



MARINHA DO BRASIL
INSTITUTO DE ESTUDOS DO MAR ALMIRANTE PAULO MOREIRA
UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL FLUMINENSE
PROGRAMA ASSOCIADO DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOTECNOLOGIA
MARINHA

MAURICIO PEIXOTO SCAPOLATEMPORE

**ÁGUA DE LASTRO E BIOINCRUSTAÇÃO COMO VETORES DE ESPÉCIES NÃO-
NATIVAS MEDIADAS POR EMBARCAÇÕES: UMA PERSPECTIVA DA
AUTORIDADE MARÍTIMA BRASILEIRA**

ARRIAL DO CABO/RJ

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biotecnologia Marinha do Instituto de Estudos do Mar Almirante Paulo Moreira e à Universidade Federal Fluminense, como requisito parcial para a obtenção do grau de Doutor em Biotecnologia Marinha.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Bernardo Antonio Perez da Gama - IEAPM e UFF

Co-orientador: Prof. Dr. Fábio Bettini Pitombo - UFF

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ATA DA DEFESA DE TESE Nº 12
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Aos quatro dias do mês de maio do ano de dois mil e vinte e três, às treze horas, pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biotecnologia Marinha (PPGBM), em Arraial do Cabo, RJ realizou-se, de forma remota, a prova de Defesa de Tese, intitulada: "Água de lastro e bioincrustação como vetores de espécies não-nativas mediadas por embarcações: uma perspectiva da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira" de autoria do candidato **Maurício Peixoto Scapolatempore**, aluno do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biotecnologia Marinha, em nível de Doutorado. A Banca Examinadora foi constituída pelos professores: Dr. Bernardo Antonio Perez da Gama - Universidade Federal Fluminense (UFF) - Orientador – Presidente, Dr. Lohengrin Dias de Almeida Fernandes - Instituto de Estudos do Mar Almirante Paulo Moreira (IEAPM) - Membro Interno, Dr. Newton Narciso Pereira - Universidade Federal Fluminense (UFF) - Membro Externo, Dra. Maria Cecília Trindade de Castro - Diretoria de Portos e Costas (DPC) - Membro Externo, Dra. Andrea Junqueira - Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro (UFRJ) - Membro Externo, e Dra. Luciana Vicente Resende de Messano - Instituto de Estudos do Mar Almirante Paulo Moreira (IEAPM) – Membro Suplente. Concluídos os trabalhos de apresentação e arguição, o candidato foi aprovado pela Banca Examinadora. Foi concedido um prazo de 60 dias para o candidato efetuar as correções sugeridas pela Banca Examinadora, apresentar o trabalho em sua redação definitiva, atender ao requisito de publicação estabelecido nas normas do PPGBM e entregar a documentação necessária para elaboração e expedição do Diploma. E, para constar, foi lavrada a presente ata, que vai assinada pelos membros da Banca e pelo Candidato.

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Assinatura do Candidato:

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Dedico esta Tese de Doutorado aos meus pais, Solange Peixoto Scapolatempore e Mauricio Scapolatempore, por toda dedicação, amor e sacrifícios pelos seus filhos.

“Por vezes, sentimos que aquilo que fazemos não é, senão, uma gota de água no mar. Mas o mar seria menor se lhe faltasse uma gota.”

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

AFS – *AntiFouling System*
AJB – Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras
ANTAQ – Agência Nacional de Transportes Aquaviários
ANVISA – Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária
BFMP – *Biofouling Management Plan*
BFRB – *Biofouling Record Book*
BIMCO – *Baltic and International Maritime Council*
BJW – *Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters*
BMA – *Brazilian Maritime Authority*
BWMC – *Ballast Water Management Certificate*
BW – *Ballast Water*
BWE – *Ballast Water Exchange*
BWM – *Ballast Water Management*
BWMP – *Ballast Water Management Plan*
BWMS – *Ballast Water Management System*
BWR – *Ballast Water Report* (= RIAL – Relatório de Imposição de Água de Lastro)
BWRF – *Ballast Water Reporting Form*
C – *Compliance*
CDB – Convenção sobre Diversidade Biológica
CMD – *Compliance Monitoring Devices*
CNC – *Charitas' Naval Club*
CRMS – *Craft Risk Management Standard*
CSLC – *California State Lands Commission*
DPC – Diretoria de Portos e Costas (*Directorate of Ports and Coasts*)
DWT – *Dead-Weight Tons*
EBP – *Experience Building Phase*
EPA – *Environment Protection Agency*
FIAL – Formulário de Água de Lastro (= BWRF – *Ballast Water Reporting Form*)
GEE – Gases do Efeito Estufa
GEF – *Global Environmental Facility*
GHG – *Green House Gases*
GIA – *Global Industry Alliance*

GloBallast – *Global Ballast Water Programme*
HAOP – *Harmful Aquatic Organisms and Pathogens*
IAS – *Invasive Aquatic Species*
IBAMA - Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis
ICMBio - Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade
IMO – *International Maritime Organization* (= Organização Marítima Internacional)
IWC – *In-Water Cleaning*
MARS – *Maritime Arrivals Reporting System*
MEPC – *Marine Environment Protection Committee*
MGPS – *Marine Growth Prevention System*
MKC – *Maritime Knowledge Centre*
MMA - Ministério do Meio Ambiente
MPI – *Ministry of Primary Industries*
MPSC – *Marine Pest Sectoral Committee*
NC – *Non-Compliance*
ND – *Naval Districts*
NIS – *Non-Indigenous Species*
NORMAM – Norma da Autoridade Marítima
PPCEX – Projeto de Prevenção e Controle de Espécies Exóticas
PPR – *Subcommittee on Pollution Prevention and Response*
PSC – *Port State Control*
PVC – *Polyvinyl Chloride*
RIAL – Relatório de Imposição de Água de Lastro
SD – *Standard Deviation*
TBT – *Tributyltin*
TNPA – *Transnet National Ports Authority*
UNCLOS – *United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea*
UNCTAD – Conferência das Nações Unidas sobre Comércio e Desenvolvimento
UNDP – *United Nations Development Programme*
US – *United States of America*
VGP – *Vessel General Permit*
WTO – *World Trade Organization*

RESUMO

A presente tese aborda o tema água de lastro e bioincrustação como vetores de introdução de espécies não-nativas por embarcações, e o papel da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira (AMB) neste contexto. Estes vetores são responsáveis pela maior parte das introduções de organismos aquáticos no mundo. Sob certas circunstâncias, o organismo introduzido pode sobreviver ao novo ambiente, gerar descendentes e estabelecer uma população. Ao causar problemas de ordem econômica, social e/ou ambiental, pode-se afirmar que um evento de bioinvasão ocorreu. Para atacar este problema a Organização Marítima Internacional (IMO) adotou convenções e diretrizes direcionadas ao transporte marítimo, cabendo às Autoridades Marítimas de cada estado a sua regulamentação e fiscalização.

O primeiro estudo desta tese avaliou a conformidade dos Relatórios de Imposição de Água de Lastro, utilizados como ferramenta de fiscalização da gestão de água de lastro de navios, desde sua implementação, em 2005, até 2022. Demonstrou-se que a conformidade foi significativamente maior após a entrada em vigor da Convenção Internacional de Água de Lastro da IMO, em 2017. Entretanto, notou-se poucos relatórios em relação ao volume de água de lastro descarregada em algumas regiões do país, indicando a necessidade de maior esforço amostral nestas áreas. Por fim, o estudo destaca iniciativas recentes da AMB para atender aos objetivos da Convenção. Em estudo experimental com água de baixa salinidade como ferramenta de biossegurança para prevenção da introdução de organismos não-nativos via bioincrustação, a exposição de assembléias, desenvolvidas na Baía de Guanabara-RJ, a salinidades inferiores a 7 por duas horas se mostrou promissora. Um mês após o tratamento, as placas de incrustação apresentaram maior abundância de organismos mortos, espaços abertos e biofilme em comparação com placas submetidas às salinidades 15 e 35 (controle). Salinidades inferiores a 7 também apresentaram menor espessura da bioincrustação, indicando que este tratamento também possui potencial de melhorar a eficiência energética de navios, ao diminuir o arrasto do casco contra a água, o que pode reduzir o consumo de combustíveis e emissões de gases do efeito estufa.

Uma vez que as Diretrizes para Gestão da Bioincrustação da IMO são instrumentos voluntários, a África do Sul, Nova Zelândia e Estados Unidos implementaram suas próprias regras de caráter obrigatório para prevenir a introdução de organismos por esta via. No intuito de sugerir uma regra obrigatória para navios e embarcações recreativas no Brasil, um estudo comparativo entre os principais tópicos destes documentos foi realizado e utilizado de base para o delineamento de requisitos para a gestão da bioincrustação em Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras. O apêndice do estudo traz um texto-base sob forma de capítulo 4 da NORMAM-20/DPC. Dentre os requisitos sugeridos, destacam-se: o tratamento diferenciado entre embarcações maiores e menores que 24 m em comprimento, a subdivisão do litoral brasileiro em 3 regiões biogeográficas marinhas, e a não adoção de um requisito de 'casco limpo'.

A presente tese aborda ferramentas de fiscalização, prevenção e regulamentação com impactos na bioinvasão mediada por embarcações. Um tema que permeia estes estudos é a avaliação de risco de biossegurança. Esta tese apresenta importantes parâmetros na definição do risco de determinada embarcação introduzir espécies aquáticas exóticas às águas jurisdicionais brasileiras, e sugere abordagens à Autoridade Marítima Brasileira no intuito de tornar a fiscalização mais assertiva.

Palavras-Chave: Água de Lastro, Bioincrustação, Bioinvasão, Autoridade Marítima.

ABSTRACT

The present thesis addresses the topic of ballast water and biofouling as vectors for the introduction of non-native species by vessels and the role of the Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA) in this context. These vectors are responsible for most introductions of aquatic organisms worldwide. And under certain circumstances, the introduced organism can survive in the new environment, generate offspring, and establish a population. When causing problems of economic, social, and/or environmental order, it can be said that a bioinvasion event has occurred. To tackle this problem, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) has adopted conventions and guidelines aimed at maritime transport, with each state's maritime authorities being responsible for its regulation and enforcement.

The first study of this thesis evaluated the compliance of Ballast Water Reports, used as a tool for monitoring ship ballast water management, since its implementation, in 2005, until 2022. It was demonstrated that compliance was significantly higher after the entrance into force of the IMO International Ballast Water Convention in 2017. However, it was noted that some regions of the country presented few reports relative to the volume of discharged ballast water, indicating the need for a greater sampling effort in these areas. Finally, the study highlights recent BMA initiatives to better meet the Convention's objectives.

In an experimental study with low salinity water as a biosecurity tool for preventing the introduction of non-native organisms via biofouling, exposure of assemblages developed in Guanabara Bay-RJ to salinities below 7 for two hours proved to be promising. One month after treatment, the fouling panels presented a higher abundance of dead organisms, open spaces, and biofilm compared to panels subjected to salinities of 15 and 35 (control). Salinities below 7 also showed a lower biofouling thickness, indicating that this treatment also has the potential to improve ship energy efficiency by reducing hull drag against the water, which can reduce fuel consumption and greenhouse gas emissions.

Since the IMO Biofouling Guidelines are voluntary instruments, South Africa, New Zealand, and the United States have implemented their mandatory rules to prevent the introduction of organisms through this vector. In order to suggest a mandatory rule for ships and recreational crafts in Brazil, a comparative study of the main topics of these documents was conducted and used as the basis for outlining requirements for biofouling management in Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters. The study's appendix provides a base text in the form of Chapter 4 of NORMAM-20/DPC. Among the suggested requirements, highlights include: differentiated treatment between vessels larger and smaller than 24 meters in length, the subdivision of the Brazilian coastline into 3 marine biogeographic regions, and the non-adoption of a "clean hull" requirement.

The present thesis addresses monitoring, prevention, and regulation tools with impacts on vessel-mediated bioinvasion. A topic that permeates these studies is biosecurity risk assessment. This thesis presents important parameters in defining the risk of a ship in introducing exotic aquatic species into Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters, and provide suggestions to the Brazilian Maritime Authority for a more assertive surveillance.

Keywords: Ballast Water, Biofouling, Bioinvasion, Maritime Authority.

CAPÍTULO 1 – INTRODUÇÃO TEÓRICO-METODOLÓGICA

1.1. O TRANSPORTE MARÍTIMO

Datado de cerca de cinco mil anos atrás, a primeira rota marítima de que se tem registro indica o transporte de azeite e tâmaras da Mesopotâmia para o Barém e Rio Indo, de onde retornava com cobre e, possivelmente, marfim dos hindus (STOPFORD, 2009; CASTRO, 2018). Hoje, esta rota marítima corresponde às áreas do Golfo Persico, Golfo de Omã e oeste da Índia.

Ojala & Tenold (2017) enfatizam a relação do transporte marítimo com o desenvolvimento econômico dos estados europeus. Segundo os autores, esta atividade era a principal responsável pela liderança europeia no cenário global entre os séculos XIV e XX: “O crescimento europeu e o crescimento do transporte marítimo europeu eram dois processos que abasteciam um ao outro”, consolidando o pico de sua hegemonia no meio do século XIX, através dos avanços tecnológicos que substituíram as velas pelo motor à vapor, e o casco de madeira pela liga de aço e ferro. O desenvolvimento da Engenharia Naval no século XX proporcionou aumento da produção de navios, com maiores tamanhos e mais especializados, que passaram a utilizar motores à combustão interna movidos por óleo diesel; neste período, a hegemonia marítima do ocidente foi deslocada gradualmente para a Ásia devido a mudanças nos padrões de produção e comércio, e de mudanças institucionais, ocasionadas, dentre outros fatores, pelas primeira e segunda guerras mundiais (OJALA & TENOLD, 2017).

De acordo com o manual de estatísticas de 2022 da Conferência das Nações Unidas sobre Comércio e Desenvolvimento (UNCTAD), a Ásia mantém a liderança em afretamentos marítimos pelo globo em 2021, com cerca de 42% (4,6 bilhões de toneladas) de todas as mercadorias carregadas e 64% (7,1 bilhões de toneladas) de todas as mercadorias descarregadas no mundo ocorrendo em seus portos (MKC/IMO, 2022) (Figura 1). O maior fluxo bilateral de comércio marítimo ocorre entre China e Estados Unidos, e seus vizinhos; em 2021, mercadorias no valor de 542 bilhões de dólares foram transportadas da China para os Estados Unidos, e 181 bilhões de dólares dos Estados Unidos para a China (UNCTAD, 2022). O manual aponta a pandemia de COVID-19 como a principal causa da queda de quase 4% no comércio

marítimo em 2020, e que em 2021, apesar de abaixo do período pré-pandemia, o transporte marítimo voltou a crescer, ficando 3,2% acima do ano de 2020, atingindo 11 bilhões de toneladas comercializadas. Impulsionados pela China e vizinhos do leste Asiático, países em desenvolvimento mantiveram a maior fatia do comércio marítimo, com 55% e 61% das mercadorias exportadas e importadas por seus portos, respectivamente. A superioridade da importação sobre a exportação se deve pelo grande volume de carga seca (*commodities*) importada, que hoje corresponde a três quartos de toda carga exportada pelo mundo, para confecção de produtos manufaturados por economias Asiáticas (MKC/IMO, 2022). Em outros continentes, países em desenvolvimento geralmente apresentam maior exportação do que importação, principalmente destes *commodities*.

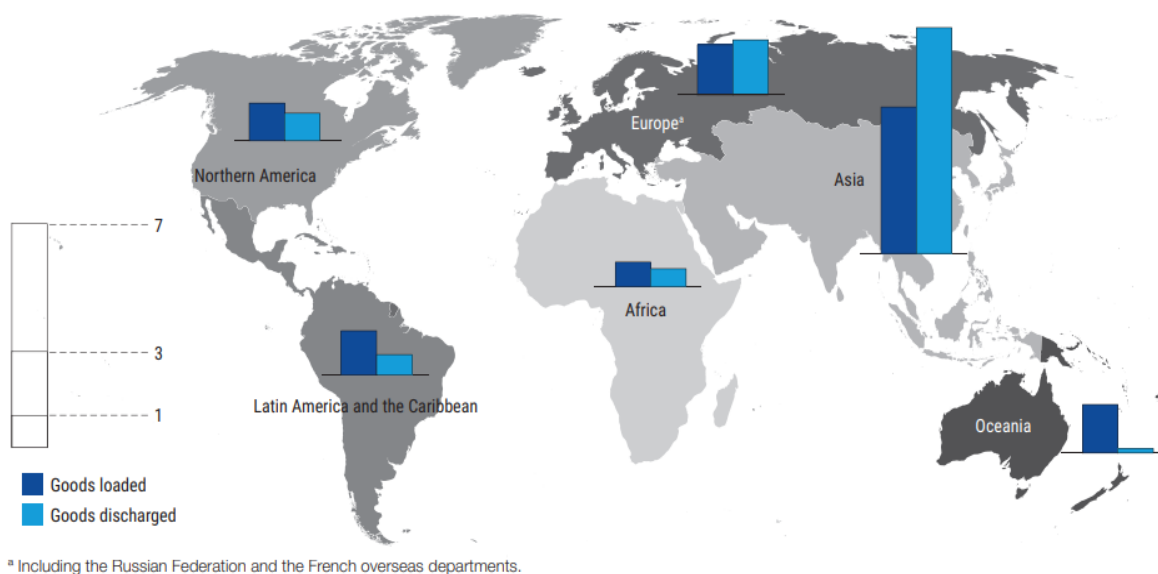


Figura 1 – Quantidade de mercadorias (em bilhões de toneladas) carregadas e descarregadas de portos, por continente, em 2021. Fonte: International Maritime Organization. 2022. Maritime Knowledge Centre (MKC/IMO). International Shipping Facts and Figures – Information Resources on World Seaborne Trade, Merchant Fleet and Maritime Transport Indicators. London: International Maritime Organization Report.

De 2021 para 2022 a frota comercial mundial cresceu 63 milhões de toneladas em capacidade de transporte (*dead-weight tons – dwt*), atingindo 2,2 bilhões de toneladas, sendo a China, República da Coreia e Japão, em ordem decrescente, os responsáveis pela maior parte das construções de navios em 2021, e as companhias Asiáticas, proprietárias de mais da metade da frota mundial, sendo a China a maior proprietária em número de navios, com 8.007 navios, correspondendo a 15% da frota

mundial; já em capacidade de carga, a Grécia supera a China, com 384.430.000 dwt, correspondendo a 18% da frota mundial (MKC/IMO, 2022).

No cenário mundial, o Brasil é o segundo maior exportador de minério de ferro, atrás apenas da Austrália, e de grãos, apenas atrás dos Estados Unidos; as empresas brasileiras colocam o país em 18º no ranking de países proprietários de embarcações para o transporte marítimo (UNCTAD, 2022). Os principais parceiros econômicos do Brasil, e para onde o país mais exportou em 2021, em ordem decrescente, são: China, União Europeia (UE), principalmente Alemanha, Estados Unidos (EUA), Argentina e Chile (WTO, 2022) (figura 2). Produtos agrícolas correspondem à maior porção das importações brasileiras (com 44,4%), seguido de combustíveis e minérios (27,9%) e produtos manufaturados (24,8%), em 2021 (WTO, 2022).



Figura 2 – Principais parceiros comerciais importadores de produtos brasileiros. Fonte: World Trade Organization. 2022. Trade Profiles – Brazil.

Já em relação à importação do país, em 2021, destacam-se, em ordem decrescente, as seguintes origens: China, EUA, UE, Argentina e Índia; sendo os produtos manufaturados os que representam a maior parte das importações (79,2%), seguido de combustíveis e minérios (13,4%) e produtos agrícolas (7,3%), com a menor porção (WTO, 2022).

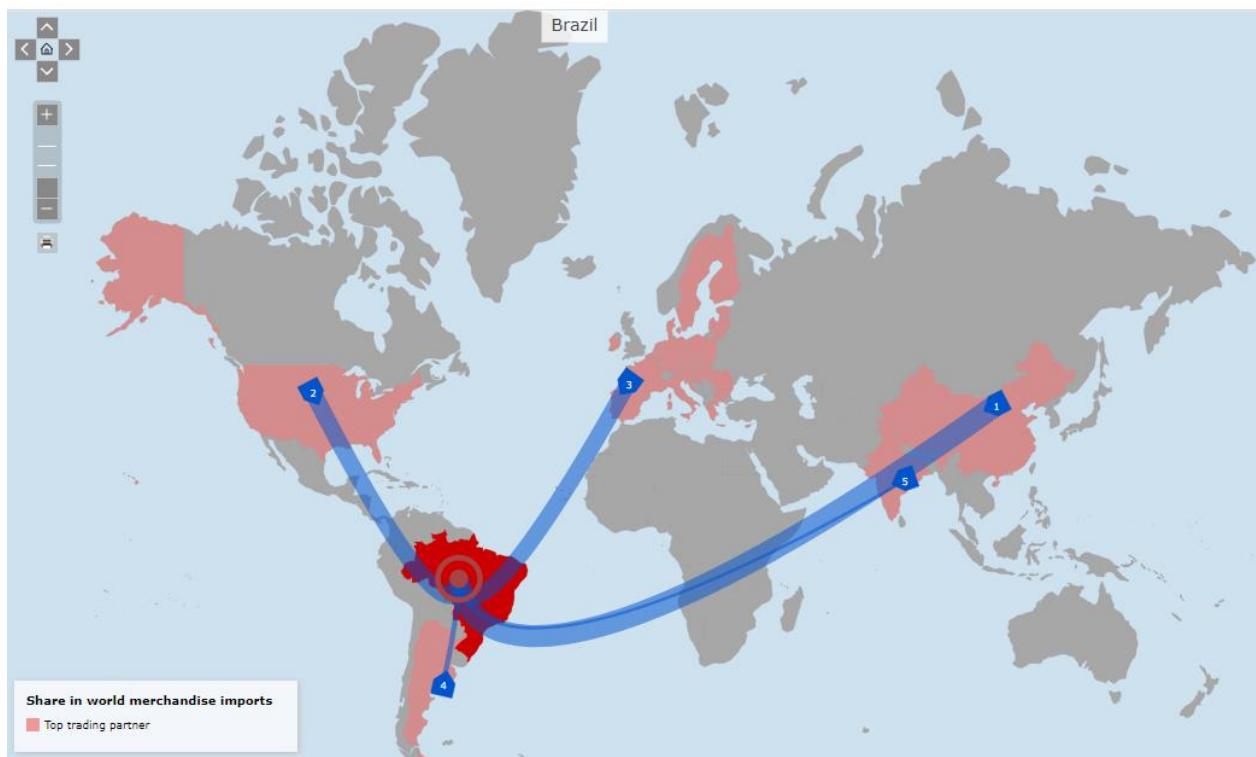


Figura 3 – Principais parceiros comerciais cujos produtos o Brasil importa. Fonte: World Trade Organization. 2022. Trade Profiles – Brazil.

No ano de 2021, os portos brasileiros movimentaram 856.010.598 toneladas em mercadorias por navegação de longo curso, destes, 672.461.199 toneladas correspondem à exportação (79%) e 183.549.399 toneladas (21%) à importação (ANTAQ, 2022). A tabela 1 elenca, em ordem decrescente de contribuição, os 20 portos/terminais brasileiros, por onde 80% do volume importado/exportado foram carregados/descarregados. Destes, destacam-se os Terminal, privado, Marítimo de Ponta da Madeira, localizado em São Luís - MA, com exportação de minério de ferro, manganês e pelotas, principalmente para a China; e o Porto, público, de Santos – SP, que importa e exporta diversos tipos de produtos, principalmente produtos agrícolas, contêineres e combustíveis (ANTAQ, 2022).

Tabela 1 – Os vinte principais portos/terminais público e privados brasileiros em tonelagem transportada por longo curso em 2021 (fonte dos dados: Anuário da ANTAQ).

PORTO/TERMINAL	IMP.+EXP. (ton.)	%	% ACUM.
Ponta da Madeira	178.025.568	21%	21%
Santos	100.115.172	12%	32%
Tubarão	61.476.486	7%	40%
Itaguaí	49.460.960	6%	45%
Paranaguá	47.636.780	6%	51%
Angra Dos Reis	31.878.488	4%	55%
Ilha Guaíba - Tig	26.334.412	3%	58%
Itaqui	26.150.178	3%	61%
Açu - Minério	23.142.133	3%	64%
Açu - Petróleo	22.492.144	3%	66%
Sudeste	17.787.261	2%	68%
Rio Grande	15.340.036	2%	70%
Tiplam	11.866.282	1%	71%
Terbian	11.589.351	1%	73%
Portonave	11.464.263	1%	74%
Vila do Conde	10.495.326	1%	75%
Termasa	10.083.276	1%	77%
Ponta Ubu	9.615.190	1%	78%
São Sebastião	8.227.673	1%	79%
Itajaí	7.880.743	1%	80%
Portos com < 1%	174.948.876	20%	100%

Diante deste cenário de grandes movimentações aquaviárias, a probabilidade de introdução de espécies aquáticas por meio do transporte marítimo se torna maior. Com o aumento de episódios de inoculação de organismos não-nativos, a probabilidade de estabelecimento de uma população no novo local também cresce. Na eventualidade desta população apresentar algum efeito negativo às espécies consideradas nativas, e em uma situação ainda mais alarmante, endêmicas da região, ou mesmo ao homem, está configurado um caso de invasão biológica ou bioinvasão.

1.2. O TRANSPORTE MARÍTIMO E A BIOINVASÃO

Desde que o homem desenvolveu o transporte marítimo a ponto de atravessar grandes corpos d'água que organismos aquáticos são introduzidos, acidentalmente ou intencionalmente, em locais naturalmente não alcançáveis. Durante a Era dos Descobrimentos, entre o século XV e o início do século XVII, a expansão das fronteiras do comércio internacional permitiu não apenas o transporte de seres humanos, e

outros mamíferos, aves e plantas para comercialização, mas também de organismos terrestres, como insetos, aranhas, cupins, centopeias, ratos e camundongos; e marinhos, como macrófitas, artrópodes, moluscos, e outros, de forma não-intencional, em meio à areia, rochas, e outros materiais utilizados como lastro “seco” descarregados dos porões dos navios; além de organismos bentônicos incrustados sob a superfície, ou mesmo dentro dos cascos de madeira utilizados à época (CARLTON, 1996; CARLTON, 1999; CAMPBELL & HEWITT, 1999).

Novas rotas comerciais e regulares e avanços na Engenharia Naval, tais como o desenvolvimento de novos *designs* de navios com especialização do tipo de transporte, propulsão à vapor e hélice, e, posteriormente, de motores à combustão interna, além do uso de aço nos cascos, e de tanques segregados, permitiram a redução do tempo de viagens e maior eficiência, garantindo a manutenção do transporte marítimo como principal meio de comercialização global (STOPFORD, 2009). Hoje, esta modalidade de transporte continua responsável pela maior parte do comércio internacional, com mais de 80% de contribuição (UNCTAD, 2021), dependendo da métrica utilizada pode-se dizer que alcança até 90% de contribuição (OJALA & TENOLD, 2017; IMO, 2021). Porém, com numerosas viagens, de maior velocidade, ocorre o aumento no número de episódios de introduções biológicas e de bioinvasões bem-sucedidas (CAMPBELL & HEWITT, 1999).

Tais fatores, somados à necessidade de tornar embarcações mais eficientes do ponto de vista de consumo de combustíveis fósseis e emissões atmosféricas, principalmente dos Gases do Efeito Estufa (GEE), como contribuição da indústria marítima para enfrentar as Mudanças Climáticas (Resolução MEPC.304(72), 2018), chamaram a atenção da Organização Marítima Internacional (OMI; em inglês *International Maritime Organization* - IMO) para a poluição gerada por este meio de transporte. As poluições atmosférica e hídrica foram e são amplamente discutidas no cenário mundial, porém mais recentemente, na primeira década dos anos 2000, a IMO inclinou seus esforços para atacar um tipo menos evidente de poluição, a Bioinvasão.

Uma espécie é considerada invasora quando ela é não-nativa (exótica) e interfere na capacidade de sobrevivência das demais espécies no local afetado (ELLIOTT, 2003). A expansão da distribuição histórica de determinado organismo pode ocorrer, por mecanismos de dispersão natural e por introduções mediadas pela atividade humana, esta última, de forma intencional ou não, para áreas onde, até então, não havia registros (CARLTON, 1996). O transporte marítimo permite a

introdução de espécies aquáticas não-nativas por meio de dois vetores principais: a água de lastro e a bioincrustação.

Nos anos 1880, o avanço tecnológico permitiu o desenvolvimento de navios com casco de aço, assim como da utilização de espaços confinados para aprisionamento de água, que passou a ser captada por bombas à motor, facilitando o uso da água como lastro (CARLTON, 1985; CARLTON, 1996). Este procedimento consiste na captação de água do meio externo à embarcação e seu aprisionamento em tanques segregados, permitindo assim, que o navio mantenha seu equilíbrio, mesmo quando descarregando mercadorias. Trata-se então de um procedimento que ajusta o “trim” do navio, ou seja, provê equilíbrio ao mesmo (PEREIRA & BRINATI, 2018). Porém, na água de lastro estão presentes diversos tipos de micro-organismos, tais como bactérias, inclusive patogênicas, fito e zooplâncton que são bombeados para os tanques de lastro durante a captação de água (WU *et al.*, 2017). Geralmente a captação da água de lastro é realizada quando a carga do navio não é suficiente para gerar o calado necessário que garanta a estabilidade do navio, e esta captação pode acontecer antes ou mesmo durante a viagem ao porto onde o navio será carregado de mercadorias para sua viagem seguinte. Ao chegar no porto e durante o carregamento de mercadorias no navio, ocorre o deslastro (bombeamento da água de lastro de seus tanques para fora do navio, nas águas das imediações) à medida que a carga é distribuída pelo convés e/ou compartimentos (tanques), o que é feito de modo a equilibrar o navio (PEREIRA & BRINATI, 2018). Assim, a água de lastro com organismos vivos é descarregada em um local diverso ao da origem. Estes organismos, por vezes, encontram condições ambientais similares (como de temperatura e salinidade da água) a sua origem, que aumentam as chances de sobrevivência (PEREIRA & BRINATI, 2018a; SONG *et al.*, 2022).

De acordo com o Guia da IMO para controle e manejo da bioincrustação de navios para minimizar a transferência de espécies aquáticas invasoras, de 15 de julho de 2011 (*Guidelines for the control and management of ships' biofouling to minimize the transfer of invasive aquatic species*, Resolução MEPC.207(62), 2011), bioincrustação é o acúmulo de organismos aquáticos, como micro-organismos, plantas e animais, em superfícies e estruturas imersas ou expostas ao ambiente aquático. Para navios, estas áreas podem ser o casco e as áreas nicho, estas últimas, definidas como áreas do navio que apresentam características que propiciam a bioincrustação, seja pelo difícil acesso para limpeza e pintura, pela maior

suscetibilidade à danos ou desgastes do revestimento antiincrustante e/ou pela baixa hidrodinâmica, que facilita o assentamento da fase larval do organismo bioincrustante (são exemplos: a caixa de mar, propulsores e eixos e seus reservatórios, grades, dutos de sistemas de resfriamento por água do ambiente externo, entre outros) (Resolução MEPC.207(62), 2011). A bioincrustação ocorre em praticamente qualquer superfície submersa, iniciando-se pelas microincrustações, invisíveis ao olho nu, passando pela produção de um filme bacteriano, que se desenvolve em uma espécie de limo (também chamado de biofilme) e que prepara e permite a incrustação por outros organismos maiores, a macroincrustação. Esta sucessão ecológica de bioincrustação muitas vezes não segue um padrão pré-definido de ordem de chegada por espécies, mas depende sim, dentre outros fatores, da presença de larvas prontas para assentarem naquele determinado momento, naquele determinado local (DA GAMA & COUTINHO, 2009).

Diferentemente da introdução causada pela descarga de água de lastro, que é um procedimento inerente ao transporte marítimo, a introdução mediada por bioincrustação não depende de um procedimento por parte da embarcação para ocorrer, mas simplesmente da disponibilidade de substrato artificial na água, ou seja, da presença da embarcação na água. Desde os primórdios da navegação estas estruturas são incrustadas por organismos vivos e transportadas conforme rotas marítimas são criadas, e durante o deslocamento, o organismo incrustado pode desprender, lançar gametas ou mesmo proles viáveis, capazes de colonizar o novo ambiente (CARLTON, 1996; CARLTON, 1999; CAMPBELL & HEWITT, 1999).

De acordo com a Convenção sobre Diversidade Biológica (CDB), "espécie exótica", "não-nativa", "alienígena" ou "introduzida" é toda espécie que se encontra fora de sua área de distribuição natural; "Espécie Exótica estabelecida" é aquela que após introdução foi capaz de se reproduzir no novo ambiente, permitindo o desenvolvimento de uma população no novo local, fora de sua distribuição natural; e "Espécie Exótica Invasora", por sua vez, é definida como sendo aquela que ameaça ecossistemas, habitats ou espécies (CDB, 2002).

Por suas vantagens competitivas e favorecidas pela ausência de predadores e/ou parasitas naturais, as invasoras têm capacidade de se proliferar, obtendo grandes coberturas e densidades (JESCHKE, 2014). É importante lembrar que nem todas as espécies não-nativas introduzidas no meio ambiente se estabelecem, e aquelas que o fazem, não necessariamente se tornarão invasoras. Na realidade, em

torno de 10% dos indivíduos introduzidos conseguem se estabelecer, e destes, a mesma percentagem pode vir a se tornar invasora - Hipótese dos 10%; e por estas razões, a quantidade de indivíduos e frequência de inoculação (pressão de propágulo) se tornam variáveis importantes para o sucesso da introdução-estabelecimento-invasão (JESCHKE, 2014). Devido ao alto tráfego aquaviário em rotas regulares, o transporte marítimo se tornou um eficiente meio de disseminação de espécies aquáticas não-nativas.

Caso a espécie não-nativa possua características que a tornem mais eficientes que sua competidora nativa no consumo de determinado recurso indispensável para a ocupação do nicho ecológico, a primeira poderá deslocar ou mesmo excluir competitivamente a segunda. Este é o caso, por exemplo, do Coral-Sol (*Tubastraea spp.*), que não demonstra seleção específica por tipo de substrato (CREED & DE PAULA, 2007), apresenta características reprodutivas típicas de espécies oportunistas, como idade reprodutiva precoce, período de incubação curto, alta produção de gametas e hermafroditismo (DE PAULA, 2007). Além disso, o Coral-Sol também é capaz de produzir metabólitos secundários que causam necrose no tecido de outros corais, como *Mussismilia hispida*, endêmica do Brasil (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES *et al.*, 2012). Estas características permitem que, uma vez estabelecida, *Tubastraea spp.* domine e altere estrutura e função das comunidades bentônicas (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES *et al.*, 2011).



Figura 4 – Coral-Sol em torno de *Mussismilia hispida*. Fonte: Casares FA, Creed JC & Oigman-Pszczol SS Plataforma Brasileira de Bioinvasão - Bioinvasão Brasil, Instituto Brasileiro de Biodiversidade, Rio de Janeiro – RJ. www.bioinvasaobrasil.org.br

Em certos casos, quando a espécie invasora é um vírus ou bactéria, ou mesmo é capaz de produzir toxinas, um sério risco à saúde pública pode ser desencadeado, e levar ao surgimento de surtos de doenças e consequências à economia das regiões afetadas, são exemplos: o surto de cólera, possivelmente causado pelo deslastro de água contaminada com a cepa toxicogênica O1 da bactéria *Vibrio cholerae*, no final da década de 90 em Paranaguá - PR (ANVISA, 2003; RIVERA *et al.*, 2013); e os *blooms* de dinoflagelados e microalgas capazes de produzirem toxinas (marés vermelhas) que bioacumulam em recursos pesqueiros, como peixes e mexilhões, com potencial de causar risco à saúde de quem os consuma (GRIFFIN *et al.*, 2022). Existem ainda outros casos de bioinvasão com altíssimos custos de manejo, e que quase sempre são ineficazes na erradicação, como, por exemplo o caso do mexilhão dourado (*Limnoperna fortunei*), que gera gastos da ordem de 200 milhões de dólares anualmente às hidrelétricas brasileiras, já sendo encontrado em 40% das usinas nacionais, dificultando a manutenção de dutos de resfriamento e filtros que são obstruídos por aglomerados do mexilhão (MOUTINHO, 2021).



Figura 5 – Mexilhão dourado (*Limnoperna fortunei*) obstruindo duto de usina hidroelétrica. Fonte: Moutinho, S. 2021. A Golden Menace - An invasive mussel is devastating ecosystems as it spreads through South American rivers, threatening the Amazon basin. Science.

Nos Grandes Lagos da América do Norte os mexilhões zebra (*Dreissena polymorpha*) e “quagga” (*D. rostriformis bugensis*) geraram prejuízos de cerca de 51,1 bilhões de dólares (cotação de 2017) entre 1980 e 2020 (KARATAYEV & BURLAKOVA, 2022; HAUBROCK *et al.*, 2022). Somando-se os impactos econômicos causados por todas as espécies invasoras, não só de ambiente aquático, presentes nos Estados Unidos, o montante pode chegar à 120 bilhões de dólares americanos por ano (PIMENTEL *et al.*, 2005). Já extrapolando-se os custos relacionados com a bioinvasão para todo o mundo, estima-se que, entre 1970 e 2017, tenham sido gastos US\$ 1,288 trilhões (dólar americano no ano de 2017), e que para o ano de 2017, o montante foi de 167 bilhões de dólares (DIAGNE *et al.* 2021).

Inicialmente acreditava-se que a água de lastro era o principal vetor de introdução de espécies não-nativas. Progresso significativo foi alcançado nesta área através do Projeto GloBallast (*Global Ballast Water Programme*), desenvolvido pela GEF-UNDP-IMO (*Global Environmental Facility*, o Fundo Mundial para o Ambiente – *United Nations Development Programme*, o Programa de Desenvolvimento das Nações Unidas – *International Maritime Organization*, a Organização Marítima Internacional), juntamente com a entrada em vigor, em 8 de setembro de 2017, da Convenção para o Controle e Gerenciamento de Água de Lastro e Sedimentos de Navios (*Convention for the Control and Management of Ships' Ballast Water and*

Sediments - BWM Convention) (IMO, 2004). No entanto, apesar das novas medidas para evitar a transferência de espécies aquáticas não-nativas por água de lastro e seus sedimentos, estudos sugerem que a bioincrustação foi subestimada como vetor e que esta poderia ser o principal mecanismo de introduções (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010; RUIZ *et al.* 2000, 2011). Além disso, também foi observado espalhamento de organismos considerados invasores entre regiões portuárias locais, funcionando como verdadeiros “hubs” de bioinvasão (FLOERL & INGLIS, 2005; AZMI *et al.*, 2015) abastecendo populações introduzidas e facilitando seu estabelecimento, através da bioincrustação em navios. É possível observar que, em certos casos, a bioincrustação contribuiu mais do que a água de lastro e outros mecanismos de dispersão na introdução destas espécies em diversas partes do mundo (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010; FARRAPEIRA *et al.*, 2011; WILLIAMS *et al.*, 2013; CHAN *et al.*, 2015).

Navios mercantes exportadores de óleo, minérios, grãos e outras matérias primas são, na maioria das vezes, as principais fontes econômicas de países em desenvolvimento, assim, Países Menos Desenvolvidos e Pequenas Ilhas em Desenvolvimento podem ser desproporcionalmente afetados pela introdução de organismos aquáticos não-nativos pela necessidade de atrair navios internacionais para exportarem tais *commodities*; além disso, estes países muitas vezes recebem embarcações pesqueiras e de esporte e recreio em suas águas (GLOFOULING, 2018). Tais categorias se mostraram de alto risco para transporte de espécies não-nativas via bioincrustação (ASHTON *et al.*, 2022; LENZEN *et al.*, 2023).

Enquanto a introdução de espécies via água de lastro e bioincrustação por navios mercantes são comparáveis, o risco associado com a bioincrustação pode não ser tão similar entre diferentes setores marítimos; este é o caso das plataformas de óleo e gás offshore, embarcações pesqueiras e de esporte e recreio, que apresentam maiores riscos de transferência de espécies por bioincrustação devido ao trânsito em menor velocidade, áreas nicho complexas e grandes períodos de tempo em águas costeiras, muitas vezes estacionárias, sujeitas ao recrutamento de organismos bioincrustantes (GLOFOULING, 2018).

Muitas plataformas permanecem estacionárias por longos períodos, muitas vezes décadas, e desta forma, as oportunidades para gerenciamento da bioincrustação são limitadas e a vulnerabilidade à incrustação é alta. Quando estas plataformas são docadas para limpeza e aplicação de revestimento, é possível que organismos exóticos àquela localidade se desprendam por ação mecânica da limpeza,

ou liberem gametas ou larvas, que irão colonizar a região. Este foi o caso do Coral-Sol na região de Angra dos Reis-RJ, Brasil (DE PAULA & CREED, 2004). *Tubastraea coccinea* Lesson, 1829 e *T. tagusensis* Wells, 1982 (Anthozoa; Dendrophyllidae), vulgarmente chamadas de Coral-Sol, são o primeiro caso de invasão por corais escleractíneos no Atlântico Sul (DE PAULA & CREED, 2005). Os primeiros registros destas espécies no país são da década de 1980, em plataformas de petróleo na bacia de Campos, norte do estado do Rio de Janeiro, e hoje já pode ser encontrado nos estados de São Paulo, Paraná, Santa Catarina, Espírito Santo, Bahia, Sergipe, Pernambuco e Ceará (em naufrágios da Segunda Guerra Mundial) (DE PAULA & CREED, 2004; SOARES *et al.*, 2020). Uma possível forma de reinoculação de larvas de Coral-Sol via bioincrustação em plataformas foi investigada por Coelho *et al.* (2022). Se trata da dispersão de larvas por correntes oceânicas, da bacia marítima onde a plataforma se encontra operando, para a costa; segundo os resultados do estudo, as bacias de Sergipe-Alagoas e Camamu poderiam contribuir para a dispersão de larvas para toda a costa brasileira (COELHO *et al.*, 2022).

Em decorrência do aumento da dispersão do Coral-Sol na costa brasileira, o Ministério do Meio Ambiente (MMA) elencou-a na lista de espécies prioritárias para a elaboração e implementação de um Plano Nacional de Prevenção, Controle e Monitoramento. Dentre os organismos aquáticos, apenas o Coral-Sol e o mexilhão-dourado (*Limnoperna fortunei*) estão nesta lista.

1.3. ESPÉCIES AQUÁTICAS INVASORAS DE MAIOR INTERESSE PARA ESTA TESE

Uma vez que o terceiro capítulo desta tese apresenta um estudo experimental com assembleias bentônicas de substrato consolidado da Baía de Guanabara, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil, esta sessão se dedica a elencar as principais espécies aquáticas não-nativas consideradas invasoras na referida área de estudo.

Para este levantamento foram utilizadas duas referências guias, a saber:

- 1- O primeiro Informe sobre as Espécies Exóticas Invasoras Marinhas do Brasil, resultado do Projeto Informe/PROBIO, conduzido em 2005, com o objetivo de realizar a primeira compilação extensiva de espécies não-nativas da costa brasileira (LOPES *et al.*, 2009); e

2- Teixeira & Creed (2020), que, uma década depois do primeiro Informe sobre as Espécies Exóticas Invasoras Marinhas do Brasil, atualizaram a relação de espécies aquáticas não-nativas, enquadrando-as entre Contida, Detectada, Estabelecida e Invasora, da mesma forma que seus antecessores, por meio de uma vasta revisão bibliográfica.

Segundo o Informe sobre as Espécies Exóticas Invasoras Marinhas do Brasil, organismos zoobentônicos representaram mais da metade das espécies listadas (40 de um total de 58), das quais 6 foram consideradas invasoras, de um total de 9. Este padrão se manteve na publicação de Teixeira & Creed (2020), com 14, das 19 espécies listadas como invasoras compondo o zoobentos.

Compilando as referidas listas de espécies zoobentônicas de substrato consolidado consideradas invasoras, a tabela 2 traz informações sobre suas regiões de origem, principais impactos e vetores de introdução. Segundo o material suplementar de Teixeira & Creed (2020), o único estado que apresenta todas as espécies listadas na tabela 2 é o Rio de Janeiro.

Tabela 2 – Lista das espécies zoobentônicas consideradas invasoras no Brasil, com informações sobre suas áreas nativas, principais impactos e vetor de introdução.

Taxa	Origem	Principais Impactos	Vetor de introdução
ANÊMONA <i>Diadumene lineata</i> (Verrill, 1869)	Japão (MOLINA <i>et al.</i> , 2008; GLON <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	Anêmona marinha de maior distribuição no mundo, com características reprodutivas e de tolerância a grandes variações ambientais (temperatura e salinidade), o que a torna um organismo com alto potencial invasor, inclusive presente em ambientes marinhos, estuarinos, incluindo pantanosos (GLON <i>et al.</i> , 2020).	Incerto. Encontrada em diversas partes do mundo, com registros desde a década de 70, indicando múltiplos eventos de introdução (GLON <i>et al.</i> , 2020). Acredita-se que a dispersão da área origem tenha ocorrido por bioincrustação em navios ou incrustada em carregamentos de mexilhões, ostras e algas (HÄUSSERMANN <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
CORAL MOLE <i>Sansibia</i> sp.	Indo-Pacific (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	Introdução recente (~2016-2018), espécie com potencial de competir por espaço e crescer sobre espécies nativas (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018).	Aquariorfilia (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
CORAL MOLE <i>Clavularia viridis</i> (Quoy & Gaimard, 1833) <i>cf. viridis</i>	Indo-Pacific (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	Introdução recente (~2016-2018), aparentemente possui menor potencial de competir por espaço com espécies nativas quando comparada com <i>Sansibia</i> sp. em Angra dos Reis, RJ (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018).	Aquariorfilia (MANTELATTO <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
CORAL MOLE <i>Chromonephthea braziliensis</i> van Ofwegen, 2005	Indo-Pacífico (FERREIRA <i>et al.</i> , 2004; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Experimentos demonstraram lesões em <i>Phyllogorgia dilatata</i> , <i>Mussismilia hispida</i> e <i>Palythoa caribaeorum</i> por contato com <i>C. braziliensis</i> , além de suas estratégias de perpetuação e/ou expansão apresentarem forte potencial invasor, constituindo uma ameaça real à integridade biológica da Reserva Extrativista de Arraial do Cabo (FERREIRA <i>et al.</i> , 2004; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Provavelmente Bioincrustação em plataformas de O&G (FERREIRA <i>et al.</i> , 2004; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
OCTOCORAL <i>Stragulum bicolor</i> Ofwegen & Haddad, 2011	Desconhecida. Até então os registros de distribuição se limitam ao Brasil (Estados do Paraná, São Paulo, Ceará, Rio de Janeiro, Rio Grande do Norte, Santa Catarina, Pernambuco e Paraíba, em ordem cronológica) (ALTVATER <i>et al.</i> , 2019))	Potencial invasor marcado pela capacidade de crescer sobre organismos nativos, e colonizar espaços vazios ou ocupados por outros organismos, seja em substratos naturais ou artificiais (ALTVATER & COUTINHO, 2015; ALTVATER <i>et al.</i> , 2019)	Introdução recente (principais registros a partir de 2000), sendo os primeiros da Baía de Paranaguá, área de grande tráfego aquaviário (OFWEGEN & HADDAD, 2011). Sendo assim, possivelmente foi introduzido por embarcação, possivelmente via bioincrustação em plataformas de O&G (OFWEGEN & HADDAD, 2011).
CORAL ESCLERACTÍNEO <i>Tubastraea coccinea</i> Lesson, 1829	Pacífico/Indo-pacífico (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009); Criptogênica (CREED <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	Capacidade de dominar e alterar estrutura e função das comunidades bentônicas (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Capaz de produzir metabólitos secundários que causam necrose no tecido de outros corais, como <i>Mussismilia hispida</i> , endêmica do Brasil (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES <i>et al.</i> , 2012).	Bioincrustação em plataformas de O&G (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2008; CREED <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
CORAL ESCLERACTÍNEO <i>Tubastraea tagusensis</i> Wells, 1982	Pacífico (Arquipélago de Galápagos) (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009); Criptogênica (CREED <i>et al.</i> , 2017).	Capacidade de dominar e alterar estrutura e função das comunidades bentônicas (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Capaz de produzir metabólitos secundários que causam necrose no tecido de outros corais, como <i>Mussismilia hispida</i> , endêmica do Brasil (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES <i>et al.</i> , 2012).	Bioincrustação em plataformas de O&G (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009; CREED <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
BIVALVE <i>Isognomon bicolor</i> (C. B. Adams, 1845)	Caribe (DOMANESCHI & MARTINS, 2002).	Alterações na estrutura de comunidades nativas de costões rochosos, reduzindo drasticamente a	Bioincrustação em plataformas de O&G e/ou Água de lastro (BREVES-RAMOS <i>et al.</i> , 2010)

Taxa	Origem	Principais Impactos	Vetor de introdução
		presença de bivalves (inclusive <i>Perna perna</i> em costões e cultivos) e de cirripédios; e bioincrustação em estruturas artificiais (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	
BIVALVE <i>Leiosolenus aristatus</i> (Dillwyn, 1817)	Caribe (SIMONE & GONÇALVES, 2006; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Espécie perfurante (bioerosivas) de conchas de outros moluscos, podendo causar grande prejuízo para cultivos de vieiras (SIMONE & GONÇALVES, 2006; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Água de lastro (SIMONE & GONÇALVES, 2006).
BIVALVE <i>Mytilopsis leucophaeata</i> (Conrad, 1831)	Atlântico ocidental (Texas-Nova Iorque) (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Pode causar alterações na estrutura de comunidade nativa de costões rochosos e prejuízos econômicos relacionados à bioincrustação em embarcações e plataformas (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	Água de lastro (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).
POLIQUETA <i>Branchiomma luctuosum</i> (Grube, 1870)	Oceano Índico (Mar Vermelho) (LICCIANO & GIANGRANDE, 2008; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Em altas densidades pode competir com espécies nativas, inclusive a endêmica do mesmo gênero <i>B. patriota</i> ; também tem a capacidade de gerar prejuízos em cultivos de mexilhão <i>Perna perna</i> (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009; LINS & ROCHA, 2022)	Possivelmente água de lastro e/ou bioincrustação em navios que atracaram no porto de Santos (NOGUEIRA <i>et al.</i> , 2006; LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).
POLIQUETA <i>Hydroides elegans</i> (Haswell, 1883) [nomen protectum]	Desconhecido, mas acredita-se que seja nativo do Indo-Pacífico (FOFFONOF <i>et al.</i> , 2014 - NEMESIS).	Pela capacidade de colonizar substratos consolidados rapidamente e atingir altas densidades e coberturas, <i>H. elegans</i> compete por espaço com espécies locais, é capaz de bloquear dutos de captação de água e causar prejuízos econômicos associados à bioincrustação em estruturas artificiais e navios (SCHWAN <i>et al.</i> , 2016).	Transporte marítimo, principalmente via bioincrustação (TOVAR-HERNÁNDEZ <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
ASCÍDIA <i>Styela plicata</i> (Lesueur, 1823)	Noroeste do oceano pacífico (FOFFONOF <i>et al.</i> , 2014 - NEMESIS).	Principal impacto associado a cultivos de mexilhões e ostras, onde causa maior necessidade de limpeza, e por isso, possível redução de crescimento dos organismos cultivados (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	Desconhecido. Introdução muito antiga, do século XIX, e por ser raramente encontrada em substratos naturais, mas comumente em estruturas artificiais portuárias, possivelmente sua introdução está associada ao transporte marítimo (LOPES <i>et al.</i> , 2009)

Das espécies apresentadas na tabela 2, *Diadumene lineata*, *Isognomon bicolor*, *Branchiomma luctuosum*, *Hydroides elegans* e *Styela plicata* foram registradas em marinas e áreas portuárias na Baía de Guanabara-RJ (ORICCHIO *et al.*, 2019; PUGA *et al.*, 2019) e, por essa razão, fazem parte das espécies invasoras de maior interesse para esta tese. Um maior detalhamento sobre a história de vida e distribuição destas espécies no Brasil e no mundo é apresentado a seguir.

Diadumene lineata é a anêmona marinha mais amplamente distribuída no mundo (GLON *et al.*, 2020). Originária do Japão, ela pode ser encontrada no Pacífico (Havaí, do Alasca à Baía de San Diego, e Chile), no Atlântico (do Canadá até o Golfo do México, Brasil e Argentina), no oeste europeu (do sul das ilhas Canárias, passando pelo Mar Mediterrâneo, até o Mar Negro), no Indo-Pacífico (na Malásia e Indonésia), e na Oceania (na Austrália e Nova Zelândia) (GLON *et al.*, 2020). No Brasil a espécie

é encontrada no estado do Rio de Janeiro (TEIXEIRA & CREED, 2020), em comunidades incrustantes do entre-marés, sobre os mais diversos tipos de superfícies artificiais e naturais, incluindo outros organismos, como ascídias, cracas, esponjas e macroalgas (GLON *et al.*, 2020). Como espécie eurialina (35-8) e euritêmica (de 30°C a temperaturas abaixo de zero), de reprodução sexuada e assexuada, possui alto potencial invasor e acredita-se que, assim como outras espécies invasoras, sua distribuição em diversas partes do mundo se deu sob forma de pulsos de eventos de introdução (GLON *et al.*, 2020), possivelmente via bioincrustação em navios ou incrustada em mexilhões, ostras e algas transportadas pelo mundo (HÄUSSERMANN *et al.*, 2015).

Isognomon bicolor é um bivalve da família isognomonidae nativo do Caribe, que ganhou importância após invadir praias do Atlântico Sul, incluindo o Brasil, onde está distribuída do estado do Piauí ao Rio Grande do Sul, e Uruguai (QUEIROZ *et al.*, 2022). Ainda no oeste do Atlântico, a espécie também pode ser encontrada da Flórida, nos Estados Unidos, até o Caribe (DOMANESCHI & MARTINS, 2002; BREVES-RAMOS *et al.*, 2010). No sudeste brasileiro, *I. bicolor* apresentou altas taxas de crescimento, e densidade, superando mil indivíduos vivos por cem centímetros quadrados, prevalecendo sobre outros bivalves de interesse econômico, e causando redução da abundância de espécies nativas e cultivadas (BREVES-RAMOS *et al.*, 2010; CASARINI & HENRIQUES, 2011; QUEIROZ *et al.*, 2022). De reprodução sexuada e fase larvar planctônica, geralmente esta espécie não é uma colonizadora inicial no processo de sucessão de um substrato, e pode ser encontrada em ambientes de baixo hidrodinamismo, como em locais protegidos, fendas e dentro de carapaças de organismos mortos (LOPES *et al.*, 2019).

Branchiomma luctuosum é uma espécie nativa do Mar Vermelho, presente em São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro e Paraíba (LOPES *et al.*, 2009; material suplementar de TEIXEIRA & CREED, 2020). Segundo Lins & Rocha (2022), a espécie tem capacidade de competir com o mexilhão *Perna perna*, ambos filtradores suspensívoros, com potencial impacto em cultivos do bivalve em Santa Catarina. Seu primeiro registro no Brasil foi na área portuária de Santos, São Paulo (NOGUEIRA *et al.*, 2006; Lopes *et al.*, 2009), e ainda hoje é encontrada, na maioria das vezes, em substratos artificiais de áreas portuárias (LOPES *et al.*, 2009). Hermafrodita e de ciclo planctônico de apenas três dias, pode atingir altas densidades e competir com a congênere endêmica *B. patriota*, no litoral de São Paulo (LOPES *et al.*, 2009).

Hydroides elegans é uma espécie de poliqueta serpulídeo muito bem estudada, cujo gênero é conhecido por causar impactos em áreas costeiras (SCHWAN *et al.*, 2016). A espécie é comumente encontrada em comunidades incrustantes tropicais e subtropicais em áreas portuárias, e possui características de história de vida que a tornam eficiente na introdução, estabelecimento e invasão de novas localidades, como: curto estágio larvar, baixa idade de maturação, e capacidade de colonizar substratos consolidados livres, como um casco de embarcação após raspagem, muito rapidamente, atingindo altas coberturas e densidades (SCHWAN *et al.*, 2016). Estes fatores permitiram que a espécie invadisse diversos portos pelo mundo, incluindo localidades da África, os litorais Atlântico e Pacífico do continente americano, sul da Europa e leste do Pacífico (SCHWAN *et al.*, 2016). No Brasil *H. elegans* pode ser encontrada no estado do Rio de Janeiro, nas Baías de Guanabara e Sepetiba (SCHWAN *et al.*, 2016; ORICCHIO *et al.*, 2019).

Styela plicata é um tunicado solitário possivelmente nativo do noroeste do Pacífico e introduzido, provavelmente, via transporte marítimo nos Estados Unidos, Caribe, México, Brasil, no mar Mediterrâneo, Senegal, Somália, Índia, Japão, Austrália e Nova Zelândia (FOFFONOF *et al.*, 2014 – NEMESIS). No Brasil a espécie pode ser encontrada nos estados da Bahia, e do Rio de Janeiro ao Rio Grande do Sul, geralmente em áreas portuárias, em estruturas artificiais de marinas, docas e em cascos de navios, mas também pode ser encontrada em cultivos de mexilhões e ostras, podendo atingir altas densidades, competindo com os moluscos e aumentando os gastos com limpeza (LOPES *et al.*, 2009). Sua capacidade de tolerar condições de hiper e hiposalinidade (SIMS, 1984; LOPES *et al.*, 2009), podendo fechar-se durante muitas horas em condições de baixa salinidade (MARKUS & LAMBERT, 1983; LOPES *et al.*, 2009), é uma característica importante para o sucesso na invasão de áreas portuárias, que muitas vezes se encontram em regiões estuarinas.

1.4. INICIATIVAS PARA PREVENIR A BIOINVASÃO MEDIADA POR EMBARCAÇÕES

PELO VETOR ÁGUA DE LASTRO

A bioinvasão por espécies aquáticas não-nativas é considerada uma das maiores ameaças à biodiversidade e serviços ecossistêmicos em todo o mundo (KATSANEVAKIS *et al.*, 2014; JAUREGUIBERRY *et al.*, 2022). Os impactos econômicos causados incluem aqueles associados à pesca, aquicultura, infraestrutura e indústrias costeiras, além da interferência na qualidade de vida humana, e é estimado em cerca de US\$ 100 bilhões por ano (estimativa preliminar da fase piloto do GloBallast, 2004, fonte: GLOFOULING, 2018).

A navegação é a principal forma de transferência de organismos mediada pelo homem, e a água de lastro é uma via que representa, pelo menos, um terço de todas as introduções documentadas no mundo (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010; DAVIDSON & SIMKANIN, 2012). As primeiras iniciativas internacionais para enfrentar este problema foram lideradas pela IMO por meio de diretrizes voluntárias (Resolução MEPC.50(31)) que recomendavam a troca de água de lastro costeira pela oceânica como procedimento para evitar novas introduções por este vetor (CASTRO *et al.*, 2018). Em 2004 a Convenção Internacional para o Controle e Gerenciamento de Água de Lastro e Sedimentos em Navios (*International Convention for the Control and Management of Ships Ballast Water and Sediments* ou *BWM Convention-IMO*, 2004) foi adotada, e em 2016 atingiu a arqueação bruta mínima (35%) da frota mercante mundial como signatários para entrar em vigor 12 meses depois, no dia 08 de setembro de 2017 (CASTRO *et al.*, 2018). A convenção trouxe grandes desafios à Comunidade Marítima, com a adição de uma nova regra, a qual prevê uma concentração máxima para determinados tamanhos de organismos para o deslastro, a regra D-2 – Norma de Desempenho de Água de Lastro, que geralmente é atendida por meio da instalação e utilização de um Sistema de Tratamento de Água de Lastro (*Ballast Water Management System* – BWMS).

À Marinha do Brasil, por meio da Diretoria de Portos e Costas (DPC), como representante da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira (AMB), compete normatizar e fiscalizar os assuntos ligados à segurança da navegação, à salvaguarda da vida humana no mar e à prevenção da poluição ambiental causada por embarcações,

plataformas e suas instalações de apoio (BRASIL, 1997). Nesse sentido, a DPC iniciou a regulamentação da Gestão da Água de Lastro e seus sedimentos no ano de 2000, com a adoção da Norma da Autoridade Marítima número 8 (NORMAM-08/DPC), que exigia o envio do Formulário de Água de Lastro (FIAL) pelos navios para as Capitânicas, Agências ou Delegacias da jurisdição do porto que se pretendia visitar, assim como a entrega de uma cópia deste formulário ao inspetor naval, durante Inspeções de Controle do Estado do Porto (CASTRO *et al.*, 2018).

Depois de um período de amadurecimento das regras junto à comunidade marítima, a DPC adotou, em 2005, a NORMAM-20/DPC – Norma da Autoridade Marítima para a Gestão da Água de Lastro (a Portaria nº 52/DPC, 2005 cria a NORMAM-20/DPC e suspende o FIAL da NORMAM-08/DPC), que, além do FIAL incorporado da NORMAM-08/DPC, passa a solicitar evidências do cumprimento da troca de água de lastro a, pelo menos, 200 milhas náuticas da costa e 200 metros de profundidade; ou, quando não fosse possível cumprir com estas exigências, que a troca fosse realizada a, pelo menos 50 milhas náuticas da costa, mantendo-se a profundidade de, pelo menos, 200 metros, conforme o Padrão D-1 (troca oceânica) da Convenção de Água de Lastro (IMO, 2004). A NORMAM-20/DPC também já previa a migração deste padrão para o D-2 (desempenho da água de lastro), de maneira que todos os navios alvos da norma atendam ao padrão D-2 até o 8 de Setembro de 2024. A Norma prevê, ainda, exceções e isenções para o gerenciamento da água de lastro quando o navio opera apenas nas Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras (AJB), mantendo-se a necessidade do gerenciamento durante viagem entre portos fluviais de bacias hidrográficas distintas. Esta situação particular procura prevenir a introdução de espécies entre ambientes estuarinos, como por exemplo, o transporte do mexilhão dourado (*Limnoperna fortunei*) da Lagoa dos Patos, RS, para a foz do Rio Amazonas.

Com a NORMAM-20/DPC, a fiscalização pelo Controle do Estado do Porto passa a verificar, além do FIAL, outros documentos, como o Certificado Internacional de Água de Lastro, o Plano de Gerenciamento de Água de Lastro (*Ballast Water Management Plan* – BWMP) e o Livro Registro de Água de Lastro (*Ballast Water Record Book* – BWRB). Com base nestes documentos, o inspetor naval preenche o Relatório de Imposição da Água de Lastro (RIAL), atestando se a embarcação possui alguma não-conformidade. O inspetor também possui autorização para medir a salinidade/densidade da água de lastro, à procura de evidências de que a água foi trocada no oceano, no caso de verificação da troca oceânica (padrão D-1), assim

como de utilizar equipamentos de análise indicativa para mensurar a densidade de organismos na água, buscando evidenciar que o sistema de tratamento atende aos padrões exigidos pela norma, quando o navio estiver obrigado a cumprir a regra de desempenho de água de lastro (D-2).

Novas revisões e modificações da NORMAM-20/DPC ocorreram nos anos seguintes, até que em agosto de 2022, a 1ª Modificação da 3ª Revisão da NORMAM-20/DPC altera seu nome para Normas da Autoridade Marítima sobre Poluição Hídrica causada por Embarcações, Plataformas e suas Instalações de Apoio, agrupando os assuntos: Poluição Hídrica por Óleo e seus Derivados, Gestão da Água de Lastro, e Controle de Substâncias Danosas de Sistemas Antiincrustantes em Navios (Portaria nº 59/DPC, 2022).

PELO VETOR BIOINCRUSTAÇÃO

Estimativas globais sugerem que o vetor bioincrustação é responsável por cerca de 70% das espécies não-nativas estabelecidas em regiões costeiras de todo o mundo (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010). Para mitigar este problema, a IMO, por meio do Comitê de Proteção do Ambiente Marinho (MEPC), publicou em 2011 as Diretrizes para o Controle e Gestão de Bioincrustação de Navios para Minimizar a Transferência de Espécies Aquáticas Invasoras (*IMO Biofouling Guidelines*) (Resolução MEPC.207(62)). Adicionalmente, o MEPC aprovou o Guia para Minimizar a Transferência de Espécies Aquáticas Invasoras como Bioincrustação em embarcações recreativas (*IMO Biofouling Guidance for Recreational Craft*) (MEPC.1/Circ.792, de 12 de novembro de 2012), no ano seguinte. Ambos os documentos são de caráter voluntário e fornecem boas práticas relacionadas à utilização de Sistemas Antiincrustantes, limpeza de cascos e áreas nicho dentro e fora da água e documentação para o direcionamento e monitoramento de ações de gestão da bioincrustação, baseados em uma análise de risco específica para cada embarcação.

Como mencionado, uma ferramenta indispensável para a prevenção de introduções biológicas mediadas por bioincrustação em navios consiste na utilização de Sistemas Antiincrustantes (*AntiFouling Systems – AFS*) no casco e áreas nicho da embarcação. Todavia, algumas substâncias historicamente utilizadas em Sistemas

Antiincrustantes (AFS), especificamente aquelas à base do agente biocida Tributilestanho (TBT), têm o potencial comprovado de causar distúrbios ecológicos ao serem lixiviadas para o ambiente aquático, que incluem a indução de alterações endócrinas em gastrópodes, capazes de causar pseudo-hermafroditismo em fêmeas (conhecido como “imposex”) (BEYER *et al.*, 2022). Para abordar essas preocupações, a Convenção Internacional sobre o Controle de Sistemas Antiincrustantes Nocivos em Navios (Convenção AFS) entrou em vigor em 2008, proibindo o uso do TBT em AFS e estabelecendo um mecanismo baseado em evidências científicas para considerar futuras restrições a substâncias nocivas utilizadas em AFS (AFS/CONF/26, de 18 de Outubro de 2001).

Interpretar que a Convenção AFS possui objetivos comuns às Diretrizes e Guia de Bioincrustação é um equívoco comum entre membros da comunidade marítima (PPR 9/INF.24, de 28 de Janeiro de 2022). O fato é que ambas abordam o uso de AFS, porém com focos distintos. Nas Diretrizes de Bioincrustação o AFS é abordado como uma importante ferramenta para prevenir a introdução via bioincrustação ao dificultar a fixação ou mesmo inviabilizar larvas durante o assentamento no casco, desta forma, sendo essencial para a Gestão da Bioincrustação. Já na Convenção AFS, o foco está em comprovar que o revestimento AFS do navio está livre de substâncias consideradas danosas pela Convenção, ou seja, de TBT e Cibutrina/Irgarol. Cibutrina ou irgarol (*Cybutryne* nº 28159-98-0) é uma substância recentemente adicionada à lista de AFS considerados danosos do anexo E da terceira revisão da NORMAM-20 e passou a ser banida desde 1º de Janeiro de 2023, conforme Resolução MEPC.331(76) de 17 de junho de 2021, da OMI, que adiciona a mesma à Convenção AFS.

As Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO de 2011 e o Guia para Embarcações Recreativas de 2012 são os padrões internacionais para a gestão da bioincrustação. No entanto, tais requisitos são voluntários. Dessa forma, algumas autoridades nacionais e subnacionais desenvolveram e implementaram regulamentos e políticas de gestão para mitigar os riscos associados à transferência de espécies não-nativas e gerenciar os riscos ambientais da limpeza de superfícies submersas (do inglês *In-Water Cleaning – IWC*). De acordo com uma análise comparativa de regulamentos, padrões e práticas existentes e emergentes relacionadas à gestão da bioincrustação de navios (PPR 9/INF.24, 2022), existem cinco políticas nacionais até o momento; são

as dos seguintes países: Austrália, Chile, Nova Zelândia, África do Sul e Estados Unidos – destas, as regras dos três últimos países são de caráter obrigatório.

Das políticas nacionais obrigatórias, a da Nova Zelândia e a dos EUA possuem requisitos adicionais quando comparadas a da África do Sul, que apenas exige notificação quando um navio pretende realizar a limpeza na água. Quando este for o caso, é necessária a apresentação do Plano de Gerenciamento de Bioincrustação (*Biofouling Management Plan - BFMP*) específico do navio, em linha com o previsto pelas Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO (TNPA, 2009).

A Guarda Costeira dos EUA, de acordo com o título 33, sessão 151, parágrafo 2050 e 2298, do Código de Regulamentos Federais (*Code of Federal Regulations – CFR*), exige que todos os navios equipados com tanques de água de lastro que operem no país possuam e implementem seus BFMP, guiando-se pelas recomendações das Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO e os regulamentos de bioincrustação da Califórnia (CSLM, 2018), além do registro de operações em BFMB. De acordo com a Permissão Geral para Descargas Incidentais ao Padrão de Operação Normal de Navios (*Vessel General Permit – VGP*, 2013), também é exigida uma descrição de como o navio gerenciou a bioincrustação durante a docagem e sua apresentação à Autoridade de Proteção Ambiental (*Environmental Protection Agency – EPA*) dos EUA. A VGP exige um aviso de intenção de descarregar poluentes nas águas dos Estados Unidos, ao solicitar a IWC (uma vez que durante a atividade de limpeza da bioincrustação na água, detritos de organismos removidos, larvas, propágulos e até mesmo partículas do revestimento e biocidas da embarcação são liberadas para a água, e, caso não sejam capturados, são fontes de contaminação por elementos químicos danosos e introdução de espécies não nativas em potencial, o que caracteriza um evento de poluição), e também exige inspeção do navio a cada 12 meses, cobrindo o casco e áreas nicho, condições de AFS e TBT exposto.

Já a regra da Nova Zelândia (Craft Risk Management Standard - CRMS) exige que os navios cheguem ao país com o 'casco limpo' ou que efetuem a limpeza dentro de 24 horas da chegada (MPI, 2018). Além da apresentação de documentação e certificados, como os de AFS, BFMP e BFRB (no caso da embarcação cumprir com as Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO), e relatórios da última inspeção do casco; também é necessária a apresentação de informações antes da chegada, que incluem: Duração prevista da estadia e locais a serem visitados, se o navio passou por longos períodos estacionário em um único local, intenção de IWC na chegada, medidas para

atender aos requisitos do CRMS e se o navio está em dia com a Gestão da Bioincrustação prevista em seu BFMP (MPI, 2018)

Em dezembro de 2018 foi lançado o Projeto GloFouling, por meio da parceria entre GEF-UNDP-IMO, para endereçar ações de implementação das Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO em países em desenvolvimento. O projeto também objetiva o aprimoramento de boas práticas e padrões para melhorar a gestão da bioincrustação. A iniciativa faz parte de um esforço maior em proteger os ecossistemas marinhos dos efeitos negativos da bioinvasão, cujo início se deu com a adoção do Programa GloBallast em 2001, então focado no vetor água de lastro. O GloFouling conta com doze Parceiros Líderes (são eles: Brasil, Equador, Fiji, Indonésia, Jordânia, Madagascar, Ilhas Maurício, México, Peru, Filipinas, Sri Lanka e Tonga) representando nações em desenvolvimento e pequenas ilhas-estado em desenvolvimento. Conta, ainda, com a participação do setor público e privado (GLOFOULING, 2019).

No Brasil, embora a Lei federal nº 9.605, de 12 de fevereiro de 1998, e seu Decreto nº 6.514, de 22 de julho de 2008, proibam a liberação de espécies que possam causar danos ao meio ambiente; até a presente data, não foi identificada publicação no país com orientações obrigatórias ou voluntárias sobre manejo de bioincrustação especificamente para navios. No tocante às plataformas de óleo e gás, os órgãos ambientais federais brasileiros (Ministério do Meio Ambiente – MMA, Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis – IBAMA e Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade – ICMBio) publicaram, em 2018, o Plano Nacional de Prevenção, Controle e Monitoramento de Coral-Sol (*Tubastraea spp.*) (MMA-IBAMA-ICMBIO, 2018). Este documento prevê a gestão da bioincrustação deste gênero em plataformas, como condicionante do licenciamento ambiental.

A Norma da Autoridade Marítima sobre Poluição Hídrica Causada por Navios, Plataformas e suas Instalações de Apoio (NORMAM-20/DPC, 3ª Revisão) aborda diferentes tipos de poluição hídrica, nomeadamente as causadas por água de lastro, como vector de introdução de espécies não nativas; petróleo e derivados; e substâncias nocivas de revestimentos antiincrustantes (internalizando a Convenção AFS). Espera-se que em um futuro próximo, esta NORMAM também contemple a Gestão da Bioincrustação em navios (observação pessoal), a fim de assegurar uma

abordagem multivetorial (água de lastro e bioincrustação), como forma de melhor controlar e minimizar a introdução de espécies não-nativas.

1.5. OBJETIVOS

OBJETIVOS GERAIS

- Fornecer informação sobre como a Autoridade Marítima Brasileira trabalha para combater a bioinvasão mediada por embarcações via Água de Lastro e Bioincrustação, analisar o banco de dados e literatura sobre a matéria e sugerir ações de melhoria;
- Sugerir a aplicação de água de baixa salinidade como ferramenta de biossegurança para prevenir a bioinvasão mediada por embarcações via bioincrustação; e
- Propor o regramento obrigatório para a gestão da bioincrustação em navios no Brasil.

OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS E HIPÓTESES

- Atualizar o status de conformidade das embarcações que trafegam em Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras quanto à Gestão da Água de Lastro, com base em Relatórios de Inspeção do Controle do Estado do Porto emitidos entre 2005 e 2022;
 - Hipótese nula: A percentagem de conformidade não se altera após a entrada em vigor da Convenção de Água de Lastro, em Setembro de 2017.
 - Hipótese alternativa: A percentagem de conformidade cresce após a entrada em vigor da Convenção de Água de Lastro, em Setembro de 2017.
- Fornecer informação sobre novas iniciativas da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira para atender aos propósitos da Convenção Internacional para o Controle e Gerenciamento da Água de Lastro e Sedimentos dos Navios;

- Testar o efeito de águas com baixas salinidades na mortalidade, cobertura, diversidade e espessura da bioincrustação da Baía de Guanabara-RJ;
 - Hipótese nula: A abundância de organismos incrustantes não se altera após tratamento com diferentes salinidades.
 - Hipótese alternativa: A abundância de organismos incrustantes diminui em placas tratadas com salinidades menores.
- Comparar as principais regras nacionais mandatórias de Gestão da Bioincrustação existentes até o momento;
- Adaptar as Diretrizes de Bioincrustação e Guia para embarcações recreativas da IMO, às especificidades brasileiras, levando em consideração as principais normas obrigatórias nacionais em vigor; e
- Fornecer proposta de texto-base para a regulamentação da Gestão da Bioincrustação em Navios pela Autoridade Marítima Brasileira sob forma de Capítulo 4 da NORMAM-20/DPC.

1.6. ORGANIZAÇÃO DO DOCUMENTO

Esta tese de doutorado está organizada em formato de artigos, conforme preconizado pelo Regulamento do ano de 2019 da Pós-graduação em Biotecnologia Marinha do Instituto de Estudos do Mar Almirante Paulo Moreira - IEAPM/UFF, da seguinte forma:

CAPÍTULO 1 – Introdução Teórico-metodológica: Introduz o tema desta tese de doutorado: Água de Lastro e Bioincrustação como Vetores de Espécies Não-Nativas mediadas por Embarcações: uma Perspectiva da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira; seus objetivos e organização deste documento.

CAPÍTULO 2 – Visão Geral sobre a Adequação aos Padrões Brasileiros de Gestão da Água de Lastro entre 2005 e 2022: Traz o artigo “An Overview on the Compliance with the Brazilian Ballast Water Standard between 2005 and 2022” com informações sobre o padrão brasileiro de gestão da água de lastro (Capítulo 2 da terceira revisão da NORMAM-20/DPC), com resultados importantes sobre os Relatórios de Imposição de Água de Lastro fornecidos pelas Capitânicas Agências e

Delegacias dos Distritos Navais após as Inspeções do Controle do Estado do Porto para a Diretoria de Portos e Costas; e iniciativas da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira.

CAPÍTULO 3 – Choque com Baixa Salinidade como ferramenta para prevenção da Bioinvasão mediada por Bioincrustação em Embarcações: Traz o artigo “Low salinity shock as a tool to prevent ship-mediated biofouling invasions” que sugere o uso de águas de baixa salinidade para o controle da bioincrustação em navios e embarcações recreativas, ao apresentar resultados promissores de redução da cobertura e espessura da bioincrustação em experimento com organismos da Baía de Guanabara-RJ.

CAPÍTULO 4 – Sugestão de Regramento Obrigatório para a Gestão da Bioincrustação por Embarcações no Brasil: traz o artigo “Suggestion of a Brazilian Mandatory Policy for the Management of Ship’s Biofouling” que, após avaliação das principais regras nacionais obrigatórias e Diretrizes e Guias da Organização Marítima Internacional, sugere um regramento obrigatório para a Autoridade Marítima Brasileira.

CAPÍTULO 5 – Considerações Finais: Traz um resumo dos principais pontos desta tese de doutorado, articulando os 4 capítulos anteriores, conclui este manuscrito e fornece a intenção para trabalhos futuros.

1.7. REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS

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CAPÍTULO 2 – ARTIGO: VISÃO GERAL SOBRE A ADEQUAÇÃO AOS PADRÕES BRASILEIROS DE GESTÃO DE ÁGUA DE LASTRO ENTRE 2005 E 2021.

An Overview on the Compliance with the Brazilian Ballast Water Standard between 2005 and 2022

ABSTRACT

The Maritime Authority Regulation number 20 (NORMAM-20/DPC), 'Ships' Ballast Water Management (BWM) Standard in Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters (BJW)', is in force since 2005. To verify its compliance, Port State Control Officers (PSCO) fill the Ballast Water Report (BWR) during ship inspection. Here we combine BWR data from Castro *et al.* (2018) (2005-2015) with ours to analyze how compliance to NORMAM-20 evolved until 2022, and present recent additional initiatives developed by the Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA) to prevent non-native introductions mediated by BW. Results show compliance kept rising after 2015, reaching 99.17% in 2016-2022. A 17-year compliance regression estimates it will reach 99.54% by the end of 2024, when all ships must comply with regulation D-2. On the other hand, it was noted a relatively small number of BWR in respect to the amount of BW discharges in some ports and terminals, suggesting the need to rearrange the inspection effort within Brazil. The informatization of the BWR allowed automated analysis, such as the monitoring of the percentage of ships operating in Brazil with an on-board treatment system (BWMS) installed, from February (71%) to December (92%) 2022. Main BW source origin in the same period were Brazil itself (23%), China (12%) and India (9%). As the Brazilian Maritime Authority's BW Project (Portaria N° 163/DPC, 2022) advances, new data should provide insights for decision making regarding biosecurity risk presented by ballast water discharges.

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Invasive Aquatic Species (IAS) are considered one of the greatest threats to biodiversity and environmental services (KATSANEVAKIS *et al.*, 2014; JAUREGUI-BERRY *et al.*, 2022), and its impacts worldwide are estimated to cost at least US\$ 100 billions per year (GLOFOULING, 2018). Descriptions of non-native species associated with shipping date back to the 16th century, and today shipping represents the main source of unintentional transfer of species, including harmful aquatic organisms and pathogens (HAOP), via ballast water discharges and biofouling (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010; DAVIDSON & SIMKANIN, 2012; CASTRO, 2018).

Pumping water from around the ship into its' ballast tanks (ballasting) and pumping water out of the ballast tanks to the surrounding environment (deballasting) are procedures to enhance ships' maneuverability and stabilization to ensure safety during cargo unload and load, respectively, at ports (PEREIRA & BRINATI, 2018). As ships are responsible for 90% of goods transport worldwide (OJALA & TENOLD, 2017; IMO, 2021), around 2.2 to 12 billion tons of ballast water and sediments are transported around the world each year, carrying circa of 7,000 species per day (ZHANG, 2017), therefore contributing to, at least, one third of recent documented species introductions (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010; DAVIDSON & SIMKANIN, 2012).

To address this issue, the International Convention for the Control and Management of Ships' Ballast Water and Sediments (IMO's BWM Convention, 2004) entered into force on September 8, 2017, imposing new challenges to the Maritime Community. In this context, BWM Convention's regulation D-1 demands ships to exchange its coastal ballast water in the middle of the ocean before discharging it in a different port (Ballast Water Exchange - BWE). Another way of managing ships' BW is provided in regulation D-2, the Ballast Water Performance Standard, and appears as the most challenging, since it defines maximum concentrations of viable organisms in the discharge to be compliant with. To do so, usually ships install a Ballast Water Management System (BWMS). By September 8, 2024, all ships must comply with this standard.

In 2005 entered into force the Maritime Authority Standard for Ships' Ballast Water Management (NORMAM-20/Directorate of Ports and Coasts - DPC) to prevent problems associated with biological invasions via ships' ballast water discharges in Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters (BJW) (CASTRO, 2018). In August 2022, NORMAM-

20/DPC went to a complete revision, the 3rd Revision, addressing the ballast water subject on its 2nd Chapter. To verify compliance, the Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA) applies a Ballast Water Report (BWR) during Port State Control (PSC) inspections. Such report is filled by PSC officers and contains main items that must be verified during the inspection, such as ships' Ballast Water Reporting Form (BWRF), Ballast Water Management Plan (BWMP), Ballast Water Record Book (BWRB) and other guidelines provided by NORMAM-20/DPC. These reports are then sent to the Directorate of Ports and Coasts (DPC). Discrepancies in one of these documents may lead to a non-compliance in the BWR and can result in the need for action by the vessel, such as to modify or stop cargo operations, leave the port for ballast water exchange, payment of a fine or even ship's detention.

Few studies have analyzed data from BWRF and BWR in BJW. In 2002 the Brazilian National Health Surveillance Authority concluded a study on 99 ballast water samples collected along nine Brazilian ports and identified that of all the BWRFs indicating Ballast Water Exchange (BWE), 62% did not perform the procedure or did not perform it correctly (ANVISA, 2003). Apparently, BWRF filled with mistakes and lack of information on BWE records were not uncommon, as also reported by Leal Neto (2007), and Caron Junior (2007). Castro *et al.* (2010) found lower numbers of BWRFs and BWE volume records than expected for Rio de Janeiro port, as a predominantly exporting port, between October 2005 and December 2006. This study also showed a higher national deballast contribution, especially from northeastern Brazil, and emphasizes the necessity to further assess the risk posed by different biogeographic regions within Brazil (CASTRO *et al.*, 2010). Pereira *et al.* (2014) analyzed BWRF from Santana Port Captaincy, at the Amazon basin, and, as the aforementioned studies, also identified errors on BWE records, and pointed out the importance of preventing introduction events on such high biodiverse region. More recently, Fernandes *et al.* (2021) provided a risk assessment, based on BWRF from 2010 and 2019, for the Maranhão harbor, and found that the Indo-Pacific region represented a threat on both periods, and that the harbor could function as a bioinvasion hub to the Amazon basin.

The first results from Ballast Water Reports (BWR) were presented in 2009 (CASTRO & POGGIAN, 2009) and 2014 (POGGIAN, 2014), and indicated gradual decrease in non-compliance by ships evaluated by the Port State Control (PSC) between October 2005 and May 2012, reaching values below 5% of the total number of inspected ships (POGGIAN, 2014). The most recent evaluation of Naval Inspection

reports showed a significant fall in BWR non-compliance between the periods of 2005-10 and 2011–15 across different Brazilian naval districts (CASTRO *et al.*, 2018). Since the implementation of the NORMAM-20 in 2005, the DPC has been receiving BWRs from PSC inspections, and so gathering data on the control of the ballast water management compliance in Brazil. Castro *et al.* (2018) analyzed BWRs since its implementation, in 2005, until 2015. As the BWM Convention entered into force on September 8, 2017, the present study aims to perform a new assessment, by joining data from Castro *et al.* (2018) with the ones collected in the following seven years (2016-2022), to update the BWR compliance level in BJW, and provide insights on how compliance have evolved, including after the entrance into force of the BWM Convention; as well as to present recent initiatives taken by the BMA in order to achieve the goals set by the BWM Convention.

2.2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Design and Area of study

During on board inspections carried out from October 2016 to December 2022, BWR were filled by the PSC officers and sent to the DPC. PSC inspections occurred along seven different areas, which contain a total of 35 ports/terminals (BRAZIL, 2015). These areas are distributed along seven of the nine Naval Districts (ND) (Figure 1), according to the criteria adopted by the Brazilian Navy, whose jurisdictions cover the following ports/terminals:

Area 1 (1st ND): Ports/terminals of Rio de Janeiro, Niterói, Angra dos Reis/Itacuruçá, Itaguaí, Vitória, Barra do Riacho/Portocel, Forno; (7)

Area 2 (2nd ND): Ports/terminals of Salvador, Ilhéus, Aratu; (3)

Area 3 (3rd ND): Ports/terminals of Fortaleza, Recife, Natal/Termisa, Suape, Maceió, Cabedelo, Areia Branca; (7)

Area 4 (4th ND): Ports/terminals of Itaquí, Belém, Fazendinha/Santana, Vila do Conde, Macapá, Santarém (6)

Area 5 (5th ND): Ports/terminals of Rio Grande, Imbituba, Itajaí, São Francisco do Sul, Porto Alegre, Pelotas, Laguna; (7)

Area 6 (8th ND): Ports/terminals of São Sebastião, Santos, Paranaguá, Antonina; (4)

Area 7 (9th ND): Port of Manaus. (1)



Figure 1 – Map of Brazil illustrating seven of nine naval jurisdictional areas where the Maritime Authority performed ballast water inspections.

Data collection

Data used in this research were collected from BWR (Figure 2). From the 21 fields of the report, the ones related to location, date and compliance with the Brazilian standard (fields 2, 3 and 18) were raised from 2016 to 2022 and grouped with the correspondent fields from Castro *et al.* (2018), from 2005 to 2015, resulting in a seventeen-year period (2005-2022) compliance analysis.

REPORT OF THE IMPOSITION OF A CONTROL AND COMPLIANCE MEASURE TO ENHANCE MARITIME SECURITY BRAZILIAN MARITIME AUTHORITY NORM FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF SHIPS' BALLAST WATER (NORMAM-20/DPC).



DIRECTORATE OF PORTS AND COASTS
 Rua Teófilo Otoni, 4
 Rio de Janeiro – RJ – Brazil
 CEP 20.090-070
 Telephone: (55) (21) 2104-5678
 Telefax: (55) (21) 2104-5228

Copy to: Master
 Head Office
 PSCO

1. Name of reporting authority: Directorate of Ports and Coasts

2. Date of inspection: _____

3. Place of inspection: _____

4. Name of the ship: _____

5. Flag of the ship: _____

6. Type of ship: _____

7. Call sign: _____

8. IMO number: _____

9. Gross tonnage: _____

10. Keel lay date: _____

11. Date of the last IOPP renewal survey: _____

12. Ballast Water Management Plan - Recognized Organization : _____

13. Last port of call: _____

14. Last port of ballast _____

15. De-ballast at this port: YES NO

16. Standard of ballast water management : D1 D2

17. If D2, name of ballast water treatment system: _____ Manufacturer: _____ Date of installation: _____

18. Non – Conformities (marks as follow: "x" non-conformities, "-" conformity)

<input type="checkbox"/> Ballast Water Management Plan Not Available	<input type="checkbox"/> Ballast Water Record Book not available
<input type="checkbox"/> Ballast Water Reporting Form Not Available	<input type="checkbox"/> Ballast Water Management requirements not conducted as provided in Chapter 2 of (NORMAM-20/DPC)
<input type="checkbox"/> Fails in fulfilling Reporting Forms	<input type="checkbox"/> Others

19. Description of Non - Conformity

20. Specific control measures (marks as follow: "x" actions taken, "-" no actions taken)

<input type="checkbox"/> None	<input type="checkbox"/> Fine
<input type="checkbox"/> Cargo operation modified or stopped	<input type="checkbox"/> Notice
<input type="checkbox"/> Ship ordered to leave the port for Ballast operation	<input type="checkbox"/> Ship detained

21. Issuing Office (OM) _____ Stamp _____

Port State Control Officer Name: _____ Master _____

Stamp: _____ Telephone / fax _____

NORTEC-07/DPC
 Mod 15

Figure 2 – Updated Ballast Water Report Model used during ballast water inspections performed by the Brazilian Maritime Authority.

Additionally, since February 2022, DPC started receiving BWR from a digital platform. The informatization of the BWR allowed faster manipulation of data and analysis of other fields not deeply studied yet. For the period of February, 2022 to December, 2022, fields 16 (whether the ship complies with the D-1 and/or D-2 standard), a combination of fields 14 (last port of ballasting) and 15 (whether the ship deballasted at the port it is being inspected), and also the combination of fields 18 (non-compliant documents), 19 (specification of the non-compliance) and 20 (whether any action was taken towards the non-compliance) were analyzed to identify, respectively, the main origins of possible ballast water discharges in Brazilian ports, the percentage of inspected ships using BWMS to manage ballast water, and the main non-conformities and possible control measures.

Data analysis

Basic data analysis was performed for each area and year, using the number of reports, compliance and non-compliance data, as well as their percentages. A regression of the percentage of compliance along seventeen years of data, from 2005 to 2022, with its best fitted trend line, explanatory equation and coefficient of determination was performed. Chi-square tests between data prior and after September 8, 2017, when the BWM Convention entered into force, for each area and for all areas summed, searched for differences in compliance.

The digital data sheets (2022 BWR) were analyzed as follows:

- To identify the origin of the ballast water discharged in Brazilian ports, only BWRs indicating deballast at port (field 15) were considered. Reports indicating “ocean” as the last port of ballast (field 14) were not accounted. The aim of this analysis was to identify the origin of the water discharged in Brazilian ports, making no distinction whether the ship have managed its ballast water correctly. To restrict the number of localities, instead of using the name of the last port/terminal of ballast, we opted to use its country;
- The percentage of inspected ships with BWMS installed and in use considered those reports indicating that the ship holds a Ballast Water Management Certificate (BWMC) for the D-1 and D-2 standards at the same time (D-1/D-2), in addition to those with only the D-2 standard; and

- For every BWR presenting at least one box of the field 18 (non-conformities) marked, the reasons of non-conformities and reactions towards solving them were investigated.

All data manipulation and analysis were performed using Microsoft Excel 365.

2.3. RESULTS

BW Compliance

From 2005 to 2022, a total of 17,784 BWR were sent to the DPC. Of these, a total of 17,412 (97.9%) were considered compliant, and 372 were not compliant (2.1%). The area with the highest compliance rates was area 4 (98.7%), followed by areas 1 (98.2%), 6 (98%), 3 (97.6%), 5 (97.2%), and the lowest were areas 7 (95.3%) and 2 (94.4%) (Figure 3 and its table).

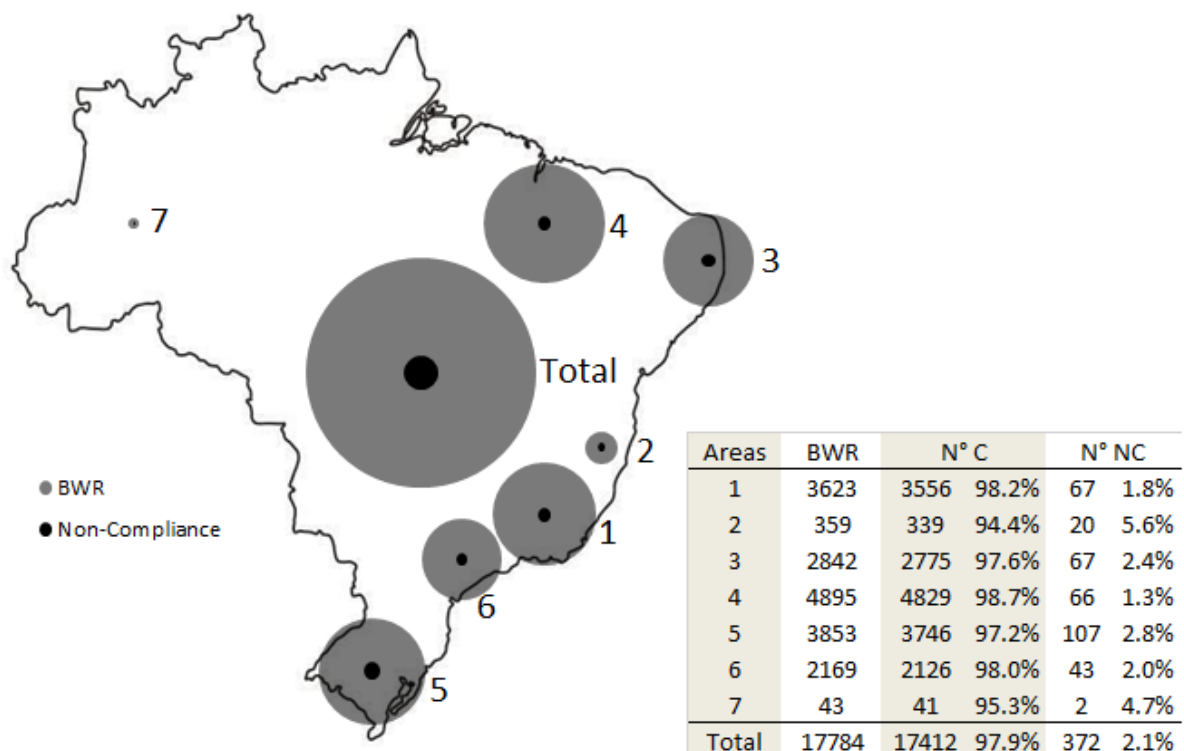


Figure 3 – Ball graph of the number of reports (BWR) and non-compliance in Brazil (total), and its areas, from 2005 to 2022. Grey circles indicate the number of reports and the black circles the ones non-compliant. Attached table summarizes the number of reports (BWR), number of compliances (N° C) and non-compliances (N° NC), and respective percentages, represented in the map. Percentages are related to the number of reports in each area and total.

The number of BWR, number of compliant and non-compliant reports per area are shown in Table 1. During this period, each area sent more than two thousand BWR, except for areas 2 (359) and 7 (43), contributing to 2% and 0.2%, respectively. Area 4 sent the greatest number of BWR, 4,895, corresponding to 27.5% of all reports, followed by areas 5 (21.7%), 1 (20.4%), 3 (16%), and 6 (12.2%). In respect to compliance, the contribution of each area varied in a similar way to their contribution in number of BWR. And related to the non-compliant reports, area 5 contributed the most, proportionately, with 28.8% of the non-compliant BWR, followed by areas 1 and 3, with 18% each, area 4 presented a little less participation, with 17.7%, while areas 2 and 7 presented 5.4% and 0.5%, respectively.

Table 1 – Contribution (%) of each area in the total of reports (BWR), compliance (% C) and non-compliance (% NC), from 2005 to 2022.

Areas	N° BWR	% BWR	N° C	% C	N° NC	% NC
1	3623	20.4%	3556	20.4%	67	18.0%
2	359	2.0%	339	1.9%	20	5.4%
3	2842	16.0%	2775	15.9%	67	18.0%
4	4895	27.5%	4829	27.7%	66	17.7%
5	3853	21.7%	3746	21.5%	107	28.8%
6	2169	12.2%	2126	12.5%	43	11.6%
7	43	0.2%	41	0.2%	2	0.5%
TOTAL	17784	100.0%	17412	100.0%	372	100.0%

The percentage of non-compliant BWR along seventeen years of data shows a decreasing trend (Figure 4). In the first year of data, the number of BWR are the lowest of the period (129 BWR) and 14% of it are non-compliant. In the following years the number of BWRs increased and so did the compliance rate. In the year 2015, the number of BWRs and non-compliance percentage were the lowest of the period (351 BWR, 1 NC). The decrease of BWRs sent occurred again in 2020, this time with a higher non-compliance percentage (2.1%). The last year of the period, 2022, had the highest number of BWRs, with 1,506 reports, of which 0.7% were non-compliant. From 2017 to 2022, annual non-compliances were under 0.7%, apart from 2020, as mentioned before. The best fit ($R^2 = 0.92$) trendline is a power function and its respective explanatory equation ($y = 0.1399x^{-1.138}$) describe the pattern of decreasing rate of non-compliance percentage along time.

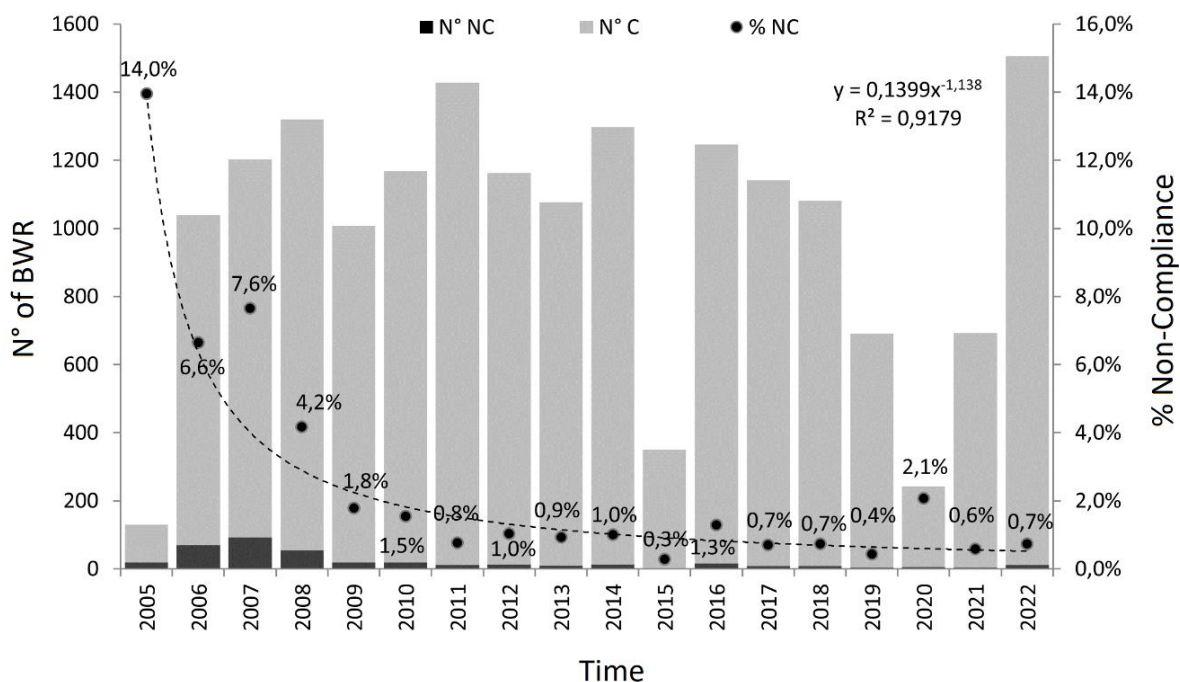


Figure 4 – Bar graph where each bar represents the number of Ballast Water Reports (BWR) for each year. In each bar, light grey indicates compliance and dark grey non-compliance. Dots indicate the percentage of non-compliant reports for each year, and the dotted line represents the power function trendline (its explanatory equation and coefficient of determination are in the upper right space of the graph).

For the comparison between BWR compliance percentages prior and after the entrance into force of the Ballast Water Management Convention, on September 8, 2017, areas 2 and 7 were excluded to avoid bias, since they presented far less reports than the other areas, with frequencies of compliant BWR below 5 and even zeros in the periods prior and after September 8, 2017.

Comparing these two periods, it is possible to notice higher percentages of compliance in the second one (Figure 5). Chi-square tests corroborated the significantly higher compliance visualized for all areas and Brazil ($p < 0.05$), excluding areas 2 and 7. It is also worth mentioning that Brazil achieved 99.38% compliance from September 8, 2017 to December 2022, increasing 1.86% in compliant BWRs, and that all areas raised to above 99% in compliance, with substantial increase for areas 3 and 5, 2.46% and 3.11% respectively, contributing positively for the overall result. Compliance after the entrance into force of the Convention was significantly higher even when we consider areas 2 and 7 for the overall result.

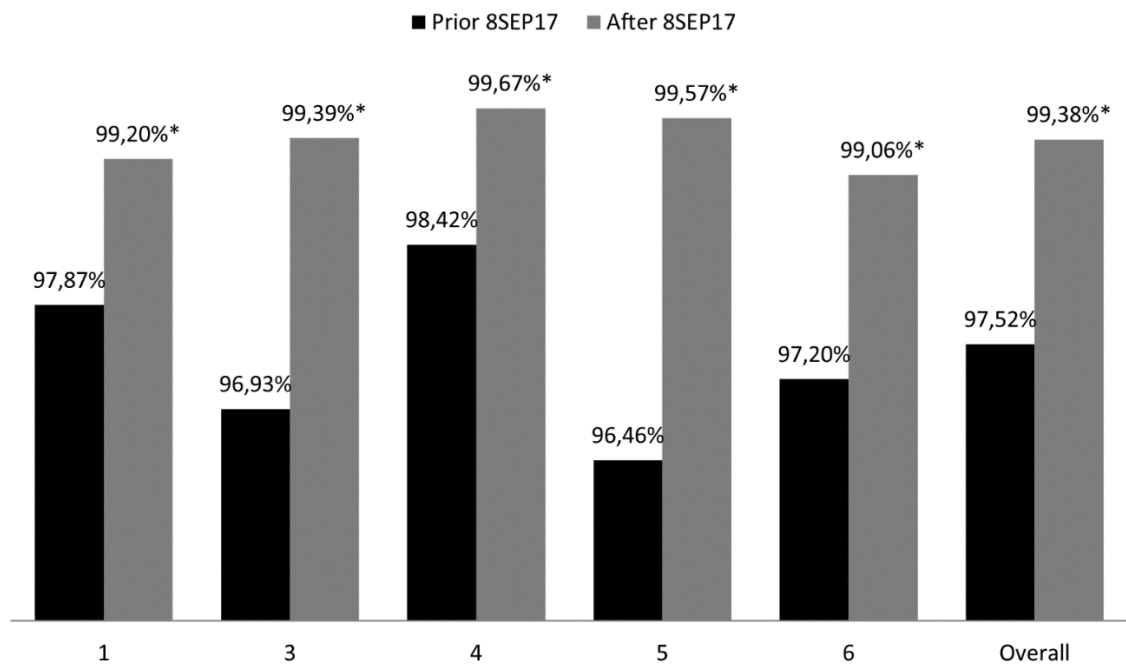


Figure 5 – Comparison of the percentage of compliance prior and after the entrance into force of the BWM Convention, on September 8th of 2017, for each area (except for areas 2 and 7) and its overall (representative of Brazil). Black bars indicate compliance between October 2005 and September 8, 2017 for each area, whereas light grey bars indicate compliance between September 8, 2017 and December, 2022. Asterisk indicates compliance significantly higher in second period when compared to the first ($p < 0.05$).

BWR informatization (2022)

DPC finished the implementation of a digital BWR in February 2022. Since then, PSC inspectors have been filling the report in a digital platform, which automatically updates the central database. The following results were extracted from this database by applying specific filters and basic statistics.

In respect to the D-2 standard application evolution from February to December 2022 (Figure 6), results show an increase in percentage of inspected ships carrying a Ballast Water Management Certificate (BWMC) indicating the attendance of Regulation D-2, or D-1 and D-2 (D-1/D-2), meaning these ships present a BWMS installed onboard. With more than 70%, February was the lowest month and December the highest, with 92.22%. The average percentage over the period was 84%.

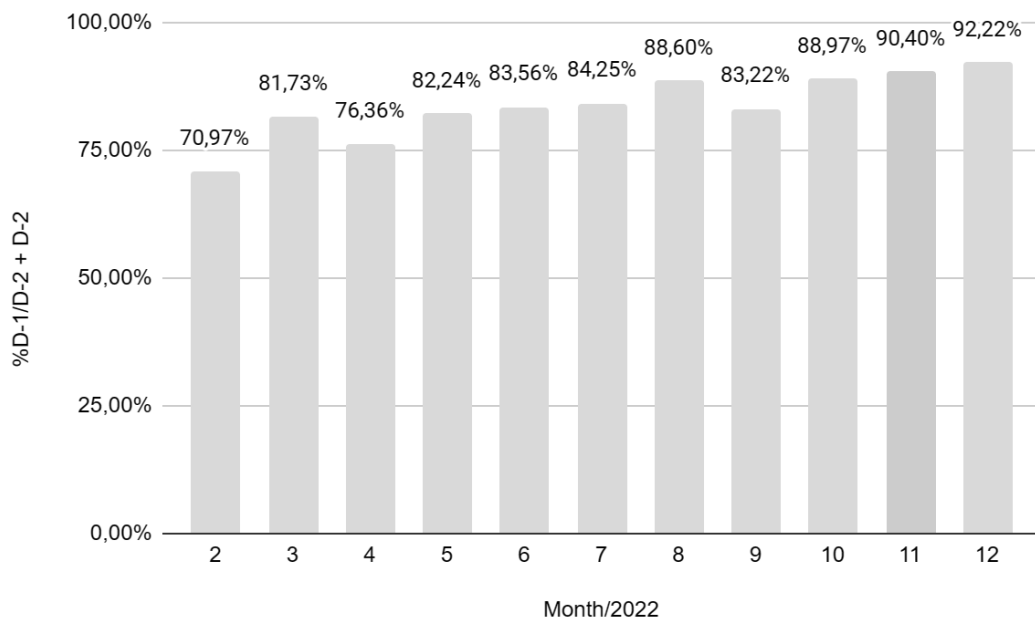


Figure 6 – Percentage of number of ships inspected with a BWMS installed onboard for each month in Brazil, from February to December 2022.

The last port of ballast of a ship before deballasting in Brazilian waters was raised between February and October, 2022. In the case of a ballast water management fail or even the omission of it, the inoculation of these foreigner waters in BJW might mean an increasing risk of non-native species introduction. Table 2 summarizes the top ballast water origin countries; and figure 7 illustrates all origin countries, for the same period.

Of the 471 BWRs with ballast water discharges in Brazilian water recorded for the period, the most recurrent ballast water origin is Brazil itself (22.7%), followed by China (12.3%) and India (8.7%) as the top 3 origins. After that, the numbers decrease by half, with Holland (4.2%), Singapore (3.8%), Spain (3.6%) and Morocco (3.2%) in the middle of the rank and the United States and Argentina, both with 12 discharges recorded (2.5%), in the last positions. Other origin countries contributed with less than 2% each, and together represent 36.3% of the total number of discharges recorded in BWRs for the period.

Table 2 – Top 9 last port of ballast countries in number of discharges of ballast water in Brazilian ports recorded in Ballast Water Reports (BWR) and their contribution to the total (%), between February and October 2022.

Last country of call	Bra.	Chi.	Ind.	Hol.	Sin.	Spa.	Mor.	US	Arg.	<2%	Total
N° of BWR	107	58	41	20	18	17	15	12	12	171	471
%	22.7%	12.3%	8.7%	4.2%	3.8%	3.6%	3.2%	2.5%	2.5%	36.3%	100.0%

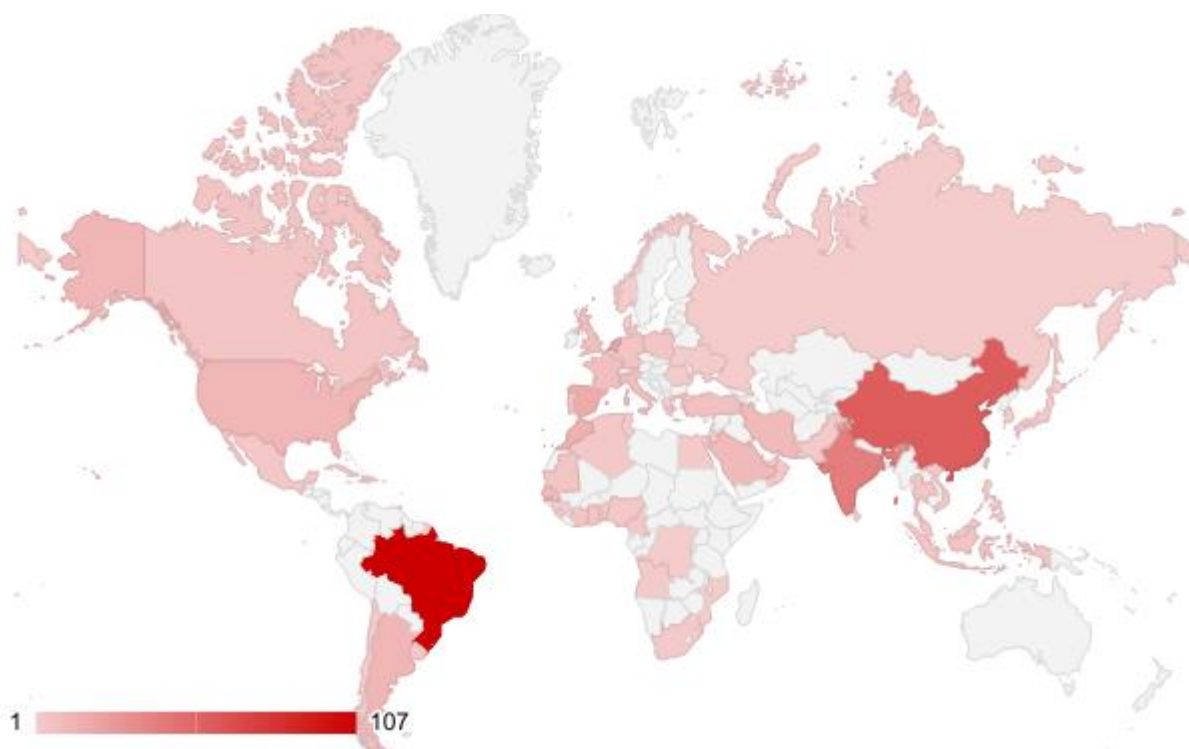


Figure 7 – World map with gradient red symbolizing the contribution of countries to the 471 deballasts in Brazilian waters registered in BWRs between February and October 2022.

From the aforementioned BWR, the main ballast water receivers were the ports/terminals of: Santos-SP (located in area 6), with 25% of the BWRs; Itaqui-MA (in area 4) with 15.8% of BWRs; and Rio Grande-RS (in area 2), with 12.5% of BWRs (Table 3). Of these ports, Santos received ballast water from 31 different countries, mainly from Brazil (16.9%), China (13.1%), India (12.3%) and Singapore (12.3%); Itaqui received from 28 countries, mainly from Holland (14.6%), Brazil (13.4%), Spain (8.5%) and China (7.3%); and Rio Grande received from 27 different countries, mainly from Brazil (30.8%), China (15.4%) and India (7.7%) (supplementary table – Appendix).

Table 3 – Top Brazilian port/terminals receiving Ballast Water (BW) in number of Ballast Water Reports (BWRs) indicating deballast at port where inspection took place, between February and October 2022. Table also presents the percentage of BWR to the total and the number of different countries where the last port of ballast was (fields 14 and 15 of the BWR).

Area	Top BW receivers in Brazil (Port/terminal-Estate)	N° of BWR	% BWR	N° of BW origin countries
6	Santos-SP	130	25.0%	31
4	Itaqui-MA	82	15.8%	28
5	Rio Grande-RS	65	12.5%	27
5	São Francisco do Sul-SC	37	7.1%	18
4	Ponta da Madeira-MA	28	5.4%	9
2	Cotegipe-BA	19	3.7%	10
1	Tubarão-ES	17	3.3%	10
1	Praia Mole-ES	14	2.7%	7
2	Aratú-BA	12	2.3%	5
2	Salvador-BA	10	1.9%	8
1	Portocel-ES	6	1.2%	4
-	<1% of BWR	100	19.2%	-
-	Total	520	100.0%	-

The BWR informatization made possible a faster and deeper analysis of non-compliances. From February to December 2022, a total of 1,465 BWRs were filled in the digital platform, of which eleven presented non-compliances (0.75%).

Of these eleven ships, eight discharged ballast water at the port where the inspection was taking place. Table 4 summarizes the main fields of the BWR of these eight cases. Most of them were related to documentation or Ballast Water Management System (BWMS). Area 2 presented the most non-compliant discharges of the period, with three cases. Of these, two were due to BWMS commissioning tests not performed to validate the system design, even though the BWMC still allowed the use of the D-1 standard. In the third case of area 2, the discharge of ballast water from a D-2 standard ship occurred whilst the BWMS was inoperative, nevertheless, the ballast water origin was from Brazil itself (Recife-PE). After area 2, Santos, in area 6, presented two cases of non-compliant discharges, according to the BWRs. Both BWRs did not mention the cause of the non-compliance, nor the control measures taken to solve it. Control measures were only recorded in two cases, one in Itaqui-MA, in area 4, when the ship's crew was questioned about the BWRF discharge field, and the other occurred in Imbituba-SC, in area 5, when the ship was detained until a valid BWMC was presented (Table 4).

Table 4 – Summary of non-compliant ballast water discharges between February and December 2022, in Brazilian ports/terminals, according to digital BWR.

Area	Port of BW Discharge	BWMC	Last Country of Ballast	Non-Compliance	Control measures
1	Praia Mole-ES	D-1/D-2	China	BWMS inoperative, but flag state allowed D-1.	-
2	Aratú-BA	D-1	At sea	BWMS installed but not commissioned.	-
2	Cotegipe-BA	D-1	Brazil	BWMS installed but not commissioned.	-
2	Cotegipe-BA	D-2	Brazil	BWMS inoperative.	-
4	Itaqui-MA	D-1/D-2	Germany	Did not fill the ballast water discharge information.	Ship provided corrected form.
5	Imbituba-SC	D-2	Mauritius	BWMC expired.	Ship detained.
6	Santos-SP	D-2	Turkey	-	-
6	Santos-SP	D-1/D-2	Uruguay	-	-

Of the remaining three ships considered non-compliant that have not de-ballasted, one of the reports does not mention the cause of the non-conformity, one was using an obsolete version of the Ballast Water Reporting Form (BWRf), and the last one may not apply to the second chapter of the NORMAM-20/DPC for being of Brazilian flag and, whether operating only in BJW, is not considered non-compliant.

2.4. DISCUSSION

The first national long-range ballast water management compliance evaluation, performed by Castro *et al.* (2018), showed a significant increase in compliance from 2005-10 (95.17%) to 2011-15 (99.11%) in Brazil, and in all areas except for areas 2 and 7, where few inspections took place. Our results show compliance kept rising after 2015, reaching 99.17% in the period between 2016-2022, and higher levels after the entrance into force of the BWM Convention (99.38%), thus confirming the increased tendency in ballast water management compliance over time, as presented in Castro *et al.* (2018). This seventeen years analysis provide the most up to date national ballast water management status and projection on how this pattern would evolve in the future by applying the explanatory equation of the power function tendency line of the compliance vs time regression (Figure 4).

The difficulty in gathering reports from areas 2 and 7 reported by Castro *et al.* (2018) was also noticed for the period between 2016-2022, with only 153 reports sent by area 2, 13 BWR in 2019 and 140 in 2022 (after the BWR informatization), and none by area 7. During the informatization of the BWR, in 2022, the DPC contacted all areas to explain the new feature. Since then, area 2 started sending more and more reports,

indicating that miscommunication could be the reason for the lack of reports in the previous years. The same did not happen for area 7, where inspectors declare lack of work force and that few ships carrying ballast water arrive in the region (personal observation).

It is noteworthy that years 2005, 2015 and 2020 presented substantially less reports than the others (Figure 4). Since Castro *et al.* (2018) started compiling data in October 2005, when the Brazilian regulation entered into force and stopped in June 2015, these years presented gaps that could be contoured by multiplying the number of reports and non-compliance by four, in the case of 2005 (October-December represent a quarter of 2005 and presented 129 reports and 18 non-compliances), and by two, in the case of 2015 (presented 351 reports and 1 non-compliance until the middle of the year). By doing so, 2005 would reach 516 reports, of which 72 would be non-compliant, and 2015 would reach 702 reports, of which 2 would be non-compliant. The low number of reports for 2020 are consequence of negative effects caused by the COVID-19 pandemic to the maritime traffic, as well as the impossibility to access ships for inspection during lockdown. The Annual Viña del Mar Report of 2021 states a 50.8% decrease in inspections in 2020, compared to 2019 (AMV, 2021), so do the number of BWR. On the other hand, the highest non-compliance percentage observed for 2020 (2.1%) since 2008 (4.2%), may be explained by both bias caused by low number of reports and ships' lesser interest in taking action to comply with the NORMAM-20/DPC as a consequence of momentary decay in the number of inspections during the pandemic.

The best fitted (highest coefficient of determination) trendline found for the regression on Figure 4 is a power function, which explains well the trend expected for regulatory compliance. Although non-compliance tends to zero as time passes, 100% compliance will not happen when applying the function, as expected for large number of inspections per year – extremely low probability of full compliance. According to our explanatory equation, by the end of 2024, when all ships must comply with Regulation D-2 (September 8, 2024), compliance would reach 99.54% (0.46% non-compliance). Still, difficulties provided by regulation D-2, that relay on the biological performance of ships' ballast water, may decrease the estimated percentage of compliance when all ships must treat their ballast water and indicative and detailed analysis are fully in place. Despite challenging, especially in a post pandemic scenario, where BWMS sup-

pliers are finding difficulties in fulfilling previous arrangements due to backlog and logistics problems (TRADEWINDS, 2022), compliance with Regulation D-2 seems to be on the right path. A survey carried out by the BMA between October 2019 and March 2020 showed 41% of the inspected vessels had the ballast water treatment system installed and operating at that time (ARÉAS *et al.*, 2021). The found result was promising when considering that not all inspected ships must already had the BWMS at that point, according to the amended regulation B-3, as approved by MEPC71 for existing ships. The present study found that an average of 84% of inspected ships had BWMS installed in 2022, demonstrating that the number of BWR signaling the presence of BWMS installed more than doubled between these surveys.

Compliance was significantly superior in the period after the entrance into force of the BWM Convention, from September 8, 2017, to December 2022, when compared to the period from 2005 to September 8, 2017. It is important to emphasize the date *per se* may not be the reason for this difference. The BWM Convention, although not in force at that time, existed since 2004, and adoption and implementation of the Brazilian Standard, since 2005, together influenced the fast fall in non-compliance over the first five years of surveillance, reaching 0.8% in 2011, with small fluctuations onwards (Figure 4). Thus, when the BWM Convention entered into force, compliance was already elevated, and the first five years of higher non-compliances had a great role in the significant difference observed between the two periods (Figure 5).

According to the public annuary of statistics available by the National Agency for Waterway Transportation website (ANTAQ, 2023), Brazilian ports/terminals have exported over six hundred and eighty million tons (687,141,483 tons) of cargo in 2022. Since ballast water is discharged during cargo loading, the exported cargo volume is a reasonable measure of proportional discharge, although the proportion between cargo and BW discharge volumes may vary depending on the type of vessel (ZHANG *et al.*, 2017). When comparing the proportions of volume exported against the number of BWR produced, one can have a diagnosis of the sampling effort imposed by each area and Brazil (Table 5). Through this comparison it is possible to notice that, except for area 6, all areas presented expressive differences in exportation and BWR contribution percentages. As the contribution (%) in tons exported is a proportion of de-ballast, it would be desired that the BWR contribution (%) presented a close value to the first, for it to be considered an adequate sample effort. With this in mind, an effort ratio column was inserted in Table 5, indicating the million tons of exported cargo per

number of BWR of each area. Taking into consideration that the total effort ratio for Brazil was 0.46 million tons of exported cargo per BWR, meaning that for every 0.46 million tons exported, a BWR was produced, this value symbolizes the Brazilian capacity for surveillance. By using this effort ratio (0.46) as threshold, we defined a parameter to indicate if an area is being over or sub sampled. Values above 0.46 mean more ballast water was discharged for every BWR produced, corresponding to a lower effort in inspecting ships, and values inferior to 0.46 mean the opposite. Area 6 was the only one that presented close exportation and BWR contributions percentages, with 21% contribution to the total exportation, and 22% of the total number of BWR, and its effort ratio was 0.44. Following this path, we suggest areas 1, 4 and 7 should receive more attention in order to lower their effort ratio.

According to Zhang *et al.* (2017), the Dead Weight Tonnage (DWT) to ballast water capacity for bulk carriers (coal, ore, grain), calculated from 70 vessels in an estimation of BW discharge between 2007 and 2017 in China, was 33.9%. Considering that, in 2022, about 73% of the exportation cargo profile in Brazil consisted of bulk carriers and that 48% of the Brazilian maritime exportation was directed to China (ANTAQ, 2023) we could estimate the volume of ballast water (in tons) per BWR from table 5 by generalizing the vessel types and applying the bulk carrier ratio to the exported cargo volume. By doing so, we can estimate that 232,940,963 tons of ballast water were discharged in Brazilian waters in 2022 (33.9% of the total exported cargo), and the total effort (Brazil) of 0.15 million tons of ballast water discharged per BWR. According to PROCHAZKA & ADLAND (2021), Capesize bulk carriers almost exclusively carry coal and iron ore and have a typical carrying capacity of 170,000-180,000 DWT, and the dominant trade route is iron ore from Australia to China followed by the route from Brazil to China. Assuming all bulk carriers arriving Brazil as Capesize (max. 180,000 DWT), total effort would be almost three (2.5) Capesize vessels per BWR, about one third (33%) of arriving ships. The aforementioned sample effort seems reasonable, since the Viña del Mar or Latin-America Agreement of 1992 establishes a 20% target inspection rate in foreigner ships arriving national ports (AMV, 2023) and perhaps a study focused on the reallocation of PSC efforts within Brazil may provide a more efficient surveillance.

Table 5 – Compilation of data obtained through ANTAQ annuary website for exportation in 2022 and the number of ballast water reports for the same period, as a metric of Port State Control (PSC) effort.

Areas	Tons exported	Exp. (%)	N° BWR	BWR (%)	Effort Ratio (MTon.Exp./N°BWR)	Effort Ratio (N° Capesize/BWR)
1	246,944,095	36%	169	11%	1.46	8.12
2	14,316,051	2%	140	9%	0.10	0.57
3	8,841,224	1%	233	15%	0.04	0.21
4	226,255,587	33%	257	17%	0.88	4.89
5	43,297,728	6%	382	25%	0.11	0.63
6	142,370,663	21%	325	22%	0.44	2.43
7	5,116,134	1%	0	0%	-	-
TOTAL	687,141,483	100%	1506	100%	0.46	2.53

The most recurrent deballasting origin identified was Brazil itself (22.7%), emphasizing its' domestic navigation, followed by China (12.3%) and India (8.7%) as the top 3. Adding Singapore (3.8%) to the count, the Indo-Pacific Region sum 24.8%, contributing even more than the domestic navigation to the number of ships deballasting in Brazilian ports. This is important information regarding biosecurity policies, since 10 out of the 19 invasive species documented for Brazil (LOPES *et al.*, 2009; TEIXEIRA & CREED, 2020) are native to the Indo-Pacific region, being the origin of the great majority of the country's invasive species and ballast water inoculation (Table 2 and Figure 7). The importance of this region was also emphasized by Fernandes *et al.* (2021) through a risk assessment for the Maranhão harbor in 2010 and 2019. The harbor was responsible for the majority of the Brazilian port movement in 2022, with 14%, composed of 167 million tons of iron ore, of which 164 million tons were exported mainly to China (66%), Malaysia (8%), Japan (4%) and South Korea (3%), from Ponta da Madeira (87%), Itaqui (11%) and Alumar Terminals (2%) (ANTAQ, 2023).

With more than ten thousand kilometers of extension (BRASIL, 2023), Brazil has different areas of endemism throughout its diverse coastline, thus creating different marine biogeographic regions (CORD *et al.*, 2022). These regions can work similarly to different states' jurisdiction, being the origin of species introduction within the country, between different biogeographic regions. As pointed out by Castro *et al.* (2010) for Rio de Janeiro Port, our study also found that a great portion of the ballast water discharged in Brazil comes from within the country (more than 20%). Here we propose a closer look into the possibilities of spreading not only non-native and cryptogenic species but also native species from a biogeographic region to another where it was not

reported yet, through ballast water and also biofouling, and the row played by domestic navigation and oil rig supply vessels.

Of the eleven BWR non-compliances identified for 2022, only four of them could be confirmed by the BWR field responses, other three BWR did not mention the reason for the non-compliances and the remaining four BWR presented doubtful non-compliances, mainly due to non-performance of a BWMS commissioning test or inoperative BWMS when the BWMC indicated management through D-1 or D-1/D-2 standards or situations where the Brazilian Standard (NORMAM-20/DPC) would not apply to or exempt that specific ship (e.g. Brazilian flag operating only in BJW or possibly a foreigner flag operating only in BJW with a Ballast Water Management Exemption Certificate issued by the BMA). For a non-compliance confirmation more information would be necessary on the BWR. Thus, the lack of information on non-compliant BWR is an important issue that needs to be addressed by the BMA during inspection training, as well as the leveling of responses and actions related to non-compliances and control measures (fields 19 and 20).

Initiatives by the BMA

The Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA) has recently made a few modifications on its' Standard for Ships' Ballast Water Management (NORMAM-20/DPC). The last version of the Brazilian standard NORMAM-20/DPC (3^aREV. 1^aMOD) included two new chapters, the first is about marine pollution by ship's oil and by-products, and the third chapter internalizes the International Convention on The Control of Harmful Anti-Fouling Systems on Ships, 2001 (the AFS Convention), previously named NORMAM-23/DPC. The second chapter is on Ballast Water Management, and has introduced, among others, the following improvements:

1. In contingency situations, when the management of ballast water through treatment is not possible due to an unforeseen situation, ships can perform the BWE, as far as the maritime authority agent is consulted;
2. Chapter 2 on BW is no longer applied to Brazilian flag vessels operating only in BJW, except if ships are travelling between fluvial ports/terminals of different hydrographic basins (particular situation, item 2.5). When this is the case, the vessel must perform ballast water management. This could be according to regulation D-2 or to a D-1 regulation slightly modified; and

3. Ships flying a foreigner flag while operating only in BJW are exempted to manage its BW after applying for and receiving a Ballast Water Management Exemption Certificate. This exemption does not withdraw the necessity to keep the BWMP, BWRB and BWMC updated, nor to manage the BW when required by item 2.5.

To enhance the enforcement of the BWM Convention and the second chapter of NORMAM-20/DPC, the DPC have acquired Ballast Water Compliance Monitoring Devices (CMD) to provide and capacitate PSC inspectors on indicative analysis measurement. Additionally, through the Project entitled: Verification of Compliance by Ships with the Rule D-1/D-2 of the BWM Convention (IMO, 2004), lunched on June 29, 2022, by the administrative ruling N° 163/DPC (Portaria N° 163/DPC, 2022), the BMA aims to collect and analyze ballast water from private and public port/terminals, respecting the principle of non-penalty in cases of D-2 non-compliance, as agreed during the IMO's Experience-Building Phase (EBP). These initiatives provide the BMA the opportunity to better understand the Brazilian status on Ballast Water Management through rule D-2, capacitate PSCO on the use of CMD, strengthen the relationship with the maritime industry, and design an action plan to mitigate possible bottlenecks.

All results derived from these initiatives will be analyzed and can work as key instruments for the prevention of new introductions mediated by ships' BW and will be available in the near future for the Naval Districts and Captaincies all over the Brazilian Coast, as well as to those located in the continent, close to rivers where ships equipped with ballast water tanks operates.

2.5. CONCLUSIONS

Ballast Water Management compliance with the Brazilian Standards (NORMAM-20/DPC) have been rising since its implementation in 2005, reaching levels above 99% since 2011, with an expectation of reaching above 99.54% by the end of 2024, when all ships must comply with regulation D-2. Nevertheless, the industry and the Maritime Authority still have work to do, especially concerning to the work force distribution, as demonstrated by the effort ratio presented by areas 1, 4 and 7. Another important factor is the necessity to better understand the source of non-compliances

and its categories to have a general overview of what are the main difficulties for the industry.

Since the informatization of the BWR in 2022, 1,465 BWR were received, facilitating data management and allowing automated analysis, such as the monitoring of the percentage of ships operating in Brazil with an onboard treatment system (BWMS) installed from February (71%) to December (92%) 2022; and on the identification of the main origins of the BW discharged in Brazilian ports/terminals (Brazil, China and India).

As the Ballast Water Project (Portaria N° 163/DPC, 2022) advances, together with the BWR informatization, new data should provide insights on policies decision making regarding biosecurity risk assessment, including those related to ballast water from different biogeographic regions within Brazil.

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APPENDIX – Supplementary Table

Top BW receivers in Brazil (Port/terminal-Estate (Area)) X BW Country Origin	Itaquí MA (4)	Ponta da Madeira MA (4)	Aratú BA (2)	Cotejipe BA (2)	Salvador BA (2)	Tubarão ES (1)	Portocel ES (1)	Praia Mole ES (1)	Santos SP (6)	São Francisco do Sul SC (5)	Rio Grande RS (5)
Spain	7	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	2	1	2
Germany	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brazil	11	1	7	2	2	2	2	7	22	10	20
United States	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	2	1
Holland	12	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	1
China	6	15	0	1	1	2	2	1	17	2	10
United Kingdom	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
Denmark	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Algeria	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Portugal	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Tunisia	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
France	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Morocco	3	0	0	1	0	3	0	2	4	0	0
Singapore	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	16	0	0
Turkey	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1
Romania	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trinidad and Tobago	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
India	3	0	0	6	0	4	0	0	16	5	5
Poland	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Italy	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Jordan	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Mauritius	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Belgium	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Senegal	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
Israel	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Canada	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Saudi Arabia	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	5	1	1
Ivory Coast	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
Ukraine	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Oman	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Japan	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
United Arab Emirates	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mexico	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Tayland	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Greece	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pakistan	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Argentina	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	7	0	3
Malaysia	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
Sierra Leone	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Egypt	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Mozambique	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Russia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Guinea	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Indonesia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0

Top BW receivers in Brazil (Port/terminal-Estate (Area)) X BW Country Origin	Itaqui MA (4)	Ponta da Madeira MA (4)	Aratú BA (2)	Cotegipe BA (2)	Salvador BA (2)	Tubarão ES (1)	Porto Cel ES (1)	Praia Mole ES (1)	Santos SP (6)	São Francisco do Sul SC (5)	Rio Grande RS (5)
Gana	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1
Iran	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	0
Sri Lanka	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Nigeria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Vietnam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
Kuwait	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Norway	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Uruguay	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Chile	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Barein	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Dominican Republic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Benin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Haiti	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Philippines	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Cuba	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Angola	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Lebanon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Togo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Qatar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
South Africa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
South Korea	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	82	28	12	19	10	17	6	14	130	37	65
%	15,77%	5,38%	2,31%	3,65%	1,92%	3,27%	1,15%	2,69%	25,00%	7,12%	12,50%
N° of countries	28	9	5	10	8	10	4	7	31	18	27

CAPÍTULO 3 – ARTIGO: CHOQUE COM BAIXA SALINIDADE COMO FERRAMENTA PARA PREVENÇÃO DA BIOINVASÃO MEDIADA POR BIOINCRUSTAÇÃO EM EMBARCAÇÕES

Low salinity shock as a tool to prevent ship-mediated biofouling invasions

ABSTRACT

Most common practices to manage ships' biofouling consist of using Anti-Fouling System (AFS), Marine Growth Prevention System (MGPS), and proactive and reactive cleaning. Many of the substances and techniques utilized have the potential to pollute the surrounding environment. The present study tested the use of low salinity water as a simple, low cost and non-polluting biosecurity tool for minimizing ships and recreational crafts' biofouling in Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Twenty biofouled panels (3.5 months of immersion) were submitted to 4 salinity treatments – 00, 07, 15 and 35 (control) (n = 5 per treatment) for 2-h, and species abundance monitored 1, 7 and 30 days after treatment. One month after treatment, two distinct groups were identified: panels treated with salinities (1) 00 and 07; and (2) 15 and 35. Similarity percentage analysis indicated low salinities (00 and 07) presented more dead organisms, bare spaces, biofilm and recruits when compared to higher salinities (15 and 35). Biofouling thickness was also significantly lower on the first group. These results confirm a biofouling control effect of low salinity on biofouled surfaces. Since treatments with 00 and 07 salinities presented similar and effective results at killing macrofouling and reducing their thickness, we recommend the use of salinities ≤ 7 for controlling vessel and recreational crafts' biofouling. This treatment proved to be promising as a biosecurity tool and for hull drag management, which can decrease fuel consumption and GHG emissions. Low salinity exposure facilities could enable an environmentally and logistically interesting solution for biofouling management.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Ships' biofouling is responsible for 70% of non-indigenous species (NIS) establishment in coastal areas worldwide (HEWITT & CAMPBELL, 2010), increasing chances of causing health, ecological and economic impacts (CARLTON, 1996; CARLTON *et al.*, 1999; BAX *et al.*, 2001; LOPES *et al.*, 2009), and contributing to a global cost of hundreds of billions of dollars spent because of invasive species (PIMENTEL *et al.*, 2005; DIAGNE *et al.* 2021). In addition, biofouling increases hull drag resistance and weight, reducing vessel velocity, and, therefore, increases fuel consumption and greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions, at an extra cost of approximately \$30 billion annually to the shipping industry (UZUN *et al.*, 2019; HADŽIĆ *et al.*, 2022).

In 2011, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) adopted the Guidelines for the Control and Management of Ships' Biofouling to Minimize the Transfer of Invasive Aquatic Species [IMO Biofouling Guidelines, Resolution MEPC 207(62)], and in the following year, the Guidance for Minimizing the Transfer of Invasive Aquatic Species as Biofouling (Hull Fouling) for recreational Craft (IMO Biofouling Guidance for Recreational Craft, MEPC 1/Circ792). Both documents are non-mandatory and provide best practices to prevent the spread of non-indigenous species (NIS) via ships' biofouling.

The most common practices available to manage ships' biofouling consist of using Anti-Fouling Systems (AFS), Marine Growth Prevention Systems (MGPS), and alternative practices, such as the proactive and reactive cleaning (IMO Resolution MEPC.207(62), 2011; SONG & CUI, 2020; ARNDT *et al.*, 2021). A well-known but highly complex and expensive method for reactive cleaning is to remove the vessel from the water and clean it in a dry dock. From the owner's point of view, dry docking is not a convenient solution for hull maintenance unless certificate renewal surveys are already scheduled, or the antifouling coating needs a complete overhaul or other repairs/installations are required (HADŽIĆ *et al.*, 2022). Another option is to clean the vessel's hull in water. In-water cleaning (IWC) methods typically include the use of water jets and rotating brushes but can also include non-contact methods such as heat treatment or vortex suction (SONG & CUI, 2020). Regardless of the method, the biofouling material and AFS waste released from the vessel always pose a threat to the environment and increase the risk of spreading NIS where cleaning takes place,

therefore, collecting all waste is key in dealing with these threats (TAMBURRI *et al.*, 2020; 2021).

According to the IMO Biofouling Guidelines, niche areas are parts of the ship more susceptible to biofouling accumulation than the main hull due to structural complexity, different or variable hydrodynamic forces, susceptibility to antifouling coating wear or damage, inadequate or no protection by antifouling systems (AFS) (Resolution MEPC.207(62), 2011). On modern merchant ships, up to 27% of the wetted surface is represented by niche areas, accounting for more than 80% of the biofouling (MOSER *et al.*, 2017; HAYES *et al.*, 2019). Thus, although niche areas represent a relatively small proportion of the submerged surface of the hull, they present a disproportionate risk of species transfer. A particular concern are the sea chests, where biofouling larval stages are sucked in through the entrance grates, and find lower water flow, facilitating settlement (GROWCOTT *et al.*, 2016). Different methodologies have been developed to prevent biofouling in niche areas, such as copper ion anodes in sea chests, internal piping, and machinery; chlorine in seawater systems; new types of paint, such as silicone paint with biocides; even new sea chests design to promote stronger hydrodynamics (ARNDT *et al.*, 2021). Other emerging methods include the use of low power ultrasound to prevent the settlement of biofouling organisms (ARNDT *et al.*, 2021).

Many of the substances and techniques to prevent biofouling have the potential to pollute the surrounding environment. This is exactly the case of the organotin compounds or tributyltins (TBT), compounds that cause ecological disturbance when leached into the sea, including pseudohermaphroditism or imposex in gastropods (BEYER *et al.*, 2022). In 2008 the International Convention on the Control of Harmful Anti-Fouling Systems on Ships entered into force and banned the use of organotin compounds in the AFS coatings (AFS/CONF/26, 2001). Since January 1st, 2023, the substance known as Cybutryne, also known as Irgarol-1051, has also been banned by the AFS Convention (Resolution MEPC.331(76), adopted on 17 June 2021). Thus, special attention must be given when dealing with IWC of exposed TBT and/or Cybutryne AFS. Procedures, methods and actions taken in line with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines should prevent, reduce and control pollution of the marine environment and not transfer directly or indirectly, damage or hazards from one area to another, or transform one type of pollution into another (UNCLOS, 1983, articles 194 and 195).

The use of low salinity water as a simple, effective, low cost and non-polluting tool has been tested to prevent species introduction via biofouling and as a post-border NIS management tool. McCann *et al.* (2013) demonstrated that freshwater acted similarly to chemical agents in killing the invasive tunicate *Didemnum vexillum*, and Moreira *et al.* (2014) found that *Tubastraea* spp. cup corals, a highly invasive genus in Brazilian waters (DE PAULA, 2007; LAGES *et al.*, 2011), can be killed with 100% effectiveness after a 2h-exposure to freshwater. The same treatment was successful at killing the invasive Mediterranean fan worm *Sabella spallanzanii*, in New Zealand (JUTE & DUNPHY, 2017). Castro *et al.* (2018) investigated the use of low salinities to control sea chest biofouling assemblages at Plymouth marina, England, and found that most organisms were killed one week after exposure to 7 psu salinity water for 2-h. The authors proposed that sea chest be flushed with freshwater for at least 2-h before ships leave port as a biosecurity tool to prevent species introduction via biofouling.

As most port areas throughout the world, Guanabara Bay, located in Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil, is under intense environmental stress, such as those related to pollution, sedimentation, debris, eutrophication, habitat modification, climate change, invasive species, and others (SOARES-GOMES *et al.*, 2016). The area hosts the Harbor of Rio de Janeiro, which traded ca. 8 million tons of cargo in 2022 (ANTAQ, 2023), and according to the Rio de Janeiro Port Captaincy, more than 60 thousand crafts are registered in their SISGEMB system (CPRJ, 2022). Such maritime movement facilitates the establishment and dominance of non-native species in piers, ports and marinas, as shown in Oricchio *et al.* (2019) for the Southwestern Atlantic, including Guanabara Bay. In this context, the present study aims to test the effectiveness of low salinity shock as biosecurity tool for minimizing ships and recreational crafts' biofouling in the tropical waters of Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro.

3.2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Design

In order to test the effect of low salinity water treatments on biofouling developed in Guanabara Bay, we submitted fouled panels to different salinity treatments – 0, 7, 15 and 35 psu – for two hours and analyzed their similarity over time.

To do so, a total of 20 polyethylene panels of 12 x 12 x 0.5 cm each were placed over a polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tube of 1 m in length and 15 cm in diameter.

The entire structure was hanged under the Charitas Naval Club (CNC) deck, at 1.5 m depth, in Niteroi City, Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil (coordinates 22°56'02"S 43°06'25"W) (Figure 1) on October 28, 2020.

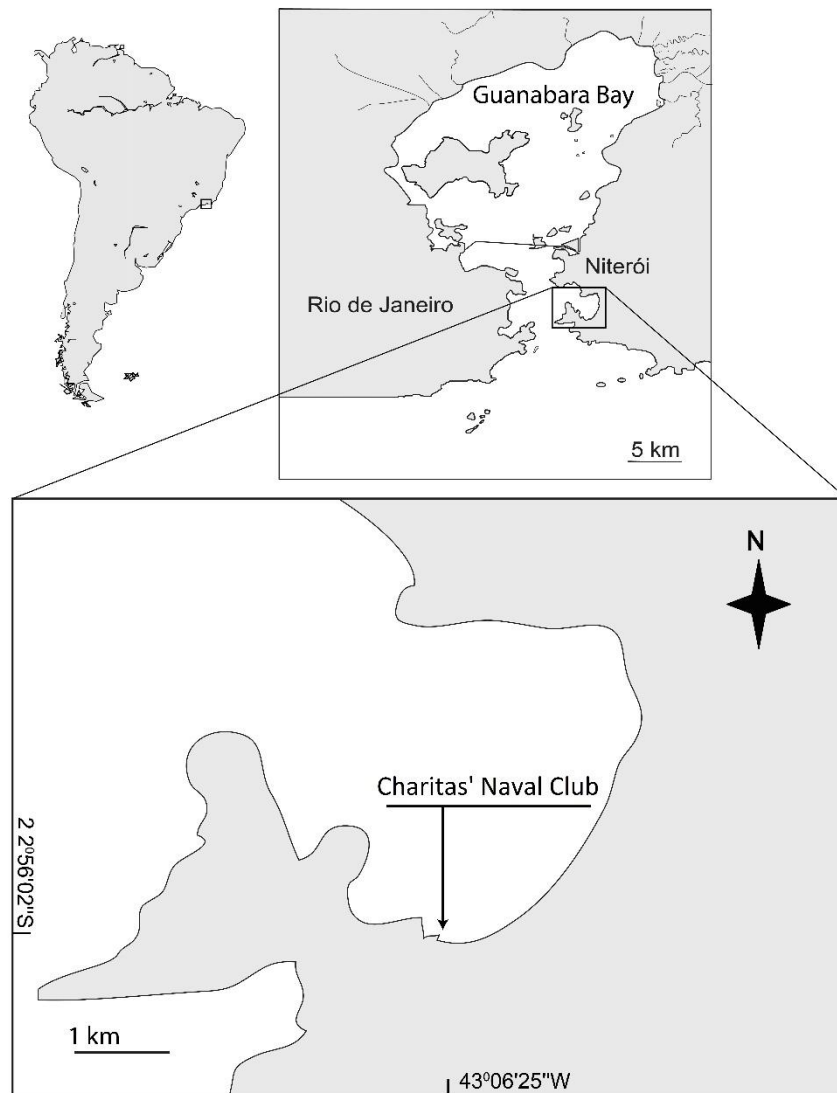


Figure 1 – Study Area: Charitas Naval Club (CNC), located in Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro State, 22°56'02"S 43°06'25"W.

For the following three months panels were checked for biofouling accumulation. During this period, photos records were taken for preliminary specimen identification. Local water salinity and surface temperature were recorded for setting control parameters in the experiment.

One 35 L tank was used for each salinity treatment (4). Seawater collected from the same marina was mixed with freshwater to achieve the desired salinities and filtered by a nine μm mesh. For the zero salinity treatment only freshwater was used,

and for the control treatment (35), only filtered seawater was used. Aquarium air pumps maintained water oxygen level during exposure to treatment. All tanks were simultaneously placed in a larger recipient with constant flux of local seawater to maintain equal temperatures through water bath. When treatments were settled, the fouling structure was taken off seawater and panels detached, photographed with a NIKON D7100 camera, in 4,000 x 6,000 pixels resolution, and placed in their specific treatment tanks, as illustrated in Figure 2. After treatment, panels were fixed on the PVC can again for immediate submersion under the CNC mooring deck. The resuspension of the structure for other rounds of photo shooting was carried out one day, one week (7 days) and one month (30 days) after treatment, totalizing four different time periods (before treatment, one day, one week and one month after treatment), of three different salinity treatments plus control, containing 5 samples each.

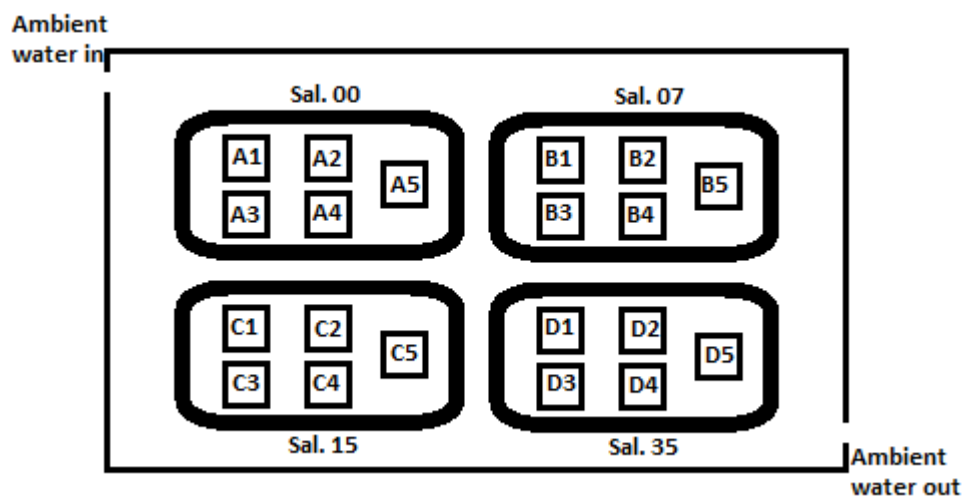


Figure 2 – Schematic drawing of the experimental design.

Data Survey

All 80 pictures were analyzed with the software PhotoQuad version 1.4, where each one had one hundred segmented dots identified as close to the species level as possible, for abundance quantification. The loss of colour pattern, barnacle without aperture plates, or a wide-open bivalve shell was noted as dead specimen.

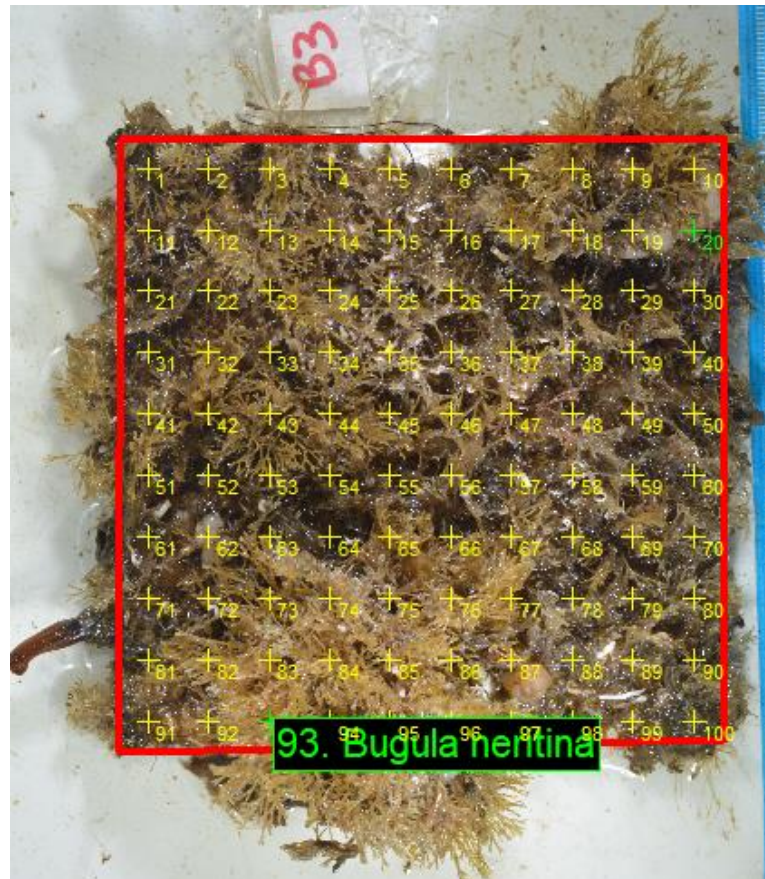


Figure 3 – Example of photograph used in the PhotoQuad software to obtain specimens abundance

Maximum biofouling thickness was measured on lateral profile view calibrated photos of panels one month after treatment.

Data Analysis

The number of species, Shannon Diversity Index, and resemblance (using the Bray-Curtis similarity analysis of square root transformed data), of each panel through time was obtained on the software PRIMER-E.

Thickness difference between samples one month after treatment was obtained by performing the student's *t* test of pared treatments on the software PAST.

3.3. RESULTS

On the October 28th of 2020, the fouling structure was installed at the Charitas' Naval Club (CNC). Two weeks later, November 11th, biofilm and hydrozoans were already visible on all panels (Figure 4a), and by November 25th, all panels were considerably fouled by the polychaete *Hydroides elegans* (Figure 4b). On January 5th, 2021, panels were heavily fouled with, other than the cited organisms, bryozoans, colonial and individual ascidians, barnacles, mussels, anemones, and others, such as the invasive polychaete *Branchiomma luctuosum* on the back side of the panels (Figure 4c).

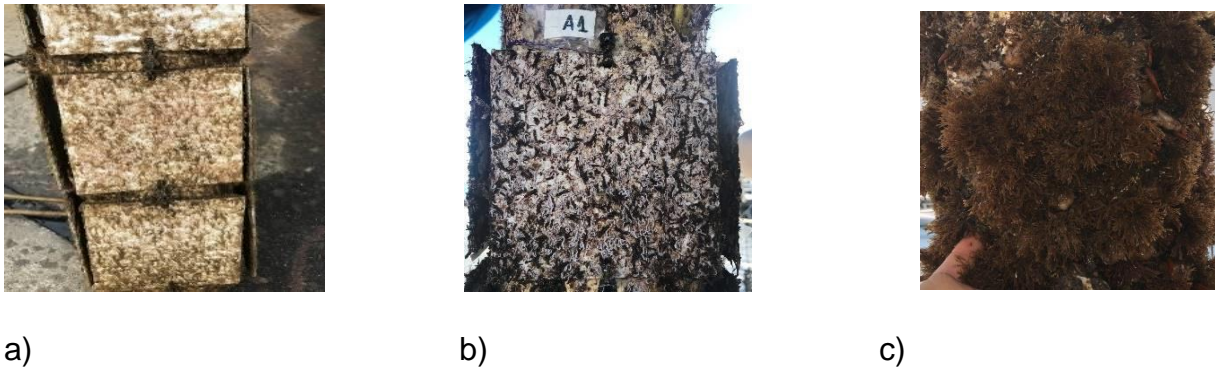


Figure 4 – Biofouling development since panels were submerged at 1.5 m depth under a sailboat mooring deck, at Charitas' Naval Club, Niteroi, Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil. Photograph (a) illustrates the panels after two weeks, (b) show panels after one month, and (c) after two months and eight days.

A total of 19 taxa were recorded (Table 1), among them only the sea-anemone *Bunodosoma caissarum* is considered native to the study area, based on the marine non-indigenous status assessment conducted by Teixeira *et al.* (2020). This species' presence during the study was reported only once, in two samples photographed before treated with 07 psu. The majority of species found on panels was introduced and are established or already considered invasive.

The most frequent organisms throughout treatments and time were the detected bryozoan *Bugula stolonifera*, the established *Bugula neritina*, the invasive polychaete *Hydroides elegans* (Serpulidae) and biofilm, occurring in almost all samples (>99%, of the 80 samples). The hydroid *Obelia dichotoma* was present on 88% of the panels and a group of species presented relative frequency between 40 and 60%: *Diadumene lineata*, *Amphibalanus eburneus*, *Styela plicata*, *Didemnum perlucidum*

and recruit barnacles (Table 1). For the relative abundance data, see supplementary table on appendix.

Table 1 – Summary of identified taxa with their occurrence (sum of replicates where taxon was present on each treatment, n=5) on the different salinity treatments over time (immediately before; one day after; one week after; and one month after treatment). Relative frequency over the total of panels (n=80) and introduction status of each taxon is furnished when available (NA – Not applicable; N – Native; C – Cryptogenic; D – Detected; E – Established; and I – Invasive).

Group	Taxon/salinity	Status	Sum of Presence (1)/absence (0); n=5				Im. before treat.				1d after treat.				1w after treat.				1m after treat.				Frq% (80)
			0	7	15	35	0	7	15	35	0	7	15	35	0	7	15	35					
Green algae	<i>Ulva fasciata</i> Delile	C	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	2	0	1	11				
Cnidarian	<i>Diadumene lineata</i> (Verrill, 1869)	I	0	1	0	3	1	1	3	2	3	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	54				
Cnidarian	<i>Obelia dichotoma</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	C	0	2	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	88				
Cnidarian	<i>Anthothoe chilensis</i> (Lesson, 1830)	E	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1				
Cnidarian	<i>Bunodosoma caissarum</i> Correa, 1964	N	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3				
Cnidarian	Recruit Anemone	NA	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	2	2	1	2	16				
Polychaete	<i>Branchiommma luctuosum</i> Grube, 1870	I	1	2	0	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	1	2	21				
Polychaete	<i>Hydroides elegans</i> (Haswell, 1883)	I	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	100				
Crustacean	<i>Amphibalanus amphitrite</i> (Darwin, 1854)	E	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1				
Crustacean	<i>Amphibalanus eburneus</i> (Gould, 1841)	C	1	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	4	5	4	3	46				
Crustacean	<i>Balanus trigonus</i> (Darwin, 1854)	E	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4				
Crustacean	Recruit Barnacle	NA	0	2	2	1	3	3	0	4	5	5	5	5	4	3	2	1	56				
Bivalvia	<i>Perna viridis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3				
Bivalvia	Recruit Ostreidae	NA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1				
Gastropod	Lottia sp.	NA	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1				
Ascidian	<i>Styela plicata</i> (Leseuer, 1823)	I	4	4	2	3	5	4	3	3	0	2	3	3	0	0	3	5	55				
Ascidian	<i>Didemnum perlucidum</i> Monniot, 1983	E	2	1	4	2	4	2	3	2	0	0	5	4	0	1	5	5	50				
Bryozoan	<i>Bugula neritina</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	E	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	99				
Bryozoan	<i>Bugula stolonifera</i> (Ryland, 1960)	D	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	100				
NA	Biofilm	NA	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	100				
NA	Empty space	NA	5	5	3	3	5	5	1	3	5	4	5	4	4	5	2	1	75				
Total			33	44	37	43	47	44	38	41	40	39	55	54	47	48	48	50					

Field observations

From January 2021 to the start of the experiment, on February 14th, 2021, panels developed more mature biofouling, with larger barnacles and individual ascidians and less voluminous colonial bryozoans (when compared to Figure 4c). After treatments, some panels lost larger and less fixed organisms, such as the invasive ascidian *Styella plicata*, revealing species that were covered by the former before treatment, and, in some cases leaving a clean surface or biofilm, that was filled by polychaetas and barnacle recruits on the following week, creating a more diverse sample. Hence, the observed increase in number of species and diversity index one day and one week after treatment, stabilizing toward the end of the experiment. This

is more evident on freshwater (00) and salinity 07 treatments one day after treatment and on salinities 15 and control one week after treatment.

One day after treatments, samples submitted to salinities 00, 07 and 15 presented characteristic rotting tissue and odor. These samples also presented more dead organisms, clear panel patches, biofilm and mortality or absence of the invasive polychaete *Branchiommma luctuosum*, when compared to the control. One week after treatment the rotting organisms remained, and bare spaces were filled by barnacle, anemone and polychaeta (*Hydroides elegans*) recruits. *B. luctuosum* could be found on control samples, and in less amount on the back side of salinity 15 samples.

Resemblance

Simprof resemblance tests did not find groups with significant differences before treatment, neither one day after treatment. One week after treatment three distinct groups were formed, one united all samples treated with freshwater with three samples treated with salinity 07, and the other two groups were more similar to one another, and presented a mix of samples of the remaining treatments.

For samples photographed one month after treatment, simprof test formed two distinct groups: the first contains all samples treated with freshwater and salinity 07, and the second group is formed by all samples treated with salinities 15 and 35 (Figure 5).

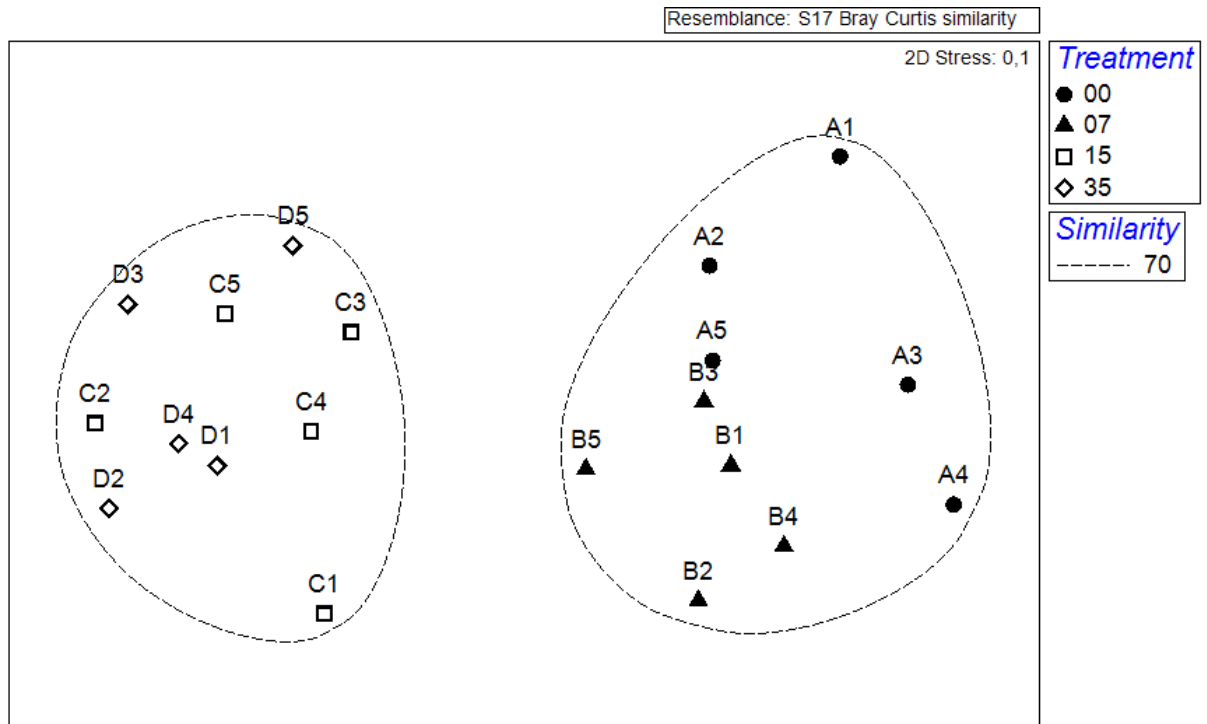


Figure 5 – Multi-Dimensional Scaling of samples submitted to different salinity treatments, as specified in the upper right rectangle, and measured in specimens abundance one month after treatments. Data was square root transformed before performing the Bray Curtis Similarity Resemblance analysis. Dotted line specifies groups with at least 70% similarity.

Similarity percentage (SIMPER) analysis indicated that higher abundances of dead organisms (*Bugula stolonifera*, *B. neritina*, *Diadumene lineata* and barnacles), clear panel, biofilm, barnacle recruits and adults (*Amphibalanus eburneus*) and *Hydroides elegans* on lower salinities (freshwater and salinity 07), and higher abundances of *Didemnum perlucidum*, *Bugula*, Hydrozoa, *Styela plicata* and *Diadumene lineata* in samples treated with higher salinities (salinities 15 and 35), contributed to a 41.09% dissimilarity between them (Table 2).

Table 2 – Average abundances and average dissimilarity and standard deviation, as well as contribution and cumulative contribution in percentages of organisms that most contributed for the formation of two groups (00-07 salinity and 15-35 salinity panels), one month after treatment.

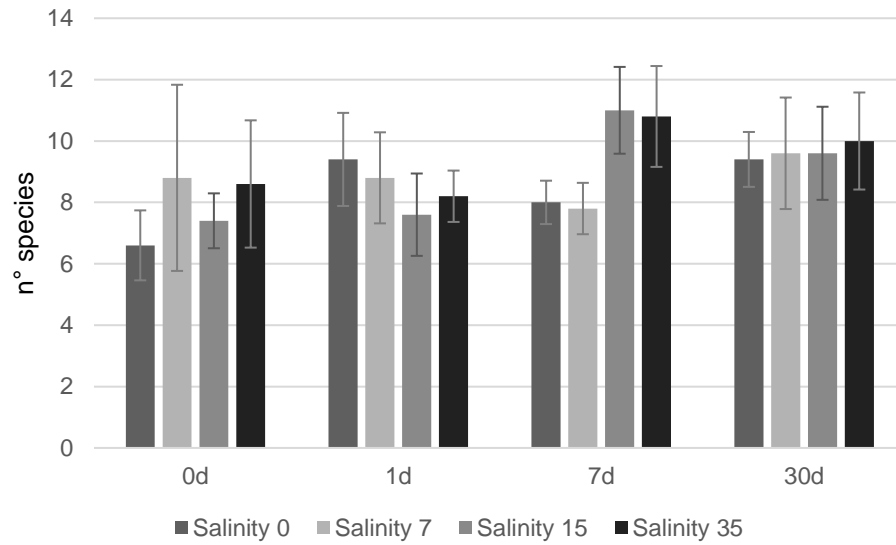
Species	Av.Abund	Av.Abund	Av.Diss	Diss/SD	Contrib%	Cum.%
<i>Didemnum perlucidum</i>	0,22	2,95	4,71	2,71	11,47	11,47
Empty space	2,29	0,34	3,47	1,93	8,43	19,9
<i>Bugula neritina</i>	1,13	3,1	3,37	1,85	8,2	28,1
<i>Hydrooides elegans</i>	5,12	3,44	2,95	1,65	7,18	35,29
Hydrozoa	1,58	3,12	2,87	1,53	6,99	42,27
<i>Styela plicata</i>	0	1,67	2,85	1,59	6,93	49,2
<i>Bugula neritina</i> (Dead)	1,57	0,26	2,62	1,98	6,37	55,58
<i>Bugula stolonifera</i> (Dead)	1,48	0,1	2,41	1,52	5,86	61,44
<i>Bugula stolonifera</i>	3,61	4,97	2,37	1,55	5,76	67,2
<i>Diadumene lineata</i> (Dead)	1,19	0	2,04	1,19	4,97	72,17
Biofilm	5,02	4,29	1,79	1,41	4,35	76,52
Barnacle recruit	1,12	0,3	1,72	1,26	4,18	80,71
<i>Amphibalanus eburneus</i>	1,43	0,97	1,59	1,23	3,88	84,58
<i>Diadumene lineata</i>	1,73	2,05	1,49	1,25	3,62	88,21
Barnacle (Dead)	0,94	0,1	1,47	2,1	3,58	91,78

Diversity

Samples submitted to zero salinity and photographed before treatment (day 0) presented the lowest number of species (avg. 6.60 ± 1.14), while salinities 15 and 35 (control) one week after treatment presented the highest number of species (avg. 11 ± 1.41 and avg. 10.8 ± 1.64 , respectively). In general, the number of species in lower salinities (freshwater and 07) increased one day after treatment, then decreased one week after, and stabilized one month after treatment, compared to higher salinities (15 and 35) (Figure 6a).

The Shannon Diversity Index varied in a similar, but smoother, pattern, compared to the number of species. Samples submitted to zero salinity and photographed before treatment (day 0) also presented the lowest averages (1.51 ± 0.27), but the highest index was recorded for the control, one month after treatment (avg. 1.95 ± 0.18) (Figure 6b).

a)



b)

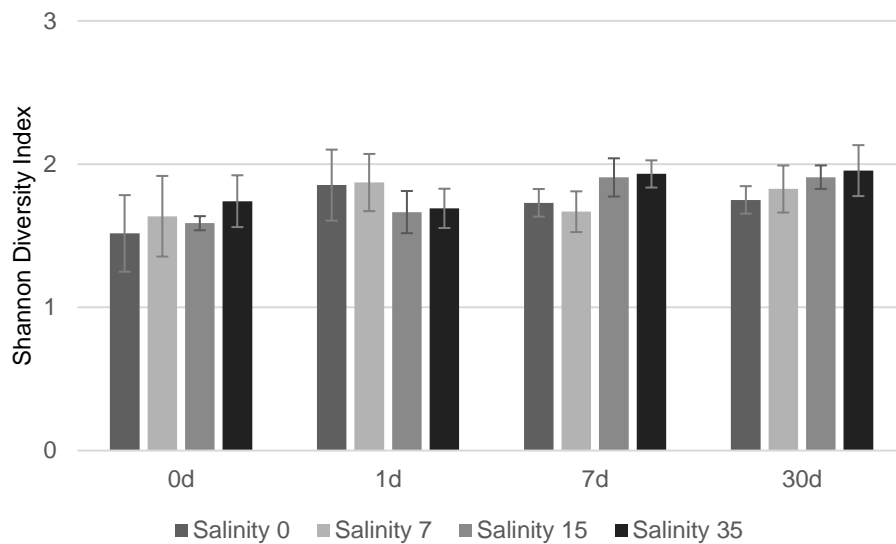


Figure 6 – (a) Average number of species and (b) Shannon-Wiener diversity index (log_e) of three months and a half old biofouling, developed on panels at 1.5m depth in Charitas Naval Club, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Panels submitted to freshwater, 7, 15 and 35 (control) salinities treatments and analyzed before treatment (0d), one day (1d), one week (7d) and one month (30d) after treatment. Error bars are ±SD, n = 5.

Thickness

Results from maximum biofouling thickness one month after treatments showed that panels treated with higher salinities presented thicker biofouling, when compared to lower salinity treatments.

Salinities 0 and 7 had avg. 0.78 cm $SD\pm 0.33$ and 0.84 cm $SD\pm 0.11$ of maximum thickness, respectively; while salinities 15 and 35 (control) presented averages of 3.52 cm $SD\pm 1.29$ and 3.78 cm $SD\pm 2.24$ (Table 3).

Table 3 – Measurement of the point of maximum biofouling thickness in panels one month after treatments. One measurement was taken for each panel, and the average and standard deviation were calculated for each treatment.

Treatment	Sample	Max. biofouling thickness (cm)	Average	SD
sal. 00	A1	0.8	0.78	± 0.33
	A2	1.3		
	A3	0.4		
	A4	0.7		
	A5	0.7		
Sal. 07	B1	0.7	0.84	± 0.11
	B2	0.9		
	B3	0.8		
	B4	1.0		
	B5	0.8		
Sal. 15	C1	2.9	3.52	± 1.29
	C2	3.3		
	C3	4.8		
	C4	4.8		
	C5	1.8		
Sal. 35	D1	6.8	3.78	± 2.24
	D2	2.8		
	D3	2.0		
	D4	1.8		
	D5	5.5		

As shown by the box-plot graph (Figure 7), thickness was similar between salinities zero and 07, and between salinities 15 and 35, but significantly different between treatments of these groups (t-test, $p < 0.05$), being higher on the former.

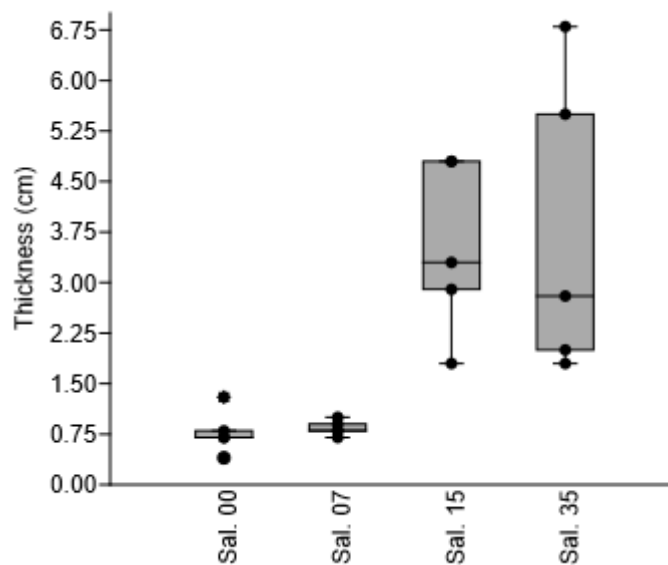


Figure 7– Box plot graph of the maximum biofouling thickness in panels one month after salinity treatments. Each dot represents a measurement. Star represents an outlier.

3.4. DISCUSSION

The present study tested the use of low salinity water for minimizing ships' biofouling in Guanabara Bay, and found lower abundance and biofouling thickness in samples treated with salinities 00 and 07 when compared to salinities 15 and 35.

Of the 19 taxa recorded on the panels, only *Bunudossoma caissarum* is considered native to the study area. All other organisms are introduced or cryptogenic, demonstrating the high degree of invasion to which the hard-bottom communities of Guanabara Bay have been subjected. This pattern was already observed by Oricchio *et al.* (2019), who found a dominance of invasive species on artificial substrata, on several Southeastern Brazilian (Southwestern Atlantic) marinas. Nevertheless, our results, similarly to what Castro *et al.* (2018) found in the temperate Northern Hemisphere (Plymouth, UK), show that the low salinity shock is a viable solution to combat this threat in tropical waters as well.

In Castro *et al.* (2018), low salinities rapidly killed the majority of the macrofouling one week after treatment. The present study also reports differences between panels submitted to lower salinities (00 and 07) one week after treatment, when compared to higher salinities (15 and 35), but it was even greater one month after treatment, when recolonization of open spaces on communities subjected to lower salinities contributed to the formation of these groups. In addition to the

treatments used by Castro *et al.* (2018), the present study also tested the use of freshwater. This was intentionally designed to find whether salinity 7 would be as effective as freshwater to control biofouling, which proved to be true. This result is remarkable, considering that Guanabara Bay is an estuarine environment, subject to both tidal (semi-diurnal) and seasonal salinity fluctuations (SOARES-GOMES *et al.* 2016).

Recruitment on bare spaces and biofilm could be noticed one week after low salinity treatments, and although less thick than control, biofouling recolonization was inevitable one month after these treatments. Thus, the suggestion by Castro *et al.* (2018) to inject low salinity water into niche areas shortly before (2-h) ships leave port to another biogeographic region, could also be implemented in Guanabara Bay. Since treatments with freshwater and salinity 7 presented similar and effective results at killing macrofouling and reducing their thickness, we recommend the use of salinities under 7 for this purpose. Other than a biosecurity tool, this treatment also has the potential to enhance ship's energy efficiency when applied to the hull, by reducing drag caused by thick biofouling. By making the hull more efficient, the ship can decrease fuel consumption and GHG emissions as well. Similarly, lower biofouling thickness also increases vessel maneuverability, thus reducing accident risk when navigating near coastlines or in port channels.

Since the introduction and dissemination of invasive species, resulting in environmental damage may result in civil, criminal and/or administrative penalties, based on Law 9,605/98 and Decree 6,514/08, If there is a risk of contamination of the aquatic environment, IWC should not be authorized in Brazil. Thus, the execution of management activities, without capture and disposal of the cleaning debris, or even the movement of fouled structures, can lead to an administrative infraction procedure for the dissemination of potentially harmful species. Cup corals *Tubastraea coccinea* and *T. tagusensis* are two invasive species of major concern to Brazilian authorities, especially on oil industry infrastructure. These structures are now being routinely managed with freshwater exposure (MOREIRA *et al.*, 2014; CASTRO *et al.*, 2018) to control invasive species. The present study found 13 exotic species in biofouling assemblages from Guanabara Bay, of which four are considered invasive (the anemone *Diadumene lineata*, the ascidian *Styela plicata*, and the polychaetes *Branchiomma luctuosum* and *Hydroides elegans*). Therefore, the development of logistically viable and environmentally friendly techniques to manage biofouling is

essential for the country to abide by its laws and align with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines.

Low salinity water can kill macrobenthos by osmotic shock (MOREIRA *et al.*, 2014; JUDE & DUNPHY, 2017; CASTRO *et al.*, 2018) and practical results confirm its effectiveness in reducing biofouling after voyages that exposed hulls to estuaries or rivers (ARNDT *et al.*, 2021). Vessels can navigate through a low salinity river environment or into a purpose-built freshwater lock in order to eliminate marine fouling organisms *in situ* (INGLIS *et al.* 2012), minimizing costs with dry docking (HADŽIĆ *et al.*, 2022). Nevertheless, research suggests that 7-14 days at anchor may be required to kill all biofouling, and that rapid temperature and salinity variations can trigger spawning in some organisms (INGLIS *et al.*, 2012), what could lead to unwanted delays and new introductions, respectively. The development of low salinity water exposure facilities, for vessels, and devices, for recreational crafts, with waste substances and biofouling capture, may be a solution. Although this study did not aim to evaluate the cost and benefit of such operations, these structures could enable an environmentally and logistically interesting proactive (2-h procedure for biofouling control and prevention) or reactive (>7 days procedure for complete elimination of organisms) cleaning with capture of debris for biofouling management. Perhaps such facilities could be installed close to low salinity water bodies, such as rivers and lagoons, for water capitation, and a minimum 2-h exposure could be foreseen in ship's Biofouling Management Plan for preventing macrofouling development in hull and niche areas, as a proactive IWC method. As for recreational crafts, a longer exposure in order to kill all macrofouling could be performed in conjunction with encapsulation, as a reactive IWC method provided by marinas.

3.5. CONCLUSION

Results show that 2-h exposure to low salinity water (≤ 7 psu) reduced biofouling developed in the tropical waters of Guanabara Bay, Brazil. This treatment could help preventing new introductions by ship's biofouling, acting as an environmentally friendly tool, and improving biosecurity. It also proved to be successful at decreasing biofouling thickness, with potential to improve ship's energy efficiency and maneuverability, while decreasing fuel consumption and greenhouse gas emissions.

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APPENDIX – Supplementary Table

Summary of identified taxons with its' introduction status (NA – Non applicable; N – Native; C – Cryptogenic; D – Detected; E – Established; and I – Invasive) and abundance average and standard deviation (5 replicate panels per salinity treatment - 0, 7, 15, 35), after 3,5 months of biofouling accumulation at 1,5 m depth under the Charitas Naval, Club's deck. Percentage of abundance average difference for samples photographed one day, seven days and thirty days after treatments is presented on the right part of the table.

Taxon		Abundance (Avg. \pm SD, n=5) Before Treatment				% change after 1 day				% change after 7 days				% change after 30 days			
		Sal. 00	Sal. 07	Sal. 15	Sal. 35	Sal. 00	Sal. 07	Sal. 15	Sal. 35	Sal. 00	Sal. 07	Sal. 15	Sal. 35	Sal. 00	Sal. 07	Sal. 15	Sal. 35
<i>Ulva fasciata</i> Delile	C	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0												
<i>Diadumene lineata</i> (Verrill, 1869)	I	0.0	0.2	0.0	1.0 \pm 0.6		100%		-60%		300%		60%		1800%		540%
<i>Obelia dichotoma</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	C	0.0	3.0 \pm 7.8	10.0 \pm 4.4	22.2 \pm 10.3		420%	2%	-44%		67%	-76%	-51%		27%	-14%	-43%
<i>Anthothoe chilensis</i> (Lesson, 1830)	E	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0		-100%				-100%				-100%		
<i>Bunodosoma caissarum</i> Correa, 1964	N	0.0	0.4 \pm 0.0	0.0	0.0		-100%				-100%				-100%		
Recruit Anemone	NA	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0			-100%			200%					100%	
<i>Branchiomma luctuosum</i> Grube, 1870	I	0.2	1.0 \pm 0.7	0.0	0.6 \pm 0.0	0%	-20%		-100%	-100%	-100%		167%	-100%	-60%		33%
<i>Hydroides elegans</i> (Haswell, 1883)	I	9.0 \pm 5.1	7.4 \pm 3.0	6.8 \pm 4.3	10.6 \pm 3.3	29%	16%	91%	-17%	-7%	-14%	115%	-8%	207%	241%	144%	-17%
<i>Amphibalanus amphitrite</i> (Darwin, 1854)	E	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0												
<i>Amphibalanus eburneus</i> (Gould, 1841)	C	1.4	0.8 \pm 0.6	0.2	0.6	-71%	50%	200%	0%	-57%	0%	100%	-33%	43%	325%	700%	133%
<i>Balanus trigonus</i> (Darwin, 1854)	E	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2				-100%				-100%				-100%
Recruit Barnacle	NA	0.0	0.8 \pm 0.0	0.6 \pm 0.7	0.2		125%	-100%	800%		550%	700%	1600%		50%	-33%	0%
<i>Perna viridis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4				-100%				-100%				-100%
Recruit Ostreidae	NA	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0												
<i>Lottia sp.</i>	NA	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0		-100%				-100%				-100%		
<i>Styela plicata</i> (Leseuer, 1823)	I	4.0 \pm 2.7	3.6 \pm 4.0	1.2 \pm 1.4	1.8 \pm 1.7	5%	56%	67%	33%	-100%	-61%	167%	-11%	-100%	-100%	267%	89%
<i>Didemnum perlucidum</i> Monniot, 1983	E	1.8 \pm 2.1	1.0	3.0 \pm 1.7	1.2 \pm 1.4	56%	0%	-40%	-17%	-100%	-100%	0%	317%	-100%	0%	180%	750%
<i>Bugula neritina</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	E	22.4 \pm 13.7	23.8 \pm 9.3	21.4 \pm 9.5	15.4 \pm 3.6	14%	-11%	50%	29%	-70%	19%	-36%	45%	-89%	-67%	-42%	-42%
<i>Bugula stolonifera</i> (Ryland, 1960)	D	39.4 \pm 14.8	36.8 \pm 6.9	34.8 \pm 10.0	27.4 \pm 8.8	-56%	-41%	-52%	-11%	-64%	-40%	-54%	-39%	-63%	-51%	-22%	-15%
Biofilm	NA	8.8 \pm 6.1	12.4 \pm 8.2	19.2 \pm 8.2	14.8 \pm 4.3	23%	-13%	4%	72%	277%	100%	67%	50%	230%	116%	-20%	53%
Empty space	NA	12.2 \pm 4.8	6.6 \pm 3.8	1.4 \pm 1.2	1.0 \pm 0.6	-23%	-3%	-57%	20%	-64%	-45%	271%	100%	-46%	-9%	-57%	-80%

CAPÍTULO 4 – ARTIGO: SUGESTÃO DE REGRAMENTO OBRIGATÓRIO PARA A GESTÃO DA BIOINCRUSTAÇÃO POR EMBARCAÇÕES NO BRASIL

Suggestion of a Brazilian Mandatory Policy for the Management of Ship's Biofouling

ABSTRACT

Since there are no treaties to regulate the management of ship's biofouling (e.g., IMO's Biofouling Guideline and Guidance are voluntary), New Zealand, South Africa and the United States have developed their own mandatory national policies. In Brazil, only O&G platforms are under certain regulation as for the environmental licensing process. Additionally, there are no regulations regarding in-water cleaning (IWC), which contribute to increase uncertainties to the maritime industry. The present study aims to discuss the subject and propose a mandatory national standard for the Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA). Main topics of IMO Biofouling Guidelines and Recreational Craft Guidance, NZ's CRMS, and the US VGP and California Code of Regulation Art. 4.8 were compared, and a conclusion aligned to the Brazilian specificities was drafted. Our proposal resembles NZ's CRMS, with the main differences being (1) the addition of a 'particular situation' item, where the Brazilian coastline is subdivided into three Marine Biogeographic Regions, and, depending on the total length of the ship, different requirements must be attended before crossing them; and (2) the absence of a 'clean hull' requirement, due to the possibility to increase IWC in Brazilian waters, leading to higher chances of species introductions. If of interest by the BMA, we suggest this proposal to be submitted to public consultation and a 4-year *vaccacio legis* for feedback and adaptation by the maritime industry before entering into force. Finally, we recommend this standard to improve biosecurity by ships together with the Ballast Water Management, as a multivector approach.

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In order to control and minimize bioinvasions mediated by ships, the International Maritime Organization (IMO), through its Marine Environment Protection Committee (MEPC), adopted the International Convention for the Control and Management of Ship's Ballast Water and Sediments (BWM Convention, BWM/CONF/36), in 2004; the Guidelines for the Control and Management of Ships' Biofouling to Minimize the Transfer of Invasive Aquatic Species (IMO Biofouling Guidelines, Resolution MEPC.207(62)), in 2011; and the Guidance for Minimizing the Transfer of Invasive Aquatic Species as Biofouling (Hull Fouling) for recreational Craft (IMO Biofouling Guidance for Recreational Craft) (MEPC.1/Circ792), in 2012. Additionally, the International Convention on the Control of Harmful Anti-Fouling Systems on Ships (the AFS Convention) (AFS/CONF/26, 2001) entered into force in 2008 to ban the use of organotin compounds such as tributyltin (TBT), which causes ecological disturbances in non-target organisms, including pseudohermaphroditism (known as imposex) in gastropods (BEYER *et al.*, 2022). Since January 1st, 2023, Cybutryne (Irgarol-1051) was also included in the list of banned compounds (RESOLUTION MEPC.331(76), adopted on 17 June 2021). Although the intent of the AFS Convention is not to prevent new introductions, it is related to the theme, since AFS is widely used to slow down biofouling development on ship's hull and niche areas.

Since the Biofouling Guidelines for vessels and recreational crafts are voluntary instruments, they do not provide specific international standards for the regulation of biofouling management (PPR 9/INF.24, 2022). To do so, national and subnational policies have been developed and implemented to regulate biofouling management unilaterally. These regulations in principle share the same goal: to mitigate risks associated with the transfer of invasive aquatic species (IAS) and manage the environmental risks of cleaning vessel's submerged surfaces. According to the "Compilation and comparative analysis of existing and emerging regulations, standards and practices related to ships' biofouling management" (PPR 9/INF.24, 2022), commissioned by the Global Industry Alliance (GIA) for Marine Biosafety, there are five national biofouling policies implemented so far, the ones from: Australia, Chile, New Zealand, South Africa and the United States – of which the last three are mandatory. Australia national policy has a combination of mandatory requirements

(BIOSECURITY ACT, 2015) and voluntary guidelines, and since 15 June 2022, new mandatory requirements are in force (MPSC, 2022).

Of the fully mandatory national policies, New Zealand and the US (especially the state of California) have more complex standards when compared to South Africa, which only requires reporting when a ship is seeking to perform In-Water Cleaning (IWC). In this case, a submission of the ship-specific Biofouling Management Plan (BFMP), in-line with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines, is required (TNPA, 2018). The US policy requires a BFMP in accordance with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines and the California Biofouling Regulations (CSLC, 2018), as well as a notice of intent to discharge pollutants to the water, when seeking IWC. The US Vessel General Permit (VGP) demands a description on how ships managed the biofouling during dry docking, and its submission to the Environment Protection Agency - EPA (VGP, 2013). Additionally, it also requires a ship inspection every 12 months, covering the hull and niche areas for biofouling, AFS conditions and exposed TBT.

To align with the New Zealand's Craft Risk Management Standard (CRMS), vessels should (1) clean all biofouling within 30 days prior to arriving in NZ or clean it within 24 h of arrival, or (2) provide continual maintenance using best practices (e.g. following the IMO Guidelines), or (3) apply for an alternative biofouling management (CRMS, 2018). The 'clean hull' requirement allows some types of biofouling depending on how long the vessel plans to stay in NZ waters. In addition to presenting details, reports and certifications, such as the ones suggested by the IMO Biofouling Guidelines (AFS Certificate, BFMP and the Biofouling Record Book - BFRB), a submission of relevant information prior to arrival is also required, including: Intended length of stay and places to be visited; whether the ship remained stationary in a single location for extended periods; intention of proceeding with IWC on arrival; measures taken to meet the CRMS requirements; and if the ship is up to date with its BFMP (CRMS, 2018).

Since 15 June 2022, new mandatory requirements were adopted for managing biofouling on international vessels arriving in Australia, with an education-first approach until 15 December 2023 (MPSC, 2022). These requirements include providing information through the Maritime Arrivals Reporting System (MARS) on how biofouling has been managed prior to arriving in Australian territorial seas. If vessel operators (1) implemented an effective biofouling management plan; or (2) cleaned all biofouling within 30 days prior to arriving in Australian waters; or (3) implemented an

alternative biofouling management method pre-approved by the Australian Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry, they will receive less intervention when applying for entrance into Australian territorial seas (MPSC, 2022).

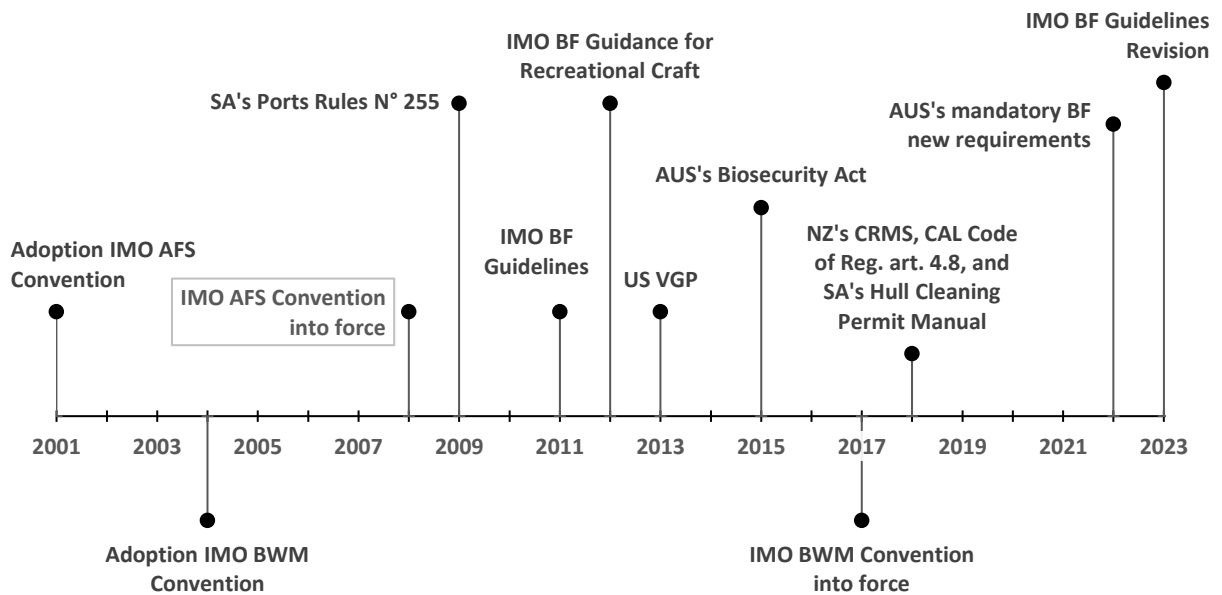


Figure 1 – Timeline of the International Maritime Organization initiatives to prevent bioinvasion mediated by ships (including the AFS Convention for being related to the theme) and the cited national and subnational (California) mandatory biofouling management standards (SA = South Africa, US = United States of America, NZ = New Zealand, and CAL = California).

Currently, to the authors knowledge, no mandatory rule on ships' biofouling management has been published in Brazil yet. Although the federal law n° 9,605 of February 12th of 1998 (BRAZIL, 1998) and its regulatory decree n° 6,514 of July 22nd of 2008 (BRAZIL, 2008) forbade the release of species that could harm the environment, there are no specific regulation from environmental bodies, nor the Maritime Authority concerning Biofouling Management specifically for ships to prevent the introduction and spread of IAS. Concerning oil and gas platforms, Brazilian National Environmental bodies (Environment Ministry – MMA, Brazilian Institute for the Environment and Natural Resources – IBAMA, and Chico Mendes Institute for Conservation of the Biodiversity – ICMBio) published the Brazilian National Plan for the Prevention, Control and Monitoring of the Sun-Coral (*Tubastraea* spp.), in 2018 (BRAZIL, 2018). This document aims to present a diagnosis on the invasion of sun coral in Brazil, including their distribution, biology and ecology; impacts, control and

eradication; and main national and international experiences. IBAMA also demands the development and implementation of a Project for the Prevention and Control of Invasive Exotic Species (PPCEX) as a condition for obtaining the environmental license. Additionally, MMA is finalizing an Early Detection and Rapid Response Plan for Invasive Alien Species (BRAZIL, 2023). Yet, the lack of regulation regarding biofouling IWC raises juridical insecurity to the maritime sector regarding to the possibility to perform IWC, where to perform and methods allowed.

The Maritime Authority Standard on Water Pollution caused by Ships, Platforms and its Support Installations (NORMAM-20/Directorate of Ports and Coasts - DPC, 3rd Revision), in its second chapter addresses the Ballast Water Management on Ships (internalizing the BWM Convention), and in the third chapter bans the use of harmful substances from antifouling coatings (internalizing the AFS Convention), where it highlights the obligation of disposing all captured AFS waste and biological material released during cleaning activities in an environmentally appropriate manner. Thus, a chapter focused on the Management of Ship's Biofouling would be expected in the NORMAM-20/DPC in future revisions (personal observation). In such context, the present work proposes a mandatory national standard for the Management of Ship's Biofouling, based on Brazil's intrinsic characteristics.

This study is presented here as a suggestion to the Brazilian Maritime Authority (BMA) and does not represent the intentions of any of the Authorities mentioned before, but simply the authors' understanding of an effective mandatory regulation to prevent new introductions via ship's biofouling.

4.2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

In order to develop a proposal document in accordance with national and international biofouling management standards, the main topics of the following policies were compared, and a conclusion aligned to the Brazilian specificities was designed:

- IMO Biofouling Guidelines (Resolution MEPC.207(62)) and Recreational Craft Guidance (MEPC.1/Circ792);
- New Zealand's CRMS (CRMS, 2018); and
- US VGP (VGP, 2013) and California Code of Regulation Art. 4.8 (CSLC, 2018).

The Australian guidelines for commercial (MPSC, 2009a) and recreational vessels (MPSC, 2009b), and the Australian biofouling management requirements (MPSC, 2022), as well as the Baltic and International Maritime Council and International Chamber of Shipping standard on IWC with capture (BIMCO & ICS, 2021) and recent scientific study on the efficacy of such systems (TAMBURRI *et al.*, 2020 and 2021), were taken into consideration as background references.

4.3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To meet recommendations provided in the IMO Biofouling Guidelines and Recreational Craft Guidance, and considering Brazilian regional specificities, the appendix of this manuscript brings the full proposal text of a mandatory regulation for the management of ship's biofouling to minimize the introduction of IAS in Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters (BJW).

According to legal provisions expressed in Complementary Law n° 140 of 2011 (BRAZIL, 2011), oil and gas platforms subject to licensing process must comply with the requirements determined by the licensing body, which may request biofouling management. Thus, the proposed text does not include this type of vessels / civil engineering structures.

As general requirements the proposal standard suggests that crafts up to 24 meters in length follow the biofouling management actions provided by the IMO Recreational Craft Guidance, and ships over 24 meters in length shall manage its biofouling as the IMO Biofouling Guidelines. It is also allowed the use of other international practices, whose methodologies are recognized and have proven to be environmentally safe, after approval by the DPC. In any case, proportions accounted, these vessels must keep record of the management actions taken as evidence for future inspections. The use of an AFS/Marine Growth Prevention System (MGPS) is required for vessels applied to this standard, considering the list of banned harmful substances presented by chapter 3 of the NORMAM-20/DPC (TBT and Cybutryne). The ship's total length was used as a reference to determine which biofouling management rule a ship must attend since it is an indication of the surface available for larvae to settle, and the 24 m total length threshold was defined based on the IMO's Biofouling Guidance for recreational crafts, which aims at recreational crafts less than

24 m in length. Thus, with this criteria in mind, we decided to separate biofouling management rules between crafts up to 24 m and ships over this size.

Following the Brazilian Ballast Water Standard (chapter 2 of the NORMAM-20/DPC) and as usually set in international treaties, warships, auxiliary ship of the Navy or any other ship owned or operated by a State and used only in government non-commercial services do not apply to this biofouling management standard. Neither do vessels that have never entered other jurisdictional waters, or that have not done so since the last cleaning/biofouling management measure, duly registered in the vessel's Biofouling Record Book (BFRB), and considered compliant, provided they are not included in the particular situation item, as detailed further ahead. Any other vessels that will anchor, moor and/or dock, after a trip originating outside BJW, or that intent to transpose different marine biogeographic regions within Brazilian coastline, shall comply with this standard.

Since Brazil has more than 10,000 kilometers of coastline extension (BRAZIL, 2021) with different areas of endemism (CORD *et al.*, 2022), thus being subjected to introductions within its territory, we suggest dividing the coastline into three different Marine Biogeographic Regions and treating them as different jurisdictions, as follows:

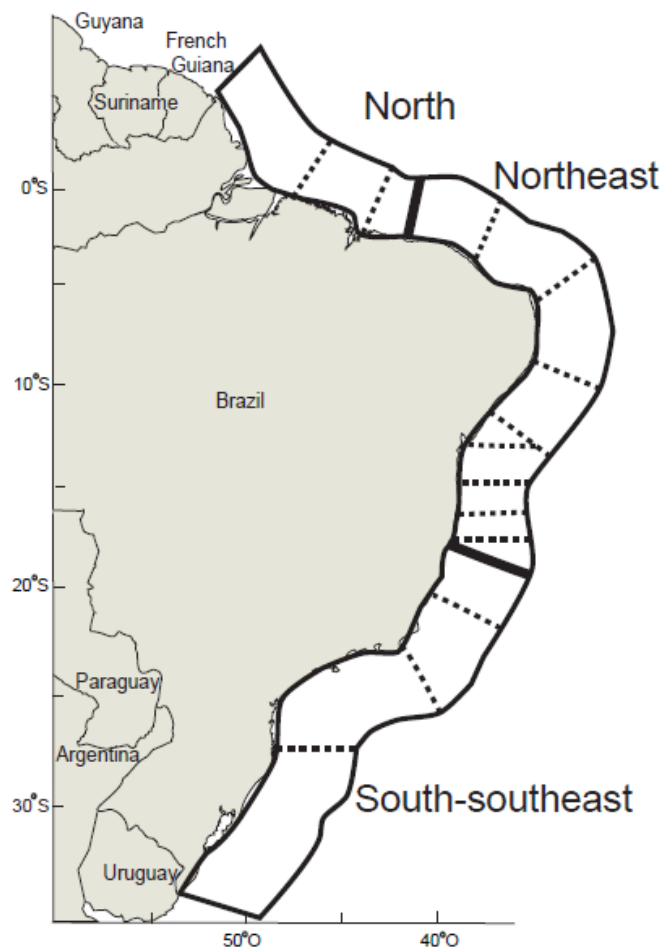


Figure 2 – Brazilian coast separated in three different biogeographic regions, according to article 4.4. Particular Situations, of the suggested standard (see appendix).

- North Biogeographic Region - area from the Foz do Amazonas Marine Basin to the Barreirinhas Marine Basin;
- Northeast Biogeographic Region - area from the Ceará Marine Basin to the Mucuri Marine Basin; and
- Southeast-South Biogeographic Region - area from the Espírito Santo Marine Basin to the Pelotas Marine Basin.

To select these regions we took into consideration the five biogeographic regions described by Cord *et al.* (2022) and the main oil and gas production marine basins (Campos and Santos) and routes taken by supply vessels to attend these basins. Additionally, we tried to make Biogeographic Regions as large as possible so the O&G and domestic shipping are not severely impacted, and still take the necessary actions toward preventing introductions between these areas of endemism. Considering this, the following natural barriers to hard substratum benthic organisms were used as markers to subdivide the Brazilian coast: (1) reef type transition from rocky

shores to the Barreiras Formation (sedimentary deposit) between the Southeast-South and the Northeast Biogeographic Regions; and (2) the Amazonas River Mouth as a major low salinity barrier, specially to larvae, between the Northeast and North Biogeographic Regions.

Particular Situation stipulates that when transposing Marine Biogeographic Regions, vessels must, depending on their size, attend the following requirements:

a) Crafts up to 24 m in length: Crafts that remain stationary, moored or anchored, for more than 30 days (> 30d) must remove existing biofouling from the hulls and niche areas prior to the transpose. Only the presence of biofilm/slime is allowed after cleaning. Such procedures must be registered in a record book and kept on board for future inspection.

b) Ships over 24 m in length: Must foresee voyages between different Marine Biogeographic Regions in their Risk Assessments and take actions compatible with the level of risk represented by its' biofouling to the destination, as recommended in their BFMP, prior to the transpose. When stationary, berthed or anchored for > 30d, in addition to the aforementioned actions, the vessel must issue inspection / cleaning reports of the hull and niche areas that show the degree of biofouling of the ship immediately before carrying out the transpose. Such procedures and evidences must be recorded in a BFRB and kept on board.

As information requirements, before arriving in BJW or traveling to a different Brazilian Marine Biogeographical Region, vessels must provide to the Maritime Authority Agent of the jurisdiction of the port of destination, if applicable, the precise location where the vessel passed through a stationary period (> 30d); and the intention to perform reactive IWC in BJW. In order to perform IWC, all the necessary authorizations/licenses and formal agreements with the interested parties must be sent and kept on board.

The surveillance carried out by the Maritime Authority Agent must verify the compliance with this standard during the vessel dispatch process and during the Port State Control inspections. In addition to the information provided prior to arrival, during the inspections, crafts up to 24 m in length shall present records of the last cleaning activities, including where it was carried out, cleaned areas of the craft and the methods used; as well as AFS/MGPS used in different areas of the craft, with their application dates, product name and expiration dates. If applicable, the International AFS Declaration should also be available for inspection. It is suggested to keep a diagram

of the craft, indicating the biofouling management strategies of the main niche areas. In the case of ships longer than 24 m, it must present the latest Cleaning Reports, showing the state of the different areas of the hull and niche areas after cleaning, as well as the BFMP and the BFRB, according to the minimum content defined in the Annex B of the proposal (see appendix). If applicable, ships must also present the latest International AFS Certificate or International AFS Declaration. At the discretion of the Maritime Authority Agent, biofouling samples, photographic and/or video records may be collected from the vessel's hull and/or niche areas for taxonomic verification of possible organisms with invasive potential identified.

Since the revised Biofouling Guidelines were recently finalized by the 10th session of the IMO's sub-committee on Pollution Prevention and Response (PPR 10), for adoption by the MEPC, and it was decided that comprehensive testing of IWC systems is necessary to understand the cleaning performance, capture efficiency and release of harmful waste substances, we suggest a four-year *vacatio legis* between publication and non-compliance penalization for the industry to adequate to upcoming developments. It is also advised that the standard should be made available for public consultation, assuring interested parties' observations are considered before publishing the final version.

As for the administrative process, we recommend a similar design to the one used for the ballast water management non-compliances, which is based on the regulatory decree n° 6,514/2008 (BRAZIL, 2008).

Comparing the mandatory standards of the United States, New Zealand and the proposed one for Brazil, we highlight three topics: (1) Application, (2) General requirements, and (3) Verification/Inspection (table 1). From such comparison is possible to notice how the Craft Risk Management Standard – Biofouling on Vessels arriving to New Zealand (CRMS, 2018) influenced our proposal, as well as the Australian standard (MPSC, 2009^a; 2009^b; 2022), for being relatively similar to the former. This choice was based on the level of restriction of their standards and the experience with the theme by the New Zealander (INGLIS *et al.*, 2010; BELL *et al.*, 2011; GEORGIADES *et al.*, 2020) and Australian (HEWITT *et al.*, 1996, 2001, 2011) groups (HAYES *et al.*, 2019), who share the Brazilian concern when dealing with bioinvasion in highly biodiverse ecosystems. Brazil is considered one of the most biodiverse nations, with the highest levels of endemism, as one of the top 17 megadiverse countries (WCMC, 2020). Additionally, the country's large and complex

coastline represents the source of different areas of endemism (CORD *et al.*, 2022). For this reason, the main difference between our proposal and New Zealand's standard is the subdivision of the Brazilian coastline into three Marine Biogeographic Regions. This means these areas are treated as different jurisdictions, and so, vessels must perform biofouling management, as per the risk assessment and BFMP, according to the Regions they intend to navigate.

New Zealand requires a 'clean hull' at the arrival, or that the cleaning is provided within 24 h after arrival. Cleaning can be performed in water or through dry docking. An alternative is to comply with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines or to suggest another option, which must be approved by the Ministry for Primary Industries (MPI). For the Brazilian standard we suggest the adoption of the best practices described in the IMO Biofouling Guidelines and Guidance or the submission to the BMA technical Directorate (DPC) of an alternative biofouling management. We did not include a 'clean hull' requirement due to the possibility to increase IWC in Brazilian waters. We believe that with more IWC the chances of new introductions also increase, and we fear the conditions to perform a comprehensive surveillance would be compromised.

Table 1 - Comparative table of the main topics of the biofouling mandatory standards of the United States, New Zealand, and the current proposal for the Brazilian rule.

	US	NZ	BR
Vessels Applied	All vessels 300 gross registered tons or above that carry or are capable of carrying ballast water.	All vessels (commercial and recreational) entering NZ after a voyage originating from another state's jurisdictional.	The same application as NZ, and when vessels need to cross between different Marine Biogeographic Regions within BJW.
General Requirements	US Coast Guard (USCG) requires BFMP (IMO Guidelines and California Regulations provide the basis for the plan); VGP (2013) requires submission of a Notice of intent to discharge pollutants into the waters of the US for IWC; VGP also requires that dry docking reports (describing how biofouling has been managed) be made available to the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA).	Documentation prior to arrival include: intended length of stay and places to visit; if the ship has had any extended periods stationary in a single location; intention to IWC on arrival in NZ, measures to meet NZ requirements; and if management plan is in place. To comply with the standards, vessels must: Arrive with a 'clean hull' (according to biofouling thresholds related to the length of stay in NZ), cleaning must be carried out less than 30 days before arrival or within 24 hours after arrival; or Follow the IMO Guidelines best practices; or Dry dock for cleaning.	Documentation prior to arrival include: if the vessel has passed through 31 days or more stationary (provide the specific location); and if the vessel intends to IWC in BJW (provide licensing / authorization and contracts with interested parties). To comply with the standard, depending on the size, vessels must: Up to 24m in length: Comply with IMO Biofouling Guidance for Recreational Craft; Over 24m in length: Comply with IMO Biofouling Guidelines; or Submit an alternative practice to the BMA for evaluation, at least one week prior to arrival. All vessels must make use of AFS and/or MGPS.
Verification/ Inspection	VGP requires ship inspection every 12 months. Inspections must cover ship's hull and niche areas, for fouling organisms, flaking antifouling paint and/or exposed TBT. If inspections reveal deficiencies, the shipowner must take corrective action.	Information that must be held on board for verification includes AFS and MGPS, if ship applies the IMO Guidelines (BFMP and BFRB), AFS international certificate or declaration and Report of the last hull inspection.	Information that must be held on board for verification includes the ones related to AFS and MGPS, BFMP, BFRB (or equivalent, in the case of other best practices approved by the BMA), inspection and cleaning reports, including evidence related to requirements concerning crossing Marine Biogeographic Regions (Particular Situations – item 4.4.). PSC Inspectors may collect biofouling samples for taxonomic identification.

Regulating IWC was out of our proposal scope since we understand that regulating, controlling, and penalizing non-compliances related to IWC are attributes of the Environmental bodies, as a potentially polluting activity, thus being subjected to environmental licensing/authorization (BRAZIL, 1981; 2011). Nevertheless, we believe some recommendations/observations for an IWC standard for ships should incorporate

the following concepts: (1) Reactive IWC should not be seen as a routine biofouling management practice, but only when necessary, since it has the potential to promote the very problem the IMO Biofouling Guidelines try to avoid, if not done properly – with the right equipment and personnel, high standards capture, in a low risk area, and after the dispatch of an environmental license/authorization; (2) Reactive IWC should be avoided when close to hard natural or artificial substratum, in order to prevent propagule/larvae settlement that may be released during cleaning, if not captured. This also applies to ships anchored close to or moored in a port/terminal, since these areas could become hubs for IAS spread. When performing reactive IWC in these locations, in addition to inspection and cleaning reports, we recommend environmental/port authorities to demand prior and post cleaning monitoring reports of the area; (3) Proactive IWC (microfouling/slime layer/biofilm) outside the 12 nautic miles may be allowed with a simplified licensing/authorization, or with a note of information. It is encouraged here the use of in-transit cleaning technologies, similarly to the D-1 standard for Ballast Water concept that allows ballast water management by exchanging coastal with oceanic water during voyage, the vessel would clean the hull, preventing biofilm formation, in oceanic waters, during the voyage; and finally, (4) no IWC should be allowed in or close to any Aquatic or Coastal Conservation Units. Proposed guidelines for testing ship biofouling IWC systems are emerging (PPR 10/5, 2023) and should provide new information concerning IWC systems' capture rate and technology development in the near future.

It is important to highlight that other than preventing new introductions and possible bioinvasions, initiatives related to biofouling management have positive impacts on energy efficiency, since biofouling causes speed reduction through increase in hull drag and weight, and thus, increase in fuel consumption and Green House Gases (GHG) emissions per transport work. GHG emissions reduction is also a target pursued by the IMO, with the ambition to reduce total annual GHG emissions from international shipping by at least 50% by 2050 compared to 2008 (MEPC.304(72), 2018). According to the 2021 revised MARPOL Annex VI, since 1 January 2023 it is mandatory for all ships to calculate their attained Energy Efficiency Existing Ship Index (EEXI) to measure their energy efficiency and to initiate the collection of data for the reporting of their annual operational carbon intensity indicator (CII) and CII rating, showing the international concern in reducing carbon emissions. Thus, the adoption of a mandatory biofouling management policy is an important step forward in signaling

Brazil's commitment to ensure an ecologically balanced environment, for present and future generations, as evoked by article 225 of the Brazilian Federal Constitution (BRAZIL, 1988).

4.4. CONCLUSION

Our proposal is aligned with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines and Guidance for Recreational Crafts and also according to already in force national biofouling policies. Since Brazil is a huge country, with continental dimensions, we highlight the need to consider the coast according to the Marine Biogeographic Regions, as proposed by CORD *et al.* (2022) and here modified to adequate to this proposal, in order to prevent bioinvasions not only from other States' jurisdictions, but also from different areas of endemism within the country.

We believe that after taking inputs of different stakeholders through rounds of public consultation, this proposal could fit the Brazilian needs for a mandatory standard on Biofouling Management for ships and recreational crafts and hope our suggestions can be of use for the Maritime and Port Authorities and Environmental bodies of Brazil and other States.

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APPENDIX – PROPOSAL TEXT

BRAZILIAN MANDATORY STANDARD FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF SHIPS' BIOFOULING

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2011, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) published the “Guidelines for the Control and Management of Ships' Biofouling to Minimize the Transfer of Invasive Aquatic Species” through resolution MEPC.207(62), hereinafter referred to as the “IMO Biofouling Guidelines” or simply “Guidelines”, with a revision scheduled for ten years after the first edition (PPR 9/WP.1/Rev.1). The purpose of the Guidelines is to guide a globally consistent approach to the management of biofouling by providing useful advice on general measures for all types of ships to minimize bioinvasion risks associated with biofouling.

The Guidelines address the need to carry out inspections and biofouling removal from ships, with a frequency defined according to the risk that a given vessel has of disseminating non-native aquatic species. The risk is determined through the evaluation of several factors, such as: the biofouling composition on the hull and in niche areas; the ship's operating profile; places visited; type of AFS used; between others. Therefore, in possession of a specific Risk Assessment for each ship, an inspection regime can be determined, which in turn will determine the need to carry out cleaning, as an important measure to prevent the introduction of invasive aquatic species (IAS). Cleaning can be proactive or reactive. As the names suggest, proactive cleaning is a preventive measure, while reactive cleaning is corrective. The first is usually performed in water (In-Water Cleaning - IWC), when the hull has light biofouling, and the removal of slime/biofilm presents a lower risk of bioinvasion. Reactive cleaning, on the other hand, is configured as a reaction to the high risk that constitutes the presence of macrofouling in the hull and niche areas of the vessel. It can be carried out in water, if the risk to the environment where the cleaning is planned is low, or in a dry dock, when the logistics are favorable or the risk of bioinvasion is such that this measure is indispensable. The Guidelines also provide recommendations on the rates of waste capture during IWC, both biological - from biofouling, and chemical - released by the antifouling coating, with the aim of minimizing the risk of dissemination of IAS and the concentration of toxic substances from AFS.

Similarly, the IMO published, on November 12, 2012, the “Guidance for minimizing the transfer of invasive aquatic species as biofouling (hull fouling) for recreational craft” (MEPC.1/Circ.792), called throughout this chapter as the “Guidance for Recreational Craft” or simply “Guidance”. The Guidance recommends best practices for crafts up to 24 meters in length, in a Q&A format, with strategies similar to those outlined in the Guidelines, but considering the different particularities of sport and recreational crafts. According to the Guidance, these crafts must maintain records of the actions taken to manage biofouling, the last application of antifouling systems, inspections and notes on the efficiency of the systems used. A diagram of the craft is also planned, indicating the different niche areas and the respective strategies used to avoid biofouling in these areas.

Seeking to meet the recommendations of the IMO Guidelines and Guidance, and taking into account the Brazilian specificities, this document aims to standardize the management of vessel’s biofouling, in order to minimize the introduction of IAS in Brazilian Jurisdictional Waters (BJW). Finally, it should be noted that, in accordance with the legal provision expressed in Complementary Law 140 of 2011, platforms, subject to the licensing process, must comply with the requirements determined by the licensing body.

2. GENERAL PROVISIONS

2.1. Application

This standard applies to vessels that will anchor, moor and/or dock in BJW, after a trip originating outside the area of Brazilian jurisdiction. This chapter shall not apply to:

- a) Any warship, auxiliary ship of the Navy or any other ship owned or operated by a State and used, by the time being, only in government non-commercial service; and
- b) Vessels that have never entered other jurisdictional waters, or that have not done so since the last cleaning/biofouling management measure, duly registered in the vessel’s biofouling record book, and were considered compliant, provided that they are not included in the particular situations in article 4.

Regardless of whether or not subjected to the requirements of this standard, all vessels shall strive to prevent the discharge of harmful waste substances from the Antifouling System (AFS) and the release of biofouling debris during inspection and cleaning actions.

2.2. Exceptions

Exceptions are emergency or particular situations that do not require the management of biofouling in terms of this standard.

The following situations are considered exceptions and must be communicated to the Maritime Authority Agent with jurisdiction over the port of destination:

- a) Cases of force majeure or emergency, to safeguard the safety of human life and/or the vessel;
- b) Need to fail to comply with the provisions of the Particular Situations of article 4 to ensure the safety of a vessel and the people on board, when in emergency situations or saving human life at sea; and
- c) Accidental release of non-native species as biofouling into the environment, resulting from an incident, accident or fact of navigation, unless this is due to negligence, malpractice or recklessness of the person responsible for the vessel.

2.3. Missing cases

Cases not provided by these general provisions shall be sent to the Directorate of Ports and Coasts (DPC) for evaluation.

3. BIOFOULING MANAGEMENT REQUIREMENTS

3.1 General Requirements

According to the different size classes of the vessel, the following measures must be adopted:

- a) Crafts up to 24 meters in length: Comply with the requirements set out by the IMO Biofouling Guidance for recreational Crafts, maintaining supporting documents on board. An adapted version of the Guidance can be found in Annex A.

b) Ships over 24 meters in length: Comply with the IMO Biofouling Guidelines, maintaining supporting documents on board, respecting the minimum content shown in Annex B.

or

c) Comply with other international practices, whose methodologies are recognized and have proven efficiency in the environmentally adequate removal of biofouling, provided that the methodology used is submitted to the DPC for evaluation, at least one week before the arrival of the vessel, according to item 2.3.

3.2. Information Requirements

Before arriving in BJW or traveling to a different marine biogeographical region (as defined in the Particular Situations and Annex C), the agents, operators or responsible for the vessel must provide the Maritime Authority Agent of the jurisdiction of the port of destination the following information, when applicable:

a) If the vessel has spent any prolonged period (31 days or more) stationary in the water in a single port/anchoring region, identify the location (country, region/state, city, port/anchoring, and geographic coordinates); and

b) If the ship intends to undergo reactive IWC to remove biofouling in BJW, present authorizations/licenses and formal agreements established to carry out this service.

3.3. Requirement on the use of Antifouling Systems

Vessels to which this standard applies must make use of an Antifouling System (AFS)/Marine Growth Prevention Systems (MGPSs), in accordance with Annex E of the NORMAM-20/DPC.

4. PARTICULAR SITUATIONS

4.1. Navigation between distinct Marine Biogeographical Regions

Taking into account the broad Brazilian coastline and its biotic and abiotic specificities, Annex C defines three distinct marine biogeographic regions along the Brazilian coast.

Depending on the size class of the vessel, different actions are foreseen for the displacement between such regions:

a) Crafts up to 24 meters in length: Crafts that remain stationary, moored or anchored, for 31 days or more must remove existing biofouling from the hulls and niche areas prior to displacement, only the presence of biofilm/slime are allowed after the cleaning. Such procedures must be recorded and kept on board, as instructed in Annex A.

b) Ships over 24 meters in length: Must foresee the crossing between different biogeographical regions in their Risk Assessments and take actions compatible with the level of risk presented, as recommended in their Biofouling Management Plans, prior to the trip. When stationary, berthed or anchored for 31 days or more, in addition to the aforementioned actions, the vessel must issue inspection/cleaning reports of the hull and niche areas that show the degree of biofouling of the ship immediately before carrying out the crossing. Such procedures and evidences must be recorded and kept on board, following the minimum content of Annex B.

5. SURVEILLANCE

The surveillance carried out by the naval inspection is an essential component of Biofouling Management and, as such, must be based on the adopted management regime, and be consistent with international practice.

5.1. Control

5.1.2. Naval Inspection

The Maritime Authority Agents must verify compliance with this standard during the vessel dispatch process and/or by carrying out Naval Inspections on Brazilian and foreign vessels.

The following documents must be kept on the vessel and may be subject to verification by the Maritime Authority Agent, in addition to the information provided prior to arrival:

a) In the case of crafts up to 24 meters in length: Records of the last cleaning activities of the craft, mentioning the place where it was carried out, cleaned areas of the craft and the

method used; Antifouling systems used in different areas of the craft, as well as application dates, product name and expiration date. And, if applicable, the International Antifouling System Declaration. It is advisable to keep a diagram of the craft, indicating the biofouling management strategies of the main niche areas;

b) In the case of ships over 24 meters in length: Latest Cleaning Reports, showing the state of the different areas of the hull and niche areas after cleaning, as well as the Biofouling Management Plan (BFMP) and the Biofouling Record Book (BFRB), according to the minimum content defined in the Annex B. If applicable, the latest International Antifouling System Certificate or International Antifouling System Declaration.

At the discretion of the Maritime Authority Agent, biofouling samples, photographic and/or video records may be collected from the vessel's hull and/or niche areas for taxonomic verification of possible organisms with invasive potential identified.

5.1.3. Instruments for the implementation

5.1.3.1. Penalties and Sanctions

The penalties and sanctions dealt in this standard come into force four years after its publication.

Any violation of the prescriptions of this standard is prohibited within the BJW, and sanctions shall be established in accordance with national laws. When this occurs, the Maritime Authority Agent must initiate an administrative procedure in accordance with the national legislation, and may also take measures to warn, detain or prohibit the vessel from entering the port or terminal.

The sanctions applied for non-compliance with the requirements of this standard will be determined according to the seriousness of the infraction, consistent with the other penalties used in international navigation and in accordance with the values established in Decree N° 6,514, of July 22, 2008.

5.2. Jurisdiction

5.2.1. Maritime Authority Agents

It is incumbent upon the Maritime Authority Agents (Art. 70, §1 of Law N° 9,605/1998) to draw up notices of environmental infraction and initiate administrative proceedings.

5.2.2. Director of Ports and Coasts (DPC)

It is incumbent upon the DPC, as REPRESENTATIVE OF THE MARITIME AUTHORITY FOR THE ENVIRONMENT, to judge, in the last instance, appeals on fines applied in connection with non-compliance with this standard.

ANNEX A

ADAPTED IMO GUIDANCE FOR RECREATIONAL CRAFT

1 - HOW CAN BIOFOILING BE MINIMIZED?

If your craft is normally kept in the water (regardless of whether it is towable or not), a proper antifouling coating system and good maintenance is the best way to prevent biofouling build up. If you regularly operate between marine and fresh water, this can help to reduce the build up of biofouling (many marine species do not survive in fresh or brackish water and vice-versa), however, a good maintenance regime is still essential.

2 - IS THERE AN ANTI-FOULING COATING SYSTEM THAT WORKS FOR ALL CRAFTS?

Different antifouling coating systems suit different purposes and activities. When choosing an antifouling coating system, you should seek expert advice and consider:

- planned periods between dry docking or maintenance - to ensure that the coating is effective for that period of time;
- vessel speed and usage patterns - biofouling can build up quickly when crafts are stationary or idle in port or coastal waters;
- construction material (steel, wood, aluminum, etc.) - systems are specific to different hull materials; and
- location to be applied on the vessel - different types of coating may be required for different parts of the hull or structure, such as around the propeller shaft or rudders, due to water flow conditions.

Antifouling coating systems are subject to legal requirements and it is recommended that these requirements be considered when purchasing an antifouling coating system. For example, chapter 3 of NORMAM-20/DPC prohibits the use of antifouling paints that contain TBT – tributyltin and/or cibutrin.

3 - HOW CAN BIOFOULING BE MINIMIZED IN NICHE AREAS?

Niche areas are parts of a vessel that are particularly susceptible to biofouling growth due to different water flow conditions, exposure of the antifouling coating system to wear or damage, or areas that may be improperly coated. Niche areas can include:

- propellers, thrusters and/or propulsion units;
- rudder hinges;
- rope protectors, stern tube seals and transmission shafts;
- apertures or free flooding spaces;
- outlets, inlets, cooling pipes and grates;
- anodes;
- anchors, anchor wells, chains and chain lockers; and
- echo sounders and probes.

Biofouling in niche areas of your craft can be minimized by ensuring an appropriate antifouling coating system, including the entrances to inlet and discharge pipes, rudder fixtures, bow and stern thrusters, propellers and shafts (unless polished), rope cutters, etc.

When hauling out and applying an antifouling system, you need to make sure that you change the positions of blocks or slings to ensure these areas are also coated.

Some niche areas are not protected by an anti-fouling coating system, e.g. anodes. You can minimize biofouling associated with these anodes if they are flush-fitted, or a rubber backing pad is inserted between the anode and the hull, or the gap is caulked. Otherwise, you need to ensure that the hull under the anode and its strap has an antifouling coating system suitable for low water flow. If your anodes are attached by recessed bolts, then the recesses should be caulked.

If your craft is equipped with a Marine Growth Prevention System (MGPS) (for example, injections of chemicals in internal seawater systems), it is important that you regularly check correct operation of the MGPS in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

4 – WHEN AND HOW TO CLEAN THE CRAFT?

It is important that you regularly assess the need for cleaning and the condition of the anti-fouling coating system. Where it is safe to do so, in-water inspections of your craft may be appropriate:

- at the beginning and end of a planned period of inactivity;
- before and after a significant change to the craft's operating profile; or
- following damage to, or failure of, the anti-fouling system.

Where craft can be readily hauled out it is always preferable to clean the hull and niche areas out of the water where the waste can be effectively captured for proper disposal in accordance with local requirements. When cleaning your craft it is important that you consider the following precautions:

- haul your craft out of the water to clean it at least once a year;
- always follow the manufacturer's instructions when applying and maintaining your antifouling coating system;
- use cleaning methods and facilities that capture biological, chemical and physical debris; and
- coordinate cleaning or maintenance of the anti-fouling coating system, hull and niche areas with voyage or trip planning to ensure that the craft starts significant journeys as clean as practical.

Checking, cleaning and drying gear and equipment such as anchors, chains, nets, bait wells, and sports equipment after each trip is also an effective way to avoid accidental transfer of invasive aquatic species between water bodies.

5 – IS IN-WATER CLEANING ALLOWED?

In-water cleaning can be suitable for removing light fouling (e.g. the slime layer/biofouling/microfouling) with gentle techniques that minimize both the release of toxic substances from the antifouling and the degradation of the antifouling coating system.

Before undertaking any in-water cleaning, check with the local environmental and port/marina authorities for regulations regarding the in-water cleaning of boat hulls and/or the discharge of chemicals into the water column. If possible, use appropriate technology that

captures biological, chemical and physical debris so that it can be disposed of to an appropriate onshore facility.

When cleaning an area coated with a biocidal antifouling coating system, use cleaning techniques that minimize the release of biocide into the environment. In-water scrubbing of large and distinct biofouling (e.g. barnacles, tubeworms or fronds of algae) generates waste or debris that may release biocide that could harm the local environment. In-water scrubbing may also prematurely deplete the antifouling coating system which would then rapidly re-foul. Scrubbing your craft in-water is not recommended as an alternative to out-of-water cleaning beyond the specified service life of an antifouling coating system.

6 - HOW SHOULD I REGISTER THE MANAGEMENT OF THE BIOFILLING?

It is important to keep your craft's biofouling management information in one place, such as the craft's logbook. The information should, at least, include details of the antifouling system used, inspections carried out and observations on the effectiveness of the coating system.

The antifouling manufacturer's data sheets often provide useful information.

A hull diagram showing the locations of niche areas and a summary of plans to minimize biofouling (e.g. planned time interval between antifouling system renewals and how the different niche areas will and/or have been treated) is also required. This information will help the marina, port or harbour authorities to quickly and efficiently assess the potential biofouling risk of your craft and minimize delays to your journey or trip.

7 - WHAT ABOUT TRAILERED CRAFT KEPT OUT OF THE WATER?

Even if your trailered craft is normally kept out of the water, it still has the potential to transfer invasive aquatic species from one area to another via the craft, its trailer or associated gear and equipment. To reduce this risk, the following measures should be taken after removing the craft from the water and before transporting to another water body or storing it on land:

- remove attached biofouling (e.g. seaweeds, barnacles, mussels) from the craft, gear, equipment and trailer;
- drain hull compartments, pipework and outboard engines;
- rinse the craft inside and out with fresh water and, if possible, dry all areas before moving;

- dispose of biofouling and waste water ashore where it cannot drain back into the water or drains; and
- inspect, clean and dry the gear and equipment after each journey or trip.

ANNEX B

MINIMUM CONTENTS OF THE SHIP'S BIOFOULING MANAGEMENT PLAN AND THE BIOFOULING RECORD BOOK

a) BIOFOULING MANAGEMENT PLAN (BFMP)

The BFMP should be vessel specific and should outline the type and frequency of inspection and cleaning activities throughout the hull and niche areas. The Biofouling Management Plan must address at least the following points:

1. The proactive cleaning and maintenance regime based on the ship-specific risk assessment.
2. The schedule for in-water inspections between and during dockages, planned in the ship-specific risk assessment.
3. Procedures for cleaning actions to be carried out if macrofouling is observed during inspections.
4. Contingency procedures to manage biofouling that eventually builds up if the ship deviates from its operating profile.
5. The Antifouling System (AFS) repair, maintenance and renewal regime, when reaching the end of its useful life, in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.
6. Monitoring of Marine Growth Prevention Systems (MGPSs) to assess their effectiveness in preventing biofouling, including scheduled maintenance in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

b) BIOFOULING RECORD BOOK (BFRB)

The BFRB shall contain all records relating to the ship's biofouling management activities, including at least:

1. The date and location of preventive activities, such as proactive cleaning.
2. Details on the repair and maintenance of antifouling coating systems, including date, location and ship areas affected (in addition to registration on the International Antifouling System Certificate).

3. Details of the MGPS including date, location and ship areas affected.
4. Date and location of in-water inspections, photos and/or videos of the inspection.
5. The date, location and reports of reactive cleaning (water and dry dock cleaning).
6. Details of when the ship has been operating outside of its normal operating profile, including any details of the ship being idle or inactive for extended periods of time.

ANNEX C

ILLUSTRATIVE MAP OF THE THREE BRAZILIAN MARINE BIOGEOGRAPHIC REGIONS CONSIDERED IN THIS STANDARD



- North Biogeographic Region (NORTE) - area from the Foz do Amazonas Marine Basin to the Barreirinhas Marine Basin;
- Northeast Biogeographic Region (NORDESTE) - area from the Ceará Marine Basin to the Mucuri Marine Basin; and
- Southeast-South Biogeographic Region (SUDESTE-SUL) - area from the Espírito Santo Marine Basin to the Pelotas Marine Basin.

CAPÍTULO 5 – CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

5.1. BREVE RECAPITULAÇÃO

Conforme exposto no capítulo 1, a introdução de espécies não-nativas gera prejuízos econômicos, sociais e ambientais no Brasil e no mundo. Sendo a água de lastro e a bioincrustação os principais vetores de introdução de espécies aquáticas, e o transporte marítimo, o principal meio.

Inicialmente acreditava-se que a água de lastro era o maior responsável por estas introduções, e para mitigar este problema, a Organização Marítima Internacional (IMO) adotou a Convenção Internacional de água de lastro em 2001, que entrou em vigor em 2017. No Brasil, o segundo capítulo da NORMAM-20/DPC internalizou esta convenção e implementou o Relatório de Imposição de Água de Lastro como ferramenta pelo Controle do Estado do Porto para avaliar a conformidade de navios quanto à gestão da água de lastro. O segundo capítulo desta tese demonstra que, de 2005, quando foi implementado, até 2022, houve significativo crescimento da percentagem de conformidade dos referidos relatórios de água de lastro, no entanto, notou-se em algumas jurisdições baixo número de relatórios por volume de água descarregada, indicando necessidade de maior esforço amostral nestas áreas. Nesse sentido, merecem maior atenção as áreas 1, 4 e 7, correspondendo, principalmente, aos litorais dos estados do Rio de Janeiro e Espírito Santo e a Região Norte do país.

Desde Fevereiro de 2022, a informatização dos relatórios permitiu análises automatizadas, como o acompanhamento do percentual de navios operando no Brasil com sistema de tratamento (BWMS) instalado, no período de Fevereiro (71%) a Dezembro (92%); e mais complexas, como o levantamento dos principais países-origem da água de lastro descarregada em portos Brasileiros, para o mesmo período, são eles: Brasil (23%), China (12%) e Índia (9%). Além da informatização do relatório de água de lastro, outros esforços vêm sendo realizados pela Autoridade Marítima Brasileira no sentido de obter maiores informações quanto à conformidade da água deslastrada no país. O Projeto “Verificação do cumprimento pelos Navios da Regra D-1/D-2, da Convenção BWM (IMO, 2004)” (Portaria N° 163/DPC, 2022), lançado em Junho de 2022, tem como foco principal a coleta e análise indicativa da água de lastro tratada por sistemas (BWMS). Com o avanço deste projeto, novos dados devem

fornecer informação importante para o desenvolvimento de avaliações de risco de biossegurança para os principais portos importadores de água de lastro do país.

Com o desenvolvimento de estudos comparativos sobre as principais vias de introdução de espécies aquáticas não-nativas, constatou-se que, de maneira geral, a bioincrustação possui maior contribuição que a água de lastro. Para prevenir e minimizar a bioincrustação, a indústria marítima se utiliza de diversas ferramentas, das quais as mais comuns consistem no uso do Sistema Antiincrustante (AFS), Sistema de Prevenção do Crescimento Marinho (MGPS) e limpeza proativa e reativa. Sendo que muitas das substâncias e técnicas utilizadas têm o potencial de poluir o ambiente aquático. No capítulo 3 testou-se a exposição à água de baixa salinidade como uma ferramenta de biossegurança simples, de baixo custo e não poluente para minimizar a bioincrustação de navios e embarcações de esporte e recreio na Baía de Guanabara. Vinte placas de poliestileno incrustadas foram submetidas a diferentes tratamentos de salinidade – 00, 07, 15 e 35 (controle) (n = 5 por tratamento) por duas horas, e monitorados um dia, uma semana e um mês após o tratamento quanto a abundância das espécies presentes.

Um mês após o tratamento, dois grupos distintos foram identificados: placas tratadas com (1) água doce e salinidade 7; e (2) salinidade 15 e controle. A análise de percentagem de similaridade indicou que salinidades baixas (água doce e salinidade 7) apresentaram mais organismos mortos, espaços livres, biofilme e recrutas, quando comparadas com salinidades mais altas (15 e controle). A espessura da bioincrustação também foi significativamente menor no primeiro grupo. Esses resultados confirmam um efeito de controle de bioincrustação nas placas.

Como os tratamentos com água doce e salinidade 7 apresentaram resultados semelhantes e eficazes na diminuição da macroincrustação e na redução de sua espessura, a conclusão do capítulo recomenda o uso de salinidades abaixo de 7 por, pelo menos, duas horas para o controle da bioincrustação. Este tratamento provou-se promissor não apenas como ferramenta de biossegurança, mas também para o gerenciamento da eficiência hidrodinâmica do casco, uma vez que a diminuição da espessura da bioincrustação do casco reduz o consumo de combustível e emissões de GEE. Sendo assim, a utilização de instalações de exposição à baixa salinidade talvez seja uma solução ambiental e logisticamente interessante para o gerenciamento da bioincrustação.

À exemplo da África do Sul, Nova Zelândia e Estados Unidos, que possuem suas próprias regras obrigatórias para o gerenciamento da bioincrustação em embarcações que adentram suas águas jurisdicionais, o capítulo 4 desta tese expõe uma proposta de texto normativo para regulamentar o tema no Brasil. Apesar da IMO possuir Diretrizes voluntárias para este fim, voltadas à navios e embarcações recreativas, o propósito das mesmas é servir de referência para o desenvolvimento de regras nacionais obrigatórias. Desta forma, os principais tópicos dos citados documentos foram comparados e uma conclusão alinhada às especificidades Brasileiras foi desenhada.

Nossa proposta tem similaridade com a da Nova Zelândia, sendo a principal diferença a adição de um item de 'situação particular', onde o litoral brasileiro é subdividido em três Regiões Biogeográficas Marinhas. Embarcações de até 24 m de comprimento devem atravessar estas regiões com o casco limpo e embarcações maiores devem realizar o gerenciamento de bioincrustação de acordo com a avaliação de risco e Plano de Gerenciamento de Bioincrustação, antes de cruzar para outra região. As evidências dos procedimentos adotados e do nível de bioincrustação antes da transposição das regiões devem ser mantidas a bordo para inspeção futura. Este requisito tem como fundamento a presença de diferentes áreas de endemismo no litoral brasileiro, devido à extensão e complexidade da costa. Tal fator permite eventos de introdução de uma região biogeográfica para outra, dentro do mesmo território nacional. Sendo assim, é sensato tratar tais áreas como jurisdições distintas, visando diminuir eventos de introdução originárias no próprio país.

Diferente da Nova Zelândia, nossa proposta não possui um requisito de 'casco limpo' devido à possibilidade de aumentar a quantidade de limpezas na água no país. Possivelmente isto aumentaria as chances de introduções, e tememos que as condições para realizar uma vigilância abrangente seja comprometida.

Por fim, caso de interesse da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira, sugere-se que o texto seja submetido à consulta pública e um período de quatro anos de sua publicação para adaptação pela indústria marítima.

5.2. ATENDIMENTO AOS OBJETIVOS DA TESE

Objetivos gerais

- Primeiro objetivo geral da tese: Fornecer informação sobre como a Autoridade Marítima Brasileira trabalha para combater a bioinvasão mediada por embarcações via Água de Lastro e Bioincrustação.

O capítulo 2 desta tese explicita a utilização de ferramentas como o Relatório de Imposição de Água de Lastro (*Ballast Water Repor - BWR*) e o Formulário de Água de Lastro (*Ballast Water Reporting Form – BWRF*) para o monitoramento da conformidade e volume de água de lastro descarregada nos portos e terminais brasileiros. Além destes, o capítulo exemplifica iniciativas recentes da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira visando melhorar sua base de dados, atualizar suas normas e manter as Capitânicas, Agências e Delegacias, como Agentes da Autoridade Marítima, adestrados e munidos dos equipamentos necessários para a correta execução de suas atividades.

Já sobre a via Bioincrustação, demonstrou-se, no capítulo 4, que a gestão da bioincrustação tem regulamentação ainda incipiente no país, apesar dos esforços da Organização Marítima Mundial (IMO) em disponibilizar Diretrizes sobre boas práticas para minimizar a introdução de organismos aquáticos não-nativos por esta via. Diante de um cenário internacional com iniciativas nacionais e subnacionais de desenvolvimento e implementação de regras obrigatórias sobre o tema, o capítulo sugere um texto normativo.

- Segundo objetivo geral da tese: Sugerir a aplicação de água de baixa salinidade como ferramenta de biossegurança para prevenir a bioinvasão mediada por embarcações via bioincrustação.

O capítulo 3 desta tese tem como conclusão que a exposição da bioincrustação desenvolvida na Baía de Guanabara à salinidade inferior a 7 por duas horas é capaz de diminuir sua abundância e espessura, demonstrando potencial como ferramenta de biossegurança contra introduções mediadas por embarcações via bioincrustação.

- Terceiro objetivo geral da tese: Propor o regramento obrigatório para a gestão da bioincrustação em navios no Brasil.

O apêndice do capítulo 4 traz sugestão de texto normativo obrigatório para a gestão da bioincrustação por navios e embarcações de esporte e recreio com base na NORMAM-20/DPC que regula, dentre outros tipos de poluição, a gestão da água de lastro. Seguindo a itemização desta norma, o apêndice do referido capítulo traz um texto no formato de Capítulo 4 – Gestão da Bioincrustação para a NORMAM-20/DPC.

Objetivos específicos

- Primeiro objetivo específico da tese: Atualizar o status de conformidade das embarcações que trafegam em Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras quanto à Gestão da Água de Lastro, com base em Relatórios de Inspeção do Controle do Estado do Porto emitidos entre 2005 e 2022;
 - Hipótese nula: A percentagem de conformidade não se altera após a entrada em vigor da Convenção de Água de Lastro, em Setembro de 2017.
 - Hipótese alternativa: A percentagem de conformidade cresce após a entrada em vigor da Convenção de Água de Lastro, em Setembro de 2017.

O capítulo 2 apresenta o perfil de crescimento da percentagem de conformidade dos Relatórios de Imposição de Água de Lastro de 2005 a 2022, e por teste de qui-quadrado demonstra que a conformidade foi significativamente superior após a entrada em vigor da Convenção de Água de Lastro, aceitando-se a hipótese alternativa. A discussão do capítulo argumenta que a implementação do Relatório de Água de Lastro em 2005 teria influenciado na queda abrupta da não-conformidade antes da entrada em vigor da Convenção, atingindo 1,5% em 2010, e que se manteve baixa após setembro de 2017, demonstrando a importância da fiscalização pelo Controle do Estado do Porto na gestão da água de lastro.

- Segundo objetivo específico da tese: Fornecer informação sobre novas iniciativas da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira para atender aos propósitos da

Convenção Internacional para o Controle e Gerenciamento da Água de Lastro e Sedimentos dos Navios;

Dentre as novas iniciativas da Autoridade Marítima Brasileira para atender aos propósitos da Convenção de Água de Lastro, o capítulo 2 cita a revisão do capítulo 2 da NORMAM-20/DPC, a informatização dos Relatórios de Imposição de Água de Lastro, e o Projeto Água de Lastro. Todos estes têm papel importante no atendimento dos propósitos da Convenção de Água de Lastro por proporcionarem maior alinhamento com a Convenção, conhecimento sobre o perfil de conformidades ao longo das diferentes áreas do Brasil, identificação de gargalos da Autoridade e Indústria Marítimas e ações necessárias para saná-los.

- Terceiro objetivo específico da tese: Testar o efeito de águas com baixas salinidades na mortalidade, cobertura, diversidade e espessura da bioincrustação da Baía de Guanabara-RJ;
 - Hipótese nula: A abundância de organismos incrustantes não se altera após tratamento com diferentes salinidades.
 - Hipótese alternativa: A abundância de organismos incrustantes diminui em placas tratadas com salinidades menores.

Um mês após o tratamento, placas submetidas à água doce e salinidade 7 formaram um grupo significativamente distinto das tratadas com salinidade 15 e 35 (controle). Isto se deu pela maior abundância de organismos mortos, espaços abertos e biofilme no primeiro grupo. A espessura da bioincrustação também foi menor neste grupo. Tais resultados vão ao encontro da hipótese alternativa.

- Quarto objetivo específico da tese: Comparar as principais regras nacionais mandatórias de Gestão da Bioincrustação existentes até o momento;

A introdução do capítulo 4 desta tese traz breve descrição dos principais tópicos das regras nacionais de gestão da bioincrustação de caráter obrigatório implementadas até então pela África do Sul, Estados Unidos e Nova Zelândia. A introdução também pontua os requisitos obrigatórios solicitados pela fiscalização da Austrália. A tabela 1 do referido capítulo compara a Aplicação, Requisitos Gerais e

Verificação/Inspeção das regras dos Estados Unidos e Nova Zelândia com as propostas para o Brasil.

- Quinto objetivo específico da tese: Adaptar as Diretrizes de Bioincrustação e Guia para embarcações recreativas da IMO, às especificidades Brasileiras, levando em consideração as principais normas obrigatórias nacionais em vigor;

O item Resultados e Discussão do capítulo 4 faz um apanhado dos principais pontos comuns e distintos entre as normas obrigatórias nacionais em vigor, e encadeia uma linha de raciocínio para o delineamento da regra sugerida no apêndice do mesmo capítulo. Destacam-se: a utilização das Diretrizes de Bioincrustação da IMO como referência para navios maiores que 24 m, e o Guia de embarcações recreativas para as menores que 24 m; a similaridade com os requisitos do CRMS da Nova Zelândia pela experiência do Ministério de Industrias Primárias do país no estudo da gestão da bioincrustação, e por compartilharem a preocupação Brasileira em conciliar o desenvolvimento do transporte marítimo e a prevenção da bioinvasão em uma área de alta biodiversidade; a subdivisão do litoral brasileiro em Regiões Biogeográficas, atuando como jurisdições distintas quanto à gestão da bioincrustação; e a escolha por não utilizar o requisito de 'casco limpo', de maneira a minimizar procedimentos de limpeza em águas Brasileiras.

Outro ponto que merece atenção é a competência pela regulamentação da limpeza na água. Esta é uma atividade com potencial de liberar organismos na água, o que, por sua vez, pode ser considerado poluição, no caso de degradação da qualidade ambiental, conforme previsto na Lei nº 6.938/81. Desta forma, poderia ser enquadrada como atividade potencialmente poluidora, o que, de acordo com a Lei nº 6.938/81, caberia ao órgão ambiental competente licenciar. Como o referido capítulo tem intenção de sugerir regra para a gestão da bioincrustação de navios à Autoridade Marítima Brasileira, tal atividade foi considerada fora do escopo da proposta. Desta mesma forma foi considerada a gestão da bioincrustação em plataformas de óleo e gás sujeitas ao licenciamento ambiental, conforme preconizado na Lei complementar nº 140/2011.

- Sexto objetivo específico da tese: Fornecer proposta de texto-base para a regulamentação da Gestão da Bioincrustação em Navios pela Autoridade Marítima Brasileira sob forma de Capítulo 4 da NORMAM-20/DPC.

No apêndice do capítulo 4 desta tese encontra-se o texto-base proposto como regulamentação obrigatória Brasileira para a gestão da bioincrustação em navios. Uma vez que o texto é uma proposta à Autoridade Marítima Brasileira, o mesmo foi formatado seguindo as características organizacionais e textuais da NORMAM-20/DPC, que aborda o tema poluição hídrica. Pelo fato da referida norma regular a poluição por óleo e seus derivados no capítulo 1, a gestão da água de lastro no capítulo 2, e substância danosas utilizadas em Sistemas Antiincrustantes no capítulo 3, nossa proposta de regra para a gestão da bioincrustação foi desenhada como capítulo 4 para esta norma.

Cabe salientar que o processo administrativo decorrente de auto de infração pelo não atendimento proposto segue o mesmo rito utilizado para a gestão da água de lastro, ou seja, o previsto pelo decreto nº 6.514/08, que regulamenta a lei nº 9.605/98.

5.3. CORRELAÇÃO ENTRE CAPÍTULOS

Nesta tese foram abordadas ferramentas de fiscalização (capítulo 2), prevenção (capítulo 3) e regulamentação (capítulo 4) da bioinvasão mediada por embarcações. Um tema que permeia estes capítulos, de maneira geral, é a avaliação de risco de biossegurança. Uma vez que qualquer fiscalização é limitada frente à quantidade de possíveis infrações, a avaliação de risco permite priorizar aquelas de maior impacto, tornando a fiscalização mais assertiva.

No capítulo 2 foram citados estudos com Formulários de Água de Lastro que encontraram inconsistências no preenchimento do documento e que geraram dúvidas quanto ao gerenciamento da água de lastro pelo padrão D-1 (troca oceânica). Além disso, também foram citados estudos que alertam para o risco de introduções em ecossistemas importantes como o amazônico e o papel de portos, como o do Maranhão, que recebem água de lastro oriundas dos principais importadores de matérias-primas Brasileiras, como os situados da Região do Indo-Pacífico. Ademais, análises dos Relatórios de Imposição da Água de Lastro informatizados

demonstraram que o Brasil (23%), a China (12%) e a Índia (9%) são as origens mais frequentes da água de lastro recebida em portos Brasileiros, corroborando as informações levantadas por estudos anteriores, e reforçando a preocupação com introduções entre regiões biogeográficas dentro do território brasileiros, também levantada por referências no capítulo. Inclusive, a situação particular do capítulo 2 da NORMAM-20/DPC, que exige o gerenciamento da água de lastro quando da viagem entre portos fluviais de bacias hidrográficas distintas é um requisito que busca minimizar introduções entre regiões biogeográficas distintas, com foco direcionado ao mexilhão dourado (*Limnoperna fortunei*), como mencionado no capítulo 1 desta tese.

Pelo fato de o Brasil possuir uma costa com mais de 10 mil quilômetros de extensão, e complexos ecossistemas, muitas regiões de endemismo são encontradas ao longo de seu litoral. A proposta de regra para a gestão da bioincrustação trazida pelo capítulo 4 desta tese também aborda a possibilidade de introdução entre regiões biogeográficas distintas no país. De maneira mais direta que a situação particular para água de lastro, a sugestão identifica três Regiões Biogeográficas Marinhas (Norte, Nordeste e Sudeste-Sul), delineadas de forma a atender ao objetivo de prevenir introduções, porém tentando tornar as regiões as mais largas possíveis, a fim de diminuir o impacto à indústria marítima para com a gestão da bioincrustação antes da travessia entre estas regiões.

O capítulo 3 desta tese sugere a exposição à baixa salinidade como ferramenta de biossegurança para minimizar a bioincrustação em navios e embarcações de recreio, e poderia ser utilizada para atender à situação particular da sugestão de regra para gestão da bioincrustação. Navios maiores que 24 m geralmente possuem interesse em manter seus cascos limpos para minimizar os custos com consumo de combustível. Desta forma, a utilização de tratamentos de exposição à salinidade inferior a 7 por duas horas antes da travessia entre regiões biogeográficas poderia ser previsto em seus Planos de Gerenciamento da Bioincrustação. O estudo para o desenvolvimento de estruturas para realização deste tratamento, com captura de substâncias liberadas por sistemas antiincrustantes e bioincrustação, por portos e terminais localizados próximos aos limites destas regiões poderia beneficiar a comunidade marítima e alimentar o segmento de limpeza de cascos. Embarcações de esporte e recreio, por sua vez, geralmente permanecem longos períodos estacionárias na água sem manutenção do casco para retirada da bioincrustação. Estas poderiam utilizar estruturas menores, providenciadas pelas marinas onde estão

atracadas, ou mesmo adaptações, como encapsulação associada ao tratamento, em que a embarcação permanecesse entre 7-14 dias sob tratamento com salinidade inferior a 7, visando eliminação total da incrustação, quando da previsão de viagem para outra região biogeográfica.

As considerações levantadas nos parágrafos anteriores são de interesse para a formulação de avaliações de risco tanto pela Autoridade Marítima Brasileira, no sentido de entender melhor o risco imposto pelas diferentes embarcações que adentram as Águas Jurisdicionais Brasileiras (AJB), quanto pelas próprias embarcações, que precisam definir o risco de biossegurança que configuram às diferentes regiões que visitam, pensando na tomada de ações condizentes com os diferentes níveis de risco possíveis, por meio de seus respectivos Planos de Gerenciamento de Água de Lastro e de Bioincrustação.

5.4. PERSPECTIVAS FUTURAS

Diante da recente informatização dos Relatórios de Imposição de Água de Lastro, acredita-se que o próximo passo a esta tese seria a elaboração de um banco de dados robusto ao longo dos próximos anos. Adicionalmente a este esforço, sugere-se a informatização dos Formulários de Água de Lastro (FIAL) por meio do Sistema Porto Sem Papel (PSP), para obtenção da informação sobre origem e volume de água de lastro descarregada por cada navio, para o desenvolvimento de uma ferramenta de Avaliação de Risco de Biossegurança de Água de Lastro pela Autoridade Marítima, com foco na maior assertividade de inspeções pelo Controle do Estado do Porto. A redistribuição de inspetores navais, conforme sugerido no capítulo 2 desta tese, aliada a identificação precoce de embarcações de maior risco, tornaria a fiscalização da conformidade da gestão da água de lastro mais eficiente.

Ainda em um estágio anterior, a gestão da bioincrustação necessita ser regulamentada para posteriormente ser fiscalizada de maneira similar ao sugerido no parágrafo anterior. Ainda assim, recomenda-se que a informatização dos processos relacionados à futura norma seja implementada em paralelo a mesma, de forma que um controle eficiente sobre os dados gerados permita maior agilidade e assertividade na fiscalização. Para um futuro mais próximo, é importante que as autoridades competentes estejam a par do estado da arte das tecnologias de limpeza na água que

atendam aos mais altos padrões de captura de resíduos gerados durante a limpeza, de maneira a desenvolver a regulamentação para esta atividade em AJB.

Por fim, para trabalhos futuros, o autor entende que o tema limpeza na água está sendo bastante discutido e possivelmente novas tecnologias e ferramentas serão apresentadas nos próximos anos. O teste destes equipamentos quanto à eficiência na limpeza, durabilidade, praticidade, capacidade de captura de resíduos do AFS e bioincrustação, dentre outros, estão entre os interesses para estudos futuros. E o desenvolvimento de programas computacionais capazes de identificar e quantificar, por meio de inteligência artificial (*machine learning*), a bioincrustação, registrada por fotos/vídeos subaquáticos em cascos e áreas nicho, parece ser um caminho viável para o aperfeiçoamento da inspeção da bioincrustação.