# Jurnal Akta Kimia Indonesia INDONESIA CHIMICA ACTA

Sulawesi



**View Article Online** 

View Journal View Issue

# PAPER

Cite this: Indo. Chim. Acta., 2022, 15, 1.

Received Date: 9 May 2022 Accepted Date: 6 September 2022

Keywords:

Pollutants; PAHs; sponge; sediment; seawater; fishes; starfish; marine tourism;

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.20956/ica.v 15i1.20898

# Introduction

Makassar City Marine Tourism is an activity whose activities are carried out in marine areas or tourism in coastal areas and surrounding islands, including the surface (Marzuki et al., 2020). The Marine Tourism Area (MTA) of Makassar City consists of several islands, namely Kodingareng Keke Island, Barrang Lompo, Barrang Caddi, Samalona and Langkay Island. This area is a source of regional budget revenue for Makassar City, so regulations and models for managing the marine tourism area are needed in order to remain friendly to every visitor (Marzuki et al., 2021). The MTA architectural arrangement is important to pamper visitors, but it is also very

<sup>1</sup>Chemical Engineering Program, Fajar University, Panakkukang, Makassar 90231, South Sulawesi, Indonesia; \*Corresponding author: ismailmz@unifa.ac.id

#### Identification and Distribution of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbon **Pollutants** Coastal in Ecosystem the Marine Tourism South Area.

Ismail Marzuki<sup>1\*</sup>, Nur Rahmi Putri Lubis<sup>1</sup>, Irham Pratama<sup>1</sup>, Noviar Nurdin Kasim<sup>1</sup>

Abstract. Today's marine tourism is experiencing rapid growth to meet the global needs of the world's population. Exploitation of marine biological wealth is no less important because it involves human life. The marine ecosystem must be of high quality and free from exposure to toxic pollutants, such as PAHs. The marine ecosystem must be of high quality and free from exposure to toxic pollutants, such as PAHs, microplastics. This research aims to provide data and information about the types and abundance of aromatic hydrocarbon compounds in sediments, sea water and marine biota around KKI waters. The analytical method to meet these objectives uses GS/MS. The status of marine tourism areas, especially around KKI waters, is declared polluted by PAHs. The types of PAHs identified in each sample at the three sampling stations were dominated by naphthalene (NL), phenanthrene (PT), pyrene (PR) and azulene (AZ). The average total abundance of PAHs in sponge samples (±70.51%), sediments (±67.30%), followed by seawater samples (±64.85%), starfish samples (±41.80%) and fish (±26.74%). The NL type PAHs were found in all types of samples and at all stations, where the PAHs were thought to originate from industrial, hospital, and household activities. The status of marine tourism, especially around the KKI waters, for tourists needs to be careful and alert, because the KKI area is not completely free from harmful and toxic pollutants, so it is a risk to health. Makassar City TMA managers are encouraged to make efforts to reduce the rate of increase in the concentration of regional PAHs, such as providing periodic data and information about harmful pollutants, education for every tourist to care about waste and planting coastal plants such as mangroves which have a biofilter function against toxic pollutants.

> important to provide guarantees to every visitor related to the security, safety and health aspects of the attraction (Bergmann et al., 2015). Therefore, the local government needs to protect the tourist area so that it remains safe and worth visiting by many people, while providing protection for the marine life in it. In this area there are various types of marine biota that need to be maintained in quality or not exposed to global trend pollutants (microplastics, pesticide residues, PAHs, heavy metals and medical waste) (Brodie et al., 2019).

> The coastal ecosystem of the marine tourism area of Samalona Island is one of the islands visited by many domestic and foreign tourists. Tourist activity on the island is quite dense and occurs almost every day, so the interaction between visitors and the coastal ecosystem,

# PAPER

especially sea water as a means of bathing is very intense. (Marzuki et al., 2021a). In this area, there are also many fish and other marine biota, such as sponges, starfish, seagrass (Souza et al., 2017). If the coastal ecosystem is exposed to one of the global trend categories of pollutants, for example hydrocarbon components, especially polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, of course, the ecosystem has a direct or indirect adverse effect on the ecology of the coastal environment, tourists, and even the wider human population (Obire et al., 2020).

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are one of the toxic and carcinogenic pollutants. Marine waters are very vulnerable to contamination by PAHs, including the ecosystems in it. The presence of PAHs components and their descent in large volume water media, such as in the oceans are generally not visible to the naked eye (Bendouz et al., 2017; Gran et a., 2022). Exposure to PAHs in marine areas comes from several sources, both natural sources through geochemical cycles, industrial and human activities, such as petroleum processing, manufacturing, ship transportation, marine tourism activities and household waste. (Baburam Feto, 2021; Mao & Guan 2016). These PAHs components eventually empties into the sea due to the influence of gravity and natural cycles in a certain period of time. Ocean areas sometimes become giant containers and contain many types of pollutants from various types of waste. This condition has a negative impact on the sustainability of marine ecosystems and threatens the lives of various types of biota in it, as well as can reduce the quality of the sea as a friendly area for fish, marine biota and even have an impact on human health problems (Pita et al., 2018).

PAHs and their derivative components are susceptible to being found in the environment, especially in coastal ecosystems with various types, but the concern for analysis in this study are 16 types, ranging from simple components and moderate toxic properties with 2 and 3 ring structures, to complex structural components and high toxicity with 4 and 5 rings., as recommended by ASTM and National Academic of Science (Agrawal et al., 2018). The 16 types of PAHs that need to be watched out for, as recommended by ASTM, are based on the findings of these PAHs components in the petroleum processing industry which are estimated to have the potential to exist in the free environment, either naturally occurring or due to exploration and exploitation activities (Akoto et al., 2016; Jańczuk et al., 2021).

Pollutants formed by the elements carbon and hydrogen, not just PAHs. Microplastic is also a type of pollutant, which in the last two decades has become a trending topic by many countries in the world, because it causes problems both for the environment and for food. Sources of microplastic pollutants generally come from human activities in meeting their daily needs (Avana et al., 2022; Burhan et al., 2021). Microplastics are the result of decomposition or slurry of plastic materials that undergo destruction and degradation due to the interaction process with various other components through physical, chemical, and biological processes resulting in the destruction of plastic polymers that occur naturally in the environment (Ambumani & Kakkar 2018). In terms of toxicological aspects, microplastics are classified as dangerous pollutants for humans and food sources and include pollutant materials for the environment (Castelluccio et al., 2022).

PAH type pollutants in the environment, especially in the marine environment, may come from many sources, for example natural sources due to seepage of geological activities, ship transportation activities, offshore oil production, washing of tankers in the form of ballast, leakage of underwater oil distribution pipelines, oil spills due to shipwrecks, petroleum exploration and exploitation and industrial activities, coal-fired power generation waste, including industrial waste, household waste and atmospheric origin (Chaerul et al., 2021; Igiri et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2006). All of these sources, because the dynamics of life in anthropogenic processes can lead to marine waters as pollutants that have toxic, carcinogenic, and even mutagenic properties (Rusli et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019).

Exposure to PAHs in marine ecosystems has the potential to cause chain effects, not only on marine life but can target living things which in the end in the ecotoxicological process cause health effects on humans (Marzuki et al., 2021b). The volume and types of PAHs that are estimated to enter the marine environment tend to get bigger over time, the dynamics and human needs are very varied (Mustafa et al., 2022). This condition is certainly a serious concern for various groups because of concerns about ecological hazards to living things and the environment (Garba et al., 2022).

The development of human life in the last three decades, with the need for tourism, has led to a trend of growth and development of natural and marine tourism. The need for marine tourism of the global community today is answered by the Makassar City Government by offering marine tourism destinations which include five small islands that are included in the administration of the Makassar City Tourism Office, namely Langkay Island, Barrang Caddi, Barrang Lompo, Samalona, and Kodingareng Keke (Marzuki et al., 2015). This Makassar City marine tourism destination is close to Soekarno-Hatta Harbor, fish landing port, and directly adjacent to Losari Beach with typical culinary activities. Along Losari Beach, several industries such as dairy factories, hotels and hospitals operate (Marzuki et al., 2021c). This situation is considered that the Makassar City Marine Tourism destination is vulnerable to harmful pollutants, such as PAHs, microplastics, medical waste residues and even pesticide residues from household activities (Marzuki et al., 2020a; Essumang et al., 2009).

The selection of Kodingareng Keke Island as the sampling location was based on the consideration that the island was visited by both domestic and foreign tourists, especially on weekends. The types of samples of fish, sponges, starfish, sediments and seawater around the island are objects that are in direct contact with tourists, so it is feared if these samples are contaminated with hydrocarbon pollutants, especially PAHs, it is considered to have direct or indirect health effects direct.

Types of pollutants that may be exposed to the waters around Kodingareng Keke Island, not only PAHs, but also other pollutants, such as microplastics, pesticide residues, medical waste and others, however PAHs were chosen as the object of research, because of their carcinogenic and mutagenic properties. The toxic nature of these PAHs is important to investigate, because they have an impact on the health of marine ecosystems as well as on humans, so that data and information are needed for the sake of vigilance and prevention of every visitor who does marine tourism on the island.

Models and methods that can be used to prevent and minimize the volume and ecological impact of potential PAH contaminants in the Marine Tourism Area (MTA) of Makassar City, include: (1) the manager of the tourist destination is expected to provide education to the surrounding community and tourists to care about waste properly. do not throw garbage, especially types of plastic waste directly in the MTA area (Marzuki et al., 2017). (2) The MTA area should provide biota-based tourism and a natural atmosphere by planting mangroves at certain points, because mangroves have a dual function apart from being a biofilter of various pollutants, as well as housing that can invite various types of biota and coastal communities to make the mangrove population as a habitat. habitats and shelters that provide a lot of nutrients, even mangroves can bring out a natural view of the MTA area (Fitri et al., 2021; Marzuki et al., 2020b). (3) Availability of data and information about the quality and feasibility of the Makassar City MTA ecosystem, in particular whether it is free from exposure to PAH pollutants and other types of pollutants (Marzuki et al., 2017). This third point is the study material and the purpose of the research.

# **Experimental**

# Materials

The materials used are sediment samples, sea water, sponges, fish, Starfish. Each type of sample consists of three kinds obtained at three different stations. Other materials, physiological 0.9% NaCl, N-hexane for GC, Standard PAH 16 mix ASTM (Supelco), Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> pa, NaOH pa, sterile seawater and ethanol.

### Equipment

Equipment used, including: Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) Agilent Technologies 7890A, Set Portable Water Quality AZ 8361, a set of glassware (pyrex), stainless steel mesh filter 5 mm, full box, vacuum pump, pestle and mortar, separating funnel, reflux apparatus set, indicator paper, 200 mesh sieve (Marzuki et al., 2015a). and other equipment which is supporting equipment.

#### **Characterization and Sampling**

There were fifteen kinds of samples, all of which were obtained around the waters of Kodingareng Keke Island (KKI), one of the islands included in the MTA. This sample was obtained at three sampling stations around KKI waters with station codes ST 1, ST 2 and ST 3. respectively.

Seawater conditions at the sampling point (station) and physical characteristics observed at each station, such as sampling coordinates, pH, salinity, TDS, HDL, and others (Table 1 and 2).

| Sampling | Coordinate         | Salinity | Depth   |
|----------|--------------------|----------|---------|
| station  | Coorumate          | (‰)      | MSL (m) |
| ርጥ 1     | 5°6'38.12376" S    | 20.2     | 3.6     |
| ST 1     | 119°17'7.76544" E  | 28.3     |         |
| CTT 2    | 5°6'11.62476" S    | 20.4     | 4.3     |
| ST 2     | 119°17'6.06228" E  | 28.1     |         |
| ST 3     | 5°6'23.55372"      | 27.3     | 5.1     |
|          | 190°20'27.62376" E | 27.5     | 5.1     |

For fish, starfish and sponge samples, morphological analysis was carried out to determine the type or species of each sample. Sampling was carried out following standard operating sampling procedures (Kamaruddin et al., 2021; Marzuki et al., 2016). Each sample obtained was put in dark plastic, labeled and put in a full box. The average value of seawater salinity at the three sampling stations (27.9), is relatively not much different from one another (Table 1). When compared with the salinity value of other marine waters, it does not show a striking difference (Shimoda et al., 2006). Salinity of sea water is one of the factors in assessing sea water quality, which in general can be said that the quality of sea water around KKI status is good or there is no indication that the waters are contaminated with hazardous materials, such as the main hydrocarbon components of the type of PAHs (Tereza et al., 2018).

| Sampling<br>station | Temperature<br>(ºC) | рН   | HDL<br>(ds/m) | TDS<br>(mg/L) |
|---------------------|---------------------|------|---------------|---------------|
| ST 1                | 29.4                | 7.47 | 14.46         | 7.41          |
| ST 2                | 30.9                | 7.69 | 14.20         | 7.21          |
| ST 3                | 30.3                | 7.70 | 12.67         | 7.50          |

Physical characteristics of seawater at the sampling station (Table 2), respectively, with the average values of temperature (30.2 °C), pH (7.62), electrical conductivity (13.78 ds/m), and total dissolved solids (7.37 mg/L). ). The value of the seawater physics parameter indicates that the waters around the KKI are in quality status. This means that physically the waters are not indicated to be exposed to harmful pollutants, however, that several types of pollutants in the category of hazardous and toxic materials (PAHs, microplastics, heavy metals, pesticide residues and medical waste) are pollutants that cannot be seen by direct observation (Ye et al., 2022; Baalkhuyur et al., 2018).

The role of KKI Island as one of the marine tourism destinations of Makassar City which is visited by many tourists, so it is necessary to have data on the quality of marine tourism that must be free from contaminants that can interfere with public health (Bayan et al., 2016). The KKI water quality data is needed because of concerns about being polluted by dangerous and toxic pollutants, where the position of KKI is close to pollutant sources such as ports, hospitals, hotels and industries operating along Makassar's Losari beach which is not too far from KKI.

## **Preparation and Measurement**

Sample preparation of sediment, fish, sponges and starfish samples for analysis of the abundance and type of PAH was carried out by reflux extraction method using ethanol to extract all chemical components in the sample. Each sample was cleaned, mashed, and dried in free air until the moisture content was below 7%. Ethanol extraction was then extracted using N-hexane as solvent to separate non-polar components (PAH) (Gemiero et al., 2021; Marzuki et al., 2021d). Running sample of N-hexane extract using GC/MS. The visible chromatograms were analyzed based on retention time, peak number, peak height, abundance and components that were assessed if the percentage of similarity was 90% according to the

instrument library. Preparation of seawater samples for analysis of the abundance and types of PAHs was carried out by filtering the seawater samples first, then extracted using ethanol in a 250 mL separating funnel, the ratio of sample to solvent = 1: 2 (Kappler et al., 2018). The ethanol extract was further extracted in a 250 mL separatory funnel using N-hexane as solvent. Extract N-hexane who is running using GC/MS. Note: the addition of sufficient Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> can be done before running using GC/MS, if the sample is said to be contaminated with water components (Hermabessiere et al., 2018).

# **Result and Discussion**

The marine tourism destination of Makassar City presents the diversity of marine life, the beauty of the island, and the culinary menu of various types of fish. This condition is very important to provide information about the quality of sea water and marine biota in the tourist destination area. Morphological identification of marine biota, such as fish and various other types of marine biota, including the quality of sea water itself, needs to be done, because these objects interact a lot with the general public.

**Table 3.** Morphology marine biota (fish, sponge and starfish)

 samples based on sampling stations

| Sampling station | Fishes                     | Sponges                 | Starfish             |
|------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| ST 1             | Pomacentrus<br>Moluccensis | Clathria<br>Reinwardtii | <i>Holothuria</i> sp |
| ST 2             | Chrysiptera<br>Unimaculata | <i>Clathria</i> Sp      | <i>Tridagna</i> sp   |
| ST 3             | Chromis<br>viridis         | Plakortis<br>nigra      | Linckia<br>Laevigata |

The morphology and types of fish, sponge and starfish samples obtained at each station were different (Table 3). This difference occurs because the sampling is done randomly, where the sample acquisition is carried out according to what was found at the time of sampling. The different types of sponge fish and starfish at each sampling station indicate that the area is rich in marine biota populations (Marzuki et al., 2021). It is this diversity of marine life that needs to be maintained and preserved, so that it can be exploited by the community in the long term. One way to preserve the diversity and population of marine biota is to prevent pollution of harmful pollutants such as PAHs, microplastics, medical waste and exposure to heavy metals (Akinde & Iwuozor, 2016).

The types of chemical components identified in the sediment samples at three different stations. The number of hydrocarbon components corresponds to the number of peaks seen at each station, namely ST 1 = 11 components,

ST 2 = 12 compounds and ST 3 = 11 hydrocarbon compounds.

**Table 4.** Types and distribution of PAHs in sediment samples

 based on sampling stations

| Sampling   | Peak   | Retention | Quality | Abundance | Compound |  |
|--|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|--|
| station  | number | time (S)  | (%)     | (%)       | name     |  |
|  | 3      | 9.168     | 91      | 64.312    | NL       |  |
| ST 1   | 5      | 13.205    | 96      | 1.153     | PT       |  |
| 51 1   | 7      | 15.549    | 90      | 2.456     | AZ       |  |
|  | 9      | 19.023    | 91      | 1.021     | PR       |  |
|  | 3      | 9.167     | 91      | 66.021    | NL       |  |
| ST 2   | 6      | 13.206    | 97      | 0.789     | PT       |  |
| 51 2   | 8      | 16.283    | 92      | 0.568     | FR       |  |
|  | 10     | 19.024    | 91      | 0.324     | PR       |  |
| ST 3   | 2      | 9.168     | 91      | 63.124    | NL       |  |
|  | 4      | 13.205    | 96      | 1.345     | PT       |  |
|  | 7      | 14.234    | 92      | 1.231     | AR       |  |
|  | 9      | 19.023    | 96      | 1.235     | PR       |  |
| Note: NL = Naphthlene; PT = Phenanthrene; AZ = Azulene |        |           |         |           |          |  |

| Note: | NL = Naphthiene; PI = Phenanthrene; AZ = Azulene |
|-------|--|
|       | FR = Fluoranthene: AR = Anthracene: PR = Pvrene  |

A number of these hydrocarbon components identified in the sediment samples at each station consisted of 4 components of the PAH group, according to their respective peak numbers, while the peak numbers that were not listed were non-PAHs hydrocarbon components (Table 4). These data illustrate that these components are non-aromatic hydrocarbon compounds, so they are not listed in the table sequentially (Fang et al., 2020). The types of PAHs identified in the sediment samples, including NL, PT and PR were identified at each station. The AZ component was identified only at ST 1, FR was found at ST 2 and AR was only seen at ST 3 (Table 4). The abundance of FR and AR is also very small, 0.568% for FR and 1.231% for AR respectively (Marzuki et al., 2021a).

**Table 5.** Types and distribution of PAHs in seawaters samples

 based on sampling stations

| Sampling                | Peak   | Retention | Quality | Abundance | Compound |  |
|-------------------------|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|--|
| station                 | number | time (S)  | (%)     | (%)       | name     |  |
|                         | 2      | 9.167     | 91      | 64.221    | NL       |  |
| ST 1                    | 4      | 11.124    | 96      | 1.186     | AC       |  |
|                         | 6      | 13.206    | 92      | 1.643     | РТ       |  |
| ST 2                    | 2      | 9.165     | 93      | 63.046    | NL       |  |
|                         | 4      | 11.125    | 97      | 0.978     | AC       |  |
|                         | 5      | 13.203    | 86      | 0.696     | РТ       |  |
| ST 3                    | 2      | 9.167     | 94      | 63.237    | NL       |  |
|                         | 4      | 13.203    | 91      | 1.217     | РТ       |  |
|                         | 6      | 14.236    | 92      | 0.845     | AR       |  |
| Note: AC = Acenaphthene |        |           |         |           |          |  |

The number of hydrocarbon components identified in seawater samples obtained around KKI waters was 7 species, marked by 7 peaks that were visible at each station, however, only three types of hydrocarbon components were included in the PAHs group. Naphthalene (NL) and Phenanthrene (PT) were found at all stations, while Acenaphthene (AC) was identified at ST 1 and 2, while anthracene (AR) was only found at ST 3 (Table 5). Relatively the same data is also shown in Table 6

The type and number of PAHs components that were identified in seawater were less than those identified in sediment samples. This indicates that the properties of aromatic hydrocarbons can accumulate and are difficult to decompose (Table 5). The presence of PAHs in mud is more difficult to degrade than PAHs in seawater (Coban et al., 2000).

 Table 6. Types and distribution of PAHs in sponges samples

 based on sampling stations

| Sampling | Peak   | Retention | Quality | Abundance | Compound |
|----------|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|
| station  | number | time (S)  | (%)     | (%)       | name     |
|          | 3      | 9.168     | 95      | 64.872    | NL       |
| ST 1     | 5      | 13.204    | 93      | 1.762     | PT       |
| 311      | 7      | 15.547    | 90      | 2.341     | AZ       |
|          | 10     | 19.024    | 91      | 0.872     | PR       |
|          | 3      | 9.169     | 92      | 64.897    | NL       |
| ST 2     | 6      | 13.205    | 93      | 0.659     | PT       |
| 512      | 8      | 14.235    | 92      | 1.125     | AR       |
|          | 9      | 19.205    | 90      | 0.987     | PR       |
| ST 3     | 2      | 9.168     | 91      | 63.945    | NL       |
|          | 4      | 13.205    | 96      | 1.204     | PT       |
|          | 6      | 15.545    | 96      | 10.165    | AZ       |
|          | 8      | 16.283    | 91      | 0.698     | FR       |
|          | 10     | 19.204    | 91      | 1.216     | PR       |

The types and abundances of PAHs that were identified in sponge samples were more varied than those in seawater. The number and types of PAHs components in sponges were relatively the same as those in sediments, namely NL PT, and PR types found at all stations, followed by AZ identified at ST 1 and ST 3, while AR and FR PAHs were identified at ST 2, respectively and ST 3 (Table 6). This can occur with the assumption that the habitat and interactions of sponges are more in the sediment, as well as the nutritional pattern of sponges that suck mud (filter feeder) to capture and filter food as nutrients (Bell et al., 2013).

This assumption is reinforced by the ability of sponges to convert carbon into energy, so it is very possible for sponges to have dynamics with sediment as a form of adaptation in maintaining life so that they continue to grow and develop in mud habitats (Orani et al., 2018).

The peaks that appeared in the fish samples were identical to the hydrocarbon components in detail, 5 peaks at ST 1 and 6 peaks at ST 2 and 3. From these peaks, 2 types of PAHs were identified at ST 1, namely NL and AC, at ST. 2 identified 3 types of PAHs, namely NL, AC and PT, while at ST 3 there were NL and PT (Table 7). Based on the types of PAHs that were identified in fish samples at each station, it showed that there were similarities with the PAHs contaminants identified in seawater samples (Table 5.

| on sampling stations. |        |           |         |           |          |  |
|-----------------------|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|--|
| Sampling              | Peak   | Retention | Quality | Abundance | Compound |  |
| station               | number | time (S)  | (%)     | (%)       | name     |  |
| ST 1                  | 1      | 9.167     | 94      | 24.221    | NL       |  |
| 51 1                  | 3      | 13.204    | 92      | 2.186     | AC       |  |
| ST 2                  | 2      | 9.168     | 93      | 26.046    | NL       |  |
|                       | 4      | 11.124    | 91      | 1.261     | AC       |  |
|                       | 5      | 13.203    | 90      | 0.731     | PT       |  |
| ST 3                  | 2      | 9.167     | 93      | 23.623    | NL       |  |
|                       | 3      | 13.204    | 91      | 2.862     | РТ       |  |
|                       |        |           |         |           |          |  |

**Table 7.** Types and distribution of PAHs in fishes samples based

 on sampling stations.

Based on these data, it can be assumed that there is a relationship between fish and seawater. The interaction of fish with seawater is an absolute habitat, because seawater is a place for fish to grow and develop. If the type of pollutant identified in fish has similarities with the type of pollutant in seawater, it should be so and in accordance with theory (Iyer et al., 2013; Okoro, 20110).

Analysis of the abundance and types of PAHs in starfish samples, showed 7 peaks on ST 1, 9 peaks on ST 2 and 8 peaks on ST 3, Further analysis identified only 3 types of PAHs components on ST 1 and 2, while on ST 3 only 2 type. (Table 8). The type of PAHs identified in the starfish samples at each station, namely NL was found at all stations, AC type was identified at ST 1 and 3, PT type was found at ST 1 and 2 and AR was only found at ST 2.

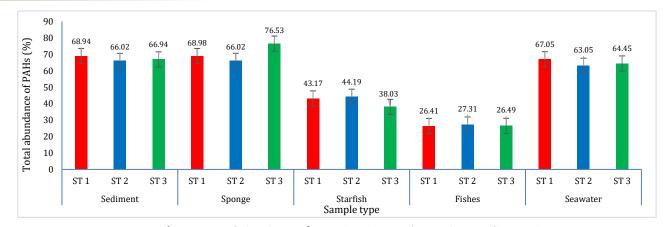
The types and concentrations of PAHs in each sample are

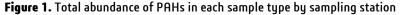
detailed sediments, sponges, fish and in seawater in Table 8 and Figure 1.

Table 8. Types and distribution of PAHs in starfish samples based

| on sampling stations. |   |   |   |   |  |  |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|--|--|
| Peak                  | Retention   | Quality   | Abundance   | Compound  |  |  |
| number                | time (S)  | (%)   | (%)   | name  |  |  |
| 2                     | 9.167   | 94  | 34.325  | NL  |  |  |
| 4                     | 11.123  | 92  | 3.109   | AC  |  |  |
| 6                     | 13.204  | 93  | 5.731   | РТ  |  |  |
| 2                     | 9.168   | 92  | 36.164  | NL  |  |  |
| 5                     | 13.206  | 90  | 3.125   | РТ  |  |  |
| 6                     | 14.235  | 92  | 4.896   | AR  |  |  |
| 2                     | 9.167   | 94  | 33.146  | NL  |  |  |
| 4                     | 11.125  | 92  | 4.892   | AC  |  |  |
|                       | Peak<br>number<br>2<br>4<br>6<br>2<br>5<br>6<br>2 | Peak<br>numberRetention<br>time (S)29.167411.123613.20429.168513.206614.23529.167 | PeakRetentionQualitynumbertime (S)(%)29.16794411.12392613.2049329.16892513.20690614.2359229.16794 | Peak<br>numberRetention<br>time (S)Quality<br>(%)Abundance<br>(%)29.1679434.325411.123923.109613.204935.73129.1689236.164513.206903.125614.235924.89629.1679433.146 |  |  |

The findings of the types of PAHs in the 5 types of samples showed that there were similarities between the identified aromatic hydrocarbon pollutants between the types of samples, but it did not necessarily assume that the samples were contaminated with PAHs from the same source (Roy et al., 2018; Nikel et al., 2014). The types of samples of sponges, fish and starfish are different at each sampling station (Table 3), as an indication that the three have different lifestyles and the level of tolerance to PAHs is also relatively different (Liu et al., 2019). Another assumption is that the samples were not entirely exposed to the same type of PAHs as well as the abundance of aromatic compounds found to be different, this indicates that PAHs in the waters around KKI (Freeman et al., 2021).





Analysis of the total abundance of PAHs in each sample, showed that the sponge sample at ST 3 was highest and the lowest was in the fish sample at TS 3 (Fig. 1). The highest average percentage of total abundance of PAHs for each sample is sponge sample (70.51%), then sediment (67.30%), followed by seawater sample (64.85%), then starfish sample (41.80%) and fish samples (26.74%). The highest total abundance of PAHs in sponge samples, both by category per station and based on the total of all sponge samples at all stations.

This result can be interpreted that the lifestyle of sponges with feeder filters allows sponges in the waters around KKI to be exposed to higher levels than other types of samples, although this does not mean that sponges are the biota most affected by PAHs (Marzuki et al., 2021b; Imachi et al., 2011). This is based on the ability of sponges to convert carbon components into energy for use in activities. This also shows that exposure to PAHs in fish, starfish, seawater and other marine biota is a life catastrophe, but for sponges it is a condition in which sponges can survive (Sabota & Swi Jurnal Akta Kimia Indonesia, [2022], [vol.15] 1-1016

### PAPER

2021). Several previous studies have shown that sponges are often used as a reference to determine that a marine area is exposed to PAHs, because sponges can be used as bio-monitoring and bio-indicators of exposure to PAHs (Armus et al., 2021; Bell et al., 2013).

Based on the total abundance identified, it can be said that the naphthalene (NL) component was found in all types of samples at the three stations, followed by pyrene (PR) and Phenanthrene (PT), then azulene (AZ) (Marzuki et al., 2020a). Analysis of the type of PAHs in each sample associated with the source of the aromatic hydrocarbon compounds suggested that for AZ type PAHs it may be from oil spills or petroleum products due to ship transportation, or from tanker washing, where it is known that azulene is a characteristic that is almost always present. on every petroleum and its processed products (Arroyo et al., 2021; Smulek et al., 2020).

Other types of PAHs, such as NL, PR, PT, most likely originate from industrial activities, agricultural activities and household waste. The type of NL is widely used in the production of insect poisons such as camphor, while other types, such as AC, FR and AR are thought to originate from medical activities or medical waste, pesticides, or from various types of waste that decompose in marine waters or may originate from waste burning. or organic material (Del-Mondo et al., 2021).

In terms of the toxic properties of aromatic hydrocarbons, NL PAHs are classified as hazardous and low-toxic, while PT, AC, AR and FR are in the moderately toxic category and PR types are high-toxic PAHs. The finding of several types of PAHs around KKI waters, in the qualitative aspect it is said to be polluted, but in a quantitative review further research is needed to determine whether the area is feasible and safe to visit or not, with reference to the Decree of the Minister of Environment of the Republic of Indonesia No. 51 of 2004, regarding sea water quality standards for PAH, a maximum of 0.003 mg/L (Gusty et al., 2021).

# Conclusion

Based on PAHs data on five types of samples obtained at three different stations around the waters of Kodingareng Keke Island, it is concluded in several statements, (1) Sediment, seawater and marine biota (sponges, starfish) are declared polluted by PAHs. (2) The types of PAHs that were identified in each sample in ST 1-3 were dominated by naphthalene (NL), Phenanthrene (PT), pyrene (PR) and azulene (AZ). (3) The order of total abundance of PAHs in each sample is sponge sediment seawater starfish fish. (4) PAHs of the NL type were found in all types of samples and at all stations, where the PAHs were thought to originate from industrial, hospital, and household activities. (5) Further research is needed to determine the concentration of each type of PAHs that have been identified by referring to the Decree of the Minister of Environment RI, No. 51, Year 2004. (6) The status of marine tourism, especially around Kodingareng Keke Island, for tourists, needs to be careful and alert, because the KKI area is not completely free from harmful and toxic pollutants, so it is a health risk.

# **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

# Acknowledgments

The our gratitude goes to the Ministry of Education and Culture, RistekDikti, who always encourages lecturers to conduct research and publish in reputable national and international journals. This article is the result of research by 2 of our guiding students as the fulfillment of the final three to achieve a bachelor's degree in chemical engineering. We also thank those who have assisted in carrying out this research, in particular the Makassar Regional Plantation Product Industry Center, Laboratory Biochemistry FMIPA Hasanuddin University, and Forensic Regional police South Sulawesi.

# References

- Agrawal, N., Verma, P., & Shahi, S.K. (2018). Degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (phenanthrene and pyrene) by the ligninolytic fungi Ganoderma lucidum isolated from the hardwood stump. *Bioresour Bioprocess.* **5**(1), 11 p. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40643-018-0197-5
- Akinde, S. B., & Iwuozor, C. C. (2012). Alkane Degradative Potentials of Bacteria Isolated From the Deep Atlantic Ocean of the Gulf of Guinea. *Journal of Bioremediation* and *Biodegradation*, **03**(01), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.4172/2155-6199.1000135
- Akoto, O., Azuure, A.A., & Adotey, K.D. (2016). Pesticide residues in water, sediment and fish from Tono Reservoir and their health risk implications. *Springer Plus.* 5(1), p. 1849. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-3544-z
- Alava, J.J., Tirapé, A., Mc-Mullen, K., Uyaguari, M., & Domínguez, G.A. (2022). Microplastics and Macroplastic Debris as Potential Physical Vectors of SARS-CoV-2: A Hypothetical Overview with Implications for Public Health. *Microplastics*. 1(1), 156–66.

https://doi.org/10.3390/microplastics1010010

Anbumani, S., & Kakkar, P. (2018). Ecotoxicological effects of microplastics on biota: A review. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* **25**, 14373–14396. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-018-1999-x

Armus, R., Selry, C., Marzuki, I., Hasan, H., Syamsia, & Sapar, A. (2021) Investigation of Potential Marine Bacterial Isolates in Biodegradation Methods on Hydrocarbon Contamination. J Phys Conf Series, 1899(1), p. 012006. https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1899/1/012006

Arroyo, A., Provoste, F., Rodríguez, M., & Prieto, A. L. (2021). Jurnal Akta Kimia Indonesia, [2022], [vol.15] 1-10 | 7 A mechanistic model to assess the fate of naphthalene and benzo(A)pyrene in a chilean wwtp. Processes, **9**(8), 1313. https://doi.org/10.33 90/pr9081313

- Baalkhuyur, F.M., Bin-Dohaish, E.-J.A., Elhalwagy, M.E.A., Alikunhi, N.M., AlSuwailem, A.M., Rostad, A., Coker, D.J., Berumen, M.L., & Duarte, C.M. (2018). Microplastic in the gastrointestinal tract of fishes along the Saudi Arabian Red Sea coast. *Marine Pol. Bull.*, **131**, 407-415. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2018.04.040
- Baburam, C., & Feto, N.A. (2021). Mining of two novel aldehyde dehydrogenases (DHY-SC-VUT5 and DHY-G-VUT7) from metagenome of hydrocarbon contaminated soils. *BMC Biotechnol.* 21(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12896-021-00677-8
- Bayan, I.E., Yulianda, F., & Setyobudiandi, I. (2016).
  Degradation analysis of mangrove ecological function as macrozoobenthos habitat and its management in the Angke Kapuk Coastal Area, Jakarta. *Biodiversitas* (Bonorowo Wetlands), 6(1), 1-11.
  https://doi.org/10.13057/bonorowo/w060101
- Bell, J. J., Davy, S. K., Jones, T., Taylor, M. W., & Webster, N. S. (2013). Could some coral reefs become sponge reefs as our climate changes? Global Change Biology, **19**(9), 2613–2624. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12212
- Bendouz, M., Dionne, J., Tran, L. H., Coudert, L., Mercier, G., & Blais, J. F. (2017). Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbon Oxidation from Concentrates Issued from an Attrition Process of Polluted Soil Using the Fenton Reagent and Permanganate. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution*, **228**(3), 114–127. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-017-3292-x
- Bergmann, M., Gutow, L., & Klages, M. (2015). *Marine anthropogenic litter*. In: Marine Anthropogenic Litter. 1-447. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-16510-3
- Brodie, J., & Landos, M. (2019). Pesticides in Queensland and Great Barrier Reef Waterways-Potential Impacts on Aquatic Ecosystems and the Failure of National Management. Estuarine, *Coastal and Shelf Science*, **230**, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2019.106447
- Burhan, A., Kamaruddin, M., Ahmad, R., & Marzuki I. (2021). Research article Anticancer and Cytotoxic Potentials of Vernonia amygdalina Delile on WiDr Cell Lines Research article Phytopharmacology Research Journal (PRJ). *Res Artic Phytopharm Res J.*, **1**(18), 1–7.
- Castelluccio, S., Alvim, C.B., Bes-Piá, M.A., Mendoza-Roca, J.A., & Fiore, S. (2022). Assessment of Microplastics Distribution in a Biological Wastewater Treatment. *Microplastics*. **1**(1), 141–55. https://doi.org/10.3390/microplastics1010009
- Chaerul, M., Gusty, S., Marzuki, I., & Nur, N.K. (2021). Potential impact of climate change on water resources availability in Bantaeng District, South Sulawesi Province. In: Annual Conference on Computer Science and Engineering Technology (AC2SET) 2020, IOP Publishing, **1088**, p.012109. https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/1088/1/012109
- Çoban-Yıldız, Y., Chiavari, G., Fabbri, D., Gaines, A.F., Galletti,
   G., & Tuğrul, S. (2000). The chemical composition of
   Black Sea suspended particulate organic matter:
   Pyrolysis-GC/MS as a complementary tool to

traditional oceanographic analyses. *Mar. Chem.*, **69**, 55–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4203(99)00093-6.

- Del-Mondo, G., Peng, P., Gensel, J., Claramunt, C., & Lu, F. (2021). Leveraging spatio-temporal graphs and knowledge graphs: Perspectives in the field of maritime transportation. *ISPRS Int J Geo-Information*. **10**(8), p. 541. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijgi10080541
- Essumang, D.K., Togoh, G.K., & Chokky, L. (2009). Pesticide residues in the water and Fish (lagoon tilapia) samples from lagoons in Ghana. *Bull Chem Soc Ethiop*, **23**(1), 19–27. https://doi.org/10.4314/bcse.v23i1.21294
- Fang, H., Shi, Y., Zhou, M., & Niu, Q. (2020). Influence of n-Hexadecane and Naphthalene on Anaerobic Digestion: Kinetic Simulation, DOM Variation and Microbial Community Assessment. *IOP Conference Series: Earth* and Environmental Science, **555**(1), 012038. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/555/1/012038
- Fitri, A., Sattar, Y., Nani, A., Ramadiana, M., & Marzuki, I. (2021). Adsorption Kinetics of Phenol In Aqueous Solution Using Lical Charboal Activated Carbon Produts، *IJEP*, **41**(10), 1177-81.
- Freeman, C.J., Easson, C.G., Fiore, C.L., Thacker, R.W. (2021). Sponge–Microbe Interactions on Coral Reefs: Multiple Evolutionary Solutions to a Complex Environment. *Front Mar Sci.* **8**, 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.705053
- Gao, J., Luo, Y., Li, Q., Zhang, H., Wu, L., & Song, J.; et al. (2006). Distribution patterns of polychlorinated biphenyls in soils collected from Zhejiang province, east China. *Environ Geochem Health.* 28, 79–87. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-005-9016-y
- Garba, F., Ogidiaka, E., Akamagwuna, F.C., Nwaka, K.H., & Edegbene, A.O. (2022). Deteriorating water quality state on the structural assemblage of aquatic insects in a North-Western NigerianRiver. *Water Sci.* **36**(1), 22– 31. https://doi.org/10.1080/23570008.2022.2034396
- Gomiero, A., Øysæd, K.B., Palmas, L., & Skogerbø, G. (2021).
  Application of GC/MS-pyrolysis to estimate the levels of microplastics in a drinking water supply system. *J. Hazard. Mater*, **416**, p. 125708. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2021.125708
- Gran, S.A., Ramos, Z.J., Fuentes, E., Bravo, D., & Pérez, D.J.M. (2022). Effect of co-contamination by PAHs and heavy metals on bacterial communities of diesel contaminated soils of South shetland Islands, antarctica. *Microorganisms*. 8(11), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms8111749
- Gusty, S., Tumpu, M., Parung, H., & Marzuki, I. (2021).
  Marshall Characteristics of Porous Asphalt Containing Low Density Polyethylene (LDPE) Plastic Waste. In: IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science. 921, p. 012025. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/921/1/012025
- Hermabessiere, L., Himber, C., Boricaud, B., Kazour, M., Amara, R., Cassone, A.-L., Laurentie, M., Paul-Pont, I., Soudant, P., & Dehaut, A., et al. (2018). Optimization, performance, and application of a pyrolysis-GC/MS method for the identification of microplastics. *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.* **410**, 6663–76.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-018-1279-0

- Igiri, B.E., Okoduwa, S.I.R., Idoko, G.O., Akabuogu, E.P., Adeyi, A.O., & Ejiogu, I.K. (2018). Toxicity and Bioremediation of Heavy Metals Contaminated Ecosystem from Tannery Wastewater: A Review. *J Toxicol.*, **8**, p. 2568038. https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/2568038
- Imachi, H., Aoi, K., Tasum, E., Saito, Y., Yamanaka, Y., & Saito, Y.; et al. (2011). Cultivation of methanogenic community from subseafloor sediments using a continuous-flow bioreactor. *ISME J.* 5(12), 1913–25. https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2011.64
- Iyer, R., Stepanov, V. G., & Iken, B. (2013). Isolation and molecular characterization of a novel pseudomonas putida strain capable of degrading organophosphate and aromatic compounds. *Advances in Biological Chemistry*, 03(06), 564–578. https://doi.org/10.4236/abc.2013.36065
- Jańczuk, B., Szymczyk, K., & Zdziennicka, A. (2021). Adsorption Properties of Hydrocarbon and Fluorocarbon Surfactants Ternary Mixture at the Water-Air Interface. *Molecules*, **26**(14), 4313. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26144313
- Kamaruddin, M., Marzuki, I., Burhan, A., & Ahmad, R. (2021). Screening acetylcholinesterase inhibitors from marine-derived actinomycetes bv simple chromatography. In: The 1st International Conference on Biotechnology and Food Sciences. IOP Conf Series: Env. Sci. 679, Earth and p. 012011. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/679/1/012011
- Käppler, A., Fischer, M., Scholz-Böttcher, B.M., Oberbeckmann, S., Labrenz, M., Fischer, D., Eichhorn, K.-J., & Voit, B. (2018). Comparison of μ-ATR-FTIR spectroscopy and py-GCMS as identification tools for microplastic particles and fibers isolated from river sediments. *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.* **410**, 5313–27. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-018-1185-5
- Liu, X. xin, Hu, X., Cao, Y., Pang, W. jing, Huang, J. yu, Guo, P., & Huang, L. (2019). Biodegradation of Phenanthrene and Heavy Metal Removal by Acid-Tolerant Burkholderia fungorum FM-2. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, **10**(MAR), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.00408
- Liu, X., Hu, X., Cao, Y., Jing, W.P., Yu, H.J., & Guo, P., et al. (2019). Biodegradation of Phenanthrene and Heavy Metal Removal by Acid-Tolerant Burkholderia fungorum FM-2. *Front Microbiol.* **10**, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.00408
- Mao, J., & Guan, W. (2016). Fungal degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) by Scopulariopsis brevicaulis and its application in bioremediation of PAH-contaminated soil. *Acta Agric Scand Sect B Soil Plant Sci.*, 66(5), 399-405. https://doi.org/10.1080/09064710.2015.1137629
- Marzuki, I., Ahmad, R., Kamaruddin, M., Asaf, R., Armus, R., & Siswanty, I. (2021). Performance of cultured marine sponges-symbiotic bacteria as a heavy metal bioadsorption. *Biodiversitas.*, **22**(12), 5536–43. https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d221237
- Marzuki, I., Asaf, R., Paena, M., Athirah, A., Nisaa, K., Ahmad, R., & Kamaruddin, M. (2021a). Anthracene and Pyrene

Biodegradation Performance of Marine Sponge Symbiont Bacteria Consortium. *Molecules*, **26**(22), 6851. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules 26226851

- Marzuki, I., Chaerul, M., Erniati, Asmeati, & Irwan Paserangi. (2020). Biodegradation of aliphatic waste components of oil sludge used micro symbiont of Sponge *Niphates* sp. ICMS, *IOP Publishinh*, **429**(1), 012056. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/429/1 / 012056
- Marzuki, I., Daris, L., Nisaa, K., & Emelda, A. (2020a). The power of biodegradation and bio-adsorption of bacteria symbiont sponges sea on waste contaminated of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and heavy metals. *In IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* (Vol. 584, p. 012013). https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/584/1/0120 13
- Marzuki, I., Daris, L., Yunus, S., & Riana, A. D. (2020b). Selection and characterization of potential bacteria for polycyclic aromatic biodegradation of hydrocarbons in sea sponges from Spermonde Islands, Indonesia. AACL Bioflux, 13(6), 3493–3506.
- Marzuki, I., Enryani, H. I., Nafie, N. La, & Dali, S. (2017). Study Biodegradation of Aromatics Pyrene Using Bacterial Isolates from the Sea and micro symbionts Sponges. *International Journal of Applied Chemistry*, **13**(3), 707–720.
- Marzuki, I., Gusty, S., Armus, R., Sapar, A., Asaf, R., Athirah, A., & Jaya, J. (2021b). Secondary Metabolite Analysis and Anti-bacterial and Fungal Activities of Marine Sponge Methanol Extract Based on Coral Cover. *The* 6th International Conference on Basic Sciences (IAP Conf. Proc.). 2360, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0059500
- Marzuki, I., Kamaruddin, M., & Ahmad, R. (2021c). Identification of marine sponges-symbiotic bacteria and their application in degrading polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. *Biodiversitas*, **22**(3), 1481–1488. https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d220352
- Marzuki, I., Noor, A., Nafie, N. La, & Djide, M. N. (2015). Isolation and Identification On Degradator Bacterium Of Petroleum Waste Which Symbions With Sponge From Melawai Beach. *The First International Conference on Science (ICOS)*, **1**(1), 493–503.
- Marzuki, I., Noor, A., Nafie, N. La, & Djide, M. N. (2016). Morphological and phenotype analysis of microsymbiont and biomass marine sponge from melawai beach, Balikpapan, east kalimantan. *International Journal Marina Chimic Acta*, **17**(1), 8–15.
- Marzuki, I., Sinardi, S., Pratama, I., Chaerul, M., Paserangi, I., Mudyawati, M., & Asaf, R. (2021d). Performance of sea sponges micro symbionts as a biomaterial in biodegradation naphthalene waste of modified. In the 5th International Seminar on Sustainable Urban Development; *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, vol. **737**, p. 012016). https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/737/1/0120 16
- Marzuki1, I., Noor, A., Nafie, N. La, & Djide, M. N. (2015a). The Potential Biodegradation Hydrocarbons of Petroleum Sludge Waste By Cell Biomass Sponge Callysppongia sp. *Marina Chimica Acta*, **16**(2), 11–20.

Mustafa, A., Paena, M., Athirah, A., Ratnawati, E., Asaf, R.,



Suwoyo, H.S., & Marzuki, I., et al. (2022). Temporal and Spatial Analysis of Coastal Water Quality to Support Application of Whiteleg Shrimp Litopenaeus vannamei Intensive Pond Technology. *Sustainability*. **14**(5), p. 2659. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14052659

- Nikel, P. I., Silva-Rocha, R., Benedetti, I., & De Lorenzo, V. (2014). The private life of environmental bacteria: Pollutant biodegradation at the single cell level. *Environmental Microbiology*, **16**(3), 628–642. https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.12360
- Obire, O., Aleruchi, O., & Wemedo, S. (2020). Fungi in Biodegradation of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons in Oilfield Wastewater. *Acta Scientific Microbiology*, 3(4), 220–224.
- Okoro, C. C. (2010). Application of seawater microbial inocula for the remediation of hydrocarbon polluted mangrove swamp in the Nigerian oil rich Niger Delta. *Nature and Science*, **8**(8), 152–162.
- Orani, A. M., Barats, A., Vassileva, E., & Thomas, O. P. (2018). Marine sponges as a powerful tool for trace elements biomonitoring studies in coastal environment. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **131**(April), 633–645. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2018.04.073
- Pita, L., Rix, L., Slaby, B. M., Franke, A., & Hentschel, U. (2018). The sponge holobiont in a changing ocean: from microbes to ecosystems. *Microbiome*, **6**(1), 46. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-018-0428-1
- Roy, A., Sar, P., Sarkar, J., Dutta, A., & Gupta, A.; et al. (2018). Petroleum hydrocarbon rich oil refinery sludge of North-East India harbours anaerobic, fermentative, sulfate-reducing, Syntrophic and methanogenic microbial populations. *BMC Microbiol.* **18**(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-018-1275-8
- Rusli, M., Chaerul, M., & Marzuki, I. (2021). Adaptation of Climate Change to Vulnerability of Raw Water Availability in Bantaeng, South Sulawesi. J Phys Conf Series, 899(1), p.012062.

https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1899/1/012062

- Shimoda, T., Suryati, E., Ahmad, T. (2006). Evaluation in a Shrimp Aquaculture System Using Mangroves, Oysters, and Seaweed as Biofilters Based on the Concentrations of Nutrients and Chlorophyll *a*, *JARQ*. **40**(2), 189-193. https://doi.org/10.6090/jarq.40.189
- Smułek, W., Sydow, M., Zabielska-Matejuk, J., & Kaczorek, E. (2020). Bacteria involved in biodegradation of creosote PAH – A case study of long-term contaminated industrial area. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, **187**(October 2019), 109843. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2019.109843
- Sobota, M., & Swi, M. (2021). Marine Waste Sources, Fate, Risks, Challenges and Research Needs. *Int J Environ Res Public Heal.* **18**, p. 433. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18020433
- Souza, H.M., de L-Barreto, L.R., da Mota, A.J., de Oliveira, L.A., Barroso, H., & Zanotto S.S.P. (2017). Tolerance to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) by filamentous fungi isolated from contaminated sediment in the Amazon region. *Acta Sci-Biol Sci.* **39**(4), 481–8.
- https://doi.org/10.4025/actascibiolsci.v39i4.34709
- Tereza, Č., Wiesnerová, L., Praus, L., Jablonský, I., Koudela, M., & Tlusto, P. (2018). ScienceDirect Comparing the removal of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in soil after different bioremediation approaches in relation to the extracellular enzyme activities. *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, XX (Mei), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jes.2018.05.007
- Ye, J., Song, Y., Liu, Y., & Zhong, Y. (2022). Assessment of medical waste generation, associated environmental impact, and management issues after the outbreak of COVID-19: A case study of the Hubei Province in China. *PLoS One.* **17**(1), 1–17. http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0259207.