We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists



186,000

200M



Our authors are among the

TOP 1% most cited scientists





WEB OF SCIENCE

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us? Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected. For more information visit www.intechopen.com



Effects of Crude Oil Contaminated Water on the Environment

Noyo Edema Department of Botany, Delta State University, Abraka, Delta State Nigeria

1. Introduction

With the development of oil industry, the general environment and in particular wetland ecosystem has become extremely vulnerable to damaging effects of oil pollution. Contamination of aquatic environment by crude oil and petroleum products constitute an additional source of stress to aquatic organisms (Omoregie *et al.*, 1997) and is of importance to the wetland environment. Oil contaminated water resulted in water becoming unsuitable for the growth of macrophytes (Edema, 2006) only scanty data are available for levels of chemical pollution of aquatic plants since most studies of biota are concentrated in fish (FAO, 1993).

2. The water environment

Water quality is one important factor of an aquatic environment. Water analysis consists of an assessment of the condition of water in relation to set goals. For example, water samples with decreased electrical conductivity measurement indicate a good measure of purity (Hoagland, 1972). During spillage, water supply becomes critical.

Toxic pollutants in water refer to a whole array of chemical which are leached into ground water or which are discharged directly into rivers. Contamination of aquatic environment by crude oil and petroleum products constitute an additional source of stress to aquatic organisms (Omoregie *et al.*, 1997) and is of importance to wetland environment.

Water pollutants can also include excessive amounts of heavy metals, radioactive isotopes, faecal coliform bacteria, phosphorus, nitrogen, sodium and other useful (even necessary) elements as well as certain pathogenic bacteria and viruses (Botkin and Keller, 1998).

The water environment experiences many dynamic changes induced by various natural events such as the spillage of toxic chemicals that may have significant impact on aquatic life (Camougis, 1981).

Even in Roman times, heavy metals from mining and pathogens from cities caused serious though local, water contamination (FAO, 1993). Some of the major factors associated with accelerating pace of fresh water pollution is accidental damage of pipes and tankers, major leaks and local spills. These cause varying degrees of aquatic toxicity and material damage. Industrial accidents involving spillage of long lasting pollutants such as persistent organic

substances have the most serious effects on water quality. Many of these substances become concentrated in living tissue because organisms have no means of excreting them. They accumulate and are pass on at successively greater concentration of predators higher up the food chain.

This chapter is primarily focused on the biological impact of the exploration activities of oil companies in our water environment.

3. Crude oil

Crude oil is a colloidal mixture of huge number of hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon (Cadwallaer, 1993). The source material for nearly all petroleum products is crude oil. Spill, leaks and other releases of gasoline, diesel, fuels, heating oils and other petroleum products often result in the contamination of soil and water. Hydrocarbon form over 90 percent petroleum oil are grouped according to their chemical structures such as straight, branched and cyclic alkanes and aromatics. The non-hydrocarbon components of petroleum include (O₂, N, S ---) and some metals related porphyrin oxygen containing compounds e.g. naphthenic acid, carboxylic acid, esters, ketones, phenols etc (Odu, 1981). Oil pollution occurs when oil is introduced into the environment directly or indirectly by men's impacts resulting in unfavorable change in such a way that safety and welfare of any living organisms is endangered. Crude oil if spilled into the water spreads over a wide area forming a slick and oil in water immediately begins to undergo a variety of physical, chemical and biological changes including evaporation of high volatile fractions, dissolution of water-soluble fractions, photochemical oxidation, drill, emulsification, microbial degradation and sedimentation (Muller, 1987). Crude oil is a complex mixture of hydrocarbon and organic compounds of sulphur, nitrogen, oxygen and a certain quantity of water which varies in composition from place to place (Anoliefo, 1991). Crude oil is produced from decay of plants and animals over millions of years. It is also referred to as mineral oil. Crude oil, which is a mixture of hydrocarbons and inorganic compounds is drilled through rocks. Crude oil discharged on the sea surface undergoes physical, chemical and biological alteration. Rapid physical and chemical processes include spreading and movement by wind and currents, injection into the air, evaporation of volatile components, dispersion of small droplets into water, dissolution and chemical oxidation (Nelson Smith, 1972). Concurrent with these are relevant biological processes. They include degradation by micro-organisms and uptake by larger organisms followed by metabolism and storage or discharge (Nelson-Smith, 1972).

4. Water soluble fraction

Water and oil are usually considered to be non-miscible. However, crude oil contains a very small soluble portion referred to as the water soluble fraction (WSF) Kavanu, 1964. The soluble constituents are dispersed particulate oil, dissolved hydrocarbons and soluble contaminants such as metallic ions (Kauss and Hutchinson, 1975). Non-hydrocarbon components of crude oil include polar components containing nitrogen, sulphur and oxygen (Westlake, 1982). Oxygen containing compounds include esters and ketones, while nitrogen containing compounds include pyrimidine and quinoline (Obire, 1985).

The concentration of hydrocarbon and non-hydrocarbon components in crude oil from different sources differ greatly (Brunnock *et al.*, 1968). The components of crude oil that go

170

into solution make up the WSF. They are taken up by living cells and metabolized. This is ecologically important because in the event of an oil spill or effluent discharge from engine oil vehicles or where there is deliberate discharge of petroleum products into aquatic habitats, these hydrocarbons are absorbed by living organisms, with serious effects on the ecosystem (Michael, 1977). The lower the molecular weight of the constituent hydrocarbon of crude oil, the higher is its concentration in the water-soluble fraction (Bohon and Clausen, 1951). Anderson *et al.* (1974) analyzed the water soluble extract of South Loisiana and Kuwait crude oils and reported that the WSF contained 20 aromatic compounds ranging from benzene to dimethyl phenothrenes and up to 14 saturated hydrocarbons ranging from C_{14} to parafins.

Adverse biological effects have been attributed to dissolved low molecular weight hydrocarbon particularly aromatics such as toluene. Anderson *et al.* (1974) and Winter (1976) considered naphthalene as a more important source of crude oil toxicity than low molecular weight aromatics. According to another source, the low boiling point unsaturated hydrocarbon such as benzene, toluene, xylene and naphthalene, are the most toxic components in crude oils, the toxicity can be said to be a function of the presence of these substances (Nelson-Smith, 1972).

When there is delay in clean up action for any reason, after spillage has occurred, the water soluble components of crude oil seep into the aquatic ecosystem. The components of crude oil that go into solution make up the WSF. Concave (1979) reported that pure hydrocarbon yield 4.2mgl⁻¹ of WSF. Baker (1970a) observed that water soluble fraction (WSF) is produced during a long period of oil water contact.

5. Preparation of WSF

The Water Soluble Fraction was prepared according to the method of Anderson *et al.* (1974). A sample of crude oil (500ml) was slowly mixed in equal volume of deionized water in a 2 liter screw-cap conical flask. A Gallenkamp table top magnetic stirrer supplied with 7/1cm magnetic bar was used for mixing. Stirring was done for 20hrs and at room temperature ($27^{\circ}C \pm 2^{\circ}C$). After mixing, the oil water mixture was allowed to stand overnight in a separating funnel. The lower phase was collected and used as the WSF. It was referred to as 100% or full- strength WSF. The stock WSF was diluted with water to give 50% and 25% strength WSF which were stored in crew-cap bottles prior to use. The WSF samples were applied at three levels, 25%, 50% and 100%.

6. Composition of WSF

Ionic components: These include the cations and anions.

Cation

Cations are positively charged ions. The four major cations of the total ionic salinity of water for all practical purposes are Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺ (Wetzel, 2001). These elements are required by plants in large amounts (Hopkins, 1999). Water soluble fraction of crude oil has been found to contain the following cations Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, Fe⁺⁺, Fe⁺⁺⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺ (Edema, 2006)

Anions

Anions are negatively charged ions (Botkin and Keller, 1998). Anions, such as Cl⁻, NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} are soluble and are present in living plants largely as ions in solution (Hopkins, 1999). The major anions that constitute the ionic salinity of water for all practical purposes are Cl⁻, SO_4^{2-} , HCO_3^- and CO_3^- (Wetzel, 2001). Water soluble fraction of crude oil was found to contain, Cl⁻, SO_2^{-4} , NO_3^- , PO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^- (Edema, 2006).

Heavy metals

The contamination of the aquatic system with heavy metals has been on the increase since the last century due to industrial activities (Ali and Mai, 2007). Heavy metals are taken up as cations. Among the heavy metals detected in WSF are Pb, Cu, Zn, Cd, Ni, Cr, and V (Edema, 2006). This is in agreement with the statement of Kauss and Hutchinson (1975) that the WSF of crude oil contains metallic ions among other soluble contaminants. Botkin and keller (1998) stated that Pb, Cr and V are among metals that pose hazard to living organisms. Heavy metals are non-biodegradable and are toxic under certain condition (Rana, 2005).

7. Physical composition

The physical components found to be present in WSF of crude oil include hydrogen ion concentration (pH), chemical oxygen demand (COD), total dissolved solids (TDs) and electrical conductivity (EC) (Edema, 2006). Chemical substances in WSF are capable of changing the hydrogen ion concentration (pH) of the medium (Neff and Anderson, 1981). Elevation of pH values after the introduction of macrophytes to WSF of crude oil were recorded by Edema *et al.* (2008). The pH values recorded were within the maximum permissible level (pH 6.5 – 9.8 values) (WHO, 1995). The values for electrical conductivity, total dissolved solids, chemical oxygen demand were significantly found to increase after exposure to plants. High EC, TDS and COD are signs of pollution. This means that more ions were available after the introduction of test macrophytes. Increase in EC indicates that most inorganic elements exist in abundance (Kadiri, 2006). Although the total dissolves solids (TDS) values were found to increase after exposure to plants were still within the highest desirable limit of WHO (500mg/l) and Talling and Talling (1965), classification Scheme of African water within conductivities of between 6,000 – 16,000µScm⁻¹. With continuous spillage, the values may rise and exceed the WHO values.

8. Salinity

The concentration of the 4 major cations Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, Na⁺⁺ and K⁺ and 4 major anions, HCO₃⁻, CO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and Cl⁻ usually constitute the total ionic salinity of water for all practical purposes (Wetzel, 2001). Concentrations of ionized components of other elements such as N, P and Fe and numerous minor elements are of immerse biological importance but are usually minor contributors to total salinity (Wetzel, 2001). The sum of all ionic concentrations is the basis for salinity measurement (Covich, 1993). Total dissolved solids and ionic conductivity of water, are generally used measurement (Covich, 1993).

The values of ions increased with increase in concentration of WSF prior to used. This is in agreement with the report of McOliver (1981) that when there is oil spillage more salts are

172

released into river. Thus, the amount of salts contained in aquatic ecosystem increased. These increases could be due to leakage of the cells brought about by salt (ionic) stress and associated oxidative damage (Burdon *et al.*, 1996). Salt stress refers to an excess of ions and is not limited to Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ion (Hopkins, 1999). According to Hernandez *et al.* (1985) oxidative stress is influenced by environmental factors, metal ion deficiency and toxicity. The sum of ions in the WSF of crude oil studied had higher values than river waters of Africa as reported by Wetzel (2001).

WSF, %	Sum of all ionic contents (as the total salinity)			
	Before	After	Difference	
25 50 100	123.33 151.25 206.26	245.50 263.70 385.80	121.17 112.43 197.54	

Table Ia. Sum of all ionic contents of Amukpe well- head WSF before and after exposure to *Pistia stratiotes*. Source: Edema and Okoloko (2008)

WSF, %	Sum (EC+ TDS)			
	Before	After	Difference	
25	145.83	191.10	45.27	
50	167.62	263.40	95.79	
100	220.35	374.56	154.21	

Table Ib. Sum of EC and TDS (as total salinity) of the WSF of Amukpe well-head crude oil before and after exposure to *Pisitia stratiotes*. Source: Edema and Okoloko (2008)

WSF, %	Sum of all ionic concentration			
WOI , 70	Before	After	Difference	
25 50 100	12.95 22.90 46.75	262.05 338.21 371.69	249.02 315.31 324.94	

Table IIa. Sum of all ionic concentration of the WSF of Ogini well-head crude oil before and after exposure to *Azolla sp.*

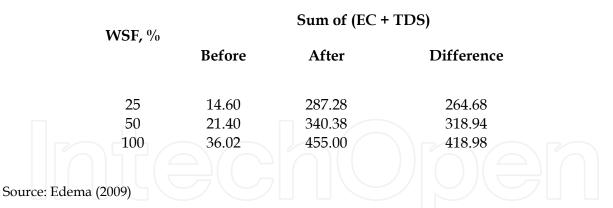


Table IIb. Sum of EC +TDS (as total salinity) of the WSF of Ogini well-head crude oil before and after exposure to *Azolla sp.*

9. Produced water

Almost all offshore oil produces large quantities of contaminated water that can have significant environmental effects if not handled appropriately (Will, 2000). Oil and gas reservoirs have natural water layer (called formation water). Because, it is denser is found under the hydrocarbons. Oil reservoirs frequently contain large volume of water. To achieve maximum oil recovery, additional water is usually injected into surface. The formation and injected water are eventually produced along with hydrocarbons. The product of the formation and injected water is referred to as produced water.

There is more in produced water than water and oil. Neff and Anderson (1981) described produced water for ocean discharge as containing up to 48ppm of petroleum. This is because it had usually been in contact with oil in the reservoir rock. There were also elevated concentration of barium, beryllium, cadmium, chromium, copper, Iron, lead, nickel, silver and zinc and "small amount of the neutral radionucleids radium 226 and radium 228 and non-volatile dissolved organic material of unknown composition". Due to rapid mixing with seawater, most physical – chemical features of produced water (low dissolved oxygen and pH, elevated salinity and metals) do not pose any hazard to water, elevated concentration of hydrocarbon may be detected in surface sediments up to about 1,000 from the discharge, that contains aromatic hydrocarbons and metals. These aromatic hydrocarbons and metals in produced water were reported by Neff and Anderson (1981) to be toxic to organisms.

10. Biological effects of crude oil

Baker (1970) reported that oil pollution effects vary according to the type and amount of oil involved, the degree of weathering, the time of the year, the plant species concerned and the age of the plant. Cowell (1977) include the physical and chemical properties of the oil as well as the quantity of the water being polluted. The water soluble fraction of crude oils has been found to reduce the growth rate of biomas turnover of some marcophytes (Gunlack and Hayes, 1977). Kauss and Hutchinson (1975) found that aquatic macrophytes population was reduced in the presence of water-soluble petroleum components. The inhibitory effects of petroleum components are known to be dependent upon the concentration of the crude oil as well as that of water soluble components (Shew, 1977).

Aquatic macrophytes e.g. water fern (*Azolla africana*) have been used to remove heavy metals from solution (Talor and Sela, 1992). Heavy metals (nickel, mercury, cadmium) are potential carcinogens from drinking water. These elements may become 4,000 – 20,000 times more concentrated in plants, than in water (Brix and Shierup, 1989., Horan, 1990., Mason, 1993) as a result of bioaccumulation. Duckweeds (*Spirodela polyrrhiza* and *Lemna* minor) have thus been used for the removal of excessive nutrients from polluted water (Culley and Epps, 1993). *Pistia stratiotes* has been similarly employed for the removal of nutrient from polluted bodies (Aoi *et al.*, 1996). The plants absorb and incorporate the dissolved materials into their structure.

Studies with various species of organisms have demonstrated that the developmental stages of organisms are often more sensitive to toxicant than older stages (Alexander, 1977). Oil with aromatic content of 33 percent reduced the growth of maize plants to 31 percent.

Flowers and Haji bagheri (2001) reported that the effect of ion on the growth of leaves is determined by the ability of plants to accommodate the ions within compartments of the leaves cells where they will not do damage. If the ions are accommodated in the vacuole and concentration rises in the leaf apoplast then there will be osmotic effect on the leaf growth. Okoloko and Bewley (1982) reported the enhancement of protein synthesis in moss (*Tortula ruralis*) gametophytes exposed to 5mM aqueous SO₂. Higher levels were toxic. Some components, particularly compounds, are toxic to aquatic animals and plants (Odiete, 1999). They are acutely lethal and chronically lethal in sublethal concentration of part per billion (ppb). However, plants and animals vary widely in their sensitivity (Clark, 1982).

The soluble fraction of crude petroleum depress phytoplankton, photosynthesis, respiration and growth, and also kill or cause developmental abnormalities of young metallic ions present in the WSF may inhibit root growth (Winter *et al.* 1976).

Factors connected with phytotoxicity of oil as already mentioned, are the properties of the oil, the quantity of the oil applied and the environmental conditions. Other factors include the species of plants and the parts of the plant affected. Also of importance are the thickness of cuticle, number and structure of stomata, chloroplast physiology, CO₂ fixation pattern and photosynthetic electron transport system. Relatively low levels of pollution can cause rapid depression in the rate of net photosynthesis (Fitter and Hay, 1987).

The adverse effects of petroleum and its components on growth have earlier been recorded by Gill *et al.*, 1992. Oil contaminated water soluble fraction resulted in water becoming unsuitable for growth of aquatic macrophytes. Anoliefo (1991) reported that slight pollution with petroleum products or WSF makes carbonyl compounds available in the soil, hence the observed rapid increase in the growth of melon plants. Baker (1970b) reported that they inhibit metabolic processes. Edema and Okoloko (1997) showed increase in inhibition with increase in concentration of WSF. Studies on the effects of the water soluble fraction of Escravos hight and Odidi well oil on *Allium cepa* showed a "fertilizer effect" at 12.5% WSF level (Edema and Okoloko, 1997). Only higher levels of WSF are toxic. Also, growth enhancement and early flowering of *L. esculentus* at 0.25 x 10⁻³ml/g concentration of crude oil treated soil was reported by Edema and Etioyibo (1999).

Edema (2010b) reported leaf bud formation in *Allium cepa* at 25% WSF and root initiation at 50% and 100% WSF treatments. Total inhibition of root was recorded for produced water at

100% which shows that produced water was more stressful to the plant than WSF of the same crude oil. Edema (2010b) also reported increase in catalase activity for WSF and decrease in catalase activity for produced water. Increased level of catalase activity is an indication of increased production of free radicals occasion by exposure of plants to crude oil. While decrease in activities of detoxification mechanisms of hydrogen peroxide can generate severe cell damage due to increase production of toxic oxygen radicals (Hernandez *et al;* 1995).

Salts influence the activities of aquatic plants resulting in the death of aquatic plants. Salt stress has been reported by Concave (1979) to reverse the condition that could make essential nutrients available to plants thereby resulting in mitoclondria damage (Cowell, 1977). The presence of ions in plants may block the oxidation of pyruvate for energy production (Anoliefo, 1991).

High salinity could be toxic to bacteria and may inhibit their activities. Besides, salinity may also affect the cellular infiltration pressure, leading to plasmolysis or even cell breakup (Ji *et al*; 2009).

Ajao *et al.* (1981) reported that undiluted formation water was toxic to millet at 1 – 100mg/l (1 – 100ppm) level. Edema (2010) also reported that produced water (PW) of crude oil was more toxic to *Allium cepa* than the water soluble fraction (WSF) of crude oil. Catalase activity could not be measured for *Allium cepa* exposed to produced water because of inhibition of growth (Edema, 2010).

The exposure of plants to metals results in the synthesis of phytochelatins, a metal binding polypeptide (Stern, 2000). Phytocheletins are known to sequester and detoxify metals through the formation of metals. Phytochelatin complexes (Stern, 2000; Clemens *et al*; 1999, Ha *et al.*, 1999). Plant nutrient elements such as Ca, Mn, Fe and Zn for example may enter through Ca channels or by means of broad-range metal transporter previously identified as Fe transporter (Clemens *et al.*, 1999). Edema (2006) reported that the levels of Fe in WSF before and after exposure to *Pistia* were far above the highest desirable limit for drinking water and still within the maximum permissible limit of 1.0mg/l of WHO value.

Edema and Asagba (2007) reported reduction in temperature and DO after exposure to the different levels of WSF. Reduction in the DO means reduction in the chemical oxygen demand and biological oxygen demand. An aquatic ecosystem with inadequate oxygen supply is considered polluted for organisms that require dissolved oxygen above the existing level (Botkin and Keller, 1998). Decrease in THC at 25% and 50% WSF after exposure to *Pistia* species was also reported by Edema (2007). This shows uptake or metabolism of THC by *Pistia stratiotes*. Odokuma and Dickson (2003) reported marked decrease in the percentage of THC in all the treatments applied in the bioremediation of the Niger-Delta except in the control treatment.

Thus, the introduction of WSF of crude oil into the aquatic system can increase the ionic, heavy metals and physical characteristics of aquatic ecosystem. And with continuous spillage there would be a build up of these ions in the aquatic environment. The need for government to implement measures to safeguard and reduce the effect of oil contaminated water on the environment cannot be overemphasized.

176

11. References

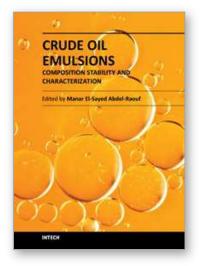
- Alexander, V. (1977). Preliminary results of studies on toxicity and effects of petroleum hydrocarbons and marine phytoplankton : In: Wolf, D. (ed). Symposium of fate and effects of petroleum hydrocarbons in marine ecosystem and organisms. pergamon Press. New York. 646p.
- Anderson, J.N., Neff, J.M., Cox,, B.A., Tatan, H.E., Hightower, G.M.1974. Characteristics of dispersions and water soluble extracts of crude oils and their toxicity to estuarine crustaceans and fish. *Marine Biology* 27: 75-88.
- Anoliefo, G.O. (1991). Forcados Blend Crude oil Effects on Respiratory Metabolism, Mineral Element Composition and Growth of *Citrutlus vulgaris*. Sehrad. Ph.D Thesis.
- Ali, A.D. and Mai, G.R. (2007). Concentrations of some heavy metals in water and three macrophytes from disused tin-mined ponds in Jos, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Botany*. 21:51-58.
- Aoi, T. Hayashi, T and Balley, D. (1996). Nutrient removal by water lettuce (*Pistia stratiotes*). *Water Science and Technology*. 34:7-8.
- Baker, J.M. (1970a). The effect of oil on plants. Environmental Pollution. 1: 27-34.
- Baker, J.M. (1970b). Growth Stimulation Following Oil Pollution. In: Cowell, E.B. (ed). The Ecological Effects of Oil Pollution and Littoral Communities. Applied Science Publishers, London. Pp 72-77.
- Botkin, D.B. and Keller, E.A. (1989). Environmental Science. Second Edition. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York. 637pp.
- Bohon, R. L. and Clausen, W.F. (1951). Solubility of aromatic hydrocarbon in water. *Journal* of American Chemical Society. 73:1511 1578
- Brix, H. and Shierup, H.H. (1989). The use of aquatic macrophytes in water pollution control. *Botany*. 75:100-107.
- Brunnock, J.V., Duckworth, D.F. and Stephens, G.C. (1968). Analysis of Bench Pollutants. In: Hepple, P. (ed). Scientific Aspects of Pollution of the Sea by Oil. Institute of Pettroleum Printing Press. London. Pp 12-27.
- Burdon, R. H., O'Kane, D. Fadzillah, N. Gill, V., Boyd, P. A. and Finch, R.R. (1996). Oxidative stress and responses in *Arabidopsis thallana* and *Oryza sativa* subjected to chilling salinity stress. *Biochemical Society Transactions*. 24:470-472.
- Cadwellaer, S. (1993). Encyclopaedia of Environmental Science and Engineering. 4th ed.
- Camougis, G. (1981). Environmental Biology for Engineering. A Guide to Environmental Assessment. Academic Press. New York. 26p.
- Concave, E. (1979). The Environmental Impact of Refinery Effluent. Report prepared by Concawe. Water Pollution Control Species Task Force, No. 8
- Cowell, E.B. (1977). The Ecological Effect of Oil Pollution on Littoral Community. Applied Science Publisher Ltd. England. Pp 88-99.
- Covich, A.P. (1993). Water and Ecosystem. In: Gleick, P.M. (Ed). Water in Crisis, A Guide to the World's Fresh Water Resources, Oxford University Press. New York. Pp. 40-45.
- Clark, R.B. (1982). Biological effects of oil pollution. Water, Science and Technology. 14:1185-1194
- Clemens, S.K.M., E. J., Neumanna, D. and Schroede J.I. (1999). Tolerance to toxic metals by a gene family of phytochelatin synthesis from plants and yeast. *EMBO Journal 18*:3325-3333.

- Culley, D.D. and Epps. E. A. (1993). Use of duckweed for waste water treatment and animal feed. *Journal of the Water Pollution Control Federation*. 45:335-347.
- Edema, N.E. and Okoloko, G.E. (1997): Effects of the water soluble fraction of Escravos light and Odidi well crude oils on root growth, mitotic cell division and chromosome morphology of *Allium cepa L. Bulletin of Science Association of Nigeria*. 21, 15-18
- Edema, N.E. and Etioyibo, E.L. (1999). The effect of Amukpe Flowstation crude oil on germination, height fresh and dry weight of *Lycopersicon esculentum* and *Abelmoschus esculentus* species. *Transaction of the Nigerian Society for Biological Conservation (NSBC)*. 6:1-4
- Edema, N. E. (2006). Ionic and Physical Characteristics of the Water Soluble Fraction of Crude Oil and the Effects and Physiology of Aquatic Macrophytes. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Benin, Benin City.
- Edema, N.E. and Asagba, S.O. (2007). Influence of nutrient supplementation on crude oil induced toxicity of okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*). *Nigerian Journal of Science and Environment*. 6:58-65.
- Edema, E.N., G.E. Okoloko (2008). Composition of the water-soluble fraction (WSF) of Amukpe well head crude oil before and after exposure to *Pistia stratiotes* L. *Research Journal of Applied Science* 3: 143-146.
- Edema, E.N., Okoloko, G.E. and Agbogidi, O.M, (2008). Physical Ionic characteristics in water soluble fraction (WSF)of Olomoro well-head crude oil before and after exposure to *Azolla Africana* Dev. *African Journal of Biotechnology. 7*: 035-040.
- Edema, N.E. (2009). Total salinity of the water soluble fraction (WSF) of Ogini well-head crude oil before and after exposure to *Azolla Africana* Devs. *Nigerian Journal of Botany*. 22(2):239-246
- Edema, N.E. (2010). Comparative assessment of produced water (PW) and water soluble fraction (WSF) of crude oil on the growth and catalase activity of *Allium cepa L. Journal of Applied Biosciences*. 30:1866-1872
- FAO, (1993). Inland Fisheries of Africa Committee Report of the 4th Session of the Working Party on Pollution and Fisheries. Accra. Ghana, 18-22 October. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations Report No. 502.
- Fitter, A.H. and Hay, R.K.M. (1987). Environmental Physiology of Plants. Second Edition. Academic Press. New York. Pp 284-295.
- Flowers, T.J. and Hajibagheri, M.A. (2001). Salinity tolerance in *Hordeum vulgare*: Iron concentrations in root cells of cultivars differing in salt tolerance. *Plant and Soil*. 231:1-9.
- Gill, L.S., Nyawame, H.C.K. and Ehikhametor, A. (1992). Effects of crude oil on the growth and anatomic features of *Chromolaema odoranta*. *Journal of Chromolaema Newsletter*. 5:1-9.
- Gunlack, E. R. and Hayas, M.O. (1977). The Urguiola oil spill: case history and discussion of methods of control and clean up. *Marine Pollution Bulletin.* 8:132-136.
- Ha, S.H., Smith, A.P., Howden, R., Dietrich, W.M., Bugg, S., Oconnell, M.J., Coldsbrongh, P.B. and Cobbett, C.S. (1999). Phytochelatin synthesis genes from Arabidopsis. *Plant cell*. 11:1152-1164.
- Hernandez, J.A. Olmos, E. Corpas, T., Sevilla, F. and Rio, L.A. (1995). Salt induced oxidative stress in chloroplast of pea plants. *Plant Science*. 105:151-167.

- Hoagland, D.R. (1972). Mineral Nutrition of Plant. Principles and Practices. John Wiley and Sons. New York. 412p
- Hopkins, W.G. (1999). Introduction to Plant Physiology. Second Ed. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York. 512p
- Horan, N.J. (1990). Biological Wastewater Treatment System. John Wiley and Sons. Chichester. 190pp.
- Kadiri, M.O. (2006). Phytoplankton flora and physico-chemical attributes of some water in the Eastern Niger-Delta Area of Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Botany*. 19:188-200.
- Kauss, P.B. and Hutchinson, T.C. (1975). The effects of water soluble oil components on the growth of *chlorella vulgans Beinzerinck*. *Environmental Pollution*. 9:157-174
- Kavanu, J.L. (1964). Water and water soluble interaction. Holden Day Publishers, San Francisco. Pg.101.
- Mason, C.F. (1993). Biology of Freshwater Pollution. Second Edition. John Wiley and Sons. New York. 351p.
- McOliver, (1981). The Nigeria and Industry. Importance and Role in Economic Development. Lagos. Nigeria, 330p.
- Michael, A.P. (1977). Ecological Effects of Petroleum in Marine System. In: Wofe, D. (ed) Symposium on Fate of Petroleum Hydrocarbons in Marine Ecosystem and Organism. New York. 646p.
- Neff, J. M. and Anderson, J. N. (1981). Response of Marine Animal to Petroleum and Specific Petrols in Hydrocarbons. Applied Science Publisher Ltd. London. Pp 1 -170.
- Nelson Smith, A. (1972). Oil Pollution and Marine Ecology. Paul Clack Scientific Brok Ltd. London. 420p.
- Obire, O. (1985). Studies on the Development of Bacteria Inocula to rid the Aquatic Environment of Spilled Petroleum Hydrocarbons. Ph. D. Thesis. University of Benin, Benin – City. 88p.
- Odiete, W.O. (1999). Environmental Physiology of Animals and Pollution. Published by Diversified Resources Ltd. Nigeria. Pp 157-258
- Odu, C.T. (1981). Degradation and Weathering of crude oil under Tropical Condition. Proceeding of an International Seminar on Petroleum Industry and the Nigerian Environment. Thomopoulas Environmental Pollution Consultants Incorporation with the Petroleum Inspectorate of NNPC. Pp 143-153
- Odokuma, L.O. and Dickson, A.A. (2003). Bioremediation of crude oil polluted tropical rain forest soil. *Global Journal of Environmental Science*. 2(1): 29-40
- Okoloko, G.E. and Bewley, J.D. (1982). Potentiation of sulphur dioxide induced inhibition of protein synthesis by desiccation. New Phytology. 91:169-176
- Omoregie, E., Ufodike B.C, O and Onwuliri, C.O. E. (1997). Effects of water soluble fractions of oil on carbohydrate reserves of *Oreochromis niloficus* (L). *Journal of Aquatic Science*. 12:1-7.
- Rana, S.V.S. (2005). Essentials of Ecology and Environmental Science. 2nd Edition. Practice Hall of India Private Limited. New Delhi, 488pp.
- Shew, D.G. (1977). Hydrocarbons in water column. In: Wolfe, D.A. (ed). Fate and Effects of Petroleum Hydrocarbons in Marine Ecosystems. Pergamon Press. New York. Pp 8-12.
- Stern, K.R. (2000). Introductory Plant Biology. Eight edition. London. 272p.

- Talling, J.F. and Talling, I.B. (1965). Three chemical composition of African lake waters. Int. *Revueges Hydrobiol*. 50:421-563
- Taylor, D.D., Green N.P.O., Stout G.W. (1998). Biological Science,3rd Edition. Cambridge University Press, UK. Pg. 121.
- Tel-or, E and Sela, M. (1992). Bioremediation of Heavy Metals and Radioactive Waste. Third U.S.A. EPLA-Israel Workshop on Bioremediation. Ministry of Environment. Jerusalem, Israel.
- WHO, (1995). Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality. World Health Organization.
- Westlake, D.W.D. (1982). Microbial Activities and Changes in the Chemical and Physical Properties of Oil. Conference on Microbial Enhancement of Oil Recovery.
- Wetzel, R.G. (2001). Limnology: Lakes and River Ecosystem, 3rd Edition, Academic Press, San Diego, U.S.A. Pp 110 – 115.
- Wills, M.A. (2000). Ekologicheskaya Vahkta Sakhalina (Sakhalin Environment Watch) Ph.D. Thesis M. Inst. Petroleum.
- Winter, K., Daniel, R.O. Batterlon, J.C. and Van Ballon, C. (1976). Water Soluble components of four fine oils chemical characterization and effects on growth of water plants. *Marine Biology*. 36:269-276.

IntechOpen



Crude Oil Emulsions- Composition Stability and Characterization Edited by Prof. Manar El-Sayed Abdul-Raouf

ISBN 978-953-51-0220-5 Hard cover, 230 pages Publisher InTech Published online 02, March, 2012 Published in print edition March, 2012

Petroleum "black gold" is the most important nonrenewable source of energy. It is a complex mixture of different phases and components. Refining it provides a vast number of organic compounds, all of them of which are used to produce petroleum based products for numerous applications, from industry to medicine, from clothing to food industries. We can find petroleum based products all around us. This book deals with some important topics related to petroleum such as its chemical composition and stability. It is well-known that the chemical composition of crude oil differs according to the site of products. The stability of crude oil on aging and transportation is governed by several factors and these factors are included within this book. Some new technologies for petroleum characterization are also introduced. This book is aimed at researchers, chemical engineers and people working within the petroleum industry.

How to reference

In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Noyo Edema (2012). Effects of Crude Oil Contaminated Water on the Environment, Crude Oil Emulsions-Composition Stability and Characterization, Prof. Manar El-Sayed Abdul-Raouf (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0220-5, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/crude-oil-emulsions-composition-stability-andcharacterization/biological-effects-of-water-soluble-fraction-of-crude-oil-on-aquatic-environment



open science | open min

InTech Europe

University Campus STeP Ri Slavka Krautzeka 83/A 51000 Rijeka, Croatia Phone: +385 (51) 770 447 Fax: +385 (51) 686 166 www.intechopen.com

InTech China

Unit 405, Office Block, Hotel Equatorial Shanghai No.65, Yan An Road (West), Shanghai, 200040, China 中国上海市延安西路65号上海国际贵都大饭店办公楼405单元 Phone: +86-21-62489820 Fax: +86-21-62489821 © 2012 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution 3.0</u> <u>License</u>, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

IntechOpen

IntechOpen