1 Original Research Article

Assessment of some Tropical Plants for use in the Phytoremediation of Petroleum Contaminated Soil: Effects of Remediation on Soil Physical and Chemical Properties

4

5 ABSTRACT

Field experiment was conducted in the Teaching and Research Farm of Enugu State University 6 7 of Science and Technology in 2015 cropping season to evaluate the effectiveness of phytoremediation as a tool for cleaning up soils contaminated with diesel (AGO). The 8 experimental design was split-plot in a Randomized Complete Block Design (RCBD) with two 9 soil amendments (petroleum contaminated soil and petroleum uncontaminated soil) for main 10 plots and eight plants [Soy bean (*Glycine max*), cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*), groundnut (*Arachis*) 11 hypogaea), African yam bean (Sphenostylis stenocarpa), vetiver grass (Chrysopogon 12 zizanioides), maize (Zea mays), carpet grass (Axonopus fissifolius) and spear grass (Heteropogon 13 *contortus*)] consisted sub plots. Soil samples were collected before the application of petroleum 14 and at 90 days after planting. The influence of petroleum contamination on the physical 15 properties of the soil at 90 days after planting revealed that the soils with petroleum amendment 16 were higher in bulk density (1.49 g cm⁻³) and lower in hydraulic conductivity (8.22 k cm⁻³ hr⁻¹) 17 than the uncontaminated ones. Petroleum treated soil contained lower total porosity value 18 (43.75%) and moisture content (9.80%) than the uncontaminated soil. Soils without petroleum 19 20 amendment contained more levels of total nitrogen, exchangeable sodium, exchangeable magnesium, base saturation and available phosphorus than the contaminated soils. Petroleum 21 22 treated soil contained more concentration of carbon, organic matter, exchangeable calcium and 23 cation exchange capacity than the uncontaminated soil. Cultivation of soy beans is recommended 24 on petroleum contaminated soils, since the analyses of soil samples taken at 90 days after planting, showed that the soy beans suppressed the bulk density and increased the available 25 26 potassium, exchangeable calcium and exchangeable magnesium of the soil for optimum soil 27 fertility replenishment for crop production.

28

29 Keywords: Phytoremediation, petroleum contaminated soil, tropical plants, soil physical and

- 30 chemical properties
- 31

32 1. INTRODUCTION

33

Contamination of soils by oil spills is a widespread environmental problem that often requires cleaning up of the contaminated sites. Phytoremediation is an alternative to more expensive remediation technologies, because it is a feasible, effective and non-intrusive technology that utilizes natural plant processes to enhance degradation and removal of oil contaminants from the environment [1].

Oil spills have degraded most agricultural lands in Nigeria especially the soils in the Niger delta region and have turned hitherto productive areas into wastelands. With increasing soil infertility due to the destruction of soil micro-organisms, and dwindling agricultural productivity, farmers have been forced to abandon their land, to seek non-existent alternative means of livelihood. Aquatic lives have also been destroyed with the pollution of traditional fishing 44 grounds, exacerbating hunger and poverty in fishing communities. Many authors have reported a

45 lower rate of germination in petroleum or its derivatives contaminated soil [2, 3 and 4].

Germination, growth and pod production of *Glycine max* have been found to be inhibited by crude oil pollution [5]. Yellowing, dropping of leaves and complete shedding of leaves in areas

47 48

of heavy pollution have been reported by [6].

The remediation of oil contaminated soils has been a major problem in oil producing countries 49 and recently the use of plants to clean such soils has been on investigation [7]. According to [9], 50 51 plants for phytoremediation should be appropriate for the climatic and soil conditions of the contaminated sites. Such plants should also have the ability to tolerate conditions of stress. 52 53 Various plants have been identified for their potential to facilitate the phytoremediation of sites contaminated with petroleum hydrocarbon. In the majority of studies, grasses and legumes have 54 been singled out for their potential in this regard [10]. Grasses have extensive, fibrous root 55 systems, which favors a vast community of micro-organisms. They also exhibit an inherent 56 57 genetic diversity which may give them a competitive advantage in becoming established under unfavorable soil condition [10]. In a survey of 15 oil-contaminated sites, [11] reported that 58 59 leguminous plants were the dominant flora. Legumes are thought to have an advantage over nonleguminous plants in phytoremediation because of their ability to fix nitrogen, i.e., legumes do 60 not have to compete with micro-organisms and other plants for limited supplies of available soil 61 nitrogen at oil contaminated sites. 62

As a result of crude oil pollution, soil physical properties such as pore spaces might be 63 clogged which reduces soil aeration, infiltration of water into the soil, decreased saturated 64 hydraulic conductivity and increased bulk density of the soil which may affect plant growth. 65 Crude oil which is denser than water may reduce and restrict permeability. Oil pollution of soil 66 can also lead to build up of essential nutrients such as organic carbon, available phosphorus, 67 exchangeable calcium and exchangeable magnesium and non-essential nutrients like lead, zinc, 68 iron and copper in soil and the eventual translocation in plant tissues [12]. Although some heavy 69 metals at low concentrations are essential micronutrients for plants, but at high concentrations 70 they may cause metabolic disorders and growth inhibition for most of the plant species [13]. All 71 72 these possibilities deserve empirical studies to establish their reality or otherwise. Generally, there is scanty literature information on the use of some tropical plant to clean up oil 73 contaminated soils, Therefore, the main objective of this study was to examine the effects of 74 crude oil contamination on soil physiochemical properties and to identify the plant best suited for 75 phytoremediation of the soil. 76

77

78 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

79

80 **2.1 Description of the Experimental Site**

The experiment was carried out in 2015 planting season at the Teaching and Research Farm of the Faculty of Agriculture and Natural Resources Management, Enugu State University of Science and Technology, Nigeria $(06^{\circ}52'N, 07^{\circ}15'E \text{ and } elevation 450 \text{ m above sea level})$. The area has an annual rainfall which ranges from 1700 - 2010 mm. The rainfall pattern is bimodal and is between April and October, and the dry season is between November and March. The soil's textural class is sandy loam with an isohyperthermic soil temperature regime [14] and is classified as Typic Paleudults of the order Utisol [15].

88

89 2.2 Experimental Design and Field Operations

Field trials were conducted using sixteen treatment combinations (Table 1) i.e. eight plants
[Soy bean (*Glycine max*), cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*), groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*), African
yam bean (*Sphenostylis stenocarpa*), vetiver grass (*Chrysopogon zizanioides*), maize (*Zea mays*),
carpet grass (*Axonopus fissifolius*) and spear grass (*Heteropogon contortus*)] and two soil
amendments (petroleum treated soil and petroleum untreated soil). The treatments were laid out
in a split-plot in a randomized complete block design with three replications. The main plot
comprised of the soil amendments and the sub-plots comprised of the eight plants.

A total land area of 209 m² was mapped out for the experiment. The site was slashed and cleared of existing grasses. The field was divided into 3 blocks measuring 19.5 m x 3 m (58.5 m²) each and was demarcated by a one meter pathway. Each block was divided into two main plots measuring 3 m x 2 m (6 m²) and was separated from each other by one meter alley between them. The two main plots were divided into eight sub-plots each, giving a total of 48 plots for the experiments

Beds measuring 30 cm high were prepared manually with hand hoe. Two weeks before 103 planting, 10 liters of diesel (AGO) obtained from Nigeria National Petroleum Co-operation 104 Enugu Mega Station Emene was applied basally (pouring) per plot to the soil and thoroughly 105 mixed with the soil at a tillage depth of 30 cm using a hand hoe. The seeds of soy bean, cowpea, 106 African yam bean, groundnuts and maize were planted at two seeds per hole at 5 cm depth using 107 a plant spacing of 50 cm by 50 cm (intra row and inter row spacing). A total of 24 plants were 108 sown on each plot making a plant population of 567 plants. Grasses such as vetiver grass, spear 109 grass and carpet grass established four weeks before planting, were transplanted to the 110 experimental plots by uprooting, their roots and shoots trimmed to 5 cm high before planting. 111 Lost stands were replaced weeding was carried out throughout the period of the experiment 112 usually with the aid of hand hoe at three weeks intervals. A dose of NPK 15:15:15 fertilizer was 113 applied basally by banding in plots at the rate of 50 kg ha⁻¹ in two splits doses at planting and at 114 21 days after planting (DAP) 115

116

117 2.3 Soil Sample Collection

Soil samples were collected with steel auger from the top soil to a depth of 0 to 20 cm two weeks before the application of petroleum and at 90 days after planting. Three representative soil samples were randomly collected per plot and bulked to form a composite soil sample for each plot. A total of 48 composite soil samples were collected.

122

123 **2.<mark>4 Soil Sample Analyses</mark>**

Samples were air dried ground and passed through a sieve of 2 mm standard mesh size. The 124 soil pH was determined with a pH meter using 1:2.5 soil to water ratio and 1: 2.5 soil to 0.1 N 125 KCl (potassium chloride) suspension according to [16]. Organic carbon was determined using 126 the Walkley and Black wet digestion method [17]. Soil organic matter content was obtained by 127 multiplying the value of organic carbon by 1.724 (Van Bemmeler factor). Total nitrogen was 128 determined by micro-kjeldahl procedure [16]. Available phosphorus was extracted with Bray II 129 extractant as described by [18] and determined colorimeterically using ascorbic acid method 130 [19]. Exchangeable potassium was extracted using 1 N ammonium acetate (NH₄OAC) solution 131 and determined by the flame emission spectroscopy as outlined by [20]. Aluminum and 132 hydrogen content (exchangeable acidity) were determined by titrimetric method after extraction 133 with 1.0 N KCl [21]. The cation exchange capacity was determined by NH₄OAC displacement 134 method [22]. Calcium and magnesium were determined by the complexiometeric titration 135

method as described by [23]. Particle size distribution analysis was done by the hydrometer
method [24] and the corresponding textural class determined from the United States Department
of Agriculture Soil Textural Triangle. Base saturation was determined by the method outline by
[16]. Dry bulk density was determined by the core method [25]. Total porosity values were
derived from bulk density data. Hydraulic conductivity was determined by the method of [26].

141

142 **2.5 Statistical Analysis**

Data collected were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) test for split plot in randomized complete block design as outlined by [27]. Significant means were separated using Fisher's least significant difference (F-LSD) at 5% probability level. Statistical analysis was executed using [28] statistical software

147

149

148 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

150 **3.1 Initial soil properties before the application of petroleum**

The results shown in the Table 2 indicates that the soil of the study area before the 151 application of petroleum was acidic (pH 6.2 and 5.7 in water and potassium chloride 152 respectively). The soil textural class was a sandy loam, which contained 8% clay, 14% silt, 35% 153 fine sand and 43% coarse sand. The organic carbon, organic matter and total nitrogen contents 154 were found to be 0.272%, 0.469% and 0.140% respectively. The exchangeable bases [sodium 155 (Na), potassium (K), calcium (Ca), and magnesium (Mg)] were 0.661 mg kg⁻¹, 0.10 mg kg⁻¹. 156 4.40 mg kg⁻¹ and 0.40 mg kg⁻¹ respectively. The cation exchange capacity (CEC) of the soil was 157 14.40 mg kg⁻¹. The hydrogen content was found to be 0.80 mg kg⁻¹ and available phosphorus 158 (Bray 11) was found to be 6.53 mg kg⁻¹. 159

160

161 **3.2 Effects of petroleum on the physical properties of soil**

The results of the physical properties of the soil presented in Table 3 reveals that the 162 petroleum treated soil had a significant (P = .05) effect on the bulk density of the soil at ninety 163 days after planting. The bulk density of the contaminated soil was the highest (1.49 g cm⁻³) in 164 comparison with the petroleum uncontaminated soil which had a value of 1.46 g cm⁻³. The least 165 bulk density (1.42 g cm⁻³) was observed in the petroleum contaminated soil with soy bean grown 166 on it. Oil is thought to increase soil bulk density by reducing the frictional forces that interfaces 167 between soil particles and with the slightest impact from rain drops and some other agents of 168 denudation, the particles assume a more tightly packed structure [4]. Lower bulk density 169 obtained in the uncontaminated soil is a positive productivity indicator as it helps in easing root 170 penetration and encourages downward movement of water through the root channel [2]. Low 171 bulk density could lower run off and erosion, while increasing aeration and internal drainage 172 [29]. Total porosity was found to be lowest (43.75%) in petroleum contaminated soil and highest 173 (44.98%) in the control treatment. The result revealed that total porosity tends to be reduced on 174 the contaminated soil when compared to the control treatment. This could be as a result of 175 blockage of pore spaces within the pollutants [4]. Furthermore, in Table 3, The petroleum 176 contaminated soil had the lowest value of moisture content (7.37%) and hydraulic conductivity 177 (8.22 k cm⁻³ hr⁻¹) while the uncontaminated soil significantly (P = .05) had the highest moisture 178 content (9.80%) and hydraulic conductivity (11.07 k cm⁻³ hr⁻¹). According to [25] soils with high 179 bulk density ranging from 1.6 - 1.7 gcm⁻³ show massive structures and less porosity which will 180 hinder the movement of water down the profile. Furthermore, petroleum contaminated soils may 181

have lost more water due to the hydrophobic properties of petroleum which impeded the adherence of water molecules to soil particles thereby increasing the free energy of soil water, with this, less energy was required for soil water loss by evaporation and percolation down the profile.

186

187 **3.3 Effects of petroleum on the chemical properties of soil**

Petroleum treated soil had significantly (P = .05) the highest organic matter content (0.79%) 188 189 and the lowest was the control treatment (0.54%) (Table 4). This outcome is attributed to the addition of hydrocarbon to the soil by the petroleum [7]. The main effect of plants on the organic 190 191 matter content showed that soils on which cowpea (0.86%) and soy beans (0.86%) were grown had significantly (P = .05) the highest organic matter content compared with the other plants. 192 This is due to the fact that legumes have an advantage over non-leguminous plants in 193 194 phytoremediation because of their ability to fix nitrogen; i.e., legumes do not have to compete 195 with micro-organisms and other plants for limited supplies of available soil nitrogen [7 and 8]. The pH of the unamended soil was greater (6.55 in water and 5.38 in potassium chloride) and 196 197 petroleum contaminated soil had the lowest pH value of 6.45 in water and 5.28 in potassium chloride respectively. This observation corroborated the findings of [12] who reported that 198 petroleum waste sludge lowers the pH immediately around negatively charged soil surfaces. The 199 carbon content level in Table 4 revealed that the petroleum treated soil contained more carbon 200 (0.46%) than the untreated plot (0.31%). This outcome is attributed to the addition of 201 hydrocarbon to the soil by the petroleum [7]. 202

Control plot had the highest total nitrogen content (0.057%) in comparison with the petroleum treated soil which contained 0.055% total nitrogen (Table 5). Crude oil limits the bioavailability of nitrogen (a major plant growth element) in the soil [7]. According to [30] soil rhizosphere of soybean polluted with crude oil showed a decrease in nitrogen content. Oil spills kills or inhibit soil microbial activities and reduces microbes population [31].

The main effect of soy beans on total nitrogen content of the soil was also significantly (P =208 .05) greater (0.077%) than the other plants, while the lest total nitrogen content was observed in 209 the plots with spear grass (0.042%). This is due to the fact that legumes harbor bacteria in their 210 root nodules which are capable of fixing atmospheric nitrogen into the soil [32] More so, the 211 cation exchange capacity (9.91 mg kg⁻¹) of petroleum contaminated soil was significantly (P =212 $\frac{.05}{.05}$ the highest compared with the untreated plot which had a value of 8.72 C mol kg⁻¹. Also in 213 Table 5 the available phosphorus of the unamended soil was found to be greater $(1.52 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ 214 than in the petroleum amended soil (1.51 mg kg⁻¹). This shows that petroleum limits 215 bioavailability of phosphorus in the soil [7]. The base saturation of the soil was higher in the 216 uncontaminated soil (30.61%) than in the petroleum contaminated soil (26.98%). This outcome 217 is attributed to the addition of hydrocarbon to the soil by the petroleum [7]. 218

The data in Table 6 indicates that the exchangeable bases [Na⁺ (0.11 mg kg⁻¹), K⁺ (0.15 mg kg⁻¹) and Mg²⁺ (0.95mg kg⁻¹)] were significantly (P = .05) higher in the uncontaminated soil except calcium (1.57 mg kg⁻¹) which was higher in the petroleum treated plot [12] reported that petroleum waste sludge depletes the essential inorganic nutrients such as sodium, potassium and magnesium and other growth factors.

4. CONCLUSIONS

224

226 Soils treated with petroleum at 90 days after planting were higher in bulk density (1.49 g cm^{-3}) and lower in hydraulic conductivity (8.22 K cm³ hr⁻¹) than the untreated soil. Petroleum

228 treated soil contained lower total porosity value (43.75%) and moisture content (7.3%) than the 229 uncontaminated soil. Impact of petroleum on the chemical properties of the soil at 90 days after 230 planting revealed that the soils without petroleum amendment contained more levels of total 231 nitrogen, exchangeable sodium, exchangeable magnesium, base saturation and available phosphorus than the contaminated soils. Petroleum treated soil contained more concentration of 232 carbon, organic matter, exchangeable calcium and cation exchange capacity than the 233 234 uncontaminated soil. Cultivation of soy beans is recommended on petroleum contaminated soils, since the analyses of soil samples taken at 90 days after planting, showed that the soy beans 235 suppressed the bulk density and increased the available potassium, exchangeable calcium and 236 237 exchangeable magnesium of the soil for optimum soil fertility replenishment for crop production.

238

239 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

- The authors acknowledge the research grant given to them by the Tertiary Education Trust Fund(TETFUND)
- 242

243 **REFERENCES**

- Marmiroli N, McCutcheon SC. Phytoremediation a successful technology.
 Phytoremediation. Transformation and Control of Contaminants. John Wiley, Hoboken.
 2003
- Adam, G. and Duncan HJ. Influence of Diesel Fuel on Seed Germination. Environ.Pollut.
 2002
- Vavrek MC, Campbell WJ. Contribution of seed banks to freshwater wetland vegetation
 recovery. Louisiana Applied and Educational Oil Spill Research and Development
 Program, OSRADP. 2002
- 4. Achuba FI. The effect of sublethal concentrations of crude oil on the growth and
 metabolism of Cowpea (Vigna unguiculata) seedlings. African J. 2006
- 5. Nwadinigwe AO, Onwumere OH. Effects of petroleum spills on the germination and growth of *Glycine max* (L.) Merr. *Nigerian Journal of Botany*, 2003; 16: 76-80.
- 6. Opeolu BO. Effects of lead on the performance and nutrient quality of two cowpea varieties. M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Crop Protection and Environmental Biology, University of Ibadan, Nigeria 2000.
- Njoku KL, Akinola MO, Oboh BO. Phytoremediation of crude oil contaminated soil: The effect of growth of *Glycine max* on the physico-chemistry and crude oil contents of soil. *Nature and Science*, 2009; 7(10): 79-87.
- 8. Helmy Q, Laksmono R, Kardena E. Bioremediation of aged petroleum oil contaminated soil: from laboratory scale to full scale application. Proc. Chem. 2015; 14, 326–333
- Pivetz BE. *Phytoremediation of contaminated soil and ground water at hazardous waste sites*. Manual of Technology Environmental Resources Services 2001.
- 10. Aprill W, Sims RC. Evaluation of the use of prairie grasses for stimulating polycyclic
 aromatic hydrocarbon treatment in soil. *Chemosphere*, 1990; 20: 253-265
- I1. Gudin C, Syratt WJ. Biological aspects of land rehabilitation following hydrocarbon contamination. *Environmental Pollution*, 1975; 8: 107-112
- 12. Vwioko DE, Anoliefo GO, Fashemi SD. Metals concentration in plant tissues of Ricinus
 communis L. (Castor Oil) grown in soil contaminated with spent lubricating oil. *Journal* of Applied Science and Environmental. 2006

- 13. Fernandes JC, Henriques FS. Biochemical, physiological and structural effects of excess
 copper in plants. *The Botanical Review*. 1991; 57: 246 -273
- 14. Ezeaku PI, and Anikwe MA. A model for description of water and solute movement in
 soil-water restrictive horizons across two landscapes in south eastern Nigeria. *Soil science*. 2006; 171(6), 492-500.
- 15. Anikwe MAN, Agu JC, Ikenganyia EE. Agronomic Evaluation of Four Exotic Tropical
 Varieties of Watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus* L.) in Two Agro-environments in Nigeria. *International Journal of Plant & Soil Science*. 2016; 10(2): 1-10
- 16. Page JR, Miller RH, Keeney DR, Baker DE, Roscoe Ellis JR, Rhoades JD. Methods Soil
 Analysis 2. Chemical and Microbiology Properties (2nd Edn.) Madison, Wisconsin,
 U.S.A. 1982; 1159 pp.

285

286

289

290

291

292

301

- 17. Bremner JM, Mulvaaney CS. Total nitrogen. In: Page, A.L. (eds.). Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2. Chemical and Microbial Properties, Second edition Agronomy Series no. 9 Madison, WI, USA, ASA, SSSA. 1982.
- 18. Bray RH, Kurtz LT. Determination of Total, Organic and Available Forms of Phosphorus
 in Soils. *Soil Science*. 1945; 91-96.
 - 19. Murphy J, Riley JP. A Modified Single Solution Method for determination of phosphate in natural waters. *Anal. Chem. Acta.* 1962; 27:31-36
 - 20. Anderson JM, Ingram JSI. (eds) Tropical Soil Biology and Fertility: A Handbook of Methods (2nd edition) CAB international. 1993; 221pp.
- 293 21. McLean EO. Soil pH and lime requirements. In: Page, A.L. (eds.). Methods of Soil
 294 Analysis, Part 2. Chemical and Microbial Properties, Second edition Agronomy Series
 295 no. 9 Madison, WI, USA, ASA, SSSA. 1982.
- 22. Rhoades JD. Cation exchange capacity. In; Page, A.L., Miller, R.H. and Keeney, D.R.
 (eds.). Methods of soil analysis, Part 2: Chemical methods. Agronomy Monograph no. 9,
 American Society of Agronomy Madison, Wisconsin, USA. 1982.
- 299 23. Chapman HD. Total Exchangeable bases. In. C.A. Black (ed.), methods of soil analysis,
 300 Part2. ASA, 9: 902-904 Madison, USA. 1982
 - 24. Gee GW. and Bauder, D. Particle size analysis. In: Dane, J.H. and Topp, G.C. (eds.). Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 4, Physical methods. *Soil sci. soc. Am.* 2002; 5:255-293.
- 303 25. Grossman RB, Reinsch TG. Bulk density and extensibility: Core method. In: Dane, J.H,
 304 Topp, G.C. (Eds.).Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 4.Physical Methods. SSSA, Inc.,
 305 Madison, WI. 2002; pp. 208-228
- 26. Klute A, Dirksen C. Hydraulic conductivity and diffusivity: Laboratory methods. In
 Klute, A. (Ed.) Methods of soil analysis. Part 1. Physical and mineralogical methods,
 American Society of Agronomy Madison, Wisconsin, USA. 1986
- 309 27. Gomez KA, Gomez AA. Statistical producers for Agricultural Research. 2nd edition. John
 310 Wiley and Sons. Inc. New York, U S .A. 1984
- 311 28. GENSTAT Release 7.2DE, Discovery Edition 3, Lawes Agricultural Trust, Rothamsted
 312 Experimental station. GENSTAT 2007.
- 29. Johnson LD, Marquaz M, Lamb B. Inheritance of root traits in alfalfa, *Crop Science*1996; 36: 1482 148.
- 30. Nwadinigwe AO, Onyeidu E. Bioremediation of crude oil polluted soil using bacteria,
 monitored through soya bean production. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies*, 2012;
 21(1): 171-176

- 31. Walter U, Beyer M, Klein J, Rehm HJ. Degradation of pyren by *Rhodococcus sp. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 1991; 34: 671-676
- 32. Agba OA, Ikenganyia EE, Asiegbu JE. Responses of *Mucuna flagellipes* to Phosphorus
 Fertilizer Rates in an Ultisol. *International Journal of Plant & Soil Science. 2016; 9(2): 1-9*
- 323

Table 2. Initial soil characteristics before the application of petroleum								
Parameters	Level							
Particle size distribution (%)								
Coarse sand	43							
Fine sand	35							
Clay	8							
Silt	14							
Textural class	sandy loam							
pH (water)	6.2							
pH (KCl)	5.7							
Organic carbon (%)	0.272							
Organic matter (%)	0.469							
Total nitrogen (%)	0.140							
Available phosphorus (mg kg ⁻¹)	6.53							
Exchangeable bases <mark>(mg kg⁻¹)</mark>								
Calcium	4.40							
Magnesium	0.40							
Potassium	0.10							
Sodium	0.661							
Exchangeable Acidity (<mark>mg kg⁻¹)</mark>								
Hydrogen	0.80							
Cation exchangeable capacity (mg kg ⁻¹)	14.40							

Soil													
		Bulk de	nsity (g cm ⁻³)		Total porosity (%)			Moistur	e content (%)	Hydraulic conductivity (K cm ³ hr ⁻¹)			
Plants	*soil	Soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	
Soybean	1.42	1.46	1.44	46.61	44.91	45.76	7.84	9.47	8.65	5.01	8.60	6.80	
Cowpea	1.55	1.43	1.49	46.04	41.51	43.78	7.70	9.83	8.76	7.16	11.22	9.19	
Groundnut	1.45	1.53	1.49	45.48	42.27	43.87	7.01	8.46	7.73	8.12	10.75	9.43	
African yam bean	1.48	1.45	1.46	44.34	45.28	44.81	7.59	11.79	9.69	9.65	13.85	11.75	
Vetiver grass	1.48	1.45	1.46	44.15	45.47	44.81	5.77	9.05	7.41	11.94	10.75	11.34	
Maize	1.49	1.49	1.49	43.97	43.96	43.96	9.00	9.17	9.08	8.60	13.37	10.98	
Spear grass	1.47	1.49	1.48	44.72	43.96	44.34	6.79	10.32	8.55	6.92	13.13	10.03	
Carpet grass	1.47	1.52	1.50	44.53	42.65	43.59	7.21	10.31	8.76	8.36	6.94	7.65	
soil mean	1.49	1.46	1.47	43.75	44.98	44.36	7.37	9.80	8.58	8.22	11.07	9.65	
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 soils (s)	0.01			0.10			1.00			2.14			
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 plants (p)	NS			NS			NS			2.61			
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 s × p	NS			NS			NS			NS			

Table 3. Effect of petroleum on soil physical properties at 90 days after planting

 $F-LSD_{(0.05)} =$ Fishers' least significant difference at 0.05 probability level, NS = Non significant at 0.05 probability level, * = petroleum contaminated soil, DAP = days after planting

Soil												
		soil	pH (H ₂ 0)	soil pH (KCl)				Carb	oon (%)	Organic matter (%)		
plants	*soil	Soil	plant mean	*soil	Soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean
Soybean	6.63	6.67	6.65	5.40	5.43	5.42	0.42	0.58	0.50	0.72	1.00	0.86
Cowpea	6.07	6.70	6.38	5.03	5.53	5.28	0.67	0.33	0.50	1.15	0.98	0.86
Groundnut	5.97	6.33	6.15	5.03	5.20	5.12	0.42	0.32	0.37	0.72	0.58	0.65
African yam bean	6.77	6.47	6.62	5.55	5.27	5.38	0.25	0.49	0.37	0.43	0.87	0.65
Vetiver grass	6.73	6.87	6.80	5.43	5.60	5.52	0.50	0.20	0.35	0.86	0.36	0.61
Maize	6.73	6.67	6.70	5.40	5.37	5.38	0.42	0.52	0.47	0.72	0.92	0.82
Spear grass	6.63	6.87	6.75	5.43	5.67	5.55	0.66	0.06	0.30	1.14	0.50	0.32
Carpet grass	6.07	5.88	5.95	5.03	5.00	5.02	0.32	0.29	0.32	0.57	0.51	0.54
soil mean	6.45	6.55	6.50	5.28	5.38	5.33	0.46	0.31	0.38	0.79	0.53	0.66
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 soils (s)	0.03			0.06			0.002			0.003		
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 plants (p)	0.08			0.08			0.002			0.003		
F-LSD _(0.05) for 2 s \times p	0.11			0.10			0.002			0.004		

Table 4. Effects of petroleum on soil pH, carbon and organic matter content at 90 days after planting

 $F-LSD_{(0.05)} =$ Fishers' least significant difference at 0.05 probability level, NS = Non significant at 0.05 probability level, * = petroleum contaminated soil, DAP = days after planting

Soil												
Total nitrogen (%)			1		CEC <mark>(mg</mark>	(kg⁻¹)	Available phosphorus (<mark>mg kg⁻¹)</mark>			Base saturation (%)		
Plants	*soil	Soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean
Soybean	0.057	0.097	0.077	8.87	8.47	8.67	0.93	0.94	0.94	41.72	33.73	37.73
Cowpea	0.070	0.056	0.063	14.33	7.73	11.03	1.86	1.87	1.87	16.61	31.01	23.81
Groundnut	0.042	0.070	0.056	10.00	9.73	9.87	1.87	0.92	1.40	24.77	26.61	25.69
African yam bean	0.056	0.056	0.056	8.40	9.60	9.00	0.91	0.93	0.92	28.65	25.24	26.94
Vetiver grass	0.067	0.067	0.043	8.53	7.27	7.90	1.86	1.87	1.87	27.60	37.64	32.63
Maize	0.029	0.059	0.044	8.33	8.33	8.33	1.87	1.89	1.88	27.35	25.61	26.48
Spear grass	0.070	0.014	0.042	10.73	8.47	9.60	1.85	0.93	1.39	21.45	33.00	27.23
Carpet grass	0.055	0.037	0.046	10.07	10.13	10.10	0.93	2.78	1.85	27.67	32.01	29.84
soil mean	0.055	0.057	0.056	9.91	8.72	9.31	1.51	1.52	1.51	26.98	30.61	28.79
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 soils (s)	NS			0.20			NS			2.65		
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 plants (p)	0.006			0.15			0.02			4.83		
F-LSD _(0.05) for 2 s \times p	0.008			0.22			0.02			6.50		

Table 5. Effects of petroleum on total nitrogen, CEC, available phosphorus and base saturation at 90 days after planting

 $F-LSD_{(0.05)} =$ Fishers' least significant difference at 0.05 probability level, NS = Non significant at 0.05 probability level, * = petroleum contaminated soil, DAP = days after planting

Table 6. Effects of petroleum on exchangeable bases (mg kg ⁻¹) at 90 days after planting												
						Soil						
		sodium	(Na ⁺)]	Potassiur	m (K ⁺)		$Ca^{2+)}$	Magnesium (Mg ²⁺⁾			
Plants	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	Soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean	*soil	soil	plant mean
Soybean	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.140	0.393	0.267	2.33	1.73	2.03	1.13	0.67	0.90
Cowpea	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.140	0.121	0.130	1.53	1.33	1.43	0.60	0.87	0.73
Groundnut	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.117	0.100	0.113	1.87	1.53	1.70	0.40	0.87	0.63
African yam bean	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.123	0.093	0.108	1.67	1.27	1.47	0.53	1.00	0.77
Vetiver grass	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.114	0.120	0.117	1.27	0.93	1.10	0.87	1.60	1.23
Maize	0.05	0.09	0.07	0.093	0.113	0.103	0.67	1.13	0.90	1.47	0.80	1.13
Spear grass	0.07	0.12	0.10	0.097	0.140	0.118	1.47	1.93	1.70	0.67	0.60	0.63
Carpet grass	0.08	0.33	0.20	0.107	0.123	0.115	1.73	1.60	1.67	0.87	1.20	1.03
soil mean	0.09	0.11	0.10	0.116	0.152	0.134	1.57	1.43	1.50	0.82	0.95	0.88
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 soils (s)	NS			NS			0.10			NS		
$F-LSD_{(0.05)}$ for 2 plants (p)	NS			NS			0.18			0.21		
F-LSD _(0.05) for 2 s \times p	NS			NS			0.25			0.29		

F-LSD $_{(0.05)}$ = Fishers' least significant difference at 0.05 probability level, NS = Non significant at 0.05 probability level, * = petroleum contaminated soil, DAP = days after planting

Table 1. Matrix	of the treatment combinations		
		Soi	ls
		S* (petroleum contaminated soil)	S (petroleum uncontaminated soil)
	P ₁ (soybean)	P ₁ S*	P ₁ S
	P ₂ (cowpea)	P ₂ S*	$P_2 S$
	P ₃ (groundnut)	P ₃ S*	P ₃ S
P (Plants)	P ₄ (African yam bean)	P ₄ S*	P ₄ S
	P ₅ (vetiver grass)	P ₅ S*	P ₅ S
	P ₆ (maize)	P ₆ S*	$P_6 S$
	P ₇ (spear grass)	P ₇ S*	P ₇ S
	P ₈ (carpet grass)	P ₈ S*	P ₈ S

357 *Authors' contributions:*

- 358 This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors MANA designed the study, EEI
- 359 did the data and statistical analysis, JE and CO did the data collection and filed work. All
- *authors read and approved the final manuscript*
- 361

362 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

- 363 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
- 364