ISOLATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF FUNGI AND YEAST RESISTANT TO LEAD (II)

María de Guadalupe Moctezuma Zárate

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí San Luis Potosí, México <u>moctezum@uaslp.mx</u>

Aracelí Robles Galván

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí San Luis Potosí, México <u>iacosta@uaslp.mx</u>

Juan F. Cárdenas González

Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Zona Media. Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí Río Verde, San Luis Potosí, México. juan.cardenas@uaslp.mx

Adriana S. Rodríguez Pérez

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí San Luis Potosí, México <u>asarai28@hotmail.com</u>

José F. Navarro Castillo

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí

Abstract- Recently, has been studied the isolation and resistance to heavy metals of microorganisms, and his capacity of removal of different heavy metals in wastewater, such bacteria, yeast and fungi. Therefore, in this work, we isolate different fungal and yeast, which grow in presence of 200 ppm of lead (II), and we determined the tolerance to this metal by plate assays. Fungi found most frequently of wastewater were Penicillium sp., (44.5%), Trichoderma sp., (16.7%), and Alternaria sp., (8.3%) and from sludge were obtained Penicillium sp., (57.1%), and the yeast Candida albicans (42.8%). All species of isolated fungi and yeast were resistant to metal in the range of 500 to 2000 ppm. In addition, they have good capacity of removal this metal in solution: Mucor sp., (81%), Paecilomyces sp., I (66%), Penicillium sp., I, II, III, and IV (62%, 61%, 58%, and 55%). It was concluded that this fungi and yeast, could be used for decontamination of aquatic habitats polluted with lead (II).

San Luis Potosí, México josef@uaslp.mx

Juana Tovar Oviedo

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí San Luis Potosí, México <u>itoviedo@uaslp.mx</u>

Víctor M. Martínez Juárez

Área Académica de Medicina Veterinaria y Zootecnia Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo Hidalgo, México victormj@uaeh.edu.mx

Christian Michel Cuello

Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Zona Media Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí Rio Verde, San Luis Potosí, México <u>christian.michel@uaslp.mx</u>

Ismael Acosta Rodríguez

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí San Luis Potosí, México iacosta@uaslp.mx

Keywords— Isolation, Fungi, Heavy Metals, Removal, Lead (II).

I. INTRODUCTION

Heavy metals are potentially toxic elements whose presence in the environment has increased notably in recent decades, mainly by the action of man. Metal pollution poses an environmental threat important for living beings, since various metals that are essential micronutrients, such as copper and zinc, are toxic at high concentrations, while others, such as cadmium, lead mercury and arsenic, are toxic at minimal doses [1]. Lead and its derivatives are widely distributed in the environment: air, drinking water, rivers, lakes and oceans, soil, plants, animals, etc. This metal is used in the manufacture of pigments, coatings, containers, ointments, batteries electrical [2], and currently it has numerous applications in metallurgical industry: arms ammunition, metal bearings, cable cover, sheet lead, solders. pigments, and ceramic glaze. He occupational exposure limit (TLV-TWA) has been of 50-µg lead/m³ [3]. In addition, the phenomenon known

as "pica" which it occurs in children who suck toys or objects paints or wrappers based lead salts is another source of pollution to consider [4]. Lead has the indirect effect of brain development strain [5], and more recently, it was detected in umbilical cord serum samples of mother-newborn pairs in Shengsi islands face the Yangtze River estuary and Hangzhou Bay in China [6].

On the other hand, different studies have been carried out on lead contamination in water, soil and air in the San Luis Potosí valley, for example: the quality of irrigation water on agricultural land crops, detecting that some samples of water exceeded the permissible limit for agricultural use in the concentration of sulfates (SO^{-2}_{4}) and the electrical conductivity (EC), which represents an excess of salts in the water [7]. The analysis of the atmospheric dust of the city of San Luis Potosí, obtained in the industrial zone, an average annual arithmetic of total suspended particles of 483 mg/m³, considering the four seasons of sampling during the study period. These levels being very high in comparison with the maximum permissible limit of 90 mg/m³, proposed by WHO, or 75 mg/m³ according [8]. Also were obtained the levels of some heavy elements by absorption atomic, such Fe, Pb, Mn, Ni, Cu, Cd, and As for all sampling stations, resulting very high in relation to the limits recommended by the WHO. For example, in the case of Cu on the area Industrial, its concentration rises to 3.31- mg/m^3 while the permissible concentration is 0.6 mg/m³; and the concentration is remarkable in the Tangamanga Park, which rises to 0.30 mg/m³ while its limit permissible is 0.01 mg/m³ [9]. The content of different heavy metals has been studied in samples of the mining waste of Villa de la Paz [10], finding contamination by As and Pb in soil and dust. Bioavailability was positive: 71% of the children analyzed had in urine levels of As above value normal. Toxicity studies showed hepatic damage and neurochemical alterations in rats treated with the residue, the analysis of blood Pb, urinary As, and genotoxic in blood cells in 5-11 years old living in contaminated areas in S.L.P., finding that almost half of the children, which living in these places, they present values above of CDC's mark of action As (50 m/g creatinine) and Pb (10 mg/dL in blood). In terms of DNA damage, 35% of children exceed the maximum value of damage found in the control population [11]. Too, has been studied, the capacity of tolerate and the biosorption of heavy metals by microorganisms [12]: The yeast Pichia guillermonii resistant to heavy metal [13], Pichia anomala, Candida krusei and Cryptococcus laurentii tolerated high concentrations of Zn (up to 20 mM) [14], the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae partly retain heavy metals (Cu, Fe, Pb, Zn, Ba) and As from soil extracts [15], hydroxyapatite/yeast biomass composites for the removal of Pb⁺² [16], Pb-resistant microorganisms, isolated from industrial samples [17], the fungi Aspergillus versicolor [18], some mucorales [19], indigenous Aspergillus niger and Penicillium sp [20], the basidiomycete Phanerochaete chrysosporium ([21], the algae *Lobophora variegata* (Lamouroux) [22], and *Enteromorpha* [23]. The objective of this work was to isolate and identification of fungi resistant to lead (II) of industry waste lagoon, and his capacity of removal the same heavy metal.

II. EXPERIMENTAL

A. Obtaining the samples

In previously sterilized plastic containers, a sample of water he took (approximately 30 cm below of the surface) and one of sludge (this with a Gravity-type sampler), from each of the 4 zones near the farmland of the "Tanque Tenorio", which is southeast of the city, in the municipality of Soledad de Graciano Sánchez, S.L.P., México, and is a catchment lagoon of wastewater, of which 60% is from urban origin and 40% of industrial origin, (it should be noted that the industrial zone of San Luis Potosí has more than 520 companies, among which are the mining-metallurgists, textiles and chemicals, [24].

B. Isolation of the yeast and fungi

1 mL of water and 1 g of sludge were taken and placed separately in test tubes containing 9 mL of sterile distilled water, shaking 1 min to homogenize. Dilutions (1:10, 1:100, and 1:1000) were then made and 100 µL aliquots of each of the samples were taken and seeded in Lee Minimal Medium (LMM) [25], [0.25% KH₂PO₄, 0.20% MgSO₄, 0.50% (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.50% NaCl, 0.25% glucose] supplemented with 200 ppm of Lead (II) $[Pb(NO_3)_2]$; the pH of the medium was adjusted and maintained at 5.3 with 100 mMol/L citrate-phosphate buffer, and were incubated at 28°C for 7 days. The resultant colonies were purified by successive replicates in Malta Extract Agar (MEA) and Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA). SDA and LMM culture medium, containing 200 ppm of Lead (II), were used to cultivate the fungi. Fungal strains were maintained in agar slant tubes, and spores were obtained after growth in SDA medium as described.

C. Identification of yeast and fungi

The yeast and fungal strain was identified based on their morphological structures such color, diameter of the mycelia, and microscopic observation of formation of spores, germ tube and chlamydoconidias [26].

C.1 Germ-tube induction

1 x 10^6 yeast/mL is taken, and seeded into LMM (added with proline and biotin, 0.5 and 0.001 g/L, respectively), and incubated at 37° C for 3 h. Subsequently, it is observed an aliquot in a microscopic, the formation of a germinal tube without constriction in its source of origin and with the characteristic shape of hand mirror [26].

C.2 Formation of Chlamydospores

Are grown 1 x $10^{6^{\circ}}$ yeast/mL in corn flour agar medium and incubated at 48-72 h at 28°C, observing under microscope the formation of asexual, thick-walled and refringent spores, called chlamydospores,

which may be intercalated or in terminal position of the hyphae partitions or septate [26].

D. Plate resistant test

Petri dishes were prepared with 20 mL of LMM supplemented with 200-2000 ppm of lead (II) [Pb(NO₃)₂]. Afterwards, the plates were inoculated in the central part with 1×10^6 conidia and/or yeast/mL, of the corresponding fungus and/or yeast, and were incubated at 28°C for 7 days, comparing the growth with a control without metal. All experiments were performed at least 3 times by duplicate.

E. Biosorption of Lead (II) by using dry yeast and fungi

E.1 Obtaining cellular biomass

The yeast and fungi were grown at 28°C in an agitated and aerated liquid media containing thioglycolate broth, 8 g/L. After 7 days of incubation, the cells were centrifuged 3000 rpm for 10 min, washed twice with trideionized water and then dried at 80°C for 4 h in an oven. Finally, the yeast and fungal biomass was milled and stored in an amber bottle in the refrigerator until their use.

E.2 Lead (II) solutions

For analysis, were prepared a series of solutions of Lead (II) [Pb(NO₃)₂] of 100 mg/L, pH was adjusted with nitric acid and/o NaOH, and the quantity of biomass added to each flask was of 1 g/100 mL for the lead's solution. It taken samples at 24 h, the biomass is removed for centrifugation (3000 rpm/5min) and the supernatant is analyzed to define the ion metal concentration.

E.3 Determination of Lead (II)

The concentration of lead ions in solution was determined by the colorimetric method of dithizone, with which a complex is formed dithizonate of lead cherry red color, which read at an absorbance of 510 nm with a minimum detectable concentration of lead solution of 1.0 μ g/10 mL of dithizone [27].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Identified yeast and fungi of the analized samples

From the different samples analysed from four areas of "Tanque Tenorio" we isolated and identified of water supplemented with 200 ppm of Lead (II), 36 colonies of yeast and fungi, and they can grow in the presence of different concentrations of Lead (II) (Table No. 1), the most frequent was Penicillium sp., (44.5%), followed by Trichoderma sp., (16.7%), and not yeast were obtained. From sludge, we isolated 7 colonies, 4 of Penicillium sp., (57.14%), and 3 of Candida albicans (42.85%) (Table No. 2, Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8). It is indicating that isolated yeast and fungi developed resistance and perhaps, the degradation mechanism of Lead (II) in an environment contaminated with it, which coincides with a variety studies because from different sources, have been isolated different microorganisms with the capacity of

resistance and lead (II) degradation [1, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 23].

| ldentified microorganism | Total | Percentage (%) | Growth in Lead (II) (mg/L) |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| Penicillium sp | 16 | 44.44 | 1000-2000 |
| Trichoderma sp | 6 | 16.66 | 1000 |
| Alternaria sp | 3 | 8.33 | 500-1500 |
| Acremonium sp | 5 | 5.55 | 500 |
| Aspergillus flavus | 2 | 5.55 | 2000 |
| Paecilomyces sp | 2 | 5.55 | 1000 |
| Scopulariopsis sp | 2 | 5.55 | 1000 |
| Cladosporium sp | 1 | 2.77 | 2000 |
| <i>Fusarium</i> sp | 1 | 2.77 | 1000 |
| <i>Mucor</i> sp | 1 | 2.77 | 2000 |

TABLE 2. Identified Yeast and Fungi of the analized sludge samples

| ldentified microorganism | Total | Percentage (%) | Growth in Lead (II) (mg/L) |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| Penicillium sp | 4 | 57.14 | 1000-2000 |
| Candida albicans | 3 | 42.85 | 1500-2000 |

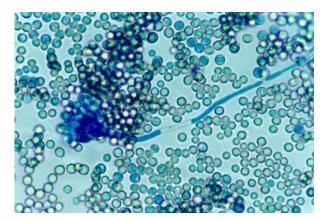


Figure 1: Penicillium sp., 100 x.

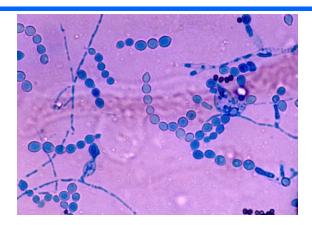


Figure 2: Scopulariopsis sp., 100 x.

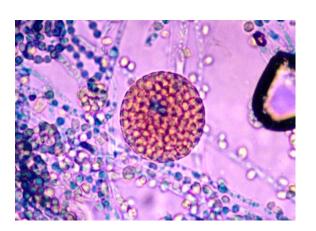


Figure 3: Mucor sp., 100 x.



Figure 5: Chlamydoconidios of *Candida albicans*. Grown in corn flour agar medium and incubated 72 h at 28°C,



Figure 6: Macroscopic characteristics of Penicillium sp. I. AEM.120 h. 28°C.

- Control without Lead (II)
 Fungi with 500 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 3. Fungi with 100 mg/L of Lead (II)
 4. Fungi with 2000 mg/L of Lead (II)



Figure 4: Aspergillus fumigatus. 100 x



Figure 6: Macroscopic characteristics of Penicillium sp. II. AEM.120 h.

- 28°C.

- 20 C.
 1. Control without Lead (II)
 2. Fungi with 500 mg/L of Lead (II)
 3. Fungi with 100 mg/L of Lead (II)
 4. Fungi with 2000 mg/L of Lead (II)



Figure 7: Macroscopic characteristics of *Penicillium* sp. III. AEM.120 h.

- 28°C. 1. - Control without Lead (II)
- 2. Fungi with 500 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 3. Fungi with 100 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 4. Fungi with 2000 mg/L of Lead (II)



Figure 8: Macroscopic characteristics of *Candida albicans* 1. AEM.120 h. 28°C.

- 1. C. albicans with 2000 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 2. C. albicans with 1000 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 3. C. albicans with 500 mg/L of Lead (II)
- 4. C. albicans without Lead (II)

B. Removal of Lead (II) by yeast and fungal biomass

We also analysed the capacity of Lead (II) removal by some of the yeast and fungal biomasses isolated. The results are shown in Table 3. The biomasses of *Mucor* sp., (81%, *Paecilomyces* sp., I, (665), *Penicillium* sp., III (62%), and *Penicillium* sp. I, (61%), removal efficiently the metal in solution, while *Alternaria* sp. I (31%), *Alternaria* sp. III 28%), and *Acremonium* sp. (21%), were the less efficient. The dead yeast and fungal cells can be effective metal accumulators and there is evidence that some biomass-based clean-up processes are economically viable [15].

The tolerance of some microorganisms to heavy metals, as well as the physiological response to them, have been also determined [1]. The removal of heavy metal ions, using yeast as biosorbents, was previously investigated [1, 12, 15, 16, 17, and 19]. Our results confirm the capacity of this yeast and fungal biomass,

for the removal of heavy metals with different effectivity, like removal of lead ions from industrial wastewater [12], yeast-based microbiological decontamination of heavy metals contaminated soils of Tarnita adsorption Lead [15], of (II) by hydroxyapatite/yeast biomass composites [16], the bioremediation of lead by lead-resistant microorganisms, isolated from industrial samples [17], removal of Lead (II) of contaminated sites [19], wastewate treatment of by Phanerochaete chrysosporium [21], the biosorption of Cd(II) and Pb(II) by Lobophora variegate and Enteromorpha Algae [22, 23].

TABLE 3. Removal of 100 mg/L of Lead (II) by yeast and fungal biomass. $28^\circ C,\,100$ rpm. pH 4.0. 1 g of biomass. 24 h.

| Yeast or fungal biomass | Percentage of Removal (%) |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| <i>Mucor</i> sp | 81 |
| Paecilomyces sp. 1 | 66 |
| Penicillium sp. 3 | 62 |
| Penicillium sp. 1 | 61 |
| Penicillium sp. 2 | 58 |
| Penicillium sp. 4 | 55 |
| Aspergillus flavus 1 | 51 |
| <i>Fusarium</i> sp. | 43 |
| Candida albicans 1 | 43 |
| Cladosporium sp. | 40 |
| Candida albicans 2 | 40 |
| Trichoderma sp. 1 | 38 |
| Alternaria sp. 1 | 31 |
| Alternaria sp. 3 | 28 |
| Acremonium sp. 1 | 21 |

IV. CONCLUSIONS

We isolated different strains of yeast and fungi, resistant to different concentrations of Lead (II), with the potential for removal this heavy metal of wastewater.

V. REFERENCES

[1] C. Tejada-Tovar, Á. Villabona-Ortiz y L. Garcés-Jaraba. "Adsorción de metales pesados en aguas residuales usando materiales de Origen biológico". Tecno Lógicas, Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 109-123. 2015.

[2] L.H.T. Dao and J. Beardall. "Effects of lead on growth, photosynthetic characteristics and production of reactive oxygen species of two freshwater green alga", Chemosphere. Vol. 147, pp. 420-429. 2016.

[3] ATSDR (Agency for Toxic Substance and Disease Registry) (2013), Priority List of Hazardous Substances accessed 19 December 2014. http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/SPL/index.html

[4] R. Sanz-Gallén y R. Marqués. "Riesgo y patología por compuestos de plomo". En: P. Sanz-Gallén, J. Izquierdo y A. Prat (eds), Manual de Salud Laboral. Springer-Verlag Ibérica, Barcelona. pp. 99-106. 1995.

[5] K. Vejrup, A.L. Brantsaeter, H.K. Knutsen, P. Magnus, J. Alexander, H.E. Kvalem, H.M. Meltzer, and M. Haugen. "Prenatal mercury exposure and infant birth weight in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study". Public Health Nutrition. Vol. 17, No. 9, pp. 2071-280. 2014.

[6] T. Mengling, X. Chenye, L. Nan, L. Kai, Z. Yongli, Y. Xinwei, L. Weiping Liu. "Lead, mercury, and cadmium in umbilical cord serum and birth outcomes in Chinese fish consumers". Chemosphere. Vol. 147, pp. 420-429. 2016.

[7] I.F. Sarabia Melendez, R. Cisneros Almazán, J. Aceves de Alba, H.M. Durán García, y J. Castro Larragoitia. "Calidad del agua de riego en suelos agrícolas y cultivos del valle de San Luis Potosí, México". Revista Internacional de Contaminación Ambiental. Vol. 27 No. 2, pp. 103-113. 2011.

[8] NOM-CCAM-002-ECOL/1993, que establece los métodos de medición para determinar la concentración de partículas suspendidas totales en el aire ambiente y los procedimientos para la calibración de los equipos de medición.

[9] A. Aragón-Piña, A.A. Campos-Ramos, R. Leyva-Ramos, M. Hernández-Orta, N. Miranda-Ortiz, y A. Luszczewski-Kudra. "Influencia de emisiones industriales en el polvo atmosférico de la ciudad de San Luis Potosí, México". Revista Internacional de Contaminación Ambiental. Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 5-19. 2006.

[10] J. Mejía, L. Carrizales, V.M. Rodríguez, M.E. Jiménez-Capdeville, y F. Díaz-Barriga. "Un método para la evaluación de riesgos para la salud en zonas mineras". Salud Pública de México. Vol. 41, No. 2, pp. S132-S140. 1999.

[11] Y. Jasso-Pineda, M. Grimaldo-Rodríguez, L. Carrizales, y F. Díaz-Barriga, F. "Genotoxicidad en niños que viven en una zona metalúrgica del estado de San Luis Potosí, S.L.P. México". Acta Toxicológica Argentina. Vol. 14. pp.31-33. 2006.

[12] M. Arbabi, S. Hemati, and M. Amiri. "Removal of lead ions from industrial wastewater: A review of removal methods". International Journal of Epidemiologic Research. Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 105-109. 2015.

[13] J. Obergozo, M. Abanto, R. García, P. Ramírez. "Identificación molecular de *Pichia guillermondii* aislada de aguas ácidas de minas en el Perú y su resistencia a metales pesados". Revista Peruana de Biología. Vol.15, No. 1, pp. 91-95. 2008.

[14] R. Vadkertiova, and E. Slavikova. "Metal tolerance of yeasts isolated from water, soil and plant environments". Journal of Basic Microbiology. Vol. 46, pp. 145–152. 2006.

[15] R. Stefanescu, A.E. Butnariu, M.M. Zamfirache, A. Surleva, C.I. Ciobanui, O. Pintilie, and G. Drochioiu. "Yeast-based microbiological decontamination of heavy metals contaminated soils of Tarnita". Carpathian Journal of Earth and Environmental Sciences. Vol.12, No. 1, pp. 153 – 159. 2017.

[16] W. Zhang, F. Wanga P. Wang, L. Lin, Y. Zhao P. Zou, M. Zhao, H. Chen, Y. Liu, and Y. Zhang. "Facile synthesis of hydroxyapatite/yeast biomass composites and their adsorption behaviors for lead (II)". Journal of Colloid and Interface Science. Vol. 477: 181–190. 2016.

[17] S. Chatterjee, A. Mukherjee, A. Sarkar and P. Roy, "Bioremediation of lead by lead-resistant microorganisms, isolated from industrial sample". Advances in Bioscience and Biotechnology. Vol. 3, pp. 290-295. 2012.

[18] A.H. Mufedah and S. Nazareth. "Isotherm and kinetic models and cell surface analysis for determination of the mechanism of metal sorption by *Aspergillus versicolor*". World Journal of Microbiololgy and Biotechnology. Vol. 28, No.7, pp. 2521-2530. 2012.

[19] J.F. Cárdenas González, M.G. Moctezuma Zárate, V.M. Martínez Juárez e I. Acosta-Rodríguez. "Eliminación de plomo (II) de sitios contaminados". Ide@s Concyteg. Vol. 6, No. 90, pp. 1165-1174. 2012.

[20] I. Ahmad, M.I. Ansari, and F. Aqil. "Biosorption of Ni, Cr and Cd by metal tolerant *Aspergillus niger* and *Penicillium* sp., using single and multi-metal solution". Indian Journal of Experimental Biology. Vol. 44, No.1, pp. 73-76. 2006.

[21] D. Morales-Fonseca, K. Ruiz-Tovar, M.M. Martínez-Salgado, A.B. Soto-Guzmán, C. Falcony-Guajardo, R. Rodríguez Vázquez y A.M. Pedroza-Rodríguez. "Desarrollo de un bioadsorbente laminar con *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* hipertolerante al cadmio, al níquel y al plomo para el tratamiento de aguas". Revista Iberoamericana de Micología. Vol. 27, No. 3, pp.111–118. 2010.

[22] B. Jha, S. Basha, S. Jaiswar, B. Mishra, C. Mukund, and C. Thakur. "Biosorption of Cd(II) and Pb(II) onto brown seaweed, *Lobophora variegata* (Lamouroux): kinetic and equilibrium studies". Biodegradation, Vol. 20, pp. 1–13, 2009.

[23] H.H. Hammud, A. El-Shaar, E. Khamis, and E. S. Mansour. "Adsorption Studies of Lead by *Enteromorpha Algae* and Its Silicates Bonded Material". Advances in Chemistry Volume 2014, Article ID 205459, 11 pages http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2014/205459.

[24] SEDECO (2015). Directorio de empresas que operan en las zonas y parques industriales de la ciudad de San Luis Potosí. Secretaría de Desarrollo Económico. San Luis Potosí, México.

[25] K. Lee, L. Buckley, and C.C. Campbell. "An aminoacid liquid synthetic medium for the development of mycelial and yeast forms of *Candida albicans*". Journal of Medical Veterinary Mycology. Vol. 13, pp. 148-153. 1975.

[26] R. López-Martínez, L.J. Méndez-Tovar, F. Hernández-Hernández y R. Castañón-Olivares. Hongos contaminantes comunes en el Laboratorio. En Micología Médica. Procedimientos para el diagnóstico de Laboratorio, 2ª. Ed. Trillas. México, pp 137-148. 2004.

[27] A.E. Greenberg, L.S. Clesceri, and A.D. Eaton. Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater, 18^a. ed. American Public Health Association, Washington, D.C. pp. 3-83, 3-107, 1-49, 1-50, 1992.