

Phytoremediation Potentials of Indigenous Ruderal Plants Growing on Soil Contaminated with Potentially Toxic Elements within a Petrochemical Refinery Complex

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Abstract

The utilization of indigenous plant species for remediation of polluted soils comes at a low economic and ecological cost when compared with traditional methods. In this study, the phytoremediation potential of indigenous ruderal plants in highly polluted soil within a petrochemical refinery complex was evaluated. First, a survey of the most abundant herbaceous plant species was carried out within the complex during the wet and dry seasons. The concentration of Cd, Ni, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, and Zn in soil and plant samples was determined using Energy Dispersive X-ray Fluorescence. Results show ten herbaceous plant species (*Calopogonium mucunoides*, *Terminalia macroptera*, *Centrosema pubescens*, *Piliostigma thonningii*, *Cochlospermum tinctorum*, *Isoblerlinia tomentosa*, *Monotes kerstingii*, *Detarium microcarpum*, *Paspalum orbiculare*, *Borreria verticillata*) with accumulation factors (of Cd and/Cu) greater of than 1, thus revealing them as metal extractors. Furthermore, they have high above ground biomass due to their rapid vegetative growth, self-sustaining and easy to propagate. There are possibilities of further evaluating and genetically improving metal tolerance traits in some of these plant species in relation to their potential use in phytoremediation programmes in metal-polluted sites.

Keywords: Phytoremediation, Ruderal plants, soil pollution, Phytoextraction, Potentially Toxic Elements.

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INTRODUCTION

Petrochemical refinery companies are designed to separate crude oil into several products like premium motor spirit (PMS), diesel, kerosene, lubricants, waxes, asphalt, ethylene, polyethylene chloride, vinyl chloride monomer (VCM), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), industrial grade methanol, ammonia and others (Odeyemi and Ogunseitan, 1985; Mustapah *et al.*, 2015). The process of refining involves physical and chemical techniques such as fractionation, cracking, hydro-treating, and combination/blending processes which involve the use of several chemicals and may result in the release of environmental pollutants through gas flaring, oil spillage, effluent discharge, or sludge deposition (Asia *et al.*, 2006; Uwidia *et al.*, 2017). These pollutants have been characterised to include heavy metals, hydrocarbons, organic matter, oil and grease, salts, and other potentially toxic compounds (Pathak and Mandalia, 2012).

Although, trace quantities of heavy metals have been reported to occur naturally in the ecosystem (An'ongo *et al.*, 2005; Lar, 2013), deposition of heavy metals in soils from anthropogenic activities has been implicated in an increase in heavy metal concentration above background and recommended levels (Maine *et al.*, 2004; Bako *et al.*, 2008; Tanimu *et al.*, 2013). Heavy metals are important components of agro-allied products such as pesticides, herbicides, fertilizers; manufacturing, and other synthetic products such as paints and batteries (USDA, 2000). Mining activities, industrial, municipal and domestic wastes are important sources of heavy metal pollution to the environment (Mathews-Amune and Kakulu, 2013). An excessive concentration of heavy metals in the environment is of great concern because of their non-biodegradability. Therefore, their persistence in the environment portends health hazard to plants, and animals and consequently trigger ecological imbalances in the ecosystem (Ekmekyaper *et al.*, 2012; Olayinka *et al.*

al., 2021). Another concern that high concentrations of heavy metals raise is their ability to bioaccumulate across the food chain, with members that are high up the food chain having a concentration of such metals several times higher than what is obtainable in the environment (Bako *et al.*, 2009a; Bako *et al.*, 2009b; Megateli *et al.*, 2009; Kurhaluk *et al.*, 2021). Some of them like Zn, Fe, Mn, and Cu are essential plant nutrients; others like Pb, Hg, and Cr do not have any known use to plants (Bako *et al.*, 2005; Tanimu *et al.*, 2013).

Contaminated soil is traditionally remediated through confinement, soil washing, thermal deposition, or excavation. These methods are expensive and the consequence is an irreversible damage to soil structure, biology, and fertility (Alkorta *et al.*, 2010; Foroozanfar, 2017). Phytoremediation utilizes the roles of plants in the biogeochemical nutrient cycle and pollutants as a low-cost alternative (Robinson *et al.*, 2009). Phytoremediation utilizes the ability of some tolerant plants and other microorganisms to grow in the presence of PTEs levels that are toxic to other plants and degrade, extract, hold, or immobilize Potentially Toxic Elements (PTEs) from soils (Souza *et al.*, 2021; Wei *et al.*, 2021). In some other cases, the reduction of the mobility of toxic elements in contaminated soils is achieved by phytostabilization, whereas in the case of phytoextraction, the plant absorbs and removes PTEs from the soil and takes them up into shoots and leaves (Awa and Hadibarata, 2020). The capacity to remove or tolerate PTEs in the shoot of plants is dependent on the level of pollution present in the soil, the physiological features of the species, and their selectivity for PTEs (Mandzhieva *et al.*, 2016; Tapia *et al.*, 2020). Considering this, bioprospecting of plants growing in polluted environments is an efficient approach for identifying plants that may be useful both for phytostabilization and phytoextraction purposes (Chapman *et al.*, 2019; Monaci *et al.*, 2020). Spontaneous vegetation arises from strong environmental pressure due to the selection of tolerance mechanisms that allow these plants to grow under the stressful conditions prevailing at polluted sites. Several studies have shown that plant species from polluted areas have a higher exclusion efficiency, or higher accumulation and tolerance to potentially harmful concentrations of PTEs than those from non-polluted areas (Schat *et al.*, 2000). Indigenous ruderal plants provide a naturally occurring gene pool for the selection of pollution tolerant species that have adapted to growth and development under less than ideal environments. Depending on their effectiveness, such plants may be exploited either in their natural state or after genetic modification, as an alternative "green" technology for the clean-up strategies of metal-polluted sites. Examples of plants with remarkable tolerance of contaminated sites include *Biscutella laevigata* (Pošćić *et al.*, 2015), *Agrostis canina* (Bech *et al.*, 2012a, 2012b), *Agrostis capillaris* (Teodoro *et al.*, 2020) and *Lotus hispidus* (Matanzas *et al.*, 2021).

Mature plants of tolerant species which arise from the degradation of habitats could serve as candidates for phytoremediation programmes, especially when they are easy to propagate, self-sustaining, fast-growing, and possess a high above-ground biomass (Ligenfelter and Hartwig, 2007; Matanzas *et al.*, 2021).

Soils and plants around the Kaduna Petrochemical and Refinery Company and River Kaduna have been reported to have concentrations of heavy metals above permissible limits (Bako *et al.*, 2005; Ombugadu *et al.*, 2014) but previous studies have focused on biomonitoring of air pollution by heavy metals (Bako *et al.*, 2005, Bako *et al.*, 2008; Bako *et al.*, 2009a; Bako *et al.*, 2009b) and documentation of visual symptoms expressed by some ruderal plant species (Bako *et al.*, 2013).

In this study, we hypothesize that indigenous ruderal plants growing on soils contaminated with PTEs will bioaccumulate PTEs to concentrations that are considered phytotoxic in their shoots. This study was therefore carried out to identify the most suitable indigenous ruderal plant species thriving in soils contaminated with PTEs as candidates for phytoremediation programmes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The Kaduna Refinery and Petrochemical Company (KRPC) is located on Long. 7 29' 01.5"E, Lat. 10 33' 08.96"N and an altitude of 615m above sea level and is a subsidiary of the Nigerian National Petroleum Company (NNPC). It has a capacity of refining 100,000 barrels of crude oil per day, started operations in 1980. It is capable of refining both light and naphthenic Nigerian crude oil and the heavier paraffinic crude oils imported from Brazil, Venezuela, and Kuwait for the production of asphalt, lubricants, and waxes. It is built inland in Kaduna town and fed by a 600 km pipeline from the Niger-Delta oil fields (Odeyemi and Ogunseitan, 1985) (Figure 1). Kaduna is located in the Southern Guinea savannah ecological zone of Nigeria, with distinct wet and dry seasons. The wet season in Kaduna runs from May to October and is warm and humid, while the dry season from November to April, is cold and dry due to the harmattan wind that blows from the northeast toward the southwest. The average monthly temperature of Kaduna is between 26 to 34 °C (Bununu *et al.*, 2015).

Sample Collection

Soil and plant samples were collected in both dry and wet seasons from triplicate 5m by 5m quadrats in four sampling locations within the KRPC complex. Soil samples were collected at 0-15cm depth using a soil auger. The shoots of herbaceous plants with relative abundance greater than five per quadrant were clipped with a pair of secateurs for heavy metal analysis. Identification of plant samples was confirmed in the

herbarium of the Department of Botany, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

Sample Preparation

Plant samples were washed with tap water and then with distilled water to remove debris and surface contamination. Samples were then bulked and air-dried to remove excess moisture. Similarly, samples of the soils collected from each location were bulked into composite samples and air-dried for three days (72 hours). Dried plant and soil samples were ground using a porcelain mortar and pestle and sieved to attain a uniform particle size. Each sample was put in a small transparent polythene bag and labeled.

Metal Analysis

Analysis of the elemental content of the samples was done using the Energy-dispersive X-ray fluorescence Spectroscopy (EDXRF) method as described by Funtua (1999).

Bioconcentration Factor (Enrichment Coefficient)

This estimates the capacity of plants to accumulate metals and was computed as previously reported (Zu *et al.*, 2005) for each species as:

$$\frac{\text{Mean concentration of metal in the plant}}{\text{Mean concentration of metal in the soil}}$$

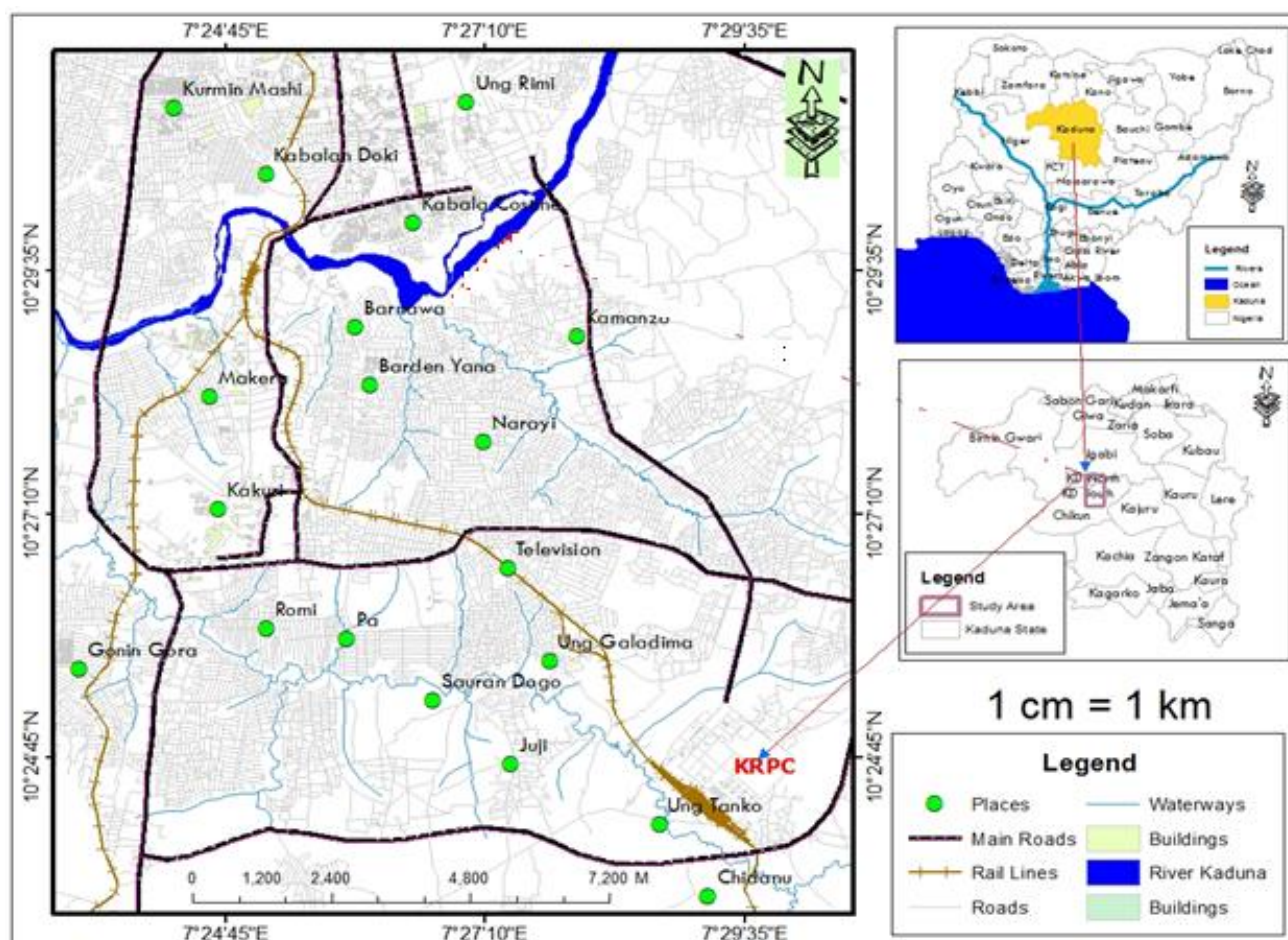


Figure 1: Map of Kaduna Metropolis Showing Kaduna Refinery and Petrochemical Company (KRPC)

Source: GIS Lab Department of Geography and Environmental Management A.B.U. Zaria

RESULTS

Plant species and their relative frequency

A total of 19 plant species belonging to 11 botanic families which had a relative abundance of 5 per quadrat were collected for this study (Table 1).

Metal concentration in Soils and Plant samples

The mean concentration of metals generally followed this order $\text{Fe} > \text{Mn} > \text{Zn} > \text{Ni} > \text{Cr} > \text{Cu} > \text{Cd}$ in the wet season and this order $\text{Fe} > \text{Mn} > \text{Zn} > \text{Cr} > \text{Cu} > \text{Ni} > \text{Cd}$. Only Fe showed significant variation between seasons (Table 2). In general terms, the soil samples analysed showed high contamination with Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, and Zinc when compared to guideline values on Table 3.

Table 1: Herbaceous plant species collection from Kaduna Refinery and Petrochemical Company, Kaduna, Nigeria

S/No.	Plant	Family	Voucher Number
1	<i>Alichunea caudifolia</i> (Schum & Thonn)	Euphorbiaceae	ABU09001
2	<i>Borreria verticillata</i> L.	Rubiaceae	ABU0372
3	<i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i> Desv.	Papilionaceae	ABU07940
4	<i>Centrosema pubescens</i> Mart.ex.Benth	Papilionaceae	ABU05231
5	<i>Cochlospermum tinctorum</i> Perr.ex	Cochlospermaceae	ABU06512
6	<i>Detarium microcarpum</i> Guill. & Perr.	Caesalpiniaceae	ABU03421
7	<i>Dichrostachys cinerea</i> (L.) Wight & Arn.	Mimosaceae	ABU03491
8	<i>Euphorbia hyssopifolia</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	ABU06023
9	<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i> Lam	Lamiaceae	ABU08231
10	<i>Isoberlinia doka</i> Craib & Stapf	Caesalpiniaceae	ABU09005
11	<i>Isoberlinia tomentosa</i> (Harms) Craib & Stapf	Caesalpiniaceae	ABU01103
12	<i>Monotes kerstingii</i> A.Dc	Dipterocarpaceae	ABU04251
13	<i>Paspalum orbiculare</i> Bergius	Poaceae	ABU01849
14	<i>Piliostigma thonningii</i> (Schumach.)MilneRedh	Caesalpiniaceae	ABU02089
15	<i>Securinega virosa</i> (Roxb.ex Wild.) Baill	Euphorbiaceae	ABU07812
16	<i>Setaria barbata</i> (Lam) Kunth	Poaceae	ABU090032
17	<i>Sida acuta</i> Bunrn f.	Malvaceae	ABU08021
18	<i>Spermacoce verticellata</i> L.	Rubiaceae	ABU01649
19	<i>Terminalia macroptera</i> L	Combretaceae	ABU09024

Table 2: Mean concentration of Potentially Toxic Elements (mg/kg) of soils collected from Kaduna Refinery and Petrochemical Company (KRPC)

		Cr	Cu	Ni	Cd	Fe	Mn	Zn
Dry	Mean	6.65E+04	4.55E+04	2.49E+04	3.87E+02	2.22E+07	3.01E+05	2.48E+05
	Standard Error	1.99E+04	2.07E+04	7.84E+03	3.87E+02	6.98E+06	9.88E+04	6.04E+04
Wet	Mean	4.56E+04	4.85E+03	1.92E+05	6.37E+02	4.98E+07	1.00E+06	8.16E+05
	Standard Error	1.08E+04	1.61E+03	5.24E+04	3.18E+02	5.02E+06	2.97E+05	1.95E+05
p value		0.32ns	0.19ns	0.09ns	0.64ns	0.03*	0.09ns	0.05ns

ns: not significant $p \geq 0.05$, *: significant $p < 0.05$

Table 3: Recommended Levels of Heavy Metals in Soils (mg/kg)

Recommending Agencies		Cr	Cu	Ni	Cd	Fe	Mn	Zn
WHO (WHO, 1996)		100	30	80	NA	NA	NA	200
Mexican Agricultural soils (ppm) (Davila <i>et al.</i> , 2012)				1600.00	37.00	NA	NA	NA
USEP (USEP 1993)		3,000	4,300	75.00		NA	NA	7500
Japan (MOE Japan 2006)		250			150	NA	NA	NA
Canada (Canadian Council of Ministers of Environment 2009)	Agricultural	64	63	50	14	NA	NA	NA
	Residential/Park	64	63	50	10	NA	NA	NA
	Commercial	87	91	50	22	NA	NA	NA
	Industrial	87	91	50	22	NA	NA	NA
Austria (ECDGE 2010)		100	60- 100	50- 70	1 - 2	NA	NA	NA
Germany (ECDGE 2010)		60	40	50	1	NA	NA	NA
France (ECDGE 2010)		150	100	50	2	NA	NA	NA
Luxembourg (ECDGE 2010)		100-200	50 – 140	30 – 75	1-3	NA	NA	NA
Netherlands (ECDGE 2010)		30	40	15	0.5	NA	NA	NA
Sweden (ECDGE 2010)		60	40	30	0.4	NA	NA	NA
United Kingdom (ECDGE 2010)		400	135	75	3	NA	NA	NA

Plant species showed concentration of Cr from below detectable limits to 6,710 mg/kg; Cu from 2,550 to 86,970 mg/kg; Ni from 640 to 12, 600 mg/kg; Cd from below detectable limits to 1,320 mg/kg; Fe from 31 to 208,800 mg/kg; Mn from 21,100 to 115,200 mg/kg; and Zn from 1,200 to 341,560 mg/kg (Table 4). These high

concentrations of this metals falls above what is considered to be phytotoxic to plants (Table 5).

Bioconcentration Factor (BCF) of Metals in Plants

Based on the BCF, the plants studied showed variable accumulation of the metals from the soil. None

of the 19 plants had BCF greater than 1 for Cr, Ni, Fe, Mn and Zn. Only *Centrosema pubescens* had a BCF > 1 for Cd, while *Calopogonium mucunoides*, *Borreria verticellata*, *Terminalia macroptera*, *Centrosema*

pubescens, *Piliostigma thonningii*, *Isoblerlinia tomentosa*, *Monotes kerstingii*, *Detarium microcarpum*, and *Paspalum orbiculare* had BCF > 1 for Cu (Table 6).

Table 4: Metal concentration of Potentially Toxic Elements (mg/kg) in plants collected from Kaduna Petrochemical and Refinery complex, Kaduna

Season	Location	Plant/Soil	Cr	Cu	Ni	Cd	Fe	Mn	Zn
Dry	KRPC 1	<i>Isoblerlinia tomentosa</i>	1,230	5,200	1,020	300	31,000	44,500	46,440
		<i>Isoblerlinia doka</i>	2,260	11,200	2,040	1,300	117,400	39,000	63,000
	KRPC2	<i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i>	1,400	10,000	1,730	720	177,500	50,430	34,420
		<i>Spermacoce verticellata</i>	3,760	20,000	4,400	-	208,800	39,330	12,670
	KRPC3	<i>Spermacoce verticellata</i>	-	6,800	640	-	107,100	42,510	12,670
		<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i>	910	6,400	770	800	168,000	37,000	29,000
		<i>Dichrostachys cinerea</i>	1,110	22,000	4,950	-	139,400	30,250	23,200
		<i>Sida acuta</i>	2,260	11,600	2,440	900	81,700	33,420	12,000
		<i>Euphorbia hyssopifolia</i>	1,430	9,600	1,180	850	137,300	70,840	54,140
Wet	KRPC 1	<i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i>	2,420	11,200	950	130	190,320	44,000	38,420
		<i>Setaria barbata</i>	730	2,550	1,230	520	169,470	87,980	35,400
		<i>Borreria verticillata</i>	2,300	12,500	810	30	157,880	90,820	28,350
		<i>Centrosema pubescens</i>	-	7,650	3,400	1,320	186,000	103,000	80,900
	KRPC 2	<i>Terminalia macroptera</i>	1,600	19,100	1,970	90	157,630	71,470	66,810
		<i>Piliostigma thonningii</i>	-	11,730	6,560	830	154,300	82,100	164,000
	KRPC 3	<i>Cochlospermum tinctorum</i>	6,710	19,380	1,190	-	150,000	40,390	41,340
		<i>Isoblerlinia tomentosa</i>	-	31,000	15,000	600	165,440	61,070	137,580
		<i>Terminalia macroptera</i>	-	18,200	1,670	-	153,220	21,100	15,470
		<i>Monotes kerstingii</i>	1,060	8,670	5,460	80	165,000	70,590	165,130
		<i>Detarium microcarpum</i>	-	15,800	12,600	280	161,700	355,000	341,560
	KRPC 4	<i>Paspalum orbiculare</i>	1,600	8,500	1,960	110	149,690	108,400	58,510
		<i>Alichunea caudifolia</i>	1,100	7,500	1,850	170	163,420	115,200	49,600
		<i>Securinega virosa</i>	-	8,500	1,200	-	151,260	24,990	10,430
		<i>Borreria verticellata</i>	2,750	10,200	2,000	70	-	79,900	70,900

- BCF not computed because metal concentration in soil/plant is below detectable limit

Table 5: Range Values for Heavy Metals in Vegetation (mg/kg)

Metals	NORMAL	DEFICIENCY	EXCESSIVE	PHYTOTOXIC
Cd	NA	NA	NA	5 – 30
Zn	27-150	10 -20	100 – 400	70 – 400
Cr	0.1- 0.5	NA	5- 30	75-100
Cu	5.1-30	2 – 5	20-100	60-125
Ni	0.1 -5	NA	10-100	100

Table 6: Bioconcentration factor of metals in plant samples collected from the complex of Kaduna Refinery and Petrocheical Company, Kaduna

		Plant species	Cr	Ni	Cd	Cu	Fe	Mn	Zn
Wet	KRPC 1	<i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i>	0.06	0.01	0.14	2.83	0.00	0.05	0.05
		<i>Setaria barbata</i>	0.02	0.01	0.55	0.64	0.00	0.11	0.04
		<i>Borreria verticillata</i>	0.06	0.00	0.03	3.16	0.00	0.11	0.03
		<i>Centrosema pubescens</i>	0.00	0.02	1.39	1.93	0.00	0.12	0.09
	KRPC 2	<i>Terminalia macroptera</i>	0.05	0.01	0.09	7.32	0.00	0.05	0.06
		<i>Piliostigma thonningii</i>	0.00	0.02	0.86	4.49	0.00	0.05	0.14
	KRPC 3	<i>Cochlospermum tinctorium</i>	0.10	0.01	-	2.43	0.00	0.07	0.09
		<i>Isoblerlinia tomentosa</i>	0.00	0.13	-	3.89	0.00	0.10	0.30
		<i>Terminalia macroptera</i>	0.00	0.01	-	2.28	0.00	0.04	0.03
		<i>Monotes kerstingii</i>	0.02	0.05	-	1.09	0.00	0.12	0.36
		<i>Detarium microcarpum</i>	0.00	0.11	-	1.98	0.00	0.59	0.74
	KRPC 4	<i>Paspalum orbiculare</i>	0.02	0.02	-	1.07	0.00	0.18	0.13
		<i>Alichunea caudifolia</i>	0.02	0.02	-	0.94	0.00	0.19	0.11

		Plant species	Cr	Ni	Cd	Cu	Fe	Mn	Zn
Dry		<i>Securinega virosa</i>	0.00	0.01	-	1.07	0.00	0.04	0.02
		<i>Borreria verticellata</i>	0.04	0.02	-	1.28	0.00	0.13	0.15
	KRPC 1	<i>Isoblerlinia tomentosa</i>	0.02	0.03	0.06	-	0.00	0.21	0.14
		<i>Isoblerlinia doka</i>	0.03	0.05	0.13	-	0.01	0.18	0.19
	KRPC2	<i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i>	0.04	0.13	0.41	0.62	0.01	0.26	0.26
		<i>Spermacoce verticellata</i>	0.12	0.32	0.83	0.00	0.01	0.20	0.10
	KRPC3	<i>Spermacoce verticellata</i>	0.00	0.03	0.27	-	0.00	0.09	0.05
		<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i>	0.01	0.04	0.25	-	0.00	0.07	0.10
		<i>Dichrostachys cinerea</i>	0.01	0.24	0.87	-	0.00	0.06	0.08
		<i>Sida acuta</i>	0.02	0.12	0.46	-	0.00	0.07	0.04
		<i>Euphorbia hyssopifolia</i>	0.01	0.06	0.38	-	0.00	0.14	0.19

Bold values signify high bioconcentration factors

DISCUSSIONS

The higher concentration of metals in soil during the wet season may be attributed to climatic variables such as precipitation, and temperature which interface with topography, drainage, soil structure/texture to determine the physicochemical properties of the soil in a particular location. This differs somewhat from the findings of Najib *et al.*, (2012), who observed a higher concentration of these metals in the dry season than in the wet season in Kangar, Perlis, Malaysia. The bioavailability of metals depends on the aggregate effects of the complex interactions between moisture availability and soil physicochemical properties, metal solubility, pH, type and density of charge on soil colloids, reactive surface area of soil, metal concentration and form, particle size distribution, quantity and reactivity of hydrous oxides, mineralogy, degree of aeration and microbial activity (Cataldo and Widung, 1987). The above acceptable limits of the observed concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, and Zn in soil may be attributed to petrochemical refining in the Refinery complex. Above background values of these metals have been reported wastes generated from petrochemical refineries (Asia *et al.*, 2006; Eregho *et al.*, 2017).

Despite the high concentrations of Cd, Zn, Cr, Cu, and Ni in the plants, they did not show any signs of toxicity. The high concentration may be a consequence of the high values observed in the soils or direct deposition from the atmosphere (Jankowski *et al.*, 2019). Plants vary widely in their ability to tolerate high concentrations of metals in their tissues. This variation is usually natural and dependent on inherent genetic factors. The genetic disposition confers the ability to employ a range of avoidance/exclusion or detoxification mechanisms that enable the plants to cope with high metal loads. These may include the binding of metals (eg Ni and Cr) with amino acids, peptides, and organic acids to form low molecular weight compounds, the formation of phytochelatins, by binding (e.g. Cu and Pb) with sulphur-rich proteins, and cellular adaptations. Other strategies may involve roles for mycorrhiza, the cell wall, extra-cellular exudates, efflux pumping mechanisms in the plasma membrane, and formation of stress proteins, etc (Bako *et al.*, 2005; Kotrba *et al.*, 2009).

Plants such as *Centrosema pubescens*, *Calopogonium mucunoides*, *Borreria verticellata*, *Termunalia macroptera*, *Piliostigma thonningii*, *Isoblerlinia tomentosa*, *Monotes kerstingii*, *Detarium microcarpum*, *Paspalum orbiculare* and *Securinega virosa* with BCF of metals >1.0 have been described as suitable for phytoextraction of the metals for which they show such high BCF (Matanzas *et al.*, 2021). Others that are tolerant to such high metal concentrations but have BCF < 1 may be classified as pseudometallophytes, the low accumulation may be as a result of the low bioavailability of the metals (Fedje *et al.*, 2016; Mesa *et al.*, 2017). These plants may show greater accumulation efficiency in metal availability is higher. The ability of these plants to accumulate high concentration of these metals suggests that they may have a good potential for phytoremediation. No hyper-accumulator was observed in this study. Hyper-accumulators are plants that can accumulate at least 0.1% wt of Cu, Cd, Cr, Pb, Ni, and Co or 1% wt of Zn and Mn (Baker and Brooks, 1989). There are possibilities for genetic modification of plants to enhance their capacity for metal tolerance (Kotrba *et al.*, 2009).

Irrespective of metal concentration in the soil, some of the plants have been noted to show exceptional capacity to accumulate some of these metals and may constitute important excluders of these metals: *Cochlospermum tinctorum* for Cr; *Isoblerlinia tomentosa*, *Spermacoce verticellata*, and *Dichrostachys cinerea* for Cu; *Isoblerlinia tomentosa* for Ni, *Isoblerlinia doka* and *Centrosema pubescens* for Cd; *Centrosema pubescens* for Fe; and *Detarium microcarpum* for Mn and Zn.

The phytoremediation capacity of the plants studied herein has been reported by other scholars, which supports the findings in this study. For example *Centrosema pubescens* has been reported to decontaminate crude oil polluted soils (Nwaichi *et al.*, 2011). Uwalaka *et al.*, (2019) also reported the efficiency of *Centrosema pubescens* to remediate Pb, Cd, and Cu from polluted soils.

Calopogonium mucunoides have been shown to tolerate a high concentration of Boron and have the capacity as a phytostabiliser and phytoextractor of Boron polluted soils (DaSilva *et al.*, 2021). Adewole and Bulu (2012) also reported the effectiveness of *C. mucunoides* in the phytoremediation of crude oil contaminated soil when compost organic fertilizer is applied. Arcanjo *et al.*, (2016) reported the accumulation of Arsenic in roots of *Borreria verticillata* on an arsenic-contaminated site. *Piliostigma thonningii* has been reported as one of the early colonizers of abandoned mining sites and may thus have some tolerance to some heavy metals (Zine *et al.*, 2020).

Regarding *Borreria verticillata*, *Cochlospermum tinctorum*, *Isobertia tomentosa*, *Monotes kerstingii*, *Detarium microcarpum*, *Paspalum orbiculare*, *Terminalia microcarpon* to the best of our knowledge, no specific studies have been done in their relation to phytoremediation.

CONCLUSION

The study of a petrochemical refinery complex that started operation in 1980 has high concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, Mn, Fe, and Zn in soils revealed diverse species of plants tolerant to heavy metals. Ten (10) plant species were identified as good candidates for phytoremediation because of their high bioconcentration factors. In addition, they generally produce high above-ground biomass, due to rapid vegetative growth. These plants include *Calopogonium mucunoides*, *Terminalia macroptera*, *Centrosema pubescens*, *Piliostigma thonningii*, *Cochlospermum tinctorum*, *Isobertia tomentosa*, *Monotes kerstingii*, *Detarium microcarpum*, *Paspalum orbiculare*, *Borreria verticillata*.

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Author Contributions

Sunday Paul Bako and Augustine U. Ezealor contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by all authors. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Yahuza Tanimu and Sunday Paul Bako commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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