

**BIOREMEDIATION OF HEAVY METALS IN THE SOIL BY
PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA AND *TRICHODERMA HARZIANUM*
USING *SOLANUM LYCOPERSICUM* AS TEST PLANT**

ABSTRACT

This study determined the heavy metal concentrations of contaminated stream water and assessed the heavy metal contents of pre- and post-cropped sterilized soil. It also determined the heavy metal uptake of the *S. lycopersicum* plant. This was with a view to assessing the potential of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Trichoderma harzianum* for transforming heavy metals in heavy metal contaminated stream water. Experimental pots containing 3000 g of sterilized soil was used for this experiment whereby 60 sample pots were used with various treatments in this study. *Solanum lycopersicum* seeds were raised in the nursery for a period of 3 weeks and treatments applied just before transplanting into the experimental pots. The plants were left for a week so as to be established properly and overcome transplanting shock before watering with the contaminated stream water. Heavy metal analysis using Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS) method was carried out on the contaminated stream water to determine the amount of heavy metal in the stream water before the commencement of the experiment. The contaminated stream water was applied to the pots in measured quantities; 0, 5 and 0%. Pre and post soil heavy metal analysis were carried out on the soil samples. At harvest, plant tissues were analysed for heavy metals using AAS method. The results showed that heavy metals were present in high concentration in the stream water sample. The values of the heavy metals in the stream water sample used for watering were Iron – 138.15 mg/L, Zinc – 68.4 mg/L, Lead – 7.89 mg/L and Copper – 8.98 mg/L. Heavy metal analysis of the soil and all the treatments revealed that treatments with *P. aeruginosa* inoculation had the lowest level of Iron, Copper, Zinc and Lead followed by treatments inoculated with *T. harzianum*. The study concluded that the use of contaminated stream water for irrigation could be a potential source of heavy metals in tomato. However, inoculation of microorganisms for the treatment of the heavy metal contaminated sites was effective Phytoremediation for increased health, growth and yield of tomato fruits.

KEYWORDS: Phytoremediation, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Trichoderma harzianum*, *Solanum lycopersicum*

INTRODUCTION

Heavy metals represent a great environmental concern, because of their widespread use and distribution, and particularly their toxicity to human beings and the biosphere. However, they also include some elements that are essential for living organisms at low concentrations (Alloway, 1990). These elements are usually transition metals. They have high densities (>5 g cm⁻³) when compared with other materials (Baird and Cann, 2005). Human activities such as industrial production, mining, agriculture and transportation lead to release of high amount of heavy metals into the biosphere. The primary sources of metal pollution are the burning of fossil fuels, smelting of metal like ores, municipal wastes, fertilizers, pesticides and sewage (Nriagu, 1979, 1996; Pendias and Pendias, 1989; Rai, 2009). Heavy metal contamination may occur due to factors which could include irrigation with contaminated water, addition of fertilizers and metal based pesticides, industrial emissions, and transportation (Radwan and Salama, 2006; Tuzen and Soylak, 2007; Duran *et al.*, 2007). Heavy metal pollution does not only affect the production and quality of crops, it also influences the quality of the atmosphere and water bodies. This threatens the health and life of animals as well as human beings by the way of food chain and most phenomenal is that, this kind of pollution is covert, long term and non-reversible (Zhang, 1999). Heavy metals are also one of the major contaminating agents in our food supply (Zaidi *et al.*, 2005; Khair, 2009). Bioremediation is a process that uses

naturally occurring micro-organisms to transform harmful substances to nontoxic compounds, these processes which take advantage of microbial degradation of organic and inorganic substances can be defined as the use of micro-organisms to remove environmental pollutants of soils, water and sediments (Pala *et al.*, 2006). Bioremediation involves the use of organisms for the treatment of polluted soils. These organisms which could be micro-organisms or green plants eliminate, attenuate or transform the harmful substances via biological processes to a less harmful substance (Mrayyana and Battikhi, 2005). Micro-organism breaks down organic molecules to carbondioxide, fattyacid and water in order to obtain energy and nutrients. Bioremediation occurs naturally (even though it could be enhanced by a number of processes), thus, it is widely accepted by the general public as a safe way of treating polluted soils. *Trichoderma harzianum* has potential in stimulating phytoremediation directly and indirectly and therefore, inoculation of plants with this fungus could be a feasible approach to enhance the transformation of hydrocarbons in polluted soil. *T. harzianum* also have the ability to solubilize metal ions and produce siderophores to chelate iron, making metal ions required for plant growth more available to the plant (Harman *et al.*, 2004). The fungus is thought to colonize roots of annual plants for their entire lifetime by penetrating the outer layers of the roots (Harman *et al.*, 2004). This makes the plants release more root exudates to the surrounding soil, thus, stimulating microbial degradation of pollutants. *Trichoderma harzianum* has been shown to induce the production of larger and deeper root systems, and plants inoculated with *Trichoderma harzianum* also produce greater plant biomass. Such plants are more resistant to abiotic stress and take up nutrients more effectively (Harman *et al.*, 2004). Edwards *et al.*, (2006) noted that various bacteria such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* produce surfactants that aid in the biodegradation. A recent study has found a *P. aeruginosa* strain that actually supports plant growth. This characteristic, along with the fact that *P. aeruginosa* can transform polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, suggests the future uses of *P. aeruginosa* for environmental detoxification of synthetic chemicals and pesticides and for industrial purposes (Botzenhardt and Doring, 1993).

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Collection of Contaminated water, seeds and microorganisms

Heavy metals contaminated stream water was obtained from a flowing stream. It is situated at 7°30' Northern latitude and 4°28' Eastern longitude. The sampling point was located at the back of the Ife Iron and Steel Nigeria Limited along Ife-Ibadan expressway. Surface water samples was collected at downstream into clean plastic kegs. The water samples were collected during the month of April, 2015. Seeds of *Solanum lycopersicum* cultivar (ROMA VF) were obtained from Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, Moor Plantation, Ibadan.

Culturing of Organisms

A culture of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was obtained from the Department of Microbiology, Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU), Ile-Ife. A culture of *Trichoderma harzianum* was also obtained from the Mycology unit of the Department of Crop Production and Protection, OAU, Ile-Ife. A single colony of *P. aeruginosa* was subcultured by using nutrient agar in Petri dishes and kept in the incubator for 48 hours at 37°C to a medium after which it was harvested by flooding with sterile distilled water. The bacterium inoculum was prepared by streaking a single colony of *P. aeruginosa* earlier isolated on plated nutrient agar plate and incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. Cells of *P. aeruginosa* were harvested from agar plates by flooding with sterile distilled water and standardized using a colorimeter to 10⁸ CFU/ml. Spores of *Trichoderma harzianum* was subcultured by using potato dextrose agar in Petri dishes and kept in the incubator for 7 days at 37°C to a medium after which it was harvested by flooding with sterile distilled water. The fungal spore solution was prepared by picking spores of *T. harzianum* earlier isolated on potato dextrose agar plate and incubated at 37°C for 7 days. Spores of *T. harzianum* were harvested from agar plates by flooding with sterile distilled water and standardized using a colorimeter to 10⁷ spores/ml.

Preparation of Sterilized Soil for Field work

Top soil and river sand were mixed together and sieved before it was sterilized using an autoclave by heating for 5 hours at 131°C and left to cool for four (4) days.

Planting of seeds and contamination of experimental pots

Seedlings of *S. lycopersicum* were raised on nursery beds for a period of three weeks. Sixty pots, each containing three kilograms of soil from sterilized soil was used for this study. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* inoculum solution (30 ml) was poured into a hole that was made in the middle of a set of 15 experimental pots containing sterilized soil before *S. lycopersicum* seedlings are transplanted to it. *Trichoderma harzianum* spore solution (30 ml) was also poured into a hole that was made in the middle of another set of 15 experimental pots before *S. lycopersicum* seedlings are transplanted to them. The third set of 15 pots received dual inoculation of *Trichoderma harzianum* spore solution (15 ml) and *P. aeruginosa* inoculum before *S. lycopersicum* seedlings were transplanted into it; with the final set of 15 pots acting as control at various levels. Thereafter, pot preparation was arranged in a completely randomized design in the screenhouse.

Seedlings were left for a week to establish and overcome transplanting shock before wetting with the contaminated stream water at various concentrations of 0%, 5% and 10% v/v. Contaminated stream water was quantified using the formula: percentage soil contamination = (Volume of polluted stream water applied / Volume of soil) x 100. Each treatment of the experiment was replicated three times. Twenty four pots were watered with the contaminated stream water once during the experiment and another 24 pots watered daily with the contaminated stream water. The remaining 12 pots which served as the control experiment were watered daily with distilled water. Pots containing *S. lycopersicum* was watered regularly to ensure adequate moisture. Heavy metal analysis on the contaminated stream water was carried out using AAS (Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer) for Iron, Copper, Lead, and Zinc pre experiment. Plant samples were also subjected to heavy metal analysis using AAS (Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer) for Iron, Copper, Lead, and Zinc post experiment. Pre and post – soil tests were carried out to determine soil nutrients. Soil samples were also subjected to heavy metal analysis using AAS (Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer) for Iron, Copper, Lead, and Zinc pre and post – soil tests. Data obtained was subjected to statistical analysis using descriptive and inferential methods.

Experiment (Treatment Layout)

Sterilized soils were polluted with contaminated stream water at a calculated percentage using the formula; Percentage soil contamination = (Volume of Contaminated stream water/Volume of soil) x 100.

The layout of the experiment is as follows;

Treatment 1- sterilized soil + *S. lycopersicum*

Treatment 1d- sterilized soil + *S. lycopersicum* (2)

Treatment 2- sterilized soil + *Trichoderma harzianum* + *S. lycopersicum*

Treatment 2d- sterilized soil + *Trichoderma harzianum* + *S. lycopersicum* (2)

Treatment 3- sterilized soil + *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum*

Treatment 3d- sterilized soil + *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum* (2)

Treatment 4- sterilized soil + *T. harzianum* + *P. aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum*

Treatment 4d- sterilized soil + *T. harzianum* + *P. aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum* (2)

Note: (2) and d means daily wetting of pots with contaminated water

Each of the layouts contaminated at 0, 5, and 10% (v/w) contaminated stream water concentration was replicated thrice. The experimental pots were watered regularly to ensure adequate moisture for proper growth of the test plant.

RESULTS

Physicochemical Properties of Sterilized Soil Before Planting

The physicochemical properties of sterilized soil before planting was found to show that heavy metals (Iron, Zinc, Copper and Lead) were present in the soil with iron (Fe) having the highest concentration (Table 4.1). Exchangeable acidity (Al^{3+} , H^+) was found to have a higher concentration in the sterilized soil than exchangeable bases (Na^+ , K^+). Organic carbon percentage was also found to be lower in concentration in sterilized soil compared than organic matter percentage. The total nitrogen in the sterilized soil was found to be 0.19 g/kg while the electrical conductivity of the soil was 154.65 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. The pH of the soil was slightly acidic while the calcium content of the soil was higher than that of the magnesium. The soil particle size was found to be 76% sand, 11% silt and 12% clay. The textural class of the soil was loamy sand.

Table 1: Physicochemical Properties of Sterilized Soil before Planting

Parameters	Sterilised
Ph	6.5
T.N (g/kg)	0.19
E.C (µs/cm)	154.65
ECEC (mol/kg)	3.52
H ⁺ (cmol/kg)	0.09
K (cmol/kg)	0.81
Na (cmol/kg)	0.08
Ca (cmol/kg)	2.02
Mg (cmol/kg)	0.61
P (mg/Kg)	135.21
Fe (ppm)	22.75
Zn (ppm)	10.45
Pb (ppm)	1.89
Cu (ppm)	2.93
SAND (%)	76
SILT (%)	11
CLAY (%)	12
OC (%)	1.5
OM (%)	2.5

Textural class of the soil was Loamy sand.

The heavy metals analysis of the stream water showed that heavy metals (Iron, Zinc, Copper and Lead) were present in high concentration in the water. Iron (Fe) had the highest concentration of 138.15 mg/L followed by zinc (Zn) which had a concentration of 68.4 mg/L . The order of concentration was Fe>Zn>Cu>Pb.

Physicochemical Properties of Contaminated Stream Water

The physicochemical properties of the stream water showed that heavy metals (Iron, Zinc, Copper and Lead) were present in high concentration in the water above the acceptable limits by World Health Organization (2004). Iron (Fe) had the highest concentration of 138.15 mg/L followed by zinc (Zn) which had a concentration of 68.4 mg/L (Table 4.2). The order of concentration was Fe>Zn>Cu>Pb. The turbidity of the water was found to be 18.9 NTU which is within acceptable limit by the WHO (2004), but it had a high level of conductivity which is above the acceptable limits by WHO (2004). The chloride and calcium concentration of the water were found to be within the normal acceptable limits by WHO 2004, while the magnesium concentration of the water was found higher above the acceptable limits by WHO (2004). The biological oxygen demand and chemical oxygen demand of the stream water were found to be 351.8 mg/L and 628.4 mg/L respectively. The stream water was characterized with high biological oxygen demand and high level of nitrate and phosphate. The pH of the water was 6.1 and was above the acceptable limits by WHO (2004) which showed that the water was acidic.

Table 2: Physicochemical Properties of Contaminated Stream Water

Parameters	Stream Water
Turbidity (NTU)	18.9
Acidity (mg/L)	29.3
BOD (mg/L)	351.8
COD (mg/L)	628.4
Conductivity(mg/L)	3014.9
pH	6.1
Chloride (mg/L)	46.8
Phosphate (mg/L)	27.5
Nitrate (mg/L)	143.4
Calcium (mg/L)	43.8
Magnesium (mg/L)	75.9
Fe (mg/L)	138.15
Zn (mg/L)	68.4

Pb (mg/L)	7.89
Cu (mg/L)	8.98

158

159 After the soils were subjected to heavy metal analysis, it was observed that iron concentration of the soil increased
160 as the contaminated stream water concentration increased in all the treatments without any inoculation of
161 microorganism (Fig. 1). Treatments 3 and 3d inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* were lower in concentration of iron
162 compared to treatments 2 and 2d which were inoculated with *T. harzianum*. Treatment 1d without any inoculation of
163 microorganisms had highest iron concentration followed by treatment 1 also without any inoculation of
164 microorganisms at 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration. The order of iron concentration across the
165 treatments with 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration was 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 and
166 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 respectively.

167 Treatment 1d had the highest zinc concentration at 10% contaminated stream concentration followed by treatment 1
168 at the same 10% concentration. Treatment 3 at 0% concentration had the lowest iron concentration. Soil samples
169 treated with single or both micro-organisms had the lowest value in zinc compared to soil polluted with
170 contaminated stream water without any treatment with microorganisms (Fig 2). Treatment 3 had the lowest copper
171 level of 2.46 part per million (ppm) at 5% contaminated stream water concentration while treatment 1d had the
172 highest level of copper with 3.86 ppm at the same concentration (Fig 3). The order of copper concentration in 0%
173 and 10% was treatment4>2>2>1>3and 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 respectively. Lead analyses in the soil indicated
174 that the order of the concentration in 5% and 10% was 1d>1>4d>4>>2d>2>3d>3 and 1d>1>4d>4>>2d>2>3d>3
175 respectively, treatment 1d had the highest level of lead concentration followed by treatment 1 both at 10%
176 contaminated stream water concentration while treatment 2 had the lowest at 0% (Fig. 4).

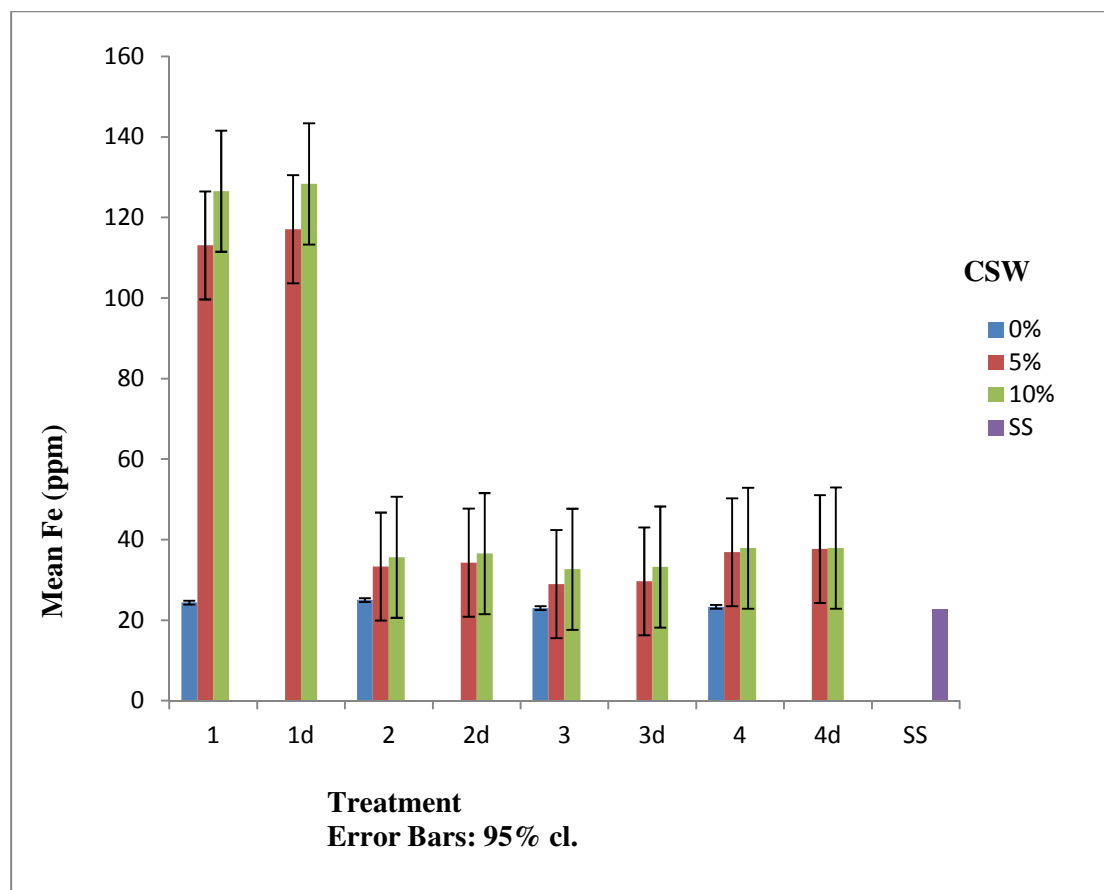


Figure 1: Iron (ppm) content of Pre and Post Planting Soil Samples

Legend

1-SS + TP

1d-SS + TP

2-SS + TH+ TP

2d-SS + TH + TP

3-SS + PA + TP

3d-SS + PA + TP

4-SS + TH + PA + TP

4d-SS + TH +PA +TP

SS - Sterilized soil before planting

d – Daily wetting of plants with contaminated stream water

Cl- Confidence level

TH – *T. harzianum*

PA - *P. aeruginosa*

TP - Test Plant

CSW- Contaminated Stream Water

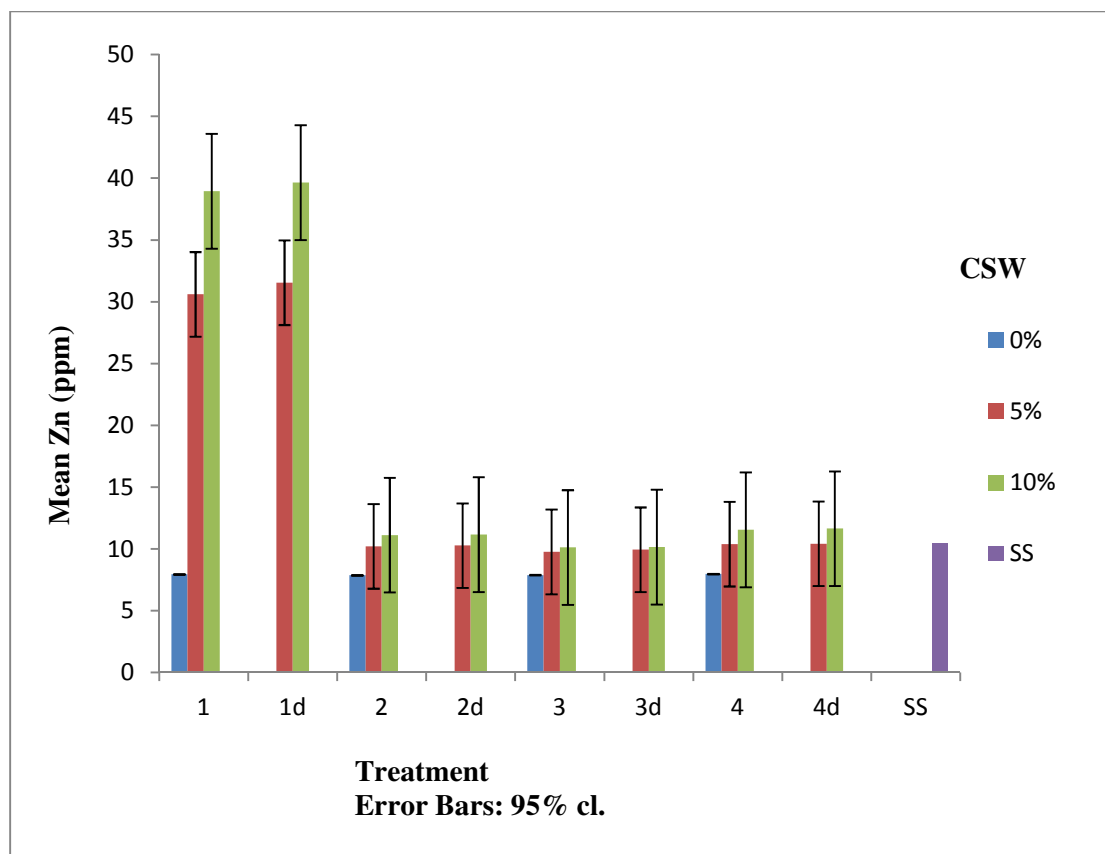


Figure 2: Zinc (ppm) content of Pre and Post Planting Soil Samples

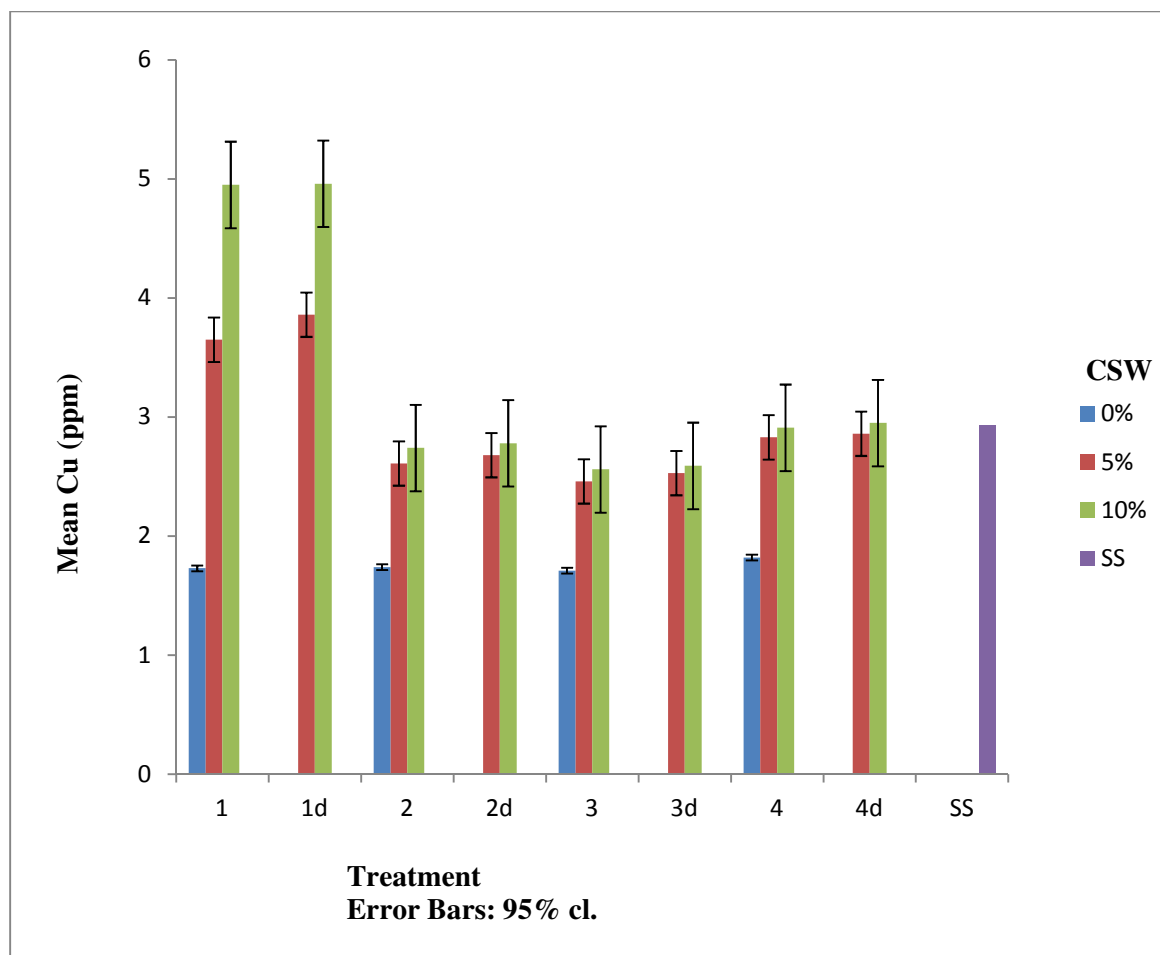


Figure 3: Copper (ppm) content of Pre and Post Planting Soil Samples

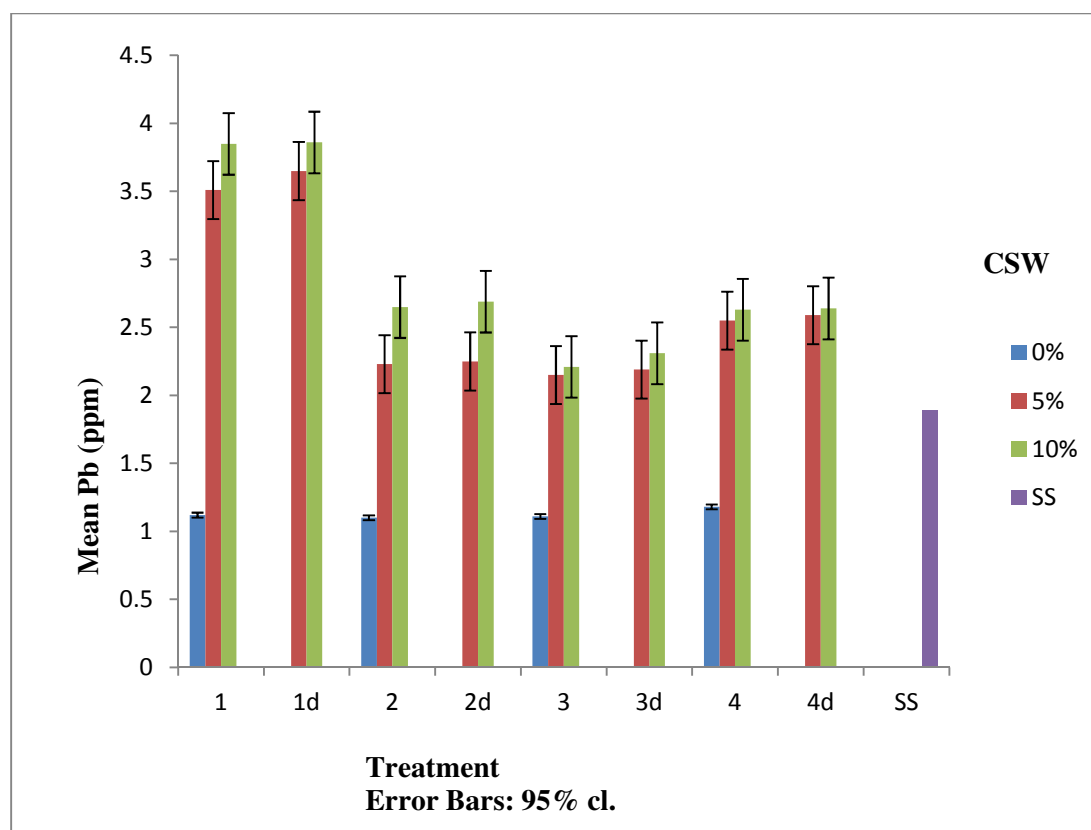


Figure 4: Lead (ppm) content of Pre and Post Planting Soil Samples

Heavy metal analysis carried out on plant samples showed that plants from soil samples without inoculation of micro-organisms had the highest heavy metal uptake as the concentration of contaminated stream water increased. For 5% contaminated stream water concentration, treatment 1 had the highest level of iron at 77.78 ppm followed by treatment 1d with 77.71 ppm while treatment 3 had the lowest concentration of iron with 13.91 ppm (Fig 5). The order of concentration in iron at 10% was sample 1>1d>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3. Zinc at 10% contaminated stream water concentration had the highest concentration in treatment 1d and the lowest at treatment 3 at same 10%. The order of zinc concentration at 5% was 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 while 10% was 1d>1>4d>2>2d>4>3d>3 (Fig. 6). Copper in treatment 1d without any inoculation had the highest concentration at 5% and 10% followed by treatment 1 at same concentrations with treatment 3 inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* having the lowest value (Fig.7). Lead content in the plant samples was highest in treatment 1d, followed by those from treatment 1 but lowest in treatment 3. Order of increase of lead is treatment 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 (Fig 8). Treatments 2 and 2d inoculated with *T. harzianum* had more of the heavy metal in plant tissue compared to treatments 3 and 3d treated with *P. aeruginosa*.

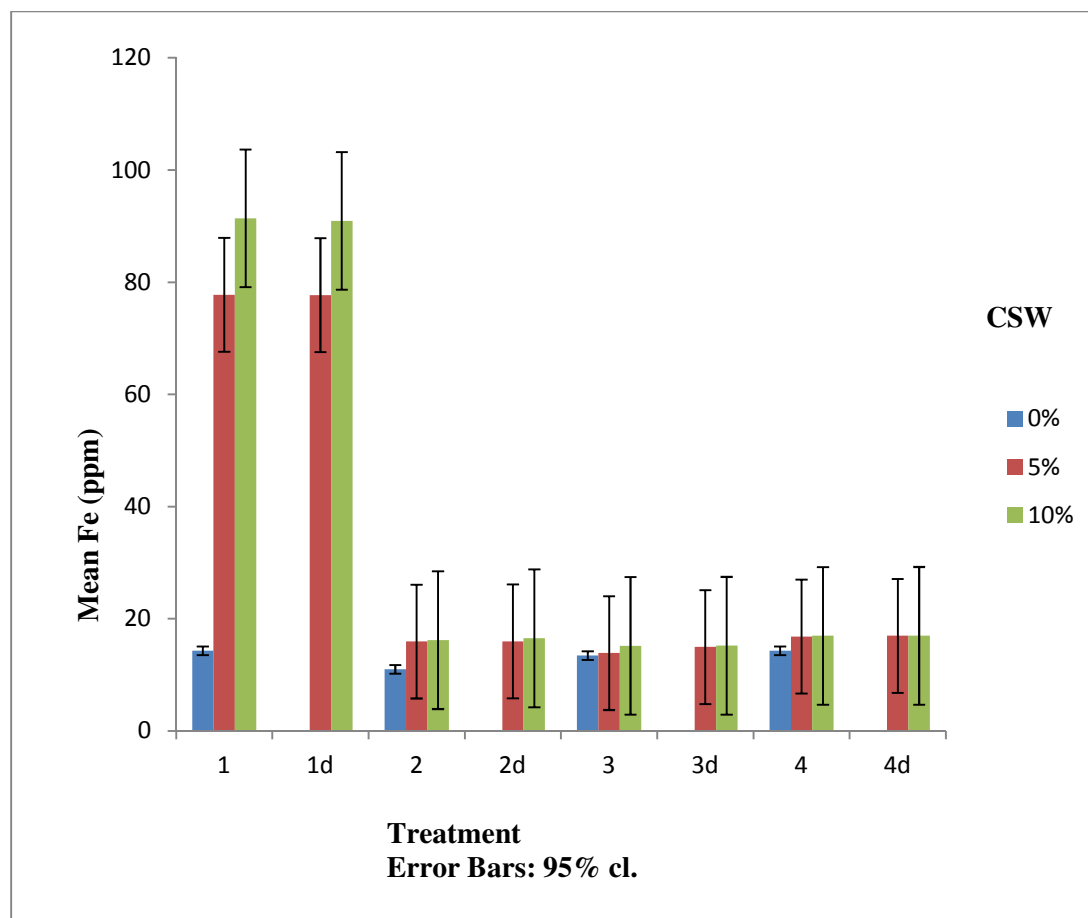


Figure 5: Iron (ppm) content of *S. lycopersicum* across all the treatments

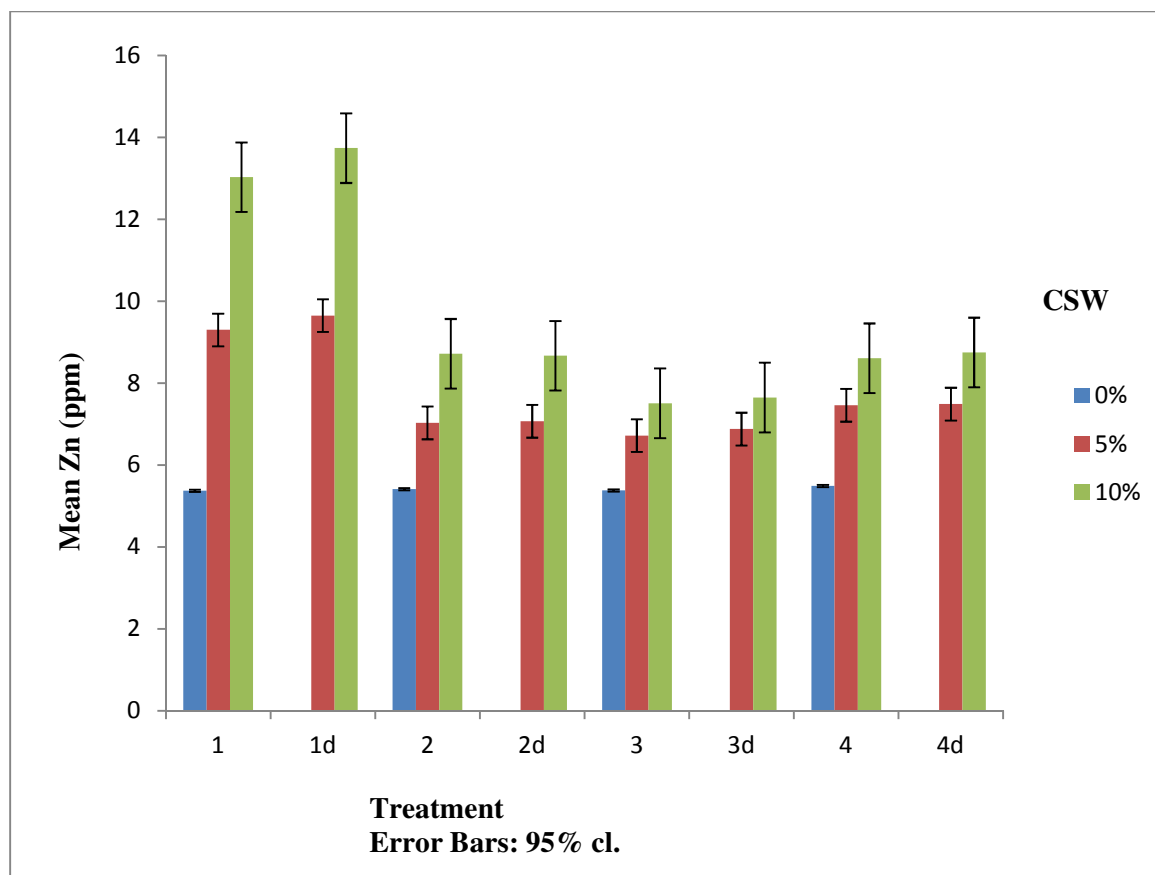


Figure 6: Zinc (ppm) content of *S. lycopersicum* across all the treatments

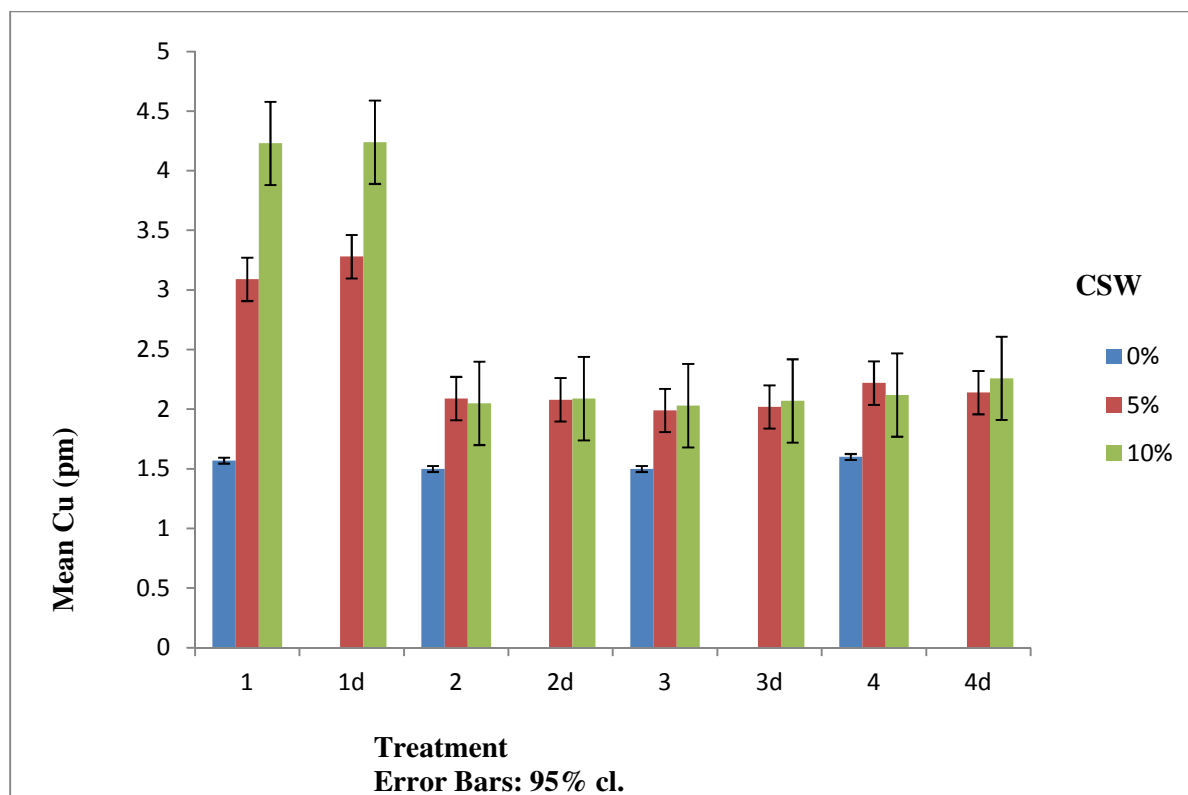


Figure 7: Copper (ppm) content of *S. lycopersicum* across all the treatments

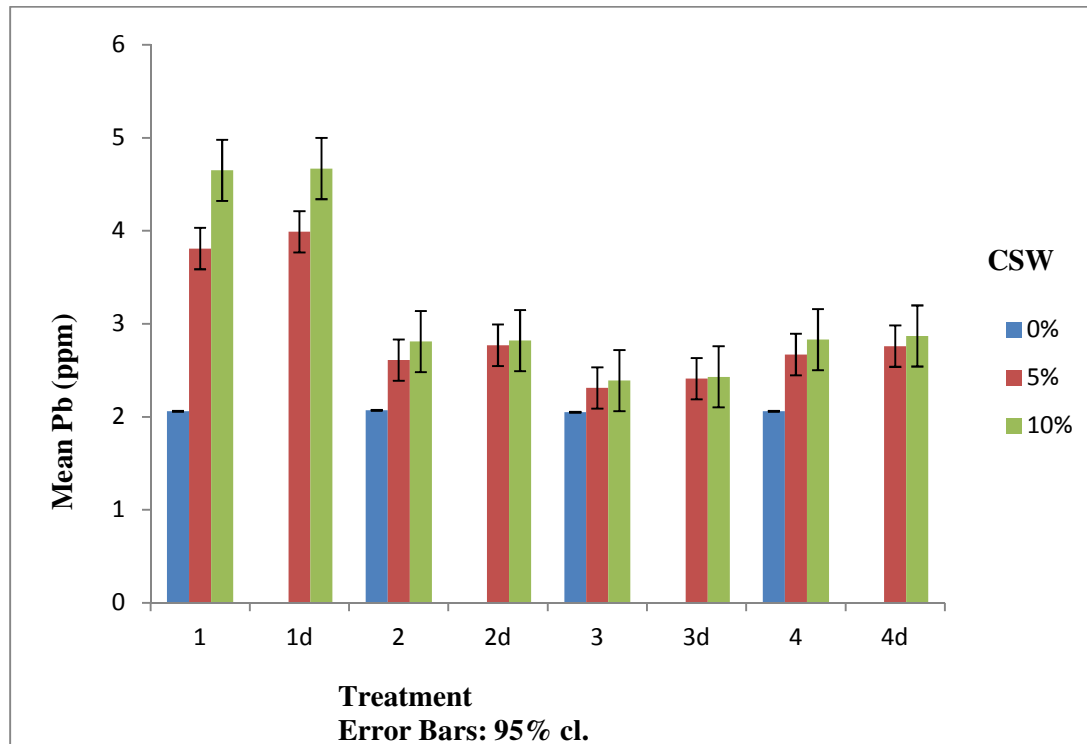


Figure 8: Lead (ppm) content of *S. lycopersicum* across all the treatments

DISCUSSION

Heavy metals are elements that exhibit metallic properties such as ductility, malleability, conductivity, cation stability, and ligand specificity (Opaoluwa, 2010). They are characterized by relatively high density and high relative atomic weight with an atomic number greater than 20. Industrial effluents are usually considered as undesirable for arable soil, plants, animals and human health. This is due to the contained heavy and trace metals like Cr, Mn, Fe, Cu, Co, Zn, Ni, As, Cd and Pb that are discharged continuously into water source (streams/ nullahs, canals and rivers). These are allowed to spread on agricultural lands. The unplanned disposal of these effluents has increased the threat of environmental pollution (Gulfraz *et al.*, 2003). Soils, whether in urban or agricultural areas represent a major sink for metals released into the environment from a wide variety of anthropogenic sources (Niragu, 1991).

Su *et al.* (2014) reported that low concentration of heavy metals could stimulate microbial growth and increase microbial biomass, while high concentration could decrease soil microbial biomass significantly. The microorganisms used in this study (*T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa*) were highly effective in transforming heavy metals. The bio-sorption potential of the organisms used in this study showed that *T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa* possess effective heavy metal absorption capacity. It was discovered in this study that at higher concentrations of these metals, there were reductions in plant growth. This may be due to the decrease in growth parameters of *S. lycopersicum* as the contaminated stream water concentration increased in this study. Heavy metals of soil in all the soil samples showed an increase as the contaminated stream water increased in concentration. Treatments inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* were found to have lower concentration of heavy metals (Fe, Zn, Cu and Pb) followed by treatments inoculated with *T. harzianum*. Due to a change in their oxidation state, heavy metals can be transformed to become either less toxic, easily volatilized, more water soluble (and thus can be removed through leaching), less water soluble (which allows them to precipitate and become easily removed from the environment) or less bioavailable (Marques *et al.*, 2009).

The biodegrading ability of *P. aeruginosa* which showed the most efficient heavy metal uptake from the soil is in agreement with report of Lewis *et al.* (2002) and Odeyemi *et al.* (2011) which stated that *Pseudomonas* spp have a high biodegrading ability. Report from Jankiewicz *et al.* (2000) also support the findings from this study which noted that *P. aeruginosa* cells grown in biofilms accumulate higher amounts of heavy metals. Also, many species of soil fungi including *Trichoderma* are able to dissolve through the release of chelating compounds of organic acids. The fungus releasing organic acids causes acidification of the environment, which helps increase the mobility of heavy metals (Barea *et al.*, 2005; Ledin, 2000; Wang and Chen, 2009). This study confirms this reports. Treatments inoculated with dual inoculation of *T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa* were found to have slightly higher concentration of heavy metals than treatments inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* or *T. harzianum*. However treatments with no inoculation of one or two microorganisms showed very high concentration of heavy metals in the soil in comparison with treatments with dual microorganisms. This confirms that the microorganisms used in this study biotransformed the heavy metals in the soil. This also revealed that there is positive and productive interaction between *T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa* in bioremediation of heavy metals polluted soil.

Many species of plants have been successful in absorbing contaminants such as lead, cadmium, chromium, arsenic, and various radionuclides from soils. Some metals with unknown biological function (Cd, Fe, Zn, Cu, Cr, Pb, Co, Ag, Se, Hg) can also be accumulated (Cho-Ruk *et al.*, 2006). Contaminant uptake by plants and its mechanisms have been being explored by several researchers. It could be used to optimize the factors to improve the performance of plant uptake. According to Sinha *et al.* (2008), the plants act both as “accumulators” and “excluders”. Accumulators survive despite concentrating contaminants in their aerial tissues. They biotransform the contaminants into inert forms in their tissues. The excluders restrict contaminant uptake into their biomass. Plant has a lot of consequences from heavy metal pollution in soil (Liao 1993, Su *et al.*, 2014, Wu *et al.*, 1998), plants were also seen to be polluted by heavy metals (Yin *et al.*, 1999), which consequently threatens the health of animals and human beings via the food chain (Wang *et al.*, 2001).

Heavy metals such as cadmium and lead are non-essential elements for plants. Microbial populations are generally higher in the rhizosphere than in the root-free soil. This is due to a symbiotic relationship between soil microorganisms and plants. This symbiotic relationship can enhance some bioremediation processes. Plant roots also may provide surfaces for sorption or precipitation of metal contaminants (Sas-Nowosielska *et al.*, 2008). This study was found to show reduction in growth parameters as heavy metals increased which is brought by increase in contaminated stream water concentration. Iron, Zinc, Copper and Lead level were higher in plant tissues from soil samples containing no inoculation of microorganisms at 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration. This was discovered to affect the growth of the plants. Su *et al.*, (2014) reported that dicots, leafy vegetable crops are sensitive to Zn toxicity, especially spinach and beet; because of their inherent high Zn uptake capacity. However soil samples containing *P. aeruginosa* was generally the lowest in plant heavy metal uptake of iron, zinc, copper and lead followed by samples containing *T. harzianum*. This may be an indication that the heavy metals in the soil had been transformed by the microorganisms used which also showed there is low amount of heavy metals in soil left for the plant to absorb. This result was found to be consistent with the work of Soumitra *et al.* (2014) which demonstrated that *P. aeruginosa* reduced heavy metal uptake in *Oryza sativa* L. and increase its growth. Also *Trichoderma* spp. produces organic acids such as gluconic acid, fumaric acid, and citric acid, which can decrease the pH of the soil and allow for the dissolution of phosphate, as well as macro- and micronutrients such as iron, manganese, and magnesium, which are necessary for plant metabolism (Ociepa, 2011; Cao *et al.*, 2008). Treatments inoculated with a combination of *T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa* in this study had lower concentration of heavy metals in their plant tissue compared to treatments without inoculation of microorganisms. This may insinuate that there is positive and effective interaction between *T. harzianum* and *P. aeruginosa* in the reduction of heavy metals build up in plant cultivated on heavy metals polluted soil. Concentrations of metals were attributed to the contaminated stream water irrigation. The results from this study indicates that there is a serious potential health risk associated with heavy metals in tomato by using contaminated water for irrigation by farmers for tomato production.

CONCLUSION

It is obvious from the result of this study that biodegradation of heavy metals is an environmental friendly and easy approach to transform heavy metals in polluted soils. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* showed a higher ability in biotransforming the heavy metals in the soil than *Trichoderma harzianum*. The combination of the two microorganisms showed a better improvement in the transformation of the heavy metal polluted soil and enhanced crop production in polluted soil than soil with no inoculation of either *T. harzianum* or *P. aeruginosa*. It was also observed in this study that both microorganisms enhance crop production in soil without contaminated stream water pollution. This study was able to observe the morphological and chemical differences that took place under the different experimental treatments. It showed that use of *P. aeruginosa* and/or *T. harzianum* in the soil were able to tolerate physiological stress as a result of the heavy metal pollute environment. The presence of *P. aeruginosa* and *T. harzianum* were able to effectively bioaccumulate the heavy metals in the soil and increase the growth and yield of *S. lycopersicum*. The use of fungi and bacteria in biodegradation is relatively economical and effective because it is inexpensive and easy to multiply these organisms.

REFERENCES

1. Alloway, B.J. (1990). *Heavy metals in soils*. Glasgow & London: Blackie and Son Ltd, pp 12-15.
2. Baird, C. and Cann, M. (2005). *Environmental Chemistry*. 3rd Ed. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company, pp. 89.
3. Barea, J.M., Pozo, M.J., Azcón, R. and Azcón-Aguilar, C. (2005). Microbial co-operation in the rhizosphere. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, vol. 56, no. 417, pp. 1761–1778.
4. Botzenhardt, K., and Doring, G. (1993). Ecology and epidemiology of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa as an Opportunistic Pathogen*. p. 1-7.
5. Cao, L., Jiang, M., Zeng, Z., Du, A., Tan, H. and Liu, Y. (2008). *Trichoderma atroviride* F6improves phytoextraction efficiency of mustard (*Brassica juncea* (L.) Coss. var. *foliosa* Bailey) in Cd, Ni contaminated soils, *Chemosphere*, vol. 71, no. 9, pp. 1769–1773,.
6. Cho-Ruk, K., Kurukote, J., Supprung, P., and Vetayasuporn, S. (2006). Perennial plants in the phytoremediation of lead-contaminated soils, *Biotechnology*, vol. 5, no.1, pp. 1–4.
7. Duran, A., Tuzen, M. and Soylak M. (2007). Trace element levels in some dried fruit samples from Turkey. *International Journal of Food Science and Nutrition*, vol 59:581–589.

8. Edward, R.B.M., Brian J.T., Vitor, A.P.M., Dietmar, H.P., Juan-Luis, R. and Norberto, J.P.(2006). Nonmedical: *Pseudomonas*. *Prokaryotes*, vol 6:646-703.
9. Gulfraz, M., Mussaddeq, Y., Khanum, R. and Ahmad T. (2003). Metal contamination in wheat crops (*Triticum estivum* L.) irrigated with industrial effluents. *Journal of Biological Science*, vol 3(3): 335-339.
10. Harman, G.E, Lorito, M., Lynch, J.M. (2004). Uses of *Trichoderma* spp. to alleviate or remediate soil and water pollution. *Advanced Applied Microbiology*, vol 56:313–330.
11. Harman, G.E., Howell, C.R., Viterbo, A., Chet, I., Lorito, M. (2004). *Trichoderma* species—opportunistic avirulent plant symbionts. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, vol 2 (1): 43–56.
12. Jankiewicz, B., Ptasiński, B. and Wiecek, M. (2000). Spectrophotometric Determination Of Cadmium (II) In Samples Of Soil From Selected Allotment Gardens In Lodz, *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies*, vol 9:83.
13. Khair, M.H., (2009). Toxicity and accumulation of copper in *Nannochloropsis oculata* (Eustigmatophyceae, Heterokonta). *World Applied Sciences Journal*, vol 6(3):378–384.
14. Khairiah, J., Zalifah, M.K., Yin, Y.H. and Aminah, A. (2004). The uptake of heavy metal by fruit vegetables grown in selected agricultural areas. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Science*, vol 7(8):1438 – 1442.
15. Khan, S., Cao, Q., Zheng, Y.M., Huang, Y.Z. and Zhu Y. G. (2008). Health risks of heavy metals in contaminated soils and food crops irrigated with wastewater in Beijing, China. *Environmental Pollution*, vol 152(3):686–692.
16. Khoudadoust, A.P, Reddy, K.R. and Maturi, K. (2004). Removal of nickel and phenanthrene from kaolin soil using different extraction. *Journal of Environmental Engineering Science*, vol 21(6): 691-704.
17. Kirpichtchikova, T.A., Manceau, A., Spadini, L., Panfili, F., Marcus, M.A. and Jacquet, T. (2006). Speciation and solubility of heavy metals in contaminated soil using X-ray microfluorescence, EXAFS spectroscopy, chemical extraction, and thermodynamic modeling, *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, vol. 70, no. 9, pp. 2163–2190.
18. Ledin, M. (2000). Accumulation of metals by microorganisms—processes and importance for soil systems. *Earth Science Reviews*, vol. 51, no. 1–4, pp. 1–31.
19. Lewis, T.A., Newcombe, D.A. and Crawford R.I. (2004). Bioremediation of oil contaminated with explosives. *Journal of Environmental Management*. Vol 70: 291-307.
20. Marques, A.P.G.C, Rangel, A.O.S.S. and Castro P.M.L. (2009). Remediation of heavy metal contaminated soils: phytoremediation as a potentially promising clean-up technology. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, vol. 39, no. 8, pp. 622–654.
21. Mrayyan, B. and Battikhi, M.N. (2005). Biodegradation of total organic carbons (TOC) in Jordanian petroleum sludge. *Journal of Hazardous Materials B* vol 120: 127-134.
22. Nriagu, J.O. (1979). Global inventory of natural and anthropogenic emission of trace metals to the atmosphere. *Nature* vol 279:409–411.
23. Nriagu, J.O. (1991). Human influence on the global cycling of the metals. In J.G. Farmer (ed.) heavy metals in the environment. *CEP consultants Limited., Edinburgh, UK*. vol 1: 1-5.
24. Ociepa, E., (2011). The effect of fertilization on yielding and heavy metals uptake by maize and Virginia fanpetals (*Sida hermaphrodita*). *Archives of Environmental Protection*, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 123–129.
25. Odeyemi, A.T., Faweya, E.B., Agunbiade, O.R and Ayeni, S.K. (2011). Bacteriological, mineral and radioactive contents of leachate samples from dumpsite of Ekiti State Government Destitute Centre in Ado-Ekiti. *Archives of Applied Science Research*, vol 3 (4): 92-108.
26. Opaoluwa O. D. and Umar, M.A. (2010). *Bulletin of pure and applied sciences*, 2010, vol 29:1, 39-55.
27. Pala, M.B., DeCarvalho, D., Pinto, J.C. and Sant Anna Jr, G. (2006). A suitable model to describe bioremediation of a petroleum-contaminated soil. *Journal of International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, vol 58(6): 254-260
28. Pendias H. and Pendias K. (1989). Trace elements in soil and plants. Florida: CRC. Peplow, D. (1999). Environmental Impacts of Mining in Eastern Washington, Center for Water and Watershed Studies Fact Sheet, University of Washington, Seattle. Persoon, C.H. (1974). *Dispositio methodica fungorum. Römer's Neues Mag Bot*, vol 1:81–128.
29. Radwan, M. A. and Salama A. K., (2006). Market basket survey for some heavy metals in Egyptian fruits and vegetables. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, vol 44:1273–1278.
30. Rai, P. K. (2009). Heavy metal phytoremediation from aquatic ecosystems with special reference to macrophytes. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, vol 39(9): 697–753.

31. Sas-Nowosielska, A., Galimska-Stypa, R., Kucharski, R., Zielonka, U., Małkowski, E. and Gray, L. (2008). Remediation aspect of microbial changes of plant rhizosphere in mercury contaminated soil. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, vol. 137, no. 1–3, pp. 101–109.
32. Sinha, R.K., Herat, S. and Tandon, P.K. (2004). Phytoremediation: role of plants in contaminated site management. *Book of Environmental Bioremediation Technologies*, pp. 315–330, Springer, Berlin, Germany.
33. Soumitra, N., Bibhas, D., Indu, S. and Piyush, P. (2014). Role of Cadmium and Lead Tolerant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Seedling Germination of Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Environmental and Analytical Toxicology*, vol 4:4.
34. Su, C., Jiang, L., and Zhang, W. (2014). A review on heavy metal contamination in the soil worldwide: Situation, impact and remediation techniques. *Environmental Skeptics and Critics*, vol 3(2): 24-38.
35. Tuzen, M. and Soylak, M., (2007). Evaluation of trace element contents in canned foods marketed from Turkey. *Food Chemistry* vol 102:1089–1095.
36. Wang, J. and Chen, C. (2009). Biosorbents for heavy metals removal and their future. *Biotechnology Advances*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 195–226.
37. Wang, S., Li, J., Shi, S., *et al.* (2001): Geological disease caused by ecological environment: An example of cancer village in Shanxi Province. *Environmental Protection* vol 5:42-46.
38. Wu, Y., Wang, X. and Liang, R.(1998): Dynamic migration of Cd, Pb, Cu, Zn and As in agricultural ecosystem. *Acta Scientiae Circumstantiae*, vol 18:(4) 407-414 (In Chinese with English abstract).
39. Yin, C., Peng, L., Wang, G, *et al.* (1999). The characteristics on contents of harmful elements in natural herbs in Kunming western suburb. *Pratacultural Science*, 16 (5) 24-26 (In Chinese with English abstract).
40. Zaidi, M.I., Asrar, A., Mansoor, A. and Farooqui, M.A. (2005). The heavy metals concentration along roadside trees of Quetta and its effects on public health. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, vol 5(4):708–711.
41. Zhang, N. (1999). Advance of the research on heavy metals in soil plant system. *Advance in environmental science*, vol 7(4):30-33.