

Enhancement of rhizocompetence in pathogenic bacteria removal of constructed wetland system

Marwa BEN SAAD¹, Myriam BEN SAID¹, Isabel SANZ SÁEZ², Olga SANCHEZ³, Jordi MORATO⁴, Latifa BOUSSELMI¹ and Ahmed GHRABI¹

¹Water Researches and Technologies Center, CERTE, BP 273 - 8020 Soliman Tunisia

²Institut de Ciències del Mar (ICM-CSIC), Pg. Marítim de la Barceloneta, 08003 Barcelona, Spain

³Department of Genetics and Microbiology Faculty of Biosciences, UAB · 08193 Bellaterra Barcelona Spain

⁴UNESCO Chair in Sustainability, Polytechnic University of Catalunya, C1 Terrassa, 08222, Barcelona, Spain

*marwabensaad@gmail.com

Abstract

The main goal of the present study was to enhance the rhizobacterium potential in horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland system planted by *Phragmites australis* through environmentally friendly biological approaches. The bioinoculation of antagonist bacteria has been used to promote higher rhizosphere competence in pathogenic bacteria removal. The experience was performed with once and with sequential bio-inoculation. The results show that the strain PFH₁ played an active role in pathogenic bacteria removal. In fact, the individual bioinoculated improves remarkably the inactivation kinetics of a pathogenic tested bacteria; *S. typhi* in plant rizosphere by, 0.8 U-Log₁₀ with once bio-injection and approximately, 2.5 U-Log₁₀ with sequential bio-injections. These results suggested that this strain represents a promising candidate to improve the water purification by constructed wetland.

Key words: Antagonism, Bioinoculation, Constructed Wetland, Rhizosphere.

Introduction

Constructed wetlands (CWs) have been used as a green technology to treat various wastewaters for several decades. They offer a land-intensive, low-energy, and less operational-requirements alternative to conventional treatment systems, especially for small communities and remote locations (Ghrabi et al. 2011; Shen et al. 2015; Tee et al. 2016) (Ghrabi et al. 2011; S. Wu et al. 2015) These engineered systems are designed to treat contaminants in surface water, groundwater or waste streams by using natural functions of

1 wetland vegetation, soils and their microbial populations (Vymazal 2014). They have a great
2 potential for the treatment of wastewater of different origin (Wang et al. 2015; Zaytsev et al.
3 2011) such as domestic sewage, agricultural wastewater, industrial effluent, mine drainage,
4 landfill leachate, urban runoff, and polluted river water (Liu et al. 2015). CWs have been
5 successfully used to mitigate environmental pollution by removing of a wide variety of
6 pollutants from wastewater such as organic compounds, suspended solids, pathogens, metals,
7 and nutrients (Zhang et al. 2014). During wastewater treatment in CWs, pollutants are
8 removed through an integrated combination of biological, physical and chemical interactions
9 between the plants, the substrate and the inherent microbial community (Wang et al. 2015) .
10 CWs are typically classified into two types according to the wetland hydrology: free water
11 surface (FWS) CWs and subsurface flow (SSF) CWs. FWS systems are similar to natural
12 wetlands, with a shallow flow of wastewater over a saturated substrate. On SSF systems,
13 wastewater flows through the substrate which supports the growth of plants, and based on the
14 flow direction, SSF CWs could be further divided into vertical flow (VF) and horizontal flow
15 (HF) CWs. A hybrid CW, a combination of various wetland systems, was also introduced for
16 the treatment of wastewater (Wu et al. 2015). For the purpose of this paper, only a subsurface
17 flow constructed wetland and especially the horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland
18 planted by *Phragmites australis* is considered.
19 Microorganisms play a vital role in degradation of multiple pollutants in CWs. It has been
20 recognized that the removal of most pollutants in CWs is due primarily to microbial activity
21 (Meng et al. 2014). Removal of a particular pollutant is typically associated with a specific
22 microbial functional group, therefore the employment of design and operational
23 methodologies that enhance the activity of that group will better optimize performance
24 (Faulwetter et al. 2009).

1 It has long been renowned that many naturally occurring rhizosphere bacteria and fungi may
2 offer a viable substitute for the use of chemicals and are antagonistic towards crop pathogens.
3 Thus, Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) has been shown beneficial to plant
4 growth and health by emancipating their activity on nitrogen fixation, the production of
5 phytohormones and antifungal compounds, and induced systemic resistance (Sindhu,
6 Rakshiya, and Sahu 2009).

7 Based on the importance of rhizosphere competence or root colonization in beneficial plant–
8 microbe interactions (Ben Saad et al. 2016), the main goal of the present study was to enhance
9 the inactivation of pathogenic bacteria rates in horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland
10 system planted by *Phragmites australis* using antagonistic bacteria. This work aimed to
11 demonstrate the beneficial application of biotechnology to confer higher rhizosphere
12 competence in the removal of pathogenic bacteria; *S. typhi* ATCC 560 by environment
13 friendly biological approaches.

14 **Methods**

15 **1. Sampling and isolation of bacterial strains from different environments**

16 Bacterial strains were isolated from different ecological niches: wastewater, soil, *Phragmites*
17 *australis* roots and sheets from the Technical Demonstration Center (TDC) that treats sewage
18 from the university home located at the Agronomic Institute of Tunis (INAT). Rhizosphere
19 samples were collected from each wetland at the entrance, middle, and exit at a depth of
20 approximately 30 cm under the gravel surface. All samples were processed in the laboratory.
21 To isolate bacteria from the rhizosphere, the roots were initially separated from the rhizomes,
22 and then small pieces of roots were immersed in sterile saline solution (0.85 g/L NaCl) and
23 vortexes 15min in order to release the bacteria attached to roots into the solution.

1 The same protocol was followed to isolate bacteria from the sets of reeds. Concerning the
2 wastewater samples, these samples underwent decimal dilutions in sterile saline solution and
3 spread out over selective medium.

4 **2. Identification of the strain and detection of siderophores production**

5 The identification of selected bacteria was based on the phenotypical aspect of colonies, the
6 microscopic examination standard microbiological and biochemical tests. Siderophore was
7 detected by the method of Jalal and Vander Helm (1990) using a spectrophotometric assay
8 where a peak at 495 nm on the addition of 2% aqueous solution of FeCl₃ to 1 mL of
9 supernatant indicated the presence of siderophores.

10 **3. Antagonism test between isolated bacterial strains and against pathogenic bacteria**

11 ***S. typhi* ATCC 560**

12 Antagonism test had been performed between isolated bacterial to avoid negative interaction
13 between them after their bioinoculation. The Petri dish surface was seeded by an indicative
14 strain and then the blank discs deposited on the culture medium had been drenched with 50µL
15 of filtered supernatant of a putative antagonist strain, collected after centrifugation at 4000
16 r.p.m for 15 min. The diffusion of the antimicrobial agents was enhanced by incubation at
17 37°C for 24hr. Antagonist activity was revealed by the appearance of inhibition zone around
18 the discs.

19 **4. Study of motility of isolated bacteria and biofilm production.**

20 The different types of mobility (*swimming*, *swarming* and *twitching*) were determined by the
21 method of Reimann *et al.* (2002). The biofilm production of bacterial isolates was detected
22 by two methods: the first described by Freeman and al. (1989), consisted of plating the test
23 strains on solid medium contained brain heart infusion broth 37 g/L, sucrose 50 g/L, agar 10
24 g/L and Congo Red indicator 8 g/L (Sujatha N. 2013). After incubation at 30°C for 24hr,

1 black colonies indicate biofilm production. After this qualitative study, we proceeded in a
2 quantitative study describes by O'Toole (1998). This method uses the dye crystal violet (CV).
3 biofilm production was estimated by spectrophotometric measurement of the OD 600nm.

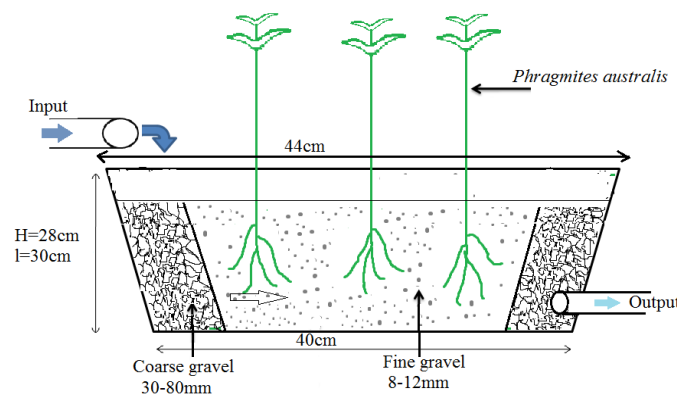
4 **5. Molecular identification of the selected strain**

5 Bacterial DNA was extracted and purified using the v-DNA reagent (GenIUL) according to
6 the manufacturer's instructions. The concentration of the extracted DNA was measured using
7 a spectrophotometer at 260nm. DNA purity was estimated from the A260/A280 ratio. The
8 complete 16S rRNA gene was amplified using bacterial primers 27F (5'-TAC GGY TAC
9 CTT GTT AYG ACT T-3') and 1492Rmod (5'-AGR GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG-3').
10 Each PCR reaction with a final volume of 25 µl contained: 2µl of template DNA, 0.5 µl of
11 each deoxynucleoside triphosphate at a concentration of 10 µM, 0.75 µl of MgCl₂ 1.5 mM,
12 0.5 µl of each primer at a concentration of 10 µM, 0.125 µl of Taq DNA polymerase
13 (Invitrogen), 2.5 µl of PCR buffer supplied by the manufacturer (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) and
14 Milli-Q water up to the final volume. Reactions were carried out in a Biorad thermocycler
15 using the following program: initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles of
16 1 min at 94°C, 1 min at 55 °C and 2 min at 72 °C, and a final extension step of 10 min at 72°C.
17 PCR products were verified and quantified by agarose gel electrophoresis with standard low
18 DNA mass ladder (Invitrogen). Purification and One Shot Sanger sequencing of 16S rRNA
19 gene products was performed by Genoscreen (Lille, France) with primers 27F and
20 1492Rmod.

21 **6. Conception and construction of the pilot-scale systems**

22 The experimental system designed for the bio-inoculation, included two small parallel
23 identical horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetlands. Both basins were filled with gravel
24 and planted with reed. The first one served as a control and the second served for the different

1 bio-assays. The size of each constructed wetland bed was 0.3 x 0.44 x 0.28. The treatment
 2 area was packed with 8-12mm diameter pea gravel while bigger and larger gravel of 30-
 3 80mm diameter was used at the inlet and outlet areas in order to prevent clogging of the filter
 4 media. The relative porosity has been calculated in 0.26 ($n = V_v/V_t$ where V_v is the void
 5 volume and V_t is the total volume (Meng et al. 2014)). The pilote constructed wetlands had
 6 bottom slope of 1% to facilate the flow of water by gravity. The plants were allowed to grow
 7 and multiply over three months. There was a peridioc application of wastewater to serve as a
 8 source of nutrients for the plants. The main characteristics of the experimental system are as
 9 follows: Surface area: 13.2dm², Hydraulic Residence Time HRT (theoretical): 0.385, Gravel
 10 depth: 2dm, Average starting reed heights: 57cm. The figures 1 and 2 show the conception of
 11 horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland systems adopted in this study.



12

13 **Figure1.** The representative figure of the pilot-scale of subsurface flow constructed wetland

14 **7. Monitoring of bacteria removal**

15 To optimize the experience, the kinetic growth of the selected strain was determined using a
 16 spectrophotometer to estimate absorbance of cell suspensions (DO₆₀₀). Series tests were
 17 conducted to determine the lag time that made the selected bacteria to adapt to new
 18 conditions.

19 The experience *in situ* was done as follows: Phase I start from the sowing of interest bacteria
 20 into the rizosphere environment. The main events are activation of the antagonist inoculum

1 and establishment of an antagonist population in the plant rizosphere. Phase II is the process
2 of the introduced antagonist and native root-associated microbes to establish a population
3 density and persist in the rhizoplane, rhizosphere or inside the root.

4 Therefore, the antagonist bacterium was inoculated into the rhizosphere of the pilot-scale (F).
5 After an adaptation period (depends on growth kinetic parameters), a contaminated effluent
6 by 10^4 UFC/ml of an indicator bacteria; *S. typhi* ATCC 560 was added for both pilot- scales (F
7 and T).

8 Based on growth kinetic parameters of interest bacteria (PFH₁), sequential bio-injections were
9 performed in pilot scale (F) to test of the spatio-temporal dynamics and microbial ecological
10 processes of root colonization by an antagonist and to explore the impact of accumulation
11 effect of sequential bioinoculation of antagonist bacteria to promote inhibition of pathogenic
12 bacteria.

13 The monitoring of pathogenic bacteria removal after bioinoculation was determined by
14 culture on selective medium (SS: Selmonella Shigella agar).

15

16 **Results and discussion**

17 **1. Isolation and Screening of bacterial strains**

18 After sampling, isolation and purification stages, 19 bacterial strains were isolated from
19 different ecological niches from the Technical Demonstration Center (TDC) that treats
20 sewage from university home located at the Agronomic Institute of Tunis (INAT). The isolats
21 strains were selected and screened for general functional properties of plant promoting
22 rhizobacteria; namely, siderophore production and antagonist activity against pathogenic
23 bacteria in addition of the bacterial motility (swimming, swarming and twitching motilities)
24 and biofilm production.

1 Bacterial biofilm formation is important for root colonization. Indeed, root-associated bacteria
2 have been studied extensively, and many of these promote the growth of host plants or are
3 used as biocontrol agents (Dekkers et al. 1998). The plant-growth-promoting bacteria have
4 been reported to discontinuously colonize the root surface, developing as small biofilms along
5 epidermal fissures.

6 Among the isolates, we were screened PFH₁ strain to apply as an interest to be inoculated into
7 the rizospheric zone to enhance the reduction of pathogenic bacteria. Indeed, the antagonism
8 test had revealed the strain PFH₁ as the most antagonist bacteria against *S. typhi*. Indeed, The
9 ability of microbes to produce a wide range of antimicrobial compounds, including lytic
10 agents, antibiotics, bacteriocins, protein exotoxins and other secondary metabolites, is critical
11 to their success in antagonistic activities (W.-Y. Liu et al. 2013).

12

13 **2. Molecular identification of the selected strain**

14 The 16S rRNA gene sequences of the selected bacteria were determined. The sequence
15 analysis revealed that this bacteria has 99% of similarity with *Enterobacter cloacae*.

16 *Enterobacter cloacae* are a gram-negative Proteobacterium belonging to the
17 *Enterobacteriaceae* family. Within this family, *Enterobacter* is most closely related to, and is
18 grouped in a sub-clade with, *Klebsiella*. The *E. cloacae* species comprises an extremely
19 diverse group of bacteria that has been found in diverse environments, ranging from plants to
20 soil to humans (Liu et al., 2013).

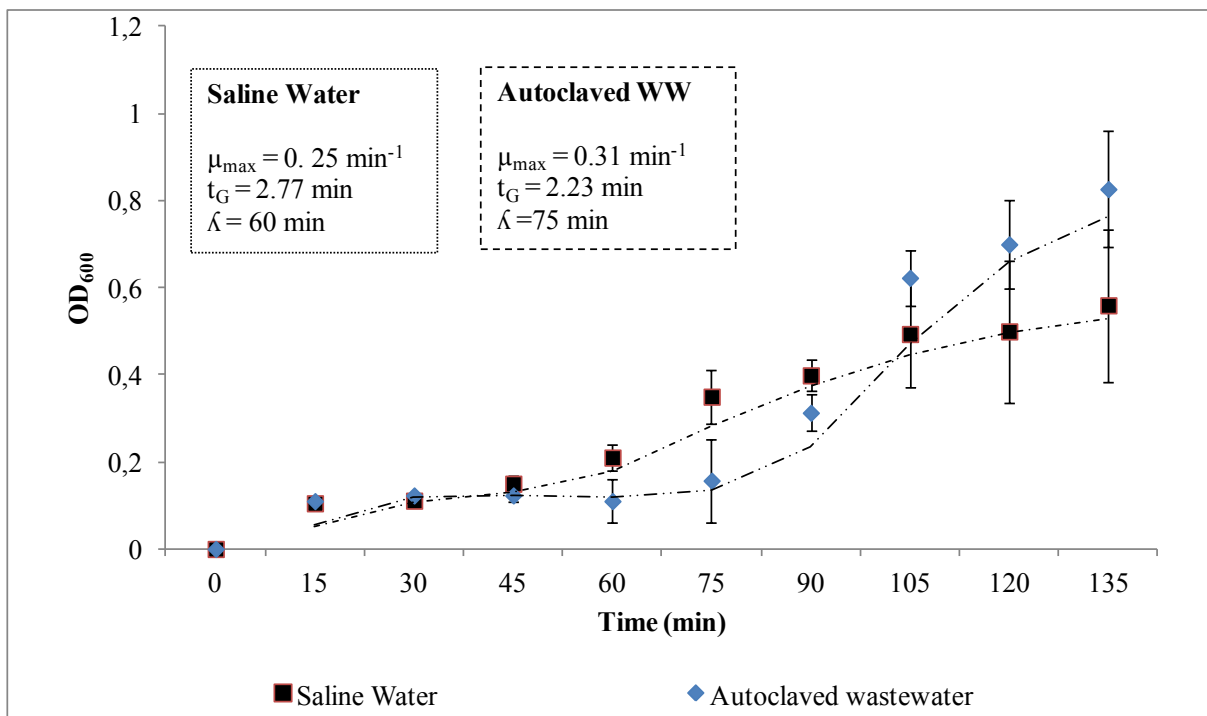
21 *Enterobacter* species have been reported as both plant pathogens and human opportunistic
22 pathogens (Nishijima et al., 2007), and also as important engineering and plant growth-
23 promoting bacteria (Nie et al., 2002). Some *Enterobacter* strains may play important roles in
24 plant–microbe interactions and hence in biocontrol mechanisms. In this sense, we are used the

1 selected bacteria to control the pathogenic density and its application to improve the water
2 treatment by constructed wetland.

3 3. Application bioinoculation of selected bacteria.

4 To optimize the experience and before inoculation into the rhizosphere, the kinetic growth of
5 PFH₁ strain was investigated in saline water and autoclaved wastewater at room temperature
6 in order to determine the specific growth characteristics of PFH₁ namely the lag time, (λ_t) the
7 maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}), the bacterium generation time (t_G) (Figure 2).

8



10 **Figure 2.** Kinetics growth of PFH₁ in different growth temperature conditions.

11 Data are averages of three experiments

12

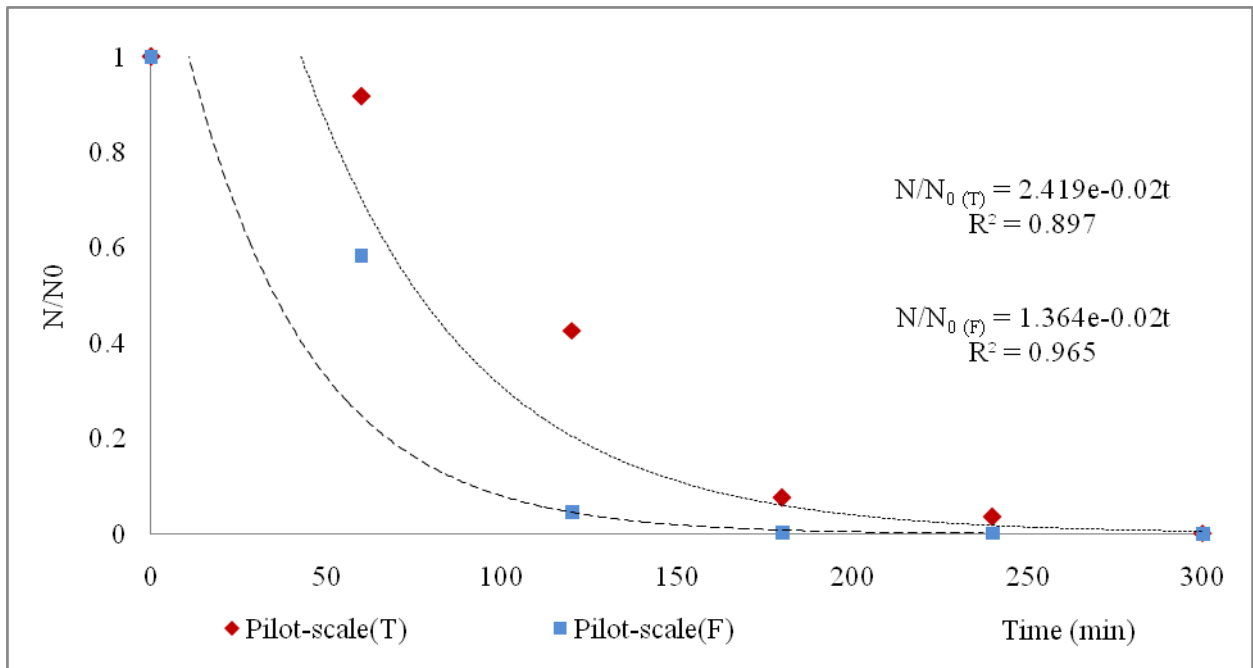
13 3.1. Removal of pathogenic bacteria with single bioinoculation

14 The figure 3 shows the kinetic of bacteria removal with an initial concentration of indicator
15 bacteria (*S. typhi*) equal to 10⁶ UFC/ml in presence of PFH₁.

1 After a retention time equal to 3 hours, we were noticed a reduction in the number of pathogenic
 2 bacteria (*S. typhi*) in both filters: inoculated and non inoculated one (F and T pilot-scale filters).
 3 The kinetics of *S. typhi* inactivation turns in perfect agreement with the model of Chick-
 4 Watson (CW) model with modification:

$$N/N_0 = A \exp(-k^n \cdot t) \quad (1)$$

6 With ; N/N_0 : is the reduction in the indicator bacterial concentration, N : Number of viable
 7 cultivable bacteria at time t ; N_0 : Number of viable and cultivable bacteria at time t_0 ; k :
 8 Coefficient of inactivation; A : The bacterial reduction rate; n : threshold inactivation or threshold
 9 events suffered by the bacterium after inactivation series, $n = 1$ for first degree model.



11 **Figure 3.** The kinetic of pathogen bacteria removal in the two filters (T) and (F) with
 12 single bioinoculation.
 13 Data are averages of three experiments.
 14

15 By analysis of bacterial inactivation curves, we can note an increase in bacterial reduction
 16 over time in the both pilot scales filters with a difference in the bacteria inhibition rate.

1 The injection of selected bacteria into the rhizosphere of *Phragmites australis* improves the
2 kinetics of *S. typhi* inactivation by approximately 1U-Log₁₀ (N/N₀) compared to the control
3 mini- filter (T).

4 The enhancement of 0.8 U-Log₁₀ of bacteria inactivation in inoculated filter (F) during a short
5 retention time (5 hrs) is probably related to a good colonization ability of the rhizosphere and to
6 the antagonist activity of the selected inoculated strain.

7 Several studies demonstrate the effectiveness of macrophytes systems in the elimination of
8 pathogenic bacteria strain (Hill et Sobsey 2001). Other study showed that the reduction of the
9 pathogenic bacterium *S. typhi* is equal to 2.3 U-Log₁₀ (N/N₀) for treatment of primary sewage
10 in small communities and rural areas using gravel during a retention time of 23 to 52 hours
11 (Hench et al. 2003).

12 The exploitation of the results of bacterial reduction by modified kinetic models CW has allowed
13 us to determine different kinetics parameters. The most important values are: the coefficient of
14 inactivation (k) and the bacterial reduction rate in the contact with autochtone rizobacterium with
15 and without bioinoculation (A).

16 The analysis of kinetic parameters shows an increase of the inactivation coefficient (k) that
17 represents the slope of inactivation curve; determined for inoculated pilot-scale (F) with an
18 antagonistic bacteria (PFH₁). The increase of this coefficient confirms the effectiveness of
19 inoculated bacteria to strengthen the rhizospheric effect and increase the reduction of
20 pathogenic bacteria. .

21 For the bacterial reduction rate (A), this parameter shows a small decrease for inoculated mini-
22 filter compared to the control mini-filter (T). This parameter revel the inactivation of target
23 bacteria at the first contact with autochtone rhizospheric biomass with and without Bio-helper
24 (bio-inoculation). The stabilization of this parameter indicated directly the need of acclimation

1 time for the inoculated bacteria to the *in situ* environment. Therefore, the first inactivation effect
2 was govern by autochthone biomass by various interactions such as antibiosis, biological
3 antagonism, the competition for nutrients and parasitism (Di Francesco, Martini, and Mari 2016).
4 By a single inoculation of antagonistic bacteria, we can increase pathogenic bacteria removal
5 by 1.6 U-Log₁₀ of initial indicator bacteria. This result affirms well the use of bioinoculation
6 for biocontrol.

7 The enhancement of the rhizobacterium potential in mini-filter planted by *Phragmites*
8 *australis* is strongly related to antagonist bacteria growth parameters, namely, the lag time (λ_t)
9 the maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}), the bacterium generation time (t_G).

10 In the control minifilter (T), the inhibition of pathogenic bacteria (*S. typhi*) is carried out by
11 the autochthon bacterial colonization of the rhizoplane.

12 The bacterial inactivation kinetic is in perfect agreement with the first order model of Chick-
13 Watson (Equation1).

14 However, in the mini-filter (F), after bioinoculation of interested bacteria (PFH₁), we cannot
15 apply the first order model of Chick-Watson to report the effect of bioinoculation on indicator
16 bacteria inactivation. Indeed, in the inoculated pilot-scale, we must consider several parameters.
17 The most important are: the growth parameters of inoculated bacteria (the lag time, (λ_t) the
18 maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}), the bacterium generation time (t_G), the adaptable time, etc.

19 For example the optimal growth rate of inoculate bacteria (μ_{opt}) is determined where all
20 environmental conditions are optimal such as temperature (t_{opt}), pH (pH_{opt}), the water activity
21 (aw_{opt}), etc.

22 The combined effect of several environmental factors is then determined by multiplying the
23 respective gamma factors. The Gamma concept was introduced by Zwietering et al. (1992)

1 and is based on two principles: (i) all measurable factors, that influence the growth rate (μ),
 2 are independent and occur multiplicatively:

$$3 \quad \mu = f(\theta) \times f(\text{pH}) \times f(\text{aw}) \times \dots \times f(\text{others}) \quad (2)$$

4 (ii) The effect of each environmental factor on the growth rate can be represented by a
 5 fraction of the maximum growth rate:

$$6 \quad \gamma = \mu / \mu_{\text{opt}} \text{ (Comprise between 0 and 1)} \quad (3)$$

$$7 \quad \mu_{\text{max}} = \mu_{\text{opt}} \gamma(\theta) \gamma(\text{pH}) \gamma(\text{aw}) \dots \gamma(\text{others}) \quad (4)$$

8 Where γ : represents a function taking into account the factor influencing μ_{opt} ; θ : temperature
 9 ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)

10

11 In the inoculated mini-filter (F) we cannot overlook the contribution of autochthon rizobacterium
 12 in pathogen bacteria removal. Indeed, the antagonist activity of inoculated bacteria set up after a
 13 lag time (λ_t):

$$14 \quad \text{If } t < \lambda_t + \alpha; \quad N/N_o = A_T \exp(-k \cdot t) \quad (5)$$

$$15 \quad \text{If } t \geq \lambda_t + \alpha; \quad N/N_o = A' \exp(-k' \cdot t) \quad (6)$$

16

17 With;

$$A' = A + A_{\alpha}$$

$$18 \quad A' = A \times (1 + \mu_{\text{max}})$$

$$19 \quad k' = k + (k_{\alpha})$$

$$20 \quad k^{\gamma} = k (1 + \mu_{\text{max}})^{n+m}$$

21 In the mini-filter (F), we can model the inactivation kinetics of indicator bacteria as following:

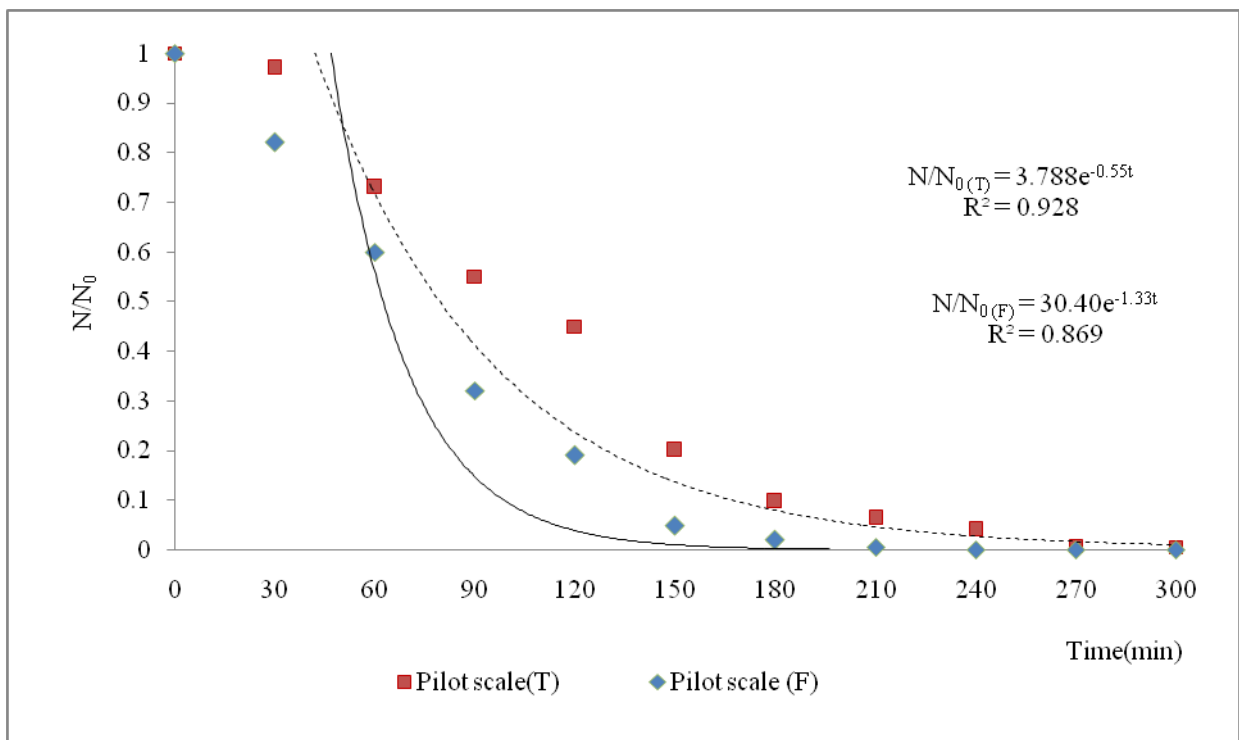
$$22 \quad N/N_o = A \times (1 + \mu_{\text{max}})_{\alpha} \exp [(-k \times (1 + \mu_{\text{max}})^{n+m}) t] \quad (7)$$

23

1 Where, N/N_0 : is the reduction in the indicator bacterial concentration, N_t : Number of viable
 2 cultivable bacteria at time t ; N_0 : Number of viable and cultivable bacteria at time t_0 ; k :
 3 Coefficient of inactivation; A : The bacterial reduction rate; k' : coefficient of bacteria inactivation
 4 related by the presence of injected bacteria; A' : The bacterial removal rate related by the
 5 presence of injected bacteria, m : threshold inactivation or threshold events undergo by the
 6 bacterium after bioinoculation and α : A acclimation time of inoculated bacteria.

7 2.2. Removes bacteria with sequential bioinoculation

8 To strengthen the rhizocompetence in pathogen removal bacteria, sequential injections of the
 9 selected bacteria were performed at time 0, 60, 120 min and 180 min. The choice of the
 10 injection time was based on the bacterium lag time that equal to 60 min (Figure 4).



11
 12 **Figure 4.** The kinetic of pathogen bacteria removal in mini-filter (F) with sequential bioinoculation of
 13 antagonistic bacteria.

14

1 By a series of multi-bioinoculation, we can see the enhancement of pathogen bacteria
2 reduction compared to the inhibition rate in control pilot-scale (T) by $2 \text{ U-Log}_{10}(N/N_0)$.

3 The accumulative effect of sequential bio-injection and the keeping of the exponential growth
4 phase of interest bacteria (based on the growth curve of PFH₁ strain) allowed us to increase
5 the coefficient of indicator bacteria inactivation (k) to 1.33 min^{-1} determined after three bio-
6 injection in mini-filter (F) versus a value of k equal to 0.35 min^{-1} determined in the control
7 mini-filter (T) without bio-injection.

8 We can note the increase of inactivation rate (A) determined for inoculated pilot-scale (F)
9 compared to control scale.

10 The difference in kinetic parameter (k and A) determined for both mini-filter T and F is
11 proportional of growth bacteria factors (λ_t) the maximum specific growth rate (μ_{\max}), the
12 bacterium generation time (t_G)).

13 The enhancement of pathogen inactivation rate is positively correlated with the growth bio-
14 inoculum factors (A' and k') and the number of injection.

15 We can modulate this result as following:

$$16 \quad N/N_0 = [A \times (1 + \mu_{\max})^a \exp [(-k \times (1 + \mu_{\max})^{n+m}) t]]^b \quad (8)$$

17 With, b : the number of inoculation.

18

19 To resume, after the accumulation effect of three sequential bio-injections into a rizosphere
20 environment of *Phragmites australis*, the rizocompetence in bacterial removal was increased
21 by k' (1.33 min^{-1}) and A' (30.4) relative to the antagonist activity of interest bacteria with a
22 reduction in contact time.

23 The bioinoculation of antagonist showed positive results for most of the evaluated traits (single
24 and multisequential injections), demonstrating the great potential of this practice use in order
25 to increase the quality of sanitary. The results of the present study reaffirm the possibility of

1 developing a commercial bioinoculant to be applied in biological water treatment process to
2 improve the treated water quality.

3

4 **CONCLUSION**

5 From the present research, we can conclude that application of bioinoculation has a potential
6 to enhance the pathogenic bacteria removal process. Indeed, the preliminary results show the
7 beneficial effect of the bioinoculated strain (PFH₁) in the rhizosphere to increase remarkably
8 the efficiency of the water treatment system for the reduction of pathogenic bacteria with a
9 reduction in contact time.

10 This study has contributed with an eco-friendly strategy to improve water treatment process
11 by constructed wetland, and highlighted the fact that better yields can be obtained through
12 bio-inoculation.

13 As a perspective of this study, the application of this strategy in field conditions with multi-
14 inoculation of antagonists substances protected by natural polymers to inactivate pathogenic
15 bacteria in treated water without chemical addition, extension in the retention time or addition
16 of a complement water treatment stages.

17 **Acknowledgment**

18 This work is supported by CERTE contract programs funded by the Ministry of Higher
19 Education and Scientific Research of Tunisia.

20

21 **References**

22 Ben Saad M, Ben Said M, Bousselmi L, and Ghrabi A (2016) Application of Bioinoculation to
23 Enhance Rhizocompetence of Horizontal Subsurface Flow Constructed Wetland System, Desal
24 and Wat Treat 57 (46): 22133–39. doi:10.1080/19443994.2016.1141713.

25 Dekkers, L C, C C Phoelich, L van der Fits, and B J Lugtenberg. 1998. "A Site-Specific Recombinase
26 Is Required for Competitive Root Colonization by *Pseudomonas Fluorescens* WCS365."

- 1 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 95 (12): 7051–
2 56. doi:10.1073/pnas.95.12.7051.
- 3 Faulwetter, Jennifer L., Vincent Gagnon, Carina Sundberg, Florent Chazarenc, Mark D. Burr, Jacques
4 Brisson, Anne K. Camper, and Otto R. Stein. 2009. “Microbial Processes Influencing
5 Performance of Treatment Wetlands: A Review.” *Ecological Engineering* 35 (6): 987–1004.
6 doi:10.1016/j.ecoleng.2008.12.030.
- 7 Francesco, A. Di, C. Martini, and M. Mari. 2016. “Biological Control of Postharvest Diseases by
8 Microbial Antagonists: How Many Mechanisms of Action?” *European Journal of Plant
9 Pathology* 145 (4). *European Journal of Plant Pathology*: 711–17. doi:10.1007/s10658-016-0867-
10 0.
- 11 Ghrabi, Ahmed, Latifa Bousselmi, Fabio Masi, and Martin Regelsberger. 2011. “Constructed Wetland
12 as a Low Cost and Sustainable Solution for Wastewater Treatment Adapted to Rural Settlements:
13 The Chorfech Wastewater Treatment Pilot Plant.” *Water Science and Technology* 63 (12): 3006–
14 12. doi:10.2166/wst.2011.563.
- 15 Hench, K R, G K Bissonnette, A J Sexstone, J G Coleman, K Garbutt, and J G Skousen. 2003. “Fate
16 of Physical, Chemical, and Microbial Contaminants in Domestic Wastewater Following
17 Treatment by Small Constructed Wetlands.” *Water Res* 37 (4): 921–27. doi:S0043-
18 1354(02)00377-9 [pii].
- 19 Hill, V.R. R., and M.D. D. Sobsey. 2001. “Removal of Salmonella and Microbial Indicators in
20 Constructed Wetlands Treating Swine Wastewater.” In *Water Science and Technology*, 44:215–
21 22.
- 22 Liu, Ranbin, Yaqian Zhao, Liam Doherty, Yuansheng Hu, and Xiaodi Hao. 2015. “A Review of
23 Incorporation of Constructed Wetland with Other Treatment Processes.” *Chemical Engineering
24 Journal*. doi:10.1016/j.cej.2015.05.023.
- 25 Liu, Wing-Yee, Chi-Fat Wong, Karl Ming-Kar Chung, Jing-Wei Jiang, and Frederick Chi-Ching
26 Leung. 2013. “Comparative Genome Analysis of Enterobacter Cloacae.” *PLoS ONE* 8 (9):
27 e74487. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0074487.
- 28 Meng, Panpan, Haiyan Pei, Wenrong Hu, Yuanyuan Shao, and Zheng Li. 2014. “How to Increase
29 Microbial Degradation in Constructed Wetlands: Influencing Factors and Improvement
30 Measures.” *Bioresource Technology* 157. Elsevier Ltd: 316–26.
31 doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2014.01.095.
32
- 33 Nie L, Shah S, Rashid A, Burd GI, Dixon DG, Glick BR (2002) Phytoremediation of arsenate
34 contaminated soil by transgenic canola and the plant growth-promoting bacterium *Enterobacter
35 cloacae* CAL2. *Plant Physiol Biochem* 40, 355–361
- 36 Shen, Zhiqiang, Yuexi Zhou, Jia Liu, Yu Xiao, Rong Cao, and Fuping Wu. 2015. “Enhanced Removal
37 of Nitrate Using starch/PCL Blends as Solid Carbon Source in a Constructed Wetland.”
38 *Bioresource Technology* 175. Elsevier Ltd: 239–44. doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2014.10.006.
- 39 Sindhu, Satyavir S., Yuvraj S. Rakshiya, and Govind Sahu. 2009. “Biological Control of Soilborne
40 Plant Pathogens.” *Pest Technology* 3: 10–21. doi:10.1017/S0889189300002253.
- 41 Sujatha N., and K. Ammani. 2013. “Siderophore Production By the Isolates of Fluorescent
42 Pseudomonads.” *International Journal of Current Research and Review* 5 (20): 1–7.

- 1 <http://www.scopemed.org/?mno=47599>.
- 2 Tee, Pei Fang, Mohammad Omar Abdullah, Ivy Ai Wei Tan, Nur Khairunnisa Abdul Rashid,
3 Mohamed Afizal Mohamed Amin, Cirilo Nolasco-Hipolito, and Kopli Bujang. 2016. "Review on
4 Hybrid Energy Systems for Wastewater Treatment and Bio-Energy Production." *Renewable and*
5 *Sustainable Energy Reviews* 54: 235–46. doi:10.1016/j.rser.2015.10.011.
- 6 Vymazal, Jan. 2014. "Constructed Wetlands for Treatment of Industrial Wastewaters: A Review."
7 *Ecological Engineering* 73. Elsevier B.V.: 724–51. doi:10.1016/j.ecoleng.2014.09.034.
- 8 Wang, Qian, Huijun Xie, Huu Hao Ngo, Wenshan Guo, Jian Zhang, Cui Liu, Shuang Liang, Zhen Hu,
9 Zhongchen Yang, and Congcong Zhao. 2015. "Microbial Abundance and Community in
10 Subsurface Flow Constructed Wetland Microcosms: Role of Plant Presence." *Environmental*
11 *Science and Pollution Research*. doi:10.1007/s11356-015-4286-0.
- 12 Wang, Xiaou, Yimei Tian, Xinhua Zhao, Sen Peng, Qing Wu, and Lijian Yan. 2015. "Effects of
13 Aeration Position on Organics, Nitrogen and Phosphorus Removal in Combined Oxidation Pond-
14 Constructed Wetland Systems." *Bioresource Technology* 198. Elsevier Ltd: 7–15.
15 doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2015.08.150.
- 16 Wu, Haiming, Jian Zhang, Huu Hao, Wenshan Guo, Zhen Hu, Shuang Liang, Jinlin Fan, et al. 2015.
17 "A Review on the Sustainability of Constructed Wetlands for Wastewater Treatment: Design and
18 Operation." *Bioresource Technology* 175. Elsevier Ltd: 594–601.
19 doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2014.10.068.
- 20 Wu, Shubiao, Scott Wallace, Hans Brix, Peter Kuschik, Wesley Kipkemoi, Fabio Masi, Renjie Dong,
21 Wesley Kipkemoi Kirui, Fabio Masi, and Renjie Dong. 2015. "Treatment of Industrial Effluents
22 in Constructed Wetlands: Challenges, Operational Strategies and Overall Performance."
23 *Environmental Pollution* 201. Elsevier Ltd: 107–20. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2015.03.006.
- 24 Zaytsev, Igor, Ülo Mander, Krista Lõhmus, and Kaspar Nurk. 2011. "Enhanced Denitrification in a
25 Bioaugmented Horizontal Subsurface Flow Filter." *Ecological Engineering* 37 (7): 1050–57.
26 doi:10.1016/j.ecoleng.2010.10.007.
- 27 Zhang, Dong Qing, K. B S N Jinadasa, Richard M. Gersberg, Yu Liu, Wun Jern Ng, and Soon Keat
28 Tan. 2014. "Application of Constructed Wetlands for Wastewater Treatment in Developing
29 Countries - A Review of Recent Developments (2000-2013)." *Journal of Environmental*
30 *Management* 141. Elsevier Ltd: 116–31. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2014.03.015.

31