

# Organic Pollutants Hazard in Sediments and Green Mussels in Jakarta Bay, Indonesia

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35 ABSTRACT

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Organic pollutants (PAHs, PCBs, and organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) from sediments and Asian green mussels (Perna viridis) in Jakarta Bay were studied using GC-MS/MS. The PAHs cocentrations in the sediments ranged from 186.64 to 915.71 µg.kg-1 per sediment dry weight (dw), while the PCBs and the OCPs concentrations ranged from 3 to 117 μg.kg-1 and 3 to 17.99 μg.kg-1 per sediment dw, respectively. For the P. viridis, 16 types of PAHs concentrations ranged from 591 to 997 µg.kg-1 per dw of mussels, while the OCPs concentrations varied from 5 to 6 µg.kg-1 per dw of mussel. The concentration of PAHs in mussels were higher than sediments, meanwhile the organic pollutant contains chlorine (PCBs and OCPs) were potentially found in sediments. The reclamation, urban and mangrove areas (station G and H) in this study found more highly risk of than other sampling stations of sediments and mussels. The According to the environmental risk assessment parameters (TEL, ERM, and ERL) from the sediment quality guidelines, the stations has various potential ecological risks, with Station G and H being most contaminated, while Station A being least polluted. Based on l'AFSSA (Agence Française de Securité Sanitaire des Aliments, 2003) P. viridis is shown to be highly contaminated in polluted stations (except station A) that were not recommended for consumption (> 200 μg.kg-1 tissue dw). The selected PAHs ratios, including Ant/Σ178, FI/Σ202, BaAnt/Σ228, and IPyr/Σ276, potentially showed that the sources of the hydrocarbons in sediments were generally biogenic and terrigenous than for mussels were petroleum source.

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**Keywords:** Persistent organic pollutants, urbanization, risk assessment, anthropogenic pollutants, Asian green mussel

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#### Introduction

Jakarta Bay is a large coastal ecosystem connected to several cluster of small islands, known as the *Kepulauan Seribu* region, and with 13 rivers flowing through the Jakarta megacity area, namely Jabodetabek (Jakarta, Bogor, Depok, Tangerang, and Bekasi) (Williams et al., 2000; Rinawati et al., 2012). According to the statistics service center of the Jakarta Metropolitan Area (JMA), (Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS), 2016), this area is inhabited by more than 10 million people in 2015. Like other large coastal ecosystems, Jakarta Bay

supports human welfare and economic systems with four major functions, including life support services, natural resources supply, recreational services, and waste management services. The main ecosystem types in the area (mangroves, seagrass beds, and coral reefs) support the marine life and local communities. Jakarta Bay is a shallow bay with an average depth of 15 m and covers about 514 km<sup>2</sup>, with a coastline of about 72 km. The bay receives highly polluted water from the Jakarta metropolitan area which is heavily impacted by the human activities in and around the city as well as in the bay itself. Solid and liquid wastes enter the ecosystem from domestic, industrial, and agricultural activities, while the pathogens and nutrients enter from septic tanks and household waste, resulting in massive pollution and eutrophication in the bay waters. In addition, human activities within the bay itself, such as sand and coral mining, petroleum exploration, fishing, and tourism can cause degradation to the bay environment (Williams et al., 2000; Rinawati et al., 2012; Zrafi et al., 2013). There are 13 rivers carrying untreated water and solid waste to Jakarta Bay, resulting in significant environmental degradation and functional loss of coral reefs. The bay is also affected by the degradation of anthropogenic habitats caused by urbanization, climate change-related stressors (global warming, desalination, and hypoxia), and pollution by toxic substances or sedimentation (Rinawati et al., 2012; Wendling et al., 2013).

The unsustainable exploitation of natural ecosystems and coastal resources continues to increase due to anthropogenic activities in the aquatic environment. In addition, marine sediments can be considered as the main reservoir of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) (Mandalakis et al., 2014). Sediment has been clearly demonstrated to be a natural recipient of regional marine pollution, which is integrated into the sediment input as a result of deposition, runoff, water mixing, and sedimentation process (Mandalakis et al., 2004). The suspended sediments that enter and leave the estuaries carry sediment-related contaminants. Meanwhile, coastal sediments and related contaminants can be buried temporarily or semi-permanently (Pozo et al., 2013) and maintained undisturbed for long periods of time.

This situation leads to anthropogenic impacts on the benthic habitats and species in coastal ecosystems in the marine environment (Wendling et al., 2013; Farhan and Lim, 2012), such as bivalve species (mussels, oysters, and clams). They are filter feeders (Riisgard et al., 2011; Murgarella et al., 2016), known to be capable of accumulating hydrophobic pollutants in coastal marine environments through food chain (Yap et al., 2009; Azis et al., 2016). As a result, mussel watch as one of bivalve species is widely used for biomonitoring (Farrington et al. 2016). Marine organisms like filter feeder mollusks have a very high ability to accumulate POPs due to a lack of an efficient system for metabolizing these

pollutants (Dsikowitzky et al., 2011; Weis, 2013). Bivalves can also absorb or ingest pollutants from the food chain, which results in bioaccumulation (Liu and Kuch, 2005; Galgani et al., 2011).

The Asian green mussel, *Perna viridis*, Linnaeus, 1758 (Linnaeus, 1758), is an aquaculture organism that grows fast and serves as a cheap protein source in most Asian coastal countries (NIMPIS 2002., Rajagopal et al., 2006; Azis et al., 2016). It is a major seafood commodity in most Indonesia's coastal markets (DJPB KKP RI., 2011; Ningrum et al., 2016). It is distributed from Persian Bay to the Malay Peninsula and most of the islands of Indonesia, including Sumatra, Java, and Sulawesi, as well as the Philippines (Siddal, 1980). These mussels can live for a long time as non-selective feeders and being tolerant of contaminated areas (Azis et al., 2016; Yap and Azri, 2009). In some eutrophic and human-influenced coastal areas in the western archipelago of Indonesia, such as Jakarta Bay, mussels are present at high densities. For example, in Jakarta Bay, they are harvested by mussel farmers from thousands of bamboo structures, where they live naturally, then sell and consume locally (Yaqin, 2010).

The green mussels were first cultivated in Indonesia in the late 1970s. The first attempts at yield optimization were conducted in Jakarta Bay and Banten Bay (Davy and Graham, 1982; Huhn et al., 2015). The varying growth rate of *P. viridis* is determined by the quality of the habitat. *P. viridis* exhibits rapid growth and early maturity. It is highly tolerant of a wide range of water temperatures (11-32°C), salinity (18-33 PSU), turbidity, and pollutants (Lee, 1986; Benson et al., 2001; NIMPIS., 2011; Mc Donald, 2012; Mc Donald et al., 2018). In the Jakarta Bay area, the green mussel habitats are affected by high levels of heavy metals and organochlorines (Sudaryanto et al 2005; Jalius et al., 2008; Huhn et al., 2015).

The sediments and biotas can act as monitors for the occurrence of hydrophobic organic pollutants such as PAHs, PCBs, and Organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) (Huhn et al., 2015; Asia et al., 2009; Syakti et al., 2013; Kanzari et al., 2014). PAHs, end up in the marine environment from atmospheric deposition and river flows. These compounds have potential mutagenic and carcinogenic effects on humans (Syakti et al., 2013). PAHs may have various origins, including direct deposition of petroleum, natural combustion (*e.g.*, forest fires), anthropogenic combustion through atmospheric deposition (*e.g.*, fuel oil, kerosene, gasoline), volcanic eruptions, and early diagenesis of natural products (Mille et al., 2007). PAHs, either from anthropogenic or biogenic sources (Mille et al., 2007; Asia et al., 2009; Syakti et al., 2013), enter the aquatic environment especially from distant transport of particulates (Neff, 2002). Mussels can directly assimilate low molecular weight (LMW) PAHs, while heavier molecular

weight (HMW) hydrocarbons are congested in the digestive system (Galgani et al., 2011). These aromatic hydrocarbons were alseo have many derivatives such as nitro-PAHs (NPAHs), hydoxy-PAHs (OHPAHs), alkyl-PAHs, oxygenated-PAHs found in particulate matter such as dust (Wei et al., 2015), soil (Wang et al., 2018), PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Zhang et al., 2019) and ambient air (Nadali et al., 2020). Their toxicities also indicating affect to human health and non-negligible carcinogenic risk to human (Wei et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2019). Two families of these compounds, PCBs and OCPs, are hydrophobic and biologically accumulated, and have an adverse impact even at low concentrations. They are globally prohibited under the Stockholm Convention on POPs (Strandberg et al., 2000; Pozo et al., 2013; Kanzari et al., 2014). Due to the high octanol-water partition coefficient, PCBs and OCPs tend to bind to suspended particulate matters that are deposited along the coastal sediments.

PCBs have been used as commercial industrial materials for electrical equipment (e.g., transformers and capacitors) for over 50 years. But in the other hand, they are considered toxic to the immune and reproductive systems (Pozo et al., 2013; Kanzari et al., 2014). OCPs (Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), and its analogues (DDD, DDT), hexachlorobenzene, etc.) are toxic to humans, animals, and aquatic life. They have a high nonlethal effect on the immune system and cause reproductive damage (Le Maire et al., 2004). OCPs and PCBs can be absorbed orally, by inhalation, and through the gastrointestinal tract. However, the community continues to use OCPs widely for agricultural pest control in agricultural activities in several developing countries, such as Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines, and Malaysia (Cai and Arataki, 2008; Rinawati et al., 2012; Idowu et al., 2013).

Little information is available about the level of PAHs and POPs contamination in the marine sediments and organisms in Indonesia's coastal ecosystems, especially in Jakarta Bay, North Jakarta, Indonesia (Rinawati et al., 2012). Williams et al. (2000), Rinawati et al. (2012), and Azis et al. (2016) published information about several organic pollutant levels in Jakarta Bay, such as n-alkanes, PAHs, PCBs, pp'-DDT, Endosulfan, and pp'-DDD. However, they only analyzed the level of contamination in the sediments of random locations. No studies have yet explored the sources of organic pollutants in this site. Baseline data on the environment are needed to provide an actual point of comparison. If this information is not available, future assessment of the environmental impacts of anthropogenic activities will be difficult to quantify before the impact increases and the larger interventions are required (Mandalakis et al., 2014). Therefore, this study aims to explore qualitatively and quantitatively the extents and sources of organic contaminants, such as PAHs, PCBs, and OCPs, in surface sediments and P. viridis mussels in Jakarta Bay, North Jakarta, Indonesia, using selected ratios or indexes to trace and quantify the compounds.

#### Material and Methods

Sampling was conducted in December 2013 in Jakarta Bay, Indonesia. The preliminary treatment was carried out in the Analytical Chemistry Laboratory at the Institut Teknologi Bandung, Indonesia, and POP analysis was carried out in the Environmental Chemistry Laboratory at the LCE Aix-Marseille University, France.

### Study Area

There are eight sampling stations for the surface sediments (Station A-H) and five sampling stations for the green mussels (*P. viridis*) (Station A, C, D, E, and F) that are located in Jakarta Bay, Indonesia (**Figure 1**). The GPS locations of the sampling sites and sample characterization are shown in **Table 1**. Stations A and B are close to industrial activities, while stations C, D, E, and F are close to Banten Province and touristic sites in *Kepulauan Seribu*. Station G is close to reclamation activities, and station H is close to urban activities and mangrove sites. All sampling sites are approximately 50-200 m from coast.

#### **Sediment Sampling**

Quantum GIS mapping software is used to draw maps and visually represent several of the activity around the sampling sites. A GPS (Garmin Etrex Summit HC, Kansas City, USA) is used for the geolocation of different stations. Superficial sediments (4-6 m depth) were collected at 8 stations with specific activities (Figure 1) using a Van Veen stainless steel grab sampler and then immediately placed in an aluminum container and stored in a cool box to minimize microbial degradation during transport to the laboratory. Samples were stored at low temperature (-18°C) before treatment in the laboratory. The wet sediment was frozen dry (Operon, Gimpo city, South Korea) at -50°C and 0,008 bars, sieved with a 200 µm stainless steel sieve and homogenized, before analytical treatment.

### Sampling of The Green Mussels (P. viridis)

The green mussel (P. viridis) samples were harvested at five sampling sites (50-150 cm depth) which were "wild" sites (Stations C, D, and F) and aquaculture facilities (Stations A and E) (Figure 1). The "wild" sites means, the green mussels move and life in randomly habitat (such as refinery tank oil, under ships). The mussels were immediately placed into an aluminum container and stored in a cool box at low temperature (-4°C). The length of the mussels ranged from 4 to 11 cm, and the diameter was approximately 5 cm. The cockles of the mussels were removed from the mussels and then left (at room temperature) under a

vacuum hood to dry for 1 h and covered with aluminum foil to avoid air contamination. Their wet mass was then weighed, and then the samples were frozen dry as described above. The Body Condition Index (BCI) is a measure of the physical condition of the mussels and is calculated as dry weight of the soft tissue divided by the mussel dry weight. The higher the BCI, the better the nutritional status and resistance of the mussels to environmental stress (Wang et al. 2011). The dry mass was taken with a microscale (±0.0001) (Perkin-Elmer AD2Z), and the mussels were then cut and manually crushed into powder with a mortar and pestle. The dry tissue powder was then sieved with a 200 μm stainless steel sieve, weighed, and homogenized. It was stored at room temperature before analysis.

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#### Chemicals

214 All solvents used are n-heptane (HEPT), acetone (ACET), dichloromethane (DCM), and acetonitrile (ACN), are of SupraSolv for GC, HPLC and residue analysis ≥ 99.9% grade 215 216 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). The HCl (37%) is pure grade (Fisher Scientific, 217 Leicestershire, UK). The mixture and individual deuterated internal standards were used such 218 as PAH mix 9 deuterated (napthalene-d<sub>8</sub>, acenaphtylene-d<sub>8</sub>, acenapthene-d<sub>8</sub>, fluorene-d<sub>10</sub>, 219 phenanthrene- $d_{10}$ , anthracene- $d_{10}$ , fluoranthene- $d_{12}$ , pyrene- $d_{12}$ , benzo(a)anthracene- $d_{12}$ , chrysene- $d_{12}$ , benzo(b) fluoranthene- $d_{12}$ , benzo(k) fluoranthene- $d_{12}$ ; benzo(a) pyrene- $d_{12}$ , 220 221 indeno (123cdi) pyrene-d<sub>12</sub>; benzo(ghi) perylene-d<sub>12</sub>; and dibenzo(ah) anthracene-d<sub>14</sub>), pp'-222 DDT-d<sub>4</sub>, pp'-DDE-d<sub>4</sub>, PCB-101-d<sub>3</sub> (CIL CLUZEAU, Andover, MA, USA), and [<sup>2</sup>H<sub>40</sub>]n-223 nonadecane (Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA). 9 individual standard solutions of 224 pesticides are used: pp'-DDT, pp'-DDE, pp'-DDD, HCB, endosulfan-1, aldrin, and dieldrin 225 [CIL CLUZEAU, Andover, MA, USA]; heptachlor and heptachlor epoxide [Sigma-Aldrich, 226 St Louis, MO, USA]. Several standard mixed solutions as mixed solutions were used such as 227 PAH Mix 25 and US EPA 16 PAH (napthalene, acenaphthene, acenaphthylene, fluorene, 228 phenanthrene, anthracene, fluoranthene, pyrene benzo(a)anthracene, chrysene, 229 benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene; benzo(a) pyrene, indeno (123cdi) pyrene, 230 benzo(ghi)perylene and dibenzo(ah)anthracene, (Dr. Ehrenstorfer Laboratories, Augsburg, 231 Germany)). The PCB mix 3, 7 PCB mix solutions (PCB 28 (2,4,4'-trichlorobiphenyl); PCB 232 52(2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl); PCB 101 (2,2',4,5,5'-pentachlorobiphenyl); PCB 118 233 (2,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl); PCB 138 (2,2',3,4,4',5'-hexachlorobiphenyl) PCB-153 234 (2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl); and PCB 180 (2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-heptachlorobiphenyl), (CIL 235 CLUZEAU, Andover, MA, USA) are used. The standard working solutions are diluted with 236 DCM (SGS, France). Alumina, silica gel 60 (200-300 mesh) and Cu powder (> 230 mesh) are

purchased from VWR International and Merck (Darmsdadt, Germany) for the purification method of sediments.

#### **Extraction and Purification of Sediments**

Hydrocarbons were extracted from frozen dry sediment samples (10 g) in a cleaned cellulose extraction thimble using a Soxtherm apparatus for 3.5 h with a 150 mL SupraSolv for GC, HPLC, and residue analysis ≥ 99.9% grade DCM/HEPT (1:1, v:v) mixture. Then, 500 μL of each individual standard of the deuterated hydrocarbons were added to the sample before extraction (PAH mix 9-deuterated 10 mg. L<sup>-1</sup> and nonadecane-d<sub>40</sub> 15 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>). The extract was then concentrated to approximately 2 mL with a rotary evaporator (Heidolph, Laborata 4000 efficient, Krackeler Scientific, USA), and the solvent was evaporated under a gentle nitrogen stream. The extractable organic matter (EOM) was weighed on a microscale (Perkin-Elmer AD2Z) before fractionation. The hydrocarbon fractions were separated with a 1.0 x 30 cm borosilicate glass column and applied to half silica (8 g) and half alumina (8 g) (each as bottom and top refill materials in the column). Before use, both sorbents were deactivated with distilled water, which weighed 5% (w:w) of the sorbent. F1 (n-alkane fraction) was eluted with 30 mL HEPT and 20 mL HEPT/DCM (90:10, v:v). Elution with 40 mL HEPT/DCM (80:20, v:v) yielded F2 (Polyaromatic hydrocarbon fraction). Both fractions were evaporated on a rotary evaporator and then under a gentle stream of N2 before being weighed on a microscale (Perkin-Elmer AD2Z) for gravimetric analysis. The sum (F1+F2) gave the total hydrocarbon content (THC). The sulfur interference from the extract was removed by completing the extract with active Cu powder (washed with HCl 1:4, v:v) (Mille et al., 2007. Asia et al., 2009; Asia, 2012; Syakti et al., 2013).

Several modifications to the extraction methods of Villaverde et al. (2008) and Kanzari et al. (2014) conducted for PCBs and OCPs separation. Those compounds were extracted with ASE (accelerated solvent extraction) using a 33 mL thimble cell with filter fiber on the base of a cell with the following composition: approximately 3 g alumina at the base of cells, then approximately 10 gr sediment and approximately 3 g of Cu powder that had previously been washed with HCl (1:4, v:v). Then, the cell volume was added with Fontainebleau sand. The extraction solvent was HEPT:ACETONE (1:1), and the ASE operating conditions as follows: temperature of 100°C, pressure of 1500 Psi, and 2 extraction cycles. The samples were then evaporated with a TurboVap (Lab Commerce Inc., San Jose, CA) under a nitrogen stream until it reached 0.5 mL. The analysis of the POPs (PCBs and OCs) was carried out through a gas chromatography-triple quadrupole mass spectrometry (GC-TQMS) system.

#### **QuEChERS** extraction and purification of PAHs and POPs from mussels

Several modifications of the Kutty et al. (2011) method were performed in this study. QuEChERS (the quick, easy, cheap, effective, rugged and safe method) is an extraction and cleaning method for marine tissue analysis with GC/MS system (Kutty et al 2011). The method has proven popular for the extraction of pesticides through multi-residue methods and is more sensitive, mainly due to the cleaner product produced, than the Soxtec method (Rashid et al., 2010). As much as 2 g of the freeze-dried mussel tissue was homogenized in a QuEChERS extraction tube. Ten  $\mu$ L of each internal deuterated standard (10 mg. L<sup>-1</sup>) was added to the samples.

The samples were then vortexed for 30 seconds and evaporated for 30 minutes at room temperature. Thirteen mL of deionized water and two ceramic homogenizers were added into a tube containing the dry soft tissue sample of the mussels, and the tube was then vortexed for 1 minute. Fifteen mL of extraction solvent (1% acetic acid in acetonitrile) was added, and the tube was vortexed for 1 minute. The tube was then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 2683g and cooled in a freezer at -20°C for 30 minutes. The acetonitrile layer was then transferred into a clean and dry centrifuge tube containing 1 g of anhydrous sodium sulfate. It was shaken by hand for 1 minute, and the tube was then placed in a freezer at -20°C overnight. As much as 10 mL of clear extract was pipetted into a clean TurboVap tube, and 20 mL of DCM was added into that tube. The solvent was evaporated to 0.5 mL; next, 10 mL HEPT was added, and the extract was re-evaporated to 0.5 mL (acetonitrile elimination).

In the purification process, 1 g commercial alumina SPE (Solid phase extraction) cartridge was used. The SPE was conditioned with 10 mL of DCM and 20 mL of HEPT. The concentrated extracts were placed into the alumina SPE tube and eluted with 13 mL of DCM:HEPT (dichloromethane: heptane, (40:60)). Then, the extract was evaporated to 0.5 mL, and the purification process was repeated once again and then re-evaporated to 0.5 mL. The extract was analyzed with a GC-TQMS system.

#### **Gas Chromatography - Triple Quadrupole Mass Spectrometry (GC-TQMS)**

Both the F1 and F2 fractions from the Soxtherm methods and the extracts from the ASE and QuEChERS methods were analyzed using GC-TQMS system (gas chromatography-triple quadrupole mass spectrometry; Agilent 7000, USA). The analysis parameters were evaluated using the TQ-Quantitative and TQ-Qualitative analysis in the GC/MS software manufacturer (Agilent Technologies, 2010). The chromatographic conditions were as follows: splitless

injection (30 s), DB5 MS column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.25  $\mu$ m film thickness), GC oven was temperature programmed from 80°C (held for 2 minutes) to 300°C at 12°C.min<sup>-1</sup> and then held for 5 minutes. The carrier gas was operated in a constant mode at 3 mL.min<sup>-1</sup>, and the PSS injector was programmed from 80°C (0.1 minutes) to 250°C (200°C.min<sup>-1</sup>), held for 10 minutes and then reduced to 60°C (200°C.min<sup>-1</sup>) to minimize solvent peak.

The mass spectrometer was operated in positive electron impact ionization (EI) mode (70 eV). The full scan (FS) and selected ion monitoring (SIM) modes were used for hydrocarbon analysis. The PCBs and OCPs analysis were optimally scanned in the product ion mode (PIM) at certain collision energies and then scanned in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. All molecular targets were compared with molecular weights from a mass spectral library to match the retention time parameters and mass fragmentation profiles against the corresponding the profile of standard solutions. The summarized qualification and quantification ions for the SIM mode are shown in **Table 5**, and the transition for the MRM mode is shown in **Table 6**.

## **Quality Control and Quality Assurance**

The procedures for all data are subject to quality verification and control procedures. All concentration data are based on dry weight (dw), and their analyzes had replicated. The matrix samples are evaluated with proper samples to determine the extraction yield and the % recovery, which are in the range of 80 to 120% for all investigated molecular targets. The detection limit is evaluated for 16 PAHs, which are 0.05  $\mu$ g.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw, while for PCBs and OCPs in the real samples, they are 0.5  $\mu$ g.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw and the quantification limit is slightly < 500  $\mu$ g.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw.

#### **Results and Discussion**

#### **General Observations**

The gravimetric data are shown in **Table 2**. The concentration of extractable organic matter (EOM) (n = 3 replicats) ranged from 980 to 2380 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dry weight (dw). The lowest and highest values were < 1000 and >2000 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dw at Stations F and H, respectively. The total hydrocarbon content (THC) varied significantly from 680 (Station F) to 1510 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> (Station E) sed. dw. The proportion of THC in the EOM ranged between 53% (Station H) and 75% (Station A and C). The n-alkane fractions in Jakarta Bay had been described in previous study (Azis et al., 2016). The fraction 1 masses were ranged from 680-

1,440 sed.dry weight mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>sed dry weight with the total n-alkanes (n-C<sub>13</sub>-nC<sub>33</sub>) concentrations ranged from 480 to 1,934 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup>sediment dry weight (dw). Then The ratios of specific n-alkanes index parameters (Mille et al., 2007; Asia et al., 2009; Kanzari et al., 2012; Zrafi et al., 2013; Syakti etal., 2013; Kanzari et al., 2014) showed that the hydrocarbons source in the sediments were generally petrogenic and terrigenous input (in the case of G and H).

### PAHs in sediment (including pollution level and sources)

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346 The sum of 16 PAHs listed by US-EPA priority pollutants (U.S. EPA., 1996; Keith L.H., 347 2015; Wise et al., 2015) were quantified in Table 3. The sum of 16 PAHs values ranged from 348 186.64 to 915.70 µg.kg-1 dw. The total PAHs content was relatively high in the sediments from Stations C, D, E, G, and H (428.19 to 915.71 µg.kg-1 dw) comparing with staiton A, B 349 350 and F (below 300 µg,kg-1 dw). The industrial activities in A and B stations obtained a few 351 PAHs, because most of activities from electrical industry and home industry of otomotive. 352 Station F was from tourist activity, means the kind of plastics most found in that station. 353 Stations C, D, and E were connected to the mangrove areas which were the target of tourist 354 visits by boat, while Stations G and H were close to urban areas. The lowest concentrations 355 occurred at Stations A, B, and F (186.64 to 210.81 µg.kg-1 dw). The last stations were located 356 in industrial area (Stations A and B) and in tourist destination (Station F) in the Kepulauan 357 Seribu region. G and H stations were polluted area reached 915.71 µg.kg-1 dw, due to the 358 downstream through from rivers and canal near urban areas of Jakarta City. Those stations 359 were near the fisheries village and cultivation areas of green mussels, The stations G, H were 360 more polluted than others. Meanwhile, the stations C,D and E were potentially polluted were 361 separated from different activities (transportation, tourist and fisheries cultivation area), The 362 PAHs renge concentration levels from this research were the same order of magnitude as 363 previously reported in the bay of Jakarta (257 to 1511 µg.kg-1 dw, Rinawati et al., 2012), (< 364 10 to 550 μg.kg-1 dw; Williams et al., 2000) and the last study was found from river sediment in Jakarta, the PAHs concentrations ranged 1992 to 17635 ng.g<sup>-1</sup> dw (Rinawati et al.m 2017) 365 dw. Several investigation of PAHs concentration from previous studies proven that Jakarta 366 367 Bay was potentially increasing of PAHs by time in sediment. The concentration levels in this 368 research were still lower than at other sites such as Segara Anakan Lagoon in Indonesia (200 to 25,000 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw; Dsikowitzky et al., 2011), the Gulf of Fos in the Mediterranean (27 to 369 2700 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw; Mille et al., 2007), and Tokyo Bay (1372 to 1615 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw; Rinawati et 370 al., 2012), Qinhuai river and Xuanwu lake (796.2 ng.g-1 to 10.470 ng.g-1 dw; Zhao et al., 371 372 2017), Bintan island indonesia (13.492 ng.g-1; Yogaswara et al., 2019). Meanwhile, PAHs

- 373 range in sediment from several sites of Jakarta bay were still higher than other sites such as in
- 374 Bizerte Lagoon (2-538 µg.kg-1 dw; Louiz et al., 2008), in Euphrates river, Iraq (0.197-80.006
- 375 ng.g-1 dw; Al Saad et al., 2016),. Those comparison with other sites could shown the
- 376 baseline reference and evaluating recent environmental impact of PAHs in sediment.
- 377 Several ratio indices have been used to indicate the different sources of PAHs in sediment.
- PAHs isomers with mass to charge ratio, m/z 178 (Ant and Phe) and m/z 202 (Fl and Pyr),
- 379 have been widely used to differentiate between sources of combustion process and
- 380 petroleum.
- The ratio (Fl/Fl+Pyr) value of 0.50 was generally defined as the oil/combustion transition
- point (Yunker et al., 2002). This limit appeared to be more definitive than 0.10 for Ant/ $\sum 178$ .
- FI/ $\sum$ 202 was < 0.50 for petroleum combustion samples, such as gasoline, diesel, fuel oil, and
- 384 crude oil combustion, and > 0.40 for grass, wood/coal combustion samples (Syakti et al.,
- 385 2013). When the Ant/ $\Sigma$ 178 ratio was < 0.1, a petroleum combustion was inferred, and values
- 386 > 0.1 indicated a pyrolytic origin (Budzinsky et al. 1997; Syakti et al., 2013). More
- accurately, the Ant/ $\sum 178$  ratio was > 0.1 for oil, coal, and some crude oil samples and below
- 388 0.1 for lignite, diesel, and fuel oil emissions (Mille et al., 2007; Syakti et al., 2013). The ratio
- of anthracene/[anthracene+phenanthrene] (An/ $\Sigma$  178) more than 0.1 indicated a combustion
- source, while a ratio under 0.1 indicated a pyrolytic source (Budzinski et al., 1997). The ratio
- of fluoranthene/[fluoranthene+pyrene] (Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202) or fluoranthene/pyrene (Fl/Py) were
- 392 characteristic of a pyrolytic source if < 0.5, and a ratio value > 0.5 potentially indicated a
- 393 combustion source, the  $\Sigma$  methyl phenanthrene/phenantrene ratio from 0.5 to 1.0 indicated
- 394 pyrogenic sources, and more than 2 indicated pyrolytic sources (Mille et al., 2007; Asia et al.,
- 395 2009; Asia, 2012; Syakti et al., 2013; Kanzari et al., 2014).
- High molecular weight PAHs, such as B[a]A, Chry, IPyr, and B[ghi]P, were generally minor
- 397 contributors to refined petroleum products (Wang et al., 2001) and were usually present in a
- 398 significant quantities only in products with higher molecular weight fractions, such as asphalt
- 399 (Readman et al., 2002; Syakti et al., 2013) and possibly bitumen or coal (Asia, 2012).
- 400 **Figure 2** showed the use of the triple diagnostic ratio  $FI/\Sigma 202$  vs. Ant/ $\Sigma 178$ ,  $FI/\Sigma 202$  vs.
- 401 IndP/ $\Sigma$  276 and Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202 vs. B[a]A/ $\Sigma$ 228 to differentiate the source of PAHs. Interestingly,
- 402 plotting  $F1/\sum 202$  vs Ant/ $\sum 178$  as well as B[a]A/ $\sum 228$  indicated both a mixed source and a
- 403 petroleum origin. Confirmation was obtained using the correlation of the Fl/∑202 vs.
- 404 IP/ $\Sigma$ 276, showing petroleum combustion for the majority of the sediments. Plotting Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202
- 405 vs. Ant/ $\Sigma$ 178 and Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202 vs. B[a]A/ $\Sigma$ 228 identified that the PAHs in the sediment were

from both petroleum and combustion sources, while the IndP/ $\Sigma$  276 and Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202 identified that PAHs were from mixed combustion of grass/coal/wood and petroleum. In **Table 4**, we have distinguished the basis of the different criteria for the PAH origin. It clearly appears that several pyrogenic or petrogenic origins or mixtures of the two can be proposed for the essential and the most frequent sources of PAHs in the sediments of Jakarta Bay, Indonesia.

#### PAHs in green mussels, P.viridis

The PAHs concentrations in green mussels was higher than that in sediment. The levels found in P. viridis were more than 900  $\mu$ g.kg-1 dw at Station C, D, and F. Meanwhile, each of Station A and E showed lower levels of 591 and 777  $\mu$ g.kg-1 dw (see Table 5). These values were higher than those reported by Isobe et al. (2007), who reported that 19 PAHs contained in P. viridis ranged from 11 to 1133  $\mu$ g.kg-1 dw in several locations in South and Southeast Asia. The total PAHs values were still lower than those in previous studies in Asia. Mokkongpai et al. (2010) reported that 16 PAHs ranged from 2330 to 3000 and from 456,80 to 3115  $\mu$ g.kg-1 dw on the Chonburi Coast in Thailand and in the eastern coast of China, respectively. Any dissolved organic material were able to transfer into fatty tissue, particularly that found in organs in closest contact with aqueous fluids, e.g. kidneys. The lower the solubility of an organic compound in water, the greater is its ability to accumulate in fatty tissues and the greater is the potential for toxic effect (Reeve R.N., 2002., NIMPIS 2011). That is the potentially reason why several high molecular weight PAHs, such as Benzo(a)pyrene which

#### PCBs and OCPs in sediment

The totals of the PCBs in the sediments ranged from 3 to 117 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dw The highest PCB concentrations (101 and 116 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed dw) corresponding to highly polluted sediments were found at stations G and H, which clearly demonstrated the prevalence of pollution in urban areas and mangrove sites. Stations A, B, C, D, E and F were slightly polluted, with 3 to 11 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dw. Mangrove sites can expect to affect the speciation and bioavailability of pollutants which associated with observed toxic effects in mangrove ecosystem species (Dsikowitzky et al., 2011; Bayen S., 2012). In addition the sediment morphology of stations G and H were mud ones, those means, organic material concentrations more abundance than other stations. Moreover, congeners containing 3-5 chlorine atoms (trichloro (CB 28), tetrachloro (CB 52), pentachloro (CB 101 and CB 118)) were identified at all stations. Then,

have lower solubility were almost not detected or below the limit of detection in sediment.

the 6-7 chlorine atoms (hexachloro (CB 138 and CB 153) and heptachloro (CB 180) were only found at station H. The summary of the PCB contamination in surface sediments was shown in **Fig 3.** Several studies can be compared with the PCB contamination levels in the sediments from Jakarta Bay, which were higher than those at several other locations in Jakarta Bay since 2011, which were found to be 2-9 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw, and those in Tokyo Bay, which were found to be 37-47 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw (Rinawati et al., 2012). Additionally, the levels in Jakarta Bay were higher than those in other locations around the world, such as the Hauveane River in France, the levels were 27.2-36.4 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw (Kanzari et al., 2014), although they were lower than those in Mazaleh Lake (125-330 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), Mariout Lake (4-304 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw) and the Nile River (53-1500 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup>dw) in Egypt (Yamashita et al., 2000). On the other hand, PCB compounds were not detected in green mussels at any mussel sampling station.

Nine OCPs were analyzed, but only three OCP molecular weights were detected in the surface sediments (pp'-DDE, hexachlorobenzene and pp'-DDT + pp'-DDD) (Fig 4). Only one organochlorine pesticide (pp'-DDE) was found in the tissues of the green mussel P. viridis. The fact that many of the PCBs and organochlorine compounds were not detected in the sediments or in the green mussels does not mean that these compounds were not present in the samples. A specific protocol adapted for both different matrices could probably be used to detect lower concentrations. The total OCPs in the sediment ranged from 2.93 to 17.99 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> <sup>1</sup> sed. dw. A previous study in Jakarta Bay (Williams et al., 2000) reported that the pp'-DDE had the highest concentration among the organochlorines (1-7 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), while other areas had lower levels than those in Jakarta Bay, such as the Hauveane River in France (0.06-5.48 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup>dw; Kanzari et al., 2014) and Bothnian Bay of the Baltic Sea (0.48-1.1 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup>dw; Strandberg et al., 2000). We observed that the highest concentration levels of OCPs in the sediments were found at stations G and H. These sites indicated that agricultural activities were near urban areas and mangrove sites. Hexachlorobenzene and pp'-DDT/pp'-DDD were found in stations A, B (near industrial and port area); E and F (near tourist destinations, small islands, and Kepulauan Seribu) had lower concentrations than pp'-DDE. The pp'DDE concentrations, which was found in the mussel shell dry mass with a range of 5-6 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> mussel dw, was found at all sampling stations (A, C, D, E, F). However, pp'-DDE was the largest contributor at all sampling stations in the sediments and green mussels.

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### Evaluation of the Ecotoxicological Risk of PAHs, PCBs and pp'DDE in the Sediments

The ecological risk assessment of sediment uses several references, such as the sediment quality guidelines (SQG). The SQGs, including the sediment quality criteria, sediment quality

objectives, and sediment quality standards, have been applied and developed by various federal states and provincial agencies in North America for freshwater and marine ecosystems (Long and MacDonald, 1998; Kanzari et al., 2014). This assessment was developed to monitor remediation quality (Long and MacDonald, 1998). However, the average SQGQs had several important limitations and underlying assumptions that should be understood by sediment quality assessors. This paper provided an overview of the derivation methods and some of the principal advantages, assumptions, and limitations of using this sediment assessment tool. Ideally, the average SQGQs should be included with other measures including toxicity test results and benthic community surveys to provide weighted evidence when assessing the relative quality of contaminated sediments (Long et al., 2006). Specifically, for the PAHs, the published SQGs for the protection of sediment-dwelling organisms in freshwater ecosystems were grouped (Long and MacDonald, 1998; Long et al. 2006) into two categories, threshold effect levels (TELs) and effect range low values (ERLs) (Figure 5). The ERL guideline value represented the concentrations above for which adverse toxicological effects can be detected, and the TEL represented the concentration below which was expected to have an adverse effect on pollutants in the sediment (Burton et al., 2002). Sediments that have concentrations between the TEL and ERL should be considered to have potential toxicity with possible adverse effects. The contamination level at Stations G and H are higher than recommended by the TEL (870 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw) but lower than the ERL value, which clearly indicated contamination for severe PAHs (4-5 rings, such fluoranthene, pyrene, benzo(a) pyrene, chrysene, benzo(b) fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, benzo(a)pyrene) (Kanzari et al., 2014). However, other stations with lower values than the TEL values rarely contained PAHs contamination in the sediments (Burton et al., 2002). Concerning the total PCB concentrations, Stations G and H were higher than the ERM (effect range median; 22.7 ug.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), but they were still lower than the TEL (threshold effect Level: 180 ug.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw). In addition, 6 stations (Station A, B, C, D, E, and F) were lower than the median range. The NOAA guidelines defined assessments for Σpp'-DDE concentrations and have four parameters, the probable effect level (PEL) (6.75 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), effect range low (ERL; 2.0 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), threshold effect level (TEL; 1.42 μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw), and effect range median (ERM). Six stations (Stations A, B, C, D, E, and F) were identified between the TEL and ERL. Then, two stations (Stations G and H) were shown to have possible risk to the environment, and the biota caused their values to be higher than the PEL and lower than the ERM. The plotted SQGs of the PCBs and pp'DDE in the sediments were shown in Figure 6. This evaluation confirmed that Station G and H had higher potential risks to the environment and biota

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compared to other stations. This data can be used as a baseline reference for evaluating the current environmental conditions on this site for efficient environmental management in the future and to improve the quality of the bay.

#### Evaluation of the Ecotoxicological Risk of PAHs in Perna viridis

Bioaccumulation or biomagnification of organic pollutant and heavy metal in the marine biota such as fish, mussels, mangrove can possible impact on human health. (Kumari et al., 2018; Chowdury, A and Maity, S.K., 2016) According to l'AFSSA (Avis d AFFSA, Agence Francaise de Securité Sanitaire des Aliments, 2003), the risk of contamination was evaluated by the sum of the heavy 6 PAHs (benz(a)anthracen, benzo(b+j)fluoranthen, benzo(k)fluoranthen, benzo(a)pyren, dibenzo(a,h)antracen). The limit for the consumption PAHs contaminated seafood was 0.2 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> tissue dw or 200  $\mu$ g.kg<sup>-1</sup> tissue dw. This threshold applied to crustaceans and mollusks, which were exposed to contaminants. Most of the green mussels in Jakarta Bay located in polluted stations that were not recommended for consumption (> 200  $\mu$ g.kg<sup>-1</sup> tissue dw), and those at Station A should not be consumed.

#### **Conclusions**

The concentration of 16 PAHs in the sediments ranged from 186.64 to 915.71  $\mu g.kg^{-1}$  sed. dw. The concentration of 7 PCBs ranged from 2.85-116.49  $\mu g.kg^{-1}$  sed. dw, and the total OCPs ranged from 2.97-17.99 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dw. In the mussels, the concentration of 16 PAHs ranged from 591 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> to 997 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> mussel dw, and the OCPs concentrations varied from 5 to 6 µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> mussel dw. The selected PAHs ratios, including Ant/ $\Sigma$ 178, Fl/ $\Sigma$ 202, BaAnt/ $\Sigma$ 228, and IPyr/ $\Sigma$ 276, potentially showed that the sources of the hydrocarbons in sediments were generally biogenic and terrigenous. The ecotoxicological evaluation results, based on the international sediment quality guidelines (SQGs), showed that stations have environmental risks between low and medium-low, except for Stations G and H, which had higher level of ecological risk for marine organisms. The consumption safety evaluation showed that these mussels had been contaminated, and it was not recommended for human consumption. This data can be used for baseline reference concentrations as part of an integrated watershed management program involving biodiversity, freshwater ecology, and economic activities in the study area. More extensive and comprehensive monitoring of organic pollutants, such as the persistent organics and emerging pollutants, will form a more reliable baseline and can serve as a reference for evaluating compliance with environmental regulations.

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# **List of Tables**

# Table 1. GPS coordinates of the sampling locations

	Station		Sampl	Sediment	
Code	GPS Cordinate	Depth	Sediment	Perna viridis (PV)	morphology
	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 6'19.800''	4 m(sed)			Brown, Coarse
St A	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 46'48.202''	± 5-20 cm (PV)	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	sand
	S06 <sup>0</sup> 6'19.800''	4 m (sed)			Brown, Coarse
St B	E106 <sup>0</sup> 46,'28,700'	± 5-20 cm (PV)	$\sqrt{}$	-	sand
	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 4'28.976''	5 m(sed)			Brown, Coarse
St C	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 43'21.201''	± 5-20 cm (PV)	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	sand
	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 3'4.097''	60 m(sed)			Brown, fine
St D	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 42'58.914''	± 5-20 cm (PV	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	sand
	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 4'55.920''	5 m(sed)		,	Black green,
St E	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 44'7.300''	± 5-20 cm (PV	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	fine silt
G. E	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 2'53.160''	5 m(sed)	1	1	Black green,
St F	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 44'7.300''	± 5-20 cm (PV	V	$\sqrt{}$	silt
	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 5'56.692''	6 m(sed)			Black mud,
St G	E 106 <sup>0</sup> 44'50.276''	± 5-20 cm (PV	$\sqrt{}$	-	gravel or granules
St H	S 06 <sup>0</sup> 6'4.392''	6 m(sed)	$\checkmark$	-	Black mud, gravel or granules

Table 2. Gravimetric data of the sediment samples from Jakarta Bay, Indonesia

Station	EOM (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	F1 (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	F2 (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	F1/F2	THC (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	F1/THC %	F2/THC %	THC/EOM %
A	1060	700	100	7	800	88	12	75
В	1870	1280	60	21	1340	96	4	72
C	1630	1120	110	10	1230	91	9	75
D	1150	680	120	6	800	85	15	70
E	2380	1440	70	21	1510	95	5	63
F	980	620	60	10	680	91	9	69
G	1683	980	158	6	1139	86	14	68
Н	2240	990	200	5	1190	83	17	53

797 EOM: extractible organic matter, THC: total hydrocarbons content, F1: Fraction 1 and F2: Fraction 2. 798

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nom Jakarta Bay, indonesia (μg.kg - dw).								
Ratios of	StA	St B	St C	St D	St E	St F	St G	St H
PAHs								
Naph	0	0	212.71	438.42	257.88	0	139.11	261.78
Ace	3	1.91	1.63	1.56	2.52	2.01	2.37	7.65
Acen	3 2	2.50	5.17	3.78	3.46	2.56	12.38	10.58
Flu	44	2.70	6.30	5.10	3.44	4.03	16.50	26.73
Phe	132	11.12	15.57	18.52	9.84	17.84	44.29	54.18
Ant	44	2.52	4.13	3.87	2.96	3.02	6.43	11.02
Fluo	19.52	18.12	12.95	20.32	9.53	16.05	36.21	47.11
Pyr	40.48	36.48	22.46	47.68	15.78	29.21	42.36	54.93
BzA	3.05	5.09	3.69	9.57	1.56	1.48	7.79	23.41
Chrys	15.97	10.41	15.27	12.28	10.14	8.31	33.10	68.52
BzbF	10.71	9.60	10.28	11.20	9.69	8.59	17.67	86.60
BzkF	< LOD	nd	nd	nd	< LOD	nd	< LOD	Nd
BzaPyr	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	nd	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD
Dibenzanth	47.05	42.71	43.18	43.35	43.90	42.37	45.12	82.59
Bper	1.35	2.20	5.00	5.43	8.63	4.67	20.28	108.87
IndP	47.03	46.69	49.56	50.33	48.85	46.51	56.97	71.75
$\sum PAHs$	210.81	192.04	407.90	671.41	428.19	186.64	480.56	915.70
$(An/\sum 178)$	0.24	0.19	0.21	0.17	0.23	0.15	0.13	0.17
(Fluo/∑202)	0.33	0.33	0.37	0.30	0.38	0.36	0.46	0.46
$(BzA/\sum 228)$	0.16	033	0.19	0.44	0.13	0.15	0.19	0.25
$(IndP/\sum 276)$	0.97	0.96	0.91	0.90	0.85	0.91	0.74	0.40
HMW	85.67	75.35	68.21	100.82	47.53	74.71	160.53	212.19
LMW	125.15	116.70	126.98	132.17	122.77	111.92	180.92	441.73
LMW/HMW	1.46	1.55	1.86	1.31	2.58	1.50	1.13	1.95
Phe/An	3.26	4.41	3.77	4.79	3.32	5.91	6.89	4.92
Fl/Py	0.48	0.50	0.58	0.43	0.60	0.55	0.85	0.86
BzA/Chrys	0.19	0.49	0.24	0.78	0.15	0.18	0.24	0.34
IndP/Bper	20.01	21.22	9.91	9.27	5.66	9.96	2.81	0.66
∑C1 Phe/Phe	0.99	0.66	1.02	0.77	0.71	0.61	1.04	1.21

H), Mussels, Perna viridis (PVA-PVF), HMW High (Fluor+Pyr+Bz(a)anth+Chry+IndP+Bper+Dibenzoper); LMW = Low Molecular Weight (LMW = Naph+Acy+Fluo+Ace+Phe+Anth); Naph = Naphthalene; Acy = Acenaphtylene; Ace = Acenaphtene; Fluor = Fluorene; Phe=Phenanthrene; Anth=Anthracene; Fluor = Fluoranthene; Pyr = Pyrene; BzA = Benzo(a) anthracene; Chrys = Chrysene; BzbF = Benzo (b)Fluoranthene; BzkF= Benzo(k)Fluoranthene; Bzapyr = Benzo(a)pyrene; IndP = Indeno(123cdi)pyrene; Bper = Benzo(ghi)Perylene; C1Phe = Methyl Phenanthrene; (Mille et al., 2007; Asia, 2012; Kanzari et al., 2014), nd = not detected, LOD = Limit of Detection

**Table 4.** Classification of the PAHs from sampling stations according to different criteria

Ratios	Pyrolyti	c origin	Mixed	Mixed origin		Petrogenic origin	
Ratios	Sediment	Mussel	Sediment	Mussel	Sediment	Mussel	
An/Σ178	> 0.1 <b>A,B,C,D,</b> <b>E,F,G,H</b>	>0.1 <b>A,C,D,E,</b> <b>F</b> -	1	-	< 0.1	-	
Phe/An	<10 A,B,C,D, E,F,G,H	< 10 <b>A,C,D,E,</b> <b>F</b>		10-15	> 15	> 15	
F1/Σ202	> 0.5	> 0.5	0.4-0.5 <b>G,H</b>	-	< 0.4 <b>A,B,C,D,</b> <b>E,F</b>	-< 0.4 <b>A,C,D,E,</b> <b>F</b>	
Fl/Py	> 1	> 1	1	1	< 1 <b>A,B,C,D,</b> <b>E,F,G,H</b>	< 1 <b>A,C,D,E,</b> <b>F</b>	
BzA/Chry	> 0.4 <b>B,D</b>	> 0.4 <b>A,C,D</b>		-	< 0.4 <b>A,C,E,F,</b> <b>G,H</b>	< 0.4 <b>E,F</b>	
BzA/Σ228	> 0.35 <b>B,D</b>	> 0.35 <b>A,C,D</b>	0.2-0.35 <b>C,G,H</b>	-	< 0.2 <b>A,E,F</b>	< 0.2 <b>E,F</b>	
IndP/Σ276	> 0.5 (wood,pla nt, coal combustio n) A,B,C,D, E,F,G,H	> 0.5 (wood, plant,coal combustio n) A,C,E	0.2-0.5 (fuel combustio n H	0.2-0.5 (fuel combust ion -	< 0.2	< 0.2 <b>D,F</b>	
LMW/HMW	> 1 A,B,C,D, E,F,G,H	> 1	1	1	< 1	< 1 <b>A,C,D,E,</b> <b>F</b>	
Phe/Phe +ΣC1Phe	0.5-1 <b>A,B,C,D,</b> <b>E,F,G,H</b>		> 1		> 2		

HMW = High Molecular Weight (Fluor+Pyr+Bz(a)anth+Chry+IndP+Bper+Dibenzoper); LMW = Low Molecular Weight (LMW = Naph+Acy+Fluo+Ace+Phe+Anth); Naph = Naphthalene; Acy = Acenaphtylene; Ace = Acenaphtene; Fluo = Flurene; Phe=Phenanthrene; Anth=Anthracene; Fluor = Fluoranthene; Pyr = Pyrene; BzA = Benzo(a) anthracene; Chrys = Chrysene;BzbF =Benzo (b)Fluoranthene; BzkF=Benzo(k)Fluoranthene;Bzapyr = Benzo(a)pyrene; IndP = Indeno(123cdi)pyrene; Bper = Benzo(ghi)Perylene; C1Phe = Methyl Phenanthrene; C2Phe = Ethyl Phenanthrene (Mille et al., 2007; Asia, 2012; Kanzari et al., 2014)

**Table 5**. Index parameter of priority the sum of 16 PAHs (USEPA) in the green mussels,

Perna viridis, from Jakarta Bay, Indonesia (µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw±SD).

Compounds (m/z)	PV A	PV C	PV D	PV E	PV F
Naphthalene (128)	122.63±2.91	128.16±12.03	146.67±5.25	93.43±1.25	81.49±2.63
Acénaphthene (152)	< LOD	< LOD	< LOD	5.55±0.38	5.18±0.26
Fluorene (166)	17.17±1.70	6.99±0.64	5.22±0.33	8.27±0.22	7.78±0.14
Phénanthrene (178)	37.50±7.87	27.13±1.95	10.56±0.01	25.73±0.40	25.84±1.31
Anthracene (178)	11.33±2.04	5.89±0.61	7.09±0.07	6.82±0.25	7.35±0.40
Pyrene (202)	83.47±8.50	145.61±5.46	36.71±0.33	115.06±4.16	117.29±1.97
Fluoranthene (202)	35.96±1.20	41.47±2.56	15.23±1.06	43.93±0.24	32.66±0.92
Chrysene (228)	23.42±0.74	24.39±3.51	6.96±0.21	1.25±0.09	1.30±0.04
Benzo(a)Anthracene (228)	27.43±1.41	22.85±4.17	6.56±0.37	< LOD	< LOD
Benzo(a)pyrene (252)	189.01±20.10	486.89±43.18	755.03±61.26	409.96±3.02	627.84±4.48
Indeno(1,2,3cdi)pyrene	30.16±2.93	18.82±0.75	1.34±0.03	14.64±1.82	< LOD
Dibenzo(ah)Anthracene (278)	13.58±0.91	< LOD	< LOD	10.46±0.13	< LOD
Benzo(ghi)perylene (276)	< LOD	14.17±0.95	4.61±1.05	< LOD	833.10±178.87
ΣΡΑΗ	591.66±50.31	922.37±84.38	995.98±69.97	735.1±11.9	1739.84±190.97
LMW	188.63	168.17	169.54	134.22	127.65
HMW	403.03	754.20	826.44	580.66	1612.19
LMW/HMW	0.46	0.22	0.21	0.23	0.08
Phe/Anth	3.31	4.60	1.49	3.77	3.52
Anth/ $\Sigma 178$	0.23	0.18	0.29	0.21	0.22
Fluo/Σ202	0.30	0.22	0.29	0.28	0.22
Fluo/Pyr	0.43	0.28	0.41	0.38	0.28
$Bz(a)Ant/\Sigma 228$	0.54	0.48	0.48	0	0
Bz(a)Ant/Chry	1.17	0.94	0.94	0	0
IndP/ $\Sigma 276$	1	0.57	0.22	1	0
pp'-DDE	6.19±0.17	5.64±0.01	5.14±0.85	4.65±0.29	4.61±0.19

### **List of Figures**

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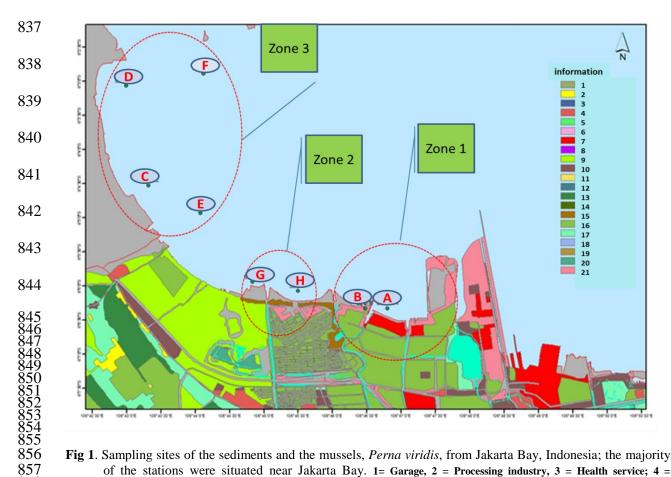
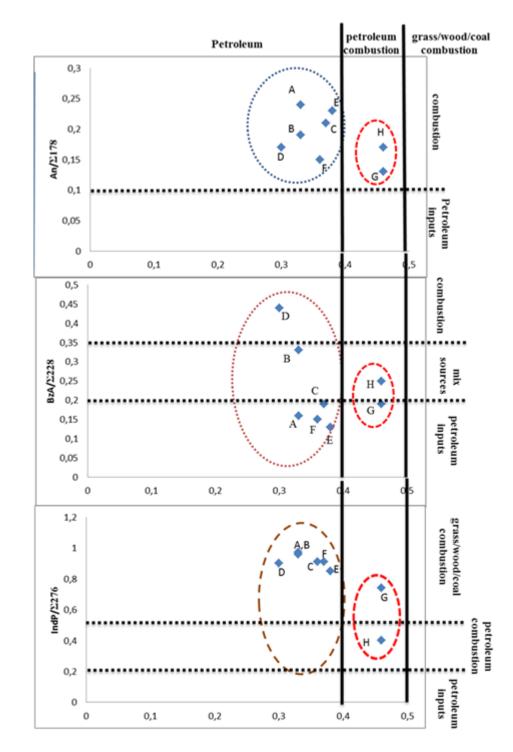
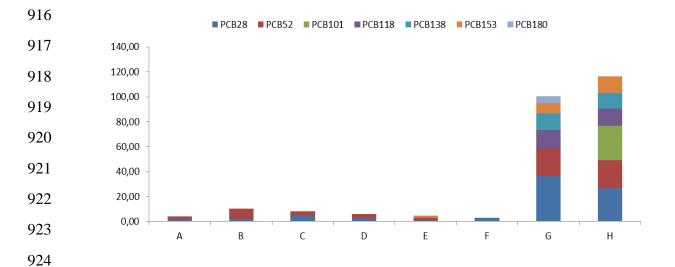


Fig 1. Sampling sites of the sediments and the mussels, *Perna viridis*, from Jakarta Bay, Indonesia; the majority of the stations were situated near Jakarta Bay. 1= Garage, 2 = Processing industry, 3 = Health service; 4 = Government service; 5 = Education service; 6= Workshop service; 6= Industrial Area; 7= Cemetery; 8 = Central Business; 9 = Agency Business; 10 = Market; 11 = Storage; 12 = Fishery; 13 = Agricultural Wetland; 14 = Dry land farming; 15 = Regular housing; 16 = Irregular housing; 17 = Livestock; 18 = Transport infrastructure; 19 = Open space; 20 = Vacant land allocated; 21 = vacant land allocated



 $\begin{array}{c} 887 \\ 888 \end{array}$ 

**Fig 2.** Cross plots of the isomeric ratios Fl/∑202 vs. Ant/∑178 vs (star shapes), B[a]A/∑228 (square shapes) and IPyr/∑276 (triangle shapes) in the sediment. Literature boundary ratios were derived from Yunker et al. (2002).



**Fig 3.** Concentration of PCBs (μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sediment dw) at station A-H (Jakarta Bay, Indonesia).

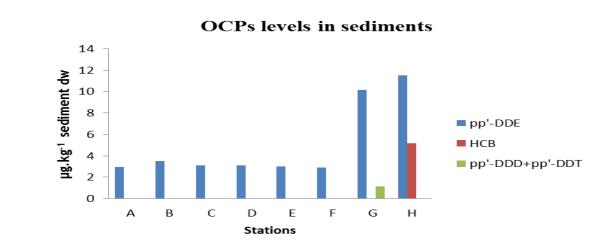


Fig 4. Concentration of OCs (μg.kg<sup>-1</sup> dw) in the sediments and mussels from Jakarta Bay, Indonesia.

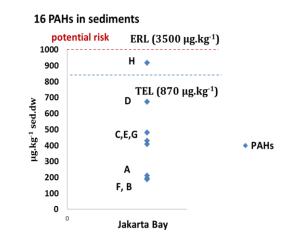
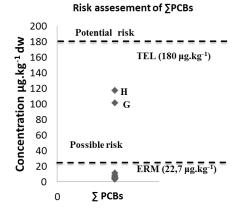


Fig 5. Assessment risk of the  $\sum$  16 PAHs (µg.kg<sup>-1</sup> sed. dw) in sediment.





**Fig 6.** Sedimentary guidelines values for effect range median (ERM) and threshold effect level (TEL) in the PCBs and the probable effect level (PEL), effect range low (ERL), threshold effect level (TEL) and effect range median (ERM) values for the PCBs and pp'-DDE in the sediments from Jakarta Bay (Long et al., 1998; Burton et al., 2008)

**Table 5.** MRM (multiple reaction monitoring) mode for the PCBs and OCPs

Compounds	Quantification transition			Co	onfirm	ation transi	tion
	Precursor	Product	Collision	Precursor	ion	Product	Collision
	ion (amu)	ion	Energy	(amu)		ion	energy (V)
		(amu)	<b>(V)</b>			(amu)	
	1	Window 1 (1	1,5 to 15,6 mi	nute)			
Aldrin	298,0 →	263,0	8	263,0	$\rightarrow$	191,0	30
Hexachlorobenzen	283,9 →	248,8	25	283,9	$\rightarrow$	213,9	35
Heptachlore	<b>271,1</b> →	237,0	10				
PCB 28	<b>256,0</b> →	186,0	26	258,0	$\rightarrow$	186,0	26
PCB 52	289,9 →	220,0	28	291,9	$\rightarrow$	222,0	28
		Window 2 (1	15,6 to 25 min	nute)			
Chlordecone	271,7 →	236,8	10	236,8	$\rightarrow$	143,0	15
Dieldrin	262,8 →	193,0	30	262,8	$\rightarrow$	191,0	15
Endosulfan 1	240,9 →	205,9	10	240,9	$\rightarrow$	169,9	20
Heptachlor epoxy	352,7 →	262,9	20	352,7	$\rightarrow$	316,9	20
ppDDD	237,0 →	165,0	20	235,0	$\rightarrow$	199,1	8
pp'DDD d4	242,9 →	173,1	20				
pp'DDE	248,0 →	176,0	30	246,0	$\rightarrow$	211,0	20
pp'DDT	237,0 →	165,0	20	235,0	$\rightarrow$	199,1	20
pp'DDE d4	253,9 →	184,2	30				
PCB 101	<b>323,9</b> →	253,9	28	325,9	$\rightarrow$	255,9	28
PCB 101 d3	328,7 →	258,9	20				
PCB 118	323,9 →	253,9	28	325,9	$\rightarrow$	255,9	28
PCB 138 and 153	357,0 →	287,9	28	359,8	$\rightarrow$	289,9	28
PCB 156 d3	363,0	293,0	20				
PCB 180	393,8	323,9	30	395,8	$\rightarrow$	325,9	30

 Table 6. SIM (selected ion monitoring) mode for the PAHs

Target compounds (standard marquer)	Qualification m/z (amu)	Quantification m/z (amu) (standard marquer)
Naphtalene ( $d_8$ )	127	128 (136)
Acenaphtylene $(d_{10})$	-	154 (162)
Acenaphtene ( $d_{10}$ )	-	152 (160)
Fluorene ( $d_{10}$ )	-	166 (176)
Phénanthrene / Anthracene $(d_{10}/d_{10})$	174/ 174	178 (188)
Fluoranthene / Pyrne $(d_{10}/d_{10})$	200/200	202
Benzo(a) anthracene / Chrysene $(d_{12}/d_{12})$	226/226	228 (240)
Benzo(b)Fluoranthene	250	
Benzo(k)fluoranthene		252 (264)
Benzo(a)pyrene $(d_{12}/d_{12}/d_{12})$		
Indéno (1,2,3) cd pyrene /	276/ 274	
Benzo(g,h,i)pérylene $(d_{12}/d_{12})$		276 (288)
Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene ( $d_{14}$ )	274	278 (292)