

## **Research** Article

# Antibiofilm and Anti-Quorum Sensing Potential of Safely-Synthesized Hydrated Zirconium Oxide-Coated Alginate Beads against Some Pathogenic Bacteria

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Water is essential to life, but access to uncontaminated water remains a global challenge. Metal oxides possess particular characteristics required for removing heavy metals, inorganic and organic pollutants from wastewater as well as inhibiting microorganisms. Zirconium oxide and alginate which are nontoxic materials were used to synthesize hydrated zirconium oxidealginate coated materials, ZAB-1 (1.5% alginate) and ZAB-2 (2.0% alginate). FT-IR was used to characterize the functional groups while surface morphology was characterized using SEM. XRD was used to characterize the material structure of the resulting composite. Against Chromobacterium violaceum CV12472, minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were 0.625 mg/mL for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 while against C. violaceum CV026, the MIC values were 0.625 mg/mL and 1.25 mg/mL for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively. At MIC and sub-MIC concentrations, the synthesized beads inhibited the production of violacein in C. violaceum CV12472 and C. violaceum CV026, indicating that they can reduce QS-mediated virulence factors in bacteria. Antimicrobial activity was evaluated against Staphylococcus aureus, Enterococcus faecalis, Listeria monocytogenes, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Salmonella typhi, Candida albicans, and Candida tropicalis, and MIC values ranged from 1.25 mg/mL to 10 mg/mL. Biofilm inhibition percentages were relatively high against S. aureus, E. coli, and C. albicans. It is observed that the increase in the alginate amount from 1.5% to 2.0% improves the antimicrobial, anti-QS, and antibiofilm effects. The alginate makes the zirconium oxide particles biocompatible and easily recoverable from water after treatment. ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 materials can therefore be sustainable materials for water treatment since it can inhibit pathogenic bacteria in water and equally satisfy environmental friendliness. The synthesized particles reduced the chances for antimicrobial resistance since they disrupted QS in bacteria and eliminated biofilms, thereby preventing biofouling of microbial communities in water. Future prospects of this study involve biofiltration, that is, the use of the synthesized composite in the development of a safe and compatible biofilter for water purification.

#### 1. Introduction

Over 780 million people across the globe do not have access to clean and safe water, and an approximate number of about 2.5 billion people in the developing countries do not have adequate sanitation, placing them under a high risk of waterborne diseases [1, 2]. Waterborne diseases which are caused by various pathogens usually transmitted through water constitutes a major health challenge, resulting in mortalities and morbidities and some of them are directly resulting from deterioration of the environment and pollution [3]. Although many efforts are being made to ensure safe water, outbreaks of waterborne infections continue to appear throughout the globe. More than 400 microorganisms cause waterborne diseases and have different origins and modes of transmission but more than 95% of these waterborne diseases can be prevented. However, some factors such as lack of resources, emerging resistant pathogens, and chemical contaminants make it difficult [4]. Some of the bacteria in water usually evolve into resistant strains that are able to survive the effects of disinfectants, detergents, and antibiotics, making biological treatment of water difficult to achieve except by targeting their quorum sensing network, thus demanding the search for new alternative water treatments. Quorum sensing (QS) involves a cell-cell communication system in bacterial life processes involving secretion, detection, and response to small signalling molecules known as autoinducers (AIs) [5, 6]. QS controls virulence factors in bacteria such as biofilm formation, violacein production, and motilities [7]. Most of the microbial resistance mechanisms and virulence include antibiotic efflux pumps, pathogenic gene expression, swarming motility, the production of toxins, and formation of biofilm [8]. It is therefore a suitable strategy to search for quorum-quenching materials which can prevent microbial resistance and use them against drug-resistant pathogens [9]. However, water is usually contaminated by both biological contaminants and chemical substances. Metal oxides with or without polymers have demonstrated important properties such as antibacterial, adsorption, magnetic properties, large surface area, and surface mobility [10]. Such polymer-metal oxide nanocomposites are more potent in water treatment since they possess high photodegradation activity toward pollutants under simulated visible light [10]. Polymer nanoparticles are highly used in eliminating pollutants from water because of their tuneable surface chemistry, large surface area, pore size distribution, and perfect mechanical rigidity [11].

As a result of various industrial applications, metals (such as arsenic, cadmium, chromium, mercury, nickel, and lead) can leak into wastewater and unfortunately, pollute the waters and negatively affect the aquatic ecosystem [12–14]. In addition, exposure to such metal residues causes some health problems such as liver damage, lung congestion, and shortness of breath [15]. Physical and chemical methods such as chemical precipitation, electrolysis, ion exchange, membrane filtration, solvent extraction, reverse osmosis, and liquid extraction are used to remove such metals from wastewater [16–19]. Removal of metals using these methods

is costly [16, 20, 21]. Therefore, using adsorption methods to remove metals is very advantageous in terms of simplicity and cost reduction [14, 19, 21–30]. In the literature, cerium, iron, manganese, aluminium, titanium, and zirconium-based oxides/hydroxides, and nanometal oxides/hydrox-ides have been extensively studied for metal removal from wastewater [14, 31–38].

Among the metallic materials used in water purification, zirconium-based particles are of great interest [14, 27, 39-41]. The possible rich hydroxyl groups on the zirconium-based particles are responsible for metal removal via ligand or ion exchange [42]. Zirconium-based materials are water-insoluble, nontoxic, and stable [43]. However, their use alone can cause the release of particles into the water, which can potentially harm native flora and fauna. To solve this, these adsorbents are made into composites with supportive biomaterials. Forming composites of Zr-based particles with supports such as alginate beads [44-46], chitosan beads [46-48], polystyrene anion exchanger [46, 49], and carbon nanotubes has been reported to be highly effective in preventing the release of this adsorbent into the environment [46, 50, 51]. Of these, alginate has a strong affinity for metal ions. Metal ions (positively charged) are electrostatically attracted to negatively charged carboxyl groups in calcium alginate. The synthesis of various adsorbents made up of alginate beads, cross-linked with calcium ions is usually an environmentally friendly method [28, 46, 52]. These composites can be used to remove both cationic and anionic contaminants from wastewater. Generally, hydrothermal [42], precipitation [27], and sol-gel methods [39] are used to synthesize Zr-based composite. The filtration-steam hydrolysis method is a simple way of coating the polymer with the metal oxides [53]. The morphology and thickness of this coating help in increasing the specific surface area and also increasing adsorption. It is known that metal alkoxide can be reduced to alcohol (A) and hydrated metal oxide after a filtration-steam hydrolysis reaction. It has been reported that the hydrated zirconium oxide  $(ZrO(H_2O))$  formed from such a process is composed of many hydrated polymeric species such as ZrAO, HAOAH, and ZrAOH [54, 55].

The adsorption capacities of Zr-based materials have been demonstrated in many studies, especially on the removal of metal ions from wastewater, as described above. Based on our knowledge, there is no study in the literature that determines the antimicrobial properties of zirconium oxide materials especially for waterborne pathogens. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to synthesize hydrated zirconium oxide-alginate beads and determine their effects on virulence factors of some major waterborne pathogens.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Synthesis of Alginate Beads. The alginate beads were synthesized by the sol-gel templating method, as described elsewhere [14]. Sodium alginate was dissolved in deionized water to prepare alginate solutions with different percentages, that is, 1.5 wt % (alginate solution 1) or 2.0 wt %

(alginate solution 2). Each of the alginate solutions was added dropwise to a 2% (w/v) calcium chloride solution in order to cross-link the alginate with the  $Ca^{2+}$  ions to form alginate beads. The alginate beads were incubated in the calcium chloride solution overnight. Then, the beads were washed with deionized water several times to give AB-1 beads from alginate solution 1 (1.5 wt %) and AB-2 beads from alginate solution 2 (2.0 wt %).

2.2. Preparation of Hydrated Zirconium Oxide-Coated Alginate Beads. Hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads were prepared by a filtration-steam hydrolysis method described previously [14]. 150 beads of alginate (AB-1 and AB-2) and 5 mL of zirconium n-propoxide were dispersed in 50 mL of absolute ethanol by sonication for 1 hour. The mixture was filtered under vacuum through a polytetrafluoroethylene membrane. Then, water vapor at 75°C was passed through the beads for 2 hours to induce the formation of hydrated zirconium oxide on the surface of the beads. After this procedure, the beads were washed several times with distilled water/ethanol (50:50) solution. The hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads were dried at 100°C overnight. They were denoted ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 obtained from AB-1 (1.5 wt % alginate) and AB-2 (2.0 wt % alginate), respectively. In addition, hydrated zirconium oxide  $(ZrO(H_2O))$  was synthesized by the hydrolysis method to be used as a control group in characterization analyses. Again, 5 mL of zirconium n-propoxide was dissolved in 50 mL of absolute ethanol, and the mixture was sonicated for 1 hour. The product was washed several times with distilled water/ ethanol (50:50) solution. The hydrated zirconium oxide was dried at 100°C overnight. The schematic representation of the synthesis is given in Figure 1.

2.3. Characterization of Hydrated Zirconium Oxide-Coated Alginate Beads. Surface groups and chemical structure of raw hydrated zirconium oxide, raw alginate, and hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads were analyzed using Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy. The surface morphology hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads was analyzed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) a JEOL JSM 7600 F model equipment. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed using a Rigaku Miniflex Desktop XRD device with a Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda$  = 1.5406 Å) source. The sample was scanned in continuous mode with a step size of 0.01° s, from 5 to 90° (2 $\theta$ ), with a scanning rate of 10°/min produced at 40 kV and 30 mA.

2.4. Microbial Strains. The following waterborne pathogens were used in the assays: Staphylococcus aureus ATCC 25923, Enterococcus faecalis ATCC 29212, Listeria monocytogenes ATCC 7644, Escherichia coli ATCC 25922, Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853, Salmonella Typhi ATCC 14028, Candida albicans ATCC 10239, Candida tropicalis ATCC 13803, Chromobacterium violaceum CV12472, Chromobacterium violaceum CV026, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa PA01. The Gram-positive bacteria Staphylococcus aureus,

Listeria monocytogenes, and Enterococcus faecalis have been described to infect humans through the consumption of contaminated water or seafood are therefore part of water pathogens [3]. The Gram-negative bacteria involved in this study are Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Salmonella Typhi which have been described as pathogens involved in waterborne diseases [56]. Candida species including Candida albicans and Candida tropicalis together with other opportunistic yeasts have been detected in polluted waters [57]. Chromobacterium violaceum is an opportunistic Gram-negative bacillus that inhabit soil and water environments especially in tropical and subtropical regions [58].

2.5. Antimicrobial Activity Assay by Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) Determination. The MIC of each sample was evaluated using the broth microdilution method as described [59]. MIC is the lowest concentration that inhibited visible growth and was determined using a spectrophotometer [9]. Mueller–Hinton broth (MHB) was used with microbial density of  $5 \times 10^5$  colony-forming units (CFU)/mL.  $10 \,\mu$ L of microbial solution were inoculated into  $200 \,\mu$ L wells containing MHB ( $170 \,\mu$ L) and test sample ( $20 \,\mu$ L) with different concentrations samples (10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, and 0.312 mg/mL). The plates were read at 600 nm using a multiscan Go microplate reader (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) after incubation for 24 h at  $37^{\circ}$ C.

2.6. Evaluation of Percentage Inhibition of Biofilm Using the Crystal Violet Staining Method. The antibiofilm activity at MIC and sub-MIC concentrations (1, 1/2, 1/4, and 1/8 MIC) of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were measured, as described previously [60, 61]. Briefly, tryptose-soy broth (TSB) containing 0.25% glucose was used and 1% (v/v) overnight microbial cultures were added to 200 µL wells with or without ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 at their MIC and sub-MIC. The wells with only media and microbial cells served as control. After 48 hours incubation, planktonic bacteria were removed, and the wells were stained with 0.1% crystal violet in distilled water for 10 minutes. After removing the crystal violet, 200 µL of ethanol or 200 µL of 33% glacial acetic acid were filled into the wells, and  $125 \,\mu\text{L}$  from each well was pipetted into a sterile tube and made up to 1 mL volume with distilled water. The optical density was read at 550 nm (Thermo Scientific Multiskan FC, Vantaa, Finland), and the percentage inhibition of biofilm calculated as follows:

Biofilm inhibition (%) = 
$$\frac{OD550_{Control} - OD550_{Sample}}{OD550_{Control}} \ge 100.$$
(1)

2.7. Quorum Sensing Inhibition (QSI) Activity of Samples on C. violaceum CV026. Inhibition of quorum sensing (QS) was performed, as described previously [62, 63]. Briefly,  $100 \,\mu$ L of overnight CV026 culture was added to 5 mL of warm molten soft agar (200 mL H2O, 1.3 g agar, 1.0 g NaCl,



FIGURE 1: Scheme for the synthesis of hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads.

2.0 g tryptone) together with  $20 \,\mu$ L of exogenous C6HSL ( $100 \,\mu$ g/mL) acylhomoserine lactone (AHL). The mixture was stirred and poured over LBA agar plates as an overlay. 5 mm diameter wells were made on the plate surfaces into which 50  $\mu$ L of sterilized ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were added, and the plates incubated at 30°C for 3 days. After this, a cream-coloured halo around each well indicated QSI, and the diameters were recorded in millimetres. Each experiment was done in triplicate.

2.8. Violacein Inhibition of Samples of C. violacium CV12472. ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were evaluated for qualitative inhibition of violacein pigment to find out their QSI potential using C. violaceum ATCC 12472 [64, 65]. 10  $\mu$ L of C. violaceum overnight cultures, adjusted to 0.4 OD at 600 nm, were added to a 200  $\mu$ L well containing LB broth in the presence and absence of 20  $\mu$ L MIC and sub-MICs of samples. C. violaceum ATCC 12472 in LB broth without samples was used as a control. These plates were incubated for 24 hours at 30°C, and the reduction in violacein pigment production was measured through absorbances at 585 nm. The violacein inhibition percentages were calculated using the following formula:

$$Violacein inhibition (\%) = \frac{OD 585 \text{ control} - OD 585 \text{ sample}}{OD 585 \text{ control}} x100.$$
(2)

2.9. Swarming Motility Inhibition in P. aeruginosa PA01. Swarming motility inhibition was performed, as described elsewhere [66, 67]. Briefly, P. aeruginosa PA01 overnight cultures were inoculated at the center of swarming plates (0.5% agar, 1% peptone, 0.5% D-glucose, and 0.5% NaCl) containing concentrations of 50, 75, and 100 µg/mL of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2. The plates without ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 served as controls. Plates were incubated at 37°C in an upright position for 18 h. The area covered by bacterial growth or swarming migration fronts was recorded, and the percentage inhibition of the swarming movement was calculated.

2.10. Statistical Analysis. Each experiment was repeated three times, and the results are expressed as mean- $s \pm$  standard error of the mean. The Student's test was used to

determine the significant differences between various means, and the values for p < 0.05 were regarded as significant.

#### 3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of Hydrated Zirconium Oxide-Coated Alginate Beads. The encapsulation of hydrated zirconium oxide into the alginate beads was verified by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR). The FT-IR spectra of the raw hydrated zirconium oxide, raw sodium alginate, and hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads are shown in Figure 2. In the FT-IR of raw hydrated zirconium oxide (Figure 2), the bands with absorption maxima at approximately 1630 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3450 cm<sup>-1</sup> were attributed to the bending and stretching vibrations of hydroxyl groups,



FIGURE 2: FT-IR spectra of raw hydrated zirconium oxide (a), raw sodium alginate (b), and hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads (c).

which are linked to the zirconium oxide. The band around 650 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponded to the Zr-O stretching vibration. Also, the band at approximately 1440 cm<sup>-1</sup> was attributed to the bending vibration of Zr-OH. The FT-IR spectra of sodium alginate (Figure 2) indicated important bands attributable to the hydroxyl and carboxylic functional groups. Stretching vibrations of hydroxyl groups of alginate were seen in the range of  $3000-3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , as a broad band. Stretching vibrations of aliphatic C-H bonds appeared at  $2900-2850 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The observed bands at 1650 and 1450 cm<sup>-1</sup> were attributed to the asymmetric and the symmetric vibrations of carboxylate ion, respectively. The bands in the spectra after cross-linking of alginate with calcium ions followed by coating with hydrated zirconium oxide (Figure 2) enabled the characterization of the alginate structure coated with hydrated zirconium oxide. The bands observed at 1100 and 930 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to the C-O stretching vibration of the pyranosyl ring and the C-O stretching with contributions from C-C-H and C-O-H deformation. In addition, the band around 650 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be attributed to the Zr-O stretching vibration. So, this shows that the synthesis and encapsulating processes were successfully achieved. Notably on the FT-IR, the bending and stretching vibrations of hydroxyl groups linked to the zirconium oxide were at 1630 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3450 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and the Zr-OH bending vibration was at approximately 1440 cm<sup>-1</sup> [68, 69]. Hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads exhibited stretching vibrations of hydroxyl groups smaller than those for sodium alginate since the hydroxyl and carboxylate groups of alginate and the Ca<sup>2+</sup> are chelated [70].

SEM analysis was performed to determine the morphology of the alginate bead without hydrated zirconium oxide in comparison with that of hydrated zirconium oxidecoated alginate beads, and SEM photographs are given in Figure 3. In both types of beads, the difference in roughness of the surfaces is clearly visible. In Figure 3, it is clear that after the zirconium oxide coating, the roughness on the surface of the beads increases accordingly and appreciably upon the addition of hydrated zirconium oxide in the surface area of the beads.

The XRD pattern for the synthesized hydrated zirconiaalginate beads with 2% alginate (ZAB-2) is given in Figure 4. The intensity and sharpness of the dominant diffraction peaks can reflect the purity of the synthesized hydrated zirconium oxide-alginate beads. The significant diffraction peaks that are comparable to the reported data for monoclinic ZrO<sub>2</sub> suggest high crystallinity as well. The strongest diffraction peak at 28.1° observed here has been described as the characteristic (111) plane of the monoclinic zirconia phase. The prominent peak at around 30°, usually attributed to the characteristic spacing (101) for tetragonal zirconia is absent on the XRD patterns for ZAB-2. The absence of the most important peak for tetragonal zirconia which occurs at 30° and corresponds to the spacing (111) for tetragonal zirconia, indicates an almost monoclinic nature. All the observed reflection peaks are referable and matched with the JCPDS (01-089-9066) for a dominant monoclinic phase of zirconia. The characteristic peaks at  $2\theta$  angles 28.1, 35.6, 39.8, 45.6, 49.6, 54.2, 55.3, 57.0, 60.2, 68.1, 74.0, and 76.5 have been described as characteristic for the existence of monoclinic phase of ZrO<sub>2</sub>. However, there were some shifts in peak positions at some points, which indicates some changes in the structure due to the added alginate. The XRD patterns for the ZAB-2 sample indicate a few additional peaks with low intensities which could be ascribable to a trace of the tetragonal phase (340, 350 and 60.20) and calcium alginate  $(20^{\circ} \text{ and } 28.5^{\circ})$  matrix. The peaks at  $2\theta 34^{\circ}$ ,  $35^{\circ}$ , and  $60.2^{\circ}$  were described as characteristic peaks of the tetragonal phase of zirconia while those at 20.06° and 28.96° are known to be calcium alginate peaks. The most important and majority of peaks in ZAB-2 are comparable to those in a reported study which were attributed to the monoclinic ZrO<sub>2</sub> phase in a sample containing both monoclinic and tetragonal ZrO<sub>2</sub> phases, and it was concluded that the monoclinic phase was greater than the tetragonal phase in terms of content. Summarily, on the XRD patterns of ZAB-2, there was the presence of the major diffraction maxima attributable to zirconium dioxide monoclinic phase ascribable to the spacings (111), (002), (112), (202), (013), (311), (023), and (114) which are thoroughly described in the literature. The FT-IR and XRD data were in conformity with the characteristic information reported for ZrO<sub>2</sub>. The characteristic XRD diffraction peak of the monoclinic zirconia phase appeared at 28.1° and there was an absence of a tetragonal zirconia diffraction peak at 30°, suggesting an almost monoclinic nature [71, 72]. Other prominent monoclinic zirconia peaks occurred at  $2\theta$  angles 28.1, 35.6, 39.8, 45.6, 49.6, 54.2, 55.3, 57.0, 60.2, 68.1, 74.0, and 76.5 in conformity with reported data [73–75]. The peaks at  $2\theta$ 20.06° and 28.96° are attributable to calcium alginate [75, 76]. Most of the important peaks of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 are in agreement with those of ZrO2 with the dominant monoclinic phase [77-79].

Biopolymer-metal oxide hybrids such as the ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 synthesized in this study enable chemists to combine the high-tech properties of metal oxides with those of biopolymers and such materials have biological activities



FIGURE 3: SEM micrographs of alginate bead without hydrated zirconium oxide coating ((a) X100 and (c) X250) and hydrated zirconium oxide-coated alginate beads ((b) X100 and (d) X250).



FIGURE 4: XRD patterns for ZAB-2 (hydrated zirconia-alginate beads with 2% alginate).

including antimicrobial properties [80, 81]. They are usually prepared by dispersing metal oxides into commercially available polymers, as in this study or by incorporating metal oxides during the polymerization process [82]. The encapsulation of the zirconium oxide particles into a natural biopolymer such as alginate makes them more compatible with the environment and living systems and also enables them not to contaminate or leak into the environment while maintaining their properties. Dispersing metal oxides in a biopolymer also improves catalytic, surface, and magnetic properties as well as their weights which facilitates their sedimentation and recovery from the aqueous medium during the water purification process [83]. This means that the synthesized hydrated zirconium oxide-alginate-coated beads (ZAB-1 and ZAB-2) possess suitable properties for wastewater treatment. This can be attributed to its absorption properties and antiseptic nature. The added advantage is that ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 satisfy environmental exigencies due to their biocompatibility and ease of recovery after usage.

3.2. Antimicrobial and Antibiofilm Activities. The antimicrobial activity of the synthesized beads was determined against three Gram-positive bacteria, three Gram-negative bacteria, and two fungi (Table 1). The MIC values of both ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were 1.25 mg/mL against E. faecalis and 5 mg/mL against L. monocytogenes. Against S. aureus, the MIC values were 2.5 mg/mL and 1.25 mg/mL for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively. The MIC values of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were 10 mg/mL against P. aeruginosa and 2.5 mg/mL against S. Typhi. Against E. coli, MIC values were 10 mg/mL and 5 mg/mL for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively. For the yeast cells, MIC values of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 were 2.5 mg/mL against C. albicans. The MIC values of ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 against C. tropicalis were 5 mg/mL and 2.5 mg/mL, respectively. The antimicrobial activity was almost the same for both beads except against S. aureus, E. coli, and C. tropicalis, against which ZAB-2 was more active than ZAB-1.

Most antimicrobial substances have limited efficacy because they are able to eliminate or inhibit planktonic bacterial communities but are often challenged by biofilm bacterial communities, which are difficult to treat. Biofilms consist of a protective polymeric matrix developed by pathogenic yeasts, Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, and helps them to adapt to environmental stress, antibiotics, starvation, and host immune system [84]. The ability of the synthesized beads (ZAB-1 and ZAB-2) to inhibit biofilms was evaluated at MIC and sub-MIC concentrations and reported in Table 2. ZAB-1 inhibited the biofilm of S. aureus with percentage inhibition varying from  $26.47 \pm 0.42\%$  at MIC to  $04.83 \pm 0.11\%$  at MIC/4. The biofilm inhibition percentage of ZAB-2 against S. aureus varied from  $74.22 \pm 2.24\%$  at MIC to  $08.70 \pm 0.63\%$  at MIC/8. Against E. faecalis, biofilm percentage inhibition varied from  $14.56 \pm 0.13\%$  at MIC to  $5.06 \pm 0.07\%$  at MIC/2 for ZAB-1 and from 22.91  $\pm$  1.27% at MIC to 12.65  $\pm$  0.55% at MIC/2 for ZAB-2. This variation was similar to that observed against another Gram-positive bacteria L. monocytogenes. ZAB-2 showed slightly higher antibiofilm activity than ZAB-1 against Gram-positive bacteria.

For the Gram-negative bacteria, inhibition of E. coli biofilm varied from  $32.41 \pm 0.65\%$  at MIC to  $16.98 \pm 0.75\%$ at MIC/4 for ZAB-1 and from  $55.26 \pm 2.02\%$  at MIC to  $14.13 \pm 0.21\%$  at MIC/2 for ZAB-2. Against P. aeruginosa, biofilms were inhibited only at MIC and were  $13.15 \pm 0.89\%$  and  $13.78 \pm 0.39\%$  for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively. It was observed that biofilm inhibition was higher against E. coli and P. aeruginosa for ZAB-2 than ZAB-1. Against S. Typhi, antibiofilm activity was found to be  $13.9 \pm 0.83\%$  at MIC for ZAB-1 and for ZAB-2, 14.50  $\pm$  0.28% at MIC, and 6.80  $\pm$  0.07% at MIC/2. The beads inhibited fungal biofilms almost to the same extent. Inhibition of *C. albicans* biofilm varied from  $32.46 \pm 0.32\%$ (MIC) to  $09.22 \pm 0.5\%$  (MIC/2) for ZAB-1 and from  $35.22 \pm 0.15\%$  (MIC) to  $10.25 \pm 0.35\%$  (MIC/2) for ZAB-2. Antibiofilm activity against C. tropicalis varied from  $38.38 \pm 0.61\%$  (MIC) to  $09.21 \pm 0.35\%$  (MIC/4) for ZAB-1 and from  $43.33 \pm 0.64\%$  (MIC) to  $11.35 \pm 0.42\%$  (MIC/4) for ZAB-2. The fact that the hydrated zirconium oxide-

TABLE 1: Antimicrobial activity (MIC in mg/mL) of test samples.

Mianoongonianoo	Sampl	e codes
Microorganisms	ZAB-1	ZAB-2
S. aureus	2.5	1.25
E. faecalis	1.25	1.25
L. monocytogenes	5	5
E. coli	10	5
P. aeruginosa	10	10
S. Typhi	2.5	2.5
C. albicans	2.5	2.5
C. tropicalis	5	2.5

TABLE 2: Antibiofilm activity (inhibition %) results of test samples.

Microorganisms	Concentration	ZAB-1	ZAB-2	
	MIC	$26.47\pm0.42$	$74.22\pm2.24$	
C autoria	MIC/2	$11.26\pm0.25$	$41.25 \pm 1.86$	
S. uureus	MIC/4	$04.83 \pm 0.11$	$23.44\pm0.90$	
	MIC/8	—	$08.70\pm0.63$	
	MIC	$14.56\pm0.13$	$22.91 \pm 1.27$	
E faccalia	MIC/2	$5.06\pm0.07$	$12.65\pm0.55$	
E. Juecans	MIC/4	—	—	
	MIC/8	—	—	
	MIC	$25.00 \pm 1.10$	$28.64 \pm 1.21$	
I monocutogonoc	MIC/2	$10.14\pm0.53$	$11.80\pm0.1$	
L. monocylogenes	MIC/4	—	_	
	MIC/8	—	—	
	MIC	$32.41 \pm 0.65$	$55.26 \pm 2.02$	
E soli	MIC/2	$16.98\pm0.75$	$23.08\pm0.61$	
E. coli	MIC/4	_	$14.13\pm0.21$	
	MIC/8	—	—	
	MIC	$13.15\pm0.89$	$13.78 \pm 0.39$	
D	MIC/2	_	_	
P. aeruginosa	MIC/4	_	_	
	MIC/8	—	—	
	MIC	$13.9 \pm 0.83$	$14.50\pm0.28$	
C. Troubi	MIC/2	—	$6.80\pm0.07$	
S. Typni	MIC/4	—	_	
	MIC/8	—	—	
C. albicans	MIC	$32.46 \pm 0.32$	$35.22\pm0.15$	
	MIC/2	$09.22 \pm 0.5$	$10.25\pm0.35$	
	MIC/4	—	_	
	MIC/8	—	—	
	MIC	$38.38 \pm 0.61$	$43.33 \pm 0.64$	
	MIC/2	$20.53 \pm 0.14$	$27.50\pm0.35$	
C. iropicalis	MIC/4	$09.21 \pm 0.35$	$11.35\pm0.42$	
	MIC/8	—	_	

-: no inhibition.

coated alginate beads could act as antimicrobial substances and inhibit biofilms is critically important.

The antimicrobial effects of zirconium oxide material are demonstrated in this study while the absorption capacities have been reported in other reports. Metal oxides possess suitable properties for the removal of heavy metals, inorganic pollutants, and organic pollutants from wastewater and also killing microorganisms [85]. Wastewater is the major cause of waterborne diseases such as deadly cholera and typhoid and usually contains bacteria and viruses as well as toxic chemical substances and heavy metals. Metal oxides such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, Ag<sub>2</sub>O, and CuO in addition to polymer/ metal oxide-based materials can use their photocatalytic degradation, adsorption, and antimicrobial activities as a multifaceted strategy to treat waste water [85, 86]. Most treatments for water are focused on removal of dirty particles and toxic chemicals while little attention is paid to health-threatening microorganisms [87-89]. The inhibitory effects against microorganisms by ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 offer additional relevance as a suitable biocide for water treatment. The alginate beads contribute in improving antimicrobial activity and also in avoiding the dispersion of the metal oxide particles in water after treatment. Polymermetal oxide nanocomposites are efficient disinfectants for water, and it was suggested that oxides of Ag, Ti, and Zn are able to inhibit various waterborne disease microbes owing to their charge capacity [10, 90]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of the biocidal effects of zirconium oxide-alginate beads. It can be observed that the antimicrobial activity in some cases increased with the increase in the percentage composition of alginate from 1.5% to 2.0%. This was the case with S. aureus, E. coli, and C. tropicalis. In some bacteria, the amount of alginate did not influence the antimicrobial activity as seen in the cases of E. faecalis, L. monocytogenes, P. aeruginosa, S. Typhi, and C. albicans. Alginate is amongst the nondigestible polysaccharides with antimicrobial and antibiofilm potential and can be used as adjuvants in combined antimicrobial therapies. In one study, alginate (2-16%) exhibited significant inhibition of microbial growth and could also prevent biofilm formation [91]. This could justify the fact that ZAB-2 (2% alginate) showed higher biofilm inhibition and antimicrobial activity on some test pathogens than ZAB-1 (1.5% alginate). Biofilms are a major cause of microbial resistance, and they can be established in almost any environment including water. Biofilms can be formed between one or more bacterial colonies and mixed biofilms are more resistant and can withstand common antibiotics, a lack of nutrients, and environmental stress. Many biopolymers such as chitosan, cellulose, starch, gelatine, collagen, alginates, pectin, hyaluronic acid, and fibrin are usually combined with antimicrobial substances to obtain biodegradable and biocompatible composites for antimicrobial applications [92].

3.3. Violacein Inhibition against C. violaceum CV12472 and Anti-Quorum Sensing against C. violaceum CV026. Chromobacterium violaceum CV12472 is a bacterium that produces a violet-coloured pigment known as violacein while growing under normal conditions. This pigment can be easily measured, and its production represents a quorum sensing process in bacteria. Violacein synthesis in this Gram-negative bacterium is a QS-regulated expression influenced by acylhomoserine lactones (AHLs) [93]. The MICs of the test samples on C. violaceum CV12472 were determined, and their violacein inhibition percentages were evaluated at MIC and sub-MIC concentrations and reported in Table 3. The MIC values were found to be 0.625 mg/mL on *C. violaceum* 12472 for both samples, ZAB-1 and ZAB-2. At MIC concentration, both samples had violacein inhibitions of 100% (determined from the optical density spectrophotometrically), but at MIC/2, ZAB-2 had violacein inhibition of 100% while ZAB-1 had 78.2  $\pm$  1.6%. This activity reduced in a concentration-dependent manner, and at MIC/16, the inhibition percentages were 10.6  $\pm$  0.3% and 25.1  $\pm$  0.4% for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively, while at MIC/32, only ZAB-2 could inhibit violacein production with percentage inhibition of 9.3  $\pm$  0.1%. The results indicate that ZAB-2 (2.0% wt alginate) possesses a slightly greater activity than ZAB-1 (1.5% wt alginate).

C. violaceum CV026 is a biosensor and wild mutant strain, which is either incapable of producing autoinducers such as AHL or deficient in AHL synthase and therefore requires an exogenous source of AHL to enable it produce violacein. For this reason, it serves as an important tool for studying QS mechanisms involving QS inhibitors of the signal molecules [94, 95]. The MIC values of the samples on C. violaceum CV026 were determined and reported in Table 4 alongside quorum sensing inhibition zone diameters against C. violaceum CV026 in the midst of an externally supplied AHL. The MIC values against C. violaceum CV026 were found to be 0.625 mg/mL and 1.25 mg/mL for ZAB-1 and ZAB-2, respectively. The anti-QS zone diameters were  $13.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ mm}$  (ZAB-1) and  $13.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ mm}$  (ZAB-2) at MIC and  $9.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ mm}$  (ZAB-1) and  $10.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ mm}$  (ZAB-2) at MIC/2. At MIC/4, only ZAB-2 had an inhibition zone of  $7.5 \pm 0.3$  mm while none of the samples inhibited QS against C. violaceum CV026 at MIC/8. There were no significant differences between the values of the anti-QS zones of both ZAB-1 and ZAB-2.

To effectively deal with resistant biofilm colonies, it is necessary to target quorum sensing networks since quorum sensing controls and regulates biofilm formation. Quorum sensing (QS) and biofilm disruption by the synthesized hydrated zirconium oxide-alginate beads provide an efficient strategy to prevent microbial infections and resistance. QS involves cell-to-cell communication in bacteria through the production and reception of small signal molecules called autoinducers which allow the bacteria to monitor their environment, population density, and control the expression of virulence genes and pathogenesis [96, 97]. Chromobacterium violaceum is a bacterium that occurs in various environments mostly in tropical regions, usually contaminates water and soils and can cause some rare and often fatal diseases. This bacterium is used as a model for quorum sensing (QS) inhibition. Shewanella spp., Aeromonas spp., Vibrio spp., and Chromobacterium violaceum are the four Gram-negative oxidase-positive bacteria which are usually associated with waterborne infections in tropical regions [98, 99]. It is therefore of great importance, as both ZAB-1 and ZAB-2 inhibited violacein production (QS) against the model organisms C. violaceum CV12472 and C. violaceum CV026. This bacterium produces a violet violacein pigment, a protective signal molecule which is easily measurable and represents a quorum sensing process [100]. C. violaceum CV12472 has intrinsic secretion of AHL and produces violacein when growing normally, and a decrease in this

Sample code MIC (mg/mL)	MIC (marked)	Violacein inhibition (%)					
	MIC (mg/mL)	MIC	MIC/2	MIC/4	MIC/8	MIC/16	MIC/32
ZAB-1	0.625	$100\pm0.00$	$78.2 \pm 1.6$	$51.5 \pm 0.2$	$27.9\pm0.5$	$10.6 \pm 0.3$	*
ZAB-2	0.625	$100\pm0.00$	$100\pm0.00$	$65.1 \pm 1.2$	$43.7\pm0.7$	$25.1\pm0.4$	$9.3 \pm 0.1$
* • 1 • 1 • • •							

TABLE 3: Violacein inhibition in C. violaceum CV12472 by the samples.

—\*: no inhibition.

TABLE 4: Quorum sensing inhibition zones in C. violaceum CV026 by samples.

Sample code		Anti-quorum sensing inhibition zones (mm)			
	MIC (mg/mL)	MIC	MIC/2	MIC/4	MIC/8
ZAB-1	0.625	$13.0 \pm 0.5$	$9.6 \pm 0.1$	_	_
ZAB-2	1.25	$13.5\pm0.8$	$10.0\pm0.5$	$7.5 \pm 0.3$	—

-: no activity.



FIGURE 5: Quorum sensing inhibition plates against *C. violaceum* CV026 (a), violacein inhibition plates against *C. violaceum* CV12472 (b), and (c) swarming motility inhibition plates against *P. aeruginosa* PA01.

pigment caused by antimicrobial samples represents violacein inhibition, an anti-QS process [101]. QS systems inhibition is a strategy to block signal molecules like acylhomoserine lactone (AHL) from their biosynthesis or by degrading the AHL synthesized by the bacteria and/or inactivating receptor proteins for the produced AHL [91]. The synthesized hydrated zirconium oxide-alginate beads decreased the levels of violacein production, reflected in a decrease in violet coloration, as shown on Figure 5. The mutant strain *C. violaceum* CV026 equally failed to produce violacein within QS inhibition zones, as seen in Figure 5 as halos around the wells containing sample solutions at different concentrations.

Violacein inhibition assays with *C. violaceum* CV12472 indicated the potential inhibition of signal production while with *C. violaceum* CV026 indicated blockage of signal reception [6, 102–106]. The ability of the zirconium oxidealginate beads to show antimicrobial activity, antibiofilm, and anti-QS potential on waterborne pathogens is a good indication that these materials can be suitable new biocides to treat infected water resources and avoid the development of resistant strains.

TABLE 5: Swarming motility inhibition on *P. aeruginosa* PA01 by test samples.

Sample codes	Swarming inhibition (%)			
	100 µg/mL	75 µg/mL	50 µg/mL	
ZAB-1	$25.1 \pm 1.1$	$08.5 \pm 0.2$	_	
ZAB-2	$33.3 \pm 1.2$	$17.5 \pm 0.4$	—	

—: no inhibition.

3.4. Swarming Motility Inhibition against P. aeruginosa PA01. Substances that are able to inhibit virulence factors regulated by quorum sensing find applications as suitable therapies against infections and microbial resistance. Swarming motility is a virulence factor used by flagellated bacteria such as P. aeruginosa to move to nutrient-rich sites and targets. It also enables the bacteria to colonize surfaces and establish biofilms through the production of rhamnolipids on wet surfaces which facilitates swarming [107]. The flagellated P. aeruginosa PA01 was used in this assay and the diameters of growth (swarm diameters) on the plates were measured at  $100 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$ , 75  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ , and 50  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  and used in calculating percentage inhibitions, and the results are presented in Table 5. Percentage inhibitions of swarming on P. aeruginosa PA01 were 25.1 ± 1.1% (ZAB-1) and 33.3 ± 1.2% (ZAB-2) at  $100 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$  and  $08.5 \pm 0.2\%$  (ZAB-1) and  $17.5 \pm 0.4\%$  (ZAB-2) at 75  $\mu$ g/mL and no inhibition of swarming was observed at 50 µg/mL. No significant difference was observed (p > 0.05) though the results indicated that ZAB-2 was slightly more active than ZAB-1. The zirconium oxidealginate beads (ZAB-1 and ZAB-2) inhibited swarming motility in P. aeruginosa PA01, indicating that they can reduce the incidence of biofilms at an early stage and reduce the spread of bacteria. This is because bacteria use swarming motility to move towards nutrients and surfaces and then colonize the surfaces before forming biofilms [8, 108–111]. Swarming is facilitated by flagella and quorum sensing and usually involves the production of biosurfactants to reduce surface tension between bacteria cells and the surrounding environment and also pack them together in colonies [112]. Therefore, the inhibition of swarming and biofilms by the zirconium oxide-alginate beads can reduce biofouling in water. Polymeric materials are new types of antimicrobials with antivirulence effects on various pathogens and different modes of action, finding applications in multiple domains [113].

Purification technology plays a crucial role in the production of safe drinking water. The future prospects of this research will involve the development of safe biofilters from biodegradable polymers and metal oxides complexes which are endowed with antimicrobial effects. Biofiltration involves the purification of water using substances which can remove inorganic, organic pollutants, turbidity, undesirable tastes, and odours as well as bacteria and viruses. It is therefore interesting to develop biofilters with biodegradable polymers such as alginate which are compatible with the environment and can help address the increasing demand for drinking water. This technology is gaining attention because of its numerous advantages.

#### 4. Conclusions

Access to colourless and odourless water that is free from contaminants and germs is a global problem. Portable water is necessary for basic life processes, and therefore all living organisms need water for their survival. The increasing population, rapid industrialization, and extensive agriculture lead to an increase in the contamination of available water resources. Many organic and inorganic chemical materials as well as some pathogenic microorganisms can get into water, and many techniques have been developed to effectively remove them while little attention is paid to the pathogenic bacteria that survive in water. This study reports the effects of synthesized hydrated zirconium metal oxidecoated alginate on some water-transmissible pathogenic bacteria. The hydrated zirconium oxide encapsulated in alginate biopolymer beads was synthesized and characterized by FT-IR, XRD, and SEM. They displayed antimicrobial, antibiofilm, and anti-QS properties on a range of waterborne bacteria. The anti-QS and antibiofilm effects indicated that the zirconium oxide-alginate material can prevent microbial resistance and biofouling of microbial communities in water. The addition of alginate is believed to render the particles more biocompatible and enables them to be easily recoverable from water after usage. The results therefore indicate the potential of treating water with zirconium oxide-alginate material as an environmentally friendly, nontoxic, and efficient strategy to inhibit waterborne microorganisms.

#### **Data Availability**

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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