

Evaluation of the effect of Total Hydrocarbon levels on growth and distribution of *Rhizophora racemosa* and *Nypa fruticans* in selected Niger Delta mangrove forest, Nigeria.

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Abstract

The effect of total hydrocarbon content (THC) levels on the growth and distribution of *R. racemosa* and *N. fruticans* in selected Niger Delta mangrove forest soil was evaluated in this study. Seasonal soil samples were collected from study plants growth dominated and non-growth stations, and analyzed for THC using the distillation method after extraction with Soxhlet extraction apparatus. Findings showed the THC levels at *R. racemosa* (7.20 ± 1.26 - 16.97 ± 7.51 mgkg⁻¹) and (11.06 ± 0.45 - 24.70 ± 8.50 mgkg⁻¹), *N. fruticans* (6.37 ± 1.55 - 10.95 ± 0.62 mgkg⁻¹) and (9.87 ± 1.28 - 15.17 ± 2.76 mgkg⁻¹) growth dominated soils, while the non-growth soils showed (6.77 ± 0.86 - 6126.33 ± 195.59 mgkg⁻¹) and (15.47 ± 4.37 - 8600.00 ± 1038.58 mgkg⁻¹) for wet and dry seasons respectively. The study also showed non-growth soil THC level > *R. racemosa* soil THC level > *N. fruticans* soil THC level. Findings on stations THC levels showed Bomu as the most impacted mangrove soil > Borokiri > Ogu > Kono study stations. Remediation of the impacted forest is recommended for healthy mangrove growth.

Key words: Evaluation, Hydrocarbon, Growth, Distribution, Mangrove forest, Niger Delta.

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I. Introduction

The red mangrove (*Rhizophora racemosa* G.F.W Meyer) and Nypa palm (*Nypa fruticans* Wurmbe (Arecaceae) belong to the mangroves, which are assemblage of salt-tolerant trees and shrubs that grow in the intertidal regions of tropical and subtropical coastlines (FAO, 2007). According to Giriet *al.* (2011) mangrove forest are distributed in the intertidal zone between the sea and the terrestrial area in the tropical and subtropical regions of the world and are located between approximately latitude 30°N and 30°S of the equator.

The Niger Delta mangrove ecosystem is globally ranked among the most important ten wetland and marine ecosystems (FME *et al.*, 2006; ANEEJ, 2004), with well distributed native mangrove species in the coastline of which *Rhizophora racemosa* is the dominant species occupying the boundary of the alluvial salt swamp, (Ohimain, 2006). They constitute a major source of sea food such as crabs, oyster, cockles and periwinkles that are usually found around mangrove roots (Ejituwu, 2003). Other functions include the provision of quality environment for spawning, nurseries, nutrients and fishing ground for several species of fisheries including crustaceans and molluscs (Lay *et al.*, 2002; Marshall, 2004). *Nypa fruticans* was introduced to Nigeria for purposes of stabilizing coastline against erosion (Udoidiong and Ekwu, 2011). The species thrives well in calm mangrove ecosystem with high inflow of fresh water (Tomlinson, 1986).

Mangrove soils are characteristically observed to possess a natural ability to act as a sink for anthropogenic pollutants. Many studies have attributed the high status of pollution in the Niger Delta region to oil related activities (Kinigorna, 2001; Amusan and Adeniyi, 2005; Wogu and Okeke, 2011). Among the known causes of soil and water pollutants is the release of hydrocarbons into the environment following accidental discharge or by human and other activities (Holliger *et al.*, 1997). This discharge results in the accumulation of total petroleum hydrocarbon in soils, with resultant drastic environmental health problems (Denys *et al.*, 2006). Oil spillage in mangrove ecosystem has been reported to cause adverse effects (Marmiroliet *al.*, 2006). These effects are attributed by the types of oil, level of spill, the area covered, oil composition and the season of occurrence (Pezeshki *et al.*, 2000). In some cases, it results to changes in the colour of foliage, low quality in canopy formation, low productivity and mortality of plants (Akwiwu *et al.*, 2002, Nkwocha and Duru, 2010). Other effects include inhibition of germination, growth and development of plants (Ekundaro 2007, Ekpo *et al.*, 2012, Eze *et al.*, 2013), poor growth in terms of stem diameter and height, reduction in the rate of photosynthesis and death of plants (Pezeshki, 2000, Tanee and Anyanwu, 2007, Anyanwu and Tanee, 2008). Oil

pollution also negatively impacts on the environment, resulting to loss of biodiversity (Phil-Eze and Okoro, 2009), mortality of several hectares with the inhibition of plant survival in the environment (Obilo and Ogungemi, 2002, Ufot *et al.*, 2003). The impact also results in the reduction in population and growth rate of mangrove trees (Zhu *et al.*, 2004)

The study area was chosen based on its outstanding role in oil exploration and exploitation activities, with characteristic exposures to the negative impacts of crude oil pollution such as degradation and deforestation of mangrove forest. The area is among the mangrove cover in Nigeria that is reported to have been degraded from 9,900 Km² to 7,386 Km² between 1980 and 2006 (World Rainforest Movement, 2009). Kono and Bomu (the study area) in Ogoniland is among the identified mangrove devastated coastline due to oil related pollution (UNEP, 2011). This study was thus designed to evaluate the inundation of total hydrocarbon on the growth, distribution of *Rhizophora racemosa* (native mangrove) and *Nypa fruticans* (aggressive invasive mangrove) which are the predominant mangrove species in the area.

II. Materials And Methods

Description of Study Area

Four study stations namely Kono (station 1), Bomu (station 2), Ogu (station 3) and Port Harcourt (station 4) in Khana, Gokana, Ogu/Bolo and Port Harcourt local government area of Rivers State, stretching from Longitude 7° 05' 00" E through Longitude 7° 30' 30" E and latitude 4° 45' 30" N through Latitude 4° 55' 00" with an insert of Rivers State showing study Local Government Area and Nigeria showing Rivers State (Fig. 1), (Gbosidomet *et al.*, 2017).

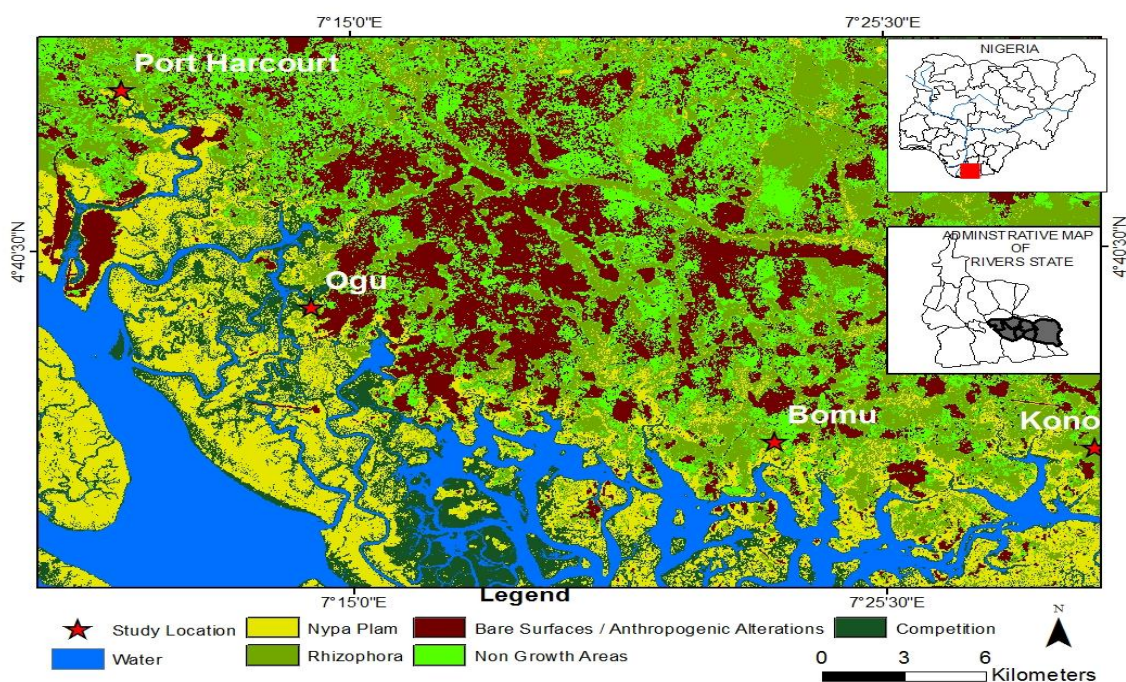


Fig. 1: Study area showing sampling location/stations

Research Design

The Randomized Complete Block Design (RCBD) method consisting of 4 stations and 3 growth (*Rhizophora*, *Nypa*, non-growth) areas was used for the study.

Sampling

Various soil samples were collected in the months of July and August 2015, and the months of January and February 2016, for wet and dry seasons respectively. Top soils were randomly collected at 0 - 30 cm closer to the roots of *Rhizophora racemosa* and *Nypa fruticans* at their respective growth sites, and the non-growth sites of both plant species and bulked together as representative samples in three replications each from the four established stations in the study area, using soil auger. Soil samples were stored in sterile cellophane bags, tied and labelled using masking tape and marker pen. Samples were preserved in a plastic cooler and transported to the laboratory for total hydrocarbon analyses. Samples for deferred analysis were stored in the refrigerator and regulated at 4°C (Gbosidomet *et al.*, 2017).

Sample preparation and determination of soil Total Hydrocarbon content

Soil samples were air dried and sieved through a 2mm mesh sieve prior to extraction and stored in cellophane bags, labeled with sample identity.

The respective samples were weighed at 10 g each and blended with 10 g of anhydrous Sodium Sulphate. The harmonized samples were transferred to an extraction thimble of SOXHLET apparatus and covered with glass wool. Samples were extracted using the Soxhlet extraction apparatus model ASTMD9071B-7. N-hexane was prepared and 90 ml was transferred into a 250 ml boiling flask which was connected to the soxhlet apparatus containing an extraction thimble with the various samples as a set up. Sample extraction was done in 4 hours duration. The organic extract was filtered through grease-free cotton into a pre-weighed boiling flask. The flask and the wool were rinsed with n-hexane into the 250 ml boiling flask. Distillation of solvent was achieved by connecting the boiling flask to a distilling head apparatus and distilled using a heating mantle, model MY 6403. At the end of distillation, the distillation head was disengaged from the boiling flask which was allowed to cool in a desiccator for 30 minutes and weighed. The gain in weight of the boiling flask was determined by subtracting the initial weight from the final weight of the flask. The concentration of THC in soil was calculated as follows:

$$\text{THC (mg/kg)} = \frac{\text{gain in weight of flask (mg)} \times 1000}{\text{Weight of dry solid (g)}}$$

III. Results

Total hydrocarbon content of soils and plant distribution

The wet season result of total hydrocarbon content (THC) of soils at the respective study stations showed the concentrations at Kono (station 1) with non-growth soil recording the highest concentration of THC level, followed by *N. fruticans* growth soil, while *R. racemosagrowth* soil recorded lower concentration of THC. At Bomu (station 2), the result showed that non-growth soil also recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded the lowest concentration of THC. At Ogu (station 3), the result showed *N. fruticans* growth soil having the highest concentration of THC, followed by non-growth soil, while *R. racemosagrowth* soil recorded the lowest concentration of THC. At Borokiri (station 4), the result showed that *R. racemosagrowth* soil recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by non-growth soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded lower concentration of THC (Table 1). Statistical differences were established at Kono (station 1) and Bomu (station 2) between the concentrations of THC at *R. racemosagrowth* soil and non-growth soil, and between *N. fruticans* growth soil and non-growth soil at $p = 0.05$ respectively (Table 1).

The dry season result of concentration of THC levels at the respective study stations showed that at Kono (station 1), non-growth soil recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded the lowest concentration of THC. At Bomu (station 2), the result showed that non-growth soil recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded lower concentration of THC. Ogu (station 3) result showed that non-growth soil recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded the lower concentration of THC. Borokiri (station 4) result showed that non-growth soil recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil recorded lower concentration of THC. The result further showed that at the four study stations, the non-growth soil was highly concentrated with THC, followed by *R. racemosagrowth* soil, while *N. fruticans* growth soil showed the lowest THC concentration (Table 1). Statistical differences in concentration of THC were established at Kono (station 1) between *R. racemosagrowth* soil and non-growth soil, and between *N. fruticans* growth soil and non-growth soil at $p = 0.05$ respectively. At Bomu (station 2), statistical differences in concentration of THC were established between *R. racemosagrowth* soil and non-growth soil, and between *N. fruticans* growth soil and non-growth soil at $p = 0.05$ respectively. At Ogu (station 3), statistical difference in concentration of THC were established between *R. racemosagrowth* soil and *N. fruticans* growth soil, between *R. racemosagrowth* soil and non-growth soil, and between *N. fruticans* growth soil and non-growth soil at $p = 0.05$ respectively. At Borokiri (station 4), no statistical difference in concentration of THC was established at $p = 0.05$ (Table 1).

Table 1: Total hydrocarbon content (mg kg⁻¹) of soil at plant growth stations

Variable	Wet Season THC Distribution			
	STA 1	STA 2	STA 3	STA 4
<i>R. racemosa</i>	7.20±1.36 ^a	16.97±7.51 ^b	7.71±1.05 ^a	7.96±1.13 ^a
<i>N. fruticans</i>	8.07±0.21 ^a	10.95±0.62 ^b	6.73±2.52 ^a	6.37±1.55 ^a
Non-growth	15.20±0.70 ^a	6126.33±195.59 ^b	6.77±0.86 ^a	7.14±0.41 ^a
Dry Season THC Distribution				
<i>R. racemosa</i>	11.10±0.26 ^a	21.57±4.01 ^{bc}	11.06±0.45 ^a	24.70±8.50 ^c
<i>N. fruticans</i>	10.75±0.55 ^a	15.17±2.76 ^b	9.87±1.28 ^c	13.73±2.29 ^d
Non-growth	19.91±1.20 ^a	8600.00±1038.58 ^b	15.47±4.37 ^a	27.27±6.41 ^a

STA 1 = Kono study station, STA 2 = Bomu study station, STA 3 = Ogu study station, STA 4 = Borokiri study station

Stations comparison of total hydrocarbon content distribution

Wet season result for the comparison of concentrations of THC between stations showed the trend at *R. racemosa* growth stations, with highest concentration of THC at Bomu (station 2), followed by Borokiri (station 4) and Ogu (station 3), while Kono (station 1) showed the lowest concentration of THC in soil. The result further showed statistical differences at *R. racemosa* growth stations between station 1 and 2, station 2 and 3, and between station 2 and 4 at p = 0.05 respectively (Table 2).

The results at *N. fruticans* growth stations showed Bomu (station 2) as the station with the highest concentration of THC in the soil, followed by Kono (station 1) and Ogu (station 3), while Borokiri (station 4) showed the lowest concentration of THC. The above result further showed statistical differences in the concentration of THC at *N. fruticans* growth stations, between stations 1 and 2, 2 and 3 and between station 3 and 4 at p = 0.05 respectively (Table 2).

The non-growth stations result showed Bomu (station 2) as the station with the highest concentration of THC, followed by Kono (station 1) and Borokiri (station 4), while Ogu (station 3) showed the lowest concentration of THC. These results non-growth further showed significant differences in the concentration of THC between stations 1 and 2, 2 and 3, and between station 2 and 4 at p = 0.05 respectively.

Furthermore, the mean concentration result of THC at the four study stations showed that the non-growth stations recorded the highest concentration of THC, followed by *R. racemosa* growth stations, while *N. fruticans* growth stations showed the lowest THC level (Table 2).

The dry season result of THC levels in soils at *R. racemosa* growth stations showed a trend of Borokiri (station 4) > Bomu (station 2) > Kono (station 1) > Ogu (station 3), while *N. fruticans* growth stations showed the trend of Bomu (station 2) > Borokiri (station 4) > Kono (station 1) > Ogu (station 3). At the non-growth soil, Bomu (station 2) showed very high concentration of THC in the study area, followed by Borokiri (station 4) and Kono (station 1), while Ogu (station 3) showed the lowest THC concentration in the study area (Table 2). The result further showed mean level of THC at the four study stations with station Bomu (station 2) showing the highest concentration of THC, followed by Borokiri (station 4) and Kono (station 1), while Ogu (station 3) showed the lowest level of THC level. The result of THC comparison between stations showed that at *R. racemosa* growth stations, significant differences were observed between stations 1 and 2, 2 and 3, and between 2 and 4 at p < 0.05 respectively, while *N. fruticans* growth stations showed significant differences in THC levels between stations 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 2 and 4, and between station 3 and 4 at p < 0.05 respectively (Table 2). The result at non-growth stations showed significant differences in THC levels between station 1 and 2, station 2 and 3, and between station 2 and 4 at p < 0.05 respectively (Table 2).

Table 2: Distribution of THC (mgk⁻¹) at study stations

Wet Season THC Distribution			
Stations	<i>R. racemosa</i>	<i>N. fruticans</i>	Non-growth
STA 1	7.20±1.36 ^a	8.07±0.21 ^a	15.20±0.70 ^a
STA 2	16.97±7.51 ^b	10.95±0.62 ^b	6126.33±195.59 ^b
STA 3	7.71±1.05 ^a	6.73±2.52 ^a	6.77±0.86 ^a
STA 4	7.96±1.13 ^a	6.37±1.55 ^a	7.14±0.41 ^a
Dry Season THC Distribution			
STA 1	11.10±0.26 ^a	10.75±0.55 ^a	19.91±1.20 ^a
STA 2	21.57±4.01 ^{bc}	15.17±2.76 ^b	8600.00±1038.58 ^b
STA 3	11.06±0.45 ^a	9.87±1.28 ^c	15.47±4.37 ^a
STA 4	24.70±8.50 ^c	13.73±2.29 ^d	27.27±6.41 ^a

STA 1 = Kono study station, STA 2 = Bomu study station, STA 3 = Ogu study station, STA 4 = Borokiri study station

IV. Discussion

The result of soil total hydrocarbon (THC) levels at *R. racemosa*, *N. fruticans* and Non-growth stations showed variability and a trend of Non-growth THC level > *R. racemosa* THC level > *N. fruticans* THC level. The comparison of THC levels at *R. racemosa*, *N. fruticans* and Non-growth soils at the respective stations showed significant difference between *R. racemosa* and Non-growth THC levels and between *N. fruticans* and Non-growth THC levels. The above findings showed that soil THC levels negatively influenced the distribution of *R. racemosa* and *N. fruticans* mangrove species. These findings are in tandem with earlier findings that showed that oil pollution has negative impact on the environment, resulting to loss of biodiversity (Phil-Eze and Okoro, 2009).

Study on the levels of THC in soils showed that the study plants were distributed based on their tolerance ability, a finding which corroborates an earlier finding by Subodh and Abhiroop (2013) who observed the dominance of *Avicinnia marina* in different mangrove patches due to pollution.

The study showed non-growth of *R. racemosa* and *N. fruticans* at stations having high levels of total hydrocarbon content. This observation may be attributed to the toxicity caused by the high levels of THC on both study plants and this may have affected the structure of the forest, in line with earlier findings of (Ekundaro 2007, Ekpoet al., 2012; Eze et al., 2013) who reported inhibition of germination, growth and development of plants, and Kairo et al, (2001) who reported that the loss of larger mangroves due to pollution affects the structure of the forest which may not naturally recover. The above observation also corroborates the findings of the United Nations Environmental Programme report on Ogoni environment, which stated that oil impact on mangrove vegetation was disastrous and vary from extreme stress to total destruction of leaves and stems, leaving roots which were completely coated with oil up to 1cm or thicker layer of bituminous substances (UNEP, 2011).

Findings on stations comparison of mean levels of THC showed Bomu (station 2) > Borokiri (station 4) > Kono (station 1) > Ogu (station 3). Consequently, stations with high concentration of THC may have experienced high mortality of mangrove species, in line with the report of Obilo and Ogungemi (2002) and Ufotet al. (2003), who observed that pollution from oil spill resulted in the mortality of several hectares of mangrove forest, with the inhibition of plant survival in the environment. This finding further confirms UNEP (2011), who reported the pollution and accumulation of oil in Ogoni mangrove for a period estimated to be over decades.

V. Conclusion

The impact of total hydrocarbon content levels on the growth and distribution of *R. racemosa* and *N. fruticans* in the study area has established that THC levels has negative impact on the growth and distribution of the referenced mangrove species, as stations with high impact of THC showed non-growth of plants due to the toxicity associated with THC in the soil. The study further established the variability of THC levels at the study stations.

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