When billions
of such bacterial cells die during a bloom, the water becomes oxygen-depleted,
killing off oxygen-dependent organisms [6].

The main factors that influence algae growth are temperature and light [7,8]. 13 At low temperatures and low light conditions, the algae do not photosynthesise 14 and therefore do not bloom. Algae strands contain nitrogen-producing cells 15 that help them float (heterocysts), as demonstrated in Fig. 1. The heterocysts 16 have a diameter between  $5 - 7 \mu m$  [9]. It is hypothesized that if the membranes 17 of these cells are disrupted by means of ultrasound, the gas may be released 18 analogous to sonic cracking [10], causing the strands to sink. At the lake bed, 19 illumination is lower, thus reducing algae multiplication. This is a desirable 20 ecological effect, because of resulting suppressed release of toxins into the 21 water. 22

There are chemical methods to control certain species of algae, but these 23 have side-effects such as promotion and growth of other species of algae [11] 24 whilst also affecting aquatic life in fresh water ponds and lakes. Therefore, 25 ultrasonic algae control has been under investigation [12–17]. In [12–17], 26 ultrasonic insonification of different species of algae led to a decrease in algae 27 concentrations in the frequency range 20 kHz-1.7 MHz, which is in contrast 28 with [18], where ultrasound was observed to strengthen the cell membranes 29 of red algae. In these studies, the exact acoustic conditions have not been 30 specified other than the frequency and power input. Hence, from the acoustics 31

point of view, they are not repeatable. More importantly, the mechanism
causing algae eradication or membrane disruption had not been investigated.

Most commercially available equipment works in the lower ultrasonic range [19]. There have been speculations about the physical mechanism behind the algae eradication, specifically about the role of cavitation. In this study, we investigate the effectiveness of ultrasonic insonification in the clinical diagnostic range on Anabaena blue-green algae.

A measure for the safe use of clinical diagnostic ultrasound is the mechanical
index (MI) defined by

$$MI = \frac{p^-}{\sqrt{f}},\tag{1}$$

where  $p^{-}$  is the maximum value of peak negative pressure anywhere in the 42 ultrasound field, measured in water but reduced by an attenuation factor 43 equal to that which would be produced by a medium having an attenuation 44 coefficient of 0.3 dBcm<sup>-1</sup>MHz<sup>-1</sup>, normalised by 1 MPa, and f is the centre 45 frequency of the ultrasound normalised by 1 MHz [20]. For MI<0.3, the 46 ultrasonic amplitude is considered low. In clinical diagnostics there is a 47 possibility of minor damage to neonatal lung or intestine [20] for 0.3<MI<0.7. 48 These are considered moderate acoustic amplitudes. For MI>0.7, there is a risk 49 of cavitation if gas cavitation nuclei are present, and there is a theoretical risk 50 of cavitation without the presence of cavitation nuclei [20]. The risk increases 51 with MI values above this threshold [20]. These are considered high acoustic 52 amplitudes. According to the NATO Undersea Research Centre (NURC) 53 Human Diver and Marine Mammal Risk Mitigation Rules and Procedures 54 [21], the maximum acoustic pressure to which mammals can be exposed is 55 708 Pa at frequencies up to 250 kHz. This corresponds to a mechanical index 56

- $_{\rm 57}~$  MI< 0.01  $\ll$  0.3. In this paper, we have chosen to work in the lower clinical
- 58 diagnostic range, taking into account both guidelines.

#### <sup>59</sup> 2 Materials and Methods

To investigate the effect of diagnostic ultrasound on algae eradication, three 60 ultrasound transducers were used. A 200-kHz undamped single element 61 transducer containing a PIC155 Piezo crystal (PI Ceramics, Lederhose, 62 Germany), a PA 188 (Precision Acoustics Ltd, Dorchester, UK) 1-MHz 63 undamped single element transducer, and a 2.2-MHz undamped single element 64 transducer containing a Pz37 Piezo crystal (Ferroperm Piezoceramics A/S, 65 Kvistgård, Denmark). The focal distance of the 2.2-MHz transducer was 66 73 mm. The design of two transducers is shown in Fig. 2. The transducers 67 were subjected to 16-Vpp square pulses at a 11.8-kHz pulse repetition rate 68 transmitted by a V1.0 pulser-receiver (Sonemat, Coventry, UK). Low acoustic 69 amplitudes were used in order to comply with MI<0.3 [20]. The acoustic 70 amplitudes were measured in a separate water tank in the acoustic foci of 71 the transducers with a 0.2-mm needle hydrophone (Precision Acoustics Ltd, 72 Dorchester, UK) connected to a TDS 420A four channel digital oscilloscope 73 (Tektronix Inc, Beaverton, USA). The peak-negative acoustic pressures were 74 40 kPa for the 1-MHz transducer and 68 kPa for the 2.2-MHz transducer, 75 respectively, *i.e.*, MI $\ll$ 0.1. 76

The algae used were of the Anabaena species. The Anabaena were obtained
from an outside lake and cultured in 2 L of Jaworski's medium [22] at room
temperature near a South-facing window in an Erlenmeyer flask for 11 days.
The solution was put in a Swirtlock2000 autoclave (Astell Scientific, Kent,
UK) at 15-lb pressure for 15 minutes.

To measure the time-dependent change in brightness of water containing 83 blue-green algae, the culture was split equally into four 250-mL Perspex 84 beakers: one beaker for each transducer and one control beaker. The 85 transducers were inserted separately in each beaker with the acoustic 86 focus within the sample. Each transducer was turned on for 1 hour. The 87 experimental setup is shown in Fig. 3. A digital photograph of the solution 88 was taken every five minutes using an EOS 350D digital photo camera (Canon 89 Inc, Tokyo, Japan). The lighting and exposure settings were controlled and 90 maintained throughout the insonification. Full manual settings were used: 91 ISO 100, exposure time 1/50 s, F number 3.50, focal length 18 mm, no flash, 92 centre weighted metering mode, custom white balance, B4,0 shift. The digital 93 photographs were converted to 8-bit grey scale. On the photographs of the 94 insonified solution and control solution, a square area of  $160 \times 160$  pixels was 95 selected, whose average grey scale depth was calculated using MATLAB<sup>(R)</sup> 96 (The Mathworks<sup>TM</sup>, Natick, MA). The change in shade between the first image 97 taken just before insonification and each sequential image after insonification 98 was calculated and graphed for all 18 insonified and control samples. A white sheet was placed behind the beakers to maintain a constant background. The 100 grey scale of the sheet was also measured and used to calibrate the results. In 101 total, 575 measurements were analysed from 122 photographs. 102

<sup>103</sup> Viability measurements

<sup>104</sup> Every 10 minutes, a 20- $\mu$ L sample was taken from the insonified solution. <sup>105</sup> Samples were put on a test slide and observed through a CHA microscope

(Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) with a  $10 \times$  objective lens (Olympus 106 Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). Digital photographs were captured from the 107 microscope's eye piece using an FE-230 digital camera (Olympus Corporation, 108 Tokyo, Japan). Automatic settings were used with Super Macro mode and a 109 -1.0 exposure adjustment. From these digital images, cell deterioration and 110 chlorophyll damage were determined. To investigate the effect of ultrasound 111 on the viability of the cells, fluorescent light was used. When fluorescent 112 light is projected onto chlorophyll, it is absorbed and re-emitted as a red 113 glow. The red glow denotes that the chlorophyll is still active and can 114 photosynthesize, thus the algae strands are still alive. Fluorescent light was 115 used as the method to check the viability of the chlorophyll, since it is a 116 standardized and accepted method in detecting chlorophyll activity in plants 117 [23,24]. Fluorescent light was projected onto these samples for no more than 118 10 seconds in order to capture the digital image. We may assume that there 119 are no disadvantageous effects of the fluorescent light on the algae [25,26]. The 120 samples were discarded after being exposed to fluorescent light. Three trials 121 of each frequency were performed. One hundred and thirty-one photographs 122 were taken of the microscopic cell structure. 123

#### <sup>124</sup> Post-insonification growth measurements

To measure the effect of ultrasound on post-insonification blue-green algae growth, twenty-four 1-mL samples were removed from three solutions that had been subjected to 1 hour of insonifcation with 200-kHz, 1.0-MHz and 2.2-MHz ultrasound, respectively, and put into a culture tray with 96 compartments. Twenty-four control samples were taken. The culture tray was left in sunlight for 30 days. The grey scale depth was measured for each compartment.

#### 131 **3** Results and Discussion

Figure 4 shows the microscopic effect of ultrasound on floating bodies in the 132 algae solution. From 0 minutes to 60 minutes of insonification, no change was 133 seen in the physical structure of the algae for the whole frequency range. 134 Illuminating the algae with fluorescent light showed that the ultrasound 135 had no effect on the chlorophyll activity for the whole frequency range. 136 The active chlorophyll shows that the algae strands are still alive and 137 able to photosynthesise after 60 minutes insonification. This indicates that 138 the ultrasound transmitted does not affect the chlorophyll-containing cells 139 themselves, which is desirable since no toxins are released this way. 140

<sup>141</sup> However, Fig. 5 shows that at all frequencies, for the floating bodies, the <sup>142</sup> insonified samples showed greater brightness than the control samples. For <sup>143</sup> the sunken bodies, all insonified samples showed reduced clarity as compared <sup>144</sup> to the control samples. Thus, the ultrasound has caused the algae to sink. For <sup>145</sup> example, after 60 minutes, the beakers subjected to 200-kHz insonification <sup>146</sup> were  $92 \pm 12\%$  brighter than the control samples, contrasted by the beaker <sup>147</sup> bottoms, which were  $53 \pm 27\%$  darker than the control samples.

<sup>148</sup> Clearly, the algae that were floating in the beaker dropped to the bottom at a <sup>149</sup> faster rate than the control sample. This has been attributed to the disruption <sup>150</sup> of the floating bodies by the ultrasound. This is supported by Fig. 6, which <sup>151</sup> shows that the sunken bodies still have active chlorophyll but contain very <sup>152</sup> few heterocysts.

<sup>153</sup> Figure 7 shows the viability of the culture 30 days after insonification in <sup>154</sup> terms of sample brightness. At 200 kHz, 1.0 MHz, and 2.2 MHz, the samples were  $39 \pm 14\%$ ,  $45 \pm 17\%$ , and  $46 \pm 17\%$  brighter than the control samples, respectively. All samples were significantly brighter than the control samples, even at the lower boundaries of the standard deviation. Thus, these results support the hypothesis that the algae that have sunk are less capable of multiplying. Hence, insonification may prevent algae bloom.

Our results can be interpreted as follows. When a heterocyst is subjected to 160 an ultrasound pulse, the bubble encapsulated by it expands, in our frequency 161 range [27] during the rarefaction phase of the ultrasound. If the acoustic 162 amplitude is sufficiently high, the encapsulating membrane cannot withhold 163 the bubble from further expanding, resulting in its rupture. This phenomenon 164 is similar to the sonic cracking of micrometer-sized membrane-encapsulated 165 bubbles observed in [10]. Sonic cracking exclusively occurs during the 166 expansion phase of a bubble [28]. 167

#### The resonance frequency $f_0$ of a an encapsultaed microbubble is given by [29]:

$$f_{0} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{3\Gamma}{R_{0}^{2} \rho}\right) \left(p_{0} + \frac{2\sigma}{R_{0}} + \frac{2\chi}{R_{0}}\right) - \left(\frac{2\sigma + 6\chi}{R_{0}^{3} \rho}\right)},$$
(2)

where  $p_0$  is the ambient pressure,  $R_0$  is the bubble radius,  $\Gamma$  is the polytropic 170 exponent of the gas,  $\rho$  is the liquid density,  $\sigma$  is the surface tension, and  $\chi$ 171 is the elasticity of the encapsulation [29]. Using  $p_0=1.013\times10^5$  Pa,  $R_0=3\mu$ m, 172  $\Gamma=1.4$ ,  $\rho$  is 998 kgm<sup>-3</sup>,  $\sigma=0.072$  Nm<sup>-1</sup>, and assuming that the membrane 173 elasticity is similar to that of a lipid encpsulation,  $\chi = 0.044 \,\mathrm{Nm^{-1}}$  [30], we 174 can estimate  $f_0 \approx 1 \text{ MHz}$  for Anabaena heterocysts used in our experiments. 175 Since the greatest change in clarity was seen at this particular frequency, we 176 can safely state that ultrasound insonification close to heterocyst resonance 177 frequency leads to a more effective eradication. 178

The quick decrease in live algae is similar to that in previous studies [12–17].
We assume that the correlation between (high)frequency and algae eradication
in these studies is related to the ultrasound proximity to heterocyst resonance
as well.

According to the NURC Rules and Procedures [21], the maximum acoustic pressure to which mammals can be exposed is 708 Pa at frequencies up to 250 kHz. The transducers used had acoustic pressures of 40 kPa and 68 kPa at driving frequencies 1.0 MHz and 2.2 MHz, respectively. These pressures surpass the NURC Rules and Procedures by over 35 dB.

#### 188 4 Conclusion

At any ultrasonic frequency we studied, blue-green algae were forced to sink. This supports our hypothesis that heterocysts release nitrogen under ultrasound insonification in the clinical diagnostic range. As supported by previous studies, under identical pulse length and pulse repetition, eradication is most effective close to heterocyst resonance, at a driving frequency of roughly 1 MHz.

Although the acoustic fields we used to eradicate blue-green algae are safe in terms of mechanical index, the acoustic pressures surpass the NURC Rules and Procedures by over 35 dB. Therefore, caution should be taken when using these techniques in a surrounding where aquatic or semi-aquatic animals are present.

#### 200 5 Acknowledgments

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### 280 List of Figures

281	1	Nitrogen-fixating body in Anabaena sphaerica algae. Under	
282		fluorescent light the body does not illuminate red, proving	
283		there is no chlorophyll in the body. Each frame corresponds to	
284		$565 \times 565 \ \mu m^2$ .	18
285	2	(a) Undamped 2.2-MHz ultrasound transducer with $d = 1$ "	
286		diameter and $r_{\rm a} = 35$ mm acoustic lens. (b) Undamped	
287		200-kHz ultrasound transducer with modification layer $h_{\rm PG}$ =	
288		10 mm.	19
289	3	Experimental setup: (a) white paper sheet; (b) control	
290		sample; (c) clamp stand; (d) transducer; (e) insonified sample;	
291		(f) pulser-receiver. Areas A1 – B2 represent brightness	
292		measurement areas, C1 represents the calibration area.	20
293	4	Microscopic image sequence showing the effect of 200 kHz $-$	
294		$2.5\mathrm{MHz}$ ultrasound on the floating bodies of algae. Each frame	
295		corresponds to $565 \times 565 \ \mu m^2$ .	21
296	5	Water brightness as a function of ultrasonic exposure time for	
297		samples containing floating algae or sunken algae.	22
298	6	Microscopic image sequence of sunken algae Each frame	
299		corresponds to $565 \times 565 \ \mu m^2$ .	23
300	7	Water clarity 30 days after insonification.	24



Fig. 1. Nitrogen-fixating body in Anabaena sphaerica algae. Under fluorescent light the body does not illuminate red, proving there is no chlorophyll in the body. Each frame corresponds to  $565 \times 565 \ \mu m^2$ .



Fig. 2. (a) Undamped 2.2-MHz ultrasound transducer with d = 1" diameter and  $r_{\rm a} = 35$  mm acoustic lens. (b) Undamped 200-kHz ultrasound transducer with modification layer  $h_{\rm PG} = 10$  mm.



Fig. 3. Experimental setup: (a) white paper sheet; (b) control sample; (c) clamp stand; (d) transducer; (e) insonified sample; (f) pulser-receiver. Areas A1 – B2 represent brightness measurement areas, C1 represents the calibration area.



Fig. 4. Microscopic image sequence showing the effect of 200 kHz - 2.5 MHz ultrasound on the floating bodies of algae. Each frame corresponds to 565  $\times$  565  $\mu \rm{m}^2.$ 



Fig. 5. Water brightness as a function of ultrasonic exposure time for samples containing floating algae or sunken algae.



Fluorescent Light



Fig. 6. Microscopic image sequence of sunken algae Each frame corresponds to 565  $\times$  565  $\mu {\rm m}^2.$ 



Fig. 7. Water clarity 30 days after insonification.