1	Original Research Article
2	
3	BIOREMEDIATION OF HEAVY METALS IN THE SOIL BY
4	PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA AND TRICHODERMA HARZIANUM
5	USING SOLANUM LYCOPERSICUM AS TEST PLANT
6	

7 ABSTRACT

8 This study determined the heavy metal concentrations of contaminated stream water and assessed the heavy metal 9 contents of pre- and post-cropped sterilized soil. It also determined the heavy metal uptake of the S. 10 lycopersicum plant. This was with a view to assessing the potential of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Trichoderma 11 harzianum for transforming heavy metals in heavy metal contaminated stream water. Experimental pots containing 12 3000 g of sterilized soil was used for this experiment whereby 60 sample pots were used with various treatments in 13 this study. Solanum lycopersicum seeds were raised in the nursery for a period of 3 weeks and treatments applied 14 just before transplanting into the experimental pots. The plants were left for a week so as to be established properly 15 and overcome transplanting shock before watering with the contaminated stream water. Heavy metal analysis using 16 Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS) method was carried out on the contaminated stream water to determine the 17 amount of heavy metal in the stream water before the commencement of the experiment. The contaminated stream 18 water was applied to the pots in measured quantities; 0, 5 and 10%. Pre and post soil heavy metal analysis were 19 carried out on the soil samples. At harvest, plant tissues were analysed for heavy metals using AAS method. The 20 results showed that heavy metals were present in high concentration in the stream water sample. The values of the 21 heavy metals in the stream water sample used for watering were Iron - 138.15 mg/L, Zinc - 68.4 mg/L, Lead - 7.89 22 mg/L and Copper – 8.98 mg/L. Heavy metal analysis of the soil and all the treatments revealed that treatments with 23 P. aeruginosa inoculation had the lowest level of Iron, Copper, Zinc and Lead followed by treatments inoculated 24 with T. harzianum. The study concluded that the use of contaminated stream water for irrigation could be a potential 25 source of heavy metals in tomato. However, inoculation of microorganisms for the treatment of the heavy metal 26 contaminated sites was effective Phytoremediation, for increased health, growth and yield of tomato fruits.

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

28 INTRODUCTION

29 Heavy metals represent a great environmental concern, because of their widespread use and distribution, and 30 particularly their toxicity to human beings and the biosphere. However, they also include some elements that are 31 essential for living organisms at low concentrations (Alloway, 1990). These elements are usually transition metals. 32 They have high densities (>5 g cm⁻³) when compared with other materials (Baird and Cann, 2005). Human activities 33 such as industrial production, mining, agriculture and transportation lead to release of high amount of heavy metals 34 into the biosphere. The primary sources of metal pollution are the burning of fossil fuels, smelting of metal like ores, 35 municipal wastes, fertilizers, pesticides and sewage (Nriagu, 1979, 1996; Pendias and Pendias, 1989; Rai, 2009). 36 Heavy metal contamination may occur due to factors which could include irrigation with contaminated water, 37 addition of fertilizers and metal based pesticides, industrial emissions, and transportation (Radwan and Salama, 38 2006; Tuzen and Soylak, 2007; Duran et al., 2007). Heavy metal pollution does not only affect the production and 39 quality of crops, it also influences the quality of the atmosphere and water bodies. This threatens the health and life 40 of animals as well as human beings by the way of food chain and most phenomenal is that, this kind of pollution is 41 covert, long term and non-reversible (Zhang, 1999). Heavy metals are also one of the major contaminating agents in 42 our food supply (Zaidi et al., 2005; Khair, 2009). Bioremediation is a process that uses naturally occurring micro43 organisms to transform harmful substances to nontoxic compounds, these processes which take advantage of 44 microbial degradation of organic and inorganic substances can be defined as the use of micro-organisms to remove 45 environmental pollutants of soils, water and sediments (Pala et al., 2006). Bioremediation involves the use of 46 organisms for the treatment of polluted soils. These organisms which could be micro-organisms or green plants 47 eliminate, attenuate or transform the harmful substances via biological processes to a less harmful substance 48 (Mrayyana and Battikhi, 2005). Micro-organism breaks down organic molecules to carbondioxide, fattyacid and 49 water in order to obtain energy and nutrients. Bioremediation occurs naturally (even though it could be enhanced by 50 a number of processes), thus, it is widely accepted by the general public as a safe way of treating polluted soils. T. 51 harzianum has potential in stimulating phytoremediation directly and indirectly and therefore, inoculation of plants 52 with this fungus could be a feasible approach to enhance the transformation of hydrocarbons in polluted soil. T. 53 harzianum also have the ability to solubilize metal ions and produce siderophores to chelate iron, making metal ions 54 required for plant growth more available to the plant (Harman et al., 2004). The fungus is thought to colonize roots 55 of annual plants for their entire lifetime by penetrating the outer layers of the roots (Harman et al., 2004). This 56 makes the plants release more root exudates to the surrounding soil, thus, stimulating microbial degradation of 57 pollutants. T. harzianum has been shown to induce the production of larger and deeper root systems, and plants 58 inoculated with T. harzianum also produce greater plant biomass. Such plants are more resistant to abiotic stress and 59 take up nutrients more effectively (Harman et al., 2004). Edwards et al., (2006) noted that various bacteria such as 60 P. aeruginosa produce surfactants that aid in the biodegradation. A recent study has found a P. aeruginosa strain 61 that actually supports plant growth. This characteristic, along with the fact that P. aeruginosa can transform 62 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, suggests the future uses of P. aeruginosa for environmental detoxification of 63 synthetic chemicals and pesticides and for industrial purposes (Botzenhardt and Doring, 1993).

64

65 MATERIALS AND METHOD

66 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 *S. lycopersicum* cultivar (ROMA VF)

71 were obtained from Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, Moor Plantation, Ibadan.

72 Culturing of Organisms

- 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 10^8 CFU/ml. Spores of *T. 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
- 79 was harvested by flooding with sterile distilled water. The fungal spore solution was prepared by picking spores of
- 80 *T. harzianum* earlier isolated on potato dextrose agar plate and incubated at 37°C for 7 days. Spores of *T. harzianum*
- 81 were harvested from agar plates by flooding with sterile distilled water and standardized using a colorimeter to
- 82 10^7 spores/ml.

83 **Preparation of Sterilized Soil for Field work**

- 84 Top soil and river sand were mixed together and sieved before it was sterilized using an autoclave by heating for 5
- 85 hours at 131°C and left to cool for four (4) days.
- 86 Planting of seeds and contamination of experimental pots
- 87 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
- 89 ml) was poured into a hole that was made in the middle of a set of 15 experimental pots containing sterized soil
- 90 before S. lycopersicum seedlings are transplanted to it. Trichoderma harzianum spore solution (30 ml) was also

91 poured into a hole that was made in the middle of another set of 15 experimental pots before S. lycopersicum

- 92 seedlings are transplanted to them. The third set of 15 pots received dual inoculation of *T. harzianum* spore solution
- 93 (15 ml) and *P. aeruginosa* innoculum before *S. lycopersicum* seedlings were transplanted into it; with the final set of
 94 15 pots acting as control at various levels. Thereafter, pot preparation was arranged in a completely randomized
- 95 design in the screenhouse.
- 96 Seedlings were left for a week to establish and overcome transplanting shock before wetting with the contaminated
- 97 stream water at various concentrations of 0%, 5% and 10% v/v. Contaminated stream water was quantified using the
- 98 formula: percentage soil contamination = (Volume of polluted stream water applied / Volume of soil) x 100. Each
- 99 treatment of the experiment was replicated three times. Twenty four pots were watered with the contaminated stream
- 100 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
- 104 experiment. Plant samples were also subjected to heavy metal analysis using AAS (Atomic Absorption
- 105 Spectrophotometer) for Iron, Copper, Lead, and Zinc post experiment. Pre and post soil tests were carried out to
- 106 determine soil nutrients. Soil samples were also subjected to heavy metal analysis using AAS (Atomic Absorption
- 107 Spectrophotometer) for Iron, Copper, Lead, and Zinc pre and post soil tests. Data obtained was subjected to
- 108 statistical analysis using descriptive and inferential methods.

109 **Experiment (Treatment Layout)**

- 110 Sterilized soils were polluted with contaminated stream water at a calculated percentage using the formula;
- 111 Percentage soil contamination = (Volume of Contaminated stream water/Volume of soil) x 100.
- 112 The layout of the experiment is as follows;
- 113 Treatment 1- sterilized soil + *S. lycopersicum*
- 114 Treatment1d- sterilized soil + *S. lycopersicum* (2)
- 115 Treatment 2- sterilized soil + *Trichoderma harzianum* + *S. lycopersicum*
- 116Treatment 2d- sterilized soil + Trichoderma harzianum + S. lycopersicum (2)
- 117 Treatment 3- sterilized soil + *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum*
- 118 Treatment 3d- sterilized soil + *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum* (2)
- 119 Treatment 4- sterilized soil + *T. harzianum* + *P. aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum*
- 120 Treatment 4d- sterilized soil + *T. harzianum* + *P. aeruginosa* + *S. lycopersicum* (2)
- 121 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.

126 **RESULTS**

125

127 Physicochemical Properties of Sterilized Soil Before Planting

- 128 The physicochemical properties of sterilized soil before planting was found to show that heavy metals (Iron, Zinc, 129 Copper and Lead) were present in the soil with iron (Fe) having the highest concentration (Table 1). Exchangeable acidity (Al³⁺, H⁺) was found to have a higher concentration in the sterilized soil than exchangeable bases (Na⁺, K⁺). 130 131 Organic carbon percentage was also found to be lower in concentration in sterilized soil compared than organic 132 matter percentage. The total nitrogen in the sterilized soil was found to be 0.19 g/kg while the electrical conductivity 133 of the soil was 154.65 µs/cm. The pH of the soil was slightly acidic while the calcium content of the soil was higher 134 than that of the magnesium. The soil particle size was found to be 76% sand, 11% silt and 12% clay. The textural 135 class of the soil was loamy sand.
- 136 Table 1: Physicochemical Properties of Sterilized Soil before Planting

Parameters	Sterilised
Ph	<mark>6.5</mark>
T.N (g/kg)	<mark>0.19</mark>

E.C (µs/cm)	154.65	
ECEC (mol/kg)	<mark>3.52</mark>	
H^+ (cmol/kg)	<mark>0.09</mark>	
K (cmol/kg)	<mark>0.81</mark>	
Na (cmol/kg)	<mark>0.08</mark>	
Ca (cmol/kg)	2.02	
Mg (cmol/kg)	0.61	
P (mg/Kg)	135.21	
Fe (ppm)	22.75	
Zn (ppm)	10.45	
<mark>Pb (ppm)</mark>	<mark>1.89</mark>	
Cu (ppm)	<mark>2.93</mark>	
SAND (%)	<mark>76</mark>	
SILT (%)	<mark>11</mark>	
CLAY (%)	12	
OC (%)	1.5	
<mark>OM (%)</mark>	2.5	
Textural class of the soil was Loamy sand		

Textural class of the soil was Loamy sand.

138 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)

140 which had a concentration of 68.4 mg/L. The order of concentration was Fe>Zn>Cu>Pb.

141

142 Physicochemical Properties of Contaminated Stream Water

143 The physicochemical properties of the stream water showed that heavy metals (Iron, Zinc, Copper and Lead) were 144 present in high concentration in the water above the acceptable limits by World Health Organization (2004). Iron 145 (Fe) had the highest concentration of 138.15 mg/L followed by zinc (Zn) which had a concentration of 68.4 mg/L 146 (Table 2). The order of concentration was Fe>Zn>Cu>Pb. The turbidity of the water was found to be 18.9 NTU 147 which is within acceptable limit by the WHO (2004), but it had a high level of conductivity which is above the 148 acceptable limits by WHO (2004). The chloride and calcium concentration of the water were found to be within the 149 normal acceptable limits by WHO 2004, while the magnesium concentration of the water was found higher above 150 the acceptable limits by WHO (2004). The biological oxygen demand and chemical oxygen demand of the stream 151 water were found to be 351.8 mg/L and 628.4 mg/L respectively. The stream water was characterized with high 152 biological oxygen demand and high level of nitrate and phosphate. The pH of the water was 6.1 and was above the 153 acceptable limits by WHO (2004) which showed that the water was acidic.

154

Table 2: Physicochemical Properties of Contaminated Stream Water

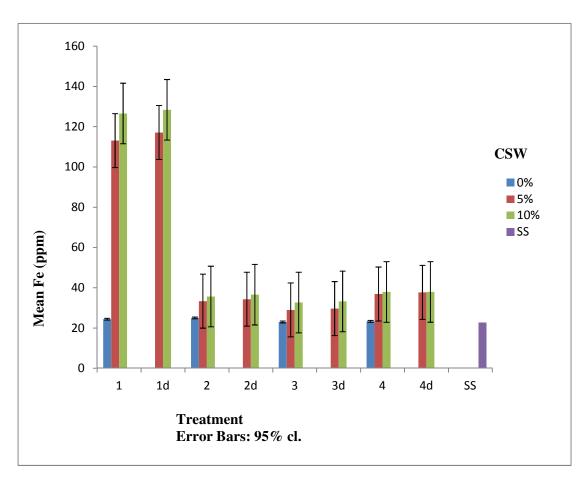
Parameters	Stream Water
Turbidity (NTU)	18.9
Acidity (mg/L)	<mark>29.3</mark>
BOD (mg/L)	<mark>351.8</mark>
COD (mg/L)	<mark>628.4</mark>
Conductivity(mg/L)	<mark>3014.9</mark>
pH	<mark>6.1</mark>
Chloride (mg/L)	<mark>46.8</mark>
Phosphate (mg/L)	<mark>27.5</mark>
Nitrate (mg/L)	143.4
Calcium (mg/L)	<mark>43.8</mark>
Magnesium (mg/L)	<mark>75.9</mark>
Fe (mg/L)	<mark>138.15</mark>
Zn (mg/L)	<mark>68.4</mark>
Pb (mg/L)	<mark>7.89</mark>
Cu (mg/L)	<mark>8.98</mark>

156 After the soils were subjected to heavy metal analysis, it was observed that iron concentration of the soil increased 157 as the contaminated stream water concentration increased in all the treatments without any inoculation of 158 microorganism (Fig. 1). Treatments 3 and 3d inoculated with P. aeruginosa were lower in concentration of iron 159 compared to treatments 2 and 2d which were inoculated with T. harzianum. Treatment 1d without any inoculation of 160 microorganisms had highest iron concentration followed by treatment 1 also without any inoculation of 161 microorganisms at 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration. The order of iron concentration across the 162 treatments with 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration was 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 and 163 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 respectively.

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

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

- 172 respectively, treatment 1d had the highest level of lead concentration followed by treatment 1 both at 10%
- 173 contaminated stream water concentration while treatment 2 had the lowest at 0% (Fig. 4).



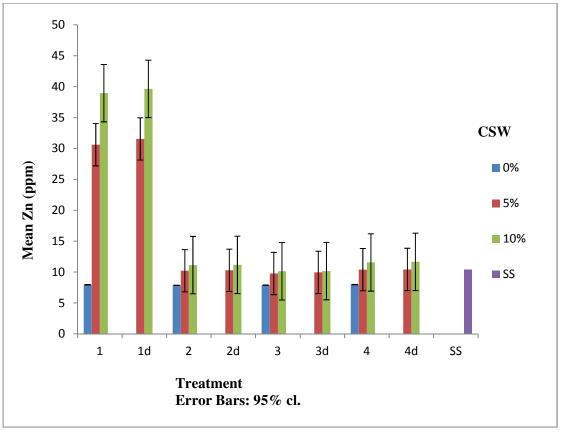
174 175

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

177 Legend

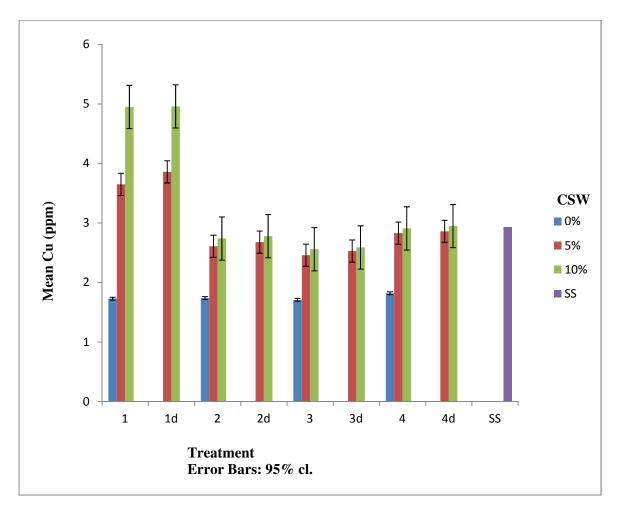
178	1-SS + TP
179	1d-SS + TP
180	2-SS + TH+ TP
181	2d-SS + TH + TP
182	3-SS + PA + TP
183	3d-SS + PA + TP
184	4-SS + TH + PA + TP
185	4d-SS + TH +PA +TP
186	SS - Sterilized soil before planting

- 187 d Daily wetting of plants with contaminated stream water
- 188 Cl- Confidence level
- 189 TH *T. harzianum*
- 190 PA P. aeruginosa
- 191 TP Test Plant
- 192 CSW- Contaminated Stream Water

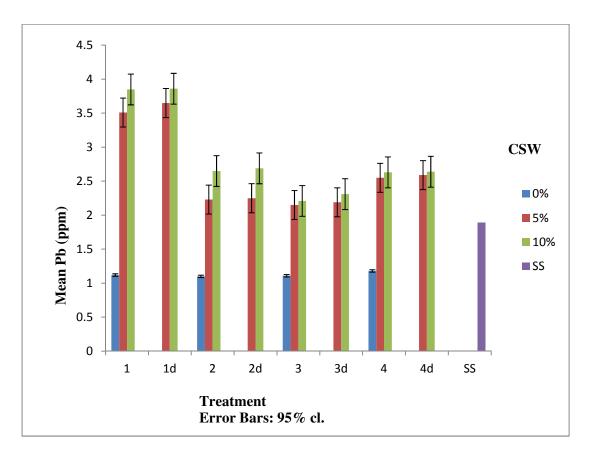


195 Figure 2: Zinc (ppm) content of Pre and Post Planting Soil Samples

- 196
- 197
- 198



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



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

205

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

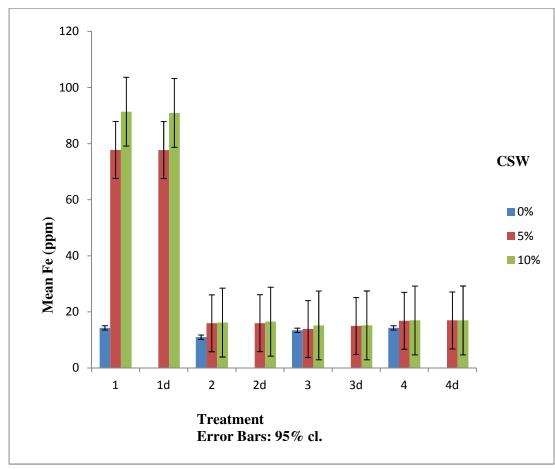
treatment1d with 77.71 ppm while treatment 3 had the lowest concentration of iron with 13.91 ppm (Fig 5).

210 The order of concentration in iron at 10% was sample 1>1d>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3. Zinc at 10% contaminated stream 211 water concentration had the highest concentration in treatment 1d and the lowest at treatment 3 at same 10%. The 212 order of zinc concentration at 5% was 1d>1>4d>4>2d>2>3d>3 while 10% was 1d>1>4d>2>2d>2>3d>3 (Fig. 6).

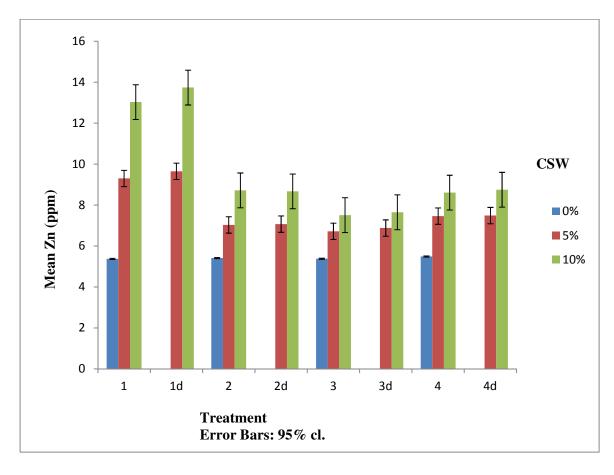
Copper in treatment 1d without any inoculation had the highest concentration at 5% and 10% followed by treatment 1 at same concentrations with treatment 3 inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* having the lowest value (Fig.7).

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*.

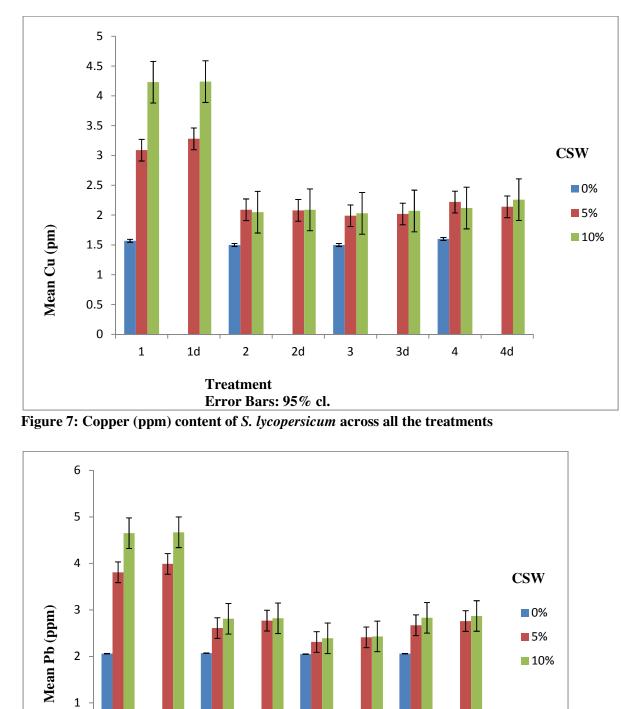
- aeruginosa.
- 219
- 220
- 221
- 222



223 224 Figure 5: Iron (ppm) content of S. lycopersicum across all the treatments



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



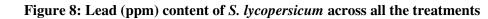
231



0

1

1d



Error Bars: 95% cl.

2d

3

3d

4

4d

2

Treatment

236 **DISCUSSION**

237 Heavy metals are elements that exhibit metallic properties such as ductility, malleability, conductivity, cation 238 stability, and ligand specificity (Opaoluwa, 2010). They are characterized by relatively high density and high 239 relative atomic weight with an atomic number greater than 20. Human activities create waste and these wastes are 240 handled, stored, collected and disposed of, which pose risks to the environment and to public health (Gupta et al., 241 2015). Industrial effluents are usually considered as undesirable for arable soil, plants, animals and human health. 242 This is due to the contained heavy and trace metals like Cr, Mn, Fe, Cu, Co, Zn, Ni, As, Cd and Pb that are 243 discharged continuously into water source (streams/ nullahs, canals and rivers). These are allowed to spread on 244 agricultural lands. The unplanned disposal of these effluents has increased the threat of environmental pollution 245 (Gulfraz et al., 2003). Soils, whether in urban or agricultural areas represent a major sink for metals released into the 246 environment from a wide variety of anthropogenic sources (Niragu, 1991).

247 Su et al. (2014) reported that low concentration of heavy metals could stimulate microbial growth and increase 248 microbial biomass, while high concentration could decrease soil microbial biomass significantly. The 249 microorganisms used in this study (T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa) were highly effective in transforming heavy 250 metals. The bio-sorption potential of the organisms used in this study showed that T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa 251 posses effective heavy metal absorption capacity. It was discovered in this study that at higher concentrations of 252 these metals, there were reductions in plant growth. This may be due to the decrease in growth parameters of S. 253 lycopersicum as the contaminated stream water concentration increased in this study. Heavy metals of soil in all the 254 soil samples showed an increase as the contaminated stream water increased in concentration. Treatments inoculated 255 with P. aeruginosa were found to have lower concentration of heavy metals (Fe, Zn, Cu and Pb) followed by 256 treatments inoculated with T. harzianum. Due to a change in their oxidation state, heavy metals can be transformed 257 to become either less toxic, easily volatilized, more water soluble (and thus can be removed through leaching), less 258 water soluble (which allows them to precipitate and become easily removed from the environment) or less 259 bioavailable (Margues et. al., 2009).

The biodegrading ability of P. aeruginosa which showed the most efficient heavy metal uptake from the soil is in 260 261 agreement with report of Lewis et al. (2002) and Odeyemi et al. (2011) which stated that Psedomonas spp have a 262 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 263 264 soil fungi including *Trichoderma* are able to dissolve through the release of chelating compounds of organic acids. 265 The fungus releasing organic acids causes acidification of the environment, which helps increase the mobility of 266 heavy metals (Barea et al., 2005; Ledin, 2000; Wang and Chen, 2009). This study confirms this reports. Treatments 267 inoculated with dual inoculation of T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa were found to have slightly higher 268 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 269 270 comparison with treatments with dual microorganisms. This confirms that the microorganisms used in this study 271 biotransformed the heavy metals in the soil. This also revealed that there is positive and productive interaction 272 between T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa in bioremediation of heavy metals polluted soil.

273 Many species of plants have been successful in absorbing contaminants such as lead, cadmium, chromium, arsenic, 274 and various radionuclides from soils. Some metals with unknown biological function (Cd, Fe, Zn, Cu, Cr, Pb, Co, 275 Ag, Se, Hg) can also be accumulated (Cho-Ruk et al., 2006). Contaminant uptake by plants and its mechanisms have 276 been being explored by several researchers. It could be used to optimize the factors to improve the performance of 277 plant uptake. According to Sinha et al. (2008), the plants act both as "accumulators" and "excluders". Accumulators 278 survive despite concentrating contaminants in their aerial tissues. They biotransform the contaminants into inert 279 forms in their tissues. The excluders restrict contaminant uptake into their biomass. Plant has a lot of consequences 280 from heavy metal pollution in soil (Liao 1993, Su et al., 2014, Wu et al., 1998), plants were also seen to be polluted 281 by heavy metals (Yin et al., 1999), which consequently threatens the health of animals and human beings via the 282 food chain (Wang et al., 2001). Tomato plants accumulated arsenic and lead in their roots (Silvia et al., 2016)

283 Heavy metals such as cadmium and lead are non-essential elements for plants. Microbial populations are generally 284 higher in the rhizosphere than in the root-free soil. This is due to a symbiotic relationship between soil 285 microorganisms and plants. This symbiotic relationship can enhance some bioremediation processes. Plant roots also 286 may provide surfaces for sorption or precipitation of metal contaminants (Sas-Nowosielska et al., 2008). This study 287 were 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 288 289 samples containing no inoculation of microorganisms at 5% and 10% contaminated stream water concentration. This 290 was discovered to affect the growth of the plants. Su et al., (2014) reported that dicots, leafy vegetable crops are 291 sensitive to Zn toxicity, especially spinach and beet; because of their inherent high Zn uptake capacity. However soil 292 samples containing P. aeruginosa was generally the lowest in plant heavy metal uptake of iron, zinc, copper and 293 lead followed by samples containing T. harzianum. This may be an indication that the heavy metals in the soil had 294 been transformed by the microorganisms used which also showed there is low amount of heavy metals in soil left for 295 the plant to absorb. This result was found to be consistent with the work of Soumitra et al. (2014) which 296 demonstrated that P. aeruginosa reduced heavy metal uptake in Orvza sativa L. and increase its growth. Also 297 Trichoderma spp. produces organic acids such as gluconic acid, fumaric acid, and citric acid, which can decrease the 298 pH of the soil and allow for the dissolution of phosphate, as well as macro- and micronutrients such as iron, 299 manganese, and magnesium, which are necessary for plant metabolism (Ociepa, 2011; Cao et al., 2008). Treatments 300 inoculated with a combination of T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa in this study had lower concentration of heavy 301 metals in their plant tissue compared to treatments without inoculation of microorganisms. This may insinuate that 302 there is positive and effective interaction between T. harzianum and P. aeruginosa in the reduction of heavy metals 303 build up in plant cultivated on heavy metals polluted soil. Concentrations of metals were attributed to the

304 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.

306 CONCLUSION

307 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 308 309 biotransforming the heavy metals in the soil than Trichoderma harzianum. The combination of the two 310 microorganisms showed a better improvement in the transformation of the heavy metal polluted soil and enhanced 311 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 312 pollution. This study was able to observe the morphological and chemical differences that took place under the 313 314 different experimental treatments. It showed that use of P. aeruginosa and/or T. harzianum in the soil were able to 315 tolerate physiological stress as a result of the heavy metal pollute environment. The presence of P. aeruginosa and 316 T. harzianum were able to effectively bioaccumulate the heavy metals in the soil and increase the growth and yield 317 of S. lycopersicum. The use of fungi and bacteria in biodegradation is relatively economical and effective because it 318 is inexpensive and easy to multiply these organisms.

319 **REFRENCES**

- 1. Alloway, B.J. (1990). *Heavy metals in soils*. Glasgow & London: Blackie and Son Ltd, pp 12-15.
- 321 2. Baird, C. and Cann, M. (2005). Environmental Chemistry. 3rd Ed. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company, pp. 89.
- 323 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.
- 325 4. Botzenhardt, K., and Doring, G. (1993). Ecology and epidemiology of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*.
 326 *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.
- 332
 7. Duran, A., Tuzen, M. and Soylak M. (2007). Trace element levels in some dried fruit samples from Turkey.
 333 *International Journal of Food Science and Nutrition*, vol 59:581–589.

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.

336

337

340

341

342

343

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365 366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

- 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.
- 338 10. Gupta, N., Yadav, K. K., and Kumar, V. 2015. A review on current status of municipal solidwaste management in India. *Journal of Environmental Science* 37: 206-217
 - 11. 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.
 - 12. 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.
- Jankiewicz, B., Ptaszyñski, B. and Wieczorek, 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.
 - 14. Khair, M.H., (2009). Toxicity and accumulation of copper in Nannochloropsisoculata (Eustigmatophycea, Heterokonta). *World Applied Sciences Journal*, vol 6(3):378–384.
 - 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.
 - 16. 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.
 - 17. 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.
 - 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.
 - 19. 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.
 - 20. 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.
 - 21. 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.
 - 22. Mrayyan, B. and Battikhi, M.N. (2005). Biodegradation of total organic carbons (TOC) in Jordanian petroleum sludge. *Journal of Harzardous Materials* B vol 120: 127-134.
 - 23. Nriagu, J.O. (1979). Global inventory of natural and anthropogenic emission of trace metals to the atmosphere. *Nature* vol 279:409–411.
 - 24. 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.
 - 25. Ociepa, E., (2011). The effect of fertilization on yielding and heavymetals uptake by maize and Virginia fanpetals (*Sida hermaphrodita*). Archives of Environmental Protection, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 123–129.
 - 26. 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.
 - 27. Opaoluwa O. D. and Umar, M.A. (2010). Bulletin of pure and applied sciences, 2010, vol 29:1, 39-55.
 - 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
- 29. 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). Disposita methodica fungorum. *Römer's Neues Mag Bot*, vol 1:81–128.
- 387
 30. 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.

- 389 31. 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.
- 391 32. Sas-Nowosielska, A., Galimska-Stypa, R., Kucharski, R., Zielonka, U., Małkowski, E. and Gray, L. (2008).
 392 Remediation aspect of microbial changes of plant rhizosphere in mercury contaminated soil.
 393 Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, vol. 137, no. 1–3, pp. 101–109.
 - 33. Silvia, R.S., Carla, C., Rosita M., Francesco G.and Cherubino L. (2016). Arsenic Uptake and Partitioning in Grafted Tomato Plants. Hortucuturee, Environment abd Biotechnology, Vol 57:241-247.
- 34. 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.
- 35. 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.
- 402 36. Su, C., Jiang, L., and Zhang, W. (2014). A review on heavy metal contamination in the soil worldwide:
 403 Situation, impact and remediation techniques. *Environmental Skeptics and Critics*, vol 3(2): 24-38.
 - Tuzen, M. and Soylak, M., (2007). Evaluation of trace element contents in canned foods marketed from Turkey. *Food Chemistry* vol 102:1089–1095.
- 406 38. Wang, J. and Chen, C. (2009). Biosorbents for heavy metals removal and their future. *Biotechnology* 407 *Advances*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 195–226.
- 408 39. 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.
 410 40. Wu, Y., Wang, X. and Liang, R.(1998): Dynamic migration of Cd, Pb, Cu, Zn and As in agricultural
 - 40. 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).
- 412 41. 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).
 - 42. 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.
 - 43. Zhang, N. (1999). Advance of the research on heavy metals in soil plant system. Advance in environmental science, vol 7(4):30-33.
- 418 419

395

404

405

411

414

415

416

417

- 420
- 421
- 422
- 423
- 424
- 425