EFFECT OF POLYCYCLIC AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS ON AQUATICN HABITATS

Adagha Oghenefejiro, OleleNkeonyeasua Florence and Irabor Arnold Eboka Department of Fisheries and Aquaculture, Dennis Osadebay University, Asaba Correspondence: philjant1980@gmail.com

Abstract

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are formed primarily during incomplete combustion of organic materials (fossil fuels, wood, and organic substances etc), hence they are prevalent in the air, soil, sediment, and water bodies (Ocean, Rivers, Lakes, and Ponds). Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) enter aquatic environments through various pathways, including runoff, atmospheric deposition, and oil spills. Once present in water bodies, they can adsorb onto suspended particles and sediments, potentially accumulating in the food chain. The effects of PAHs on aquatic organisms are extensive and multifaceted. They can disrupt physiological processes, affect reproduction, growth, and development, and lead to genotoxicity and carcinogenicity. Fish and other aquatic organisms exposed to elevated levels often experience compromised immune systems and altered behavior. Some of its adverse effects result in longterm ecological shifts by disrupting nutrient cycles and altering microbial communities. This can ripplr through aquatic food webs, impacting predator-prey relationships and overall ecosystem stability. The accumulation of PAHs in sediments can lead to prolonged contamination, affecting benthic organisms and potentially entering the terrestrial environment through the aquatic-terrestrial linkages. Effective mitigation strategies require a comprehensive understanding of PAH fate and behavior in aquatic systems. This includes the development of efficient monitoring techniques, the implementation of pollution control measures, and the restoration of contaminated sites. As PAHs continue to pose a significant threat to aquatic habitats, interdisciplinary efforts are necessary to minimize their adverse effects and safeguard the health and biodiversity of these crucial ecosystems.

Keywords: Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbon; Aquatic; Pollution; Ecological; Sdiment; Species; Toxicity.

Introduction

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are groups of organic compounds consisting of multiple fused aromatic rings (Varjaniet al, 2018). They are formed primarily during the incomplete combustion of organic materials, such as fossil fuels, wood, and other organic substances (Abbas et al, 2018). PAHs can be found in various environmental compartments, including air, soil, sediment, and water(Balmeret al, 2019).Inland waters, which include rivers, lakes, and ponds, can become contaminated with PAHs through several sources, including:Urban Runoff: Stormwater runoff from urban areas can carry PAHs from roads. parking lots, and other surfaces where combustion and other industrial processes occur (Müller et al, 2020).Industrial Discharges: Industries that use or produce PAH-containing substances, such as coal-tar products, can release PAHs into water bodies through wastewater discharges (Mojiriet al. 2019). Agricultural Activities: Runoff from agricultural fields treated with pesticides and fertilizers can transport PAHs into nearby water bodies(Moeder et al, 2017). Atmospheric Deposition: PAHs can be deposited from the atmosphere onto the surface of inland waters, particularly in regions with high levels of air pollution(Zhang et al, 2019). Natural Sources: PAHs can also come from natural sources, such as forest fires and volcanic activities, but human activities are generally the primary contributors in many cases (Manisalidis et al, 2020). The presence of PAHs in inland waters is a concern due to their potential environmental and human health effects (Smith et al, 2018). They are known to be toxic and can have carcinogenic, mutagenic, and teratogenic effects on aquatic organisms (Dasharathy et al, 2022). PAHs tend to accumulate in sediments, where they can persist for long periods of time and continue to impact aquatic ecosystems (Maletićet al, 2019). Regulatory agencies and environmental organizations monitor and regulate the levels of PAHs in water bodies to ensure the protection of aquatic life and human health (Guoet al, 2019). Strategies to mitigate PAH contamination in inland waters may include implementing pollution control measures in industrial processes, improving stormwater management practices, and promoting sustainable land use and agricultural practices (Zhang et al. 2018).

Bioaccumulation and Biomagnification

Bioaccumulation refers to the process by which pollutants or substances, typically chemicals or heavy metals, build up in an organism's tissues over time. This occurs when an organism absorbs a substance at a rate faster than it can eliminate it. The primary route of entry for these substances is often through ingestion of contaminated food, water, or sediment. Once these substances enter an organism's body, they can be stored in various tissues, such as fat, liver, and muscle (Yilmaz *et al*, 2020; Ododo&Wabalo, 2019; Sikorski *et al*, 2020 and Lehel& Murphy, 2021).

PAHs are known to accumulate in aquatic organisms, including fish, mollusks, and plankton. Due to their lipophilic nature, PAHs can easily dissolve in fats and accumulate in the tissues of aquatic organisms. This process can lead to biomagnification, where the concentration of PAHs increases as you move up the food chain, posing a higher risk to predators (Walkinshaw *et al*, 2020; Han *et al*, 2022 and Akinsanya *et al*, 2018).

Imagine a small fish living in polluted waters. This fish ingests water containing a low concentration of a toxic substance (e.g., mercury) and consumes food that may also contain the substance. Since the fish's metabolic rate is lower than the rate at which it's accumulating the substance, the toxic substance gradually builds up in its tissues over time.

Biomagnification is an extension of bioaccumulation and refers to the process where the concentration of a substance increases at higher trophic levels in a food chain. This phenomenon occurs because the predators at the top of the food chain consume many prey organisms, each of which may have accumulated a certain level of the substance (Szynkowska *et al*, 2018; D'Souza *et al*, 2020 and Wang *et al*, 2019). As a result, the predator accumulates the substance from all the organisms it consumes, leading to a higher concentration of the substance in its body compared to its prey.

Now, let's introduce a larger predatory fish that feeds on these smaller contaminated fish. The larger fish consumes multiple smaller fish over its lifetime. Because each of the smaller fish has accumulated some level of the toxic substance, the larger fish accumulates a higher concentration of the substance from all the fish it consumes. This is because the toxic substance isn't metabolized or eliminated efficiently in the larger fish's body. As a result, the concentration of the toxic substance increases as you move up the food chain, reaching its highest levels in the top predators. Bioaccumulation and biomagnification are important concepts in the study of aquatic environments, specifically in understanding how pollutants and toxins move through the food chain and impact organisms within these ecosystems (Ma *et al*, 2020; Nilsen *et al*, 2019 and Menéndez-Pedriza, &Jaumot, 2020).

The consequences of bioaccumulation and biomagnification can be serious

Ecological Impact

igh concentrations of pollutants can harm aquatic ecosystems by disrupting the balance of predator-prey relationships and potentially leading to population declines or extinctions (Kahlon*et al*,2018 and Rearick*et al*,2018).

Human Health.

If these contaminated aquatic organisms are consumed by humans, the toxic substances can enter the human food chain and pose health risks, as high concentrations of certain substances (like mercury) can lead to neurological and other health issues.

Understanding these concepts is crucial for managing and conserving aquatic environments, as well as for making informed decisions about pollution control and resource management (Mishra *et al*, 2021 and Reid *et al*, 2019).

Toxicity to Aquatic Organisms.

The toxicity of PAHs to aquatic organisms can vary widely based on factors such as the specific type of PAH, its concentration, the exposure duration, and the sensitivity of the organism. PAHs are generally hydrophobic (not soluble in water), and they tend to accumulate in sediments and organisms within aquatic ecosystems. This accumulation can lead to direct exposure of aquatic organisms to PAHs, resulting in adverse effects (Honda and Suzuki, 2020 and Amoatey&Baawain, 2019). PAHs are often found in various environmental matrices, including air, soil, and water. Due to their widespread presence and potential toxicity, they have been a subject of significant research, especially regarding their impact on aquatic organisms (Birch et al, 2020 and Mofijuret al,2021).

PAHs can be toxic to a wide range of aquatic organisms, including fish, amphibians, invertebrates, and algae(Castro-Castellon *et al*, 2022 and Folkerts*et al*, 2020). They can cause various negative effects, such as developmental abnormalities, reproductive impairment, reduced growth, and altered behavior. Some species are more sensitive to PAH expossure than others.

Key points regarding the toxicity of PAHs to aquatic organisms.

Acute and Chronic Effects: Acute exposure to high concentrations of PAHs can lead to immediate toxic effects in aquatic organisms, such as fish kills or reduced mobility in invertebrates (Samadi*et al*, 2022 and Paul *et al*, 2022). Chronic exposure to lower concentrations over a longer period can result in sublethal effects, such as impaired growth, reproduction, and immune function.

Bioavailability: The availability of PAHs for uptake by aquatic organisms depends on factors like the PAH's solubility in water and its tendency to adsorb to particles and sediment. Bioavailability affects the extent of exposure and subsequent toxicity (He *et al*, 2022; Wang & Liu 2022; Gündogdu*et al*, 2022 and Guo *et al*, 2023).

Species Sensitivity: Different aquatic species vary in their sensitivity to PAHs (Jesus *et al*,2022). For example, some fish species may exhibit higher tolerance to certain PAHs compared to more sensitive species like amphibians or mollusks.

Developmental Effects: Embryos and early life stages of aquatic organisms are often more sensitive to PAH exposure, as their developing systems may be more susceptible to disruption (Bérubé*et al*, 2023).

Biodegradation and Metabolism: Some aquatic organisms, particularly bacteria and fungi, have the ability to degrade PAHs through metabolic processes (Vijayanand*et al*, 2023; Alao& Adebayo, 2022 and Thacharodi*et al*,2023) . However, this degradation might not be sufficient to prevent the accumulation of PAHs in certain environments.

Synergistic Effects: PAHs can interact with other pollutants or stressors in aquatic ecosystems, potentially leading to synergistic effects that exacerbate toxicity (Trevisan*et al*, 2022).

Regulatory Concerns: Due to their potential harmful effects, several PAHs are regulated by environmental agencies and organizations (Hussain *et al*, 2018). These regulations often set limits on the concentrations of specific PAHs in water bodies to protect aquatic life.

The toxicity of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons to aquatic organisms is a complex issue influenced by multiple factors (Othman *et al*,2023). Research continues to enhance our understanding of how different species are affected by PAH exposure and to develop effective strategies for mitigating their impact on aquatic ecosystems

Disruption of Endocrine System.

Exposure to certain PAHs can interfere with the endocrine systems of aquatic organisms, leading to hormonal disruptions. This can result in abnormal growth, reproductive issues, and altered behavior. PAHs are persistent and can accumulate in sediments, water, and biota, posing significant risks to aquatic ecosystems and human health (Saunders *et al*, 2022).

The disruption of the endocrine system due to the effects of PAHs in aquatic environments is a concerning issue (Chen *et al*, 2022). The endocrine system is responsible for regulating various physiological processes by producing and releasing hormones. These hormones play a crucial role in growth, development, reproduction, and maintaining overall homeostasis within organisms.

Exposure to PAHs can lead to endocrine disruption in several ways.

Hormone Mimicry and Alteration: Some PAHs have been shown to mimic or interfere with the actions of hormones in the endocrine system. These compounds can bind to hormone receptors, leading to abnormal signaling and disrupting normal physiological processes. For instance, PAHs can interfere with the functioning of estrogen and androgen receptors, affecting the reproductive system and developmen(Ramesh *et al*, 2022).

Hormone Production and Regulation: PAH exposure can affect the production and regulation of hormones. This disruption can lead to imbalances in hormone levels, potentially impacting various bodily functions. For example, exposure to certain PAHs has been linked to alterations in thyroid hormone regulation, which can affect metabolism and development (Chae*et al*, 2023).

Reproductive and Developmental Effects: PAHs have been associated with reproductive and developmental abnormalities in aquatic organisms. They can interfere with the endocrine signals that govern reproduction and fetal development, leading to reduced reproductive success, birth defects, and impaired growth (Marlatt*et al*, 2022).

Transgenerational Effects: Some studies suggest that exposure to PAHs in aquatic environments can lead to transgenerational effects, where the endocrine disruption caused by PAH exposure is passed down to subsequent generations, even in the absence of direct exposure (Chen *et al*, 2022).

To mitigate the disruption of the endocrine system due to the effects of PAHs in aquatic environments, it's important to take measures to reduce the release of PAHs into water bodies (Vijayanand*et al*, 2023). This includes improving combustion processes, reducing industrial emissions, and implementing proper waste management practices. Additionally, regular monitoring of water quality and aquatic organisms can help detect and address potential endocrine disruption caused by PAHs and other contaminants.

DNA Damage and Mutagenicity cause by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in aquatic environments.

PAHs are known to be genotoxic and mutagenic, meaning they can damage DNA and cause mutations in aquatic organisms (Alabi, 2023). This can lead to genetic abnormalities, reduced survival rates, and potential long-term effects on the population's genetic diversity. pollutants due to their persistence, toxicity, and potential to cause DNA damage and mutagenicity in living organisms, including aquatic organisms.

Here's how PAHs can lead to DNA damage and mutagenicity in aquatic environments.

Uptake and Bioaccumulation: Aquatic organisms can absorb PAHs from water through their gills, skin, and dietary intake. PAHs have a tendency to accumulate in the fatty tissues of organisms, leading to bioaccumulation as they move up the food chain (Dione *et al*,2023).

Metabolism: PAHs can undergo metabolic transformations in organisms, leading to the formation of reactive metabolites (Punetha*et al* 2022). These reactive metabolites can bind to DNA molecules, forming DNA adducts. DNA adducts are abnormal chemical structures formed when a chemical compound attaches itself to DNA strands, distorting the DNA structure and potentially causing errors during DNA replication.

Generation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS): PAHs can induce the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) within cells. ROS are highly reactive molecules that can cause oxidative stress, damaging cellular components, including DNA. Oxidative DNA damage can result in mutations if not properly repaired (Nissanka&Moraes, 2018).

Direct DNA Interaction: Some PAHs, particularly those that are more planar and have multiple aromatic rings, have the ability to intercalate into DNA strands. This intercalation can disrupt the normal DNA structure and may inhibit proper DNA replication and transcription, potentially leading to mutations (Andrews *et al*, 2021).

Induction of DNA Repair Mechanisms: The DNA damage caused by PAHs can trigger various DNA repair mechanisms within cells (Costa, 2022). However, if the level of DNA damage overwhelms the

repair capacity of the cell, mutations can occur as a result of errors introduced during the repair process.

Genotoxicity and Mutagenicity: The DNA damage induced by PAHs can lead to mutations in the genetic material of aquatic organisms (Alabi, 2023). Mutations can alter the normal functioning of genes, potentially leading to a variety of negative effects, including developmental abnormalities, reduced fitness, and increased susceptibility to diseases.

In aquatic environments, the effects of PAH-induced DNA damage and mutagenicity can be particularly concerning due to the potential for cascading impacts through the food chain (Yu *et al*, 2022). Organisms at different trophic levels can accumulate PAHs and experience genetic damage, which can ultimately affect ecosystem health and biodiversity.

Efforts to mitigate the impact of PAHs on aquatic environments include reducing their sources, implementing proper waste disposal and treatment practices, and developing strategies to remediate contaminated areas (Mahesh *et al*, 2022). Additionally, understanding the mechanisms of PAHinduced DNA damage and mutagenicity is crucial for assessing risks and developing effective regulatory measures to protect aquatic ecosystems and the organisms that inhabit them.

Effects on Aquatic Food Webs.

PAH contamination can disrupt aquatic food webs by affecting both primary producers algae) and higher trophic levels Rakib*et al*,2023). Changes in the abundance and health of these organisms can lead to imbalances in the ecosystem and affect its overall stability. PAHs are widely distributed in the environment and can enter aquatic ecosystems through various sources, including industrial discharges, urban runoff, and oil spills. These compounds are of concern due to their persistence, bioaccumulation potential, and known negative effects on aquatic organisms, including those in the food webs (Bernardo *et al*, 2022).

Here are some effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on aquatic food webs.

Direct Toxicity to Organisms: PAHs are toxic to a wide range of aquatic organisms, including fish, invertebrates, and algae (Othman *et al*, 2023). They can interfere with various physiological processes, including respiration, growth, reproduction, and immune function. Acute and chronic exposures to elevated levels of PAHs can lead to reduced survival rates and reproductive success in aquatic species.

Disruption of Reproductive Processes: PAH exposure can lead to disruptions in reproductive

processes in aquatic organisms (Cormier *et al*, 2022). For example, it can result in reduced egg production, impaired embryo development, and altered hormone levels, affecting the overall reproductive success of the population.

Changes in Behavior and Feeding Patterns: PAH exposure can alter the behavior of aquatic organisms (Trevisan*et al*, 2022). For instance, fish may exhibit changes in their feeding patterns, predator avoidance behaviors, and migration patterns. These behavioral changes can have cascading effects on the entire food web by altering predator-prey interactions.

Effects on Aquatic Plants and Primary Producers: Aquatic plants and algae can also be affected by PAHs. PAHs can inhibit photosynthesis, growth, and nutrient uptake in these primary producers, which in turn can affect the entire food web by reducing the availability of food and habitat for other organisms (Neale *et al*, 2023).

Shifts in Community Structure: Prolonged exposure to PAHs can lead to shifts in community structure within aquatic ecosystems (Zhang *et al*,2023). Species that are more sensitive to PAHs may decline, while species that are more tolerant could become dominant. These shifts can have far-reaching ecological consequences, including changes in energy flow and nutrient cycling within the food web.

Genotoxic and Carcinogenic Effects: Some PAHs are known to be genotoxic and carcinogenic. They can damage DNA and lead to the development of tumors in aquatic organisms (Pradhan *et al*, 2022. These genetic and health effects can impact the overall health and resilience of populations and ecosystems.

The effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on aquatic food webs are complex and multifaceted, with potential consequences ranging from individual organisms to entire ecosystems (Samadi*et al*, 2022). Managing and mitigating PAH pollution is essential to protect aquatic biodiversity and the services provided by these ecosystems.

Sediment Contamination.

PAHs tend to adhere to sediments in aquatic environments, leading to the contamination of sediment beds. These contaminated sediments can act as long-term sources of PAH exposure to aquatic organisms, as well as serving as reservoirs for further pollution (Thanigaivel *et al*, 2022). PAHs can have significant effects on aquatic ecosystems and human health. Here are some of the effects of PAHs on sediment contamination:

Ecological Impact.

PAHs are toxic to aquatic organisms such as fish, invertebrates, and algae. They can interfere with the normal physiological processes of these organisms, affecting growth, reproduction, and overall fitness (Arechavala-Lopez *et al*, 2022). Some PAHs are known to cause developmental abnormalities and impair the immune system of aquatic organisms.

Bioaccumulation and Biomagnification.

PAHs have a tendency to accumulate in sediment and the tissues of aquatic organisms. This bioaccumulation can lead to higher concentrations of PAHs in organisms higher up the food chain through a process called biomagnification. Predators at the top of the food chain can have much higher levels of PAHs than their prey, potentially causing greater health risks.

Disruption of Benthic Communities.

Sediments play a vital role in providing habitat for benthic (bottom-dwelling) organisms. PAH contamination can alter the composition and diversity of benthic communities, affecting the overall ecosystem structure and function. Some species may be more sensitive to PAHs than others, leading to shifts in community dynamics.

Sediment Quality and Physical Properties.

PAH-contaminated sediments can experience changes in physical properties, such as decreased porosity and water-holding capacity. This can affect nutrient cycling, sediment stability, and overall sediment quality. In extreme cases, PAH contamination can lead to the formation of "black mayonnaise," a viscous, polluted sediment layer that can smother benthic organisms and disrupt sediment-water interactions.

Human Health Concerns.

People who come into direct contact with PAHcontaminated sediments, such as fishermen, recreational users, or workers involved in dredging and other sediment-related activities, may face health risks. Some PAHs are carcinogenic and can lead to long-term health issues if exposure levels are significant.

Long-Term Persistence.

PAHs are relatively persistent in the environment and can remain in sediment for extended periods. This persistence can lead to chronic exposure of aquatic organisms and humans over time.

Regulatory and Remediation Challenges.

PAH-contaminated sediment sites often pose challenges for environmental regulators and remediation efforts. Cleaning up PAH-contaminated sediments can be technically difficult and expensive due to their persistence and the potential for secondary impacts during remediation.

Efforts to mitigate the effects of PAH contamination in sediments may include environmental monitoring, regulatory measures, and targeted remediation strategies. Proper waste management and reducing sources of PAH pollution are crucial to minimizing the impact on sediment and aquatic ecosystems.

Impact on Ecosystem Services.

Aquatic ecosystems provide essential services to humans, such as water purification, nutrient cycling, and recreational opportunities. PAH pollution can degrade these services by harming key species and disrupting ecosystem processes. PAHs are persistent pollutants that can have significant impacts on aquatic ecosystems and the services they provide.

Here are some ways in which PAHs can impact aquatic ecosystem services.

Water Quality and Purity: PAHs can contaminate water bodies and degrade water quality. This can affect the availability of clean and safe water for various uses, including drinking, irrigation, and industrial processes.

Biodiversity and Habitat Loss: Aquatic organisms vary in their sensitivity to PAHs. In highly contaminated areas, PAHs can lead to the decline or even extinction of certain species, disrupting the balance of the ecosystem. This can impact ecosystem services such as fisheries, recreational fishing, and ecotourism.

Eutrophication: PAH contamination can contribute to eutrophication, a process in which excess nutrients lead to the overgrowth of algae. This overgrowth can deplete oxygen levels in water bodies, leading to dead zones where aquatic life cannot thrive. Eutrophication can negatively affect water quality and reduce the availability of ecosystem services like water purification and habitat provision.

Food Web Contamination: PAHs can accumulate in the tissues of aquatic organisms through bioaccumulation and biomagnification processes. This means that predators higher up in the food chain can accumulate higher concentrations of PAHs. Consuming contaminated organisms can pose risks to human health and wildlife, affecting the provisioning of food resources from aquatic ecosystems.

Recreation and Aesthetic Value: Aquatic ecosystems often serve as recreational spaces for activities such as swimming, boating, and nature appreciation. PAH contamination can lead to foul odors, unsightly appearances, and potential health

risks, diminishing the recreational and aesthetic value of these areas.

Carbon Sequestration and Nutrient Cycling: Aquatic ecosystems play a role in carbon sequestration and nutrient cycling, which contribute to climate regulation and nutrient availability, respectively. PAH contamination can disrupt these processes, potentially leading to imbalances in carbon and nutrient cycles.

Natural Hazard Mitigation: Coastal and wetland ecosystems can serve as natural buffers against storm surges and flooding. PAH contamination can weaken the resilience of these ecosystems, reducing their capacity to provide natural hazard mitigation services. Efforts to mitigate the impact of PAHs on aquatic ecosystem services involve regulations to limit PAH emissions, remediation of contaminated sites, and the development of environmentally friendly technologies. Monitoring and research also play crucial roles in understanding the extent of PAH contamination and its effects on ecosystems, thereby informing effective management strategies.

Effects on Reproduction and Development.

PAH exposure can lead to reproductive and developmental abnormalities in aquatic organisms. This can include reduced egg viability, larval deformities, and overall population declines. PAHs are widespread pollutants in aquatic ecosystems due to various anthropogenic activities such as industrial processes, vehicle emissions, and oil spills. These compounds can have significant effects on the reproduction and development of aquatic organisms. Here's how PAHs can impact aquatic organisms:

Reproductive Impairment: Exposure to PAHs can lead to reproductive impairments in aquatic organisms. This can include reduced fertility, decreased egg production, and alterations in sperm quality. These effects may be due to disruption of hormone systems, interference with reproductive processes, and genetic damage.

Embryonic and Larval Development: PAHs can affect embryonic and larval development of aquatic organisms. Exposure to high concentrations of PAHs during critical developmental stages can cause deformities, reduced survival rates, and impaired growth. PAHs can interfere with normal cell division, disrupt developmentally important signaling pathways, and lead to developmental abnormalities.

Genotoxicity and Mutagenicity: PAHs are known to be genotoxic and mutagenic, meaning they can cause damage to DNA and induce mutations. This can lead to genetic disorders, birth defects, and increased susceptibility to diseases. The accumulation of genetic damage in reproductive cells can also be passed on to the next generation, impacting the overall health and survival of aquatic populations.

Endocrine Disruption: SomePAHs have been shown to disrupt endocrine systems in aquatic organisms. Endocrine disruptors can interfere with hormonal regulation, leading to altered reproductive behaviors, hormone imbalances, and impaired reproductive success.

Bioaccumulation and Biomagnification: PAHs are often hydrophobic and tend to accumulate in the fatty tissues of aquatic organisms. This can lead to a phenomenon called bioaccumulation, where the concentration of PAHs increases as you move up the food chain. Predators at higher trophic levels can experience higher concentrations of PAHs, leading to greater reproductive and developmental risks.

Population-Level Effects: The effects of PAHs on reproduction and development can have significant consequences at the population level. Reduced reproductive success and developmental abnormalities can lead to decreased population sizes, altered population dynamics, and ultimately threaten the sustainability of aquatic ecosystems.

Synergistic Effects: PAHs often coexist with other pollutants in aquatic environments. The combined effects of multiple pollutants can be synergistic, meaning they amplify each other's negative impacts on organisms' reproductive and developmental processes.

To mitigate the adverse effects of PAHs on aquatic organisms' reproduction and development, it's crucial to implement effective pollution control measures, reduce the release of PAHs into the environment, and promote the restoration of polluted aquatic ecosystems. Monitoring and research are also important to understand the specific impacts of different PAH compounds on various species and ecosystems.

Habitat Degradation.

PAH contamination can alter aquatic habitats by affecting sediment composition and water quality. This degradation can lead to reduced habitat suitability for aquatic organisms, further exacerbating the negative impacts of PAH exposure. Habitat degradation caused by the effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) is a significant environmental concern. The effects of PAHs on habitat degradation are mainly due to their toxic and persistent nature. Here are some ways in which PAHs can contribute to habitat degradation: **Soil Contamination:** PAHs can contaminate soil when they are deposited from the air or released from nearby sources like industrial sites. Once in the soil, they can persist for a long time due to their low solubility and resistance to degradation. This contamination can affect soil quality, disrupt nutrient cycles, and hinder the growth of plants. It can also impact soil-dwelling organisms like earthworms and microorganisms, disrupting the ecosystem's balance.

Water Pollution: Rainwater can wash PAHs from surfaces into nearby water bodies, leading to water pollution. PAHs are hydrophobic, meaning they do not dissolve easily in water, so they can accumulate in sediments at the bottom of rivers, lakes, and oceans. This accumulation can disrupt aquatic ecosystems by harming aquatic plants, invertebrates, and fish, and by altering the food chain dynamics.

Airborne Pollution: PAHs can be released into the air as fine particulate matter during combustion processes. These particles can be carried by the wind over long distances and can settle onto vegetation and other surfaces. The deposition of PAHs onto plants can affect their growth and health, reducing the overall quality of the habitat.

Biomagnification: PAHs can enter the food chain through contaminated water and soil. They can be taken up by aquatic organisms and plants. As predators consume these organisms, the PAHs can accumulate and become more concentrated at higher trophic levels. This process of biomagnification can lead to higher exposure levels in top predators, potentially impacting their reproductive success and overall health.

Disruption of Reproduction: PAHs are known to have endocrine-disrupting properties, which can interfere with the reproductive systems of animals. This can lead to decreased reproductive success and population decline in affected species, further impacting the biodiversity and stability of the habitat. **Ecosystem Imbalance:** The cumulative effects of PAH contamination can lead to an imbalance in the overall ecosystem. When key species are affected, it can disrupt the natural interactions and functions of the habitat, potentially leading to a decline in biodiversity and overall ecosystem health.

Efforts to mitigate the habitat degradation caused by PAHs involve reducing their emissions at the source through stricter regulations on industrial processes, vehicle emissions, and waste disposal. Additionally, remediation techniques such as soil and water treatment can help reduce the concentrations of PAHs in affected environments.

Cumulative Effects with Other Stressors.

Aquatic environments are often subject to multiple stressors, such as heavy metals, pesticides, and habitat loss. The combined effects of PAHs with these stressors can lead to synergistic or additive impacts on aquatic ecosystems, potentially amplifying the overall ecological damage.

Aquatic habitats, such as rivers, lakes, and oceans, can be exposed to PAHs through various pathways, including runoff from contaminated land, direct discharges from industrial processes, and atmospheric deposition. When examining the cumulative effects of PAHs with other stressors in aquatic habitats, several factors should be considered:

Synergistic Effects: PAHs can interact with other pollutants and stressors, such as heavy metals, pesticides, and changes in pH or temperature. These interactions can result in synergistic effects, where the combined impact of multiple stressors is greater than the sum of their individual effects. For example, the presence of certain heavy metals might enhance the toxicity of PAHs to aquatic organisms.

Bioaccumulation and Biomagnification: PAHs have the potential to accumulate in the tissues of aquatic organisms. This bioaccumulation can lead to biomagnification through the food chain, where predators at higher trophic levels may be exposed to higher concentrations of PAHs due to their consumption of contaminated prey.

Impacts on Aquatic Life: PAHs are known to have various toxic effects on aquatic organisms. They can interfere with reproductive processes, cause developmental abnormalities, affect immune function, and disrupt hormonal systems. When combined with other stressors, the overall impact on aquatic life can be exacerbated.

Habitat Degradation: PAH contamination, along with other stressors like habitat destruction and eutrophication, can contribute to the overall degradation of aquatic habitats. This can disrupt the balance of ecosystems and reduce the ability of organisms to cope with multiple stressors simultaneously.

Ecological Community Effects: The combined effects of PAHs and other stressors can influence the composition and structure of aquatic communities. Some species may be more resilient to certain stressors than others, leading to shifts in species dominance and potential changes in ecosystem functioning.

Ecosystem Services: Aquatic ecosystems provide various ecosystem services, including water

purification, nutrient cycling, and support for recreational activities (Thomaz, 2023). Cumulative effects of PAHs and other stressors can impact these services, leading to reduced water quality and ecosystem health.

To assess and manage the cumulative effects of PAHs with other stressors in aquatic habitats, integrated approaches that consider multiple stressors and their interactions are necessary. This involves not only understanding the toxicological effects of individual stressors but also evaluating how they interact and compound their impacts. Environmental monitoring, modeling, and regulatory measures are essential components of managing cumulative stressors in aquatic ecosystems.

Conclusion

Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons(PAHs) have the potential to cause widespread and long-lasting negative effects on aquatic ecosystems, affecting both individual organisms and the overall health and functioning of these environments. Efforts to mitigate PAH pollution and its associated impacts are essential to protect aquatic biodiversity and maintain ecosystem services.

This review paper has shed light on the diverse and complex effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) on aquatic habitats. PAHs, ubiquitous pollutants originating from both natural and anthropogenic sources, pose a significant threat to the health and sustainability of aquatic ecosystems. Through an extensive examination of the literature, several key findings and implications have emerged. Firstly, the review highlighted the diverse pathways through which PAHs enter aquatic habitats, including runoff, atmospheric deposition, and direct spills. Once introduced, these compounds can persist in aquatic environments due to their hydrophobic nature, leading to bioaccumulation in various aquatic organisms. The

subsequent biomagnification along the food chain raises concerns about potential health risks to humans and wildlife that rely on these ecosystems.

Secondly, the varying toxicological effects of PAHs on aquatic organisms were elucidated. These effects span a spectrum, from acute lethal impacts to chronic sublethal effects. such as developmental abnormalities, impaired reproduction, and compromised immune systems. The specific responses are influenced by factors like the species' sensitivity, life stage, exposure duration, and concentration levels. This complexity underscores the importance of conducting comprehensive risk

assessments that consider the intricacies of the aquatic habitat and its inhabitants.

Furthermore, the review emphasized the role of PAHs as endocrine disruptors and carcinogens, potentially leading to long-term ecological and health repercussions. The interplay between PAH exposure and other stressors, such as climate change and habitat degradation, further exacerbates the vulnerability of aquatic ecosystems. As such, effective mitigation strategies must encompass a holistic approach that considers both the reduction of PAH emissions and the preservation and restoration of aquatic habitats.

In conclusion, the effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on aquatic habitats are multifaceted and intricate. The interconnectedness of physical, chemical, biological, and ecological processes necessitates a collaborative effort among researchers, policymakers, industries, and the public to address this pervasive issue. Through enhanced monitoring, rigorous regulations, sustainable practices, and continued research, we can strive to minimize the impact of PAHs and safeguard the health and integrity of aquatic ecosystems for current and future generations.

References

- Abbas, I., Badran, G., Verdin, A., Ledoux, F., Roumié, M., Courcot, D., &Garçon, G. (2018). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon derivatives in airborne particulate matter: sources, analysis and toxicity. Environmental Chemistry Letters, 16, 439-475.
- Akinsanya, B., Adebusoye, S. A., Alinson, T., &Ukwa, U. D. (2018). Bioaccumulation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, histopathological alterations and parasitofauna in bentho-pelagic host from Snake Island, Lagos, Nigeria. The Journal of Basic and Applied Zoology, 79(1), 1-18.
- Alabi, O. A. (2023). Comparative chemical analysis, mutagenicity, and genotoxicity of Petroleum refinery wastewater and its contaminated river using prokaryotic and eukaryotic assays. Protoplasma, 260(1), 89-101.
- Alao, M. B., & Adebayo, E. A. (2022). Fungi as veritable tool in bioremediation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons-polluted wastewater. Journal of Basic Microbiology, 62(3-4), 223-244.
- Amoatey, P., &Baawain, M. S. (2019). Effects of pollution on freshwater aquatic organisms. Water Environment Research, 91(10), 1272-1287.
- Andrews, W. J., Ray, S., Panova, T., Engel, C., &Panov, K. I. (2021). DNA intercalators

inhibit eukaryotic ribosomal RNA synthesis by impairing the initiation of transcription. Genes, 12(9), 1412.

- Arechavala-Lopez, P., Cabrera-Álvarez, M. J., Maia, C. M., &Saraiva, J. L. (2022). Environmental enrichment in fish aquaculture: A review of fundamental and practical aspects. Reviews in Aquaculture, 14(2), 704-728.
- Balmer, J. E., Hung, H., Yu, Y., Letcher, R. J., & Muir, D. C. (2019). Sources and environmental fate of pyrogenic polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in the Arctic. Emerging Contaminants, 5, 128-142.
- Bernardo, F., Alves, A., &Homem, V. (2022). A review of bioaccumulation of volatile methylsiloxanes in aquatic ecosystems. Science of The Total Environment, 824, 153821.
- Bérubé, R., Garnier, C., Lefebvre-Raine, M., Gauthier, C., Bergeron, N., Triffault-Bouchet, G., ... & Couture, P. (2023). Early developmental toxicity of Atlantic salmon exposed to conventional and unconventional oils. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 250, 114487.
- Birch, Q. T., Potter, P. M., Pinto, P. X., Dionysiou, D. D., & Al-Abed, S. R. (2020). Sources, transport, measurement and impact of nano and microplastics in urban watersheds. Reviews in Environmental Science and Bio/Technology, 19, 275-336.
- Castro-Castellon, A. T., Horton, A. A., Hughes, J. M., Rampley, C., Jeffers, E. S., Bussi, G., & Whitehead, P. (2022). Ecotoxicity of microplastics to freshwater biota: Considering exposure and hazard across trophic levels. Science of the Total Environment, 816, 151638.
- Chae, H., Kwon, B. R., Lee, S., Moon, H. B., & Choi, K. (2023). Adverse thyroid hormone and behavioral alterations induced by three frequently used synthetic musk compounds in embryo-larval zebrafish (Daniorerio). Chemosphere, 324, 138273.
- Chen, Y., Yang, J., Yao, B., Zhi, D., Luo, L., & Zhou, Y. (2022). Endocrine disrupting chemicals in the environment: Environmental sources, biological effects, remediation techniques, and perspective. Environmental Pollution, 119918.
- Cormier, B., Cachot, J., Blanc, M., Cabar, M., Clérandeau, C., Dubocq, F., ... & Cousin, X. (2022). Environmental microplastics disrupt swimming activity in acute exposure in Daniorerio larvae and reduce growth and reproduction success in chronic exposure in D. rerio and Oryziasmelastigma. Environmental Pollution, 308, 119721.

- Costa, P. M. (2022). Current aspects of DNA damage and repair in ecotoxicology: a mini-review. Ecotoxicology, 31(1), 1-11.
- Dasharathy, S., Arjunan, S., MaliyurBasavaraju, A., Murugasen, V., Ramachandran, S., Keshav, R., &Murugan, R. (2022). Mutagenic, carcinogenic, and teratogenic effect of heavy metals. Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine, 2022.
- Dione, C. T., Ndiaye, M., Delhomme, O., Diebakate,
 C., Ndiaye, B., Diagne, I., ... & Millet, M.
 (2023). Pollution of water in Africa: a review of contaminants and fish as biomonitors and analytical methodologies—the case of Senegal. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 30(2), 2374-2391.
- D'Souza, J. M., Windsor, F. M., Santillo, D., &Ormerod, S. J. (2020). Food web transfer of plastics to an apex riverine predator. Global change biology, 26(7), 3846-3857.
- Folkerts, E. J., Goss, G. G., &Blewett, T. A. (2020). Investigating the potential toxicity of hydraulic fracturing flowback and produced water spills to aquatic animals in freshwater environments: a North American perspective. Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology Volume 254, 1-56.
- Gündogdu, S., Rathod, N., Hassoun, A., Jamroz, E., Kulawik, P., Gokbulut, C., ... &Özogul, F. (2022). The impact of nano/micro-plastics toxicity on seafood quality and human health: facts and gaps. Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition, 1-19.
- Guo, W., Pan, B., Sakkiah, S., Yavas, G., Ge, W., Zou, W., ... & Hong, H. (2019). Persistent organic pollutants in food: contamination sources, health effects and detection methods. International journal of environmental research and public health, 16(22), 4361.
- Guo, Y., Xiang, Y., Liu, G., Chen, Y., Liu, Y., Song, M., ... & Jiang, G. (2023). "Trojan Horse" Increases Type Internalization the Bioavailability of Mercury Sulfide Nanoparticles and Methylation after Intracellular Dissolution. ACS nano, 17(3), 1925-1934.
- Han, M., Li, H., Kang, Y., Liu, H., Huang, X., Zhang, R., & Yu, K. (2022). Bioaccumulation and trophic transfer of PAHs in tropical marine food webs from coral reef ecosystems, the South China Sea: Compositional pattern, driving factors, ecological aspects, and risk assessment. Chemosphere, 308, 136295.
- He, M., Yan, M., Chen, X., Wang, X., Gong, H., Wang, W., & Wang, J. (2022). Bioavailability and toxicity of microplastics to zooplankton. Gondwana Research, 108, 120-126.

- Honda, M., & Suzuki, N. (2020). Toxicities of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons for aquatic animals. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17(4), 1363.
- Hussain, K., Hoque, R. R., Balachandran, S., Medhi, S., Idris, M. G., Rahman, M., & Hussain, F. L. (2018). Monitoring and risk analysis of PAHs in the environment. Handbook of environmental materials management, 1-35.
- Jesus, F., Pereira, J. L., Campos, I., Santos, M., Ré, A., Keizer, J., ... &Serpa, D. (2022). A review on polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons distribution in freshwater ecosystems and their toxicity to benthic fauna. Science of The Total Environment, 820, 153282.
- Kahlon, S. K., Sharma, G., Julka, J. M., Kumar, A., Sharma, S., &Stadler, F. J. (2018). Impact of heavy metals and nanoparticles on aquatic biota. Environmental chemistry letters, 16, 919-946.
- Kurwadkar, S., Sethi, S. S., Mishra, P., &Ambade, B. (2022). Unregulated discharge of wastewater in the Mahanadi River Basin: risk evaluation due to occurrence of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon in surface water and sediments. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 179, 113686.
- Lehel, J., & Murphy, S. (2021). Microplastics in the food chain: Food safety and environmental aspects. Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology Volume 259, 1-49.
- Ma, H., Pu, S., Liu, S., Bai, Y., Mandal, S., & Xing, B. (2020). Microplastics in aquatic environments: Toxicity to trigger ecological consequences. Environmental Pollution, 261, 114089.
- N., Balakumar, S., Danya, Mahesh, U., Shyamalagowri, S., Babu, P. S., Aravind, J., ... & Govarthanan, M. (2022). A review on mitigation of emerging contaminants in an aqueous environment using microbial biomachines as sustainable tools: Progress and limitations. Journal of Water Process Engineering, 47, 102712., N., Balakumar, S., Danya, U., Shyamalagowri, S., Babu, P. S., Aravind, J., ... & Govarthanan, M. (2022). A review on mitigation of emerging contaminants in an aqueous environment using microbial bio-machines as sustainable tools: Progress and limitations. Journal of Water Process Engineering, 47, 102712.
- Maletić, S. P., Beljin, J. M., Rončević, S. D., Grgić, M. G., &Dalmacija, B. D. (2019). State of the art and future challenges for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons is sediments: sources, fate, bioavailability and remediation techniques. Journal of hazardous materials, 365, 467-482.

- Manisalidis, I., Stavropoulou, E., Stavropoulos, A., &Bezirtzoglou, E. (2020). Environmental and health impacts of air pollution: a review. Frontiers in public health, 8, 14.
- Marlatt, V. L., Bayen, S., Castaneda-Cortès, D., Delbès, G., Grigorova, P., Langlois, V. S., ... & Van Der Kraak, G. (2022). Impacts of endocrine disrupting chemicals on reproduction in wildlife and humans. Environmental research, 208, 112584.
- Menéndez-Pedriza, A., &Jaumot, J. (2020). Interaction of environmental pollutants with microplastics: a critical review of sorption factors, bioaccumulation and ecotoxicological effects. Toxics, 8(2), 40.
- Mishra, B. K., Kumar, P., Saraswat, C., Chakraborty, S., &Gautam, A. (2021). Water security in a changing environment: Concept, challenges and solutions. Water, 13(4), 490.
- Moeder, M., Carranza-Diaz, O., López-Angulo, G., Vega-Aviña, R., Chávez-Durán, F. A., Jomaa, S., ... & Delgado-Vargas, F. (2017).
 Potential of vegetated ditches to manage organic pollutants derived from agricultural runoff and domestic sewage: A case study in Sinaloa (Mexico). Science of the Total Environment, 598, 1106-1115
- Mofijur, M., Ahmed, S. F., Rahman, S. A., Siddiki, S. Y. A., Islam, A. S., Shahabuddin, M., ... & Show, P. L. (2021). Source, distribution and emerging threat of micro-and nanoplastics to marine organism and human health: Socioeconomic impact and management strategies. Environmental Research, 195, 110857.
- Mojiri, A., Zhou, J. L., Ohashi, A., Ozaki, N., &Kindaichi, T. (2019). Comprehensive review of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in water sources, their effects and treatments. Science of the total environment, 696, 133971.
- Müller, A., Österlund, H., Marsalek, J., &Viklander, M. (2020). The pollution conveyed by urban runoff: A review of sources. Science of the Total Environment, 709, 136125.
- Neale, P. J., Williamson, C. E., Banaszak, A. T., Häder, D. P., Hylander, S., Ossola, R., ... &Zepp, R. (2023). The response of aquatic ecosystems to the interactive effects of stratospheric ozone depletion, UV radiation, and climate change. Photochemical &Photobiological Sciences, 1-35.
- Nissanka, N., &Moraes, C. T. (2018). Mitochondrial DNA damage and reactive oxygen species in neurodegenerative disease. FEBS letters, 592(5), 728-742.
- Nilsen, E., Smalling, K. L., Ahrens, L., Gros, M., Miglioranza, K. S., Picó, Y., &Schoenfuss, H. L. (2019). Critical review: grand challenges in assessing the adverse effects of

contaminants of emerging concern on aquatic food webs. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry, 38(1), 46-60.

- Ododo, M. M., &Wabalo, B. K. (2019). Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and their impacts on human health: a review. Journal of Environment Pollution and Human Health, 7(2), 73-77.
- Othman, H. B., Pick, F. R., Hlaili, A. S., &Leboulanger, C. (2023). Effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on marine and freshwater microalgae–A review. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 441, 129869.
- Paul, M. J., LeDuc, S. D., Lassiter, M. G., Moorhead, L. C., Noyes, P. D., & Leibowitz, S. G. (2022). Wildfire induces changes in receiving waters: A review with considerations for water quality management. Water Resources Research, 58(9), e2021WR030699.
- Pradhan, B., Kim, H., Abassi, S., & Ki, J. S. (2022). Toxic effects and tumor promotion activity of marine phytoplankton toxins: A review. Toxins, 14(6), 397.
- Punetha, A., Saraswat, S., & Rai, J. P. N. (2022). An insight on microbial degradation of benzo [a] pyrene: current status and advances in research. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology, 38(4), 61.
- Rakib, M. R. J., Sarker, A., Ram, K., Uddin, M. G., Walker, T. R., Chowdhury, T., ... & Idris, A. M. (2023). Microplastic toxicity in aquatic organisms and aquatic ecosystems: a review. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution, 234(1), 52.
- Ramesh, A., Harris, K. J., &Archibong, A. E. (2022). Reproductive toxicity of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. In Reproductive and Developmental Toxicology (pp. 759-778). Academic press.
- Rearick, D. C., Ward, J., Venturelli, P., &Schoenfuss, H. (2018). Environmental oestrogens cause predation-induced population decline in a freshwater fish. Royal Society open science, 5(10), 181065.
- Reid, A. J., Carlson, A. K., Creed, I. F., Eliason, E. J., Gell, P. A., Johnson, P. T., ... & Cooke, S. J. (2019). Emerging threats and persistent conservation challenges for freshwater biodiversity. Biological Reviews, 94(3), 849-873.
- Samadi, A., Kim, Y., Lee, S. A., Kim, Y. J., &Esterhuizen, M. (2022). Review on the ecotoxicological impacts of plastic pollution on the freshwater invertebrate Daphnia. Environmental Toxicology, 37(11), 2615-2638.
- Saunders, D., Carrillo, J. C., Gundlach, E. R., Iroakasi, O., Visigah, K., Zabbey, N., &Bonte, M. (2022). Analysis of polycyclic aromatic

hydrocarbons (PAHs) in surface sediments and edible aquatic species in an oilcontaminated mangrove ecosystem in Bodo, Niger Delta, Nigeria: Bioaccumulation and human health risk assessment. Science of The Total Environment, 832, 154802.

- Sikorski, Z. E., Kołakowska, A., & Burt, J. R. (2020). Postharvest biochemical and microbial changes. In Seafood (pp. 55-75). CRC Press.
- Smith, M., Love, D. C., Rochman, C. M., & Neff, R. A. (2018). Microplastics in seafood and the implications for human health. Current environmental health reports, 5, 375-386.
- Szynkowska, M. I., Pawlaczyk, A., &Maćkiewicz, E. (2018). Bioaccumulation and biomagnification of trace elements in the environment. Recent advances in trace elements, 251-276.
- Thacharodi, A., Hassan, S., Singh, T., Mandal, R., Khan, H. A., Hussain, M. A., &Pugazhendhi, A. (2023). Bioremediation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons: An updated microbiological review. Chemosphere, 138498.
- Thanigaivel, S., Vickram, S., Dey, N., Jeyanthi, P., Subbaiya, R., Kim, W., ... &Karmegam, N. (2022). Ecological disturbances and abundance of anthropogenic pollutants in the aquatic ecosystem: Critical review of impact assessment on the aquatic animals. Chemosphere, 137475.
- Thomaz, S. M. (2023). Ecosystem services provided by freshwater macrophytes. *Hydrobiologia*, 850(12-13), 2757-2777.
- Trevisan, R., Ranasinghe, P., Jayasundara, N., & Di Giulio, R. T. (2022). Nanoplastics in aquatic environments: impacts on aquatic species and interactions with environmental factors and pollutants. Toxics, 10(6), 326.
- Varjani, S. J., Joshi, R. R., Senthil Kumar, P., Srivastava, V. K., Kumar, V., Banerjee, C., & Praveen Kumar, R. (2018). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from petroleum oil industry activities: effect on human health and their biodegradation. Waste bioremediation, 185-199.
- Vijayanand, M., Ramakrishnan, A., Subramanian, R., Issac, P. K., Nasr, M., Khoo, K., ... &Ravindran, B. (2023). Polyaromatic (PAHs) hydrocarbons in the water environment: A review on toxicity, microbial biodegradation, systematic biological advancements, and environmental fate. Environmental research, 115716., M., Ramakrishnan, A., Subramanian, R., Issac, P. K., Nasr, M., Khoo, K., ... & Ravindran, B. (2023). Polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in the water environment: A review on toxicity, microbial biodegradation,

systematic biological advancements, and environmental fate. Environmental research, 115716.

- Walkinshaw, C., Lindeque, P. K., Thompson, R., Tolhurst, T., & Cole, M. (2020). Microplastics and seafood: lower trophic organisms at highest risk of contamination. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 190, 110066.
- Wang, W., Gao, H., Jin, S., Li, R., & Na, G. (2019). The ecotoxicological effects of microplastics on aquatic food web, from primary producer to human: A review. Ecotoxicology and environmental safety, 173, 110-117.
- Wang, T., & Liu, W. (2022). Emerging investigator series: metal nanoparticles in freshwater: transformation, bioavailability and effects on invertebrates. Environmental Science: Nano, 9(7), 2237-2263.
- Yilmaz, B., Terekeci, H., Sandal, S., &Kelestimur, F. (2020). Endocrine disrupting chemicals: exposure, effects on human health, mechanism of action, models for testing and strategies for prevention. Reviews in endocrine and metabolic disorders, 21, 127-147.
- Yu, Y. Y., Jin, H., & Lu, Q. (2022). Effect of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons on immunity. Journal of Translational Autoimmunity, 100177.
- Zhang, K., Shi, H., Peng, J., Wang, Y., Xiong, X., Wu, C., & Lam, P. K. (2018). Microplastic pollution in China's inland water systems: a review of findings, methods, characteristics, effects, and management. Science of the Total Environment,S 630, 1641-1653.
- Zhang, Y., Gao, T., Kang, S., &Sillanpää, M. (2019). Importance of atmospheric transport for microplastics deposited in remote areas. Environmental Pollution, 254, 112953.
- Zhang, L., Zhang, L., & Sun, D. (2023). Considering zooplankton as a black box in determining PAH concentrations could result in misjudging their bioaccumulation. Environmental Pollution, 316, 120672.