Oil Spillage in Nigeria's Coastal Waters: Review of Causes, Effects and Mitigation

***Jacob, O.J., Amadike, M.P., Nwanesi, F.O., Ogbonna, C.G., Ibeneme, S.I. and Okeke, O.C.**

Department of Geology, Federal University of Technology Owerri. *Corresponding author's email: **Jacobjoyonyi@gmail.com**

D.O.I: 10.56201/ijgem.v10.no3.2024.pg370.412

Abstract

This paper highlights the impact of oil spill containment measures on ecosystems and human activities is a crucial aspect of environmental management. This study explores the multifaceted consequences of oil spill containment efforts, considering both positive and negative effects. Successful containment strategies aim to minimize the environmental impact of spills by preventing the spread of oil and facilitating efficient cleanup. However, the use of containment technologies, such as dispersants and booms, may have ecological repercussions, influencing marine life and habitats. Positive impacts include the reduction of immediate harm to marine organisms and coastal ecosystems through prompt containment. Additionally, effective containment measures can limit the extent of shoreline pollution, preserving vital habitats and minimizing disruptions to fisheries and tourism. On the other hand, the deployment of certain containment methods may introduce chemicals or alter the balance of ecosystems, leading to unintended consequences. This study also delves into the long-term effects of oil spill containment, considering the potential persistence of pollutants in the environment and the challenges associated with complete remediation. Furthermore, it explores the socio-economic impacts on communities dependent on marine resources and tourism, emphasizing the need for comprehensive approaches that balance environmental protection with sustainable human activities. This paper also highlights some of the mitigation measures including Remote Sensing, Air Curtains and Geo Textiles. Understanding the holistic impact of oil spill containment measures is essential for refining strategies, enhancing response preparedness, and fostering a resilient coexistence between human activities and the natural environment.

Keywords: Oil Spill, Remote Sensing, Coastal waters, Pollution, Mitigation and Advanced Booms

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the oil-producing areas, oil pollution has become a problem that calls for urgent attention due to its devastating environmental effect. Oil pollution has a detrimental effect on the ecosystem and its effects are usually very visible and sometimes very devastating.

According to Nelson, (1999), pollution is said to occur when there is a release into the environment of substances and energy in quantities that are detrimental to man and other living organisms. The environment here comprises of the Landscape ie soil, air, bodies of water, streams, and lakes. There is also evidence that due to the activities of man, there has been a release into the soil substances that affect the soil structure, crop performance, and the vegetation at large.

The effect of man's operations on the terrestrial environment includes interference with the structure of a land surface, the immediate sub-surface, streams, and lakes. Petroleum and its components that have been released into the environment are eventually degraded into simple compounds of their constituent elements by physical-chemical or biological agencies of the soil with or without human assistance and that had become innocuous after a long period.

Thus, when oil spillage occurs, its effects are usually pronounced on the soil flora and fauna and the soil structure.

Advancements and innovations in oil spill containment techniques are driven by a need to minimize environmental damage and protect marine life. Continuous research and development in this field aim to improve the effectiveness and sustainability of oil spill response efforts.

The worldwide use and distribution of crude oil and its derivatives continue to impose a potential threat to aquatic environments. Accidental releases can occur from a variety of sources including tankers, pipelines, storage tanks, refineries, drilling rigs, wells, and platforms. Fortunately, spill frequency and volume from all international sources have decreased since the 1970s due to the identification of management-based risk factors, increasing implementation of preventative regulations, and the development of corporate social responsibility practices by the oil production and transportation industries. Despite these global improvements, there may be an increased risk of spills on a local level due to increased industrial activities in countries with high economic growth, e.g. in the South China Sea. Additionally, catastrophic spills remain a possibility from all sources. Noteworthy examples include the 1989 sinking of the Exxon Valdez oil tanker off the coast of Alaska, the subsea blowout in the Gulf of Mexico of the Deepwater Horizon drilling rig in 2010, and the 2010 pipeline spill of diluted bitumen in Michigan. The inability of responders to prevent the spilled oil from reaching sensitive areas led to economic, social, and environmental damages. These large-scale spills in highly mobile aquatic environments highlight the need for remediation technologies that can respond swiftly to mitigate potential damages.

Oil spill clean-up technology has expanded to include a variety of approaches in the past 50 years. Spill response techniques are typically classified as mechanical/physical, chemical, and biological. While only briefly described below, detailed reviews of these techniques have been published, including their operational limitations and a qualitative assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. The mechanical/physical class includes the deployment of oil booms, which are floating barriers designed to control the movement of surface oil slicks. Skimmers are a broad category of stationary or mobile mechanical devices specifically designed to recover oil from the water's surface. They typically take advantage of the difference in density or adhesive properties of water and oil to separate the water and oil. An example of a chemical technique is the application of dispersants, which are surfactants sprayed on the oil slick from aircraft or boats to reduce the water/oil interfacial tension and cause the oil to break up into smaller drops. This promotes dissolution and biodegradation while limiting the movements of large volumes of oils to sensitive receptors such as coastal wetlands. Bioremediation consists of the addition of nutrients and/or oxygen to stimulate the growth of indigenous microbes that can utilize oil as a carbon source. Microbes designed to degrade the oil can also be added if it is felt that natural oil-degrading strains are not present in sufficient numbers. Most recent research has focused on chemical surfactants or bioremediation applications, to improve their efficiency and/or the impact of their addition to the environment.

Newer techniques are also becoming well known and applied in the oil spill response community. One such technique, in-situ burning, consists of using a specially designed high-temperature boom to corral oil slicks into a smaller area, where the oil is ignited in a controlled burn. This technique was widely used in the Deepwater Horizon response. Absorbents also see widespread use, especially when cleanup goals require a maximal removal of oil. However, due to the difficulties in handling oil-soaked materials, this technique is typically confined to small areas.

2.0 CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF OIL SPILLAGE

2.1 Overview

Oil production has continued to play a dominant role in Nigeria's economy, ranging from generation of foreign exchange to serving as a source of energy to run the nation's economy. Industries cannot function effectively without the use of refined petroleum products. Easy and faster means of transportation would not have been possible without pipelines. Production of other necessary needs of man derived from crude oil would not have been possible if crude oil had not been discovered and exploited.

The process of employing modern technology in the exploration, production, processing, and storage of these God-given resources has resulted in the abuse of man's environment directly or indirectly. Bodies of water are polluted, leading to the destruction of useful aquatic life. Cultivable lands are rendered uncultivable due to the loss of soil fertility. Diseases due to polluted lands, water, and air are on the increase. There are reports from various communication media about community disturbances by youth in the host communities who feel cheated by these oil companies harvesting gold on their land and leaving nothing in return. Large sums of money are lost daily due to a shutdown in oil production. Some of the oil company staff have lost their lives to irate youths, who want to enjoy the boom and not be left in doom. All these problems of pollution, fertility loss, rampant spread of diseases, loss of aquatic lives, killings, money loss, fire outbreaks, shutdown in oil production, and community disturbances are traced to crude oil spillage.

Nigeria, a major producer and exporter of crude petroleum oil, experiences crude oil pollution through accidental discharge, sabotage, and other sources. Oil pollution has been reported to have harmful effects on agricultural lands and crops. There is, however, a dearth of information on the effects of crude oil-impacted soil on the nutrient content of crop species, especially cereals.

Contamination of soil by oil spills is a widespread environmental problem that often requires cleaning up of the contaminated sites. These petroleum hydrocarbons adversely affect the germination and growth of plants in soils. Oil spills affect plants by creating conditions that make essential nutrients like nitrogen and oxygen needed for plant growth unavailable to them. 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 the degradation and removal of oil contaminants from the environment. All stages of oil exploitation impact negatively on the environment, and the greatest single intractable environmental problem caused by crude oil exploration in the Niger Delta region is oil spillage. Over 6000 spills have been recorded in the 40 years of oil exploitation in Nigeria, with an average of 150 spills per annum. In the period 1976 –1996, 647 incidents occurred resulting in the spillage of 2,369,407.04 barrels of crude oil. With only 549,060.38 barrels recovered, 1,820,410.50 barrels of oil were lost to the ecosystem. The environmental consequences of oil pollution on the inhabitants of Delta State are enormous. Oil spills have degraded most agricultural lands in the State 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 by the pollution of traditional fishing grounds, exacerbating hunger and poverty in fishing communities. Many authors have reported a lower rate of germination in petroleum or its derivatives contaminated. Petroleum hydrocarbons may form a film on the seed, preventing the entry of oxygen and water and toxic hydrocarbon molecules could inhibit the activities of amylase and starch phosphorylase thereby affecting the assimilation of starch. Henner and others. (1999) reported that petroleum hydrocarbons consisting of small molecules and those that are water soluble are more phytotoxic for germination. The most common and important symptoms observed in plants contaminated with oil and its by-products include the degradation of chlorophyll.

The oil spill is defined as a discrete event in which oil is discharged through neglect, by accident, or with intent over a relatively short time. It does not include an event in which oil leaks slowly over a long time, nor does it include operational spillages allowed by international or national regulations (such as MARPOL discharge from tankers), or that occur over a relatively long period (such as 25ppm oil discharges in refinery effluent) even if those discharges violate pollution regulation,. Oil spillage is divided into three classes, namely minor, medium, and major oil spillages.

a. Types of Oil Spillage

The oil spill is categorized into groups namely:

- i. Minor spill occurs when the volume of the spilled oil is less than 25 barrels in inland water or less than 250 barrels on land; offshore or coastal water that does not pose a threat to public health or welfare.
- ii. Medium spill takes place when the volume of the spill is 250 barrels or less in inland waters or 250 to 2500 barrels in offshore and coastal waters.
- iii. Major spill occur when the oil discharged to inland water is over 250 barrels in offshore or coastal waters.
- iv. Catastrophic spill refers to any uncontrolled well blowout, pipeline rupture, or storage tank failure that poses an imminent threat to the public health or welfare.

b. Factors Responsible for Spillage in Nigeria

The major causes of oil spillage in Nigeria are failures in production equipment, pipeline and petroleum production equipment vandalization as a consequence of scarcity; deregulation and hike in product price, well blowouts during drilling activities and negligence on the part of the production operators who exhibit lukewarm attitude towards oil spillage incidences. The recent spillage on 29th July 2005 at Otu-Jeremi in Ughelli South Local government Area of Delta State is a typical case in which response by (SPDC) - the operator was slow, thus facilitating the spread of the spill and environmental contaminations of neighboring downstream communities in Burutu Local Government Area and other areas within the state.

TABLE 1 Causes of oil spillage

Operational activities associated with oil production account for over 60% of oil spillage but in terms of volume sabotage accounts for more than 80% of oil spilled. This scenario can be due to slow response by the operators to sabotage- related spillage or spillage detection generally. For

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page **374**

example, about 10,000 bpd was spilled from Friday to Saturday in the Otu-Jeremi case and more was spilled before the facility was shut down.

2.2 Oil Spill Trend In Nigeria

The first oil spillage in Nigeria was noticed in Araromi Ondo State in 1908 and one of the early major oil spill incidents in Nigeria was the TEXACO Funiwa No 5 oil well blew out, located in Funiwa fields about 5 miles offshore in the Niger Delta. This resulted in the loss of 200,000 barrels of crude oil in the environment on January 17, 1980. Second to none in Nigerian petroleum history was the Farcados terminal spill in July 1979. About 570,000 barrels were believed to have been spilled within 21 days of the blowout. The Abudu pipeline oil spillage of 2nd November 1982 offers another interesting case study of a different dimension. In this particular instance, it was neither an accident involving a tanker on the high seas nor a blowout. A privately owned loader accidentally ripped a hole in a C 1611 underground crude oil pipeline (system 2x, Warri-Kaduna) at km 90.95 in a location between Owa and Abudu spilling about 18,818 barrels of crude oil. In another instance, about 11,542 barrels were estimated to have been lost after slicks of oil were discovered along Egobiri Creek between wells 10 and 13" in May 2000.

FIGURE 1About 43,000 barrels of oil were lost in 881 cases of oil spillage in Nigeria from 2019 to May 1 this year, data from NOSDRA shows (Akinpelu, 2021)

FIGURE 2 Oil from a leaking pipeline burns in Goi-Bodo, a swamp area of the Niger Delta. Poverty in the region has made illegal crude refining an attractive business but with deadly consequences (Graeber, 2013)

In the period, 1986 to 2000, the Nigerian petroleum industry experienced three thousand eight hundred and fifty-four (3,854) oil spill incidents. These oil spills resulted in the loss of 437,810 barrels of oil into the Nigerian environment. This loss amounts to millions of dollars in Nigerian exports from the petroleum industry. oil spillage incidents in Nigeria have been on a continuous increase. It could be observed that the largest number of oil spills 515 was recorded in 1994 resulting in a loss of 30,282 barrels of oil while 1991 recorded the highest volume of oil spilled into the environment (106,827 barrels). The number of incidents and the corresponding volumes shown in the Table do not represent the true situation because the NNPC Petroleum Inspectorate guideline on oil spillage reporting has provided companies the opportunity to overlook some incidents on the basis that the volumes involved have no significance.

2.2 The Nature And Consequences Of Environmental Pollution

The nature and scope of environmental pollution which result mostly from the activities in the oil industry varies extensively. These activities include:

i. Unhealthy disposal of waste crude oil and chemicals used during drilling, oil production, and processing.

ii. Indiscriminate channeling of liquid and semi-liquid waste into nearby streams, rivers, and landscapes.

iii. Oil spillage

iv. High-level noise from the machinery.

The socioeconomic and environmental impact of these activities result to:

i. Destruction of vegetation and other associated wide life.

ii. Damage to soil and crops by heat and the attendant loss of sources of livelihood.

iii. Pollution of air, land, and water destroys both plant and main life and the alteration of the ecosystem.

iv. Contamination of the groundwater.

v. Fire outbreak, explosion, and degradation of the environment. It is worthy of note that while the oil industry in Nigeria ranks high on the ladder of environmental polluters, it is also the most actors in combating pollution.

2.3 Impact on The Natural Environment

Oil spillage occasioned by activities in the petroleum industry such as production, processing (tank farms, gas flaring), tank loading, storage depots, transportation, pipelining, and refinery destroys aquatic animals and plants as well as flora and fauna on land. The land is also rendered infertile and sources of drinking water are polluted. Pollution of rivers, lakes, and other water bodies may lead to contaminated fish and other aquatic animals and eventually to fishless rivers and lakes like the fishless Scandinavian lakes. Groundwater may also be polluted making it unusable for a long time. Land pollution may result in the pollution of vegetation growing on such land. Uncontrolled land pollution may ultimately lead to disastrous experiences such as the Canadian treeless forest. Information is fragmentary on the effects of environmental oil pollution on Nigerian plants. In the Funiwa blow-out of January 1980 in the Niger Delta, probably the largest single oil spill in the country, mangrove trees suffered heavy or complete defoliation, and twigs were oiled. Along the beach, 0.5-2m2 zones of defoliated bushes with greasy twigs were observed. On the whole 836 acres of mangrove trees were killed as a result of the blowout. This kind of destruction of the flora has grave implications. Apart from the economic loss of mangrove trees used for making poles and firewood, the possibility of a food chain transfer of dangerous components of oil e.g. heavy metals in the ecosystem has never been addressed. The degree of biological damage depends on the kind of oil spilled, frequency of oiling, topography, hydrography, and prevailing weather at the time of the spillage or discharge. If effluent is discharged into small bays where the hydrograph does not favor rapid dispersal, the effects of pollution may be severe. A table of toxicity data estimating typical toxicity ranges (ppm) for various organisms is available. Plants for instance have a toxicity range of 50 500 for fuel/kerosene and 104- 105 ppsm for fresh crude oil. Experimental pieces of evidence show that with plants toxicity increases along the series of alkanes (paraffin) cyclo alkanes (naphthenes), alkenes (olefins) -aromatics.

FIGURE 3 Dead fish lying on the shoreline after getting choked by oil (Balaji, 2019)

FIGURE 4 A villager shows a bucket of crude oil spill at the banks of a river, after a Shell pipeline leaked, in the Oloma community in Nigeria's delta region (Rosen, 2015)

FIGURE 5 A poor bird on East Grand Terre Island (Lubin, 2013)

As observed by Dallyn, {1953), chlorophyll destruction appears to be the major, symptom of oil injury to green plants. Where oil pollution is light, leaves become yellow and drop soon after, but under heavy contamination complete shedding of leaves results. Pollutants have a wide variety of adverse effects on phytoplankton which carry out primary production in fresh water. These include:

i. Inhibition of photosynthesis

- ii. Prevention of biosynthetic production of nucleic acid
- iii. Retardation of the absorption of nutrients and

iv. Reduction of the DNA and RNA concentration. Unlike the sea which has the enormous capacity to absorb the various attempts by man to degrade it, the land, rivers, creeks, estuaries, and swamps are not so lucky and well equipped to contain pollution emanating from human activities.

This is because the slow-moving and stagnant nature of the creeks, estuaries, and swamps results in limited reactivation and breakdown of oil films which enhance self-purification capacity.

2.4 Management Of Oil Spillage

Oil spillage management is necessary in Nigeria since it occurs most in fragile rivers, streams, creeks, estuaries, swamps, and land from which river-rine communities of Niger Delta, Bayelsa, River, and Cross River depend solely for food.

3.1 MITIGATION OF EFFECTS OF OIL SPILLAGE

Material science offers the potential for innovation beyond current techniques. Skimmers have been modified to have oleophilic surfaces, and this advance has seen widespread implementation in the oil spill response industry. Magnetic particles offer many advantages over traditional absorbent techniques. They can be synthesized to be oleophilic, making them extremely efficient separators, and their uptake capacity can match or exceed current absorbents. In addition, their inherent magnetic properties provide a facile method of recovering and handling oil-sorbent amalgam. Another technique originating from materials research involves hydrophobic meshes, which can separate oil and water in situ without additional energy input. While these techniques remain largely untested under field conditions, their potential to improve the rate and efficiency of cleanup operations is worth investigating.

3.2 Oil Spillage on Water

Three general steps are taken to clean up floating oil. First, the oil slick is usually confined by booms, which act as floating fences and is then picked up by skimmers. Second, sorbent materials are added to the boomed, spilled oil causing the oil to adhere to the sorbents which can be controlled and removed more easily than the oil alone. Third, dispersants (similar to liquid detergents) may be used. While their use is not as satisfactory as physical removal, since the oil is spread on and into the water rather than being removed dispersants may be very advantageous in preventing a floating spill from reaching the shore and causing greater damage there. Oil sorbent products are from three major sources, mineral, vegetable, and synthetic. Some of the mineral products that have been tried as oil sorbents include perlite, talc, and vermiculite. Commonly used vegetable products include straw, sawdust, bark, peat, and corncob grindings. Synthetic products include polyurethane, polystyrene, polyester, and urea formaldehyde, usually in the form of foam, chips, or flexible strips. Detergents disperse the oil but can be pollutants themselves. They also spread the oil over a wider area possibly increasing the threat to marine life. One method uses bales of straw thrown into the oil slick. These absorb the oil and are rounded up using a line of booms. The booms are attached at one end to a barge and the other end to a motor launch. The oilsodden straw is transferred to the barge. Some of the other methods which have been tried include the use of huge vacuum cleaners to suck up the oil into floating tankers. The oil can then be recycled. Floating barriers can be used to keep oil out of particularly sensitive areas of the coastline, such as a wildlife sanctuary. BP has discovered a chemical that converts oil to a rubbery solid. If this can be developed and it is not a pollutant itself oil slicks can be made into an easily removed rubber sheet. Relatively nontoxic chemical dispersants have also been developed. They may be sprayed onto floating oil from boats, helicopters, and airplanes.

FIGURE 6 Volunteers clean the ocean coast from oil after a tanker wreck. Mauritius (Google image)

3.3 Oil Spillage on Land

In the event of an oil spill on land, immediate action should be taken to limit and stop the escape of oil. Bunds of earth or sand around the spill to close access to roads, drains, and sewers should be put up as soon as possible, while inlets to drainage systems can be covered by using materials such as tarpaulins, blankets, and plastic sheets. If possible any visible oil should be picked up using a gulley emptier or some other similar type of pump. Similar reservoirs made of holes dug in the earth and lined with plastic sheets can be prepared to act as temporary storage. If indeed the water does sink deeply into the ground and endangers underground water supplies, then much more elaborate and sophisticated remedial measures must be taken which involve pumping and the addition of further washing water.

The oil that penetrates the subsoil will move downwards slowly until it reaches water or an impermeable layer. The maximum depth of penetration can be estimated from the following formula:

D = K.V…………………..(1)

Where $D =$ maximum depth of penetration (cm)

K constant, depending on the retention capacity of soil and viscosity of oil.

 $V =$ volume of infiltrating oil (m3)

 $A = area of infiltration at surface (m2)$

Oil spill containment is a critical aspect of oil spill response to prevent the spread of oil and minimize its environmental impact. There have been continuous advancements in oil spill containment techniques to make them more effective and environmentally friendly. Some improved techniques for oil spill containment include:

3.4. Techniques

3.4.1 Advanced Boom Designs

FIGURE 7 Harbo aims to be the first line of defense against oil spills with a floating barrier - or boom - that can be deployed in just 15 (Ariel Grossman, 2023)

Manufacturers have developed more effective boom designs, such as curtain booms and inflatable booms, which are better at containing and directing oil on the water's surface. Advanced boom techniques for oil spill containment have evolved to make containment more effective, adaptable, and environmentally friendly. These techniques go beyond traditional boom designs to enhance the containment of oil spills. Some advanced boom techniques include:

Curtain Booms: Curtain booms are vertical, flexible barriers that can be deployed from the water's surface to the seafloor. They are used to encircle and contain oil in deeper water. Curtain booms are effective for containing oil spills in offshore or deepwater environments.

Inflatable Booms: Inflatable booms use air chambers to create a floating barrier. They are easy to transport and deploy and can be inflated to the desired shape and size. Inflatable booms are particularly useful for quickly containing spills in a variety of water conditions.

Sorbent Boom: Sorbent booms are designed with built-in sorbent materials, such as absorbent pads or pillows, which can capture and retain oil while repelling water. They are effective for collecting and containing oil from the water's surface.

Magnetic Booms: Magnetic booms are equipped with magnets that attract and hold ferrous contaminants, including oil-coated steel particles. This technology is useful for concentrating and removing oil from the water.

Air Curtain Booms: Air curtain booms use a continuous stream of air bubbles to create a barrier that traps oil and prevents it from spreading. They are particularly effective in calm or slow-moving waters.

Tidal Booms: Tidal booms are designed to move with the tide and can be used in coastal areas with changing water levels. They help prevent oil from being washed ashore during tidal changes.

Automated Booms: Automated booms are equipped with sensors and GPS technology, allowing them to adjust their position and shape to maintain effective containment. This technology is especially useful in dynamic and changing conditions.

High-Performance Fabrics: Booms made from advanced, high-performance fabrics are more durable and less likely to absorb water. These materials enhance the longevity and effectiveness of the boom.

Modular and Reusable Booms: Modular boom systems can be easily assembled and disassembled for efficient deployment and storage. Reusable booms are made of durable materials that can be cleaned and reused after a spill, reducing waste.

Adaptive Response Strategies: Advanced boom techniques include adaptive response strategies that consider factors such as weather conditions, sea state, and spill characteristics. Response teams may modify the boom configurations and placement to optimize containment.

Remote Sensing and Data Integration: Utilizing remote sensing technologies, drones, and data integration, advanced boom techniques incorporate real-time monitoring and data analysis to improve the positioning and effectiveness of booms during oil spill response.

These advanced boom techniques are essential in modern oil spill response efforts, as they help to enhance the containment of oil spills while minimizing environmental impacts. When properly deployed and integrated into a comprehensive response plan, they play a crucial role in mitigating the consequences of oil spills on water.

3.4.2 Sorbent-Based Booms

These sorbent booms can be more efficient in capturing oil. Sorbent-based booms are specialized tools used in oil spill containment and response efforts. They are designed to capture and contain spilled oil by using sorbent materials that can absorb the oil while repelling water. Sorbent-based booms are highly effective in removing oil from the water's surface and are an essential component of oil spill cleanup operations. More information about sorbent-based booms:

Sorbent Materials: Sorbent booms are typically made from a range of sorbent materials, including polypropylene, polyethylene, or similar materials treated with hydrophobic substances. These materials are selected for their ability to absorb and hold hydrophobic substances like oil while repelling water.

Design: Sorbent booms come in various designs, such as a long cylindrical tube or sock shape. They can be several feet in length, allowing for extended coverage along the water's surface. Some sorbent booms have floatation devices to keep them buoyant, making them easier to deploy and maintain their position on the water.

Deployment: Sorbent booms can be quickly and easily deployed by simply unrolling them into the water. They are often used in conjunction with other containment equipment, such as traditional booms, to create a comprehensive containment system.

Absorption Capacity: The sorbent materials used in these booms have a high absorption capacity for oil, making them efficient at capturing and containing oil. The choice of sorbent material may depend on factors like the type of oil, the environment, and the specific spill conditions.

Versatility: Sorbent-based booms are versatile and can be used in various water environments, including calm waters, rivers, estuaries, and coastal areas. They are also effective in containing oil on the water's surface during controlled burns.

Oil Recovery: After sorbent booms have absorbed oil, they are typically collected using specialized equipment, such as skimmers, to recover the oil. The recovered oil can then be separated from the sorbent material for proper disposal or recycling.

Environmentally Friendly: Sorbent-based booms are considered more environmentally friendly than some other containment methods because they do not introduce additional chemicals or dispersants into the environment. However, the proper disposal of saturated sorbent materials is crucial to prevent secondary pollution.

Cost-Effective: Sorbent booms are a cost-effective solution for oil spill containment and are easy to store and transport, making them a valuable tool for rapid response to spills.

Regulations and Guidelines: When using sorbent-based booms, it's important to follow local regulations and guidelines for oil spill response. Proper training and disposal procedures are essential to ensure that the response is conducted safely and in compliance with environmental regulations.

Sorbent-based booms are an integral part of oil spill response efforts and play a critical role in containing and mitigating the environmental impact of oil spills on water. When combined with other containment and cleanup techniques, they help to reduce the spread of oil and protect sensitive aquatic ecosystems.

3.4.3 Geotextile Containment Systems

FIGURE 8 Secondary Containment Coatings & Repair Work Solution (Google image, 2020)

Geotextile containment systems are specialized tools used in oil spill containment and response efforts. These systems are designed to create temporary storage areas for spilled oil, providing a means to isolate and contain the oil for subsequent recovery and cleanup. More information about geotextile containment systems in oil spill containment:

Geotextile Materials: Geotextiles are synthetic materials designed for use in civil engineering and environmental applications. They are typically made from polypropylene or polyester and are chosen for their strength, durability, and resistance to chemicals.

Design: Geotextile containment systems come in various designs, such as booms, curtains, or bags. These systems are typically made from high-strength geotextile fabric that can be deployed in the water to create a temporary containment structure.

Deployment: Geotextile containment systems are relatively easy to deploy. They can be rapidly unrolled or anchored in place to create a containment area where the spilled oil is collected.

Isolation and Containment: When deployed, these systems create a physical barrier that isolates the spilled oil from the surrounding water. This allows the oil to be confined and contained within a specific area, preventing it from spreading further.

Buoyancy and Ballast: Some geotextile containment systems are designed with buoyant elements to keep them afloat. Others may incorporate ballast or weights to anchor them to the seabed, depending on the application and environmental conditions.

Oil Recovery: Once the oil is contained within the geotextile system, it can be recovered using specialized equipment, such as skimmers or pumps. The recovered oil can then be separated from any water that may have been collected during the process.

Versatility: Geotextile containment systems are versatile and can be used in various water environments, including coastal areas, rivers, estuaries, and nearshore locations. They are particularly useful when traditional booms may not be effective due to factors like strong currents or high wave action.

Environmental Considerations: Geotextile containment systems are considered a more environmentally friendly option because they do not introduce additional chemicals or dispersants into the environment. However, proper disposal of any collected water and oil is essential to prevent secondary pollution.

Cost-Effective: These systems are generally cost-effective and can be an efficient solution for rapidly isolating and containing spilled oil, particularly in sensitive or ecologically valuable areas.

Regulations and Guidelines: When using geotextile containment systems in oil spill response, it's important to follow local regulations and guidelines. Proper training and disposal procedures are essential to ensure that the response is conducted safely and in compliance with environmental regulations.

Geotextile containment systems are an important component of oil spill response efforts, particularly in cases where the spilled oil is challenging to contain using traditional booms or other containment methods. They are an effective means of temporarily isolating and containing spilled oil, reducing its spread and potential environmental impact.

3.4.4 Magnetic Booms

FIGURE 9 Highly efficient and recyclable polyolefin-based magnetic sorbent for oils and organic solvents spill cleanup (Google Images)

FIGURE 10 Eco-friendly magnetophotothermal sponge for efficient recovery of highly viscous crude oil (Google Images)

Magnetic booms are equipped with magnets that can attract and hold ferrous contaminants, such as oil-coated steel particles, helping to concentrate and remove the oil from the water. Magnetic booms are specialized tools used in oil spill containment and cleanup efforts. They are designed to attract and capture oil-coated steel particles or other ferrous contaminants present in spilled oil. Magnetic booms can be a valuable addition to traditional containment methods in situations where there is a significant presence of ferrous materials in the spilled oil. Here's more information about magnetic booms in oil spill containment:

Principle of Operation: Magnetic booms incorporate magnets or magnetic materials along their length. These magnets attract and hold onto ferrous particles, such as oil-coated steel fragments, present in the spilled oil. By doing so, they help to concentrate and capture the oil.

Deployment: Magnetic booms are deployed similarly to traditional containment booms. They are placed in the water to create a physical barrier that encircles and contains the spilled oil.

Effective in Capturing Ferrous Contaminants: Magnetic booms are particularly effective when there is a significant amount of ferrous materials mixed with the spilled oil. These materials may come from sources like damaged vessels or machinery.

Environmental Compatibility: Magnetic booms are considered an environmentally friendly option because they do not introduce additional chemicals or dispersants into the environment. They primarily target ferrous contaminants and do not interact with non-ferrous materials.

Buoyant Design: Magnetic booms often have buoyant elements to keep them afloat on the water's surface. This design allows them to effectively capture the oil while floating.

Oil Recovery: After capturing oil-coated steel particles and other ferrous contaminants, the magnetic booms can be collected using specialized equipment, such as skimmers or pumps. The recovered oil can then be separated from the magnetic materials for proper disposal or recycling.

Versatility: Magnetic booms can be used in various water environments, including calm waters, rivers, estuaries, and coastal areas. They can complement other containment methods to target specific sources of pollution.

Cost-Effective: Magnetic booms are generally considered a cost-effective solution for capturing ferrous materials from oil spills and helping to prevent their further spread.

Regulations and Guidelines: When using magnetic booms in oil spill response, it's important to follow local regulations and guidelines. Proper training and disposal procedures are essential to ensure that the response is conducted safely and in compliance with environmental regulations.

Magnetic booms are a valuable tool in situations where ferrous contaminants are present in spilled oil. They can enhance the efficiency of oil spill cleanup by concentrating and capturing these materials, ultimately reducing the environmental impact of the spill. When used in conjunction with other containment and recovery methods, they contribute to a more comprehensive and effective oil spill response.

3.4.5 Air Curtains

FIGURE 11 An underwater oil spill scenario (Google Images)

Air curtain systems use a continuous stream of air bubbles to create a barrier that traps the oil and prevents it from spreading. This can be especially useful in calm waters. Air curtains are specialized tools used in oil spill containment and cleanup efforts. More information about air curtains in oil spill containment:

The air bubbles rise to the surface, forming a curtain-like structure that prevents the oil from spreading further.

Deployment: Air curtains are deployed by using equipment that releases compressed air through a series of nozzles or diffusers, which are strategically placed on the seabed or water's surface. The rising bubbles effectively create a containment barrier.

Effectiveness: Air curtains are particularly effective in calm or slow-moving waters, as they rely on the buoyancy of air bubbles to create the containment barrier. They work well in shallow waters, estuaries, harbors, and nearshore areas.

Environmental Considerations: Air curtains are considered an environmentally friendly method for oil spill containment. They do not introduce additional chemicals or dispersants into the environment and do not physically contact the spilled oil.

Oil Recovery: After the oil is contained by the air curtain, it can be recovered using specialized equipment, such as skimmers or pumps. The recovered oil can then be separated from any water that may have been collected during the process.

Buoyant Design: Some air curtains incorporate buoyant elements to help maintain the stability and position of the rising bubbles, ensuring a continuous containment barrier.

Versatility: Air curtains can be deployed in various water environments, provided that there is access to the seabed for anchoring or placement of the air delivery equipment.

Cost-Effective: Air curtains are often considered a cost-effective solution for oil spill containment, particularly in areas where traditional containment booms may not be as effective.

Regulations and Guidelines: When using air curtains in an oil spill response, it's important to follow local regulations and guidelines. Proper training and disposal procedures are essential to ensure that the response is conducted safely and in compliance with environmental regulations.

Air curtains are a valuable tool in oil spill response, especially in situations where traditional containment booms may not be effective due to factors such as strong currents or high wave action. By creating a physical barrier of rising air bubbles, air curtains help to isolate and contain the spilled oil, reducing its spread and potential environmental impact. When used in combination with other containment and recovery methods, they contribute to a more comprehensive and effective oil spill response.

3.4.6 Remote Sensing And Drones

FIGURE 12 The Deepwater Horizon Spill as imaged by RADARSAT. The center portion that is highlighted shows the vessels (bright spots) responding to the oil spill (Google Images)

Remote sensing and drones play a crucial role in oil spill containment and response efforts by providing real-time data and surveillance capabilities. These technologies are used to monitor, assess, and manage oil spills, ensuring a more efficient and effective response. More information about their use in oil spill containment:

Remote Sensing:

Principle of Operation: Remote sensing involves the collection of data from a distance, often using satellites, aircraft, or ground-based sensors. It provides valuable information about the location, size, and characteristics of an oil spill.

Data Collection: Remote sensing technologies can collect data in various forms, including optical imagery (visible and infrared), radar, and hyperspectral imaging. These data sources can provide information about the oil's thickness, distribution, and potential environmental impact.

Real-Time Monitoring: Satellite-based remote sensing provides real-time or near-real-time monitoring of oil spills, allowing for rapid response and containment. This technology helps track the movement and extent of the spill and aids in decision-making during containment efforts.

Environmental Impact Assessment: Remote sensing data is used to assess the potential impact of the oil spill on the surrounding ecosystem, helping responders prioritize areas for containment and cleanup.

Oil Spill Modeling: Data from remote sensing is often integrated into oil spill modeling software to predict the spread of the spill, which aids in planning containment and cleanup operations.

Drones (Unmanned Aerial Vehicles - Uavs)

FIGURE 13 A crewmember of the Coast Guard cutter Blackfin releases a drone as part of Marine Oil Spill Thickness field campaign off the coast of Santa Barbara, CA. The drone carries a multi-spectral sensor to classify oil thickness. These data are compared with SAR imagery from NASA's aircraft UAVSAR. Oscar Garcia (right) of the Watermapping LLC controls the drone. Source: NASA/University of Maryland/Frank Monaldo

Principle of Operation: Drones are small, unmanned aircraft that can be deployed in the vicinity of an oil spill. They are equipped with various sensors and cameras for data collection and monitoring.

Visual Surveillance: Drones provide a unique perspective by capturing aerial images and videos of the spill area. This visual data is crucial for assessing the extent of the spill, identifying potential wildlife impact, and planning containment efforts.

Remote Sensing Payloads: Drones can be equipped with specialized remote sensing payloads, such as infrared cameras, multispectral sensors, and LiDAR technology. These payloads enable the detection and characterization of oil on the water's surface.

Rapid Response: Drones can be rapidly deployed to monitor the spill in real-time, even in areas that are challenging to access by traditional means, such as remote or environmentally sensitive locations.

Data Transmission: Drones can transmit data in real time, providing responders with immediate information to make decisions regarding containment strategies.

Search and Rescue: Drones are also used for search and rescue operations, locating and monitoring wildlife affected by the spill, and assisting in their rehabilitation.

Safety: Drones can reduce the exposure of response personnel to potentially hazardous conditions and can be used to assess safety risks during an oil spill event.

Regulatory Compliance: The use of drones in oil spill response must comply with aviation regulations and environmental guidelines.

Remote sensing and drones are valuable tools in oil spill containment and response because they provide real-time data, improve situational awareness, and enhance the decision-making process. By helping responders understand the scope and characteristics of a spill, they contribute to more effective containment, cleanup, and mitigation efforts while minimizing the environmental impact.

3.4.7 Rapid Deployment System

A Rapid Deployment System (RDS) in the context of oil spill containment and response is a specialized set of equipment and resources pre-positioned for swift deployment in the event of an oil spill. The primary purpose of an RDS is to enable a rapid and efficient response to contain and mitigate the effects of an oil spill. More information about rapid deployment systems in oil spill containment:

Key Components of a Rapid Deployment System:

Pre-Positioned Equipment: An RDS includes a range of oil spill response equipment, such as containment booms, skimmers, sorbents, pumps, and other tools necessary for containing and cleaning up spilled oil.

Storage and Transportation: Storage facilities are used to house and organize the response equipment, ensuring that it remains in good condition and readily accessible. Transportation resources, such as trucks, trailers, and boats, are often included to quickly transport the equipment to the spill site.

Skilled Personnel: An RDS typically includes a team of trained responders who are familiar with the equipment and response procedures. These personnel are ready to mobilize when an oil spill occurs.

Communication and Coordination: Effective communication systems are essential for coordinating the response effort. An RDS may be equipped with communication tools, such as radios and satellite phones, to ensure efficient coordination among response teams.

Operation of a Rapid Deployment System:

Preparation: An RDS is maintained in a state of readiness, with equipment checked and serviced regularly to ensure its functionality. Personnel are trained and prepared to respond quickly.

Activation: When an oil spill occurs, the RDS is activated, and the response team is mobilized. This involves loading equipment onto transport vehicles and deploying response personnel to the spill site.

Deployment: The equipment is rapidly transported to the spill site, where it is deployed according to a pre-established plan. Containment booms, skimmers, and other tools are used to contain and recover the spilled oil.

Cleanup: Once deployed, the response team works to clean up the spilled oil and minimize its environmental impact. This may involve collecting and recovering the oil using skimmers and other equipment.

Monitoring: The response team continues to monitor the spill and its impact, adjusting their efforts as necessary to ensure effective containment and cleanup.

Advantages of Rapid Deployment Systems:

Swift Response: RDSs are designed for rapid mobilization, enabling a quick response to oil spill incidents. This can help contain the spill and minimize its environmental impact.

Efficiency: Having pre-positioned equipment and trained personnel ready to respond reduces the time and resources required to organize an ad-hoc response.

Reduced Impact: Swift containment and cleanup efforts can help reduce the potential environmental damage caused by an oil spill.

Minimized Costs: By reducing the duration and impact of an oil spill, RDSs can ultimately help minimize the economic and environmental costs of a spill.

Challenges and Considerations:

Maintenance: Regular maintenance of equipment and personnel training are essential to ensure that the RDS remains effective.

Logistics: The logistical challenges of maintaining an RDS, including storage and transportation, need to be managed effectively.

Regulatory Compliance: The use of an RDS must comply with local and international regulations and guidelines for oil spill response.

Rapid Deployment Systems are an important component of an organization's oil spill response plan, particularly in areas with a higher risk of oil spills. These systems contribute to a more efficient and effective response, reducing the environmental and economic impact of oil spills.

3.4.8 Adaptive Response Strategies

Adaptive response strategies in oil spill containment refer to the ability to modify and tailor the response actions to the specific characteristics and conditions of an oil spill incident. These strategies recognize that oil spill scenarios can vary widely in terms of factors like spill size, location, type of oil, weather conditions, and the presence of sensitive ecosystems. An adaptive approach allows response teams to adjust their tactics to address the unique challenges presented by each spill. Here's more information about adaptive response strategies in oil spill containment:

Key Elements of Adaptive Response Strategies:

i. Real-Time Monitoring: Continuous monitoring and assessment of the oil spill and environmental conditions using various technologies, such as remote sensing, drones, and sensors, to gather up-to-date data.

- ii. **Data Integration:** The collected data is integrated and analyzed in real time to provide a clear understanding of the evolving situation.
- iii. **Decision Support Systems:** The use of decision support systems and modeling tools to process data and provide recommendations for response actions.
- iv. **Dynamic Decision-Making:** Response decisions are made based on real-time data and recommendations from experts, and they can be adapted as new information becomes available.
- v. **Resource Allocation:** Allocating resources based on the changing priorities and areas of greatest need. For example, deploying more containment booms to a specific location or sending more response personnel.
- vi. **Containment Strategy Adjustments:** Adapting the containment strategy to match the changing behavior of the oil spill. For instance, modifying the positioning and shape of containment booms or changing the type of booms used.
- vii. **Environmental Protection:** Prioritizing the protection of sensitive habitats, wildlife, and cultural resources in the response efforts. Adaptive strategies may involve the use of specialized equipment to prevent harm to these areas.
- viii. **Public and Stakeholder Engagement:** Effective communication with the public, local communities, and stakeholders to provide information and address concerns while taking into account their feedback and input in the response process.

Benefits of Adaptive Response Strategies:

- i. **Efficiency:** Adaptive strategies help ensure that response efforts are focused on the most critical areas and needs, reducing the wastage of resources and time.
- ii. **Minimized Environmental Impact:** These strategies enable the protection of sensitive environments and the reduction of ecological damage caused by oil spills.
- iii. **Reduced Economic Costs:** By making more informed and flexible decisions, adaptive responses can help minimize the economic impact of an oil spill.
- iv. **Improved Public Relations:** Engaging with the public and stakeholders and demonstrating a responsive approach can improve public perception and trust in the response efforts.

Challenges and Considerations:

- i. **Data Accuracy:** Reliable data is crucial for effective adaptive responses. Errors or inaccuracies in data collection can lead to incorrect decisions.
- ii. **Coordination:** Coordinating different response teams and agencies to adapt to changing conditions can be challenging and requires clear communication and leadership.
- iii. **Regulatory Compliance:** Adaptive responses must align with local and international regulations governing oil spill response.
- iv. Adaptive response strategies are essential in addressing the complex and dynamic nature of oil spills. By continuously assessing and adapting to the evolving situation, response teams can better contain and mitigate the effects of spills, protect the environment, and reduce the overall impact on affected communities and ecosystems.

3.4.9 Encapsulation Technologies

Encapsulation technologies in oil spill containment involve the use of materials or substances that physically surround and trap spilled oil to prevent its further spread and environmental contamination. These technologies are designed to encapsulate the oil, making it easier to recover or remove. Here's more information about encapsulation technologies in oil spill containment:

i. Principle of Operation: The primary objective of encapsulation technologies is to modify the physical and chemical properties of the spilled oil to render it less mobile, more stable, and easier to manage. These technologies often involve the use of encapsulating agents or materials that interact with the oil in various ways. Some common approaches include:

ii. Chemical Encapsulation: Certain chemicals, known as encapsulating agents, can be applied to the spilled oil to alter its physical properties. These chemicals may disperse or stabilize the oil, making it easier to contain or recover.

iii. Gelling Agents: Gelling agents are used to transform the spilled oil into a semi-solid or gellike substance. This reduces its mobility and prevents it from spreading further.

iv. Solidifying Materials: Some encapsulation technologies use solidifying materials, such as clay, absorbent powders, or solidifiers, to bind with the spilled oil, converting it into a solid mass that can be easily removed.

Key Features and Considerations:

i. Environmental Compatibility: Encapsulation technologies aim to minimize the environmental impact of an oil spill response. They typically do not introduce additional chemicals or dispersants into the environment.

ii. Containment and Recovery: Once the oil is encapsulated or transformed, it can be more easily contained using traditional booms and recovered using skimmers, pumps, or other equipment.

Applicability: The effectiveness of encapsulation technologies may depend on the type of oil, environmental conditions, and the specific characteristics of the spill. Some methods may work better for certain types of oil or in specific situations.

Regulatory Compliance: The use of encapsulation technologies must align with local and international regulations and guidelines governing oil spill response.

Advantages of Encapsulation Technologies:

i. Reduced Environmental Impact: By immobilizing the oil, encapsulation technologies can minimize the spread and impact of oil on the surrounding environment.

ii. Improved Cleanup Efficiency: Encapsulated or transformed oil is often easier to collect and remove, which can lead to a more efficient cleanup process.

Iii. Versatility: These technologies can be adapted for use in a variety of spill scenarios, providing flexibility in response efforts.

Challenges and Limitations:

i. Effectiveness Variability: The effectiveness of encapsulation technologies can vary depending on the oil type and the specific circumstances of the spill.

ii. Resource Availability: Availability of encapsulating agents or materials, as well as access to specialized equipment for their application, can be limiting factors.

iii. Environmental Compatibility: Although generally considered environmentally friendly, some encapsulating agents may have unintended environmental consequences.

iv. Encapsulation technologies play a valuable role in oil spill containment and cleanup by transforming spilled oil into a more manageable form. When used in conjunction with other containment and recovery methods, they contribute to a comprehensive and effective oil spill response.

3.4.10 Integrating Artificial Intelligence (Ai)

AI and machine learning technologies are being used to predict the movement of oil spills and optimize the deployment of containment equipment and response resources.

These improved techniques are helping to make oil spill containment more efficient, environmentally friendly, and adaptable to various spill scenarios. Additionally, international regulations and guidelines continue to evolve to encourage the use of advanced and effective containment methods during oil spill response efforts. Integrating artificial intelligence (AI) in oil spill containment is an innovative approach to improve the efficiency, effectiveness, and response times in managing oil spills. AI technologies can assist in various aspects of oil spill response, including detection, monitoring, prediction, and decision-making. More information about how AI can be integrated into oil spill containment efforts:

1. **Detection and Monitoring:** AI can enhance the detection and monitoring of oil spills in the following ways:

Remote Sensing: AI algorithms can analyze data from satellites, drones, and other remote sensing technologies to detect the presence of oil on the water's surface. Machine learning models can automatically identify oil slicks in images and data feeds.

Data Fusion: AI systems can integrate data from various sources, such as satellite imagery, weather reports, and ship traffic data, to provide a comprehensive and real-time view of the spill's location and behavior.

Early Warning Systems: AI can be used to develop early warning systems that automatically detect and alert authorities to the presence of an oil spill, enabling faster response times.

2. **Oil Spill Prediction:** AI can help predict the behavior and trajectory of an oil spill under various conditions:

Machine Learning Models: AI can create predictive models that use historical spill data, environmental factors, and current conditions to forecast the movement of the spill. These predictions can inform response strategies.

3. **Decision Support:** AI can aid in decision-making by providing valuable insights:

Risk Assessment: AI can assess the potential risks of an oil spill, including its impact on the environment, human health, and economic factors. This information can guide response strategies and resource allocation.

Resource Optimization: AI algorithms can optimize the allocation of response resources, such as containment booms, skimmers, and personnel, based on the evolving situation and priorities.

Response Plan Adjustment: AI can suggest adjustments to the response plan in real time based on new information, such as changing weather conditions or the spill's movement.

4. **Robot-Assisted Cleanup:** AI-powered robots and autonomous vehicles can be used in the cleanup phase of an oil spill:

Robotic Skimmers: AI-controlled skimming robots can navigate the spill area and autonomously collect oil, reducing the need for human operators.

Underwater Drones: Submersible drones equipped with AI can inspect and clean up underwater oil plumes and impacted areas.

5. **Simulation and Training:** AI-based simulation and training tools can help responders practice oil spill containment and response procedures in virtual environments, allowing them to better prepare for real-world situations.

Benefits of Integrating AI:

Improved Efficiency: AI can process vast amounts of data rapidly, making it possible to identify, track, and respond to oil spills more efficiently.

Enhanced Decision-Making: AI can provide responders with data-driven insights to make more informed decisions during a spill.

Reduced Environmental Impact: By responding faster and more effectively, AI can help reduce the environmental impact of oil spills.

Cost Savings: AI-driven automation and optimization can help minimize costs associated with containment and cleanup efforts.

Challenges and Considerations:

Data Quality: AI systems rely on accurate and high-quality data, so ensuring data accuracy is crucial for their effectiveness.

Regulatory Compliance: Integrating AI into oil spill containment must adhere to local and international regulations and guidelines for response and environmental protection.

Integrating AI into oil spill containment efforts is an evolving field, and it holds great promise for improving the response to oil spills and minimizing their environmental impact. However, it should be used in conjunction with existing response methods and as part of a well-coordinated overall response strategy.

4.0 CASE HISTORY

4.1 Report on oil pollution of soils of Niger Delta, Nigeria(Anderson, 1989)

4.1.1 Materials/ Preparation

Over twenty-eight soil types from various soil zones of the Niger Delta have been identified. The study site soils fall within the areas of the Niger Delta Basin believed to have been derived from the quarternary Warri –Sombreiro plains; the major underlying bedrock of the area. This plain appears on either side of the recent alluvial plain and was deposited in the Late Pleistocene to Early Holocene time. It occupies an area similar to the present-day delta but was mostly eroded during the ice ages when the sea level was lower. The sediments occur as grey to dark grey/brown clayeysilty sands. These sediments likely retard vertical infiltration to a shallow aquifer around the Warri area flow station thereby limiting contamination to the near-surface horizon.

Soil samples were collected at surface $(0 - 15 \text{ cm})$ and subsurface $(15 - 30 \text{ cm})$ depths. Soil samples from each sampling location were put in a sterile polyethylene bag, flamed sealed, labeled, and taken to the laboratory. The suspected soil samples were subjected to drying under atmospheric conditions for several days and sieved with 2mm sieves before analysis of various parameters.

4.1.1 Sampling design and soil collection

Sampling plots were erected at both the oil spill-impacted site and unimpacted (control) sites by grid system. An impacted area was delimited by reconnaissance with the area of heaviest spill as the epicenter. A sampling area of 200 x 200 m2 was divided into 100 grid plots, each measuring 20 x 20 m2 and of this (that is, 33 grid plots) was randomly selected. Soil samples were taken from three replicate quadrats of the oil-impacted and control plots.

4.1.2 Methodology

4.1.2.1 Oil extraction and estimation of THC

Five grams (5g) of each soil sample was weighed out and transferred into a 500 volumetric flask. Into this was added 50ml of xylene. The xylene/soil mixture was shaken vigorously for five minutes and filtered into a 400ml cylinder. The volumetric flask and solid materials were rinsed properly with 500 ml xylene and filtered again into the cylinder. The xylene-oil extract was thereafter placed in cuvette wells and its absorbance was determined using Hack DR/2010 Particle Data Logging Spectrophotometer. A calibration curve was obtained by measuring the absorbance of dilute standard solutions of lease oil (Bonny Light/Bonny Medium crude oils), prepared by diluting 2.5, 5.0, 10.0, 20.0, 25.0, and 30.0 microlitres of the leased oil with 50 ml xylene solution.

Total hydrocarbon content (THC) was calculated after reading the absorbance of the extract from the spectrophotometer at a wavelength of 425 nm.

4.1.2.2 Determination of moisture content

A constant weight of the watch glass was obtained and thereafter, 20g of sample was weighed into the watch glass and transferred into the oven for 1 h at 110oC. The samples were cooled inside a desiccator for 30 min before a constant weight of the sample and watch glass after heating and cooling was recorded. Moisture content was estimated as:

% Moisture Content = [W1-(W3-W2)] X100………………………(3)

W1

Where:

 $W1$ = Weight of sample;

 $W2$ = Constant weight of watch glass; and

 $W3$ =Weight of sample + watch glass after heating and cooling.

4.1.2.3 Determination of soil-pH and electrical conductivity (EC)

To five grams (5.0 g) of each soil sample (in a sample cell) were added to 50 ml of distilled water. The lump of the soil was stirred to form a homogenous slurry, then pH meter (Jenway 3015 model) and EC meter (Jenway 4010 model) probes were immersed respectively into the sample and allowed to stabilize at 25oC, and the pH of the sample was recorded.

4.1.2.4 Total organic carbon (TOC) and total organic matter (TOM) contents

Half a gram (0.5 g) of each air-dried soil sample was put into a conical flask and 2.5 ml of 1N potassium dichromate solution K2Cr2O7 was added and swirled gently to disperse the sample in the solution. 5 ml of concentrated tetraoxosulphate (VI) acid was added rapidly, into the flask and swirled gently until the sample and reagents were mixed and finally swirled vigorously for about a minute. The flask was allowed to stand in a fume cupboard for 30 minutes. Five to ten (5 to 10) drops of the indicator were added and the solution was titrated with 0.5N FeSO4 to maroon color. A blank determination was carried out to standardize the dichromate. TOC and TOM contents were calculated as follows:

Nature/Depth of Soil	Nature/Depth	Nature/Depth	Nature/Depth	Nature/Depth
	of Soil	of Soil	of Soil	of Soil
Oil-affected Surface Soil (0-15cm)	$68,000+900$	$30.8 + 2.3$	$430+5$	$4.9 + 0.1$
Oil-affected Subsurface Soil (15-30cm)	$3,400+202$	$30.0 + 1.7$	$688+16$	$5.1 + 0.1$
Control	$0.6 + 0.0$	$9.5 + 0.4$	1,890+2328	$5.6 + 0.1$

Soil Fertility, Organic Carbon & Organic Matter

FIGURE 13 Mean concentration of soil fertility indices (± Standard Error at 95% Confidence Level) in oil-impacted and control soils from Warri area, Nigeria.

TOC (%) = (meq K2Cr2O7 – meq Fe SO4) x 0.003 x 100 x 1.3…………….(2)

Weight of sample (g)

Where:

meq K2Cr2O7 = 1N X 2.5 ml

meq FeSO4 = 0.5 N X Volume of titrant in ml

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page **401**

 0.03 = Milliequivalent weight of carbon

 1.30 = Correction factor

TOM $(\%)$ = TOC $(\%)$ x 1.724

Where:

1.724 = Conversion Factor; [i.e. $\%$ TOM = $\%$ TOC x 100/58; since TOC is 58% of TOM]

4.1.2.3 Statistical analysis

Standard Error (\pm SE) was given as SE = SD / N1/2 Where SD is the standard deviation and N is, the number of replicates. SE was estimated at 95% Confidence Limit (CL) by multiplying by 1.96.

4.1.3 Results and Discussion

Some indices of gross fertility measured from the Warri soils are summarized in Table 2

4.1.3.1 Total hydrocarbon content (THC)

Hydrocarbon content of 3,400 – 6,800 mg/kg (no overlap in standard errors at 95% confidence limit), represents a high level of hydrocarbon contamination on the site. A review of existing data on the Niger Delta by NDES (1999), Osuji (2001), and Osuji et al (2004) affirm that such high hydrocarbon levels affect both above-ground and subterranean flora and fauna, which are essential adjuncts in the biogeochemical cycle that affects the availability of plant nutrients. In general, plants require 16 essential elements for growth, 13 come from the soil, three of which (N, P, and K) constitute the primary macro-nutrients.

The concentration of macronutrients in both the study and control areas are inherently low (Table 4.1 and Figure 4.4) compared to acceptable ranges of 15,000, 2,000, and 10,000 mg/kg for N, P, and K respectively recommended for agricultural soils. The concentrations of extractable macronutrients N, P, and K in the oil-impacted area were significantly lower than in adjacent control plots. This may be due to interference with the extraction analysis due to free hydrocarbon in the soil but is more likely due to utilization/complexation of the nutrients by resident microflora.

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page **402**

It is unlikely that the oil release is directly responsible for the loss of macronutrients. However, the intense infusion of degradable hydro-carbon likely stimulated aerobic and anaerobic microbial metabolism.

As oxygen becomes limiting, utilization of alternate electron acceptors produces an increasingly reducing environment. Direct utilization of nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor would explain the dramatic differences in concentrations between the control plot and the hydrocarbon-impacted area. Because the concentrations of macronutrients are well below those recommended for agriculture, supplemental applications are required. Furthermore, the introduction of degradable hydrocarbon has altered the carbon-to-nutrient ratio well beyond the recommended for balanced soil nutrition. The C: N, C:P, and C: K ratios can be adjusted with the application of additional inorganic NPK fertilizers.

4.1.3.2 Moisture content

The higher moisture content of $30.8 \pm 2.3\%$ and $30 \pm 1.7\%$ in oiled surface and subsurface soils (Table 4.4) can be attributed to insufficient aeration of the soil that might have arisen from the displacement of air in the soils; this probably encouraged water logging and reduced rate of evaporation. Partial coating of soil surfaces by the hydrophobic hydrocarbons might reduce the water-holding capacity of the soil due to some significant reduction in the binding property of clay. Usually, such "partial coats" lead to a breakdown of soil structure and the dispersion of soil particles, which reduce percolation and retention of water. Soils develop severe and persistent water repellency following contamination with crude oil (Osuji et al., 2006a). High moisture content might reduce microbial activities not as a result of the water itself but rather by the indirect hindrance to the movement of air which would reduce oxygen supply.

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page **403**

FIGURE 14 pH (± Standard Error at 95% Confidence Level) of oil-impacted and control soils from Warri, Nigeria.

4.1.3.3 Soil-pH

The pH of the oil-impacted soils at both depths was significantly lower than the background soils but differences between the two depths were not significant (Figure 4.4). Oiling must have discouraged the leaching of basic salts which are responsible for raising pH in the control. The binding of the oil with soil particulate matter in the affected area probably posed a major resistance to the removal of such basic ions. While the oil may have had some direct impact in lowering the pH, it is more likely that the production of organic acids by microbial metabolism is responsible for the difference. The pH of the soil should be adjusted by aeration to complete the microbialmediated oxidation of organic acids while agricultural lime may be added to provide some buffering capacity to the soil.

Similarly, soil pH might have affected nutrient availability. The pH is not only essential for determining the availability of many soil nutrients but also in determining the fate of many soil pollutants, their breakdown, and possible movement through the soil. Therefore, pH in the range of 4.9 – 5.1 might have implications on nutrient availability in the oil-polluted soils. Such pH ranges, for instance, might have affected the solubility of minerals. It is known that strongly acidic soils (pH 4–5) usually have high concentrations of soluble aluminum and manganese, which are toxic to many plants; nitrogen fixation and decomposition activities are also known to be hindered in strongly acidic soils (Alexander, 1969; Obi, 1976; Manahan, 1994).

4.1.3.4 Electrical conductivity (EC)

Electrical conductivity (EC) is a measure of ionic concentration in the soils and is therefore related to dissolved solutes. EC was significantly lower in the oil-affected soils than in the control soils (Table 3). It is not likely that the released oil was directly responsible for the observed changes in EC since organic compounds like crude oil cannot conduct electrical currents very well. However, it is possible that the anoxic biodegradation mechanism through direct dehydrogenation allowed the anaerobic metabolism of hydrocarbons in the presence of an electron acceptor such as nitrate ion, which may be partially responsible for the observed differences in EC. The EC for the control site was likely different from the contaminated site before contamination.

4.1.3.5 Nitrate-nitrogen (NO3-N) content

The reduction in the concentration of NO3-N in the contaminated site suggests that the process of nitrification might have reduced following the incidence of oil spillage. According to Odu et al (1985), oil-degrading or hydrocarbon-utilizing microbes such as Acetobacter spp normally become more abundant while nitrifying bacteria such as Nitrosomonas spp become reduced in number. This probably explains the relatively lower values of NO3-N obtained for the contaminated soils. Enrichments capable of the degradation of hydrocarbon fractions like toluene under anoxic denitrifying conditions have also been reported in agricultural soils, compost, aquifer material, and contaminated soils from various geographic regions of the world (Fries et al., 1994; Atlas and Bartha, 1997).

4.1.3.6 Total organic carbon (TOC) and total organic matter (TOM) contents

Total organic carbon and total organic matter contents were slightly lower than the 4.4 ± 0.6 and 7.5 ± 1.0 mg/kg obtained for the control soils. Organic matter content should normally increase following the addition of such levels of carbonaceous substances but results obtained herein show that there is rather a reduction in organic carbon and organic matter contents of the polluted soils. The most plausible connection perhaps might be that the spilled oil impaired the metabolic processes that would have facilitated the agronomic addition of organic carbon from the petroleum hydrocarbons by reducing the carbon-mineralizing capacity of the microflora (Osuji and Onojake, 2004; Osuji and Ukale, 2005). Thus, two decomposition processes are of significance to the present discussion: the decomposition of the soil organic matter and the decomposition of the added petroleum hydrocarbons.

Both decomposition processes are however the prerogative of heterotrophic organisms. It is most likely that while these organisms might have been stimulated

by the presence of the spilled oil on site, their proliferation did not adequately cope with the business of breaking down the excess carbonaceous substrate, perhaps due to various factors that might include the environmental conditions of weathering and climatic predispositions as well as the physicochemical properties earlier discussed (Osuji et al., 2006a).

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The development of new and improved oil spill containment techniques is a critical area of research. Researchers are making progress in developing new technologies that could be more effective and cost-effective than current techniques. However, there are still challenges that need to be addressed before these new technologies can be widely deployed. Once the spillage is detected, clean-up should be initiated. Continuous monitoring of the levels of pollution of the soil and the surrounding water supplies should also be embarked upon. This will stem the tide of the menace by informing on the dangers posed by the action. Government involvement is also necessary to achieve a greater degree of response. More decrees protecting our environment should be promulgated and enforced by the government.

5.2 Recommendations

Having successfully researched the effect of oil spills on land and water on the affected communities, it has shown that their soil is been polluted making it difficult for farm produce to grow. It also shows that marine animals die as a result of oil spillage. Therefore, to minimize the rate of spills on land and water, the following recommendations are suggested.

i. The government of Nigeria should muster the political will to exact stricter respect for environmental laws and regulations by oil companies and a penalty plan that requires oil companies whose activities cause excessive pollution or are ill-equipped to forfeit their licenses.

ii. Multinational and indigenous oil companies should ensure regular and constant inspection and maintenance of oil facilities to avoid accidental discharge or spillage of oil and other petroleum products.

iii. The current compensation regime in Nigeria has to be reviewed for it to be fair and adequate to meet the emergency needs and concerns of those affected by pollution.

iv. Adequate security personnel should be provided to guard oil installation and such security arrangements should involve people from the host communities to work in collaboration with government security forces to improve monitoring of oil facilities to avoid vandalization.

v. Constant seminars, training workshops, and public enlightenment campaigns should be organized for host communities and other stakeholders in the oil industry to educate them on the negative impact of oil spillage on the soil and water. The seminar should also educate the people on the improved techniques.

The following clean-up measures should be implemented immediately in the affected areas:

i.Application of appropriate and sufficient inorganic NPK fertilizer to restore the carbon to nutrient ratios to the optimum required to stimulate and sustain microbial activity (though the fact that 15ppm of nitrate remains in the soil suggests that adding more N may not have as much effect unless oxygen is added).

ii. Adjustment of the soil pH to 6.0-6.5 by the addition of lime.

iii. Stimulation of the indigenous microbial growth by cultivating the soil to distribute the nutrients and lime and to aerate the treatment zone.

iv. Deploy booms and other containment barriers to prevent the spread of the oil. Booms are floating devices that encircle the spill and keep it from spreading further.

v. Use skimmers, which are specialized vessels or equipment, to remove the oil from the surface of the water. Skimming can be effective for light to medium oils.

vi. Use specialized equipment, like vacuum trucks or skimming vessels, to physically remove the oil from the water's surface.

REFERENCES

- Abosede, E.E. (2013). Effects of Crude Oil Pollution on Some Soil Physical Properties, Journal of Agriculture and Veterinary Science, 6 (3): 14-17.
- Achuba, F. I. (2006): The effect of sublethal concentrations of crude oil on the growth and metabolism of Cowpea (Vigna unguiculata) seedlings. African J.
- Adam, G. and Duncan, H. J. (2002): Influence of Diesel Fuel on Seed Germination. Environ.Pollut.
- Adejumobi, J. A. (2005). Nature and Distribution Levels of Toxic Metals in Waste Water from Some Small Scale Business in Ibadan Metropolis, Journal of Applied Sciences 8(2):4792- 4799.
- Adeleye, E .O., Adeleye , A.A. and Ojeniyi, S.O. (2005). Effects of Wood Ash Manure on Soil pH, Nutrient Status and Yield of Yam in the Southwestern Nigeria, Journal of Applied Sciences 8(2): 4719-4727.
- Adelowo, O.O. and Oloke, J.K. (2001). Biotreatment of Environmental Pollutants: The Potentials of Microbial Biosurfactants, Proceedings of Workshop on Environmental Pollution and The Applicability of Remediation Technologies in African Countries, 16-19 July, p77.
- Ademoroti, C.M.A. (1996). Environmental Chemistry and Toxicology, Foludex Press Ltd, Ibadan, pp175-189.
- Adoki, A. (2012). Soil and Groundwater Characteristics of a Legacy Spill Site, J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Manage., 16 (1): 113-123.
- Aina EOA, Adedipe NO (1991). Ed., The Making of the Nigerian Environmental Policy. Federal Environmental Protection Agency, Lagos. p. 329.
- Aisen, F.A., Hymore, F.K. and Ebewele, R.O. (2003). Potential Application of Recycled Rubber in Oil Pollution Control, Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 85: 175-190.
- Aislabie, J.M., Balks, M.R.and Forte, J.M.(2004) Hydrocarbon Spills on Antarctic Soils, Effects and Management, Environmental Science and Technology, 38(5):1265-1274.
- Alexander M (1961). Introduction to Soil Microbiology. John Wiley and Sons Inc. New York and London. pp. 402–421.
- Alloway, B.J. (1995). Soil Processes and The Behaviour of Heavy Metals in Soils, Blackie Academic and Professional London, pp 38-57.
- Amadi A, Dickson A, Maate GO (1993). Remediation of oil-polluted soils: 1. Effect of organic and inorganic nutrient supplements on the performance of maize (Zea may L.). Water Air Soil Pollut. 66: 59–76.
- Anderson, B. (1989): Report on oil pollution on the soil of Niger Delta special, 2nd Ed, Pp 24 25.

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page 407

- Anderson, D. and Cerkowniak, D. (2010) Soil Formation in the Canadian Praire Region, Prairie Soils & Crops Journal, 3: 1-2
- Anikwe, M.A.N. (2006). Soil Quality Assessment and Monitoring, New Generation Books, Enugu, pp15-18.
- APHA, (2000). Standard Methods of Examination of Water and Waste Water, American Public Health Association Washington D.C., pp5540-5546.
- Asaolu, S.S. (2000). Total Hydrocarbon Content in Water and Sediment Samples from Ondo State Coastal Area, The Journal of Technoscience,4:19-23. Association of Official Analytical Chemists (1990) Official Methods of Analysis, Washington DC, USA, 15th ed. 153
- Atkins, P. and Jones, L. (1999). Chemical Principles W.H.Freeman and Company, New York,p201.
- Atkins, P. and Jones, L.(2000). Chemical Principles, The Quest for Insight, W.H Freeman and Company New York,p201.
- Atlas RM, Bartha R (1997). Microbial Ecology Fundamentals and Principles, 4th Ed. Benjamin/Cummings Science Publishing Company, Menlo Park, CA, USA. pp. 511–573.
- Atuanya, E. I. (1987): Effect of waste Engine Oil pollution on physical and chemical properties of soil. A case study of waste oil contamination in Delta soil. Pp 155 – 160.
- Aydin, M.E., Ozcan ,S., Beduck, F., Tor, A., (2013). Levels of Organochlorine Pesticides and Heavy Metals in Surface Waters of Kenya Closed Basin, Turkey Sci World J, 849716.
- Aziz, S.A. and Karim, S.M. (2016). The Effect of Some Soil Physical and Chemical Properties on Soil Aggregate Stability in Different Locations in Sulaimani and Halabja Governorate, Open Journal of Soil Science, 6: 81-88.
- Azlan, A., Aweng, E., R., Ibrahim, C.O., and Noorhaidah, A. (2012) Correlation Between Soil Organic Matter, Total Organic Matter and Water Content with Climate and Depths of Soil at Different Land Use in Kelantan, Malaysia, J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Manage, 16 (4) 353- 358.
- Baird, C. (1999). Environmental Chemistry,2nd ed, W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, p532.
- Baker JM (1976). Ed., Marine Ecology and Oil Pollution. Applied Science Publishers Ltd., Essex England pp. 483–536.
- Barenboim, G.M., Borisov, V.M., Golosov, V.N. and Saveca, A.Y. (2014).New Problems and Opportunities of Oil Spill Monitoring Systems, Proceedings of the $11th$ Kovacs Colloquium, Paris, France, IAHS Publ. 366.2015, 64-74.
- Barker., J. M. (1990): The Effect of oil on plant and Environmental pollution 4th Edition, Macmillan Publishing Company Inc. New York Pp.22 – 224.
- Barker., J. M. (1990): The Effect of oil on plant and Environmental pollution 4th Edition, Macmillan Publishing Company Inc. New York Pp.22 – 224.

IIARD – International Institute of Academic Research and Development Page 408

- Bates, R .G. (1954). Electrometric pH Determinations, John Willey and Sons Inc. New York. 154
- Baum, S., Weih, M. and Bolte, A. (2012). Stand Age Characteristics and Soil Properties Affect Species Composition of Vascular Plants in Short Rotation Coppice Plantations, Biorisk, 7:51-71.
- Beaverton, F. (1977). Trace Element Content of the Atmospheric Environment in Northern Nigeria, Bull, Sci, Assoc. Nigeria, 3(2) 267-269.
- Berman, E. (1980). Toxic Metals and Their Analysis, Heyden.
- Bhatia S.C. (2001). Engineering Chemistry, CBS Publishers and Distributors, New Delhi India, pp814-852.
- Black, C. A. (ed.) (1965). Methods of Soil Analysis, Agronomy No 9, Part 2, Amer. Soc. Agronomy, Madison, Wisconsin.
- Blummer, M. (1970). Testimony Before the Conservation and Natural Resources Subcommittee, Washington D.C., July 22.
- Brady, N.C. and Weil, R.R. (2013). The Nature and Properties of Soils, Pearson Education Inc., India, p130.
- Brady, N.C., and Weil, R.R. (1996). The Nature and Properties of Soils, 11th ed., Prentice Hall Inc., New Jersey, pp15-16.
- Brandy, N.C and Weil, R.R. (2002); The Nature and Properties of Soil, 13th Edition, Prentice Hall, New York.
- Brown, G.I. (1976). Introduction to Physical Chemistry, SI edn, Longman, London, pp495-499.
- Cempel, M., and Nikel, G.(2006). Nickel: A Review of its Sources and Environmental Toxicology, Polish J. Environ. Stud. 15 (3): 375-382.
- Chang, R. (2005). Chemistry, International ed, McGraw Hill, New York, p915. 155
- Chawla, S. (2003). A Textbook of Engineering Chemistry, Dhanpat Rai & Co. (Pvt) Ltd, Delhi, pp21-22.
- Chen, M. and Ma, L.Q. (2001). Comparison of Three Aqua Regia Digestion Methods for Twenty Florida Soils, Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 65: 491-499.
- Cheremisinoff, P.N. (1976). Pollution Engineering, Prentice Handbook, Ann Arbor Science Publishers Inc, Michigan, USA.
- Dawn Walls-Thumma, (2000); How does pH level affect plant growth?
- Dejong, E. (1980): The effect of crude oil spills on some plants, principles and perspectives. John Wiley New York, U.S.A Pp $15 - 16$.

Department of Petroleum Resources, DPR (1997); Annual Report

- Egbe, R.E. (2010); Environmental Challenges of Oil Spillage for Families in Oil Producing Communities of the Niger Delta Region.
- Ekundayo, E . O and Obuekwe, C.O (1997); Effects of an Oil spill on Soil physico-chemical properties of a spill site in atypical Displacement of Midwestern Nigeria, Environmental Assessment Vol (45).
- Fries N, Zhai J, Chee-Sanford J, Ticdje JM (1994). Isolation, characterization, and distribution of denitrifying toluene degraders from a variety of habitats. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 60: 2802–2810.
- Henner, P., Schiavon, M., Druelle, V. And Lighthouse, E. (1999): Phytotoxicity of ancient gaswork soils. Effect of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) on plant germination. Organic Geochemistry-
- HSE-ENV (2004). Accompanying guidelines for SPDC EIA process Data collection. Vol. III.HSE-ENV, SPDC 2004 – 0002712 Ilaco NV (1966). NEDECO Report on the soil investigations in the Niger Delta Special Area. Main Report. The Hague, The Netherlands. p.162.
- Jackson, M.L; (1962); Soil Chemical Analysis, Prentice Hall, New York
- Korade, D. L. and Fulekar, M. H. (2009): Effect of organic contaminants on seed germination of Lolium multiflorumin soil. Biology and Medicine (Bio. Med.).
- Malallah, G., Afzal, M., Kurian, M., Gulshan, S. and Dhami, M.S.I. (1998): Impact of oil pollution on some desert plants.
- Manahan SE (1994). Environmental Chemistry. CRC Press, Inc. Florida. p.811.
- Marmiroli, N. and McCutcheon S. C. (2003): phytoremediation a successful technology. Phytoremediation. Transformation and Control of Contaminants. John Wiley, Hoboken.
- Mc Graw Hill, (1985): Encyclopedia of Science and Technology, Vol. 2 McGraw Hill Pp. 396 97, 444.
- McGraw–Hill (1980): Encyclopedia of Science and Technology, Vol. 2 McGraw Hill Pp. 857 858.
- NASA/University of Maryland/Frank Monaldo
- NDES (1999). Niger Delta Environmental Survey Phase 1 Report, Vol.1 Environmental and Socio–Economic Characteristics (Revised Edition). Technical report submitted by Environmental Resource Managers Limited, Lagos. pp. 101 – 116
- Nelson DW, Sommers LE (1982). Total carbon, organic carbon, and organic matter. In: Page, A.L., Miller, R.H. and Keeney DR. (Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2. American Society of Agronomy, Madison. pp. 539 - 579.
- Nelson, A. S. (1999): Effect of Environmental Pollution on Land and Sea. McGraw Hill Book Company. New York.
- Ninth World Petroleum Congress proceedings; (1978): Geology Vol. 2 Applied Science Publishers Ltd London P. 17.
- Obi AO (1976). Relative effects of different N. fertilizers on soil pH and crop yield in a Western Nigerian soil. Niger. Agric. J. 13: 95-101.
- Odu CTI, Nwoboshi LC, Esuruoso OF (1985). Environmental studies (soils and vegetation) of the Nigerian Agip Oil Company operation areas. In: Proceedings of an International Seminar on the Petroleum Industry and the Nigerian Environment, NNPC, Lagos, Nigeria. pp. 274– 283.
- Odu, C. T. I. (1997): Causes of Oil spillage from Oil industry. Pp. 201 204.
- Ogbo, E. M. (2009): Effects of diesel fuel contamination on seed germination of four crop plants - Arachis hypogaea, Vigna unguiculata, Sorghum bicolor, and Zea mays. Biotechn.
- Osuji LC (2001). Total hydrocarbon content of soils, fifteen months after Eneka and Isiokpo Oil Spills. J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Mgt. 5(2): 35-38.
- Osuji LC, Adesiyan SO (2005). Extractable hydrocarbons, nickel, and vanadium contents of Ogbodo-Isiokpo oil spill polluted soils in Niger Delta, Nigeria. Environ. Monit. Assess. 110: 129-139.
- Osuji LC, Adesiyan SO (2005). The Isiokpo oil-pipeline leakage: Total organic carbon/organic matter contents of affected soils, Chem. Biodiv. 2: 1079 – 1085.
- Osuji LC, Adesiyan SO, Obute GC (2004). Post impact assessment of oil pollution in the Agbada west plain of Niger Delta Nigeria: Field reconnaissance and total extractable hydrocarbon content. Chem. Biodiv. 1(10): 1569-1577.
- Osuji LC, Egbuson EJG, Ojinnaka CM (2005). Chemical reclamation of crude-oil- inundated soils from Niger Delta, Nigeria. Chem. Ecol. 21(1): 1-10.
- Osuji LC, Inimfon AU, Ogali RE (2006b). Attenuation of petroleum hydrocarbons by weathering: A case study. Chem. Biodiv. 3: 422-431.
- Osuji LC, Iniobong DI, Ojinnaka CM (2006a). Preliminary investigation of Mgbede-20 oilpolluted site in Niger Delta, Nigeria. Chem. Biodiv. 3: 568-577.
- Osuji LC, Onojake CM (2006). Field reconnaissance and estimation of petroleum hydrocarbon and heavy metal contents of soils affected by the Ebocha- 8 oil spillage in Niger Delta, Nigeria. Journ. Environ. Mgt. 79: 133-139.
- Ouji, L.C, Adesiyan, S.O, Obuite, G.C (2004); Post Impact Assessment of Oil pollution in Agbada West plain of Niger Delta, Delta State.
- Oyem, A (2001) Christian Call for Action in Nigeria Oil Spill (Sage-Oxford"s Christian Environment Group). Effects of an oil spill on soil physic-chemical properties; pH Levels and Plant Growth;
- Rowell, M. J. (1977): The Effect of Crude oil spills on soils. A Review of Literature. Part, Edmonton, Canada Pp. 14, $17 - 18$.
- Russell's (1988): Soil condition and plant growth in Niger Delta Region, Alan Wildo. Longman Group UK Ltd Pp. 271 – 273.
- S. P. D. C, (1995): Oil pollution and control. (A Journal of Shell Petroleum Development Company Nigeria Ltd, 3rd Ed Pp. 2 -3.
- Smith, M. J., Flowers, T. H., Duncan, H. J. And Alder, J. (2006): Effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on germination and subsequent growth of grasses and legumes in freshly contaminated soil and soil with aged PAHs residues.
- Vavrek, M. C. and Campbell, W. J. (2002): Contribution of seed banks to freshwater wetland vegetation recovery. Louisiana Applied and Educational Oil Spill Research and Development Program, OSRADP.