

SYNERGISTIC EFFECTS OF MICROBES AND PLANT FOR REMEDIATION OF CHROMIUM CONTAMINATED SOIL

*Ravisankar V¹, Rita Evelyne Joshua², Rajkumar D³

¹Associate Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, Thiagarajar College of Engineering,
Madurai, Tamilnadu, India

²Post Graduate Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Thiagarajar College of Engineering,
Madurai, Tamilnadu, India

³Assistant Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, Thiagarajar College of Engineering,
Madurai, Tamilnadu, India

***Corresponding Author:** V Ravisankar

Email: environmentengr@tce.edu : +919842151871

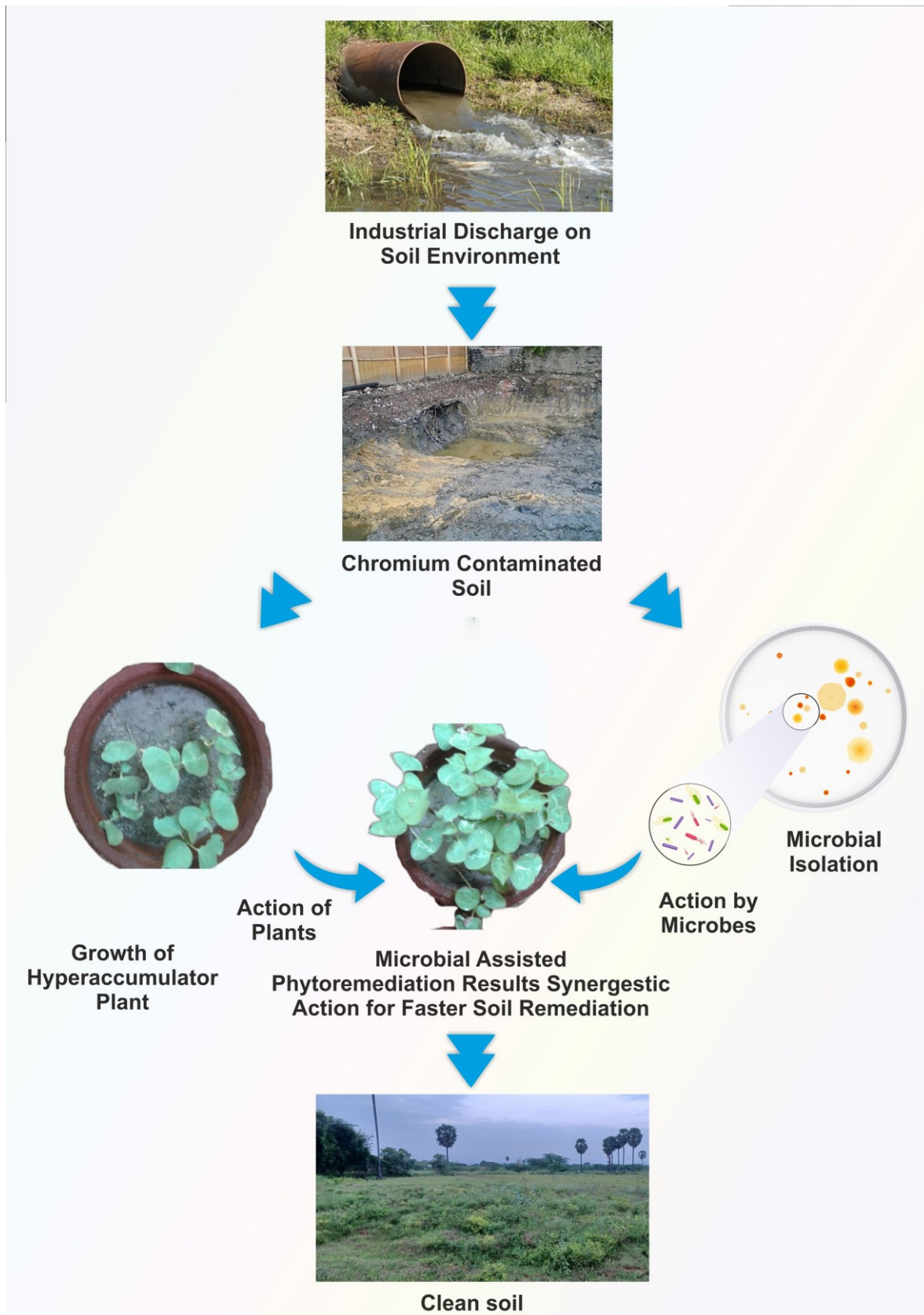
ABSTRACT

The contamination of soil is a serious issue to the environment caused by the human activities in the form of improper disposal methods. There are several contaminated dumpsites in India where, hazardous and other wastes contains heavy metal were dumped historically, which subsequently results in the contamination of soil, surface and subsurface water, and land. One of such heavy metal pollutant is Chromium. There are many conventional methods available for reclaiming soil and water which are contaminated by chromium and other heavy metals. However the biological or bioremediation technique is the most widely used method for in-situ application. In this experimental study, the synergistic action between the plants and bacteria for effective remediation of chromium contaminated site was studied. This study aims to address the capability of reduction of chromium (VI) by bacterial strain and to assess the synergistic linkage between the plants and the microbes. Under laboratory conditions, the bacteria that was isolated from the chromium-contaminated soil was able to withstand upto 500 mg/L of Cr (VI). By, 16S rRNA method, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* bacterium was identified. The SDS PAGE analysis showed that the reductase enzyme was expressed during the chromium remediation process by

Staphylococcus saprophyticus. The synergistic action between plants the selected plants like Napier grass, Cotton, Sorghum, Nerium and Jatropha and the identified *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* was studied. The research shown that the synergistic effects raise the chromium accumulation and enhance the plant biomass, root length, and shoot length. The higher accumulation was found in the roots than leaves. The accumulation was found to be in the order of Napier grass (229.955 mg/kg) > Cotton (179.98 mg/kg) > Nerium (116.353 mg/kg) > Jatropha (84.735 mg/kg) > Sorghum (61.71 mg/kg) in control plants. The combination of Napier grass and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* shows the best combination for chromium reduction. In view of this the synergistic action of plants and bacteria helps in accumulation of higher concentration of chromium without causing any toxic effects to the plant. Apparently it enhances the efficiency of bioremediation process and can be successfully applied for the reclamation of chromium contaminated sites.

Keywords: Heavy metal, Chromium, Synergism, *staphylococcus saprophyticus*, Bioremediation, phytoremediation

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



1. Introduction

As soil is the predominant natural resource for food production in agricultural revolution. Prevention of soil degradation is the top most priority in the global sector. Due to the fast industrialization, the waste generation is also increasing accordingly. Globally, Tanneries are considered as one of the major source of chromium pollution to the environment. The waste may be of various forms, but the heavy metals is a critical problem for the environment. Through bioaccumulation, toxic heavy metals and metalloids can build up in the soil and have an impact on the local soil fertility, plants, and health hazards in the hierarchy of food chains. (Wuana & Okieimen, 2011 and Upadhyay et al., 2017). The wastewater discharging into the environment without treatment cause serious threat to humans in developing countries where advanced treatment technologies are not affordable, this condition necessitates an eco friendly approach and a cost effective technology to remediate it.

The heavy metals which contaminate the soil are mostly due to the industrial application. The metal which is deposited in the soil can change into more mobile form that might migrate into the soil water posing a risk to plants, groundwater and other biota (Ermakov et al. 2018). For instance, a soil's infertility may result from a higher concentration of heavy metals like chromium. (Pajuelo et al. 2008) and subsequently reduces the yield of crop. Thus our study provides the treatment for chromium reduction in the contaminated soil.

Generally Chromium is widely used in three types of industries namely metallurgical, chemical and refractory (Ayele and Godeto 2021) and one of the most commonly used in stainless steel industry for making anti corrosive steel. It is found in oxidation states between +2 and +6 Cr. (J and Ravisankar 2014). Though there are various forms of chromium, the most common one is trivalent chromium (Cr III) and hexavalent Chromium (Cr VI) (Thatoi et al. 2014). The carcinogenic and mutagenesis features of Cr (VI) make it even more dangerous than Cr (III). (Velez et al. 2017). It also cause changes in the morphology of gramme positive and gramme negative bacteria (Mishra

26 and Bharagava 2016).The higher amount of chromium consumption in human may lead to
27 reduction of hemoglobin. Various health risks due to chromium in human and animal are lung
28 disorder, infertility and cardiovascular disorders(Engwa et al. 2019). In plants, the presence of
29 heavy metals has a significant impact on plant growth and negatively impacts seed germination,
30 pigment degradation, nutritional imbalance, anti-toxicant depletion, and enzyme depletion. The
31 Higher amount of chromium level attacks the chloroplast which destroys the photosynthesis process
32 (Asati, Pichhode, and Nikhil 2016). Among the various methods available for chromium reduction
33 (Ayele and Godeto 2021) phytoextraction (Lotfy and Mostafa 2014) and Bioremediation (J and
34 Ravisankar 2014) are based on natural process which relies on the functions of bacteria, fungi and
35 plants to reduce, remove and degrade the environmental pollutants which leads to restoring the
36 contaminant sites to a clean non toxic environment. This study particularly made an attempt to
37 found the synergistic linkage between plant and microbes.

38 Synergism is defined as an effect that results from the interaction of two or more agents,
39 entities, or substances that is greater than the total of the effects of those agents, entities, or
40 substances alone. Although plants and microbes has potential as a viable remediation strategy for
41 persistent heavy metals, pollutants above the permissible limit may be harmful to both the plants
42 and micro organisms related subsequently decreasing remediation. To increase the plant biomass in
43 contaminated soils, the bacteria can be used to mitigate the stress of plant to enhance the growth
44 and degrading the contamination. This is carried out by Endophytic, Rhizobacteria and Arbuscular
45 Mycorrhizal Fungus (AMF)(Peng et al. 2009). Plant and microbes combination is a well adaptive
46 technology for the remediation of contaminated soil (Hansda, Kumar, and Usmani 2014). The
47 microbe mostly of its native species which stimulates the growth of plant and degradation of
48 pollutant in the soil can be a potential natural system to remediate the contaminated soil. (Kamran
49 et al. 2017)(Nayak et al. 2018). Thus the objectives of this present work are: a) To assess the
50 capability of reduction of Cr (VI) by bacterial strain isolated from the soil obtained from the
51 contaminated site. b) To analyze the phytoextraction efficiency of the hyperaccumulator plants. c)

52 To analyse the removal efficiency of Cr (VI) on plant – microbe interaction for enhanced chromium
53 accumulation in plants.

54 2. Materials and Methods

55 2.1 Soil sampling and characterization

56 The soil samples were obtained from the contaminated sites of electroplating industry in
57 Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India. The obtained samples were combined, allowed to air dry, and then
58 sieved with a 2 mm sieve to remove the coarse particles. The physio-chemical parameters such as
59 pH, electrical conductivity, nitrogen, potassium, phosphorus and organic matter were examined in
60 the laboratory (IS code)(Shi et al. 2020)[15]. A triple acid digestion process was used to digest the
61 dirt. For digestion, mixture of nitric acid, sulphuric acid and perchloric acid was mixed in the ration
62 of 9:3:1, 1 g of soil was mixed with 25 ml of triple acid digestion solution and digested overnight.
63 The sample was then heated to 110°C till it turns white(Shi et al. 2020) and (Santiago and
64 Santhamani 2010). Then the sample was filtered and diluted. The Chromium (IV) concentration
65 present in the sample is determined using the Plasma-Optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES).

66 2.2. Isolation of bacteria

67 10 g of the contaminated soil was suspended in 100 mL of sterilized saline (0.85 percent
68 NaCl solution) and shaken for 10 minutes. Then, the extraction was serially diluted to 1000, 10,000
69 fold dilution and spread on Luria-Bertani Agar (LBA) plates amended with 50 mg/L of Cr (VI) (10
70 g tryptone, 10 g NaCl, 5 g yeast extract, and 20 g agar in 1 L deionized water, pH 7) in triplicates
71 and incubated at 37 °C for 7 days to find out the presence of Cr (VI) utilizing bacteria in the
72 soil.(Wu et al. 2019). The isolated obtained from the plates were inoculated with 100 mg/L of Cr
73 (VI) and incubated for 2 days. Then, the solutions were serially diluted and plated in LBA plates to
74 access the isolated capable of growing in increasing Cr(VI) concentration. This step was carried out
75 in the incremental order of 100 mg/L starting with 200 mg/L to 500 mg/L of Cr (VI). The

76 declination of microbial growth was observed which shows that the bacteria were resistant or
77 tolerant to higher concentration of chromium was able to grow at increasing concentration. At
78 500mg/L, a white colony that was found in abundant was taken for the study. This experiment was
79 repeated to check the reproducibility and was successful in each trial.

80

81 *2.3 Identification of isolated species present in the polluted soil*

82 Identification of the isolate was carried out using 16S rRNA sequencing. The 16S rRNA gene was
83 amplified by PCR using universal primers 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and 1492R
84 (5' GGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3') after genomic DNA extraction. The BLASTN algorithm was
85 used to compare the 16S rRNA gene sequences to known the sequences from NCBI database.
86 These sequences were aligned with ClustalW, and a phylogenetic tree was built using Molecular
87 Evolutionary Genetic Analysis' neighbour-joining method. MEGA 6 is a piece of software (Aslam,
88 Yasmin, and Sohail 2020). 1 PCR buffer (50 mmol/L KCl, 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl, 20 mmol/L
89 MgCl₂ pH 8.3, 0.01 percent (w/v) gelatine), a combination of 0.2 mmol/L dNTPs/each, 2.5 U Taq
90 DNA polymerases, 0.5 mmol/L from each primer, and 50 ng/L bacterial DNA template were used
91 in a total volume of 50 Initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 minutes and 35 cycles; denaturation at
92 94°C for 1 minute; annealing at 48°C for 2 minutes, extension at 72°C, and final extension at 72°C
93 for 7 minutes. EXOSAP-IT (Ambion, CA) was used to purify the PCR product, which was then
94 sequenced forward and reverse using PCR primers. (Mohamed et al. 2020)

95 *2.4 Studies on the reduction of Cr. by the bacterial isolate*

96 The diphenylcarbazide (DPC) method, which determined the reduction of hexavalent chromium
97 concentration, was used to test a bacterial isolate's capacity to convert Cr (VI) into Chromium (III),
98 a harmless form of the metal. The 24 hour-old growing culture was inoculated in 100 ml of LB
99 broth with 50 mg/L of Cr (VI) and incubated in a rotating incubator at 30°C to calculate the

chromium reduction. The experiments were carried out in duplicates. 5 mL of the culture was removed in the aseptic condition at regular intervals of 12 hrs, until 3 days. The bacterial suspension was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes and the supernatant was collected. The remaining concentration of Cr (VI) in the supernatant was assessed using a spectrophotometer to measure the absorbance of the Cr (VI)-DPC complex at 540 nm at various time intervals. The percentage of chromium reduction was determined by the formula given below. (Upadhyay et al. 2017)

$$Cr(VI) \text{ Reduction in } \% = \frac{A - B}{B} \times 100$$

Where, A- Absorbance of control, B- Absorbance of sample

2.2.3 Preparation of mass culture

Bulk production of the microbial isolate was needed for the study of synergistic activity of the bacteria along with the plants for treatment of chromium. This was done using mass bacterial culturing or mass production process. It is the process of production of higher quantity of required organism. This is done in a particular media and mixed with carrier before introducing into the soil. The media provides nutrition for the growth of microbe and carrier acts as substrate for the microbe. In this process, mass culturing was done in LB broth. The bacterial strain which was isolated from the contaminated soil has the capacity to grow at 500mg/l. The bacterial strain was prepared to 5L in the laboratory and used for the study.

2.3. selection of hyper accumulator plant for the remediation of chromium

Cotton (*Gossypium arboreum*), Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*), Napier grass (*Pennisetum purpureum*), Nerium (*Nerium oleander*) and Jatropha (*Jatropha curcas*) plants were chosen to study the reduction of chromium in polluted soil based on the review of the literature. Cotton plant has the

122 capacity of absorbing heavy metals. It is crucial to use transgenic cotton cultivars for Cr(IV)
123 remediation in Cr-polluted areas since they are being rapidly grown in industrialized parts of the
124 world.(Lotfy and Mostafa 2014). Sorghum is a grass type plant classified as one of the
125 hyperaccumulators as it accumulate higher concentration of Cr(IV).(Karimi 2013).The presence of
126 cadmium increases the biomass of Napier grass drew the attention in phytoremediation. Very few
127 researchers worked with Napier grass for heavy metal phytoremediation. (Juel et al. 2021). It helps
128 in hyper-accumulating higher concentration of various heavy metals. It has been found that, it is a
129 good bioindicator of Zn and Cu. *N. oleander* acts as remover of Al, Ba, Cr, Fe and Pb. *Jatropha* has
130 been found that it is very effective in removal of Cr(VI). *J. curcasto* has the capability to absorb
131 zinc, copper, and chromium from sewage sludge and has the ability to phytoremediate cadmium
132 and lead from polluted soil..(L. Awotedu and O. Ogunbamowo 2019).

133 2.4. Experiment on synergistic action

134 2.4.1. preparation of seeds and planting

135 The seeds of cotton & sorghum were procured from Seed production institute,
136 Ramanathapuram, Tamilandu, India. The seeds were cold treated at 10⁰C for 3 days to break
137 dormancy and synchronize germination. The surface of the seeds were sterilized by washing in 10%
138 bleach for 15mins, then with sterile distilled water, then with 70% ethanol finally with distilled
139 water. The seeds were cocultured with the bacterial strain. Co culturing is a technique of mixing of
140 two types of cells in vitro to allow for synergistic or antagonistic interactions. The seeds were added
141 to the 50ml of bacterial solutions and kept in incubator at 30⁰ C overnight. Then the seeds were
142 transferred to sterilized petri dish containing cotton where it was allowed for germination. After the
143 germination, the seeds were transferred to the pots.(Kamran et al. 2017).

144 2.2.3 Preparation of mass culture

145 Bulk production of the microbial isolate was required to study the synergistic activity of the
146 bacteria along with the plants for treatment of chromium. This was done using mass bacterial
147 culturing or mass production process. It is the process of production of higher quantity of required
148 organism. This is done in a particular media and mixed with carrier before introducing into the soil.
149 The media provides nutrition for the growth of microbe and carrier acts as substrate for the microbe.
150 In this process, mass culturing was done in LB broth. The bacteria strain that were recovered from
151 the polluted soil have a 500mg/l growth rate. The bacterial strain was prepared to 5L in the
152 laboratory and used for the study.

153 *2.4.2. Plantation with bacterial cultured soil*

154 The bacteria obtained through mass culture were mixed with the soil. A precultured bacterial strain
155 was introduced into soil samples at a concentration of 0.5 mg/kg of soil. The study was carried out
156 in triplicate.(Nayak et al. 2018).

157 The germinated seeds of cotton & sorghum, seedlings of uniform shoot length and root length were
158 planted in a control pot. This was placed in green house and watered regularly using distilled water.
159 Similarly, the saplings of Napier grass, Nerium and Jatropha were planted. Compost was added as
160 fertilizer once in a week to support the growth. The contaminated soil and bacterial biomass were
161 incubated with the plants, which were then allowed to grow for 5 weeks before being harvested.
162 Plant samples were collected after five weeks and overnight dried to determine the amount of heavy
163 metals in the plants and soil. Atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) was used to measure the
164 concentration of Cr(VI) after the dried samples were acid digested to extract the metals.)(Shi et al.
165 2020).

166 **3. Results and Discussion**

167 *3.1. physico chemical characteristics of contaminated soil sample*

168 The physico chemical characteristics of soil was examined where the pH of the soil was found to be
 169 8.2 (alkaline). It resulted due to the soil's exposure to a number of metallic salts. The pH was within
 170 the limit for the growth of plant. The EC was 6.069 mS and it is higher in limit. Because there are
 171 more dissolved salts in the soil sample, the EC is higher.. The texture of soil was found to be sandy.
 172 The presence of Phosphorous was higher (16966 mg/kg) in the soil, as it was widely used in the
 173 electroplating industry. Nitrogen and organic materials both made up 1% of the sample. The
 174 Potassium in the soil were <0.1%

175 **Table 3.1. Physiochemical Analysis of contaminated soil**

| Sl.No | Parameters | Units | Values |
|---|-------------------------|-------|------------|
| 1 | Texture | - | Sandy soil |
| 2 | pH | - | 8.2 |
| 3 | Electrical conductivity | mS | 6.069 |
| 4 | Nitrogen | % | 1 |
| 5 | Potassium (as K) | % | < 0.1% |
| 6 | Phosphorous | mg/Kg | 16966 |
| 7 | Organic matter | % | 1 |
| Concentration of chromium and other Heavy metals | | | |
| 1 | Total chromium | mg/Kg | 940 |
| 2 | Zinc | mg/Kg | 88.2 |

| | | | |
|---|-----------|-------|--------|
| 3 | Iron | mg/Kg | 413.15 |
| 4 | Manganese | mg/Kg | 277.7 |

To analyze the presence of chromium concentration, the sample was digested using triple acid and filtered. In view of that Chromium was found to be 940 mg/kg of soil which exceeds the permissible limits. The other heavy metals that were determined are Zinc, Iron and Manganese. The concentration of those heavy metals were tabulated (Table 3.1). Since the soil was taken from the electroplating industry, Chromium and other heavy metal concentrations were found to be higher. Chromium was used as Potassium dichromate salt in gold plating, H_2CrO_4 salt in chromium plating and in post treatment process. The other heavy metals like Zinc, Iron and Manganese were required for a post treatment process called as Phosphating. Heavy metal concentrations in the soil environment have increased as a result of the discharge of unneeded chromium and other heavy metals into the water and soil. Since the concentration level of these toxic heavy metals were higher in the contaminated soil, a remediation process is required, further more to enhance the degradation process the soil was treated using the plants and microbes which acts synergistically for the reclamation of the soil

3.2 Identification of bacterial species for the reduction of chromium

The 16S rRNA analysis shows that the sequence of isolate was 99.9% similar to *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*. It belongs to the genus Streptococcus. The *Staphylococcus* genus are gram positive, non-motile cocci and facultative anaerobic. They grew in clusters and are pathogenic.

3.3 Efficiency of *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* in Cr(VI) removal using bacterial strain

The bacterial strain been used to the decrease in heavy metal toxicity and accumulation in plants. The bacteria were inoculated in 100ml of LB media containing 500mg/L of Cr (VI). The reduction was detected by 1,5 – Di phenyl carbazide method. The bacteria showed the reduction of

197 31.68mg/L after 12hrs, then to 202.33mg/L after 24hrs, 164.26mg/L after 36hrs, 94.54mg/L after
198 48hrs, 52.79mg/L after 60hrs and 12.83mg/L after 72hrs respectively, a removal efficiency of
199 97.43% was obtained after 3 days of incubation. This was done under aerobic condition. Fig 1
200 shows the removal efficiency of chromium by the microbe over time. The removal efficiency
201 increases as the time increases (Fig 1). From the process it was found that the bacteria
202 *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* as the strain to remediate Cr (VI) and thus it was selected for the
203 study.

204 The degradation of Cr (VI) was studied for the bacterial isolate in controlled environment under
205 aerobic condition. The conversion of Cr (VI) to Cr (III) was detected by 1,5 – Di phenyl carbazide
206 method. Fig 1 shows the removal efficiency increases as time increases. 97.43% degradation
207 efficiency observed within 72 hrs. 50% reduction was obtained within 24 hrs. This shows that the
208 bacterial isolate from the contaminated soil is capable to treat Cr (VI) up to 500 mg/L.

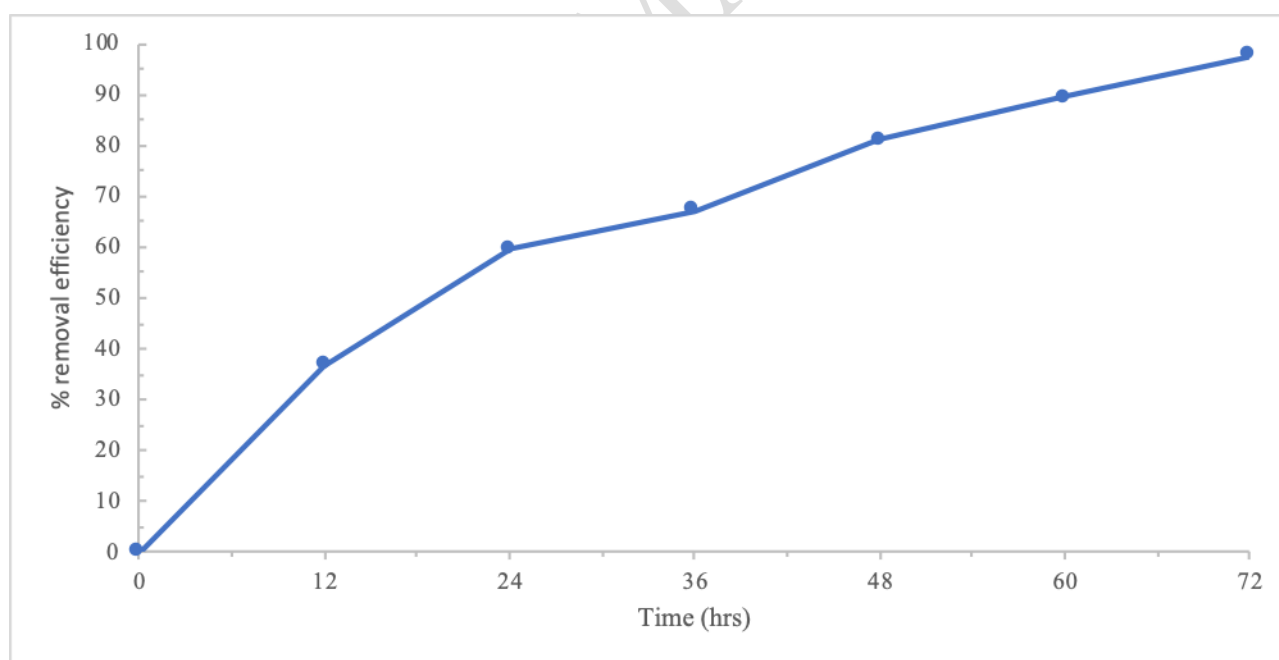


Figure 1. Removal efficiency of Cr (VI) by *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

3.4. Effects of Synergistic action between plant and microbes

Chromium buildup was substantially less common in non-inoculated plants compared to control conditions, when *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* was administered to plants in a synergistic action. This action shows good results in the production of biomass in shoots and roots. the interaction between various plant species and Chromium accumulation in root of plant under control and treated were discussed below

3.4.1. Interaction between Napier grass and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

The Napier grass was planted in the soil and grown for 5 weeks. At the first week the grass started to dry. After 1 week, new leaves were developed in both control and the treated plants. The grass planted in inoculated soil showed good biomass than in control. No damage or pest infection was observed in the grown grass. Chromium was shown to accumulate more in the roots of plants growing in soil mixed with *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* than in the leaves. The Accumulation in root was found to be 311.55mg/kg where as in control it was found to be 44.63mg/kg. The accumulation in shoot was found to be 148.36mg/kg and in control was found to be 29.7mg/kg. in Fig 2. The grass was found to be an effective plant that can be grown in contaminated sites and accumulation of heavy metals (Xia 2004)(Zhang et al. 2010).

3.4.2. Interaction between Cotton and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

Cotton was sown as seeds after co-culturing with *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*. The plant showed good survival growth. The seedlings showed growth after 4 days of planting in the soil. In inoculated soil, the plant fared better than in control soil. This is as a result of the heavy metal toxicity in the control soil. The fiber crops show higher accumulation of toxic metals within its part. The Accumulation within root was found to be 227.96mg/kg where as in control it was found to be 103.96mg/kg. The accumulation in shoot was found to be 133.84mg/kg and in control was found to be 54.6mg/kg. The cotton plants have the ability to accumulate heavy metals. (Bailey et al. 1999).

3.4.3. Interaction between *Nerium* and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

236 The plant was able to grow for 1 week from plantation. Later it started to dry and almost died after
237 3 weeks. This is due to the higher concentration of chromium which was toxic to plant. The
238 Accumulation in root was found to be 128.86mg/kg where as in control it was found to be
239 84.158mg/kg. The accumulation in shoot was found to be 103.89mg/kg and in control was found to
240 be 74.05mg/kg.

241 3.4.4. *Interactions between Sorghum and Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

242 The sorghum seedlings showed the growth from the third day of germination. In comparison to the
243 control, the inoculated soil had a higher rate of plant growth survival. The plant showed increase in
244 biomass than in the control. The bacteria helped in increasing the biomass of plants. These plants
245 developed mechanism to withstand higher concentration of heavy metals. It acts as phyto-
246 accumulator, where plants can accumulate fewer amounts when compared to hyper accumulator
247 plants(Karimi 2013). Accumulation in root was found to be 74.70mg/kg where as in control it was
248 found to be 39.6mg/kg. The accumulation in shoot was found to be 48.72mg/kg and in control was
249 found to be 12.6mg/kg.

250 3.4.5 *Interactions between Jatropha and Staphylococcus saprophyticus*

251 The plant showed growth till first week and later started drying. The same condition was observed
252 in both the control and inoculated soil condition. This is due to the toxic nature of chromium to the
253 plants (Mangkoedihardjo, Ratnawati, and Alfianti 2008). The Accumulation in root was found to be
254 114.85mg/kg where as in control it was found to be 58.6mg/kg. The accumulation in shoot was
255 found to be 54.62mg/kg and in control was found to be 16.5mg/kg. Fig 2 shows the concentration
256 of chromium accumulated by the plants and Fig 3 shows the effect of heavy metal on the plants
257 grown in control soil (without bacterial inoculum) and treated soil containing bacterial inoculum

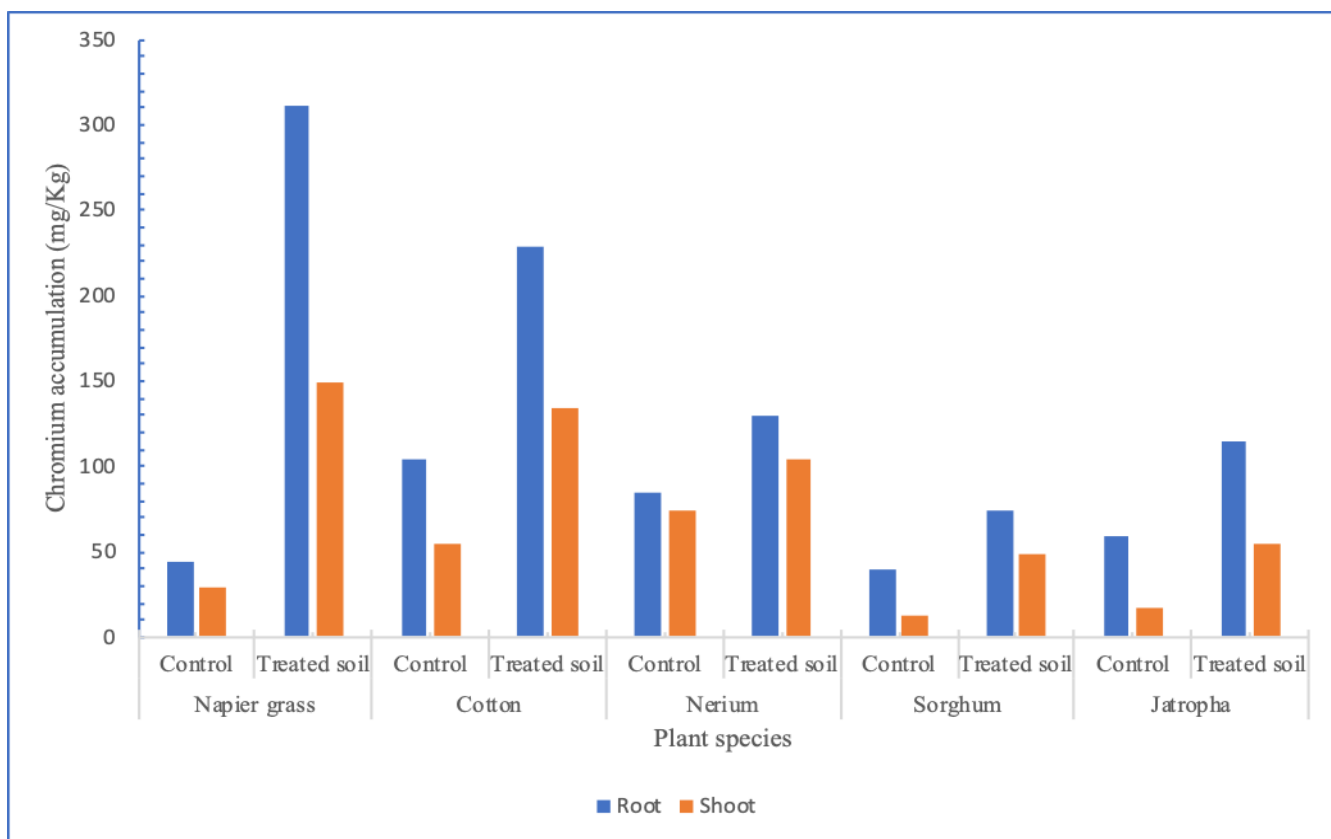


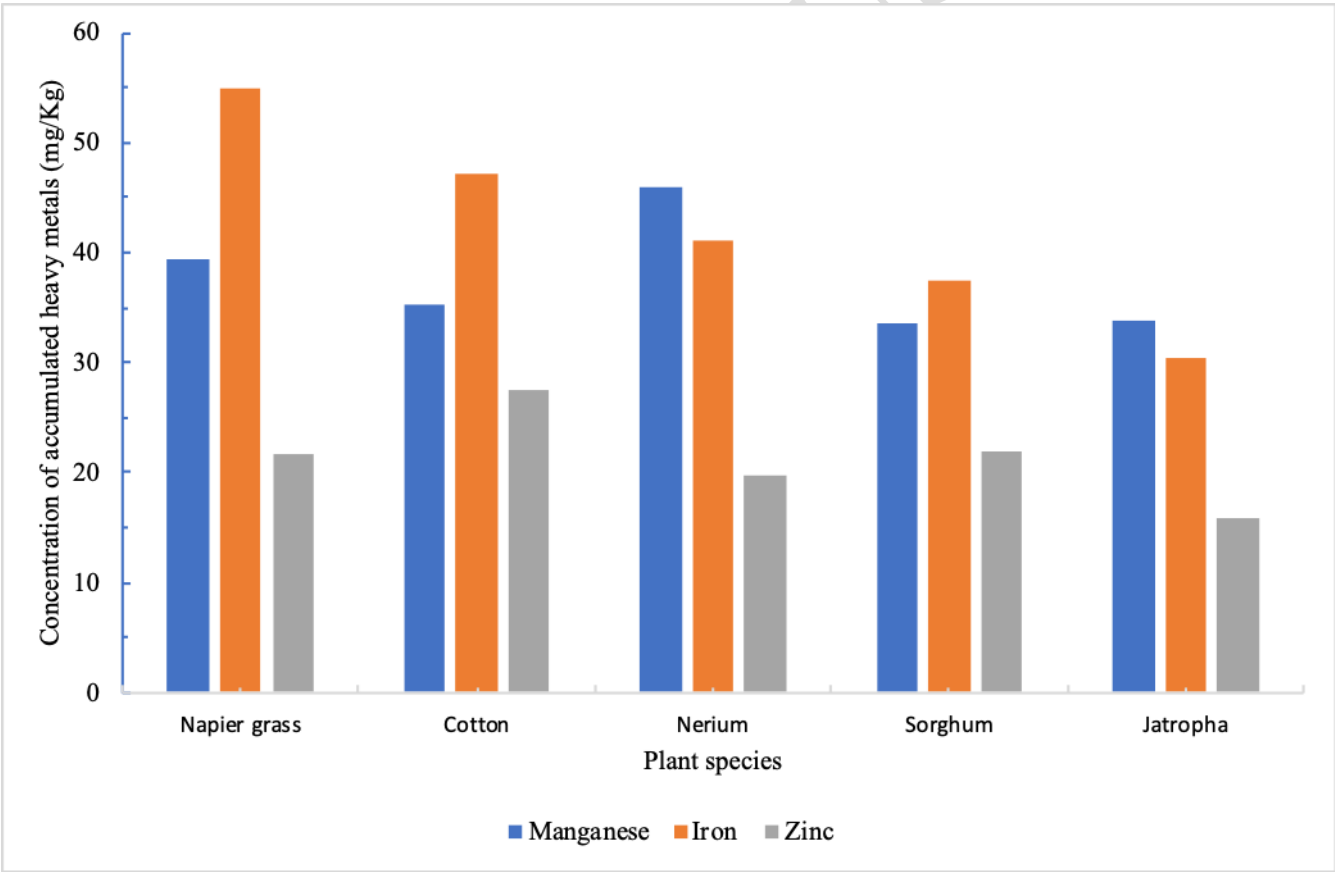
Figure 2. Chromium accumulation in root of plant under control and treated



Figure 3. Effect of contaminated soil on plants

262 3.4.6 Synergistic effect on other heavy metals

263 Additionally, the synergistic impact on the buildup of additional heavy metals was identified.
264 Heavy metals like Zinc, Iron and Manganese were determined by AAS. The synergistic effect on
265 the accumulation of other heavy metals was also determined. Heavy metals like Zinc, Iron and
266 Manganese were determined by AAS. Napier grass and cotton accumulated higher concentration of
267 Iron. Nerium had the capacity to increase the content of manganese in its body. This demonstrates
268 that these plants are suitable for phytoremediation of heavy metal-contaminated locations since they
269 were able to acquire other heavy metals. The accumulation of heavy metals by the plants is depicted
270 in Fig. 3



272 **Figure 3.** Heavy metal accumulation in plants

273 3.5. Removal of chromium by synergistic action

274 The plants along with the bacteria under synergistic action were able to accumulate higher
275 concentration of chromium. . The Cr (VI) was carried into plants by metabolic pathway and Cr (III)
276 was taken to plants by non metabolic pathway: (R.A. Skeffington, P.R. shewry 1976). There was an
277 active intake of Cr species was observed in Barley. This result was similar to the study. The uptake
278 of Cr depends on Cr concentration, soil texture and plant species. The increase in accumulation of
279 chromium by the plants involves one the following process. It might be caused by the creation of
280 substances that promote growth, such as indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), siderophores that are found to
281 increase plant growth in soils with elevated Cr levels. (Davies 1937). The siderophores help plants
282 accumulate more chromium by combining with divalent or trivalent metal ions. (Polti et al. 2011).
283 The release of organic exudates from plants helps in the higher accumulation of chromium from the
284 soil. The production of acids or phosphates from plants and microbes also increases accumulation
285 of chromium. By inoculating plants with plant-associated bacteria, it was discovered that as metal
286 extraction increased, B. juncea, Brassica napus, Sorghum bicolor, and Solanum nigrum biomass
287 output rose. (Chen et al. 2010). The plants cultivated in the inoculated soil also showed an increase
288 in biomass, root length, and shoot length. Bacteria have been shown in multiple studies to increase
289 the root and shoot length of plants like zea mays. (Marta A. Poltia et al, 2011). From the study it was
290 found that the root and shoot of Napier grass shows higher chromium accumulation with
291 *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* and the least accumulation was found in Sorghum. The other
292 interaction of plants and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* were found in the order of Napier grass >
293 Cotton> Nerium > Jatropha > Sorghum. Fig 4 shows the chromium accumulation in root and shoots
294 system of the slected plant species.

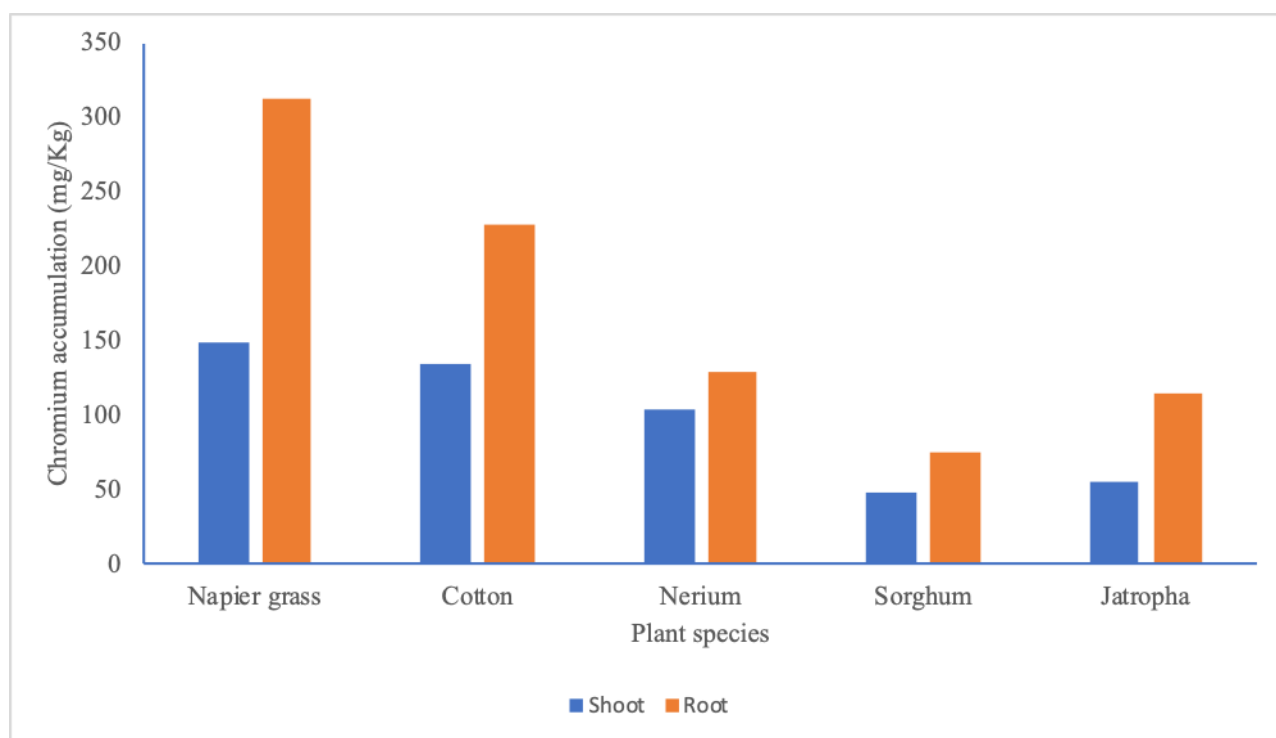


Figure 4. Comparative results of synergism in plant species.

4. Conclusion

- This study showed that the synergistic action between the microbe and plants helps in the accumulation of higher concentration of chromium.
- The soil contained 940 mg/kg of chromium. The microorganism that could remove chromium from the environment was isolated from the soil.
- The 16S rRNA was performed and the bacterium was found to be *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*. The SDS PAGE was carried out which detected the expression of reductase enzyme that was responsible for the Cr (VI) conversion.
- The *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* was mass cultured and mixed with soil. The plant species like Napier grass, Cotton, Nerium, Sorghum and Jatropha were planted to the soil. The plants were able to accumulate higher concentration of chromium in its parts.
- In control plants, the plants were also able to demonstrate an increase in biomass. The higher accumulation was found in the roots.

- This was because the plants immobilize chromium and absorb it into the root and store it in the vacuoles. The Cr was taken by dependent and independent mechanisms in leaves and shoots and stored in the xylem of plants. The higher accumulation was found in roots, this was because of the plants immobilizing chromium and absorbing it into the root and storing it in vacuoles.
- The plants roots and leaves were also able to accumulate other heavy metals like Manganese, iron and zinc in it.
- The production of IAA and other organic substances increases the accumulation by the interaction between bacteria and plants, which caused the metals to mobilize and enhance the accumulation in plants, was the primary cause of this rise in accumulation. The suitable combinations of plant and *S. saprophyticus* was found to be Napier grass > Cotton > Nerium > Jatropha > Sorghum.
- The synergistic strategy is a successful one in bioremediating chromium-contaminated soil with economic and without affecting the cycles of ecosystem. The ultimate aim of synergism is to convert Cr(VI) into Cr(III).
- This study shows that the best and most economical strategy for cleaning up chromium-contaminated sites by the synergistic action of plants and microorganisms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge Dr.S.Chandran, Lab Incharge, Environmental Research Laboratory, Department of Civil Engineering, Thiagarajar College of Engineering, Madurai for his support to perform the Experimental Investigation for this study.

REFERENCES

- Asati, Ambika, Mohnish Pichhode, and Kumar Nikhil. (2016). "Effect of Heavy Metals on Plants." *International Journal of Application or Innovation in Engineering & Management* 5(03): 56–66.

335 Aslam, Fozia, Azra Yasmin, and Sana Sohail. (2020). "Bioaccumulation of Lead, Chromium, and
 336 Nickel by Bacteria from Three Different Genera Isolated from Industrial Effluent."
 337 *International Microbiology* 23(2): 253–61.

338 Ayele, Abate, and Yakob Godebo Godeto. (2021). "Bioremediation of Chromium by
 339 Microorganisms and Its Mechanisms Related to Functional Groups." *Journal of Chemistry*
 340 2021.

341 Bailey, Susan E., Trudy J. Olin, R. Mark Bricka, and D. Dean Adrian. (1999). "A Review of
 342 Potentially Low-Cost Sorbents for Heavy Metals." *Water Research* 33(11): 2469–79.

343 Chen, Liang & Luo, Shenglian & Xiao, Xiao & Guo, Hanjun & Chen, Jueliang & Wan, Yong & Li,
 344 Bo & Xu, Taoying & Xi, Qiang & Rao, Chan & Liu, Chengbin & Zeng, Guangming. (2010).
 345 Application of plant growth-promoting endophytes (PGPE) isolated from *Solanum nigrum* L.
 346 for phytoextraction of Cd-polluted soils. *Applied Soil Ecology - APPL SOIL ECOL.* 46(3).
 347 383-389.

348 Davies, peter J. (1937). "The Plant Hormones: Their Nature, Occurence, and Functions." : 1–2.

349 Engwa, Godwill Azeh, Paschaline Udoka Ferdinand, Friday Nweke Nwalo, and Marian N.
 350 Unachukwu. (2019). "10.5772@Intechopen.82511.Pdf." *Mechanism and Health Effects of*
 351 *Heavy Metal Toxicity in Humans*: 23.

352 Ermakov, I V, S V Koptsik, G N Koptsik, and S Lofts. (2018). "Transport and Accumulation of
 353 Heavy Metals in Undisturbed Soil Columns." *Global NEST Journal* 9(3): 187–94.

354 Hansda, Arti, Vipin Kumar, and Zeba Usmani. (2014). "Phytoremediation of Heavy Metals
 355 Contaminated Soil Using Plant Growth Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR): A Current
 356 Perspective." *Recent Research in Science and Technology* 6(1): 131–34. [http://recent-](http://recent-science.com/)
 357 [science.com/](http://recent-science.com/).

358 J, Rita Evelyne, and V Ravisankar. (2014). "Bioremediation of Chromium Contamination- a
 359 Review." 1(6).

360 Juel, Md Ariful Islam, Thuhin Kumar Dey, Md Ibrahim Sardar Akash, and Kushol Kumar Das.

361 (2021). "Heavy Metals Phytoremediation Potential of Napier Grass Cultivated on Tannery
 362 Sludge in Bangladesh." *Journal of Engineering Science* 12(1): 35–41.

363 Kamran, Muhammad & Eqani, SAMAS & Katsoyiannis, Athanasios & Xu, Ren-Kou & Bibi, Sadia
 364 & Benizri, Emile & Chaudhary, Hassan.(2017). "Phyto-Extraction of Chromium and Influence
 365 of Plant Growth Promoting Bacteria to Enhance Plant Growth." *Journal of Geochemical
 366 Exploration* 182: 269–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gexplo.2016.09.005>.

367 Karimi, Nooshin. (2013). "Comparative Phytoremediation of Chromium-Contaminated Soils by
 368 Alfalfa (*Medicago Sativa*) and Sorghum Bicolor (L) Moench." *International Journal of
 369 Scientific Research in Environmental Sciences* 1(3): 44–49.

370 L. Awotedu, Olamilekan, and Paul O. Ogunbamowo. (2019). "Comparative Heavy Metal Uptake
 371 and Phytoremediation Potential of Three *Jatropha* Species." *Environment & Ecosystem
 372 Science* 3(2): 26–30.

373 Lotfy, S. M., and A. Z. Mostafa. (2014). "Phytoremediation of Contaminated Soil with Cobalt and
 374 Chromium." *Journal of Geochemical Exploration* 144(PB): 367–73.

375 Mangkoedihardjo, Sarwoko, Rhenny Ratnawati, and Neni Alfianti. (2008). "Phytoremediation of
 376 Hexavalent Chromium Polluted Soil Using *Pterocarpus Indicus* and *Jatropha Curcas* L ." *World Applied Sciences Journal* 4(3): 338–42. [http://www.idosi.org/wasj/wasj4\(3\)2008.htm](http://www.idosi.org/wasj/wasj4(3)2008.htm).

377 Mishra, Sandhya, and Ram Naresh Bharagava. (2016). "Toxic and Genotoxic Effects of Hexavalent
 378 Chromium in Environment and Its Bioremediation Strategies." *Journal of Environmental
 379 Science and Health - Part C Environmental Carcinogenesis and Ecotoxicology Reviews* 34(1):
 380 1–32.

381 Mohamed, Mahmoud & Elarabi, Nagwa & Elhussein, Ahmed & Abu El-Maaty, Shereen &
 382 Abdelhadi, Abdelhadi. (2020). "Reduction of Chromium-VI by Chromium-Resistant
 383 *Escherichia Coli* FACU: A Prospective Bacterium for Bioremediation." *Folia Microbiologica*
 384 65(4): 687–96.

385 Nayak, A. K., S. S. Panda, A. Basu, and N. K. Dhal. (2018). "Enhancement of Toxic Cr (VI), Fe,
 386

387 and Other Heavy Metals Phytoremediation by the Synergistic Combination of Native *Bacillus*
388 *Cereus* Strain and *Vetiveria Zizanioides* L.” *International Journal of Phytoremediation* 20(7):
389 682–91. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15226514.2017.1413332>.

390 Pajuelo, Eloísa, Ignacio D. Rodríguez-Llorente, Mohammed Dary, and Antonio J. Palomares.
391 (2008). “Toxic Effects of Arsenic on *Sinorhizobium-Medicago Sativa* Symbiotic Interaction.”
392 *Environmental Pollution* 154(2): 203–11.

393 Peng, Shengwei, Qixing Zhou, Zhang Cai, and Zhineng Zhang. (2009). “Phytoremediation of
394 Petroleum Contaminated Soils by *Mirabilis Jalapa* L. in a Greenhouse Plot Experiment.”
395 *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 168(2–3): 1490–96.

396 Polti, Marta A., Mariana C. Atjián, María J. Amoroso, and Carlos M. Abate. (2011). “Soil
397 Chromium Bioremediation: Synergic Activity of Actinobacteria and Plants.” *International*
398 *Biodeterioration and Biodegradation* 65(8): 1175–81.
399 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2011.09.008>.

400 R.A. Skeffington, P.R. shewry, P.J. peterson. (1976). “Chromium Uptake and Transport in Barley
401 Seedlings(*Hordeum Vulgare* L.).” *Planta, Springer-Verlag* 214: 209–14.

402 Santiago, Mahimairaja, and Shenbagavalli Santhamani. (2010). “Remediation of Chromium
403 Contaminated Soils: Potential for Phyto and Bioremediation.” *World* (August): 211–14.

404 Shi GY, Yan YJ, Yu ZQ, Zhang L, Cheng YY, Shi WL. (2020). “Modification-Bioremediation of
405 Copper, Lead, and Cadmium-Contaminated Soil by Combined Ryegrass (*Lolium Multiflorum*
406 Lam.) and *Pseudomonas Aeruginosa* Treatment.” *Environmental Science and Pollution*
407 *Research* 27(30): 37668–76.

408 Hrudayanath Thatoi, Sasmita Das, Jigni Mishra, Bhagwat Prasad Rath, Nigamananda Das, (2014).
409 “Bacterial Chromate Reductase, a Potential Enzyme for Bioremediation of Hexavalent
410 Chromium: A Review.” *Journal of Environmental Management* 146: 383–99.
411 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2014.07.014>.

412 Upadhyay Neha, Vishwakarma Kanchan, Singh Jaspreet, Mishra Mitali, Kumar Vivek, Rani Radha,

413 Mishra Rohit K., Chauhan Devendra K., Tripathi Durgesh K., Sharma Shivesh. (2017).
414 “Tolerance and Reduction of Chromium(VI) by Bacillus Sp. MNU16 Isolated from
415 Contaminated Coal Mining Soil.” *Frontiers in Plant Science* 8(May): 1–13.

416 Pilar A. Velez, Melina A. Talano, Cintia E. Paisio, Elizabeth Agostini & Paola S. González (2017).
417 “Synergistic Effect of Chickpea Plants and Mesorhizobium as a Natural System for Chromium
418 Phytoremediation.” *Environmental Technology (United Kingdom)* 38(17): 2164–72.
419 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09593330.2016.1247198>.

420 Wu, Minghui & Li, Yunzhen & Li, Junjie & Wang, Ying & Xu, Heng & Zhao, Yun. (2019).
421 “Bioreduction of Hexavalent Chromium Using a Novel Strain CRB-7 Immobilized on
422 Multiple Materials.” *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 368: 412–20.
423 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2019.01.059>.

424 Xia, H. P. (2004). “Ecological Rehabilitation and Phytoremediation with Four Grasses in Oil Shale
425 Mined Land.” *Chemosphere* 54(3): 345–53.

426 Zhang, Xingfeng & Xia, Hanping & Li, Zhi An & Zhuang, Ping & Gao, Bo. (2009). “Potential of
427 Four Forage Grasses in Remediation of Cd and Zn Contaminated Soils.” *Bioresource*
428 *Technology* 101(6): 2063–66. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2009.11.065>.

429