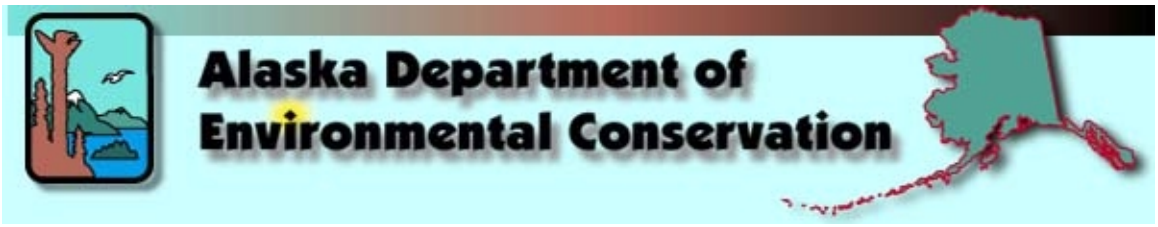

Report of the Institute of Northern Engineering

to

The Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation

This report contains two parts:

Part 1.

ACUTE TOXICITY OF THE OIL DISPERSANT COREXIT 9500, AND FRESH AND WEATHERED ALASKA NORTH SLOPE CRUDE OIL TO THE ALASKAN TANNER CRAB (*C. bairdi*), TWO STANDARD TEST SPECIES, AND *V. fischeri* (MICROTOX® ASSAY)

Part 2.

ASSESSMENT OF ALASKAN MARINE SPECIES FOR TOXICITY TESTS

August 2000

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This document represents the results from two projects, (INE97.73 and INE98.74) for the Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation, conducted from June 1997 to December 1999 by the Institute of Northern Engineering at the University of Alaska Fairbanks. This report contains two sections. The first section addresses the results from a study on the acute toxicity of the oil dispersant Corexit 9500, and on the acute toxicity of fresh and laboratory-weathered Alaska North Slope (ANS) crude oil to the Alaskan Tanner Crab (*Chionoecetes bairdi*), two standard test species, and *Vibrio fischeri* (Microtox[7] bioassay). The second section is an assessment of Alaskan marine species for use in future toxicity tests. This project was conducted in conjunction with other laboratories of the Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Effects Research Forum (CROSERF) and followed the protocols established by this group. The only modifications were for the Tanner crab tests and include the use of saltwater from Resurrection Bay, Alaska, and temperatures representative of cold-region conditions.

Section 1

Toxicity assays of the oil dispersant, Corexit 9500, and fresh and laboratory-weathered Alaska North Slope (ANS) crude oils were conducted on four species. The assays were conducted using cold-region conditions for Alaskan Tanner crab larvae (*Chionoecetes bairdi*). Standard conditions were used to test three reference species, *Mysidopsis bahia, Menidia beryllina,* and *Vibrio fischeri* (Microtox[7] bioassay). The purpose of this study was to evaluate the acute toxic effects of Corexit 9500 and fresh and weathered ANS crude oil in both dispersed and undispersed forms, on the early life stages of the Tanner crab larvae and the standard reference species. The results from this study provide a basis for decision making for dispersant use in cold regions.

Toxicity assays are designed to test sensitivities of different species to potential toxicants. However, the results of this study show that for crude oil and dispersant, which are mixtures of many compounds, the relationship between dose and response is influenced by factors such as: the methods of solution preparation which affect relative solubility of compounds in the mixtures; the manner in which organisms are exposed to the test solutions, whether it be by continuous or spiked exposure regimes; and the way the concentration data are reported, in terms of the entire mixture concentration, or a subset of compounds of interest, or as the total amounts (loading) of toxicant in the system. In order to apply the laboratory results from this study to field conditions, it is important to consider these factors.

The dose-response relationships of the organisms tested in this study are based on concentration data expressed in terms of total petroleum hydrocarbons. These concentrations were analytically determined, but for comparison, dose-response relationships are also presented based on calculated loading rates of toxicants.

The results showed some variability depending on the species tested, but in general, of the solutions tested, dispersant solutions alone were least toxic, undispersed oil solutions were moderately toxic, and dispersed oil solutions were the most toxic. Of the species tested, the Tanner crab larvae were more sensitive to oil-containing solutions than the reference species, but

were least sensitive to the dispersant-only solutions. The Microtox[7] bioassay results showed a good correlation to the dose-response relationships from oil-containing solutions for the reference species.

The toxicity data in this study were compared to those from other laboratories using the protocols established by the CROSERF. The results for reference species agreed with other laboratory's data, suggesting that the methods employed in this study and the resulting data are reliable.

The decision to disperse oil in the marine environment in Alaska involves environmental tradeoffs and seasonal considerations. If the conditions of the spill (i.e., timing, mixing conditions, etc.) are such that the dispersant application is expected to be effective, then environmental impact considerations must be evaluated to determine the net environmental benefit of the action taken. Below is a table of the concentrations of oil and dispersed oil that were toxic to 50% of the Tanner crab larvae, based on exposure in sealed flow-through chambers. Note that for fresh oil there is little difference between the toxicity of dispersed and undispersed oil, whether measured as the amount accommodated in the water or as the amount that was originally added to the test system.

Solution Type	Concentrations of Concern (mg/L, 95% confidence limits)	
	measured concentration (EC_{50})	oil loading rate (EL_{50})
undispersed fresh oil	8.83 to 10.7	249 to 325
dispersed fresh oil	9.08 to 12.7	174 to 236
undispersed weathered oil	0.33 to 0.51	2,216 to 10,248
dispersed weathered oil	1.66 to 6.66	96 to 426

Weathered oil, both dispersed and undispersed, is an order of magnitude more toxic when measured by the amount of oil accommodated in the water, while undispersed weathered oil is an order of magnitude less toxic when measured as a loading rate. The toxicity of dispersed weathered oil is about the same as that of fresh oil, when measured as a loading rate. The data indicate that based on concentration of oil in water, undispersed weathered oil is the most toxic treatment; however, based on the loading rate it is the least toxic. This data for undispersed weathered oil is difficult to interpret, because very little of the oil enters the aqueous phase.

For making spill response decisions, the oil loading rate data is usually more useful--for evaluating solution components responsible for affecting the organisms, the measured concentrations are more useful. Prior to applying dispersants, the age and average thickness of the slick are known. If the volume that the slick will occupy when dispersed can be estimated, the approximate loading rate can likewise be estimated. This mixing volume was not a subject of this reported research, but is likely a function of oil and dispersant properties, surface mixing energy, and wave length.

Dispersant use in spill response should depend on the season. Crab larvae and other immature life stages are generally the most susceptible to chemical insult. Many of these immature forms are only present in the water column a few weeks each year, a period known as the spring bloom. This feature limits the use of Tanner crab for future testing (see Section 2), but it is an advantage in the potential use of dispersants for oil-spill response. Even if Tanner crab larvae or zooplankton are present, the impact of a one-time exposure of dispersed oil must be compared to the impact of oiled gravel beaches which affect many near-shore organisms and persist for years.

Section 2

Species selection is an important aspect of toxicity testing. Desired characteristics for an Alaskan test species include: having ecological and economic significance in Alaska, sensitivity to the potential toxicant in order to provide a conservative estimate of the toxic effect on local biota, and the ability to be tested in a controlled laboratory environment. The Tanner crab was used in this study as it met all these criteria; however, as a result of the efforts described here, The Tanner crab is not recommended for further testing due to the availability of larvae being limited to only a few weeks' interval in the spring.

The assessment of Alaskan marine species for toxicity testing concludes with recommendations for six species as candidates for further evaluation. These include the topsmelt, urchin, clam, cold-region mysids or copepods, pink salmon fry, and tidepool sculpin.

ACUTE TOXICITY OF THE OIL DISPERSANT COREXIT 9500, AND FRESH AND WEATHERED ALASKA NORTH SLOPE CRUDE OIL TO THE ALASKAN TANNER CRAB (*C. bairdi*), TWO STANDARD TEST SPECIES, AND *V. fischeri* (MICROTOX® ASSAY)

A

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty
of the University of Alaska Fairbanks
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

By
Sara Louise Rhoton, B.S.

Fairbanks, Alaska
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ABSTRACT

Toxicity assays of the oil dispersant Corexit 9500, and fresh and weathered Alaska North Slope (ANS) crude oil were conducted on Alaskan tanner crab larvae (*Chionoecetes bairdi*) under cold-region conditions, the reference species, *Mysidopsis bahia* and *Menidia beryllina*, and *Vibrio fischeri* (Microtox® bioassay). Acute 96-hour toxicity data for *C. bairdi* were calculated using the response "affected" (decreased phototactic response and ability to swim). *C. bairdi* were most sensitive to non-dispersed weathered oil (EC_{50} = 0.4 mg/L), least to dispersant-only solutions (EC_{50} = 1,267 mg/L), and were typically more sensitive than the reference species. Dispersant-only solutions were consistently least toxic for all species tested. Dispersed fresh oil was frequently more toxic than non-dispersed oil. Weathered oil data are greatly influenced by aqueous solubilities, indicating non-dispersed weathered oil was most toxic, although those solutions required the highest oil loading (25 g/L). Interpretations of toxicity data are dependent upon expression of solution concentrations.

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ACRONYMS

LC_{50}	Lethal Concentration to 50 percent of the population
EC_{50}	Effective Concentration to 50 percent of the population
LL_{50}	Lethal Loading to 50 percent of the population
EL_{50}	Effective Concentration to 50 percent of the population
MEC	Median Effective Concentration ($LC_{50,}$ $EC_{50,}$ $LL_{50,}$ or EL_{50})
VOA	Volatile Organic Analyte (C_6-C_9)
TPH	Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (C_{10}-C_{36})
THC	Total Hydrocarbon Content (C_6-C_{36})
WAF	Water-Accommodated Fraction
CE-WAF	Chemically Enhanced Water-Accommodated Fraction
CROSERF	Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological research Forum

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INTRODUCTION

Chemical dispersants are an important oil spill response option (Pace and Clark, 1993). Although dispersants are applied in order to mitigate oil spills, they continue to draw the concern of environmental regulators and decision-makers. In part, this is due to uncertainties surrounding the exposure tolerances of local marine organisms to potentially toxic substances (Pace and Clark, 1993), and the possibility that dispersing oil leads to increased toxicity (NRC, 1989). The Oil Pollution Act of 1990 called for the reevaluation of dispersant use as a response option and required the consideration of pre-authorization plans where dispersants may or may not be used (Coelho *et al.,* 1995). When evaluating dispersant use to respond to an oil spill, dispersant effectiveness must be considered first followed by an evaluation of environmental acceptability. Many regulatory agencies that have a pre-approval process for dispersant use must have a basis to assess the potential impact to the local marine environment (Pace and Clark, 1993). Results from aquatic toxicity tests are an integral part of the information needed to assess those potential environmental impacts.

Standard toxicity testing in the United States involves determining the LC_{50} (lethal concentration to 50% of the population) of a test material to particular species under continuous exposure (Bragin *et al.,* 1994). However, data from field experiments where dispersants have been applied to an oil slick indicate that within several hours, initial concentrations of hydrocarbons decrease by an order of magnitude in the water column (Bragin *et al.*, 1994; Singer *et al.*, 1996a). Additionally, dispersant application to mitigate an oil spill is recommended only under certain conditions in which high energy

states exist (*i.e.*, wind and wave intensity, sea swell), favoring rapid dilution (Pace and Clark, 1993; Singer *et al.*, 1996a). Thus, toxicity results based upon a continuous exposure may not be representative of actual exposures that may occur in the field (Bragin *et al.*, 1994; Singer *et al.*, 1996a). In light of this, a spiked exposure (declining concentration), flow-through experimental system was designed by Singer and others (1993). This method of toxicity testing was adopted by the State of California for dispersant approval using native marine species (Pace and Clark, 1993). However, continuous exposure tests are a more commonly used laboratory method nation-wide (Singer *et al.*, 1990; 1991; Bragin *et al.*, 1994) for which a larger toxicity database has been established. Thus, use of both exposure regimes allows comparisons of the data to both past and future work of similar nature.

Toxicity tests have been conducted using oil dispersants and dispersed oil on various species (Wilson, 1977; Lonning & Falk-Peterson, 1978; Singer *et al*., 1991, 1993, and 1996a). Most tests focus on warm-water species under more temperate conditions than are found in Alaska. Among the standard test species used by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) are *Mysidopsis bahia* and *Menidia beryllina*, for which a large database of information regarding toxicity of oil and dispersants exists. However, little or no data are available describing the exposure response of cold-region, Alaskan species to oils and dispersants.

Both spiked and continuous exposure assays were used to in this study to evaluate the toxicity of crude oil and the oil dispersant, Corexit 9500, to an Alaskan marine species, *Chionocetes bairdi*. Methods used in this study followed protocols established by the

Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Research Forum (CROSERF) group. CROSERF is a "group of individuals from State and Federal government, academia, and industry dedicated to improving laboratory and mesocosm research on the ecological effects of chemical agents used in oil spill response" (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). The main emphasis of the group's work concerns the toxicity and effectiveness of petroleum dispersants, with a major focus on developing standardized laboratory testing procedures for toxicity assays, a research need identified by the National Research Council to improve the comparability of data sets (National Research Council, 1989).

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the acute toxic effects of an oil dispersant (Corexit 9500) and fresh and weathered ANS crude oil (dispersed and non-dispersed) on early life stages of an Alaskan marine organism, *C. bairdi*, and two EPA standard reference species, *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*. Use of the EPA reference species in this study facilitated the cross-comparison of results between laboratories. Additionally, by associating the results obtained for *C. bairdi* to those of the standard EPA species tested under similar conditions, the toxicity database for cold-regions species could effectively be augmented. Also to facilitate inter-laboratory comparisons of toxicity data, the reference crude oil, Prudhoe Bay Crude Oil, was evaluated using the reference species, *M. beryllina*. In addition, Microtox® analyses were run concurrently on samples collected from the aquatic toxicity tests. Microtox® is a commercially available bioassay system that is based on inhibition of luminescence of the bacterium, *Vibrio fischeri*. Because Microtox® analysis is a relatively rapid and inexpensive bioassay, its ability to predict possible environmental impact in a "real-time" fashion is of particular interest to

regulators and spill response teams. Split samples were collected from aquatic toxicity tests on *C. bairdi* larvae and the two standard test species, *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* and analyzed using the Microtox® test system.

This study represents the first effort to evaluate a cold-regions marine species under both spiked and continuous exposures to crude oil and oil dispersants. The results of this study have been provided to the Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation for use in determining the relative risk of dispersant use in response to oil spill events occurring in Alaska.

Project Objectives

The objectives of this study were to evaluate the toxicity of the dispersant, Corexit 9500, and dispersed and non-dispersed fresh and weathered Alaska North Slope crude oil to a cold-region, sensitive life-stage marine organism. Results from this study provide insight into the potential environmental impacts of using dispersants in response to an oil spill at high latitude.

BACKGROUND

Oil Spill Response Options

The decision of how best to respond to a spill is often considered one of "environmental trade-offs," choosing options which impart a net-environmental benefit greater than environmental losses (Trudel, 1998). In the event of an oil spill, major response options include: 1) mechanical containment and recovery, 2) use of chemical

dispersants, 3) *in-situ* burning; 4) shoreline cleanup, and 5) natural attenuation (no-response option) (NRC, 1989). Viability of each response option depends upon such factors as local geography, energy states (*i.e.*, current, wave, and wind action), mixing depth, and environmental sensitivity. Most oil spills spread rapidly, forming a slick ranging from 1 µm to 1 mm in thickness (NRC, 1989), thus further encumbering response efforts. Ideally, when oil is spilled, it all would be contained and removed from the sea surface. Unfortunately, mechanical recovery of oil can collect only a small amount, "leaving the rest to cause environmental damage" (Trudel, 1998). The recovery rate of skimmers (mechanical recovery) is “negligible at thicknesses of less than about 1 mm,” and for large spills has been as low as 10 percent (NRC, 1989). There may be other logistical limitations to mechanical containment and recovery. For example, if the slick is large, the number of vessels required to contain it may not be practical, the time to deploy equipment for response may be slower than other measures, or the cost may be prohibitive (White *et al.*, 1999).

Use of chemical dispersants may be the only option available where mechanical equipment physically cannot fit into a spill location, or when wave height exceeds the oil containment capacity of booms (NRC, 1989). Dispersants are applied to an oil spill by being sprayed from either aircraft or sea vessels. The time to respond using dispersant application can be much more rapid than mechanical removal. However, dispersant application can be hindered by low visibility due to darkness or fog, or high winds preventing accurate targeting for dispersant application to the oil slick (NRC, 1989).

Use of dispersants is recommended for offshore areas in order to protect shorelines (Gulec and Holdway, 1997; Wells, 1984), and to reduce the threat to surface inhabitants such as seabirds and marine mammals (Wolfe *et al.*, 1998). Chemical dispersants are not recommended for use in shallow or restricted waters where dilution rates are low or where sensitive habitats, such as near-shore benthic communities, may be affected (Coelho *et al.,* 1995). Field studies have shown that non-dispersed oil that reached the shoreline was less biodegraded than dispersed oil that was collected near-shore (Lunel, 1998). This suggests that non-dispersed oil stranded on shorelines may be more persistent than dispersed oil, and may thus have greater potential to cause prolonged exposures to local organisms. Furthermore, dispersed oil has a reduced ability to adhere to solid surfaces than non-dispersed oil, effectively reducing the exposure time to organisms living near-shore. Pink salmon embryos, for example, were found to be adversely effected under both short-term exposure (reduced survival) and long-term exposure (slowed growth) when exposed to oiled gravel at levels consistent with samples of contaminated stream sediments collected from Prince William Sound (PWS) (Heintz *et al.,* 1995). Incidentally, oil released from the grounding of the *Exxon Valdez* in PWS in 1989 was not treated with dispersants (Coelho *et al.,* 1995).

Physicochemical Characteristics of Crude Oils

Crude oils are complex and variable chemical mixtures (Bobra *et al.*, 1983). The physicochemical characteristics of the individual compounds in oil contribute to its ability to form water-soluble fractions, enabling contact with aquatic biota through which

a toxic effect may occur. A chemical must be able to interact with water in order to establish concentrations in the aqueous media (Lipnick, 1995). The extent to which oil will go into solution depends upon the parent oil composition, temperature, salinity, mixing energy and duration, and oil to water ratio (*i.e.,* oil loading) (Shiu *et al.,* 1990; Caldwell *et al.,* 1977; Rice *et al.,* 1977).

The physicochemical characteristics of the oil that contribute to formation of water-soluble fractions include molecular size, polarity, and partitioning preference between aqueous and lipid or gaseous phases (*i.e.,* hydrophobicity and volatility). Lower molecular weight hydrocarbons are more soluble than heavier ones (Shaw, 1977; Abernathy *et al.,* 1986). In fresh crude oils, monoaromatics are the most soluble (Bobra *et al.,* 1983). The solubility of aromatic hydrocarbons decreases with increasing degree of alkyl substitution, and number of aromatic rings (Rice *et al.,* 1977). Aliphatic hydrocarbons are among the least soluble with solubility decreasing with increasing carbon number (Rice *et al.,* 1977).

Hydrocarbons that are soluble in water often are also volatile. The rates of dissolution can be much slower than the rates of evaporation (Peterson *et al.,* 1993), often making dissolution a minor process (McAuliffe, 1977). In addition, once in solution, the more water-soluble hydrocarbons can rapidly volatilize out of solution (Peterson *et al.,* 1993). Volatility can be described using Henry's law constant (ratio of the chemical's vapor pressure to solubility). The partitioning preferences (*e.g.,* hydrophobicity, or affinity for lipids in biological membranes) of a chemical are estimated using the octanol-water partitioning coefficient (K_{ow}) (LaGreaga *et al.,* 1994; Lyman, 1995; Lipnick, 1995).

The characteristics above contribute to a chemical's toxicity as well. Once in solution, a chemical can make contact with an aquatic organism, making a toxic effect possible. If that chemical has a large octanol-water partitioning coefficient, it may preferentially partition out of solution into the biological lipids of the organism. Molecular size and structure can influence a chemical's ability to interact with biological lipids. The diffusion capacity of larger molecules may be less than those that are smaller (Abernathy *et al.,* 1986; Bobra *et al.,* 1993). Molecular structure can play a role in toxicity, but the octanol-water partitioning coefficient is a more important factor (Abernathy *et al.,* 1986).

Fate of Oil in the Environment

Immediately following a spill, the nature of crude oil begins to alter through weathering processes. The first compositional changes to occur are competing processes of evaporation and solution of volatile compounds (McAuliffe, 1977). Rates of evaporation are generally much greater than those of dissolution (Peterson *et al.,* 1993; NRC, 1985; McAuliffe, 1977), depending upon the vapor pressure and solubility of individual compounds. Evaporation may result in the loss of up to one third of the oil by mass (Mackay *et al.,* 1982), leaving behind persistent components of lower solubility, and increased viscosity (Bobra *et al.,* 1983; McAuliffe, 1977; Shiu *et al.,* 1990). The most immediately toxic and sub-toxic fractions of crude oil are those soluble in water (benzene to naphthalenes) (McDonald *et al.,* 1984; Bobra *et al.,* 1983), with the chronic toxicity of oil being related to the non-volatile, persistent aromatic hydrocarbons (Maher, 1986). Since the more soluble light aromatics are also more volatile, their removal

through weathering processes would imply a reduction in toxicity (Bobra *et al.*, 1983). Moreover, since toxicity is related to a substance's ability to interact with aqueous media (Bobra *et al.*, 1983; Abernathy *et al.*, 1986), increased viscosity of weathered oil further inhibits the oil's ability to form water-soluble fractions. Due to response logistics, oil spills typically are not treated until one or more days have passed since release. During this time, substantial weathering and loss of the volatile fraction can occur (Singer *et al.*, 1998; Mackay *et al.*, 1982). Therefore, concern for toxicity due to volatile fractions is more relevant to subsurface releases or surface spill events in which treatment occurs shortly after release (Singer *et al.*, 1998). To best understand the consequences of dispersing oil under either treatment scenarios (*i.e.*, rapid vs. delayed response post-release), toxicological data from both fresh and weathered oils must be compared.

Dispersants: History and Function

Dispersants are complex mixtures of surface-active agents (surfactants), solvents, and additives (Clayton *et al.*, 1993). Their design purpose is to reduce interfacial tension between the oil-water interface so as to promote the dispersion of oil into the water column, effectively increasing the surface area of the oil slick (NRC, 1989). Surfactants are the primary agent in reducing interfacial tension (Clayton *et al.*, 1993). Containing both hydrophobic (*i.e.*, oil-compatible) and hydrophilic (*i.e.*, water-compatible) components, a surfactant molecule reduces the interfacial tension by "residing" half in the oil phase and half in the water phase (Clayton *et al.*, 1993; NRC, 1989). As the concentration of the surfactants increase, the interfacial tension decreases until a critical

micelle concentration (CMC) is reached (NRC, 1989). Micelles are droplets of oil surrounded by surfactants that disperse into the water column with the aid of wave action, currents, and wind. Solvents in the dispersant mixture are present to maintain homogeneity in the dispersant mixture of surfactants and additives (Payne *et al.,* 1993), and to reduce the oil's viscosity and facilitate dispersal (NRC, 1989). The acute toxicity of dispersants alone is often attributed to the surface-active components in the dispersant mixture, interacting equally with biological lipids as with other lipids (Singer *et al.,* 1996a; 1990). The additives in a dispersant are intended to aid in biodegradation (Payne *et al.,* 1993).

Dispersants have been used worldwide for the more than 30 years in response to oil spills, and have received more focus and research than any other response option (Hillman, 1998). This is in part due to the huge public outcry over use of dispersants in the *Torrey Canyon* spill in 1967. Since then, there has been a long history of apparent successes that does not receive much notice from opponents of dispersant use (Lewis and Aurand, 1997). So-called first-generation dispersants, as were used in the *Torrey Canyon* spill, were derived from engine room degreasers and were as toxic as the oil being treated (NRC, 1989; Singer *et al,* 1990). Second and third generation dispersants have been reformulated to contain surfactants that are less toxic than those of their predecessors. Dispersants currently considered for use in the United States and Canada are of low toxicity compared to crude oil and refined petroleum products (NRC, 1989).

Dispersant effectiveness depends on the length of time crude oil is allowed to weather, the contact time between the dispersants and crude oil, and the dispersant to oil ratio

(White *et al.,* 1999). Factors that affect dispersant effectiveness include: 1) temperature – decreased temperature results in increased viscosity, requiring more mixing energy; 2) salinity – increased salinity results in the reduced solubility of dispersant in saltwater, thereby making the dispersant's surfactant more available for interaction with oil; 3) mixing energy – sufficient mixing energy is required for both oil-dispersant contact and to facilitate breaking the oil into micelles; and 4) local conditions, for example, high winds may prohibit the use of aerial dispersant spraying, or excessive energy states may reduce the contact time between the dispersant and oil (White *et al.,* 1999). Oil properties such as viscosity, pour point, boiling point, and surface tension also factor into the effectiveness of dispersants (White *et al.,* 1999).

Corexit 9500, the dispersant used in this study, is a newer oil dispersant that was designed to treat higher viscosity oils than its predecessor, Corexit 9527 (Singer *et al.,* 1996a). Although Corexit 9527 is currently stockpiled for response in the areas of Prince William Sound and the Gulf of Alaska, and has been shown effective (30-80%) in field tests conducted in south Alaskan seas (Hillman, 1998), this product is no longer manufactured. Consequently, the focus of more recent research has been directed toward Corexit 9500 (White *et al.,* 1999; Lindstrom *et al.,* 1999; Singer *et al.,* 1996a).

Fate of Dispersed Oil in the Environment

Initial concentrations of dispersants alone (*i.e.,* not in the presence of oil or other chemicals) applied to water might range from 0.1 to 13 mg/L at various depths (5 to 10 m) (Wells, 1984; Singer *et al.,* 1991; Trudel, 1998). Chemical dispersion of oil results in

formation of micelles (stabilized oil droplets surrounded by surfactant molecules) that may range in size from 1 to 70 µm (Mackay *et al.,* 1982; Lunel, 1998). Dispersion is believed to be rapid within the first 5 to 20 minutes (Mackay *et al.,* 1982). Under an untreated slick, 0.1 to 0.2 percent of the oil released can be detected; however, following treatment with chemical dispersants, this amount increases to 1.8 to 3.5 percent (Pace *et al.,* 1995). Concentrations under a treated slick are greatest initially at shallower depths (*e.g.,* 40 ppm at 1 m vs. 0.1 ppm at 9 m at 0.25 h following treatment) (Mackay *et al.,* 1982; Wright *et al.,* 1994; Trudel, 1998). However, over time (approximately 28 hours) concentrations normalize throughout a depth of approximately 10 m where a "diffusion floor" apparently exists, as little oil penetrates to greater depths (Mackay *et al.,* 1982). The decrease in concentration is due to diffusion in both the vertical and horizontal directions, with horizontal diffusion being greater (Mackay *et al.,* 1982). Once treated, oil droplets are sufficiently small and have neutral buoyancy, thus remaining dispersed in the water column (Mackay *et al.,* 1982). Dispersed oil will not sink unless associated with sediment or as feces after being ingested by organisms. In most spills, association with sediment is not a significant transport pathway for the fate of the oil, unless sediment is re-suspended by storm action or other disturbances (Lunel, 1998).

By increasing the aqueous concentrations of oil through enhanced solubilization or emulsification, dispersant use is advantageous based on the belief that degradation is enhanced (Wolfe *et al,* 1998). Recent studies however, suggest that microorganisms may preferentially degrade hydrocarbons originating from the dispersant and not from the dispersed oil (Lindstrom, *et al.,* 1999). This may potentially result in selective

enhancement of a certain hydrocarbon group, actually increasing its persistence in the environment (Lindstrom, *et al.*, 1999). Through the action of dispersants, the bioavailable fraction of oil is increased by the presence of more hydrocarbons in the water column and altered interactions between oil, dispersants, and biological membranes (Wolfe *et al.*, 1998). This can lead to a concomitant increase in bioaccumulation, direct dermal contact, or ingestion (Middaugh *et al.*, 1996; Wolfe *et al.*, 1998). These are all factors surrounding dispersant use and the ultimate fate of oil that must be considered when dispersants are used in response to an oil spill.

Dispersant Policy in Alaska

Alaska has oil spill response zones classified as "Zone 1" in Prince William Sound (PWS) and Cook Inlet, where use of dispersants has been pre-approved (Morris, 1998). This means that a Coast Guard Federal On-Scene Coordinator (FOSC) can consider use of dispersants in response to an oil spill (after first considering mechanical means) without being required to receive approval from the EPA or the State of Alaska (Morris, 1998). Zone 1 regions are characterized by bathymetry and currents that are conducive to dispersant use. Zones 2 and 3 are more sensitive areas. Zone 2 is characterized as having biological parameters that must be considered such as sensitive habitats or biota (Morris, 1998). Zone 3 typically is adjacent to shorelines where impacts to human activities are a concern. Zones 2 and 3 require more collaboration between response teams and agencies during a spill event in order to make spill-response decisions (Morris, 1998). Pre-spill response approvals have the benefit of determining beforehand where and when

dispersant use could be used effectively to respond to a spill event (Morris, 1998). This eliminates the need to review extensive scientific and technical information during a spill event in order to support sound decision-making (Morris, 1998). The pre-approval process also allows assignment of more stringent seasonal zone status to regions that are more biologically sensitive during certain times in the year. For instance, the PWS tanker lane is classified as Zone 1 except during the period of March 1 through October 15 when its classification becomes Zone 2 to protect important fisheries resources and commercial fishing activities. Such designations are made in part based upon information gained from toxicological assays.

Toxicity Tests

Toxicity tests are designed to identify the concentration of a chemical at which a percentage, usually 50 percent, of the population responds with a specified effect (*e.g.*, reduced ability to swim, or death). Typically, the effect specified is death, since death is often more easily discernable in an organism than other sub-lethal responses. Toxicity tests thus provide information about what response an organism may have when exposed to specific concentrations of chemicals under conditions similar to those used in the laboratory analysis. In addition, when compared to other species tested with the same chemicals under similar conditions, toxicity tests can provide some indication of relative species sensitivities to the test chemicals.

To identify the concentration that elicits a 50 percent response from the organism, a series of solutions with increasing concentration of the chemical are prepared. Ideally,

organisms in the control group will exhibit no response (*e.g.*, no mortality), followed by either no or a very low response to the lowest concentration, then two or more partial responses in the mid-range concentrations (*i.e.*, 20,40, or 60% mortality), and finally, a complete response by the test organisms in the highest concentration (*i.e.*, 100% mortality). Data collected from this design defines a curve illustrating the relationship between exposure to the chemical at increasing concentrations and the organisms' response, referred to as a "dose-response" curve. The result from each test concentration is plotted along the ordinate against the proportion responding along the abscissa. Typically, lines are drawn between these data points to aid the eye and suggest the trend in toxicity with respect to increasing concentration. However, these lines are not meant to imply what the actual relationship between effect and test concentration is between those data points. Statistical methods are used to estimate the mid-point of the slope on the curve where the greatest change in response to concentration occurs; this point is defined as the concentration at which 50 percent of the population responds. In order to estimate that concentration, at least a 50 percent response by the organisms must be observed in the toxicity test.

An important aspect of toxicity testing is species selection. The selection of a species requires identifying one that is: 1) sensitive (so as to provide a conservative estimate of the toxic effect on local biota); 2) of local ecological and economic importance; and 3) amenable to laboratory testing (Rand *et al.*, 1995). *Chionocetes bairdi* was used in this study as it met these criteria. Marketed and sold as "Tanner Crab" (Williams *et al*., 1988), *C. bairdi* is both economically and ecologically significant to the State of Alaska.

Newborn tanner crab larvae move into the upper 30 meters of the water column where they feed on phytoplankton. Since animals in early life stages are generally more sensitive than adults (Broderson *et al.*, 1977; Karinen and Rice, 1974), and dispersants are generally found in the upper water column (Mackay *et al.*, 1982), tanner crab larvae may experience comparatively greater risk of exposure during an oil spill than other species. This species typically is found in waters with an ambient salinity of approximately 32 parts per thousand (‰) and temperature of about 7°C. Information obtained from the toxicity assays on *C. bairdi* from this study can be used in the decision-making process for spill response actions and plans. Also, this species was evaluated to determine its laboratory suitability (*e.g.*, ability to survive laboratory procedures, and availability) and its suitability as a cold-regions reference species.

The EPA reference species, *M. bahia*, is an estuarine shrimp found in the waters of the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, and is among the most sensitive of standard test species (Pace *et al.*, 1995). *M. beryllina* are fish found in estuaries along the coasts of the Atlantic ocean and the Gulf of Mexico (Middaugh *et al.*, 1996). This species serves as a forage fish for larger species of economic importance (Webber, 1993). Both *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* are commonly used in toxicity assays, and are being considered for dispersant-testing protocols (Pace and Clark, 1993). *M. beryllina* was recently selected by CROSERF as the organism of choice for laboratory inter-calibration of standard dispersants, and dispersed and non-dispersed oil solutions (Coelho and Aurand, 1998). Hence, *M.beryllina* was tested in this study to allow comparisons with other CROSERF laboratories. Toxicity assays of *M. bahia* also were conducted to allow comparisons to

other studies that used this species, prior to selection of *M. beryllina* as the CROSERF standard.

In addition to the test chemical itself and species sensitivity, factors that influence the results of toxicity assays include: 1) the methods used to prepare solutions; and 2) the manner in which organisms are exposed to the test solution. Two exposure regimes (spiked and continuous) were used in this study to evaluate acute toxicity (96 hour) of three types of solutions: 1) dispersant in saltwater; 2) water accommodated fraction (WAF) of crude oil in saltwater; and 3) the chemically enhanced water accommodated fraction (CE-WAF) of crude oil mixed with dispersant in saltwater. WAF solutions were not filtered or placed into a centrifuge to remove all traces of bulk particulate oil. Thus, the term WAF is preferred to water soluble fraction (WSF) in this case since WSF indicates that particulate oil (*i.e.*, oil droplets) has been removed from the solution (Singer *et al*., 1996b). Although the spiked exposure regime is a better model for actual exposure conditions (Pace and Clark, 1993), continuous toxicity assays are common standardized tests that facilitate comparison of toxicity data between local and non-local species (Singer *et al*., 1990; 1991).

Field Extrapolations

When using toxicity data as a tool to assess potential environmental impact, a basic understanding of how the data were generated is important to properly interpret the results as they apply to the natural environment. Laboratory methods used to prepare test solutions for organism exposure are designed to mimic conditions likely to occur in

nature. However, because a variety of conditions can exist in the environment (*e.g.*, high-energy storms or, especially, calm waters), these methods are intended to re-create only one realistic concentration profile. Thus, an understanding of the test procedures (both solution preparation and exposure type) is necessary to properly extrapolate toxicity data to field conditions.

An equally, if not more, important consideration when extrapolating laboratory data to field conditions is how the concentrations of the test solutions were characterized in order to calculate a toxicity value. That is, are the toxicity values reported in a study calculated based upon analytically determined concentrations or nominal concentrations (the amount of chemical added to a known volume of aqueous media), or only certain fractions of the measured concentration? In the case of a test material that is composed of a mixture of chemicals, if the toxicity values are calculated based only on a chemical subset of the material, those data may not represent of the actual material concentration that caused the toxic effect. This is an especially important consideration when test materials contain chemicals with varying abilities to interact with aqueous media. In such cases, reporting toxicity values based on chemical subset groups may erroneously omit other chemicals or groups of chemicals that may be more influential on the toxic response of the organism.

Finally, seasonal variations in biological sensitivity must be considered. For example, *C. bairdi* larvae are present in the upper reaches of the water column during the spring and early summer months. If a spill event were to occur in November in the same location where these zooplankton bloom in the spring, these animals would not

experience any exposure to oil or dispersed oil. Therefore, concern for a given species in a particular life-stage may not always be relevant.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

All toxicity assays in this study were conducted using solutions made from oil, dispersant, or dispersed oil using the following materials: 1) Alaska North Slope crude oil (ANS) (Williams Alaska Petroleum, Inc., North Pole, Alaska); 2) Prudhoe Bay crude oil (PBCO), a reference oil (R.T. Corporation, Laramie, Wyoming); and 3) Corexit 9500 (Nalco/Exxon Energy Chemicals, L.P., Sugar Land, Texas). Sub-samples of the dispersant and crude oil were collected and dispensed separately, with no headspace, into certified organic-free 20-mL or 40-mL septum vials and stored at 4°C until use.

Corexit 9500 is a dispersant with both anionic and nonionic properties, and contains an oleophilic solvent carrier designed to treat higher viscosity oils and emulsions (Singer *et al*., 1996a). This dispersant is described as a blend of oxyalkylate polymers, organic sulfonic acid salt, substituted fatty ester, glycol ether, and aliphatic hydrocarbon (Nalco/Exxon Energy Chemicals, L.P., 1997). ANS used in this study was collected in October 1997 from the Trans-Alaska Pipeline. Approximately one-third (w/w) of ANS is composed of volatiles, compounds with a boiling point of 400 to 525°F (204 to 274°C) or less (pers. comm., Mead, 1997). PBCO is a U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) standard, and is described as a "medium light crude" (Wolfe *et al.,* 1998) with 23.2 percent (by weight) of its components having a boiling point of 205°C or less (NRC, 1985).

All toxicity assays of *Chionocetes bairdi* were conducted using natural, 0.5-µm filtered seawater (20-µm pleated cellulose paper, 10-µm granular activated carbon, 0.5-µm block-activated carbon; Ametek, Sheboygan, Wisconsin) taken from an 80-m depth from Resurrection Bay, Seward, Alaska, at ambient temperature and salinity (typically 7°C and 31.5‰, respectively). For toxicity assays of *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, re-constituted saltwater made from de-ionized water (≥ 18 MΩ–cm) and Crystal Sea Marinemix (formerly Forty Fathoms Seasalt, Marine Enterprises International, Inc., Baltimore, Maryland) was used at a temperature of 25°C and salinity of 20‰ (Webber, 1993; Pace and Clark, 1993; Bragin *et al.,* 1994). Saltwater used in the toxicity assays for all species was also used for all saltwater needs including animal holding, test solution preparation, and dilution water in the spiked exposure (declining concentration) tests.

Test Solutions

Each species was evaluated for acute toxic effects using three solution types prepared with saltwater: 1) dispersant only (Corexit 9500), 2) water-accommodated fractions (WAF) of crude oil (no dispersant added), and 3) chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions (CE-WAF) of crude oil (dispersant added). *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia* were evaluated for acute toxic effects using ANS only, whereas tests for *M. beryllina* included both ANS and PBCO. Both oils were tested on *M. beryllina*, because this species is a recognized standard test species. Thus results from this species will further facilitate the cross-comparison of results with other laboratories.

Selection of the nominal concentrations tested in the toxicity assays was based on the results of range-finding tests (Webber, 1993) for both dispersant and oil solutions. Results from these assays helped identify the concentrations that bracketed a 50 percent response by the animals when exposed to the test solutions, thus enabling calculation of an estimated median-effect concentration (*i.e.*, EC_{50} or LC_{50}).

Dispersant solutions were prepared separately for each concentration (*i.e.*, not serially diluted) by dispensing a known mass of Corexit 9500, determined by the difference between initial and final masses, weighed in a 1 mL gas-tight syringe (Hamilton, Reno, NV), into a 2-L volumetric flask partially filled with saltwater. Due to the limited solubility of Corexit 9500 in saltwater (Wells, 1984; Singer *et al.*, 1996a), the flask was inverted three times to ensure complete mixing, brought up to the proper volume with saltwater, then inverted three more times before samples were collected for chemical analysis and the test solution was dispensed into test chambers for the toxicity tests.

Water-accommodated fractions (WAF) of crude oil were prepared using a standardized method of low-energy mixing adopted by researchers in both Canada and the United States (Blenkinsopp *et al*., 1996; Coelho and Aurand, 1997). This method, adopted and outlined by CROSERF (Chemical Response to Oil Spills - Ecological Effects Research Forum), was followed in this study (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). WAF preparation involved adding a known mass of crude oil, determined from initial and final masses weighed either in a 5 mL gas-tight syringe (Hamilton, Reno, NV) or a 50 mL beaker, into a low-mixing energy (0% water depth vortex; ca. 180-240 rpm; Blenkinsopp *et. al*., 1996) 4-L aspirator bottle filled with 3.5 L of saltwater, resulting in a standardized

headspace of 25% by volume (Singer *et al*., 1996b; Coelho and Aurand, 1997; Blenkinsopp *et al*., 1996). Mixing energy was provided to the aspirator bottles by magnetic stir plates (Model No. 948050, Troemner Inc., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania) and 2-inch teflon-coated stir bars. Bottles were kept in a water bath to maintain a constant temperature during mixing (7°C for *C. bairdi*; 25°C for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*), and were covered with aluminum foil to reduce evaporative losses and volatilization. The entire water bath was kept dark in order to avoid photooxidation of the test solutions mixing in the bath. Following a 24-hour mixing period and a 5-minute settling period, the WAF solution was collected for chemical analysis and immediate delivery into the test chambers. WAF solution was collected from the bottom 90 percent of the water depth through the aspirator bottle's sampling port fitted with silicon tubing. Each WAF was individually prepared (*i.e.*, not serially diluted), because components of the oil with varying solubilities may not be transferred in equal proportions during serial dilutions (Girling *et al.*, 1992).

In preliminary investigations during development of this WAF preparation method, other researchers found that using high mixing energies tended to entrain oil droplets or form emulsions, thereby contributing to greater variability in the solution profiles (Singer *et al.*, 1998; Blenkinsopp *et al.*, 1996). The method of WAF preparation used in this study used low-mixing energy, yielding solutions free of oil droplets greater than 1 µm in diameter as verified by epifluorescence microscopy (Blenkinsopp *et al*., 1996). Because the WAF solutions are relatively free of oil droplets, a settling time of only five minutes was needed to allow for organic/aqueous phase separation.

The term "WAF" is used instead of "water-soluble fraction" (WSF) to describe untreated crude oil solutions to indicate that the test media did not undergo separation procedures such as filtration or centrifugation to remove undissolved, dispersed components of crude oil (Girling *et al.*, 1992; 1994; Singer *et al.*, 1996b; 1998; Maher, 1986). Separation procedures such as these would require physical handling of the test solution, potentially altering its chemical composition (Singer *et al.*, 1996b; 1998). Because solutions may contain oil droplets of 1 µm in diameter or less, the word "solution" is used here recognizing that test solutions, including those made with dispersant only, may be more accurately described as suspensions.

Chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions (CE-WAF) of crude oil (chemically dispersed oil) were prepared in a manner similar to WAF solutions, with some exceptions. These included the addition of dispersant in a 10:1 (w/w) ratio of oil-to-dispersant, increasing the mixing energy to achieve a 20-25% water depth vortex (ca. 360-680 rpm; Singer *et al*., 1996b; 1998), and altering the mixing-to-settling time ratios. Increasing mixing energy compared to that used for WAF solutions was necessary to ensure good contact between oil and dispersant and to promote effective dispersion (Singer *et al*., 1998). CE-WAF solutions were mixed for a period of 18 to 24 hours, followed by a settling period of 3 to 6 hours (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). The settling period facilitated separation of large oil droplets from solution, generally leaving behind a soluble fraction of oil. Following the settling period, CE-WAF solutions were collected from the bottom 90 percent of the water column, sampled for hydrocarbon analyses, and immediately dispensed into the test chambers for the toxicity assays. Any remaining

suspension of crude oil on the water's surface inside the aspirator bottle was avoided during collection. As with the WAF preparation method, recommendations for CE-WAF preparation are set forth by CROSERF and were followed in this study (Coelho and Aurand, 1997).

This method of CE-WAF preparation is similar to those described elsewhere (Singer *et al.,* 1998). These authors report that, despite differences in mixing duration (*i.e.,* WAF for 24 hours, CE-WAF for 18 to 24 hours), CE-WAF solutions were essentially equivalent to WAFs in number of whole oil droplets provided that the CE-WAF mixing-to-settling time ratios remained within (9 h to 24 h): 6 h (pers. comm., Singer, 1999). Additionally, CE-WAF solutions allowed to settle for 3 to 6 hours were not found to be statistically different from one another with respect to the number of oil particulates present in solution (pers. comm., Singer, 1999), leading to the 3- to 6-hour settling period set forth by CROSERF (Coelho and Aurand, 1997) and followed in this study. The mixing-to-setting ratios employed for preparation of CE-WAF in this study were selected to produce solutions with similar profiles (with respect to number of oil particulates) to those of WAF solutions.

Toxicity Test Procedures

Short-term tests (96 h) were conducted to evaluate the responses of early life-stages of Alaskan Tanner crab (*Chionocetes bairdi*), a mysid (*Mysidopsis bahia*), and the inland silverside (*Menidia beryllina*) when exposed to the test solutions. These species were tested under two exposure regimes in this study, spiked and continuous exposure. Spiked

exposure tests were used to evaluate acute toxic effects under declining concentration conditions. Continuous exposure tests model exposure to a constant concentration. Animals were exposed in triplicate to a saltwater control and five test solutions of increasing concentration. The test temperature for *C. bairdi* assays was an ambient temperature of 7°C ± 1°C, while for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, the temperature was 25°C ± 1°C (Webber, 1993). Tests for *C. bairdi* were conducted in a temperature-controlled room or in water baths. Other environmental parameters were controlled in the tests, including salinity (20‰ ± 2‰ for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, and 31.5‰ ± 3‰, ambient salinity, for *C. bairdi*), dissolved oxygen (DO, ≥ 60% saturation), and pH (range of 6 to 9; Webber, 1993; ASTM, 1996). Temperature, pH, DO, and conductivity (an index of salinity) were monitored daily.

In the continuous exposure tests, five to twelve animals were placed in a 400-mL beaker covered with a watch glass to minimize evaporative losses and keep contaminants out (ASTM, 1996). The beakers were supplied filtered air (granular activated carbon filter) via a 4-mm ID glass tube at a rate of 50 to 100 bubbles per minute (1.68 to 3.35 cm^3/min) (Webber, 1993). A low aeration rate was used to avoid production of turbulence in the beakers that could be a source of stress to the animals (ASTM E 729-96). This method was employed to assure that sufficient dissolved oxygen concentrations were maintained throughout the duration of the test (ASTM, 1996; Webber, 1993); it was not intended to minimize volatile losses from the test solution. Every 24 hours, test solutions in the beakers were gently decanted off the top 90 percent and then slowly re-filled with fresh solution. Any dead animals or detritus present in the beakers were

removed along with the day-old test solution. Post-24-hour samples of test solution were collected at random from mid- to high-concentrations to observe changes in concentration of the more volatile hydrocarbons.

Spiked exposure tests (declining concentrations) were conducted in 280-mL, airtight, borosilicate glass flow-through chambers (Singer *et al.*, 1990; 1996a) (Figure 1-1). These chambers have a top and bottom portion, each fitted with a grooved flange. An airtight seal is created when the top and bottom parts of the chamber are assembled with a silicone O-ring seated in the groove of the two flanges. A U-clamp, tightened with spring-loaded screws, is attached firmly to the flange to hold the two parts together. The tops of the chambers are equipped with two threaded ports, one, to accept influent diluent (fresh, aerated saltwater), and the other to provide food for the animals. The bottoms contain only one threaded port to carry outflow, or chamber effluent, and are fitted with a 40 to 60-µm mesh fritted glass filter for animal containment. All tubing used in this system was made of inert materials (silicon, glass, or platinum-cured silicon).

In order to ensure that all flow-through chambers received equal treatment, each chamber was prepared for the toxicity assay one-at-a-time and in the same manner as the others. Particular care was taken to standardize the amount of time between loading the chambers with test solution and animals, and the addition of diluent. This prevented having test animals in one or more of the triplicate chambers at each test concentration experience a longer period of exposure than others.

The process to prepare each flow-through chamber for the test began by partially filling the chamber with test solution. Five to twelve animals randomly selected from a

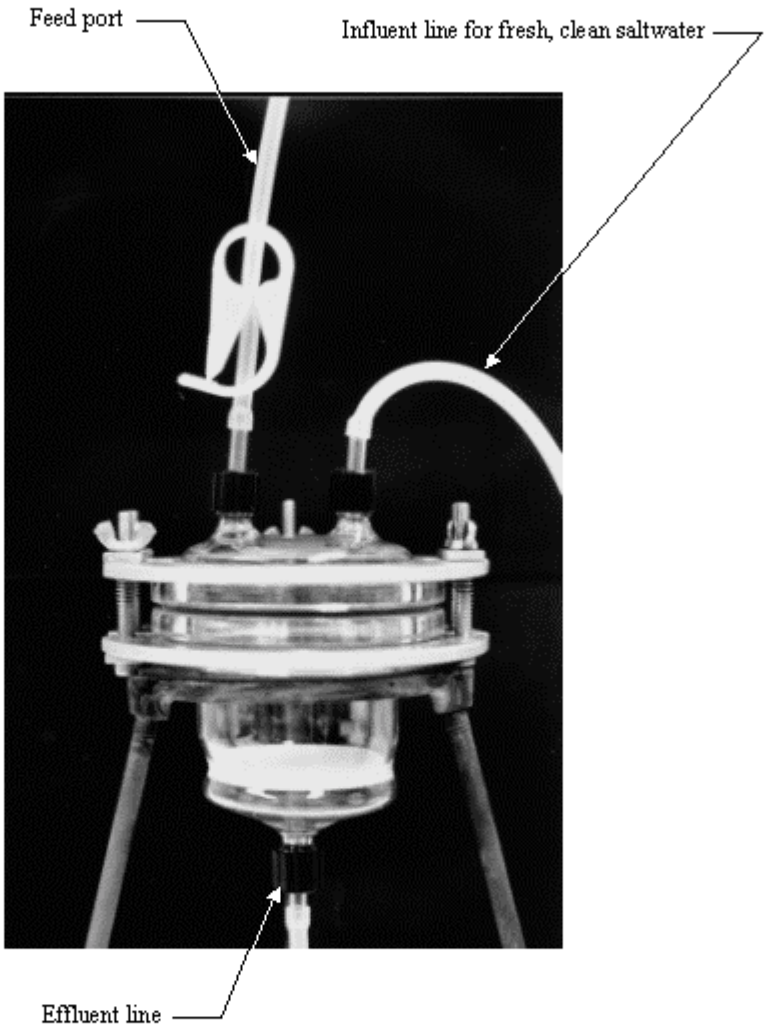

Fig. 1-1. Flow-through chamber used in spiked exposure tests

group of several hundred were then placed in the chamber, which was immediately sealed and clamped shut. The remainder of the chamber was filled with test solution just to the base of the influent and feed ports in order to prevent animal escape through influent lines. Once filled, the chamber was immediately connected to an influent line that supplied the chamber with the saltwater diluent. The time the influent line was connected was recorded, marking the beginning of the 96 hour test (*i.e.*, t = 0 hours) for that chamber. That recorded time was then followed accordingly for the time of disassembly (for that specific chamber) at the end of the 96-hour test. This process of loading the flow-through chambers was repeated for each chamber in the assay, until all 18 were loaded.

The saltwater diluent was supplied to all flow-through chambers over the duration of the test using a peristaltic pump (Model No. 7332-00, Cole-Parmer, Vernon Hills, Illinois) at a rate of 1 to 2 mL per minute from a 100-L covered reservoir, and was oxygenated with air filtered through granular activated carbon. Hourly composite samples of test solution from triplicate chambers were collected, typically at hours 2, 4, 7, and 12 from each of the six concentrations (a saltwater control and five test solutions). A minimum of a middle and high concentration was sampled to verify that concentrations in the test chambers were declining. This also served as a periodic maintenance check on the diluent delivery system to ensure that all chambers were receiving an adequate supply of fresh, aerated saltwater.

Test Species

Tanner crab larvae (*Chionocetes bairdi*) were obtained from gravid females collected in January 1998 from Kachemak Bay, Alaska, USA. The gravid females and larvae were kept in natural saltwater at ambient temperature and salinity. The larvae tested were less than 24 hours old. Prior to and during the tests, the tanner crab larvae were fed once daily with 5 to 10 mL of a solution containing a mixture of diatoms (*Chaetocerus calcitrans, Chaetocerus gacile, and Thalassiosira pseudonana*; Qutekcak Shellfish Hatchery, Seward, Alaska). Although *C. bairdi* larvae are known to be phototacticly responsive, it is not known whether the larvae require light for survival (pers. comm., McDonald, 1998). Therefore when other on-going research projects sharing the same laboratory facilities could not support long periods of illumination, the decision was made not to use a regimented photoperiod prior to or during *C. bairdi* tests.

The standard reference species *Mysidopsis bahia* and *Menidia beryllina* were both obtained from Aquatic Bio Systems, Inc., Ft. Collins, Colorado. These animals were fed 1 mL of a suspension of saltwater-rinsed, concentrated, newly hatched (≤ 24 hour old) brine shrimp nauplii (*Artemia*; approximately 100 *Artemia* per animal) once or twice daily prior to and during a test (Webber, 1993). *M. bahia* were found to be highly cannibalistic, requiring careful attention to the feeding needs of the test animals. Six day-old *M. bahia* and 12 day-old *M. beryllina* were tested in each chamber. Each reference species was acclimated to the test salinity and temperature for two days prior to initiation of the test with changes in temperature and salinity not more than 3°C or 3 ppt in any 12 hour period, respectively (Webber, 1993; ASTM, 1996). A photoperiod of 8 hours of

dark and 16 hours of light was maintained for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* throughout both the acclimation period and toxicity test using ambient laboratory lighting (approximately 10 to 20 $\mu E/m^2/s$; Webber, 1993). Water quality parameters monitored during the acclimation period included temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration, conductivity (salinity), and ammonia concentration.

Microtox® Assay

Microtox® is a commercially available bioassay system based on inhibition of luminescence of the bacterium, *Vibrio fischeri*. Split samples were collected from test solutions from the aquatic toxicity tests on tanner crab (*C. bardi*) larvae and the two standard test species, *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina,* and were analyzed using the Microtox® test system. Samples were collected in 40 mL VOA vials (no headspace) and stored at 4°C until analysis could be performed (within two weeks of sample collection). All samples were run using the acute toxicity basic test protocol (Azur Environmental, 1995) for the Microtox® system (Azur Environmental, Carlsbad, CA). All reagents were obtained from Azur Environmental and were stored and used as indicated in the test protocol. Phenol (a well-characterized toxicant) standards were run periodically for quality assurance that the test system was set up optimally. In every case, the results obtained fell within the range published for phenol (Azur Environmental, 1995).

Chemical Analysis: Dispersant Solutions

Dispersant test solutions were characterized using ultra-violet (UV) spectrophotometery on a Milton Roy Spectronic 1201 (Ivyland, Pennsylvania) for *C. bairdi* tests and a Gilford Response UV Spectrophotometer (Westchester, Pennsylvania) for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests. The nominal concentrations of dispersant solutions were also determined by gravimetric means (known mass into known volume). Although the UV-measured concentrations showed good linearity with respect to nominal concentrations, for concentrations below 120 mg/L ($r^2 = 0.99$ for *C. bairdi*, $r^2 = 0.93$ for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*), these measured values were not necessarily concordant with nominal concentrations. Additionally, those Corexit 9500 solutions prepared with higher dispersant loadings (typically ≥ 1000 ppm for solutions at 25°C, and ≥ 500 ppm for solutions at 7°C) were observed to exhibit a biphasic nature, suggesting limited solubility of the dispersant mixture and its oleophilic components. Because the manner in which dispersant-only test solutions were prepared (completely mixed immediately before being decanted into the test chambers), animals in the toxicity tests were exposed to all components of the dispersant. As a result, good agreement (*i.e.*, ± 10% of loading) between measured and nominal concentrations of dispersant test solutions was considered important to accurately portray the toxicity of dispersant solutions to which the animals were exposed. Therefore, when a comparison of the UV-measured concentrations to their respective nominal concentrations indicated that some test solutions contained as little as 8 percent of the initial dispersant added, the ability of this analytical technique to accurately depict the solutions' concentrations was questioned. As a result, dispersant

test solution concentrations in this study are presented as nominal concentrations determined gravimetrically. Exceptions include the measured declining concentrations of dispersant-only solutions in spiked exposure tests. These hourly samples from *C. bairdi* tests were determined using UV spectrophotometry, and from *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests by total organic carbon (TOC) analysis. TOC analyses were done using a Shimadzu TOC-5000A (Columbia, Maryland).

Chemical Analysis: Oil Solutions

Both WAF and CE-WAF solutions were analyzed using Gas Chromatography/ Flame Ionization Detection (GC/FID). Solutions were analyzed for total volatile organic analytes (VOA; range defined as C_6-C_9) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH; range defined as C_{10}-C_{36}; Coelho and Aurand, 1997). The summation of these analytes is the total hydrocarbon content (THC; C_6-C_{36}) (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). Guidelines used in the development of this analytical method are outlined in the Proceedings of the Sixth Meeting of CROSERF (Coelho and Aurand, 1997), U.S. EPA SW-846 methods 5030, 8000B, and 8021B (U.S. EPA, 1986), and ADEC method AK101 and AK102 Appendix D, Revision 3.0 (ADEC, 1996).

Chromatographic measurements of THC were made using a Hewlett Packard 5890 GC/FID with nitrogen as the carrier-gas. Two columns in series were used to facilitate the separation of organic compounds for VOA and TPH analytes. The first column was a 30 m x 0.53 mm (ID) Rtx®-1 fused-silica capillary column with a film thickness of 0.25 µm (Restek Corp., Bellefonte, PA); the second column was a 30 m x 0.53 mm (ID) HP-1

flexible fused silica capillary column with a film thickness of 1.5 µm (Hewlett Packard, San Fernando, California). A purge and trap condenser equipped with a 16-port Autosampler (Model 7695, Hewlett Packard, San Fernando, California) was used to analyze samples for VOA content using nitrogen as the carrier gas. Following the analysis of samples collected from the *C. bairdi* tests and prior to commencement of the *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests, the gas chromatograph required recalibration, allowing for more target analytes to be included in the calibration (Table 1-1).

Samples analyzed for TPH were serially extracted using a three aliquots of 75 mL of dicholormethane (DCM) as extraction solvent (U.S. EPA SW-846 Method 5030). The extraction volumes for WAF and CE-WAF samples were 1000 and 500 mL, respectively. A surrogate standard (*o*-terphenyl) was added to all samples prior to extraction to monitor the extraction efficiency.

The GC was calibrated using a suite of neat or pre-made hydrocarbon solutions purchased from chemical suppliers (Chem Service, Inc, West Chester, Pennsylvania; Restek Corporation, Bellefonte, Pennsylvania; Alltech Associates, Inc., Deerfield, Illinois). A calibration curve was prepared for each of those hydrocarbons and used to calculate a response factor (RF). An average RF was then determined from the RF for each analyte (U.S. EPA, 1992; ADEC, 1996). Samples were measured by summing the peaks of both resolved (*i.e.*, those hydrocarbons for which an RF was determined from individual, known standards) and unresolved compounds (Coelho and Aurand, 1997),

Table 1-1. Minimum target analytes for chemical analysis of fresh oil test solutions

Minimum target analyte list for VOA analysis (*C. bairdi*)

Saturates	**Unsaturates**
hexane	benzene
nonane	toluene
	ethylbenzene
	m-xylene
	p-xylene
	o-xylene
	n-propylbenzene

Minimum target analyte list for VOA analysis (*M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*)

Saturates	**Unsaturates**
2-methylpentane	benzene
hexane	toluene
cyclopentane	ethylbenzene
heptane	m-xylene
2,4 dimethylpentane	p-xylene
cyclohexane	o-xylene
octane	n-propylbenzene
nonane	1,2,4-trimethyl-benzene
	1,3,5-trimethyl-benzene

Minimum target analyte list for TPH analysis (*C. bairdi*, *M. bahia*, and *M. beryllina*)

n-Alkanes:			
Decane	C10	Tetracosane	C24
Undacane	C11	Hexacosane	C26
Dodecane	C12	Octacosane	C28
Tetradecane	C14	Triacontane	C30
Hexadecane	C16	Dotriacontane	C32
Octadecane	C18	Tetratriacontane	C34
Eicosane	C20	Hexatriacontane	C36
Docosane	C22		

without subtracting the Corexit 9500 peak, and were then quantified using the average RF.

Test solutions in the continuous exposure tests were renewed every 24 hours, yet had to be reported as one concentration for the full 96-hour test. As a result, concentrations for continuous exposure tests were determined in a variety of ways depending upon the hydrocarbon group being analyzed. For *C. bairdi* tests, values reported for VOA and TPH concentrations are the mean of values measured from samples collected on each of four days. For *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests, measured values reported for VOA for both WAF and CE-WAF test solutions are of the composite of samples collected from days one through four. TPH values from WAF tests for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* are the values from samples collected on day one only. This approach to characterizing TPH content in WAF test solutions was adopted after verifying that TPH content in WAF solutions was consistently low regardless of increased oil loading due to the limited solubility of hydrocarbons in the range of C_{10} to C_{36}. For CE-WAF solutions from *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests, measured TPH values are from the composite of samples collected from days one through four. TPH samples were composited using an equal volume from each sample collected. Hourly-samples collected from spiked exposure tests of WAF and CE-WAF were analyzed for VOA content to verify that concentrations were declining within the flow-through chambers.

All samples collected for analysis (including those for dispersant-only solutions) were preserved with an 18% HCl (hydrochloric acid) solution (0.25, 0.5, and 2.5 mL of 18% HCl for vials with volumes of 20, 40, and 1000 mL, respectively). Only Microtox®

sample vials were not preserved with acid, as acid will kill the bacteria used to conduct the bioassay (Azur Environmental, 1995).

Toxicity Analysis

Median-effect concentration (MEC) values were determined for each species. For *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, LC_{50} (lethal concentration to 50 percent of the population) values of test solutions were determined. For *C. bairdi*, these values were calculated as the effective concentration to 50 percent of the population (EC_{50}), since lethal effects were rarely observed. Each individual larva (*C. bairdi*) was observed under a microscope (30x magnification) and assigned a health status of alive, affected, mortally affected, or dead. The effect used to calculate the EC_{50} was the status of at least "affected," which also included those animals categorized as "mortally affected" and "dead." Definitions of the four health categories used are shown in Table 1-2.

Table 1-2. *C. bairdi* health evaluation categories

Alive	Vigorously swimming; tail bent under in a normal position; active internal organ movement; good phototactic response (successfully swimming to water's surface to obtain phytoplankton); swims away when touched
Affected	Passively swimming; phototactic response diminished; tail cocked or flipped backwards; organ movement detectable; reduced response to being touched
Mortally affected	Not swimming, but twitching; slight organ movement; no phototactic response; no response to being touched
Dead	No internal organ movement; opaque beige in color

This method is similar to earlier studies of *C. bairdi* larvae as reported in Brodersen and others (1977), where the reported responses to oil solution exposure were similar to those observed in this study. Both Brodersen and others (1977) and Buchanan and others (1970) used moribundity (death imminent) as the lethal indicator for crab larvae to calculate median lethal concentration, and defined moribundity in larvae as "the cessation of swimming."

Median-effect concentrations for dispersant-only solutions are based on nominal concentrations. Median-effect concentrations for oil solutions were calculated based upon the combined measured concentrations of total volatile organic analytes (VOA range; C_6-C_9) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH range; C_{10}-C_{36}), referred to as total hydrocarbon content (THC). Microtox® toxicity values are presented as EC_{50} values and are calculated based upon both single and combined fractions (*i.e.*, VOA, TPH, and THC), as well as oil loading rates. This was done to evaluate the differences in results of comparing the toxicities of two or more solutions with toxicity values standardized to different descriptors of solution content and concentration (*e.g.*, VOA and TPH).

Statistical Analysis

Three replicate exposure chambers were used in the tests to assess the variation within and among test species. The estimated median-effect concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50}) were calculated using probit analysis where possible (Finney, 1971), and Trimmed Spearman-Karber (TSK) or Spearman-Karber (TSK with 0% trim) when conditions for probit analysis were not met (Hamilton *et al.*, 1977). When conditions for the analysis

methods previously described were not met or when no partial mortalities were observed data were analyzed by the graphical method (Webber, 1993). Probit and TSK estimation are preferred to graphical methods, because confidence intervals can be calculated. Probit analyses were made using Probit Program Version 1.5, and Trimmed Spearman-Karber with Trimmed Spearman-Karber (TSK) Program Version 1.5 (Environmental Monitoring Systems Laboratory, Cincinnati, Ohio). Both programs automatically adjust for any mortality observed in the controls using Abbott's formula, and smooth the data when response proportions were not non-monotonically increasing (Webber, 1993). These programs prompt the user to enter toxicity data in the form of total number of animals responding out of the total number exposed at each concentration, effectively pooling the data from the triplicate chambers at each test concentration. The percent trim with Trimmed Spearman-Karber analysis is automatically calculated when the program is run. Percent trim values are reported with median-effect concentration values (see Table 1-5). For clarification, the median-effect concentrations are often qualified as "estimated," since an LC_{50} or EC_{50} is the median response of a given test population that is "an estimate of the 'true' median lethal [or sub-lethal] concentration of that test material for the entire species" (Greenberg *et. al.,* 1992).

For those tests where a minimum response of 50 percent needed to calculate an LC_{50} or EC_{50} was not observed, median-effect concentrations are reported as values greater than the highest concentration tested. Tests with 20% effect or less in the controls were considered acceptable (Singer *et al.,* 1998; Markarian *et al*., 1995; Ward, 1995). There can be variability in the percent responses observed in each of the triplicate chambers for

a single test concentration (*e.g.*, for the same concentration, observations in chambers a, b, and c may be 20%, 40% and 10%, respectively). Therefore, use of some sort of descriptive statistic (*e.g.*, mean, median, range, etc.) is used to report on the distribution of the data. Variations observed in each test concentration are shown graphically on the dose-response curves as the mean (data point) plus or minus the standard error (error bars, n = 3) of the percent responses.

RESULTS

General Test Conditions

Temperature, salinity, pH, and dissolved oxygen (DO) remained within acceptable limits during the *C. bairdi* tests (Table 1-3). Oxygen concentrations in test solutions were above 60% saturation at all times in all tests, and pH remained in the range of 6 to 9. Temperatures for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* tests were maintained close to test protocols 25°C ± 1°C and 20‰ ± 10%, respectively (Table 1-3).

Dispersant Solutions

UV-measured concentrations of dispersant solutions often were not in agreement with their respective nominal concentrations. Although they showed good linearity between measured versus nominal concentrations for dispersant loadings less than 120 ppm, only 54.1 percent of all measured values were within ± 20% of the nominal concentration, with the mean at 85.7% agreement (SD = 31.2, n = 61) ranging from 8 to 138%.

Table 1-3. Summary of water quality parameters measured for dispersant and fresh oil toxicity tests

Test Species		pH	Salinity (ppt)	Temp. (°C)	D.O. (mg/L)
C. bairdi	Mean	8.04	31.42	6.91	9.27
	Std. Dev.	0.25	0.16	0.89	0.42
	n	87	87	35	34
	Maximum	8.44	31.97	8.10	10.18
	Minimum	7.65	30.77	4.60	8.63
M. bahia	Mean	8.24	20.42	25.15	6.79
	Std. Dev.	0.31	1.11	1.16	0.65
	n	72	72	72	72
	Maximum	8.65	23.51	29.00	8.60
	Minimum	7.50	17.67	23.00	4.80
M. beryllina	Mean	8.07	20.99	25.47	6.71
	Std. Dev.	0.29	1.13	1.65	0.36
	n	126	127	129	128
	Maximum	8.70	24.24	28.50	8.30
	Minimum	7.44	19.54	22.00	5.80

Dispersant solutions made in 7°C seawater were found to be soluble up to 500 ppm, half of what was reported by Singer and others (1996a) for similar solutions made at 15°C. A phase-separation was observed in dispersant solutions of higher concentrations (approximately ≥ 800 ppm at 7°C; ≥ 1100 ppm at 25°C) that were left to sit overnight, suggesting the solubility of Corexit 9500 in saltwater is limited, though the product literature states it is completely soluble in water (Nalco/Exxon Energy Chemicals, L.P, 1997). Analytical problems associated with UV-spectrophotometry are likely a result of the limited solubility of dispersant in saltwater.

Oil Solutions

The total hydrocarbon content (THC) in the fresh oil test solutions generally increased with increasing oil loading (Figures 1-2a, 1-2b, and 1-2c). In both WAFs and CE-WAFs the concentration of the lighter, more volatile fraction of crude oil (VOA; C_6-C_9) was observed to increase with increased oil loading, with this increase being significantly greater (t-test; $P < 0.05$) for CE-WAFs than WAFs. The concentrations of total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH; C_{10}-C_{36}) in WAFs were consistently low despite increased oil loading, characteristic of their low-solubilities and Henry's law constants. In contrast, TPH concentrations in dispersed oil solutions (CE-WAF) increased with increased oil loading, and at a rate significantly higher (t-test; $P < 0.05$) than that of the VOA components.

Mean measured hydrocarbon concentrations of VOA, TPH, and combined as THC and their relative proportions in WAF and CE-WAF solutions are presented in Table 1-4.

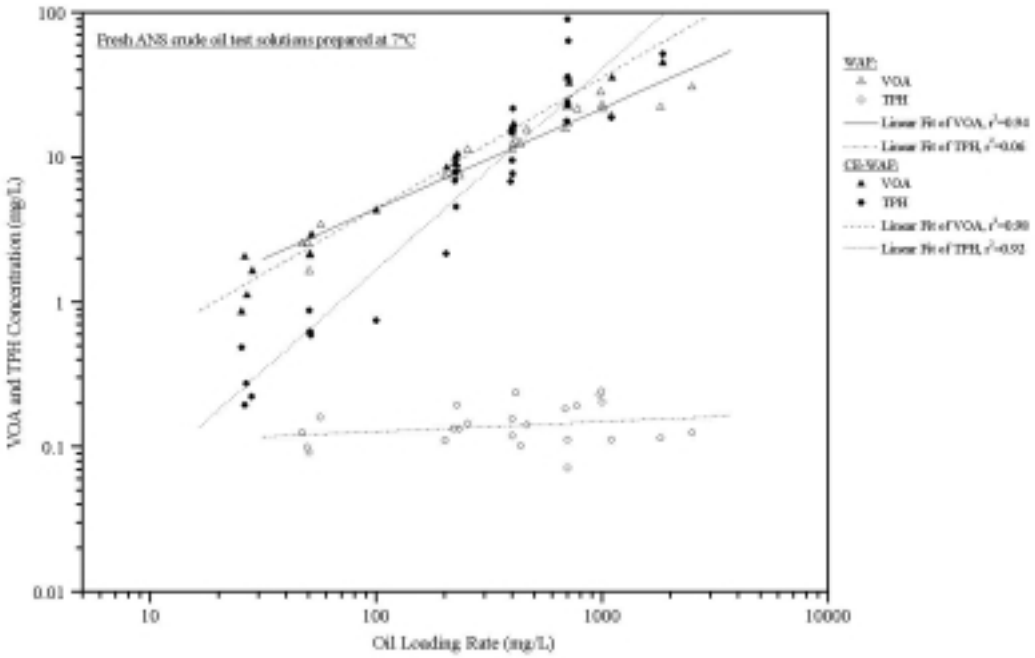

Fig 1-2a. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *C. Astrolf* in 7°C saltwater

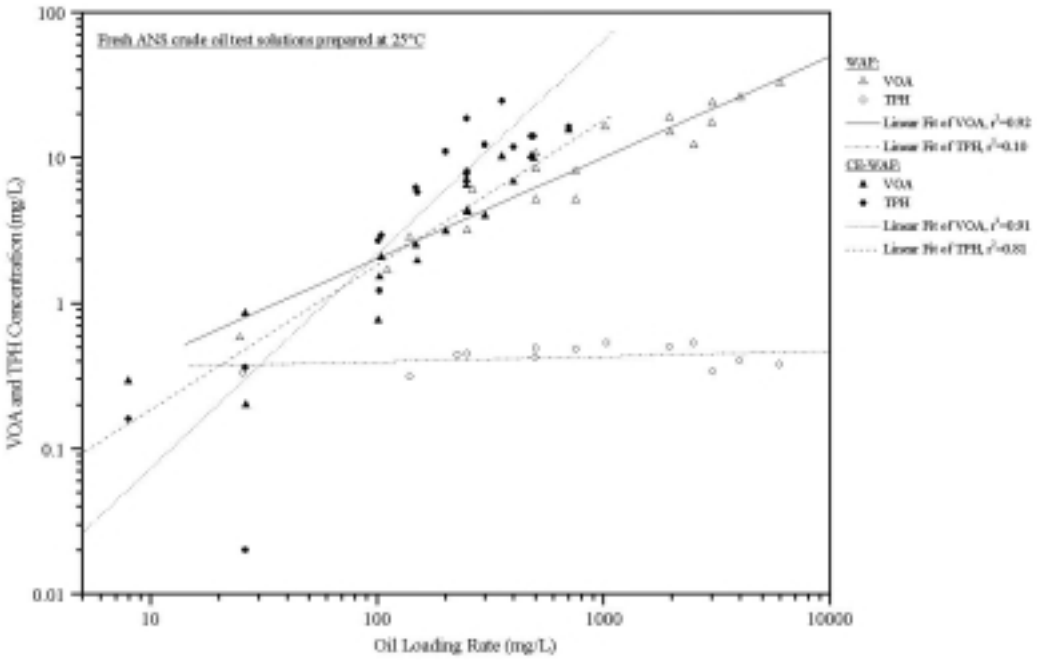

Fig 1-2b. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* in 25°C saltwater

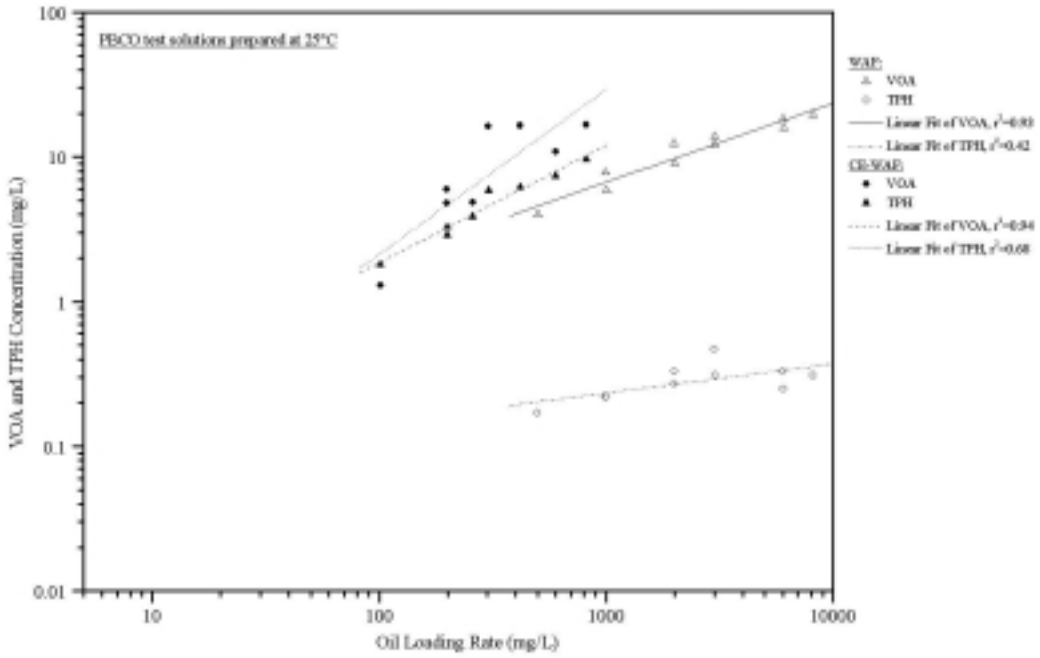

Fig 1-2c. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh PBCO WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. beryllina* in 25°C saltwater

Table 1-4. Mean concentrations of hydrocarbons measured in WAF and CE-WAF solutions

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) Hydrocarbon Conc. (mg/L)							
		WAF	SE	n	% THC	CE-WAF	SE	n	% THC
VOA	Fresh ANS	17	1.2	43	98.7	11	1.7	39	40.2
	PBCO	12	1.1	20	99.1	5.3	0.64	15	34.3
TPH	Fresh ANS	0.23	0.02	28	1.3	17	3.3	28	59.8
	PBCO	0.30	0.02	18	2.5	10	1.5	15	65.7
THC	Fresh ANS	17	1.2	43	-	28	3.8	41	-
	PBCO	12	1.1	20	-	16	1.7	19	-

n = number of samples

On average, WAF solutions of ANS contained of 17 mg/L of VOA and 0.23 mg/L TPH. WAF solutions of PBCO contained of 12 mg/L of VOA and 0.30 mg/L TPH. With the addition of dispersants, the concentrations of hydrocarbons, especially TPH, changed noticeably. CE-WAF solutions of ANS contained of 11 mg/L VOA and 17 mg/L of TPH on average. Approximately ten times more TPH were in CE-WAF solutions than were in WAF solutions. As proportions, VOA in fresh ANS and PBCO WAF solutions comprised 98.7 and 97.5 percent of the total hydrocarbon content for, respectively, with very little contributions from TPH. CE-WAF solutions contained more TPH as a proportion of THC than WAF with 59.8 and 65.7 percent of THC for ANS and PBCO, respectively.

TPH concentrations were typically greater in CE-WAF solutions than in WAF solutions at any given oil loading rate. However, the results of some CE-WAF TPH concentrations may have been influenced by oil droplets in sample solutions that would have been included in the solvent extract (*e.g.*, see Figures 1-2a, b, c). This would cause the TPH measurement to be biased high.

Concentrations of VOA and TPH components measured in solutions made from PBCO were less than those made from fresh ANS crude oil for any given oil loading rate (Figures 1-2b and 1-2c, and Table 1-4). Temperature had a significant effect (t-test; $P < 0.05$) on the concentrations of VOA and TPH in both WAF and CE-WAF solutions made with ANS, causing VOA concentrations to be significantly greater at 7°C than at 25°C. The reverse was observed for TPH concentrations, which were significantly greater at 25°C than at 7°C (Figures 1-2a and 1-2b). Concentrations of VOA in both WAF and CE-

WAF solutions were linearly related to the oil loading rate ($r^2 \geq 0.91$). This relationship was not seen for TPH in WAF solutions ($r^2 < 0.42$), though TPH in CE-WAF solutions showed fair linearity with oil loading ($0.68 < r^2 < 0.92$). Analysis of concentration decline in spiked exposure tests indicated that solution concentrations generally followed a trend of first order exponential decay, stabilizing between the sixth and ninth hour of the 96-hour test (Figures 1-3a, 1-3b, and 1-3c). Similar observations were made by Singer and others (1996a), where stabilization in spiked exposure tests occurred between the sixth and eighth hour. In samples from WAF and CE-WAF tests analyzed for VOA content, concentrations measured for the twelfth hour were no greater than 1.7 mg/L, with concentrations typically less than 1.0 mg/L.

Chionocetes bairdi Tests

In both spiked and continuous exposure tests, dose-response relationships were typically sigmoidal for all test solution types (dispersant only, WAF, and CE-WAF). Data for dispersant only solutions were standardized to the nominal concentrations, and to the measured total hydrocarbon content (THC) for oiled solutions (Figures 1-4a and 1-4b). The loading rates used to prepare dispersant and fresh oil test solutions and their respective measured concentrations are summarized in Table 1-5. In general, solutions for spiked exposure tests were prepared using 2.5 to 20 times more test material than those for continuous exposure tests. Similarly, WAFs required 1.4 to 2.0 times more test material (fresh ANS crude oil) than CE-WAFs.

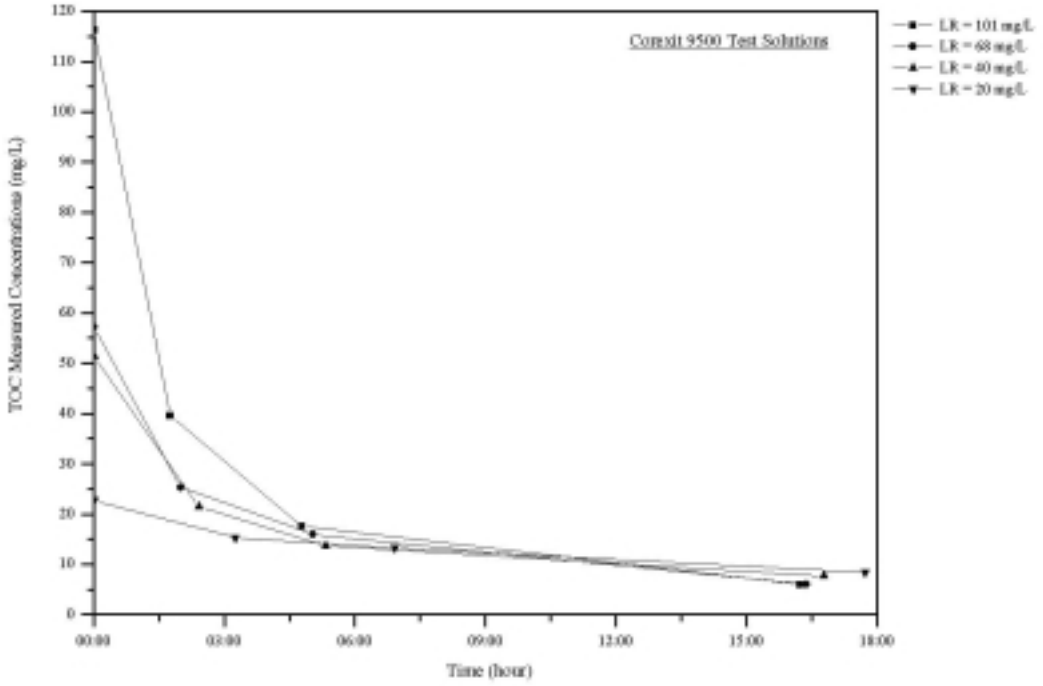

Fig. 1-3a. Concentration decline in spiked exposure tests of Corexit 9500 test solutions of different loading rates (LR)

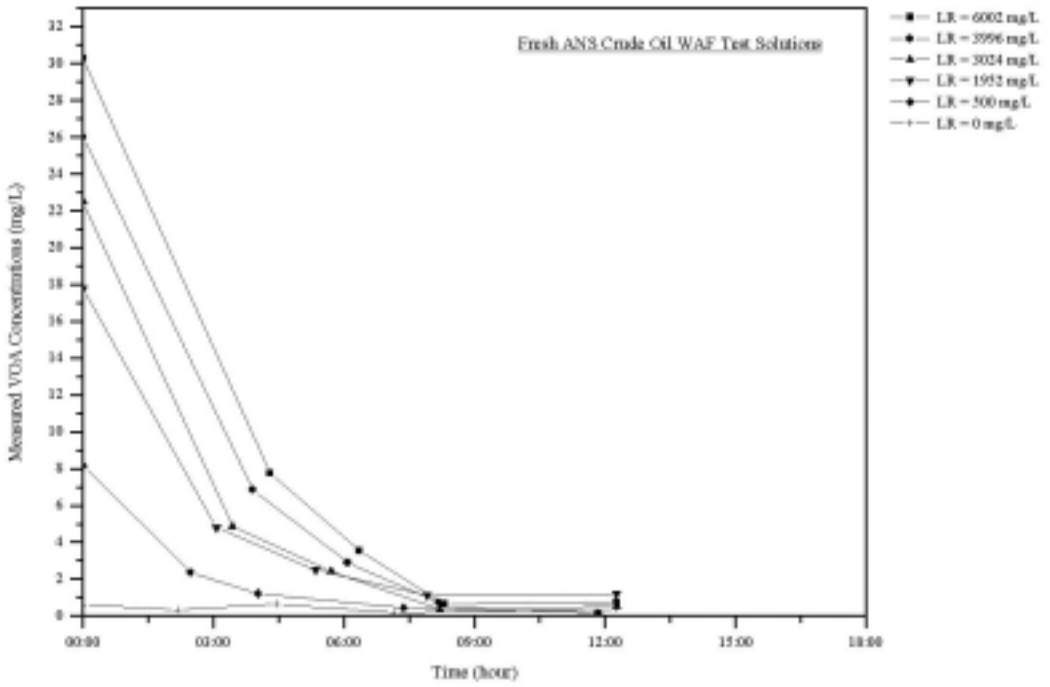

Fig. 1-3b. Concentration decline in spiked exposure tests of fresh ANS WAF test solutions of different loading rates (LR)

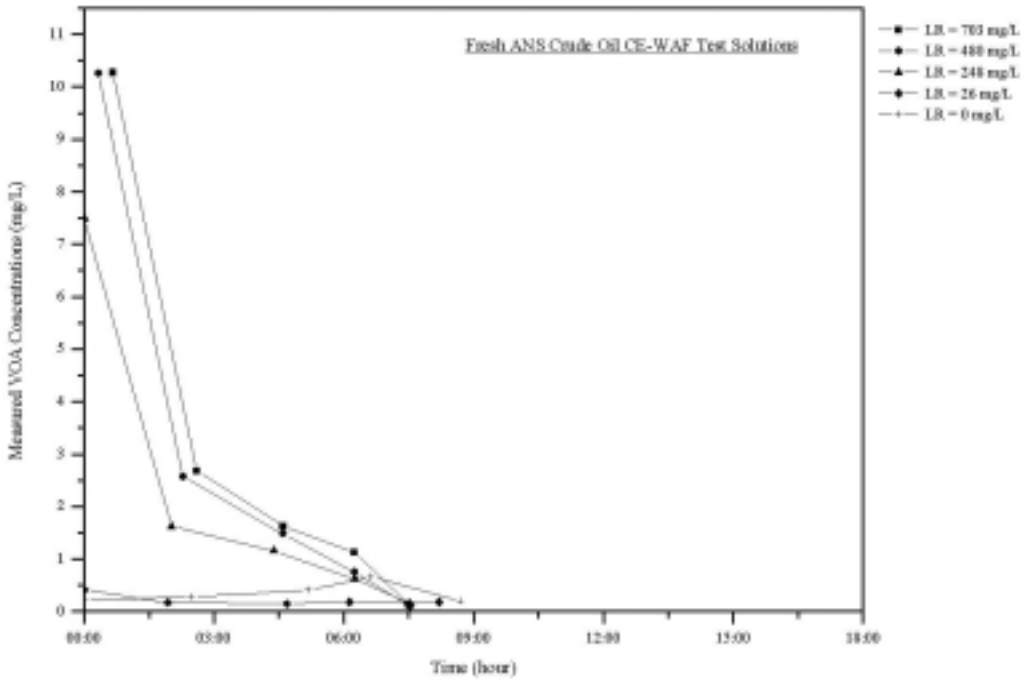

Fig. 1-3c. Concentration decline in spiked exposure tests of fresh ANS CE-WAF test solutions of different loading rates (LR)

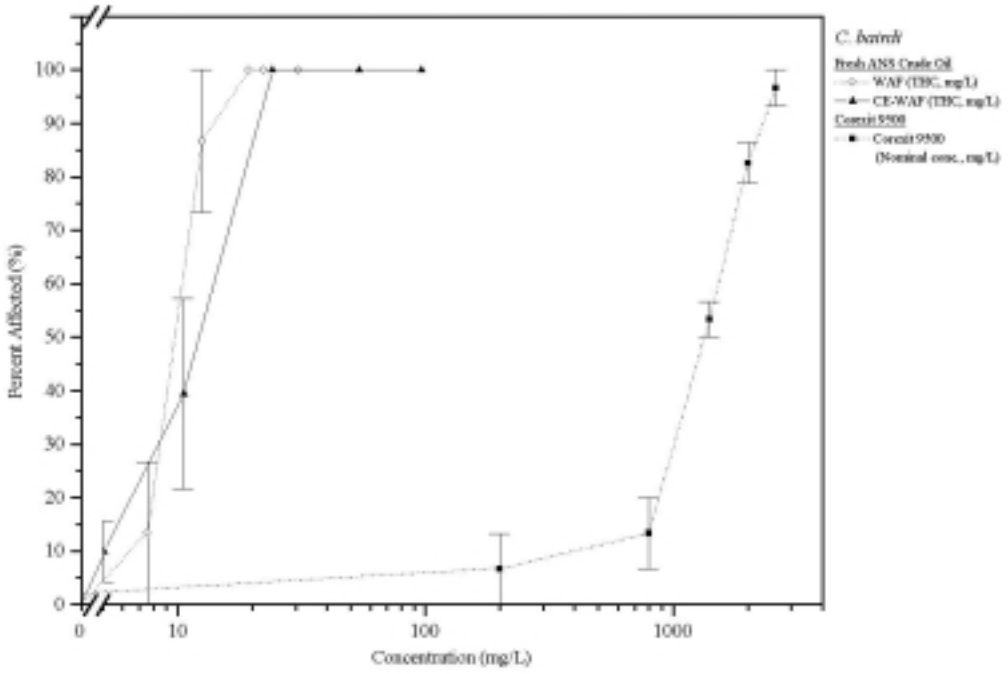

Fig. 1-4a. Dose-response relationships for *C. bairdi* to dispersant and fresh ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3).

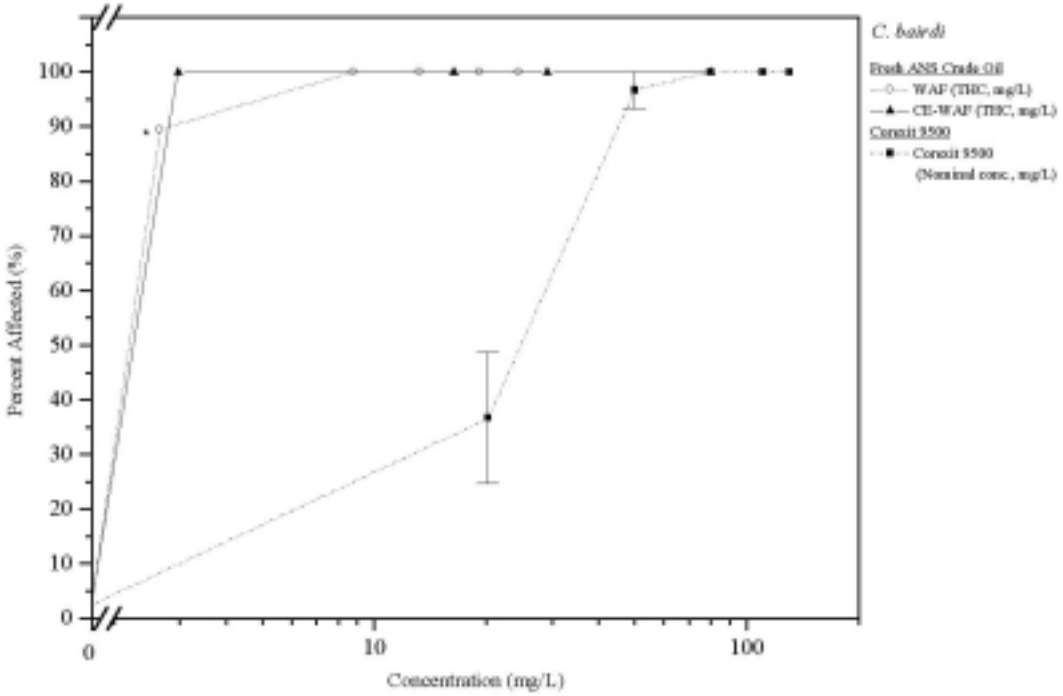

Fig. 1-4b. Dose-response relationships for *C. bairdi* to dispersant and fresh ANS continuous exposure tests.
Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

Table 1-5. Summary of the ranges of dispersant and fresh oil loading rates (mg/L) and respective measured THC (C6-C36) concentrations (mg/L) for oil solutions used in spiked and continuous exposure tests

Test Solution	Exposure Regime	Range	*C. bairdi* Loading Rate	*C. bairdi* Measured THC	*M. bahia* Loading Rate	*M. bahia* Measured THC	*M. beryllina* Loading Rate	*M. beryllina* Measured THC
Corexit 9500	Spiked	Low	200	-	300	-	20	-
		High	2600	-	1900	-	120	-
	Continuous	Low	20	-	15	-	20	-
		High	130	-	80	-	120	-
ANS WAF	Spiked	Low	200	7.56	140	3.14	500	11.2
		High	2500	30.6	2500	12.7	6000	33.1
	Continuous	Low	50	2.47	25	0.91	260	6.44
		High	1000	24.3	750	5.61	4000	26.4
ANS CE-WAF	Spiked	Low	100	5.02	26	0.22	148	8.72
		High	1850	96.2	700	31.6	400	18.6
	Continuous	Low	30	1.70	8	0.45	100	3.45
		High	700	80.2	490	23.9	300	16.3
PBCO WAF	Spiked	Low	-	-	-	-	990	8.03
		High	-	-	-	-	8150	19.9
	Continuous	Low	-	-	-	-	500	4.17
		High	-	-	-	-	6050	16.1
PBCO CE-WAF	Spiked	Low	-	-	-	-	200	7.68
		High	-	-	-	-	820	26.3
	Continuous	Low	-	-	-	-	100	3.10
		High	-	-	-	-	420	22.6

Median-effect concentrations are presented in Table 1-6. EC_{50} estimates for *C. bairdi* Corexit 9500 tests under spiked and continuous exposures are 1266.84 and 23.76 mg/L, respectively. Having non-overlapping fiducial limits (*i.e.*, confidence intervals) suggests that values are significantly different, meaning that spiked and continuous exposure concentrations are significantly different. For water-accommodated fractions of fresh ANS crude oil, EC_{50} estimates were 9.73 and 2.54 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. The continuous exposure WAF test yielded results that did not meet the assumptions necessary to calculate the estimated EC_{50} using probit or TSK analyses; therefore, the value was determined using the graphical method, where fiducial limits are not available (Webber, 1993). For chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions of fresh ANS crude oil, the estimated EC_{50} for spiked exposure was 10.72 mg/L and for continuous exposure was 1.30 mg/L. No partial effect (*i.e.*, values for percent affected between, but not equal to 0 and 100%) was observed in the continuous exposure CE-WAF test, making use of the graphical method necessary to estimate the median-effect concentration. Confidence limits cannot be calculated when the graphical method is used.

Toxicity values were also calculated using the loading rates required to produce effective solutions (*i.e.*, those that produce a response by the organisms). When presented in this manner, these values are referred to as EL_{50} (effective loading to 50 percent of the population). These values are presented in Table 1-7 alongside the EC_{50} values. Estimates for EL_{50} values for *C. bairdi* exposed to WAF solutions are 285 mg/L and 12.48 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. For CE-WAF

Table 1-6. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentration (mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for Corexit 9500, WAF, and CE-WAF fresh ANS and PBCO tests

Test Solution	*C. bairdi EC50 Values*		*M. bahia LC50 Values*		*M. beryllina LC50 Values*		*M. beryllina LC50 Values*	
	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure
Corexit 9500*	1266.84‡	23.76†	330.72‡ ‡	29.06‡	115.18‡	54.67†		
	(1030.88, 1556.82) a = 8.33%	(19.26, 28.40)		(24.85, 33.99) a = 3.57%	(105.75, 125.46) a = 40%	(46.70, 62.94)		
	ANS						PBCO	
WAF**	9.73†	2.54‡ ‡	8.21†	2.61†	26.36‡	15.59‡	>19.86***	14.81†
	(8.83, 10.68)		(7.05, 9.27)	(1.40, 3.24)	(25.54, 27.22) a = 0%	(13.98, 17.38) a = 0%		(9.79, 68.75)
CE-WAF**	10.72†	1.3‡ ‡	5.08‡	1.40‡	12.22‡	12.42‡	12.29‡	4.57‡
	(9.08, 12.72)		(3.13, 8.26) a = 0%	(1.04, 1.88) a = 0%	(7.79, 19.17) a=40%	(11.40, 13.54) a=0%	(10.90, 13.86) a = 6.67%	(4.16, 5.02) a = 20%

Notes:

* Corexit 9500 values based on loading rate in mg/L

** WAF and CE-WAF values based on total hydrocarbon content (THC) in mg/L

*** Highest concentration tested had a 8,152 mg/L loading rate

Statistical Methods Used:

† Probit analysis

‡ Trimmed Spearman-Karber analysis, a = % trim

‡ ‡ Graphical method, 95% confidence limits not available (Webber, 1993)

Table 1-7. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentration estimates (mg/L) based on measured concentrations and oil loading rates (95% confidence limits)

		ANS				PBCO			
		WAF		CE-WAF		WAF		CE-WAF	
Species	Exposure type	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50
C. bairdi†	Spiked	9.73 (8.83, 10.68)	285 (249, 325)	10.72 (9.08, 12.72)	203 (174, 236)	*	*	*	*
	Continuous	2.54 (N/A)	12.48 (N/A)	1.30 (N/A)	5.16 (N/A)	*	*	*	*
M. bahia	Spiked	8.21 (7.05, 9.27)	654 (488, 875)	5.08 (3.13, 8.26)	127 (101, 161)	*	*	*	*
	Continuous	2.61 (1.40, 3.24)	160 (63, 217)	1.40 (1.04, 1.88)	30 (22, 41)	*	*	*	*
M. beryllina	Spiked	26.36 (25.54, 27.22)	3520 (3326, 3725)	12.22 (7.79, 19.17)	272 (171, 425)	>19.86 (N/A)	>8152 (N/A)	12.29 (10.90, 13.86)	272 (230, 312)
	Continuous	15.59 (13.98, 17.38)	1641 (1317, 2044)	12.42 (11.40, 13.54)	227 (212, 244)	14.81 (9.79, 68.75)	4965 (2293, 117423)	4.57 (4.16, 5.02)	130 (115, 149)
Vibrio fischeri†	N/A	4.2 +/- 0.25	310 +/- 41	2.0 +/- 0.17	29 +/-2.6	3.7 +/- 0.29	960 +/-160	1.9 +/- 0.09	46 +/- 4.0

† Measured Conc. as EC50, Loading Rate as EL50, both in mg/L

* Not tested

N/A = not available; confidence limits could not be calculated

solutions, these values are slightly smaller at 203 mg/L and 5.16 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. Because dispersant-only solutions are calculated using nominal concentrations, those presented in Table 1-6 could also be considered as EL_{50} values. Thus, toxicity values for dispersant-only solutions are not presented in Table 1-7.

Temporal responses (*i.e.*, EL_{50} values for hours 24, 48, and 72) to test solution exposure are not available for *C. bairdi*, since evaluation of their health status required careful (microscopic) observations that could not be made during a test. These data are available for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* and are presented in the next section.

Mysidopsis bahia Tests

Dose-response relationships for *M. bahia* tended to be sigmoidal with most tests showing an increase in mortality with increasing concentration, with one exception in the spiked exposure test of Corexit 9500 solutions (Figures 1-5a and 1-5b). The loading rates used to produce a lethal effect in at least 50 percent of the animals in the spiked exposure dispersant-only tests were about 20 times greater than those used for continuous exposure tests (Table 1-5). The difference between loading rates used for oiled solutions ranged from 1.5 to 5.5 times greater for spiked exposures than for continuous exposures. WAFs were prepared using loading rates 1.5 to 5.0 times greater than those for CE-WAFs.

Estimated median-lethal concentrations listed in Table 1-6 also include the respective 95% confidence limits where available, which for *M. bahia* tests are fairly narrow. Estimated LC_{50} values for Corexit 9500 tests under spiked and continuous

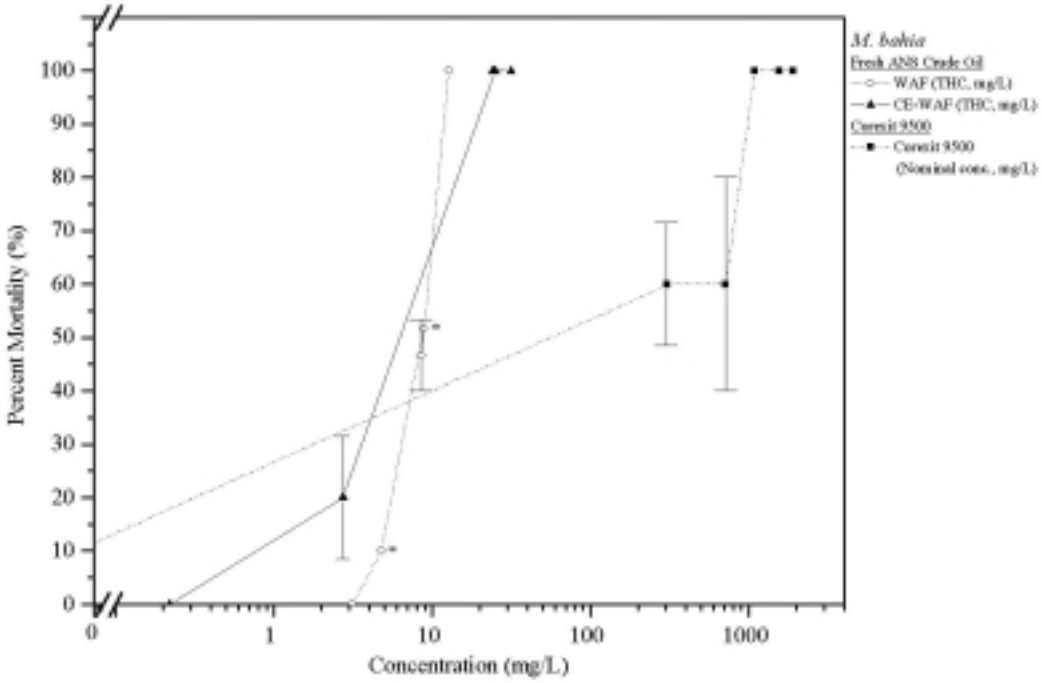

Fig. 1-5a. Dose-response relationships for *M. bahia* to dispersant and fresh ANS spiked exposure tests.
Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

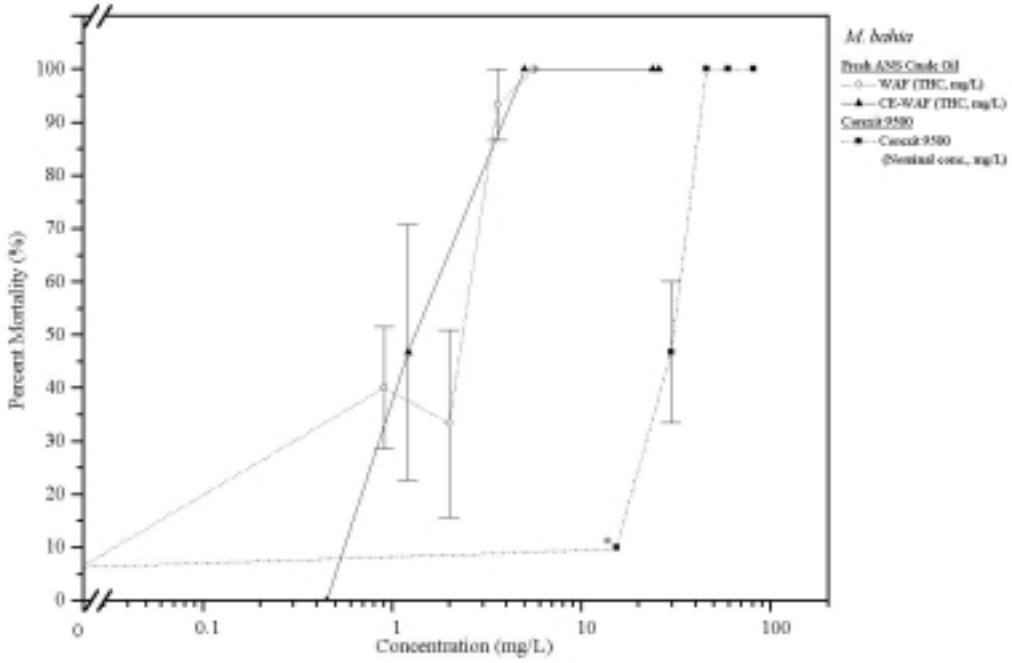

Fig. 1-5b. Dose-response relationships for *M. bahia* to dispersant and fresh ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

exposures were 330.72 and 29.06 mg/L, respectively. Two partial mortalities were observed in the Corexit 9500 spiked exposure test; however, both were of equal value. This caused estimates of an LC_{50} by the statistical methods of probit and TSK to be unreliable. As a result, the LC_{50} reported was estimated using graphical analysis of mortality data up to and including the first 100 percent mortality. WAF tests resulted in estimates of 8.21 and 2.61 mg/L for LC_{50} values under spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. Estimates for CE-WAFs were slightly less than those for WAFs at 5.08 and 1.40 mg/L for the respective spiked and continuous exposures. Non-overlapping confidence limits between spiked and continuous exposure tests suggest a significant difference between acute toxic response of *M. bahia* under the two exposure regimes. However, comparison between WAFs and CE-WAFs via LC_{50} values from either spiked or continuous exposure tests reveal a slight overlap, indicating no significant difference between the toxicity of these solution types for *M. bahia*.

Qualitative estimates of temporal median-lethal concentrations at hours 24, 48, 72, and 96 of the 96-hour tests based upon the dispersant and oil loading rates (nominal concentrations) are presented in Tables 1-8 and 1-9. The values for days one through three are "qualitative," because these data are based on observations made by peering into the flow-through chambers where a clear viewing of the animals is somewhat obscured. All tests indicate that *M. bahia* experience an increase in mortality over time to test solution exposure, except in the CE-WAF spiked exposure test. For the CE-WAF spiked exposure test, the response of *M. bahia* occurred during the first 24 hours of the test, and remained stable throughout. However for the WAF spiked exposure test, *M. bahia*

Table 1-8. Daily median-lethal loading (LL50,mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for Corexit 9500, WAF, and CE-WAF fresh oil spiked exposure tests

Test Solution	*M. bahia* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96	*M. beryllina* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96	*M. beryllina* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96
Corexit 9500	545 (263, 1130)	544 (265, 1117)	331*	331*	115 (106, 125)	115 (106, 125)	115 (106, 125)	115 (106, 125)				
	Fresh ANS Crude Oil				Fresh ANS Crude Oil				Fresh PBCO			
WAF	717 (549, 937)	654 (488, 875)	654 (488, 875)	654 (488, 875)	3520 (3326, 3725)	3520 (3326, 3725)	3520 (3326, 3725)	3520 (3326, 3725)	>8152	>8152	>8152	>8152
CE-WAF	127 (101, 161)	127 (101, 161)	127 (101, 161)	127 (101, 161)	272 (171, 425)	272 (171, 425)	272 (171, 425)	272 (171, 425)	272 (230, 312)	272 (230, 312)	272 (230, 312)	272 (230, 312)

* Graphical method, 95% confidence limits not available (Webber, 1993)

Table 1-9. Daily median-lethal loading (LL50,mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for Corexit 9500, WAF, and CE-WAF fresh oil continuous exposure tests

Test Solution	*M. bahia* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96	*M. beryllina* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96	*M. beryllina* Observation time (hr) 24	48	72	96
Corexit 9500	39 (33, 45)	31 (27, 37)	29 (25, 34)	29 (25, 34)	63 (54, 71)	59 (49, 68)	56 (47, 65)	55 (47, 63)				
	Fresh ANS Crude Oil				Fresh ANS Crude Oil				Fresh PBCO			
WAF	209 (77, 320)	209 (77, 320)	179 (93, 248)	160 (63, 217)	3180 (2204, 4587)	1970 (1620, 2395)	1935 (1593, 2349)	1641 (1317, 2044)	>6054	>6054	>6054	4965 (2293, 117423)
CE-WAF	110 (80, 150)	35 (26, 47)	35 (26, 47)	30 (22, 41)	255 (243, 268)	249 (236, 262)	227 (212, 244)	227 (212, 244)	177 (157, 199)	177 (157, 199)	146 (138, 156)	130 (115, 149)

response stabilized at the observation time of 48 hours. For all continuous exposure tests, mortality steadily increased over the course of the 96-hour assay. Similar to spiked exposure tests, CE-WAF tests experienced the greatest change in toxicity approximately 24 hours earlier than WAF tests (between 24-48 hours vs. 48-72 hours). These 96-hour values (based upon loading rates) are also presented alongside those calculated using measured THC concentrations (mg/L) in Table 1-7.

Menidia beryllina Tests

The same concentrations of Corexit 9500 were tested in both the spiked and continuous exposure tests (Table 1-5). Oil loading rates for spiked exposures of both fresh ANS and PBCO ranged from 1.3 to 2.0 times greater than those used in continuous exposure tests. For fresh ANS, WAFs were prepared using 2.6 to 5.0 times more crude oil than in CE-WAFs, and for PBCO, WAFs used 4.5 to 10.0 times more oil than CE-WAFs. Oil loading rates were 1.4 to 2.0 times more PBCO than ANS for WAFs, and 1.0- to 2.0-fold more PBCO than ANS for CE-WAFs.

Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* tests using fresh ANS crude oil and some with PBCO were often not monotonically increasing with increasing concentration (Figures 1-6a, 1-6b, 1-7a, and 1-7b). Results from chemical analyses (VOA and TPH) of solutions occasionally indicated that measured concentrations of total hydrocarbons in solution were lower than those measured in solutions prepared with less initial crude oil. This is likely due to the presence of oil droplets in samples of lower concentrations, causing those measurements to be higher. This, in addition to the variability of the

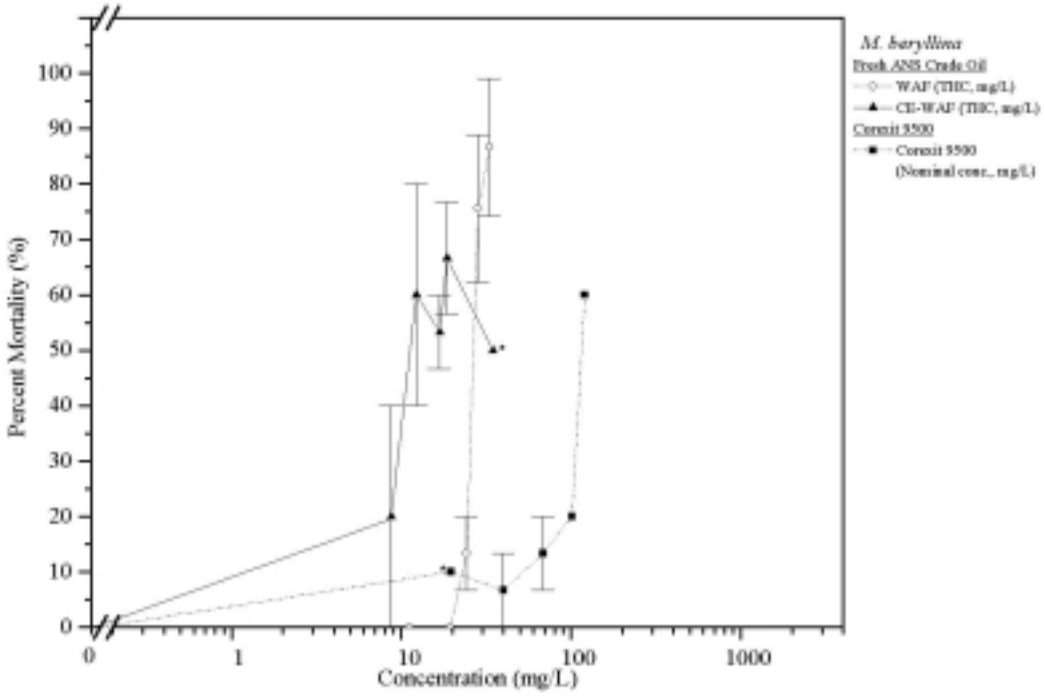

Fig. 1-6a. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to dispersant and fresh ANS spiked exposure tests. Symbols are mean + SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

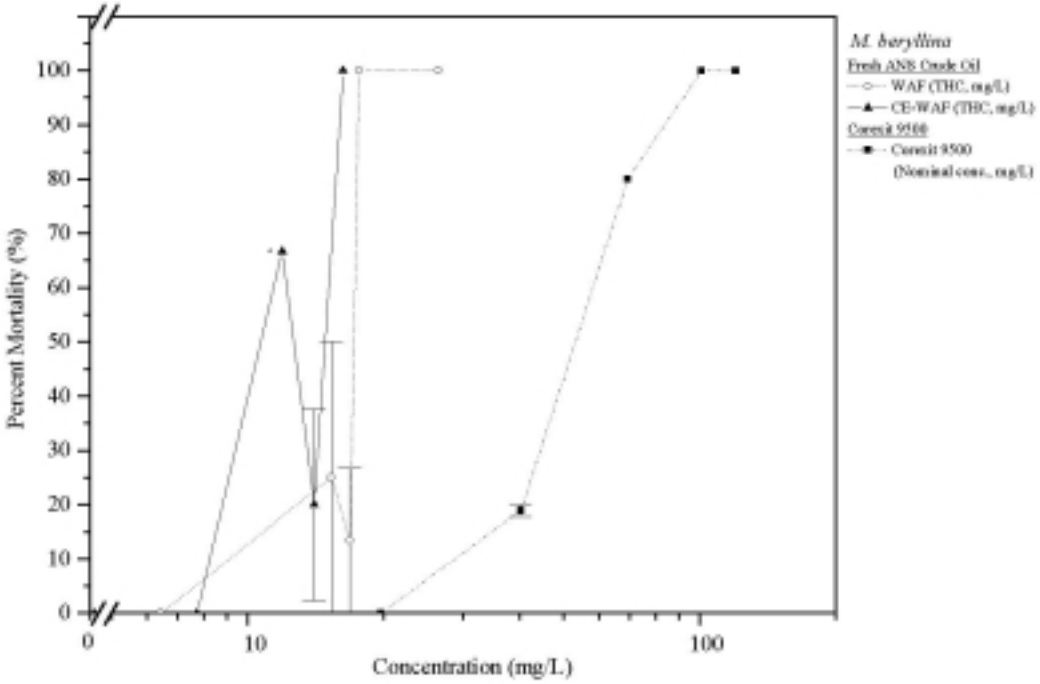

Fig. 1-6b. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to dispersant and fresh ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

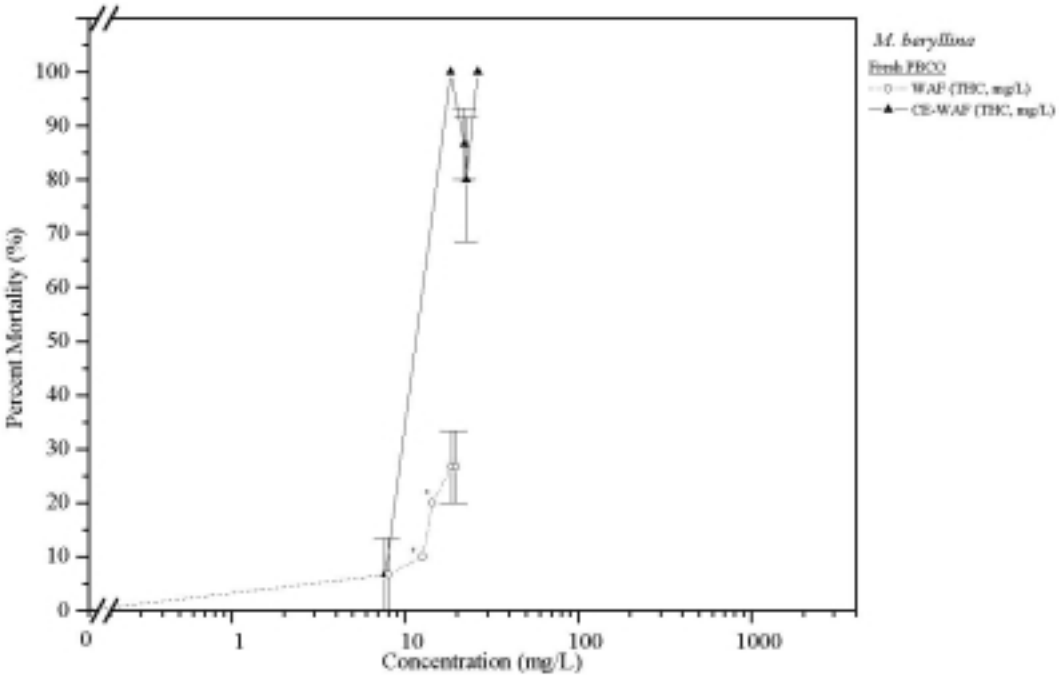

Fig. 1-7a. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to dispersant and fresh ANS spiked exposure tests.
Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

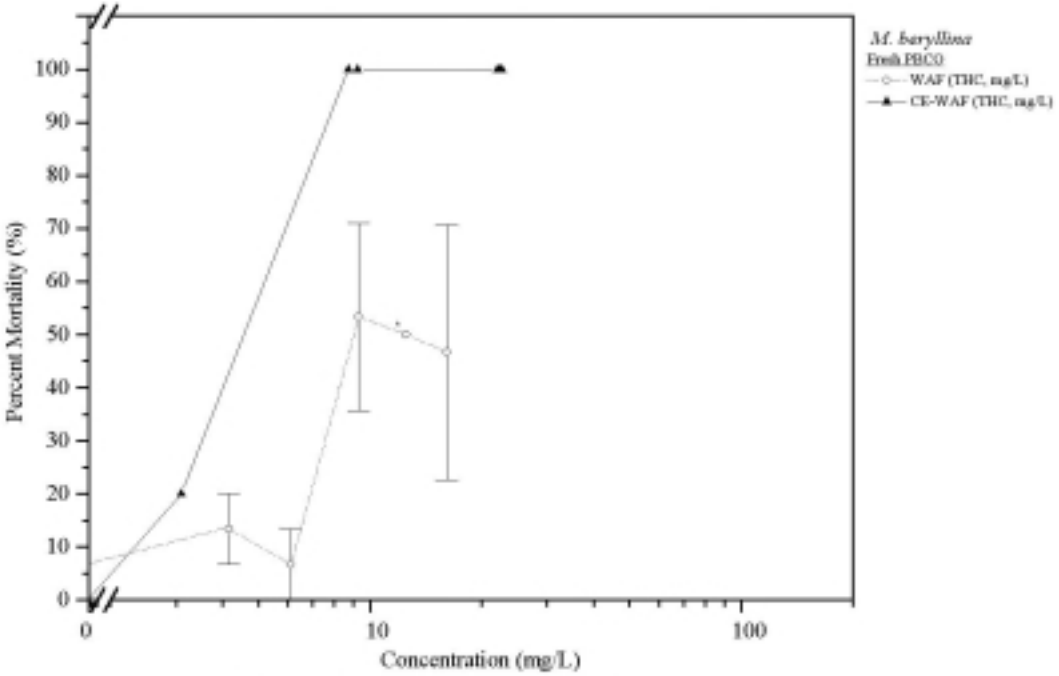

Fig. 1-7b. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to dispersant and fresh ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

response of *M. beryllina* to the test solutions, contributes to the shape of these curves and non-monotonicity (Figures 1-6a and 1-6b). Dose-response relationships for Corexit 9500 tests under both spiked and continuous exposures and CE-WAFs of PBCO under continuous exposure were typically sigmoidal.

Despite the variations from a typical sigmoidal curve, assumptions necessary to estimate median-lethal concentrations using probit or TSK analyses were satisfied. Estimated LC_{50} values for both fresh ANS and PBCO are listed in Table 1-5. For Corexit 9500 tests, the estimated LC_{50} for *M. beryllina* was 115.18 mg/L for spiked exposure, and 54.67 mg/L for continuous exposure. Estimated LC_{50} values for WAFs of fresh ANS were 26.36 and 15.59 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. For CE-WAF spiked exposure the estimated LC_{50} was 12.22 mg/L, and 12.42 mg/L for continuous exposure. An estimated LC_{50} was not calculable for the WAF PBCO test since the highest percent mortality observed in the test was 27% at an oil loading rate of 8151 mg/L. As a result, this LC_{50} is reported as an inequality. WAFs of PBCO resulted in estimated median-lethal concentrations of >19.86 mg/L and 14.81 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. The estimated LC_{50} values for CE-WAFs of PBCO were 12.29 and 4.57 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. Non-overlapping fiducial limits for median-lethal concentrations of dispersant-only and fresh ANS WAF spiked and continuous exposure tests suggest that the LC_{50} values for these two types of regimes are significantly different. The converse is true for spiked and continuous exposures of CE-WAF solutions made with fresh ANS crude oil – there is no significant difference between LC_{50} values of the two exposures. Comparison of 95%

confidence limits between the solution types of dispersant-only, and WAFs and CE-WAFs of fresh ANS under either spiked or continuous exposure reveal non-overlapping limits, suggesting the LC_{50} values from these tests are significantly different from one another. Unfortunately, comparisons to PBCO WAFs for significance of LC_{50} values are not possible since the LC_{50} is reported as a greater-than value. However, LC_{50} values for PBCO CE-WAF solutions were significantly different under spiked and continuous exposures. CE-WAF solutions of PBCO were more toxic than those of WAF, although this comparison for WAFs under spiked exposure is somewhat extrapolated since this is a greater-than value. Comparisons between solutions made from the different oil types (ANS and PBCO) suggest no significant difference in the toxicity, with one exception. That exception is with PBCO CE-WAF solutions under continuous exposure where a smaller LC_{50} value suggests this solution was more toxic than the ANS CE-WAF (also under continuous exposure).

Temporal responses by *M. beryllina* under spiked exposure tests to all solution types (dispersant, fresh ANS, and PBCO) stabilized within the first 24 hours of the 96-hour test (Table 1-8). The estimated LL_{50} values for CE-WAF solutions made with fresh ANS and PBCO were identical, differing only in associated fiducial limits. Under continuous exposure to all solutions, *M. beryllina* exhibited a steady increase in mortality over the course of the 96-hour test (Table 1-9). Exceptions include responses to CE-WAFs of fresh ANS where estimated LL_{50} values stabilized at the observation time of 72 hours, and the WAFs of PBCO where data did not satisfy the assumptions necessary to calculate

an estimated median-lethal concentration, resulting in this value to be reported as an inequality.

Microtox® Assay

Mean 5-minute EC_{50} values obtained by the Microtox® system were calculated by pooling all data available (samples collected from *C. bairdi*, *M. bahia,* and *M. beryllina* tests) for a particular test solution from both spiked and continuous exposure tests (Table 1-10). The data from all individual tests used to calculate the mean EC_{50} values are found in Appendix J. Mean EC_{50} values (Table 1-10) were calculated based on all possible representations of the test material's concentration in solution: 1) measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA); 2) total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH); 3) total hydrocarbon content (THC; defined as VOA + TPH); and 4) loading rates (nominal concentrations). No matter what fraction was used to calculate the toxicity data, for any given oil type, EC_{50} values for WAF and CE-WAF were always significantly different (t-test; $P < 0.05$). When the data were standardized to VOA or to loading rates, CE-WAF solutions were more toxic than WAF solutions. When standardized to TPH, the opposite trend was seen. When standardized to THC, CE-WAF solutions were more toxic than WAF for fresh oil. Dispersant-only solutions were relatively low in toxicity (mean $EC_{50} = 220 \pm 26$ mg/L). Toxicity appeared to be strongly related to the solubilities of the hydrocarbon fractions measured.

Table 1-10. Mean 5-minute EC50 values obtained by the Microtox Toxicity Assay. Values were calculated based on measured hydrocarbon fractions and on total oil added (loading rates)

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) EC50 (mg/L)*					
		WAF	SE	n	CE-WAF	SE	n
VOA	Fresh ANS	4.2	0.25	43	0.86	0.09	39
	PBCO	3.6	0.29	20	0.69	0.04	15
TPH	Fresh ANS	0.06	0.01	28	1.0	0.13	28
	PBCO	0.10	0.01	18	1.2	0.10	15
THC	Fresh ANS	4.2	0.25	43	2.0	0.17	41
	PBCO	3.7	0.29	20	1.9	0.09	19
Loading Rates	Fresh ANS	310	41	34	29	2.6	33
	PBCO	960	160	13	46	4.0	13

Dispersant only: EC50 (mg/L) = 220 +/- 26

n = number of tests

* For each oil type and a given hydrocarbon fraction used to standardize the data, the EC50 value for WAF was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from that for CE-WAF

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Test Solutions

Overall, for comparisons made using toxicity values calculated based on both measured concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) and loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values), for all species and exposure regimes, dispersant-only solutions were the least toxic followed by WAF and CE-WAF solutions of fresh oil (n = 12 out of N = 20; only 1 of the 12 was not significantly different, and 2 of the 12 were without fiducial limits for significance testing). WAF solutions were more often less toxic than CE-WAF solutions (n = 17 out of N = 20; where 3 of the 17 were not significantly different, and 2 of 17 were without fiducial limits for significance testing).

For test solution comparisons made using toxicity values based on measured concentrations only (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values; denoted as LC_{50}/EC_{50}), dispersant-only solutions were least toxic in all cases (n = 10 out of N = 10; where only 1 was not significant, and 2 did not have fiducial limits for significance testing). WAF solutions were less toxic than CE-WAF solutions in most cases (n = 9 out of N = 10; where 3 of the 9 were not significantly different, and 2 of the 9 were without fiducial limits for significance testing). These trends are consistent with those above for the combined data sets of LC_{50} and EC_{50} values and LL_{50} and EL_{50} values.

Comparisons made using toxicity values based upon the loading rates only (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values; denoted as LL_{50}/EL_{50}), yielded three different scenarios: 1) dispersant was least toxic and CE-WAF most toxic (n = 2 out of N = 10 for *C. bairdi*); 2) WAF was least toxic and CE-WAF most toxic (n = 4 out of N = 10 for *M. bahia* and *V. fischeri* for ANS and PBCO); and 3) WAF was least toxic and dispersant most toxic (n = 4 out of N = 10

for *M. beryllina*). The most consistent trend is that WAF concentrations were least toxic for all species (n = 8 out of N = 10; where only 1 of the 8 was not significantly different), except for *C. bairdi* where dispersant-only solutions were least toxic.

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Species Sensitivities

C. bairdi were least sensitive to the dispersant solutions and most sensitive to the CE-WAF concentrations when compared using both EC_{50} and EL_{50} values (n = 3 out of N = 4; where 1 of the 3 did not have fiducial limits to test significance between the WAF and CE-WAF values). In only one case were *C. bairdi* more sensitive to a WAF solution than a CE-WAF solution, although this relationship was not significant. *M. bahia* and *V. fischeri* shared the same pattern of sensitivity. When compared using toxicity values by measured concentrations only (LC_{50}/EC_{50}), these species were again least sensitive to dispersant-only solutions and most to CE-WAF solutions (n = 4 out of N = 4; where 2 WAF and CE-WAF values were not significantly different, and 1 dispersant test did not have fiducial limits to test significance). *M. bahia* and *V. fischeri,* when compared using toxicity values by loading rates only (LL_{50}/ EL_{50}), were least sensitive to WAF solutions and most sensitive to CE-WAF solutions (n = 4 out of N = 4; where only 1 did not have fiducial limits for significance testing). According to LC_{50} values, *M. beryllina* was most sensitive to CE-WAF solutions and least to dispersant-only solutions (n = 4 out of N = 4; where only 1 did not have fiducial limits for significance testing). According to LL_{50} values, however, *M. beryllina* was most sensitive to dispersant-only solutions (although

just over twice that of CE-WAF concentrations) and least sensitive to WAF solutions (n = 4 out of N = 4; all were significant).

When comparing sensitivities between species using toxicity values calculated from both measured concentrations (LC_{50}/ EC_{50}) and loading rates (LL_{50}/ EL_{50}), *M. beryllina* was most resistant overall (n = 8 out of N = 10; where 1 of the 8 was not significant), and most resistant to oil solutions (n = 8 out of N = 8; where 1 of the 8 was not significant). In most tests for all solution types and exposure regimes, *C. bairdi* was the most sensitive of all species (n = 6 out of N = 10; where 1 of the 6 was not significant, and 4 of the 6 did not have fiducial limits for significance testing). *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia* often were more sensitive than both *M. beryllina* and *V. fischeri* (n = 4 out of N = 10; all were significant). Relative to the other species evaluated, *V. fischeri* showed no clear trend to suggest that it was either more or less sensitive to the test solutions evaluated. However, results from the Microtox® Assay were consistent in predicting when and to a similar degree how much of a biological impact could be expected from these solutions. This suggests that *V. fischeri* in the Microtox® Assay may be a useful, rapid screening tool to obtain information about a material's toxicity.

DISCUSSION

Data Evaluation

The toxicity tests were designed to provide information about the relative acute toxicity of the test solutions and the sensitivities of the species evaluated. There are some aspects of the methods that differ between tests and should be considered to properly

interpret the data. *Chionocetes bairdi* tests were evaluated using a behavioral endpoint of "affected," defined as diminished phototactic response, reduced ability to swim, and reduced response to touching. Tests of *Mysidopsis bahia* and *Menidia beryllina* were evaluated using death as an endpoint. A sub-lethal response (effect of reduced luminescence) of the bacterium, *Vibro fischeri*, was used in Microtox® Assays. Thus, comparisons between EC_{50} and LC_{50} values encompass responses by organisms that experience sub-lethal and lethal effects of exposure to the test solutions. For example, identical values for EC_{50} and LC_{50} for two different organisms tested with the same potential toxicant indicate that the organism reporting an LC_{50} is more sensitive, having exhibited a lethal rather than a sub-lethal response.

EC_{50} values were considered to be more appropriate than LC_{50} values for *C. bairdi* since death as an endpoint was not typically observed. Internal organ movement was observable even when the animals were obviously adversely affected and unlikely to survive. Consequently, four health categories (alive, affected, mortally affected, and dead) were developed to reflect the observations made during the tests. The most important effect observed was the diminished phototactic response and ability to successfully swim to the surface, because this indicated a reduced ability to obtain food and a potentially increased vulnerability to predation. Similar health stages of *C. bairdi* were observed by Brodersen and others (1977) in which larvae first experienced changes in their ability to swim, ranging from successfully lifting from the bottom of the chamber to merely twitching their appendages, then failure to move, and finally death.

Test solution preparation methods differed slightly among tests in loading rates and mixing energy used. All test solutions were prepared with a range of concentrations that would either bracket or cause, at minimum, a response by 50 percent of the test species. This enables calculation of median-effect concentrations, allowing comparison of the test solution's toxicity values and relative sensitivities among different species. Because the test materials differ in chemical composition, their ability to interact with saltwater and form soluble fractions to which the organisms were exposed varied. This, in addition to the influence of the preparation methods on the resulting test solutions (Girling, 1989; Maher, 1986), resulted in the requirement to use loading rates of Corexit 9500 and oil that usually were not equivalent between tests (Table 1-6).

In keeping with CROSERF protocols, mixing energies used for CE-WAF solutions were different than those used for WAF solutions (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). This is based on the necessity to provide adequate energy for good oil-dispersant contact in order to effectively disperse the oil, yet produce solutions relatively free of bulk oil droplets following a specified settling period (Singer *et al.*, 1998). Having solutions relatively free of oil droplets was important since the purpose of the toxicity tests was to evaluate the toxicity of predominately water-soluble components of non-dispersed and dispersed oil. Matching mixing energy for the solution preparation of WAF to CE-WAF solutions resulted in either formation of an emulsion in WAF concentrations, or failure to disperse the oil due to insufficient oil-dispersant contact in CE-WAF (Singer *et al*., 1998).

Dispersant Solutions

Use of dispersant loadings in excess of the detected solubility range (>500 ppm at 7°C; >1000 ppm at 15°C; Singer *et al*., 1996a) was necessary to produce an effect greater than 50 percent in *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia* spiked exposure tests. Because the purpose of these tests was not to evaluate the toxicity of a water soluble fraction of the dispersant chemical mixture, but rather the dispersant as a whole, these solutions were completely mixed without use of a settling period. Some solutions, made at concentrations in excess of the detected solubility range that were allowed to settle after mixing, were observed to develop a phase separation. This is likely due to coalescence of the lipophilic portion of the surfactant in Corexit 9500. Such a tendency towards a bi-phasic nature at higher concentrations complicates analysis of solutions by spectrophotometric methods. The presence of large particulates (*i.e.,* droplets) can interfere with light transmittance and alter the results in an inconsistent, unpredictable manner. Calibration curves prepared for UV-spectrophotometric analysis of dispersant solutions showed good linearity within detectable limits (*C. bairdi* maximum detect was 380 ppm, $r^2 = 0.991$, $\lambda_{max} = 236$ nm; *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* maximum detect was 250 ppm, $r^2 = 0.995$, $\lambda_{max} = 238$ nm). For samples that were more concentrated than the maximum detectable limits, dilution into the linear range was necessary. However, this procedure was observed to be problematic, producing questionable results. This is most likely due to the limited solubility of dispersant in saltwater at higher concentrations causing non-uniform sample dilutions that may not have been representative. Dispersant-only solutions tested in this study were completely mixed prior to use in the toxicity tests producing a solution that was

characteristically homogeneous. As a result, test species in these tests were initially exposed to all chemicals in the mixture which constitute the dispersant. Therefore, good agreement between nominal concentrations and measured concentrations was considered important. When results were not observed to have good agreement, an effort was made to select an alternate analytical technique to UV-spectrophotometry with which to measure these solutions. That alternate technique was total organic carbon (TOC) analysis.

The TOC equipment available had been only recently acquired, and instrument calibration was on-going during toxicity assays. Initial results from TOC analysis indicated difficulties similar to UV spectrophotometery in agreement between measured and nominal concentrations. Once calibrated, however, results showed both good linearity and concordance. TOC analysis measures the amount of carbon dioxide (CO_2) evolved from total oxidation of dissolved organic material in one of two ways. One is via gas chromatography, the other is by measurement of the change in conductivity of CO_2 absorbed in ultra-pure water, correcting first for CO_2 contributions from inorganic carbon sources (carbonate and bi-carbonate) by acid digestion (Manahan, 1994). With TOC analysis, potential error and variability in measured concentrations due to the presence of particulates in solution is less of a concern than with spectrophotometric analyses. It is therefore recommended that TOC analysis be considered for future measurements of dispersant solutions, particularly if non-soluble droplets are suspected to be present in the solution matrix.

The bi-phasic nature of dispersant solutions at higher concentrations may also affect toxicity assays. It is likely that in more concentrated, dispersant-only test solutions the solution profiles to which animals were exposed were subject to change over time due to separation of the dispersant's hydrophobic components from the bulk solution. Phase separation was observed to occur in the three highest concentrations (1100, 1500, and 1900 ppm) in the flow-through chambers of the spiked exposure test of *M. bahia* at 25°C, and also in the higher concentrations (> 800 ppm) of the spiked exposure test of *C. bairdi* at 7°C. Occurrence of quiescent sea states conducive to phase separation of dispersant components is unlikely. Therefore, toxicity analyses of dispersant-only solutions prepared at concentrations greater than their solubility limits may require alterations to the exposure system design to allow for maintenance of a completely mixed solution throughout the duration of the assay, while minimizing stress to the test organisms. Alternatively, these solutions may need to be considered essentially non-toxic given the unrealistically high loadings required to produce an effect, especially when compared to reported dispersant concentrations of less than 1 to 13 ppm measured at various depths during a sea trials (Singer *et al.,* 1991). Also, if a solution must be prepared in excess of its detected saturation concentrations, the test material may need to be considered essentially non-toxic at normal application concentrations.

Oil Solutions

Oil solutions (WAF and CE-WAF) were prepared with different oil loadings in order to produce results that either bracketed or caused at minimum a 50 percent effect by the

test species. Solutions prepared with dispersant added (CE-WAF) required much less oil (1.4 to 10.0 times less) than those without (WAF) to produce solutions with similarly effective hydrocarbon concentrations (Figures 1-2a, b, c). These differences in oil loadings directly reflect the design purpose of dispersants, that is to enhance the entry of oil droplets into the water column (Singer *et al.*, 1998; Clayton *et al.*, 1993). For instance, a CE-WAF prepared with equivalent oil loadings as a WAF produced a substantially more concentrated solution (*e.g.*, see Figure 1-2a, oil loading rate of 1000 mg/L), resulting in a higher level of exposure to test organisms. Additionally, the solution profiles of WAF and CE-WAF were substantially different with WAF being essentially devoid of lower-solubility TPH (C_{10} - C_{36}) components, and CE-WAF showing enhanced aqueous solubility of both TPH and VOA (C_6 -C_9) components.

Concentrations of VOA were higher in CE-WAF than WAF for equivalent oil loadings starting at loading rates greater than approximately 100 mg/L (Figures 1-2a, b, c). On average, however, VOA was more concentrated in WAF than in CE-WAF (*e.g.*, 17 mg/L vs. 11 mg/L, Table 1-4). VOA was also greater in proportion to TPH in WAF than in CE-WAF solutions (*e.g.*, 98% for WAF vs. 42% for CE-WAF, Table 1-4). TPH was larger in proportion than VOA in CE-WAF for solutions with loading rates also of approximately 100 ppm or greater. However, the rate of inclusion (*i.e.*, increase in measured concentration in solution per increase in loading rate indicated by the slope of the lines shown in Figures 1-2a, b, and c) for TPH was always greater than that for VOA in CE-WAF. These two observations may indicate that at lower oil loading rates (approximately <100 ppm), the inherent solubilities of VOA components influenced

dissolved hydrocarbon concentrations more than the dispersant's action of enhancing solubilities of TPH components. Additionally, dispersant application has a greater effect on the rates of incorporation of low-solubility chemicals than those of inherently higher solubility.

Oil solutions of PBCO were observed to have significantly lower concentrations of VOA in solution than those of ANS (t-test; $P < 0.05$). This is likely because the parent oils have different compositions, with ANS containing approximately 33 percent volatiles (boiling points < 204°C) (Mead, pers. comm., 1997), and PBCO containing approximately 26 percent volatiles (boiling point < 200°C) (NRC, 1985). Not surprisingly, the loading rates required to obtain hydrocarbon concentrations similarly effective to *M. beryllina* were higher for PBCO than ANS. Even with higher loading rates for PBCO, the TPH fraction in WAF solutions from the two oil types was quite small (Figure 1-2b, 1-2c). Without dispersant addition, the heavier fractions of these oils retained their characteristic of having low aqueous solubility, irrespective of their relative proportion to VOA in the parent oils.

Temperature had a significant effect on the rates of inclusion. For VOA, those rates were greater in colder solutions (7°C); but for TPH, they were greater in warmer solutions (25°C). This is consistent with the understanding that hydrocarbons evaporate more slowly from cold than warmer waters (Neff, 1990). A possible explanation for a higher rate of inclusion of heavier fractions (TPH) in warmer solutions is perhaps that viscosities are reduced at warmer temperatures, allowing for their enhanced solubility (McDonald *et al.,* 1977). Salinity can also effect solubility with increases in

salinity resulting in decreased solubility (Shaw, 1977). However, the concentrations of VOA were greater in colder waters of higher salinity than in warmer waters of lower salinity for solutions prepared with similar oil loading rates (*e.g.,* see VOA Figures 1-2a and 1-2b). Therefore, salinity apparently had less of an effect on solubility than temperature.

Overall, the relationships between oil loading rates and the resulting hydrocarbon concentrations in solution depended upon three things. The most basic parameter was the composition and chemical and physical characteristics of the parent oil. Also important were the conditions under which solutions were prepared (*e.g.,* temperature, salinity, dispersant-to-oil ratio, mixing energy and duration). Finally, treatment with dispersant strongly affected hydrocarbon concentrations.

Toxicity Basis: Measured Concentrations or Loadings

Toxicity values calculated based upon measured concentrations may not illustrate the large differences in loadings required to obtain effective concentrations of WAF or CE-WAF (see Table 1-7). For example, when considering toxicity values from Table 1-7 (using values where fiducial limits are available), the average ratio of toxicity values for WAF to CE-WAF (*e.g.,* WAF/CE-WAF) is 2.02 by measured concentrations (LC_{50} values) and 8.25 by loading rates (LL_{50} values). Presumably, the toxic effect of each solution to the test organisms was the same irrespective of how the toxicant concentration was expressed (*i.e.,* by measured concentrations or by loading rates). Therefore, if the ratios of toxicity values (WAF-to-CE-WAF) by both LC_{50} and LL_{50} values were equal,

one could deduce that these chemicals interact with saltwater equally. However, since the ratio of WAF-to-CE-WAF determined by loading rates (LL_{50} values) was larger than that by measured concentrations (LC_{50} values), this indicates that some physical or chemical parameter varies among the test materials, affecting their interactions with saltwater. Some of these conditions may be known for a test material, such as with crude oils, which are known to contain poorly soluble constituents whose solubilities are enhanced with the addition of dispersants or changes in temperature, or with chemical changes due to weathering. What may not be apparent when comparing the LC_{50} and LL_{50} values of test materials is that a solution may be much more toxic in terms of the smaller amount of material required to generate a toxic effect than LC_{50} values would suggest (*e.g.*, Figure 1-8 compares Loading Rate vs. VOA, TPH, or THC). For example, CE-WAF solutions are 2.02 more toxic than WAF according to measured concentrations, but 8.25 times more toxic according to loading rates. This is one reason why several authors suggest the use of an LL_{50} or EL_{50} (lethal loading or effective loading to 50% of the population) to express the results of tests for materials containing poorly soluble constituents (Girling *et al.*, 1992; Markarian *et al.*, 1995; Peterson, 1994). Use of an LL_{50} is more demonstrative of a material's ability to produce toxic concentrations in aqueous media. This type of information may be more useful for product comparisons or for quick hazard assessments in the field (Girling, 1992). However, since test solutions are strongly dependent upon their method of preparation (Girling *et. al.*, 1989), toxicity values in terms of loading are of limited value unless identical preparation methods are used (Singer *et. al.*, 1998; Rice *et. al.*, 1977). Additionally, an LL_{50} could not be used to

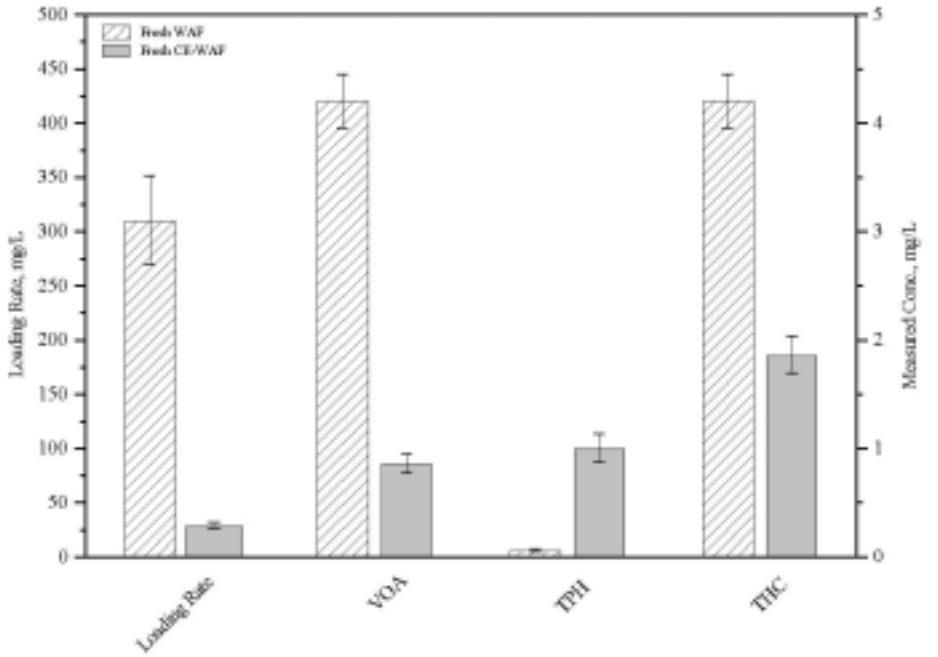

Fig. 1-8. EC_{50} values for *V. fischeri* calculated based on measured hydrocarbon fractions (VOA, TPH, and THC) and total oil added (Loading Rate)

evaluate the toxic effect a particular hydrocarbon or group of hydrocarbons in solution has as analytically determined hydrocarbon concentrations could. Therefore, the question being asked of the data (*e.g.*, which substance is more toxic; or what is the dominant toxicant) will dictate in which form the toxicity values are most useful. However, concurrent use of the two forms is preferred since together they provide the most complete information concerning toxicity, incorporating both physical and chemical conditions influencing the test solutions' formation and the solutions themselves. This is particularly important when the comparison of LC_{50} and LL_{50} values of two test solutions provides opposite conclusions as to which solution or material is more toxic. Such an occurrence suggests that other factors, such as solubility, in addition to the test material's concentrations measured in solution should be considered when the overall toxicity of a test material is evaluated.

Toxicity Basis: Fractional or Total Measured Concentrations

Differences in solution profiles of WAF and CE-WAF can greatly influence the interpretation of the toxicity of these solutions depending upon which solution component (VOA, TPH, or combined as THC) is used to calculate the toxicity value (Figure 1-8). For example, in the *M. bahia* spiked exposure tests, when the toxicity value (LC_{50}) is based solely on the TPH fraction, the LC_{50} of WAF is 0.48 mg/L, and that of CE-WAF is 2.15 mg/L. Because a smaller toxicity value denotes a more toxic solution (*i.e.*, less test material in solution was required to produce a response of 50 percent by the test species), the interpretation of the example given above would lead to the conclusion

that WAF solutions are more toxic than CE-WAF solutions. However, if the same exercise is applied to the VOA components also from *M. bahia* spiked exposure tests, the toxicity value for WAF is 7.32 mg/L and 2.22 mg/L for CE-WAF, leading to the opposite conclusion that CE-WAF concentrations are more toxic than WAF concentrations. In fact, when comparing these toxicity values calculated by VOA, THC, and loading rates using these data for WAF solutions versus CE-WAF solutions, in all cases except for those values standardized to TPH, CE-WAF is more toxic than WAF. Similar trends were observed in the other species as well as *V. fischeri* in the Microtox® Assays (see Table 1-10 and Figure 1-8).

The fact that such dichotomous conclusions can be drawn from the same data set is an artifact of two related conditions. First, test solutions must be characterized as a single toxicant, even if the test material is composed of many chemicals as with crude oil or dispersants – all with varying aqueous solubilities, K_{ow} values, Henry's law constants, and presumably toxicities. Second, toxicity values are influenced by the manner in which the concentration of test material in solution is characterized as a single toxicant. All statistical methods estimate a toxicity value in the same general manner by estimating the location of the inflection point (the point which corresponds to the estimated 50 percent response by the test species) on a dose-response curve with respect to the concentration of a single toxicant plotted along the abscissa. Because “there is no such thing as an ‘oil molecule’” (Singer *et al.*, 1998) from which to calculate a single toxicant concentration, all measured components of oil must be combined in some fashion to estimate a toxicity value. In so doing, the toxicity of each individual component or group of components of

oil is not easily identifiable, nor is the "driver" of toxicity (*i.e.,* that chemical or group of chemicals which is most responsible for the toxic effect). To base conclusions about the relative toxicity of solutions standardized solely to one fraction (*e.g.,* TPH) would be to ignore possible synergistic effects of the combined fractions. Moreover, to do so may erroneously overlook important toxic effects of other fractions that may be present in larger proportion in the test solution but were omitted from the solution's concentration characterization. This is the case with the *M. bahia* spiked exposures discussed earlier; the TPH fraction contributed only 1.3 percent of the total hydrocarbon content measured in WAF solutions. If toxicity values were based only on the TPH fraction, 98.7 percent of the total hydrocarbon content (THC) in solution would not be accounted for in that toxicity value. To omit such a large portion of the solution's hydrocarbons, especially the fraction which is often attributed to being most responsible for acute toxic effects (Maher, 1986; Rice *et al.,* 1984; Bobra *et al.,* 1983; McDonald *et al.,* 1984), could result in gross inaccuracies in the portrayal of the toxicity of a test solution.

Consequently, it is advocated here that the total measured hydrocarbons in solution (*e.g.,* THC) be used to calculate toxicity values. Additionally, the manner used to characterize solution concentration should be reported along with the calculated toxicity values. All toxicity comparisons in this study are made using the combined fractions of VOA and TPH, referred to as THC (LC_{50}) accompanied with consideration of results determined using loading rates (LL_{50}).

Toxicity: Spiked versus Continuous Exposure

Responses by test species to test solutions were always greater under continuous exposure than under spiked, declining exposures. This is consistent with observations by Pace and others (1995) and Bragin and others (1994), in studies that used similar exposure regimes as this study. Since the continuous exposure regime is a more widely accepted standard (Singer *et. al.*, 1990; 1991) that has been and is still commonly used in toxicity tests (Broderson *et. al.*, 1977; Wright *et. al.*, 1994; Webber, 1993), responses under continuous exposure were evaluated in this study to facilitate comparison with results from other studies. However, this type of exposure for an equivalent duration (96 hours) may not be representative of what organisms might encounter in the field, and may in fact overestimate the toxicity of a solution (Pace *et al.*, 1995; Bragin *et. al.*, 1994). Additionally, problems associated with continuous exposure tests arise with a potential decline in concentrations in the test chambers due to aeration, temperature, and other factors; yet, the exposure is modeled as a constant exposure. This may cause the toxicity of the solution under continuous exposure (modeled as constant exposure) to be underestimated (Rice *et. al.*, 1977).

The methods employed in this study for the continuous exposure tests held the potential for loss of the volatile fraction from oil solutions. To assess the degree of underestimation of the toxicity values, a qualitative analysis of the change in volatile compounds (VOA) in continuous exposure test solutions was made. A series of samples were collected during the first 24 hours of a simulated continuous exposure test from beakers containing a low- and high-concentration WAF solution, and a mid-concentration

solution for a CE-WAF. These samples were analyzed for VOA content, since that is the fraction most likely to be affected by aeration. The measured concentrations were plotted against time in order to determine the change in VOA concentration over time and the area under the curve (AUC). The AUC calculated was compared to the that of the theoretical constant exposure. VOA from WAF concentrations were observed to decline near to detection limits in approximately 12 hours, causing the AUC to be 90 percent less than the theoretical exposure. Declines in CE-WAF concentration were much slower with some VOA remaining at the end of 24 hours. The AUC for the CE-WAF was 83 percent less than the theoretical exposure. With these factors taken into account, results from continuous exposure tests are considered in the following discussion. However, it must be understood that the toxicity reported for the continuous exposure tests are likely underestimated for an actual "constant" exposure (*i.e.*, toxicity values would be smaller, indicating greater toxicity, if generated under an absolute "constant" exposure). Greater emphasis is placed upon results from spiked exposure tests, as concentrations in those tests more closely resemble concentration profiles observed in the field (Pace and Clark, 1993; Singer *et al.*, 1993).

Toxicity: Test Solution Toxicity Comparisons

The toxicity of test solutions are compared here using toxicity values calculated using both measured concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) and loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values). Evaluations in trends are made using the combined results from measured

concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) and loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values) first, then considering each method individually.

Overall, the trend was that dispersant-only solutions were least toxic, followed by WAF and CE-WAF solutions of fresh oil, with CE-WAF being more frequently the most toxic. This implies that dispersed hydrocarbon compounds of CE-WAF solutions are more bioreactive than the non-dispersed hydrocarbons of WAF. This observation is likely related to the amount of hydrocarbons found in solution for dispersed versus non-dispersed solutions. For example, measured TPH concentrations were always much higher for CE-WAF than for WAF solutions, and were more concentrated (THC) than the WAF solutions of similar oil loading.

Trends in the data according to values based upon measured concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values; denoted as: LC_{50}/EC_{50}) were quite consistent. In general, dispersant-only solutions were least toxic in all cases, followed by WAF solutions, then CE-WAF solutions as most toxic – similar to the trend above using all of the data. Not all of these relationships, however, were significantly different or had fiducial limits with which to test significance. For instance, for *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia,* there was no significant difference in toxicity of WAF and CE-WAF solutions; however, the toxicity values for WAF solutions were generally larger than those for CE-WAF solutions. These trends are also most likely related to the hydrocarbon content (*i.e.*, less toxic) as was presented previously.

Trends in the data when compared using toxicity values calculated by loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values; denoted as: LL_{50}/EL_{50}) were less consistent than those made by

LC_{50} and EC_{50} values. Two prominent trends were observed. One, WAF solutions were least toxic for all species except for *C. bairdi*, where dispersant-only solutions were least toxic. And two, relative to CE-WAF, WAF solutions were generally less toxic (*i.e.*, had the largest loading rate). The former is not surprising since WAF solutions required the largest amount of test material to be added to saltwater in order to form effective solutions thus influencing a higher calculated toxicity value. For two equally effective solutions produced with different product loading rates, the more concentrated (in terms of loading) solution will also have the largest toxicity value (*i.e.*, lowest toxicity) when calculated using loading rates. As a result, toxicity values calculated using loading rates were largest for WAF solutions, indicating that these solutions were least toxic. That latter trend (that WAF solutions were less toxic than CE-WAF solutions) in comparisons of LL_{50} and EL_{50} values is also related to the amount of hydrocarbons in solution.

According to these data, the best response to the question of which is more toxic, dispersed or non-dispersed oil, is that it depends upon the species and endpoint tested, and how the data is presented. Singer and others (1998) report similar results when considering the relative toxicity of WAF and CE-WAF solutions, reporting the differences in toxicity of these solutions is dependent upon "species, time, and endpoint." Wells (1984) indicates that some studies report dispersed oil solutions as more toxic, while others studies show no difference in toxicity of dispersed and non-dispersed oil solutions.

Toxicity: Intra-Species Sensitivities

Comparisons made here are by the combined data sets of LC_{50} and EC_{50} values and LL_{50} and EL_{50} values, unless stated otherwise. *C. bairdi* were least sensitive to the dispersant solutions, and were more or less sensitive to the CE-WAF solutions depending upon the exposure type. Although, under spiked exposure, there was no significant difference in toxicity of these solutions to *C. bairdi*. *M. bahia* and *V. fischeri* shared the same pattern of sensitivity. These species tended to be most sensitive to the CE-WAF solutions. The least toxic solutions for *M. bahia* and *V. fischeri* were dependant upon how the toxicity value was calculated (measured or loading). According to LC_{50}/ EC_{50}, these species were least sensitive to dispersant-only solutions. According to LL_{50}/ EL_{50}, they were least sensitive to WAF solutions. Although, the difference in toxicity between WAF and CE-WAF solutions for *M. bahia* was not significant. *M. beryllina* was most sensitive to CE-WAF solutions and least to dispersant-only solutions according to LC_{50} values. The trend was slightly different according to LL_{50} values, where *M. beryllina* tended to be most sensitive to dispersant-only solutions and least sensitive to WAF solutions. That *M. beryllina* were most sensitive to dispersant-only solutions may be because fish may be more susceptible to some types of waterborne toxicants (Singer *et al.*, 1998) — perhaps the surfactants in the dispersant mixture. Surfactants are intended to reduce the interfacial tension between the aqueous and lipid phases, and do so non-selectively for biogenic or non-biogenic lipids. It is possible that the decreased interfacial tension between gill epithelial cells and the surrounding medium reduced the amount of oxygen exchanged, causing hypoxia and eventually asphyxia (Singer *et al.*, 1994).

Toxicity: Inter-Species Sensitivities

M. beryllina was most resistant overall. Similar observations were made by other researchers working with *M. beryllina,* where the authors state that *M. beryllina* was one of the least sensitive species tested (compared to *M. bahia,* another mysid, and oyster larvae) under continuous exposure (Bragin and Clark, 1996). However, for dispersant-only solutions, *M. beryllina* was either most or least sensitive depending upon the exposure regime. Under continuous exposure, *M. beryllina* were most resistant to dispersant-only solutions, but least under spiked exposure. This indicates that both *M. bahia* and *C. bairdi* were substantially more sensitive to dispersant-only solutions under a continuous exposure. This may imply that under longer exposures, dispersant surfactants have more time to act upon and damage to the membranes of these species. Surfactants are known to have a number of effects on aquatic organisms, such as disrupting normal cell function by altering membrane permeability, interrupting cellular respiration, and causing membrane lysis (Singer *et al.,* 1998). It is possible that crustaceans are more susceptible to this type of damage when dispersants and biological membranes are in contact for periods longer than six to nine hours (the detected concentration decline in spiked exposure tests), potentially approaching equilibrium.

M. beryllina were also most resistant to oil solutions. C. *bairdi* and *M. bahia* often were more sensitive than of both *M. beryllina* and *V. fischeri*. It has been suggested that crustacean larvae may be more sensitive to oil and oil-components than fish (Rice *et al.*, 1977). *C. bairdi* showed greatest sensitivity to oil solutions under continuous exposure; however, under spiked exposure, *C. bairdi* tended to be more resistant than both *M. bahia*

and *V. fischeri*. Of all tests, *C. bairdi* was most frequently the most sensitive of all species. It has been suggested that because of lower temperatures, the persistence of toxic aromatic hydrocarbons is increased (Rice *et al.*, 1977), potentially extending the exposure period for cold-region species. Also, cold-region crustacean species may be more sensitive to oil pollution than those of warmer regions because they develop more slowly therefore existing in the more sensitive larval state longer (Brodersen *et al.*, 1977). No clear trend for *V. fischeri* was observed in terms of relative sensitivity to suggest that this bacterium was consistently more or less sensitive than *C. bairdi* or *M. bahia* (after *M. beryllina* as least sensitive).

Toxicity: Temporal Responses

Qualitative, temporal assessments of lethal responses by *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina* were made for all test solutions. These are considered "qualitative" because these assessments were based upon observations made by viewing through the flow-through chambers that are somewhat obscured. Similar assessments are not available for *C. bairdi* because evaluation of this species' response to test solution exposure required close (microscopic) observations, not possible during the toxicity test.

The type of exposure, spiked or continuous, had a noticeable effect on the response by the test species to test solution exposure over time. Not surprisingly, the toxic effect in spiked exposure tests generally stabilized within the first 24 hours of the 96-hour test (Table 1-8). However, continuous exposure tests generally caused a steady increase in mortality over the duration of the test. Providing renewed toxicant every 24 hours

resulted in further increasing the mortality of the test species. Under spiked exposure, *M. bahia* tended to exhibit more of a delay in lethal effect than *M. beryllina*. As was seen previously for comparisons made both by LC_{50} and LL_{50} values, *M. beryllina* was most resistant to oil solutions, and least to dispersant-only solutions with one exception, where under continuous exposure, *M. beryllina* was more resistant to dispersant-only solutions than *M. bahia* and *C. bairdi*.

Inter-laboratory Comparisons

Test protocols used in this study followed those set forth by CROSERF in order to facilitate comparison of toxicity data determined by other laboratories following similar protocols. Other research groups employing CROSERF protocols (which generally includes oil solution preparation protocols, the spiked exposure regime, and guidelines for chemistry analysis of test oil solutions) have evaluated the toxicity of dispersants and oils of local interest to local species, much in the way toxicity tests were designed in this study. Inter-laboratory comparisons are possible here by use of the national standard species *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, the more recently accepted CROSERF standard, and the reference oil, PBCO. Comparisons of toxicity values from other laboratories were made here where data are available and directly comparable (*i.e.*, same species and test solution evaluated). Because Corexit 9500 is a newer dispersant than Corexit 9527, more toxicity data exists for 9527 than 9500, thus few direct comparisons are available. One value that is directly comparable to the Corexit 9500 *M. bahia* continuous exposure test was reported in Coelho and Aurand (1996). The median-lethal concentration value

reported was 35.9 ppm, which agrees well with the value obtained in this study of 29.1 ppm (approximately 20% difference). Other toxicity values are available for comparison and are made here; however, it should be noted that these tests were evaluated using different species and/or test materials. Considering only spiked exposure tests for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, values reported in Bragin and Clark (1996) found for WAF solutions of Kuwait crude oil, the toxicity was greater than 2.93 ppm and 2.0 ppm, for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, respectively. When compared to the values obtained in this study of 8.21 and 26.36 ppm, respectively, these values appear very different. However, it is important to note that the values reported in Bragin and Clark (1996) for both WAF concentrations and CE-WAF concentrations were standardized to the TPH fraction only, quite possibly causing these values to be low. CE-WAF concentrations, also from Kuwait crude oil, but with the addition of the dispersant Corexit 9527 instead of Corexit 9500, resulted in values of 6.6 ppm and 16.8 ppm for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, respectively (Bragin and Clark, 1996). Values obtained in this study for the same species, but using fresh ANS and Corexit 9500, were 5.08 and 12.22 ppm for *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*, respectively. These values differ slightly, but are within the same order of magnitude of those reported in Bragin and Clark (1996). To date, there have been no other laboratories that have followed protocols set forth by CROSERF and have evaluated responses of *C. bairdi* larvae. However, several toxicity tests on the same (*C. bairdi*) or similar cold-regions species have been conducted (Rice *et al.*, 1977; Broderson *et al.*, 1977). Broserson and others (1977) exposed Tanner crab larvae (*C. bairdi*) to a static (constant concentration) water soluble fraction of Cook Inlet crude oil and

determined the median-lethal concentration to be 1.7 ppm, analyzed using freon extracts and infrared spectrophotometry. In their study, the researchers defined the lethal indicator as "moribundity (death imminent)," which was identified as "the cessation of swimming" – not unlike the definition used in this study for "affected" (Broderson *et al.*, 1977). Rice and others (1977) report an LC_{50} of 2.0 ppm for King crab larvae exposed to static water soluble fractions of crude oil. In results from this study for the continuous exposure to water-accommodated fractions of ANS, the median-effect concentration for *C. bairdi* was determined to be 2.54 ppm. Given the differences in testing protocols and crude oils evaluated, these values are in good agreement.

Toxicity Driver

The general trend of increased toxicity of dispersed oil solutions over that of non-dispersed oil solutions may be due to the increased TPH fraction. Since TPH is nearly absent from the solution profile in WAF concentrations, it presumably contributes little to the toxic effect. For example, *M. beryllina* was significantly more sensitive to CE-WAF concentrations than WAF concentrations (WAF LC_{50} = 26.36 mg/L; CE-WAF LC_{50} = 12.22 mg/L). A WAF from that test produced with a loading rate of 500 mg/L resulted in a solution with a measured concentration of 24.21 mg/L THC, which is similar to the estimated LC_{50}. Of that total hydrocarbon content (24.21 mg/L), 23.87 mg/L were VOA and 0.34 mg/L were TPH. In comparison, a CE-WAF from that test, produced with half of the loading of the WAF at 250 mg/L, resulted in a measured THC concentration of 12.26 mg/L, also similar to the estimated LC_{50}. Of that 12.26 mg/L THC, 4.29 mg/L

were VOA and 7.97 mg/L were TPH. The VOA concentration in the CE-WAF solution is approximately 6 times less than that in the WAF; however, the TPH concentration is near 27 times greater. The largest difference between these solutions is the increase of TPH measured in CE-WAF solutions. Therefore a possible explanation for the increase in toxicity of CE-WAF solutions is due to the increase in the TPH fraction or some other unmeasured parameter.

Another influence on the toxic effect of a solution may be from the individual hydrocarbons themselves. When considering the toxicity of water soluble fractions of untreated oil, Bobra and others (1983) suggested that the "potency" (defined as the ratio of the individual substance's solubility to the overall LC_{50} of the hydrocarbon mixture) for a single hydrocarbon decreases as molecular weight increases. Larger molecules may have slower diffusivities in both the aqueous and lipid phases (Abernathy *et al.*, 1986). A larger size may also affect the molecule's ability to partition through the membranes of an organism to access sites of toxic action (Bobra *et al.,* 1983). These factors may contribute to the decrease in potency for larger molecules (Bobra *et al.,* 1983). Moreover, larger molecules are less soluble than their smaller counterparts (Shaw, 1977; Rice *et al.*, 1977), making them less able to establish concentrations in "aqueous media through which transport must occur" in order to produce a toxic effect (Abernathy *et al.*, 1986). These factors potentially lead to a lesser degree of contribution to the overall toxic effect of TPH in WAF concentrations. Testing the toxicity of individual hydrocarbons is a research endeavor that has been explored and promoted for predicting the toxicity of a mixture of hydrocarbons (Rice *et al.*, 1984; Peterson, 1994). This may

be the only possible way in which to identify which component of a mixture contributes most to the toxic effect. However, Rice and others (1984) tested the toxicity of a water soluble fraction (WSF) that modeled those prepared from Cook Inlet crude oil. The synthetic Cook Inlet WSF was prepared from a mixture of the ten aromatic hydrocarbons that were predominant in the whole oil WSF. Rice and others (1984) found that the synthetic mixture had a toxic effect that was only 20 to 30 percent of that the whole oil WSF, "even though proportions of individual hydrocarbons were the same that that of the whole crude oil." This suggests that synergistic effects of a whole product may not be re-produceable by a synthetic mixture or summation of toxic effects from single hydrocarbons.

However, altering the solution profile by the action of dispersants tends to increase the toxicity of the oil solution. Once dispersed, oil is in the form of micelles presumably containing compounds that are most hydrophobic at the center surrounded by a zone of lower-soluble fractions with enhanced solubility. Those compounds that were initially of low-solubility are introduced into the aqueous media by the action of the dispersants, where they can more easily make initial contact with an organism. Once in the aqueous media, these molecules may preferentially partition out of the water phase in a non-specific manner into the lipid phase, having equal affinity for biological lipids as other lipids present in the system.

The addition of chemical dispersants enhances the dissolution of inherently low-soluble compounds that normally would not go into "solution." Through this action, it is possible that larger hydrocarbons of low-solubility and slightly larger octanol-water

partitioning coefficients (K_{ow}) than those naturally soluble would be incorporated into the water column for exposure to organisms. Since the octanol-water partitioning coefficients (K_{ow}) of these chemicals are believed to be indicative of a chemical's ability to partition between biological lipid and water phases (Lipnick, 1995), a higher K_{ow} would indicate a greater propensity to partition into biological membranes rather than water. For example, the log K_{ow} for n-hexane is 4.11, and slightly higher for n-decane at 6.69. Since smaller hydrocarbons solubilize in water easier than larger hydrocarbons (Shaw, 1977), the addition of dispersants would increase the concentration of these larger molecules that may also have a larger K_{ow}. However, this may only be true for certain mid-range hydrocarbons (*e.g.*, 10 to 15 carbons), since according to Abernathy and others (1986), larger molecules have a tendency to be less soluble in octanol.

Alternatively, the K_{ow} coefficients of molecules may be altered in some way by the addition of dispersants. If it is assumed that the VOA fraction is responsible for the toxic effect, then WAF solutions would have been found to be more toxic than CE-WAF solutions since they were more concentrated with VOA. It is possible then, that the K_{ow} coefficients of hydrocarbons enhanced into solution, were altered such that their original values were increased. In such an event, these chemicals would have increased in their biological reactivity.

The observation that WAF solutions were generally less toxic than CE-WAF solutions reflects both the chemical and the physical effects of the dispersed oil solutions. CE-WAF solutions were measured to have higher hydrocarbon concentrations than WAF solutions, presumably contributing more to chemical toxicity of dispersed oil solutions.

In addition, CE-WAF solutions were likely to have more oil particulates in solution than WAF solutions through the action of the dispersant. The solution preparation methods for WAFs and CE-WAFs were intended to produce solutions that are essentially equivalent to one another with respect to the number of oil particulates (≤ 1 µm in diameter) in solutions (Singer *et al.,* 1998; pers. comm., Singer, 1999). However, CE-WAF solutions were noticeably more concentrated than WAF solutions by increased opacity. From this observation and given the understanding of dispersant action, it is reasonable to assume that CE-WAF solutions may actually have slightly more oil particulates in solution that WAF solutions. Thus, the mere presence of micro-oil droplets approximately 1 µm in diameter in CE-WAF solutions, if brought into contact with an organism of approximate 4 mm in size, could conceivably increase toxicity due to physical effects rather than chemical ones (Singer *et al.,* 1998; Karinen and Rice, 1974; Wells, 1985).

The increase in toxicity of CE-WAF solutions in some cases may due to the following factors: 1) incorporating additional hydrocarbons that may be of higher octanol-water partitioning coefficients into the aqueous media that might not normally go into "solution" under mixing conditions similar to those use to prepare WAF solutions; 2) altering the partitioning ratios (*e.g.,* K_{ow}) of a chemical once enhanced into solution by dispersant addition; and/or 3) introducing micro-droplets of oil into solution/suspension via formation of micelles possibly contributing to toxicity by physical means (*e.g.,* coating).

Field Extrapolation

An important question when considering toxicity values is how and when they are relevant to actual field conditions. To be able to answer that, additional variables must be considered to appropriately apply information obtained in laboratory toxicity tests to local field conditions. Wells (1985) states that in addition to physicochemical properties of oil and dispersed oil, the quantity and location of an oil spill, and population sensitivity, variables such as species, life stages, season, physiology, biochemistry, behavior, and habitat vulnerability must be considered.

Ideally, toxicity tests should be evaluated using a species that is sufficiently sensitive so results will be representative of potential toxic effects to other organisms in the biological system. The most sensitive life-stage of an ecologically and economically important species, *C. bairdi*, was selected for evaluation in this study. However, the possibility exists that another Alaskan species, not yet tested and/or reported, possess a greater sensitivity to oil pollution than *C. bairdi.* Thus, other cold-region species may need to be evaluated to augment the database of toxic responses to oil pollution in order to make more-informed oil spill response decisions.

In addition to species and life-stage considerations of when to apply toxicity data to field conditions, are the methods used to prepare the test solutions. Because numerous different mixing regimes (*i.e.,* sea stages) can occur in the environment, an effort to simulate all of the possible solutions resulting from various different sea states is impractical (Rice *et al.,* 1977). In fact, Rice and others (1977) state that acute toxicity tests can only provide an approximate idea of what is likely to occur in the environment.

However, toxicity assays should resemble the natural environment as realistically as possible. As a result, spiked exposure tests that more closely resemble exposures likely to occur in the environment (Pace and Clark, 1993; Singer *et al.*, 1996a) were evaluated in this study. Rapid dispersion of chemically treated oil on the order of 5 to 20 minutes is expected to occur in the field (Mackay *et al.*, 1982). Also, high dilution rates (*e.g.* sea swell, wind and wave intensity) are a pre-requisite for dispersant application to an oil slick (Pace and Clark, 1993).

When applying toxicity data derived in the laboratory to field conditions, it should be reiterated that toxicity values are the product of the values that characterize the chemical concentrations in solution. Singer and others (1998) suggest that toxicity values based on loading rates alone (LL_{50}) are of little practical value, since often concentration data available during response to an oil spill is determined using fluorometric or chromatographic analytical methods. In such a case, use of toxicity values based upon measured concentrations (LC_{50} values) would be more appropriate to enable direct comparison with analytically determined concentrations. However, when analytically determined concentrations are not available, but the initial volume of oil spilled per approximate mixing volume are known (*e.g.*, size of local mixing depth, length, and width), toxicity values based upon loading rates may be more applicable.

Likewise, a toxicity value based solely on one chemical fraction (*e.g.*, TPH) may be of little value. For example, suppose a crude oil containing a high proportion of lighter, more soluble fractions is spilled into the environment, and application of chemical dispersants within short succession of the spill is being considered for a mitigation

response. In such a case, the lighter fractions would be enhanced into solution preferentially over evaporation by the action of the dispersant. They would exist in a dissolved form where their contribution to the toxic effect is more likely. Consequently, a toxicity value based solely on the heavier fractions (TPH) could overlook the effects of these lighter hydrocarbons, possibly leading to a greater environmental impact than would be expected from the toxicity values reported. Therefore, it is important for researchers to report which fractions were used to obtain the toxicity values; and conversely, for users of this information to consider from where these values were calculated.

Another important consideration when extrapolating laboratory-derived toxicity data to field conditions is whether or not material loadings used in the test to generate a response by 50 percent of the population is realistic or unrealistically high. According to Shiu and others (1990) an excess of oil implies a water-to-oil ratio of 20:1 or less. Similarly, Singer and others (1998) suggest that a water-to-oil ratio of 40:1 (25 g/L) is "unrealistically high." Dispersant-to-oil ratios used in the field are typically 1:20 or less (NRC, 1989); a smaller ratio than that was used in this study (1:10) to match that used by other researchers (Singer *et al.*, 1998; Bragin *et al.*, 1994) for purposes of comparison. Based on the above information, an excessive dispersant loading may be expected to be from 2.5 g/L to 5.0 g/L (water to dispersant ratio of 400:1 or 200:1). Therefore, the loading rates used in the dispersant-only spiked exposure tests of *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia* would be considered excessive (see Table 1-6); however, all other tests were not. This implies that for those species tested with solutions that were not considered excessive,

under similar conditions in the field, a toxic effect could occur from dispersant alone. However, all other tests (oil solutions, continuous exposure dispersant-only tests for *C. bairdi* and *M. bahia*, and the *M. beryllina* dispersant-only) were evaluated with loading rates that are not considered excessive by the above standards. Therefore, it is possible that these concentrations could occur in the environment and under similar conditions, a toxic effect may be observed. The next consideration is that of the actual toxicity values determined for each species and how those relate to concentrations observed in the field.

In order to speculate if a toxic effect could be expected under field conditions, the estimated median-effect concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) must be compared to concentrations that have been measured under field conditions, or are expected to occur in the field. For dispersants alone, initial concentrations might range from 0.1 to 13 mg/L at depths of 5 to 10 m (Wells, 1984; Singer *et al.,* 1991; Trudel, 1998). Since all median-effect concentrations calculated in this study are greater than 13 ppm, this would suggest that no toxic effect would occur in the field as a result of dispersant addition alone.

In a field investigation of an oil spill that was treated with Corexit 9527 soon after release, concentrations were measured at depths of 1, 3, and 9 meters at 0.25, 0.6, and 3 hours following dispersant application; those concentrations were as follows: 1) 0.25 h: 40, 9, and 0.1 ppm at 1, 3, and 9 m, respectively; 2) 0.6 h: 12, 14, and 2 ppm at 1, 3, and 9 m, respectively; and 3) 3 h: 1, 2, and 0.5 ppm at 1, 3, and 9 m, respectively (Trudel, 1998). Similar values based upon data published in Lewis and Aurand (1997) are shown in Figure 1-9. Over time (approximately 28 hours) these concentrations normalize throughout a depth of approximately 10 m (Mackay *et al.,* 1982), as can be seen from the

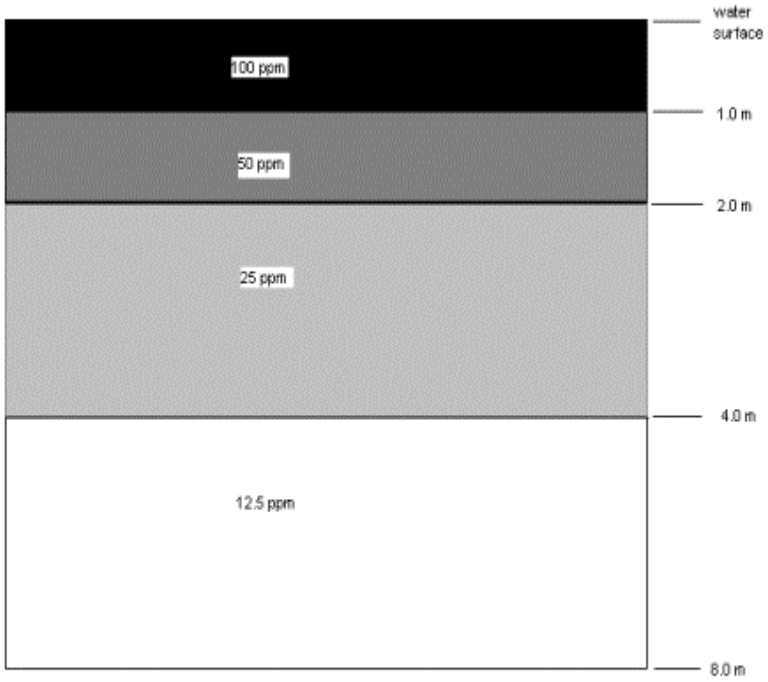

Fig. 1-9. Concentrations of oil in the water column following dispersal of a 0.1 mm thick slick of fresh oil treated with a chemical dispersant (after Lewis and Aurand, 1997)

values above. This information supports the use of the spiked exposure tests, with dispersed oil concentrations declining and stabilizing at an average concentrations of 0.65 ppm (less than all toxic thresholds calculated for the species tested in this study) at the seventh hour of CE-WAF tests. Comparing these values to the toxicity values calculated for CE-WAF solutions tested under spiked exposure reveals that a toxic effect could be expected for *C. bairdi*, *M. bahia*, and *M. beryllina* at a 1 m depth 0.25 h following dispersal of a spill, and would continue to 0.6 h at depths of 1 and 3 m. Three hours after dispersing, however, no toxic effect would be expected. Therefore, based upon these data and the concentrations provided above (Trudel, 1999), only those organisms in the immediate vicinity at the time of dispersal would experience an acute toxic effect due to dispersed oil.

Season and habitat are also two very important variables that must be considered when using toxicity data as a decision-making tool for oil spill response actions. For instance, chemical dispersion in shallow waters where the dilution volume is very small may adversely impact benthic communities (Coelho *et al.*, 1995). Also, the season in which an oil spill occurs is important to consider, since a sensitive species or life-stage of a species may only be present in the upper reaches of the water column during certain periods of the year. A case in point, *C. bairdi* larvae evaluated in this study are only present in the upper 30 meters of the water column beginning in the spring months, until they enter into the megalops larval stage of development and seek habitat at greater depths. As a result, if an oil spill were to occur any time other than during the spring

planktonic bloom, the expected acute toxic effects to larval *C. bairdi* from exposure to chemically dispersed oil could be little to none.

CHAPTER 2: WEATHERED OIL STUDY

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The toxicity study of weathered oil is a continuation of the fresh oil study covered in Chapter 1. The methods and materials employed for weathered oil tests are the same as for fresh oil tests with the exception of weathering of the crude oil. Consequently, much of this section refers to the Materials and Methods section of Chapter 1; any differences are identified in the following sections.

Materials

Toxicity assays in this study were conducted using solutions made from the dispersant Corexit 9500 (Nalco/Exxon Energy Chemicals, L.P., Sugar Land, Texas) and weathered Alaska North Slope crude oil (ANS) (Williams Alaska Petroleum, Inc., North Pole, Alaska). Corexit 9500 used in the weathered oil study is from the same supply that was used in the fresh oil study. Chemical characteristics of Corexit 9500 and fresh ANS are described in Chapter 1. Fresh ANS is approximately one-third by weight volatiles (components with boiling points 204 to 274°C or less; pers. comm., Mead, 1997). ANS was collected from the Trans-Alaskan Pipeline in December 1998 and sent to Battelle Ocean Sciences (Duxbury, Massachusetts), where it was artificially weathered using a modified method of ASTM D86/82, resulting in losses of components with boiling points below 200°C (pers. comm., Macomber, 1998).

All toxicity assays of *Chionocetes bairdi* were conducted using natural, 0.5-µm filtered seawater (20-µm paper-pleated polypropylene, 5-µm carbon-wrapped, 0.5-µm block-activated carbon; OMNIFilter, Hammond, Indiana) taken from an 80-m depth from Resurrection Bay, Seward, Alaska, at ambient temperature (typically 7°C) and salinity (≈ 31.5‰). Saltwater used in toxicity assays of *Menidia beryllina* was identical to that used in the fresh oil study – reconstituted saltwater made from de-ionized water (≥ 18 MΩ–cm) and Crystal Sea® Marinemix (formerly Forty Fathoms® Seasalt, Marine Interprises International, Inc., Baltimore, Maryland) at a temperature of 25°C and salinity of 20‰ (Webber, 1993).

Test Solutions

Each species was evaluated for acute toxic effects using water-accommodated fractions (WAF) of weathered ANS (no dispersant added) and chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions (CE-WAF) of weathered ANS (dispersant added). Toxicity assays for dispersant-only solutions were conducted as part of the fresh oil study and were not duplicated here. WAF and CE-WAF solutions of weathered ANS were prepared according to procedures described in Chapter 1, Materials and Methods, Test Solutions.

Toxicity Test Procedures

Short-term toxicity tests (96 h) were conducted to evaluate the sub-lethal and lethal responses to weathered ANS of the early life-stages of Alaskan Tanner crab (*Chionocetes*

bairdi) and the inland silverside (*Menidia beryllina*), respectively. Responses of the test species to test solutions when exposed under spiked and continuous concentrations were observed. Microtox® Assays were also run on spilt samples collected from test solutions from the *C. bairdi* and *M. beryllina* tests. Experimental design, methods, and materials employed in this study were identical to those described in Chapter 1, Materials and Methods, Toxicity Test Procedures, with one exception. Temperature control during the *C. bairdi* tests were maintained using water baths, instead of in a temperature-controlled room.

Test Species

Tanner crab larvae (*Chionocetes bairdi*) were obtained from gravid females collected from Kachemak Bay, Alaska, in January 1998. Larvae were from the same females that were used in the fresh oil study. This was possible due to the reproductive characteristics of this species. Multiparous ("females producing second and subsequent egg clutches;" Paul and Paul, 1992) female *C. bairdi* store sperm in their spermathecae that remains viable for up to two years. This allows the females to re-inseminate themselves if no males are present during the mating season (Paul, 1984). This may suggest that the genetic material of progeny used in the fresh oil study was identical to that in the weathered oil study. However, because it is possible for females to copulate with more than one male, there may be variations in the genetics of the larvae born from one female from year-to-year (Paul and Paul, 1992). However, since progeny from the same females

were used in both the fresh and weathered oil studies these variations are likely to be less than if larvae from a different set of females were used.

Between the times of the fresh and weathered oil studies, the adult females and hatching larvae were kept in ambient saltwater at the Alaska SeaLife Center in Seward, Alaska. The larvae tested were less than 24 hours old. Prior to and during testing, the tanner crab larvae were fed twice daily with 5 to 10 mL of a solution containing chain-forming diatoms (*Tetraselmis striata, Chaetocerus calcitrans, Chaetocerus gacile, and Thalassiosira pseudonana*) (Qutekcak Shellfish Hatchery, Seward, Alaska).

Larvae of the standard reference species, *Menidia beryllina*, used in this study were obtained from Aquatic Bio Systems, Inc., Ft. Collins, Colorado, the same source as those tested in the fresh oil study. These larvae were handled and cared for using the same protocols employed in the fresh oil tests. Water quality parameters monitored during acclimation periods included the following: temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), conductivity (salinity), and ammonia.

Microtox® Assay

Split samples of weathered oil test solutions were collected from toxicity tests of both species (*C. bairdi* and *M. beryllina*) under both exposure regimes (spiked and continuous), and were analyzed using the Microtox® test system, which is based upon the response (defined as luminescence inhibition) of the bacterium, *Vibrio fischeri*. The same procedures used for the Microtox® Assays used in the fresh oil study were used here in the weathered oil study.

Chemical Analysis

Test solutions were analyzed using Gas Chromatography/ Flame Ionization Detection (GC/FID). Solutions were analyzed for total volatile organic analytes (VOA range defined as C_6-C_9) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH range defined as C_{10}-C_{36}) (Coelho and Aurand, 1997). The summation of these analytes is the total hydrocarbon content (THC: C_6-C_{36}). A list of the minimum target analytes can be found in Table 2-1. Chromatographic measurements of THC were conducted in identical manner as described in Chapter 1, Materials and Methods, Chemical Analysis: Oil Solutions.

Values reported for VOA for both WAF and CE-WAF test solutions are the composite of samples collected from days one through four. TPH values from WAF tests are the measured values from samples collected on day one only. This approach to analyzing WAF solutions for TPH content was employed after verifying that due to the limited solubility of hydrocarbons in the range of C_{10} to C_{36}, TPH content in WAF solutions was consistently low regardless of increased oil loading. For CE-WAF solutions, measured TPH values are from the composite of samples collected from days one through four. TPH samples were composited using an equal volume from each sample collected. For spiked exposure tests, hourly samples were collected to verify that VOA concentrations were declining within the flow-through chambers. Generally, samples from a mid- and high-concentration test solution were collected over the first 24 hours of the test, typically at hours 2, 4, 7, and 12 and were analyzed for VOA content.

Table 2-1. Minimum target analytes for chemical analysis of weathered oil test solutions

Minimum target analyte list for VOA analysis (*C. bairdi* and *M. beryllina*)

Saturates	Unsaturates
2-methylpentane	benzene
hexane	toluene
cyclopentane	ethylbenzene
heptane	m-xylene
2,4 dimethylpentane	p-xylene
cyclohexane	o-xylene
octane	n-propylbenzene
nonane	1,2,4-trimethyl-benzene
	1,3,5-trimethyl-benzene

Minimum target analyte list for TPH analysis (*C. bairdi* and *M. beryllina*)

n-Alkanes:		Aromatic Hydrocarbons:
Decane	C10	Naphthalene
Dodecane	C12	2-methylnaphthalene
Tetradecane	C14	Acenaphthylene
Hexadecane	C16	Acenaphthene
Octadecane	C18	Fluorene
Nonadecane	C19	Fluoranthene
Eicosane	C20	Pyrene
Docosane	C22	
Tetracosane	C24	
Hexacosane	C26	
Octacosane	C28	
Triacontane	C30	
Hexatriacontane	C36	

Toxicity Analysis

Median-effect concentrations of weathered oil solutions were determined for each species. For *M. beryllina*, LC_{50} (lethal concentration to 50 percent of the population) values of the test solutions were determined. For *C. bairdi*, these values were calculated as the effective concentration to 50 percent of the population (EC_{50}) since lethal effects were rarely observed. Toxicity test protocols (*e.g.*, spiked and continuous exposure; animal handling) and criteria (*e.g.*, sub-lethal or lethal) used to determine toxic effects in this study are identical to those used in the fresh oil study.

Statistical Analysis

In the same manner as was done in the fresh oil study, three replicate exposure chambers were used in each test to assess the variation within and among test species. The median-effect concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50}) were calculated in the same manner as the fresh oil study described in Chapter 1. As with the fresh oil study, tests with 20% effect or less in the controls were considered acceptable (Singer *et al.*, 1998; Markarian *et al.*, 1995).

RESULTS

General Test Conditions

Temperature, salinity, pH, and dissolved oxygen (DO) remained within acceptable limits during the tests (Table 2-2). Oxygen concentrations in test solutions were above

Table 2-2. Summary of water quality parameters measured for weathered oil toxicity tests

Test Species		pH	Salinity (ppt)	Temp. (°C)	D.O. (mg/L)
C. bairdi	Mean	8.35	31.48	6.91	8.90
	Std. Dev.	0.09	0.17	0.77	0.21
	n	60	60	60	60
	Maximum	8.46	31.90	9.70	9.54
	Minimum	8.01	31.10	5.90	8.31
M. beryllina	Mean	7.86	20.32	25.15	6.13
	Std. Dev.	0.10	0.41	0.45	0.66
	n	59	59	59	59
	Maximum	8.01	21.69	26.00	7.20
	Minimum	7.63	19.11	24.00	4.70

60% saturation at all times; pH remained within a range of 6 to 9. Temperatures and salinity for all tests were maintained according to test protocols (25°C ± 1°C and 20‰ ± 10% for *M. beryllina*; ambient conditions: 7°C ± 1°C and 31.5‰ ± 10% for *C. bairdi*) with little variability.

Oil Solutions

In the weathered oil test solutions (WAF and CE-WAF), the total hydrocarbon content (THC, C_6-C_{36}) was measured and observed to generally increase with increased oil loading (Figures 2-1a and 2-1b). In water-accommodated fractions (WAF), however, the volatile organic analyte group (VOA, C_6-C_9) increased some and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH, C_{10}-C_{36}) increased only slightly, if at all, despite the wide range of oil loading rates (500 to 10,000 mg/L) used to prepare these solutions. In chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions (CE-WAFs), TPH concentrations were observed to increase at a rate significantly (t-test; $P < 0.05$) higher than VOA concentrations with increased oil loadings. In CE-WAF solutions, concentrations of TPH were greater than VOA for all oil loadings used. By the addition of dispersants, TPH concentrations were greater in CE-WAF solutions than in WAF solutions for any given oil-loading rate.

A linear relationship of oil loading rates to resultant VOA and TPH concentrations showed good correlation for all CE-WAF solutions ($r^2 \geq 0.93$), and less so for WAF VOA components ($r^2 \geq 0.68$). TPH components of WAF solutions were poorly correlated linearly ($0.01 < r^2 < 0.16$). A closer inspection of WAF VOA and TPH

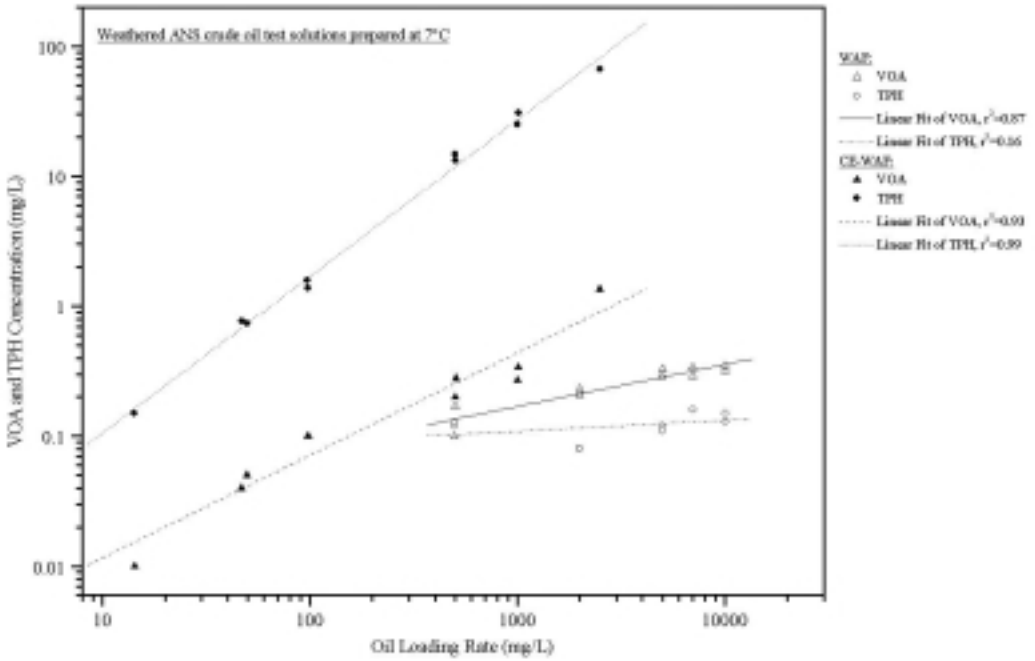

Fig 2-1a. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *C. habenfl* in 7°C saltwater

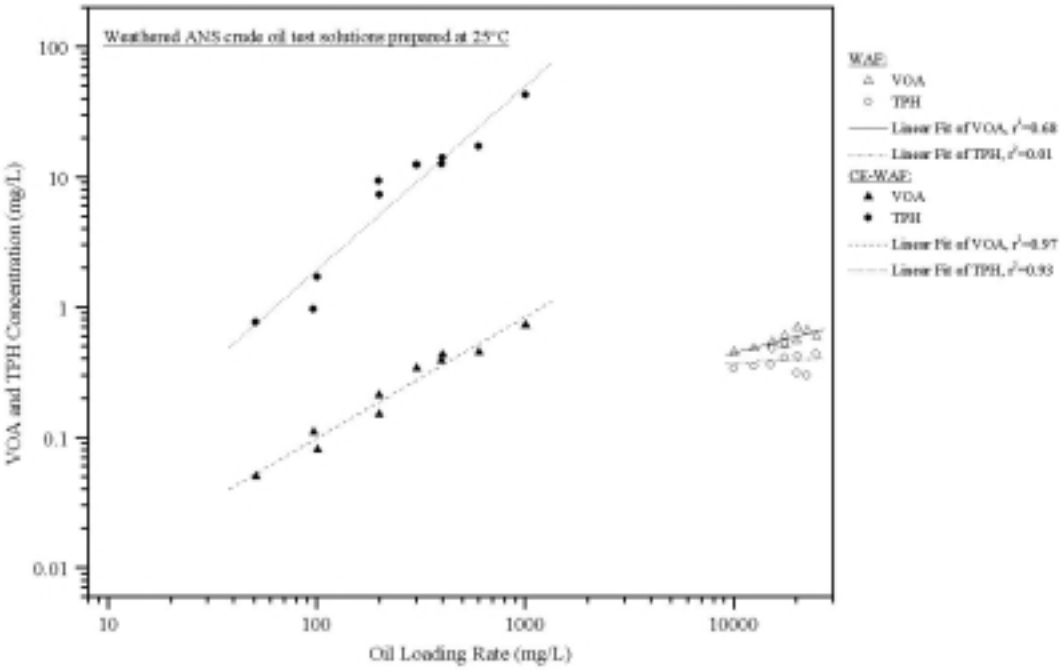

Fig 2-1b. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. beryllina* in 25°C saltwater

concentrations suggests these solutions reach a quasi-saturation state. For solutions prepared for *M. beryllina* (25°C and 20‰), this occurred at an oil loading rate of 20,000 mg/L for VOA, and 10,000 for TPH. Similarly, for *C. bairdi* (6°C and 31.5‰), a quasi-saturation of solutions was observed at a loading rate of 5,000 mg/L for VOA components and less than 1,250 mg/L for TPH components (Figures 2-2a and 2-2b). At loading rates higher that those mentioned above, concentrations of THC increase very slowly if at all.

Following the artificial weathering process, with temperatures topped off at 200°C, the weight of residual oil was on average 70.4 percent (SD = 0.009, N = 5) of the un-weathered (*i.e.*, fresh) ANS. This suggests that 29.6 percent by weight of the fresh oil is comprised of compounds with a boiling point of 200°C or less. These results are consistent with the understanding that fresh ANS is approximately one-third by weight volatiles (components with boiling points 204 to 274°C or less; pers. comm., Mead, 1997).

Analysis of concentration-decline in spiked exposure tests indicated that solution VOA concentrations generally follow a trend of first order exponential decay, stabilizing between the sixth and ninth hour of the 96-hour test (Figures 2-3a and 2-3b) similar to observations in the fresh oil study. In samples from WAF and CE-WAF tests analyzed for VOA content, concentrations measured for the twelfth hour were no greater than 0.02 mg/L.

The average resulting concentrations of weathered WAF and CE-WAF solutions are presented in Table 2-3. As expected, the VOA content in weathered oil solutions was

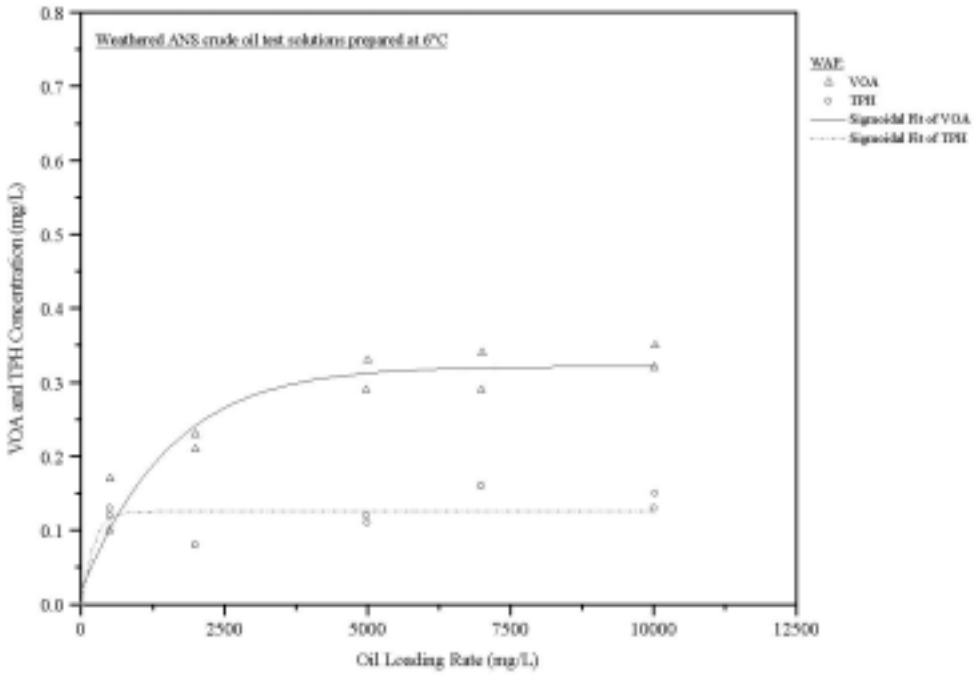

Fig 2-2a. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in weathered ANS WAF and CEI-WAF test solutions for *C. halrdi* in 6°C saltwater - linear scale

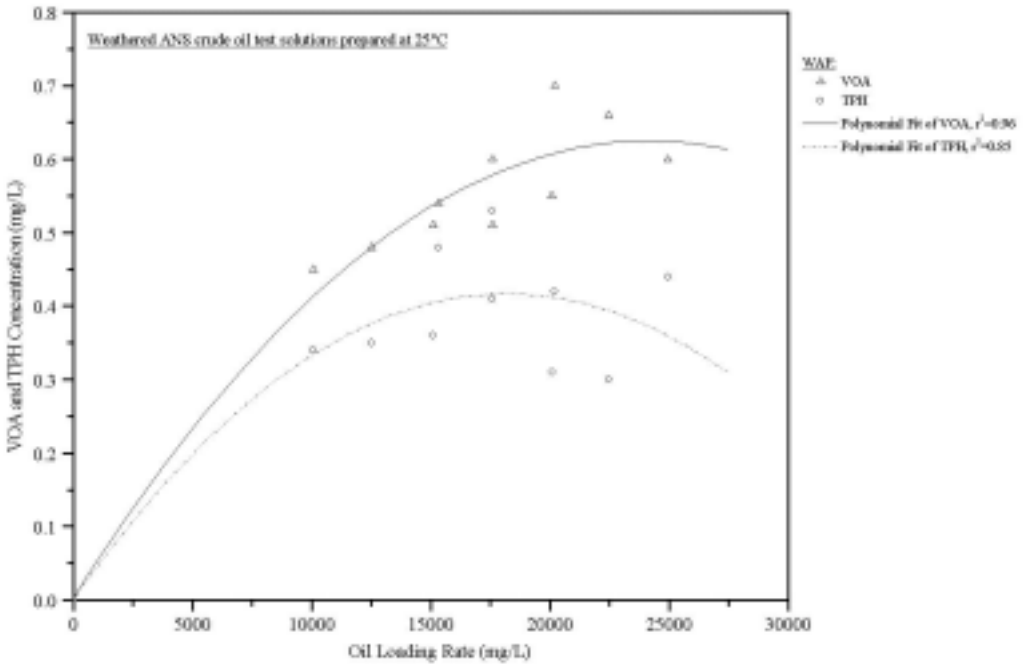

Fig 2-2b. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. beryllina* in 6°C saltwater - linear scale

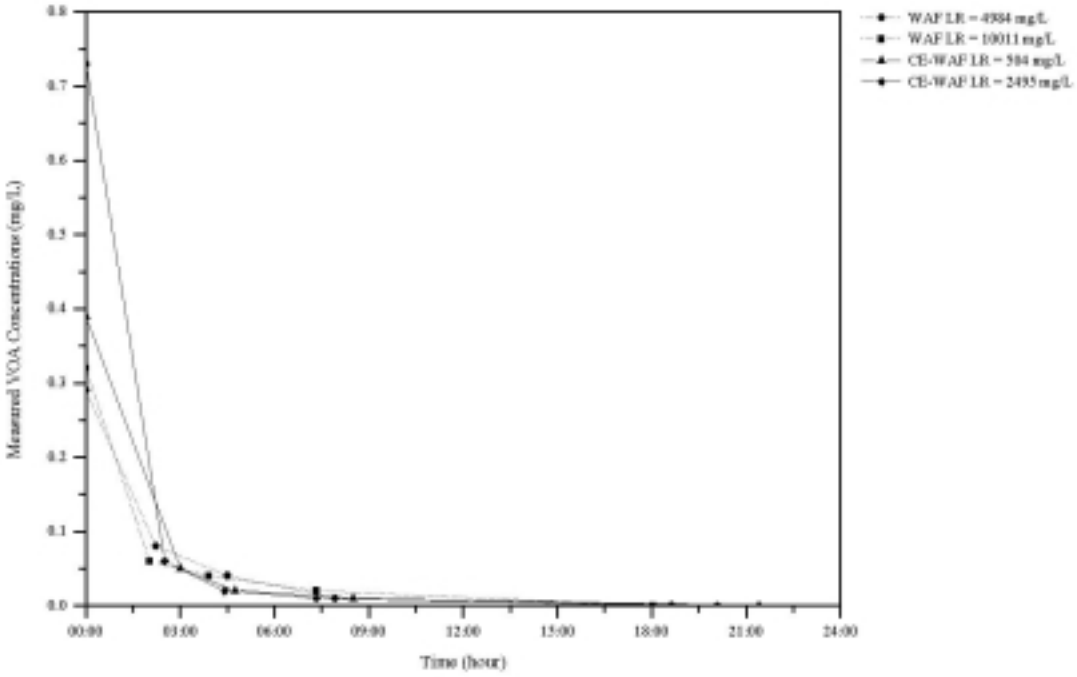

Fig. 2-3a. Concentration decline in spiked exposure tests of weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions of different loading rates (LR) for *C. bairdi*

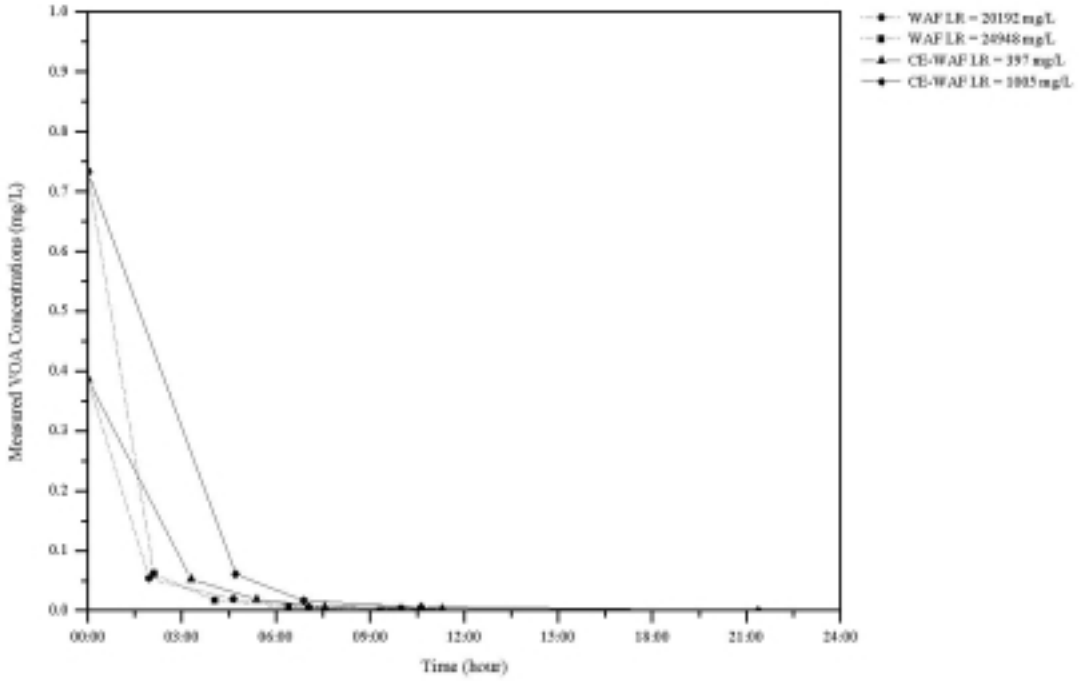

Fig. 2-3b. Concentration decline in spiked exposure tests of weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions of different loading rates (LR) for *M. beryllina*

Table 2-3. Mean concentrations of hydrocarbons measured in WAF and CE-WAF solutions

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) Hydrocarbon Conc. (mg/L)							
		WAF	SE	n	% THC	CE-WAF	SE	n	% THC
VOA	Weathered ANS	0.53	0.04	14	60.2	0.55	0.11	13	1.9
TPH	Weathered ANS	0.35	0.04	14	39.8	28	5.7	13	98.1
THC	Weathered ANS	0.88	0.08	14	-	28	5.8	13	-

n = number of samples

considerably less than those made from fresh, with average concentrations of 0.53 and 0.55 mg/L for WAF and CE-WAF, respectively. Similar to fresh oil solutions, with the addition of dispersant, weathered CE-WAF solutions were considerable more concentrated with TPH than WAF with an average of 28 versus 0.35 mg/L. Proportionally, weathered WAF solutions were comprised of 60.2 percent VOA and 39.8 percent TPH, and for weathered CE-WAF, 1.9 percent VOA and 98.1 percent TPH solutions.

Chionocetes bairdi Tests

In both spiked and continuous exposure tests, dose-response relationships were approximately sigmoidal for both WAF and CE-WAF test solutions (Figures 2-4a and 2-4b). The range of loading rates for dispersant and fresh oil tests and their respective measured concentrations for spiked and continuous exposure regimes are summarized in Table 2-4. Solutions for continuous exposure CE-WAF tests were generally prepared using 2.5 to 3.4 times less test material (weathered ANS crude oil) than solutions prepared for spiked exposure tests; whereas for WAF solutions, identical oil loading rates were used in each exposure regime. WAF solutions were prepared using 10 to 36 times more weathered crude oil than CE-WAF solutions tested. The resulting THC concentrations from WAF and CE-WAF solutions were very different. A high WAF oil loading rate of 10,030 mg/L resulted in a concentration of only 0.51 mg/L THC. But a high CE-WAF oil loading rate of 1011, approximately 10 times less initial material than

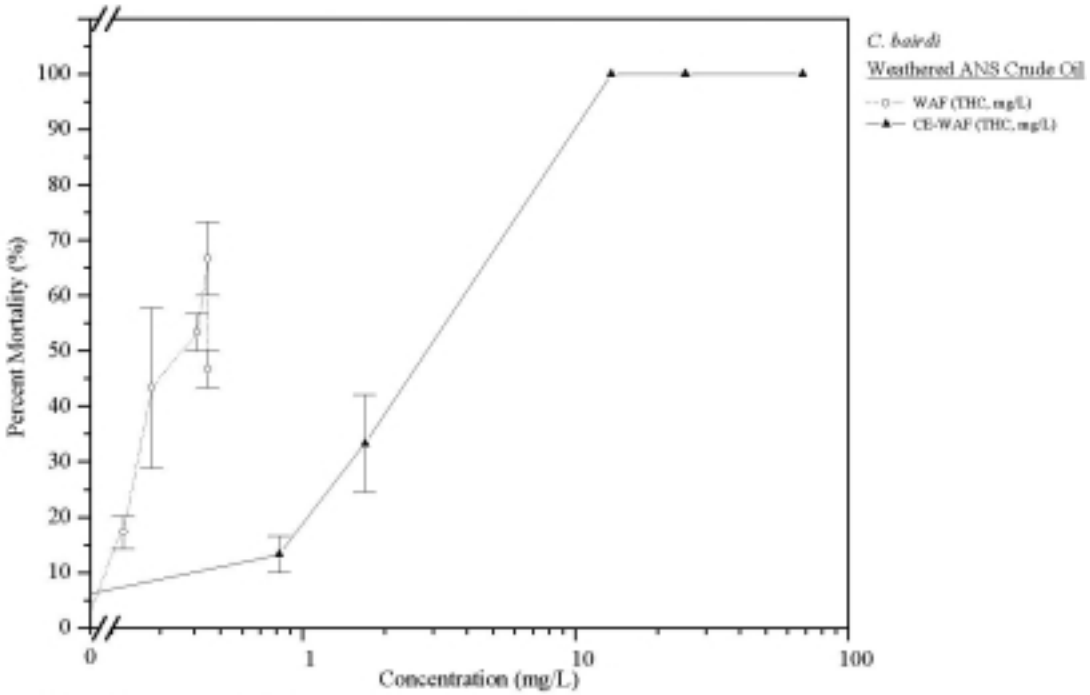

Fig. 2-4a. Dose-response relationships for *C. bairdi* to weathered ANS spiked exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3).

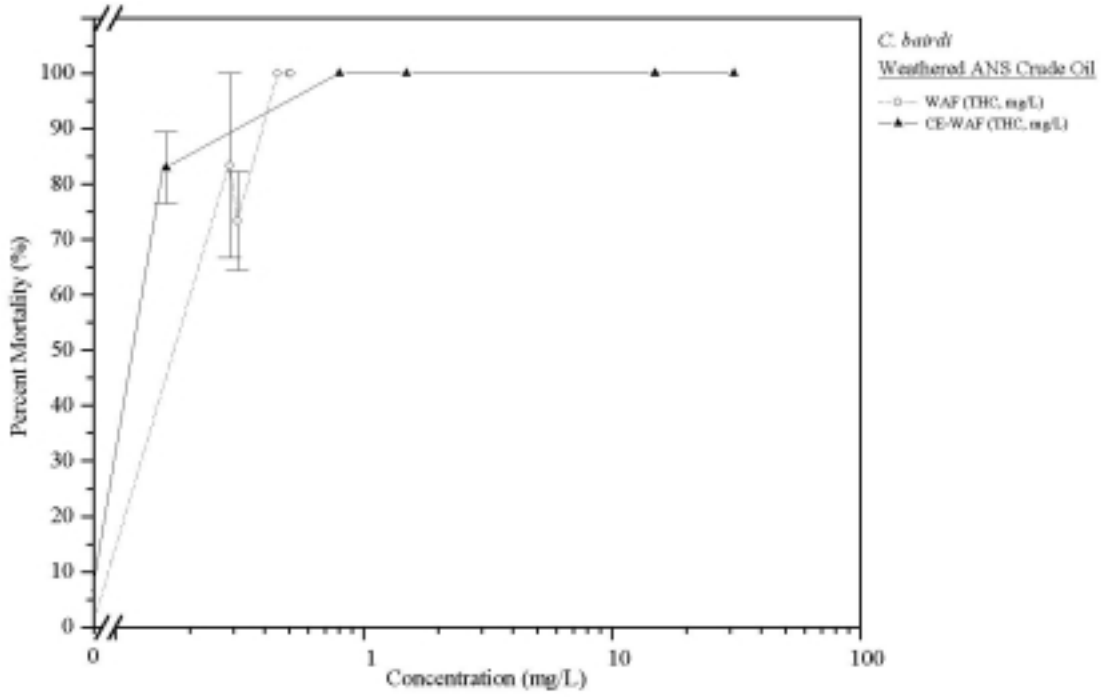

Fig. 2-4b. Dose-response relationships for *C. bairdi* to weathered ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3).

Table 2-4. Summary of the ranges of weathered ANS crude oil loading rates (mg/L) and respective measured THC (C6-C36) concentrations (mg/L) used in spiked and continuous exposure tests

Test Solution	Exposure Regime	Range	*C. bairdi* Loading Rate	*C. bairdi* Measured THC	*M. beryllina* Loading Rate	*M. beryllina* Measured THC
WAF	Spiked	Low	500	0.22	15300	1.02
		High	10010	0.45	25000	1.04
	Continuous	Low	500	0.29	10100	0.79
		High	10030	0.51	20100	0.86
CE-WAF	Spiked	Low	50	0.82	100	1.07
		High	2500	68.1	1000	43.2
	Continuous	Low	10	0.16	50	0.81
		High	1010	31.1	400	14.5

was used in the WAF solution, resulted in a concentration of 31.06 mg/L THC, over 60 times the concentration in the WAF solution (Table 2-4).

Median-effect concentrations are presented in Table 2-5. EC_{50} estimates for WAFs of weathered ANS crude oil were 0.40 and 0.27 mg/L for spiked and continuous exposures, respectively. For CE-WAFs of weathered ANS crude oil, the estimated EC_{50} for spiked exposure was 2.36 mg/L and was 0.36 mg/L for continuous exposure. Only one partial effect at a high percentage (83%) was observed in the continuous exposure CE-WAF test; this prevented assumptions necessary for use of Probit and Trimmed Spearman-Karber analyses to be satisfied. Consequently, the median-effect concentration for the CE-WAF continuous exposure test was estimated using graphical analysis.

Qualitative, temporal observations are not available for *C. bairdi*, since evaluating the response of this species required close observations that could not be made during the assay.

Menidia beryllina Tests

Oil loading rates for spiked exposures of weathered ANS crude oil ranged from 1.2 to 2.5 times greater than those used in continuous exposure tests (Table 2-4). WAFs of weathered ANS crude oil were prepared using 158 to 238 times more test crude oil than in CE-WAFs for spiked exposure tests, and 50 to 197 times more for continuous exposure tests. Similar to weathered oil solutions prepared for *C. bairdi* tests, the resulting THC concentrations are much greater for chemically treated oil solutions than

Table 2-5. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentration (mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for WAF and CE-WAF weathered oil tests

	Weathered ANS Crude Oil			
	C. bairdi EC50 Values		*M. beryllina LC50 Values*	
Test Solution	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure
WAF*	0.40† (0.33, 0.51)	0.27† (0.24, 0.28)	>1.13**	0.79† (0.32, 0.83)
CE-WAF*	2.36† (1.66, 6.66)	0.36‡ ‡	18.89† (15.78, 24.71)	0.65† (0.10, 1.25)

Notes:

* WAF and CE-WAF values based on total hydrocarbon content (THC) in mg/L

** Highest concentration tested had a 24,948 mg/L loading rate

Statistical Methods Used:

† Probit analysis

‡ ‡ Graphical method, 95% confidence limits not available (Webber, 1993)

untreated solutions. For an oil loading rate of 10,058 mg/L in a WAF solution, the resulting THC concentration was 0.79 mg/L. Comparatively, a 1005 mg/L oil loading rate in a CE-WAF solution, approximately 10 times less initial oil, resulted in a solution over 40 times more concentrated than the WAF at 43.23 mg/L (Table 2-4).

Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* tests using of weathered ANS WAF solution were often not monotonically increasing with increasing concentration. This is likely due to the limited ability of weathered crude oil to form soluble (or accommodated) fractions. Also, chemical analysis results occasionally indicated that measured concentrations of total hydrocarbons in solution were lower than those measured in solutions prepared with less initial crude oil. This, in addition to the variability of the response of *M. beryllina* to the test solutions, contributes to the shape of these curves (Figures 2-5a and 2-5b). The dose-response relationships for both spiked and continuous exposures to CE-WAFs of weathered ANS crude oil are approximately sigmoidal.

Assumptions necessary to estimate median-lethal concentrations using Probit analysis were satisfied in all but one of the four tests. Under spiked exposure for WAF test solutions, the estimated LC_{50} for *M. beryllina* was >1.13, and 0.79 mg/L for continuous exposure (Table 2-5). An estimated LC_{50} could not calculated for the WAF test since the highest percent mortality observed in the test was 20% at a measured THC of 1.13 mg/L from the highest oil loading of 24,948 mg/L. Estimated LC_{50} values for CE-WAF spiked exposure was 18.89 mg/L, and 0.65 mg/L for continuous exposure. Non-overlapping fiducial limits for median-lethal concentrations of weathered ANS CE-WAF spiked and continuous exposures tests suggest that these values are significantly different. Because

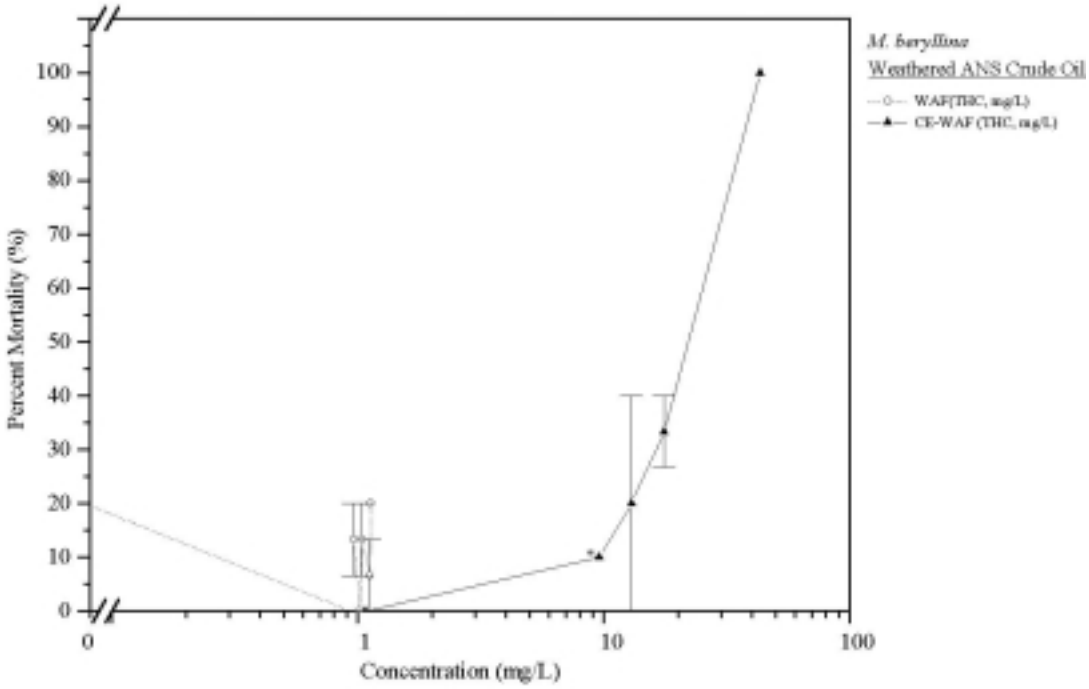

Fig. 2-5a. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to weathered ANS spiked exposure tests.
Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3, except where noted by "*" where SE could not be calculated).

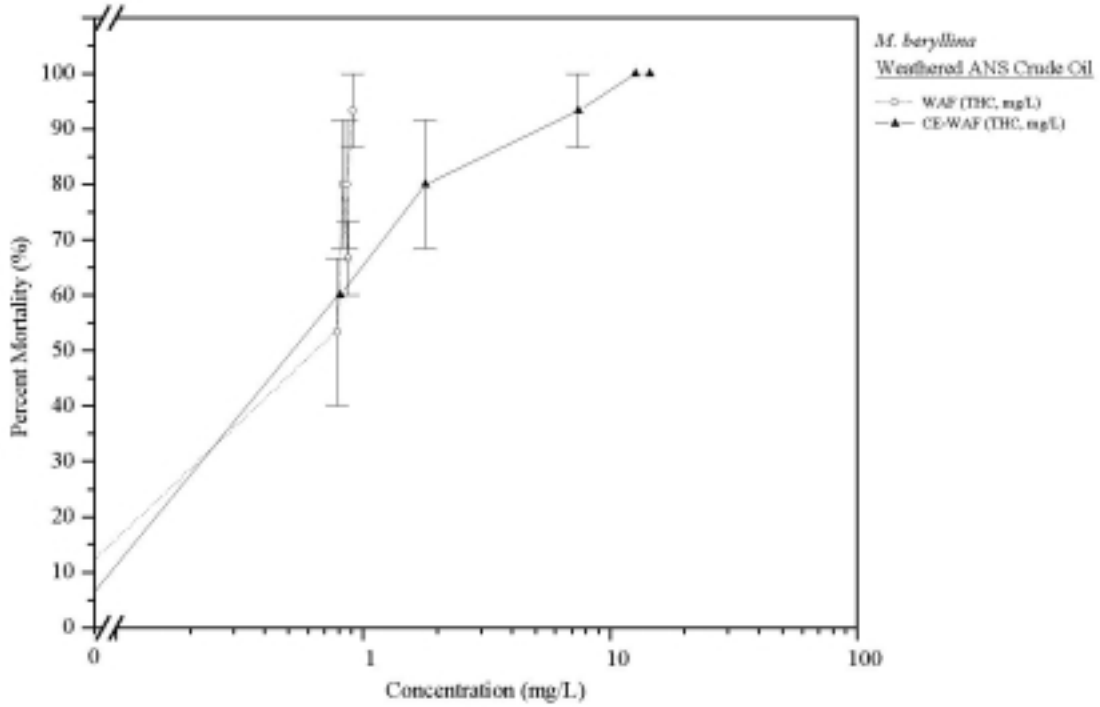

Fig. 2-5b. Dose-response relationships for *M. beryllina* to weathered ANS continuous exposure tests. Symbols are mean ± SE for each concentration (n = 3).

fiducial limits were not available for the WAF spiked exposure test, comparisons of LC_{50} values for spiked and continuous exposures of WAF test solutions, and between spiked exposures of WAF and CE-WAF tests are not possible. However, overlapping limits of LC_{50} values for continuous exposure WAF and CE-WAF tests suggest these values are not significantly different.

Qualitative estimates of temporal median-lethal concentrations at hours 24, 48, 72, and 96 of the 96-hour tests based upon the weathered oil loading rates used for solution preparation are presented in Table 2-6. The response of *M. beryllina* to spiked exposures of WAF and CE-WAF solutions stabilized within the first 24 hours of the 96-hour test. However under continuous exposure, *M. beryllina* experience an increase in mortality over the duration of the test. Where assumptions necessary to calculate an estimated median-lethal concentration were not satisfied, these values are reported as a greater-than number.

Microtox® Assay

Mean 5-minute EC_{50} values obtained by the Microtox® system were calculated by pooling all data available (from analysis samples collected from tests using *C. bairdi* and *M. beryllina* from both static and flow through experiments) for a particular oil (Table 2-7). The data from all individual tests used to calculate the mean EC_{50} values are found in the Appendix J. Mean EC_{50} values (Table 2-7) were standardized to all manners of concentration characterization (measured volatile organic analysis (VOA), total

Table 2-6. Daily median-lethal loading (LL50,mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for M. beryllina weathered ANS crude oil WAF and CE-WAF spiked and continuous exposure tests

	Weathered ANS Crude Oil Spiked Exposure				Weathered ANS Crude Oil Continuous Exposure			
	Observation time (hr)				Observation time (hr)			
Test Solution	24	48	72	96	24	48	72	96
WAF*	>24948	>24948	>24948	>24948	>20077	>20077	13366 (N/A)**	9512 (N/A)**
CE-WAF*	555.15 (450, 684)	555.15 (450, 684)	555.15 (450, 684)	555.15 (450, 684)	239.49 (198, 289)	165 (129, 204)	78 (40, 112)	47 (14, 72)

* WAF and CE-WAF values based on oil loading rate in mg/L

**Not available

Table 2-7. Mean 5-minute EC50 values obtained by the Microtox Toxicity Assay. Values were calculated based on measured hydrocarbon fractions and on total oil added (loading rates)

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) EC50 (mg/L)*					
		WAF	SE	n	CE-WAF	SE	n
VOA	Weathered ANS	0.22	0.01	14	0.12	0.02	13
TPH	Weathered ANS	0.15	0.02	14	5.9	1.0	13
THC	Weathered ANS	0.37	0.03	14	6.0	1.1	13
Loading Rates	Weathered ANS	6400	570	18	180	39	15

n = number of tests

* For each oil type and a given hydrocarbon fraction used to standardize the data, the EC50 value for WAF was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from that for CE-WAF

petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH), total hydrocarbon content (THC; defined as VOA + TPH), or loading rates). No matter what fraction was used to standardize the data, for any given oil type, EC_{50} values for WAF and CE-WAF were always significantly (t-test; $P < 0.05$). When the data were standardized to VOA or to loading rates, CE-WAF solutions were calculated to be more toxic than WAF solutions. When standardized to TPH or THC the opposite trend was seen; WAF was more toxic.

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Test Solutions

When the toxicity data were standardized to loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values; denoted as: LL_{50}/EL_{50}), CE-WAF solutions were more toxic than WAF solutions in all cases (n = 5 out of N = 5; where 1 of the 5 did not have fiducial limits to test significance). In contrast, when the toxicity data were standardized to measured concentrations of THC (LC_{50} or EC_{50} values; denoted as: LC_{50}/EC_{50}), WAF solutions were more toxic than CE-WAF (n = 4 out of N = 5; note; 1 of the 4 cases cannot be tested for significant difference due to absence of fiducial limits for the greater-than toxicity value). The fact that two conflicting results can be drawn from the same data set as a result of the method of calculation for the toxicity values is confounding. Two possible interpretations exist for these data: 1) WAF is more toxic than CE-WAF according to LC_{50}/EC_{50} values; or 2) CE-WAF is more toxic than WAF according to the LL_{50}/EL_{50}.

For toxicity values calculated using only fractional groups of hydrocarbons in solution (*e.g.*, TPH or VOA), similar contradictory results concerning which test solutions is more toxic can be observed. To illustrate this, toxicity values were calculated for *V. fischeri*

based upon the hydrocarbons groups of VOA, TPH, and THC (Table 2-7). From the Microtox® Assays for *V. fischeri*, weathered CE-WAF solutions were most toxic when standardized either VOA or THC fractions. However, when standardized to TPH, weathered WAF solutions were most toxic. This same observation was made for solutions made from fresh oil when the toxicity data was standardized to individual hydrocarbon groups; WAF solutions appeared more toxic when comparisons were made using the TPH fraction only. The results appear to be directly related to the solubility of the test material and the manner in which the data are presented (*e.g.,* TPH or THC; THC or loading rate).

Dispersant-only solutions, determined in the fresh oil study, were less toxic than the weathered oil solutions (WAF and CE-WAF) in all but two cases (n = 6 out of N = 8; with all 4 relationships being significant). Those cases were for *V. fischeri* and *M. beryllina* spiked exposure, where according to EL_{50}, dispersant-only solutions were more toxic than weathered WAF (both relationships were significant).

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Species Sensitivities

All three species (*C. bairdi, M. beryllina,* and *V. fischeri*) were either more or less sensitive to dispersed weathered oil solutions depending upon the manner in which the solution concentrations were portrayed, as measured concentrations or loading rates. For every species tested, when comparisons are made using toxicity values based upon LC_{50}/EC_{50} values, weathered WAF is more toxic than the CE-WAF. Conversely,

according to LL_{50}/EL_{50} values, weathered CE-WAF is more toxic than WAF to all species.

According to both LC_{50}/EC_{50} and LL_{50}/EL_{50} values, *M. beryllina* was always the least sensitive species of those tested (n = 8 out of N = 8; where 3 of the 8 did not have fiducial limits to test significance). *C. bairdi* was consistently the most sensitive species (n = 7 out of N = 8; where 2 of the 8 were without fiducial limits). *V. fischeri*, therefore, was moderately sensitive compared to *M. beryllina* and *C. bairdi*. Similar trends were observed in the fresh oil study, in which *M. beryllina* was least sensitive and *C. bairdi* the most.

DISCUSSION

Data Evaluation

To properly interpret the toxicity data, differences in end-points (*i.e.*, lethal vs. sub-lethal) and test solution preparation methods (*i.e.*, CE-WAF and WAF) should be considered. Discussion of these topics in Chapter 1 of the fresh oil study also apply here to the weathered oil study.

Oil Solutions

As in the fresh oil study, oil solutions (WAF and CE-WAF) were prepared with different oil loadings in order to produce results that either bracketed or caused at minimum a 50 percent effect by the test species. Solutions prepared with dispersant added (CE-WAF) required substantially less oil (4 to 170 times less) than those without

(WAF) to produce solutions with similarly effective hydrocarbon concentrations (Figures 2-1a and 2-1b). However, for equivalent oil loading rates, CE-WAF solutions were substantially more concentrated in both TPH and VOA components (*e.g.*, see Figure 2-1a oil loading rate 500 mg/L). For example, from the *C. bairdi* tests, a WAF solution prepared at 496 mg/L oil loading resulted in a total hydrocarbon content (THC, C_6-C_{36}) concentration of 0.22 mg/L; whereas, at a similar oil loading of 504 mg/L for a CE-WAF, the resulting THC concentration was 13.5 mg/L (see Appendix G). On average, over 60 times the hydrocarbons went into solution in the CE-WAF than WAF as a result of dispersant addition (*e.g.*, see data in Table 2-3; 0.35 mg/L vs. 28 mg/L).

Weathering of ANS crude oil resulted in a reduction of approximately 30 percent by weight through loss of volatiles, components with boiling points 204 to 274°C or less, which constitute approximately one-third by weight of the crude oil (pers. comm., Mead, 1997). Compounds that make up the VOA fraction possess a greater propensity to dissolve in water than TPH, and have boiling points generally less than 200°C. Therefore, that portion of crude oil which was most likely to form soluble fractions with aqueous media (VOA) has now been removed from the system through the weathering process. As expected, measured concentrations of VOA in weathered WAF were considerably lower compared to fresh WAF (*e.g.*, VOA from an approximate loading rate of 500 was 0.10 mg/L for weathered and approximately 15 mg/L for fresh). Because TPH compounds are of inherently low-solubility, this hydrocarbon fraction has limited interaction with aqueous media. As a result, the concentration of TPH in WAF solutions is relatively low. Additionally, TPH exhibits an apparent saturation occurring at low oil

loading rates (1250 ppm), and is typically unaffected by increases in oil loadings. Similar trends in TPH were observed in fresh WAF solutions, suggesting that the weathering process had little effect on the nature of TPH interactions with saltwater. Weathered WAF solutions are therefore low in THC (VOA + TPH) concentration for two reasons: 1) the more soluble fraction of crude oil (*i.e.,* VOA) has been removed from the system in the weathering process and is no longer available to form water soluble fractions; and 2) the inherent low solubility of TPH compounds limits the ability of this fraction to interact with aqueous media to form water soluble fractions.

In all solutions, temperature had a significant (t-test; $P < 0.05$) effect on the rates of inclusion (*i.e.,* the degree of increase in measured concentration in solution per increase in loading rate; slope of the line). These rates were significantly greater in warmer saltwater for all solution components (*i.e.,* WAF-VOA, CE-WAF-VOA, and CE-WAF-TPH) except for one. That exception being the TPH components in WAF solutions, where these were greater in solutions at colder temperatures (7°C). Although the rate of TPH solution was greater in WAF solutions of cold waters than in warm, inspection of Figures 2-1a through 2-2b reveal warm waters were slightly more concentrated with TPH, even so, TPH in both WAF solutions were low. Additionally, the range of loading rates tested for weathered WAF solutions were very different for 25°C and 7°C. Had these loading rates overlapped, results of concentrations with respect to temperature and salinity may be different, altering interpretations of these results. By inspection of Figures 2-1a and 2-1b, the linear relationships for concentrations of all components were generally greater in the warmer solutions than in colder. This in addition to significantly

greater rates of inclusion in warmer solutions may be a result of reduced viscosity of the compounds remaining in the weathered ANS crude oil, including those in the VOA range enhancing their solubility to some degree (McDonald *et al.*, 1977).

Mean measured hydrocarbon concentrations for WAF and CE-WAF are presented in Table 2-3. In WAF solutions, VOA compounds remaining after the weathering process contributed on average 60.2 percent of the total hydrocarbon content, reflecting the greater solubility than that of TPH. As expected with the addition of dispersant, the proportion of TPH in solution increased substantially. CE-WAF solutions contained 98 percent TPH, compared to the 39.8 percent in WAF. This implies that the dispersant acted as designed, enhancing solubility of inherently low-soluble hydrocarbons (Singer *et al.*, 1998). Corexit 9500 is designed to treat more viscous oils (Nalco/Exxon Energy Chemicals, L.P, 1997). The removal of VOA by the weathering process can be seen in its low presence in CE-WAF solution (2%). TPH was always more concentrated than VOA in CE-WAF solutions. These observations may indicate the following: 1) by weathering crude oil – removing the inherently soluble fraction, resulting WAF solutions are of low THC concentration; 2) dispersant addition has a greater effect on the rates of incorporation of low-solubility chemicals than those naturally of higher solubility; and 3) since VOA are primarily removed from the parent weathered crude oil, dispersant addition results in solutions more concentrated in TPH than VOA for all oil loadings.

Overall, as was with fresh oil solutions, the relationships between oil loading rates and the resulting hydrocarbon concentrations in solution for weathered oil were dependent upon: 1) the composition and chemical and physical characteristics of the parent oil, 2)

conditions under which solutions were prepared (*e.g.*, mixing energy, temperature, etc.), and 3) whether the oil was treated with dispersant or not.

Toxicity Basis

The same discussion covered in Chapter 1 for fresh oils concerning the form in which toxicity values are presented also applies here, and is perhaps more relevant. To understand how the hydrocarbon fraction that is selected to calculate the toxicity data affects interpretation of the data, mean hydrocarbon chemistry data collected for the solutions used in the toxicity tests (Table 2-3) is summarized. As expected, weathered oil is depleted in VOA. Measured TPH values are low for all WAF solutions, but the addition of dispersant in the CE-WAF solutions substantially increases the concentrations of measured TPH. THC concentrations are dominated by whichever fraction is higher (VOA or TPH). When concentrations of a specific fraction are much less for WAF than CE-WAF solutions (*e.g.*, see TPH data), then WAF solutions appear to be significantly more toxic.

Since the median-effect concentration (MEC) values are calculated based upon the value used to characterize the solution concentration, a small number for concentration will result in calculation of a small MEC value. A small toxicity value indicates high toxicity. However, as was seen in the fresh oil study, omission of a hydrocarbon fraction may erroneously overlook an important, even dominant, contributor to toxicity – unless the toxicity is attributed to some unmeasured parameter. For example, when the data are based upon the TPH fraction only, WAF solutions appear to be quite toxic. Preferably,

these values should be calculated based on the total hydrocarbon content (THC) so as to avoid erroneously omitting a fraction of the hydrocarbons that may be the dominant group contributing to the toxic effect. Therefore, along with the toxicity value, the fraction to which it was standardized should be reported as well.

When the toxicity data are based upon the loading rate required to produce a response by 50 percent of the population, WAF solutions are least toxic (Table 2-8). The values in this table are based upon the measured total hydrocarbon content (LC_{50} by THC) and the loading rate (LL_{50}). Interpretation of these data lead to conclusions that are exactly opposite. By LC_{50}, weathered WAF solutions are more toxic than CE-WAF, but by LL_{50}, CE-WAF solutions are more toxic. Similar observations were made by Bobra and others (1982) in which weathering of crude oil produces aqueous WAF solutions that are more toxic in the sense of having lower LC_{50} values, but the weathered WAF solutions are apparently saturated at very low hydrocarbon concentrations compared to CE-WAF solutions. Therefore, under these solution preparation conditions, these saturated solutions are essentially non-toxic, since above the level of saturation no additional material goes into solution.

However, 50 percent of the organisms tested elicited a response to weathered WAF solutions, with the exception of *M. beryllina*, suggesting that factors other than those measured may contribute to the organisms' response. For example, weathering crude oil may alter some physical parameters (*e.g.*, increasing viscosity) of the accommodated fractions that were not measured. Alternatively, at the higher oil loadings required to

Table 2-8. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentration estimates (mg/L) based on measured concentrations and oil loading rates (95% confidence limits)

		Weathered ANS			
		WAF		CE-WAF	
Species	Exposure type	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50
C. bairdi†	Spiked	0.40 (0.33, 0.51)	4485 (2216, 10248)	2.36 (1.66, 6.66)	128 (96, 426)
	Continuous	0.27 (0.24, 0.28)	149 (N/A)	0.37 (N/A)	6.44 (N/A)
M. beryllina	Spiked	> 1.13 (N/A)	> 24948 (N/A)	18.89 (15.78, 24.71)	555 (450, 684)
	Continuous	0.79 (0.32, 0.83)	9512 (N/A)	0.65 (0.10, 1.25)	47 (14, 72)
Vibrio fischeri†	N/A	0.37 +/- 0.03	6400 +/- 570	6.00 +/- 1.1	180 +/- 39

† Measured Conc. as EC50, Loading Rate as EL50, both in mg/L

* Not tested

produce an effect by 50 percent of the population, a greater number of oil particulates may be present in solution, causing the response to be more of a physical nature rather than a chemical nature.

Because opposite or conflicting conclusions can be drawn from toxicity data based upon either measured concentrations or oil loadings, concurrent use of the two forms, LC_{50} and LL_{50}, is preferred. Together they can provide more comprehensive information concerning toxicity of these solutions, incorporating both physical and chemical characteristics influencing the test solutions' formation and the solutions themselves. Opposite conclusions from the LC_{50} and LL_{50} about which solution is more toxic (or which organism more sensitive) may be indicative that other factors about the test solution besides measured concentrations (*e.g.*, solubility) should be considered when the toxicity of a material is evaluated.

Toxicity

As was observed in the fresh oil study, responses to test solutions were always greater under continuous exposure than under spiked, declining exposures. Discussion covering the subject of spiked versus continuous exposures for the fresh oil study in Chapter 1 is applicable here, but is not re-stated.

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Test Solution Toxicities

Comparisons are made here using toxicity values calculated based on measured concentrations of test solutions (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) and loading rates used to prepare

the solutions (LL_{50} and EL_{50}). When results from such comparisons agree, then arriving at a conclusion about which solution is more toxic is simpler, as was demonstrated with results from the fresh oil study. Results from this study of weathered oil toxicity; however, are not as straightforward. Two possibilities exist for weathered oil: 1) WAF is more toxic than CE-WAF according to measured THC concentrations in solution; 2) CE-WAF is more toxic than WAF according to the amount of product required to produce effective solutions (*i.e.,* those which result in a minimum of 50 percent response by the test organisms).

The same situation exists when comparisons are made between measured concentrations of fractional hydrocarbon groups in solution. For toxicity values calculated using only fractional groups of hydrocarbons in solution (*e.g.,* TPH or VOA), similar contradictory results concerning which test solutions is more toxic can also be observed here. When standardized to VOA, non-dispersed weathered oil (WAF) is less toxic than dispersed weathered oil as CE-WAF. The converse is true when standardized to TPH, dispersed weathered oil is less toxic. From the Microtox® Assays for *V. fischeri*, weathered CE-WAF solutions were most toxic when standardized either to VOA or THC fractions. However, when standardized to TPH, weathered WAF solutions were most toxic. This same observation was made for solutions made from fresh oil when the toxicity data was standardized to individual hydrocarbon groups; WAF solutions appeared more toxic when compared using the TPH fraction only. The results appear to be directly related to the solubility of the test material and the manner in which the data are presented (*e.g.,* TPH or THC; THC or loading rate).

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Species Sensitivities

The same conflicting interpretations as were seen above for which test solution is more toxic (weathered WAF or CE-WAF solutions) are observed when making comparisons of species sensitivity using the toxicity data. All three species tested (*C. bairdi, M. beryllina,* and *V. fischeri*) were either more or less sensitive to dispersed weathered oil solutions depending upon the manner in which the solution concentrations were portrayed, as measured concentrations or loading rates. When comparisons are made using toxicity values based upon measured concentrations, weathered WAF is more toxic than the CE-WAF; conversely, according to toxicity values calculated using loading rates, weathered CE-WAF is more toxic than WAF.

According to both LC_{50}/EC_{50} and LL_{50}/EL_{50} values, *M. beryllina* was always the least sensitive species of those tested (n = 8 out of N = 8; where 3 of the 8 did not have fiducial limits to test significance). *C. bairdi* was consistently the most sensitive species (n = 7 out of N = 8; where 2 of the 8 were without fiducial limits). *V. fischeri*, therefore, was moderately sensitive compared to *M. beryllina* and *C. bairdi*. Similar trends were observed in the fresh oil study, in which *M. beryllina* was least sensitive and *C. bairdi* the most. Bragin and Clark (1996) noted in their study that of the species tested (*M. bahia*, and *Crassostrea gigas*, oyster larvae), that *M. beryllina* was the least sensitive. Some researchers suggest that crustacean larvae are more sensitive than fish (Rice *et al.*, 1977; Singer *et al.*, 1998).

RESULTS

The results of the fresh and weathered oil studies are combined and presented here to more directly compare the differences between these two states of oil. Comparisons are based on the chemical characteristics of fresh and weathered, dispersed and non-dispersed oil solutions, and their toxicity to *C. bairdi*, *M. beryllina,* and *V. fischeri* from Microtox® Assays.

Oil Solutions

Graphical representations of the dispersed and non-dispersed fresh and weathered oil solutions are shown in Figures 3-1a through 3-2b. Test solutions are compared based upon the temperature and salinity in which they were prepared. All WAF solutions have low TPH concentration, as expected, and have a distinct reduction in VOA from fresh to weathered WAF solutions. Both CE-WAF solutions had comparable amounts of TPH in solution, but the weathered CE-WAF solutions showed a marked reduction in VOA components, as expected. Mean hydrocarbon contents and relative proportions for fresh and weathered oils are shown in Table 3-1.

Toxicity Value Comparisons

The comparisons made in the sections below, further demonstrate how the aqueous solubility of the test material and the manner in which the test solution concentrations are characterized (*i.e.*, in terms of loading rate, TPH, THC, or VOA) can have an effect on

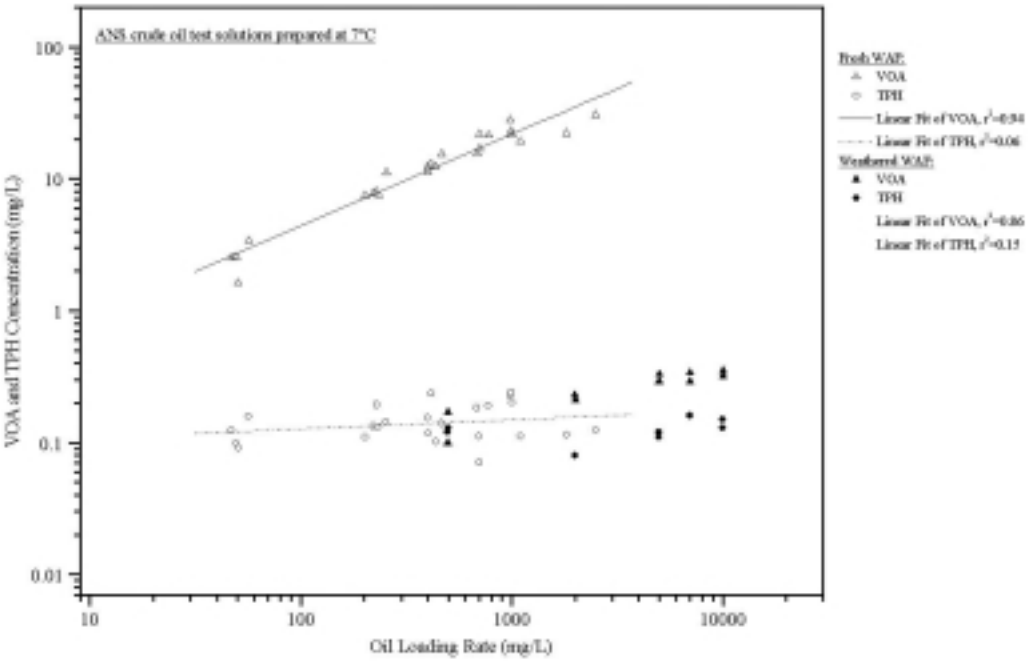

Fig 3-1a. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh and weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* in 7°C saltwater

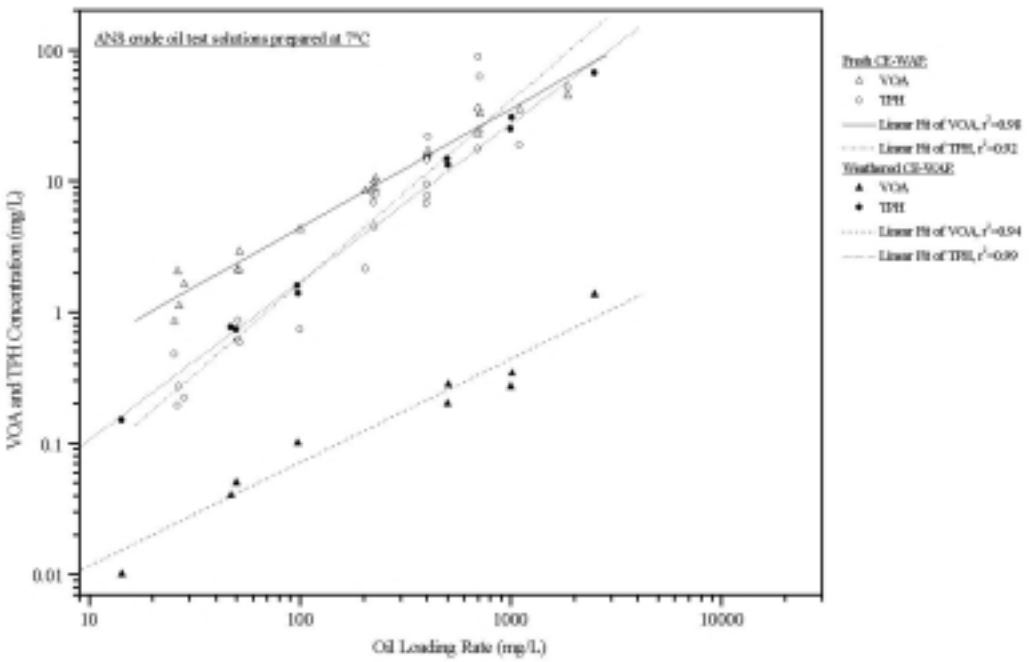

Fig 3-1b. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh and weathered ANS CE-WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* in 7°C saltwater

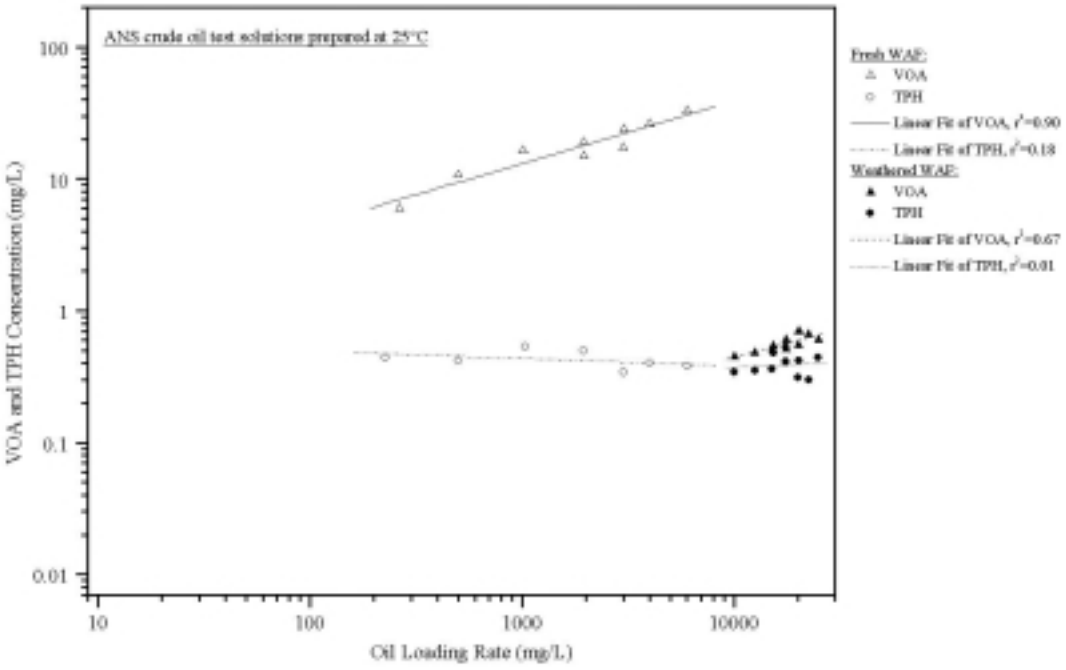

Fig 3-2a. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh and weathered ANS WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. beryllina* in 25°C saltwater

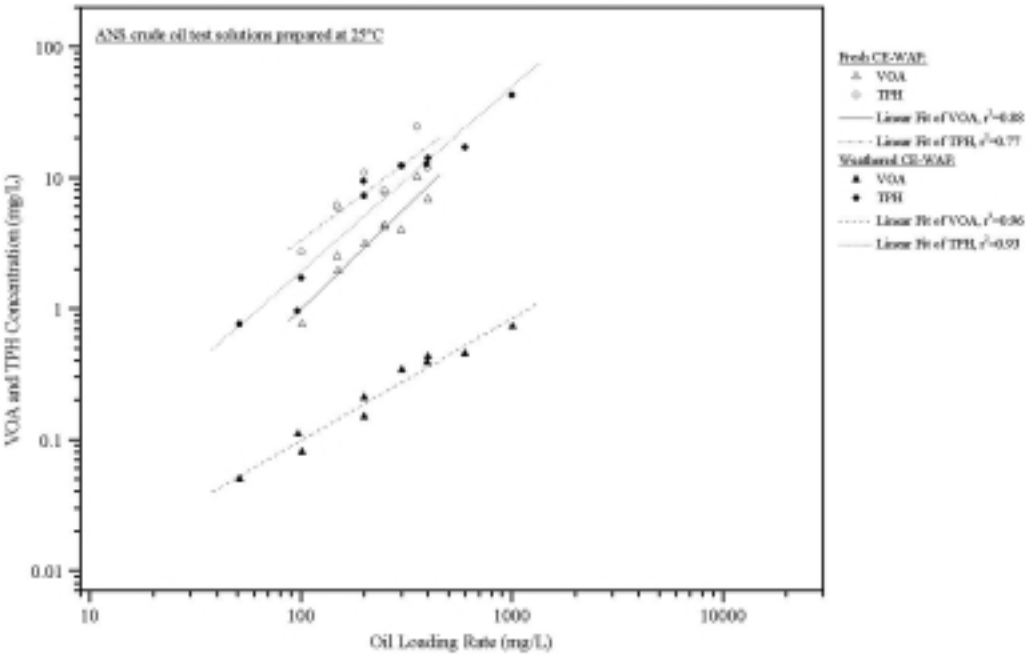

Fig 3-2b. Relationship of measured concentrations of volatile organic analytes (VOA) and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) to oil loading rates in fresh and weathered ANS CE-WAF and CE-WAF test solutions for *M. beryllina* in 25°C saltwater

Table 3-1. Mean concentrations of hydrocarbons measured in WAF and CE-WAF solutions

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) Hydrocarbon Conc. (mg/L)							
		WAF	SE	n	% THC	CE-WAF	SE	n	% THC
VOA	Fresh ANS	17	1.2	43	98.7	11	1.7	39	40.2
	Weathered ANS	0.53	0.04	14	60.2	0.55	0.11	13	1.9
	Fresh PBCO	12	1.1	20	99.1	5.3	0.64	15	34.3
TPH	Fresh ANS	0.23	0.02	28	1.3	17	3.3	28	59.8
	Weathered ANS	0.35	0.04	14	39.8	28	5.7	13	98.1
	Fresh PBCO	0.30	0.02	18	2.5	10	1.5	15	65.7
THC	Fresh ANS	17	1.2	43	-	28	3.8	41	-
	Weathered ANS	0.88	0.08	14	-	28	5.8	13	-
	Fresh PBCO	12	1.1	20	-	16	1.7	19	-

n = number of samples

toxicity results and conclusions drawn from those data. These data are presented in Tables 3-2, 3-3, and 3-4.

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Test Solution Toxicities

When the toxicity data were standardized to measured (THC) concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values; denoted as: LC_{50}/EC_{50}), weathered oil solutions (WAF and CE-WAF) were more toxic than fresh oil solutions in all cases (Figure 3-3; n = 8 out of N = 10; where 3 of the 8 did not have fiducial limits to test significance). The two cases that were contrary to this (*i.e.*, fresh more toxic than weathered, according to LC_{50}/EC_{50}) were: 1) *M. beryllina* under spiked exposure, in which weathered CE-WAF was less toxic than fresh CE-WAF, however, not significantly; and 2) weathered CE-WAF was significantly less toxic than fresh CE-WAF for *V. fischeri*.

Fresh and weathered oils differ in the total amount of hydrocarbons in the parent oil (*i.e.*, fresh oil has ~100% its components and the weight of weathered oil is reduced by 30%). When the toxicity data were standardized to loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values; denoted as: LL_{50}/EL_{50}), weathered oil solutions were less toxic than fresh (n = 8 out of N = 10 where 3 of the 8 were without fiducial limits). The two cases in which fresh oil solutions were more toxic than weathered according to LL_{50}/EL_{50} were as follows: 1) *C. bairdi* to CE-WAF under spiked exposure, but this relationship was not significant; and 2) *M. beryllina* to CE-WAF under continuous exposure, where this relationship was significant.

Table 3-2. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentration (mg/L) estimates (95% confidence limits) for Corexit 9500, and fresh and weathered oil WAF and CE-WAF tests

	C. bairdi EC50 Values		*M. beryllina LC50 Values*	
Test Solution	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure	Spiked Exposure	Continuous Exposure
Corexit 9500*	1266.84‡ (1030.88, 1556.82) a = 8.33%	23.76† (19.26, 28.40)	115.18‡ (105.75, 125.46) a = 40%	54.67† (46.70, 62.94)
		Fresh ANS		
WAF**	9.73† (8.83, 10.68)	2.54‡ ‡	26.36‡ (25.54, 27.22) a = 0%	15.59‡ (13.98, 17.38) a = 0%
CE-WAF**	10.72† (9.08, 12.72)	1.3‡ ‡	12.22‡ (7.79, 19.17) a = 40%	12.42‡ (11.40, 13.54) a = 0%
		Weathered ANS		
WAF**	0.40† (0.33, 0.51)	0.27† (0.24, 0.28)	>1.13***	0.79† (0.32, 0.83)
CE-WAF**	2.36† (1.66, 6.66)	0.37‡ ‡	18.89† (15.78, 24.71)	0.65† (0.10, 1.25)

L Notes:

* Corexit 9500 values based on loading rate in mg/L

L** WAF and CE-WAF values based on total hydrocarbon content (THC) in mg/

*** Highest concentration tested had a loading rate of 24,948 mg/

Statistical Methods

† Probit analysis

‡ Trimmed Spearman-Karber analysis, a = % trim

‡ ‡ Graphical method, 95% confidence limits not available (Webber, 1993

Table 3-3. Mean 5-minute EC50 values obtained by the Microtox Toxicity Assay. Values were calculated based on measured hydrocarbon fractions and on total oil added (loading rates)

Hydrocarbon Fraction	Oil Type	Mean +/- Std. Error (SE) EC50 (mg/L)*					
		WAF	SE	n	CE-WAF	SE	n
VOA	Fresh ANS	4.2	0.25	43	0.86	0.09	39
	Weathered ANS	0.22	0.01	14	0.12	0.02	13
	Fresh PBCO	3.6	0.29	20	0.69	0.04	15
TPH	Fresh ANS	0.06	0.01	28	1.0	0.13	28
	Weathered ANS	0.15	0.02	14	5.9	1.0	13
	Fresh PBCO	0.10	0.01	18	1.2	0.10	15
THC	Fresh ANS	4.2	0.25	43	2.0	0.17	41
	Weathered ANS	0.37	0.03	14	6.0	1.1	13
	Fresh PBCO	3.7	0.29	20	1.9	0.09	19
Loading Rates	Fresh ANS	310	41	34	29	2.6	33
	Weathered ANS	6400	570	18	180	39	15
	Fresh PBCO	960	160	13	46	4.0	13
Dispersant only: EC50 (mg/L) = 220 +/- 26							

n = number of samples

* For each oil type and a given hydrocarbon fraction used to standardize the data, the EC50 value for WAF was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from that for CE-WAF

Table 3-4. Median lethal and effect concentration estimates (mg/L) based on measured concentrations and oil loading rates

		Fresh ANS				Weathered ANS			
		WAF		CE-WAF		WAF		CE-WAF	
Species	Exposure type	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50	Measured THC Conc. LC50	Loading Rate LL50
C. bairdi†	Spiked	9.73 (8.83, 10.68)	285 (249, 325)	10.72 (9.08, 12.72)	203 (174, 236)	0.40 (0.33, 0.51)	4485 (2216, 10248)	2.36 (1.66, 6.66)	128 (96, 426)
	Continuous	2.54 (N/A)	12.48 (N/A)	1.30 (N/A)	5.16 (N/A)	0.27 (0.24, 0.28)	149 (N/A)	0.37 (N/A)	6.28 (N/A)
M. beryllina	Spiked	26.36 (25.54, 27.22)	3520 (3326, 3725)	12.22 (7.79, 19.17)	272 (171, 425)	> 1.13 (N/A)	> 24948 (N/A)	18.89 (15.78, 24.71)	555 (450, 684)
	Continuous	15.59 (13.98, 17.38)	1641 (1317, 2044)	12.42 (11.40, 13.54)	227 (212, 244)	0.79 (0.32, 0.83)	9512 (N/A)	0.65 (0.10, 1.25)	47 (14, 72)
Vibrio fischeri†	N/A	4.2 +/- 0.25	310 +/- 41	2.0 +/- 0.17	29 +/-2.6	0.37 +/- 0.03	6400 +/- 570	6.00 +/- 1.1	180 +/- 39

† Measured Conc. as EC50, Loading Rate as EL50, both in mg/L

N/A = not available; confidence limits could not be calculated

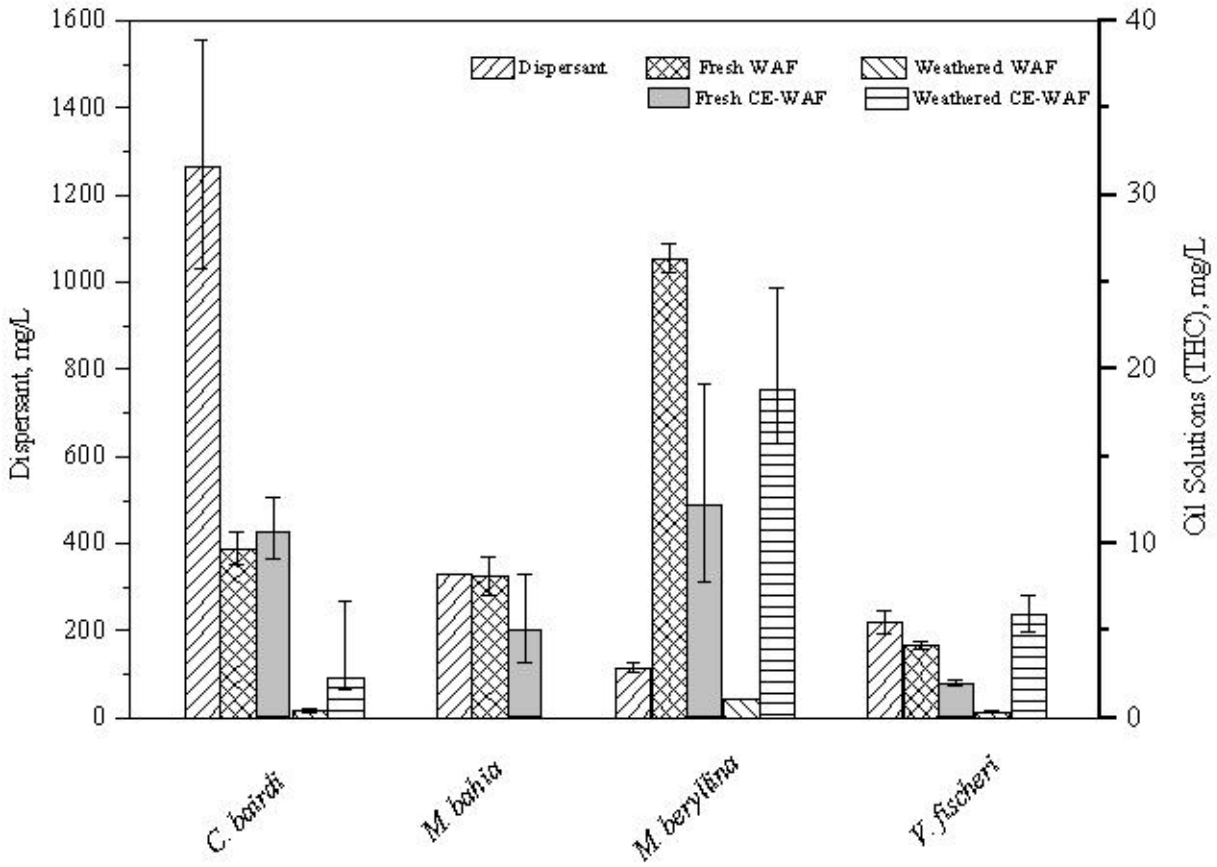

Fig. 3-3. Acute 96-hour median lethal and effect concentrations based on measured concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) grouped by species

Toxicity Value Comparisons: Species Sensitivities

All three species (*C. bairdi, M. beryllina,* and *V. fischeri*) were either more or less sensitive to dispersed weathered oil solutions depending upon the manner in which the solution concentrations were portrayed. For every species tested, when comparisons are made using toxicity values based upon LC_{50}/EC_{50} values, weathered WAF was nearly always most toxic (Figure 3-4a). Conversely, according to LL_{50}/EL_{50} values, weathered WAF was generally least toxic to all species (Figure 3-4b). Exceptions are mentioned in the section above.

DISCUSSION

Oil Solutions

The resulting fresh and weathered oil solutions agreed well with the information provided concerning the weight reduction of crude oil. Weathered oil solutions contained approximately 30 percent less VOA than the fresh oil solutions, which corresponds with the amount reported lost during the weathering process. There were little changes in concentration of hydrocarbons with boiling points greater than 200°C between the fresh and weathered oil solutions. The solubility of weathered oil was apparently decreased based on the observation that more weathered oil was required to produce effective solutions and were generally less concentrated than those prepared with fresh oil.

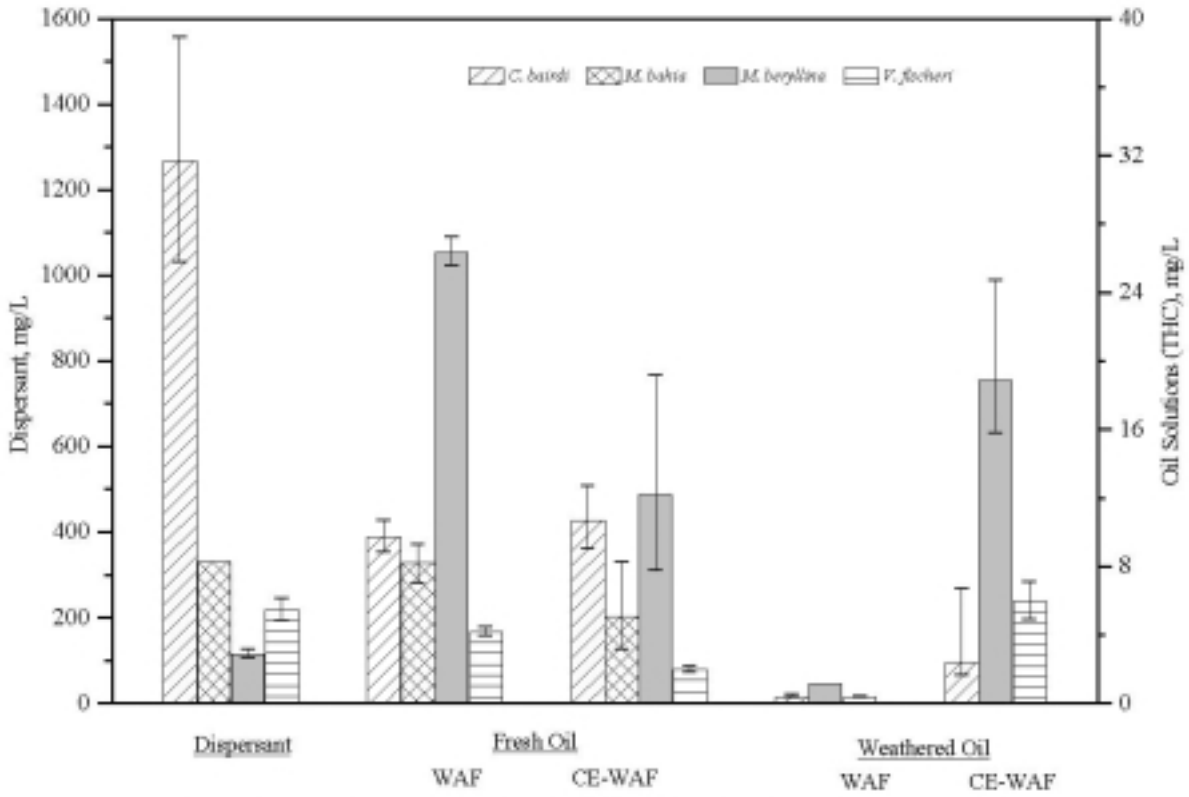

Fig. 3-4a. Acute 96-hour median lethal concentrations based on measured concentrations (LC_{50} and EC_{50} values) grouped by solution type

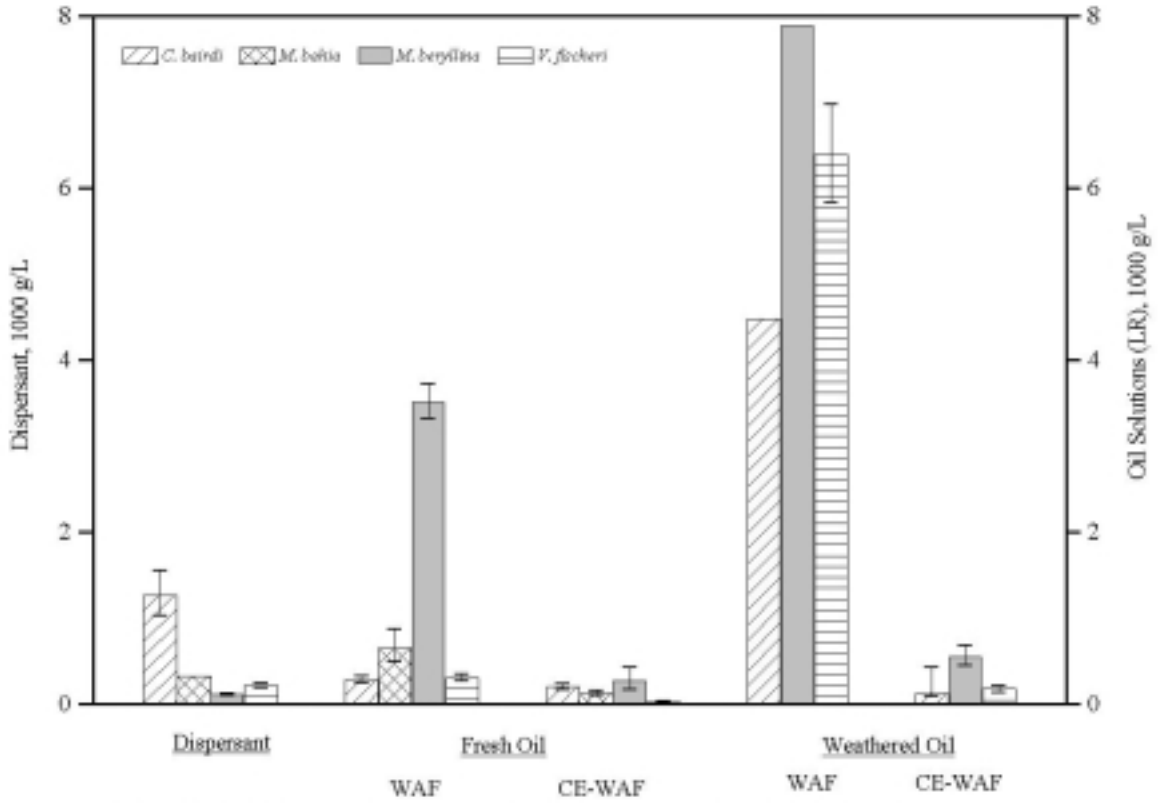

Fig. 3-4b. Acute 96-hour median lethal concentrations based on loading rates (LL_{50} and EL_{50} values) grouped by solution type

Toxicity

Toxicity appeared to be strongly related to the solubilities of the hydrocarbon fractions measured. This was initially observed in the fresh oil study with median-effect concentrations calculated based upon fractional groups of hydrocarbons possessing distinct differences in solubility. The notion that solubilities greatly influence resulting calculated toxicity values was further elucidated with results from the weathered oil study. Similar results were observed by Bobra and others (1983) when the authors evaluated the toxicity of fresh and weathered water soluble fractions to *Daphnia magna*. Weathered oil caused a reduction in both solubility and LC_{50} values, but caused a marked increase in the oil loadings required to form effective solutions. The loadings used for some of the weathered WAF solutions approached levels that were unrealistically high and impractical from the consideration that these solutions behaved as saturated solutions. Bobra and others (1983) noted that with non-dispersed weathered crude oil, it becomes nearly impossible to form a lethal aqueous solution. If solutions are at near-saturation, yet barely produce effective solutions, these solutions may in fact be essentially non-toxic, even though the LC_{50} and EC_{50} values would suggest they are very toxic due to these low values. Bobra and others (1983) propose correlating toxicity directly to a chemical's aqueous solubility. In light of the observations made from the fresh and weathered studies, such an exercise would be a worthy endeavor. However, in addition to that, the octanol-water partitioning coefficients of the hydrocarbons in solution should be correlated to the toxicity. This is useful because not all hydrocarbons may be equally potent.

Toxicity Commentary

At their most basic, toxicity tests provide information about how much is too much of a test material to cause a defined response (*e.g.*, death) by 50 percent of the population. Intuitively, a chemical that requires only minimal quantities to elicit a response in a test species is much more (acutely) toxic than another chemical that requires large quantities to generate the same response in the same species. Aquatic toxicity tests differ somewhat from other toxicity tests (*e.g.*, direct injection in mice provide an LD_{50}, lethal "dose" rather than lethal "concentration") in that exposure to the test material must occur via the media in which the test organisms reside, in this case saltwater (Hodgson and Levi, 1987). In order to generate a response by the test organism, first the test material must be able to interact with the aqueous media. Second, the concentration of the chemical in the aqueous media must be analyzed in some manner to estimate the actual exposure concentration experienced by the organism. And a third, more advanced procedure, might involve analyzing the concentration of the test chemical in the organism following the assay to determine with more accuracy what the actual exposure concentration to that organism was (*e.g.*, via tissue dosimetry; Rand *et al*., 1995). Such an exercise would provide information about the chemical's propensity to partition out of the aqueous phase into the lipid phases of biological membranes, which is often estimated by the octanol-water partitioning coefficient (K_{ow}) of that chemical (LaGreaga *et al.*, 1994). Therefore, through these transformations (*e.g.*, dissolution, concentration characterization, partitioning into an organism), the results from an aquatic toxicity assay reflect the following: 1) the ability of the test material (chemical) to interact with aqueous media; 2) the analytical capabilities used to characterize the aquatic concentrations; 3) the test material's ability to partition into an organism (K_{ow}) to contact a toxic site of action; and

finally 4) the test organisms' response to exposure to the test chemical, which can be chemical and/or physical, or a combination of chemical and physical effects of that chemical.

Given these considerations, concurrent use of the LC_{50} and LL_{50} (or EC_{50} and EL_{50}) values from a toxicity assay, provides a relatively quick and inexpensive way to detect that some other factors besides what is characterized as the test solution concentrations may have an influence on these results and should be considered. For instance, had the interpretations of the LC_{50} and LL_{50} for weathered WAF and CE-WAF solutions been in agreement, then the conclusion that one solution type is more toxic than the other would be straightforward. In such a case, the use of these two forms of toxicity values would simply provide additional information about the test material's ability to interact with saltwater by illustrating the breadth of loadings required to form effective solutions; this was demonstrated in Chapter 1 with the fresh oil study. This may be of value to the end user, who may only consider the final values. If that final value is based upon measured concentrations alone (or only a fraction of the measured concentration as with TPH or VOA vs. THC), the end user will not be fully informed of the physicochemical nature also at play with respect to this material's toxicity.

In the case of weathered oil, however, where dichotomous conclusions are drawn from LC_{50} and LL_{50} values concerning which is more toxic, weathered WAF or CE-WAF solutions, (note: the same applies to "fractional" toxicity for toxicity values standardized to VOA and TPH fractions in both fresh and weathered crude oil), clearly, there is more to be considered than the solution's measured concentration to properly interpret the relative toxicity of two or more solutions or species' sensitivities. In the case of weathered WAF solutions, several factors contribute to the resulting toxicity values: 1)

decreased VOA content in the parent oil, 2) increased viscosity from the weathering process (in part due to removal of VOA), 3) reduced solubility by increased viscosity and remaining hydrocarbons of lower solubility, 4) all previously listed factors (1 through 3) require that the loading rates be increased substantially to form effective solutions; and/or 5) another unknown parameter that was not measured in this study.

Test Solution Toxicities

Which then is more toxic: 1) weathered WAF or weathered CE-WAF; or 2) fresh or weathered WAF? If the concern is only for how much product (test material) is required to produce an effect to 50 percent of the organisms, then clearly, dispersed weathered oil (CE-WAF) is more toxic. However, if the focus is more on the actual accommodated fractions, then non-dispersed weathered oil (WAF) is more toxic. Because the measured values for weathered WAF concentrations were very low, their resulting LC_{50} values were also very low. On one hand, WAF is clearly less toxic due to excessive loadings (Figure 3-4b); on the other hand, WAF is more toxic due to the low concentrations of hydrocarbons in solution (Figure 3-4a). Yet the fact remains that weathered WAF solutions still managed to produce a response by 50 percent of the population in all test species except *M. beryllina* under spiked exposure. Therefore, something about these solutions causes an effect to these species. As was previously suggested, perhaps this is indicative of 1) another parameter not measured in this study that is responsible for the species' response (*e.g.*, viscosity), 2) oil particulates may be more numerous in solution due to the high oil loadings ("unrealistically" high loadings are considered to be 25 g/L, Singer *et al*, (1998), which coincides with those used for *M. beryllina*) needed to produce effective WAF solutions causing a physical toxicological impact, or less likely, 3) the

weathering process causes some alteration of the residual crude oil's compounds, leaving behind chemicals that are more toxic than they were in their fresh oil state.

CONCLUSIONS

In general, the toxicity data suggest that of the solutions tested, dispersant solutions alone were least toxic, water-accommodated fractions were moderately toxic, and dispersed oil (chemically-enhanced water-accommodated fractions) were most toxic. However, these relationships varied depending upon the species and end-point tested. Dispersant addition to oil solutions (CE-WAF solutions) indicated increased toxicity, as reflected by lower median-effect concentration (toxicity) values. However, broader scale decisions on whether or not to use dispersants must rely on other factors as well. These factors include the short-term effectiveness of the dispersant product and the effects of the product on the long-term persistence of oil residues in the environment.

Toxicity values obtained from this study suggest that the cold-water species, *C. bairdi,* is more sensitive to oil solutions than the warmer standard test species *M. bahia* and *M. beryllina*. This is consistent with findings from other researchers who have evaluated the toxicity of oil solutions to *C. bairdi* and speculate that their greater sensitivity can be attributed to effects of colder temperatures. Cold temperatures lead to slower development times for larvae and increased persistence of aromatic hydrocarbons in solution (Brodersen *et al.*, 1977; Rice *et al.*, 1977). Overall, *M. beryllina* was least sensitive to oil, but most sensitive to dispersant-only solutions.

The response of the species *V. fischeri* evaluated using the Microtox® Assay, although possibly not directly correlative to the toxic response of the zooplankton tested in this study, were indicative of whether or not a biological impact could be expected from

exposure to dispersants, oil, or dispersed oil. Additionally, the toxicity values for *V. fischeri* for oil solutions were within the same order of magnitude as those determined for the other test species.

Toxicity results that were directly comparable (*i.e.*, same species and test material) to other laboratories employing protocols put forth by CROSERF were in agreement with those obtained in this study, suggesting that laboratory methods employed in this study were reliable. The spiked exposure model is more representative of an exposure likely to occur in the environment, and consequently provides toxicity values that do not overestimate toxicity as some constant exposure tests may (Bragin *et al.*, 1994). Use of continuous exposure tests to estimate the toxicity of a solution is problematic in that a constant exposure is difficult to preserve given factors such as volatilization and biodegradation (Rice *et al.*, 1977). In the future, to more accurately determine the toxic effect due to continuous exposure, aeration of the test solution should be avoided when possible, or sub-samples of the test solutions should be collected over time from the test chambers to better estimate the actual concentration profile of exposure to the organisms.

Presentation of the toxicity data is of utmost importance when considering the information contained therein as it applies to field conditions. Values based solely on one hydrocarbon fraction are subject to either under or over-estimating the toxicity of a solution. Also, use of either an LC_{50} or an LL_{50} may be more accessible in a field situation depending upon what analytical instruments are available to estimate the concentration of dispersants, oil, or dispersed oil that may be introduced in the water column by an oil spill mitigation action. When comparing the toxicity of two solutions (*e.g.*, dispersed or not), use of an LL_{50} (or EL_{50}) should be considered and reported in conjunction with the more standard LC_{50} (or EC_{50}). Together, the these two are of

particular value when presenting toxicity data as they may reveal a test material's inherent ability (or lack of) to form water accommodated fractions in aqueous media through which exposure can occur. Concurrent reporting of these two forms of toxicity data may provide the end-user of this data some information about the volume of material required to produce a toxic effect to 50 percent of the population.

In summary, the factors that should be considered when using toxicity data include: 1) composition and physicochemical characteristics of the parent oil or dispersant; 2) the form of and to which chemical fractions the toxicity values are based (*e.g.*, LL_{50} or LC_{50}; based only on TPH or THC); 3) laboratory protocols for test solution preparation and how they relate to actual field condition; and 4) species and life stage from which the toxicity data was derived. For field extrapolations, the following should also be considered in additions to those factors listed above: 1) local mixing energy conditions (*e.g.*, high dilution via sea swell, intense wind/wave action); 2) local habitat sensitivities or vulnerabilities; 3) season (*e.g.*, are sensitive species currently present in the water column).

Decision to Disperse

The consideration of whether a dispersed oil solution is more or less toxic than a non-dispersed oil solution is an important one when deciding to use dispersants in response to an oil spill. However results from toxicity tests as to which is more toxic can be confounding, as was observed in this study. In either event, if the question being posed is whether or not to disperse weathered oil, the answer is still one of environmental trade-offs and seasonal considerations. First, there should be reasonable assurance that application of dispersants will be effective in mitigating the potential damage caused by an oil spill. Once, this has been confirmed, then the environmental impacts must be considered of all response options in order to determine which one causes the least net environmental damage. Potential effects to Alaskan Tanner crab larvae may occur if hydrocarbon concentrations in the field resemble those shown in Figures 3-5a through 3-6 b expressed as oil loadings and measured concentrations. These figures illustrate the range of concentrations for both dispersed and non-dispersed oil solutions that cased an effect to Tanner crab larvae.

Chemically dispersed weathered oils appear to be more toxic with respect to oil loadings; however, if the test species is not present in the water column at the time of dispersal (*i.e.*, out of season), no effect should be expected. Even if the test species is present in the water column, the decision to disperse weathered oil should be based upon

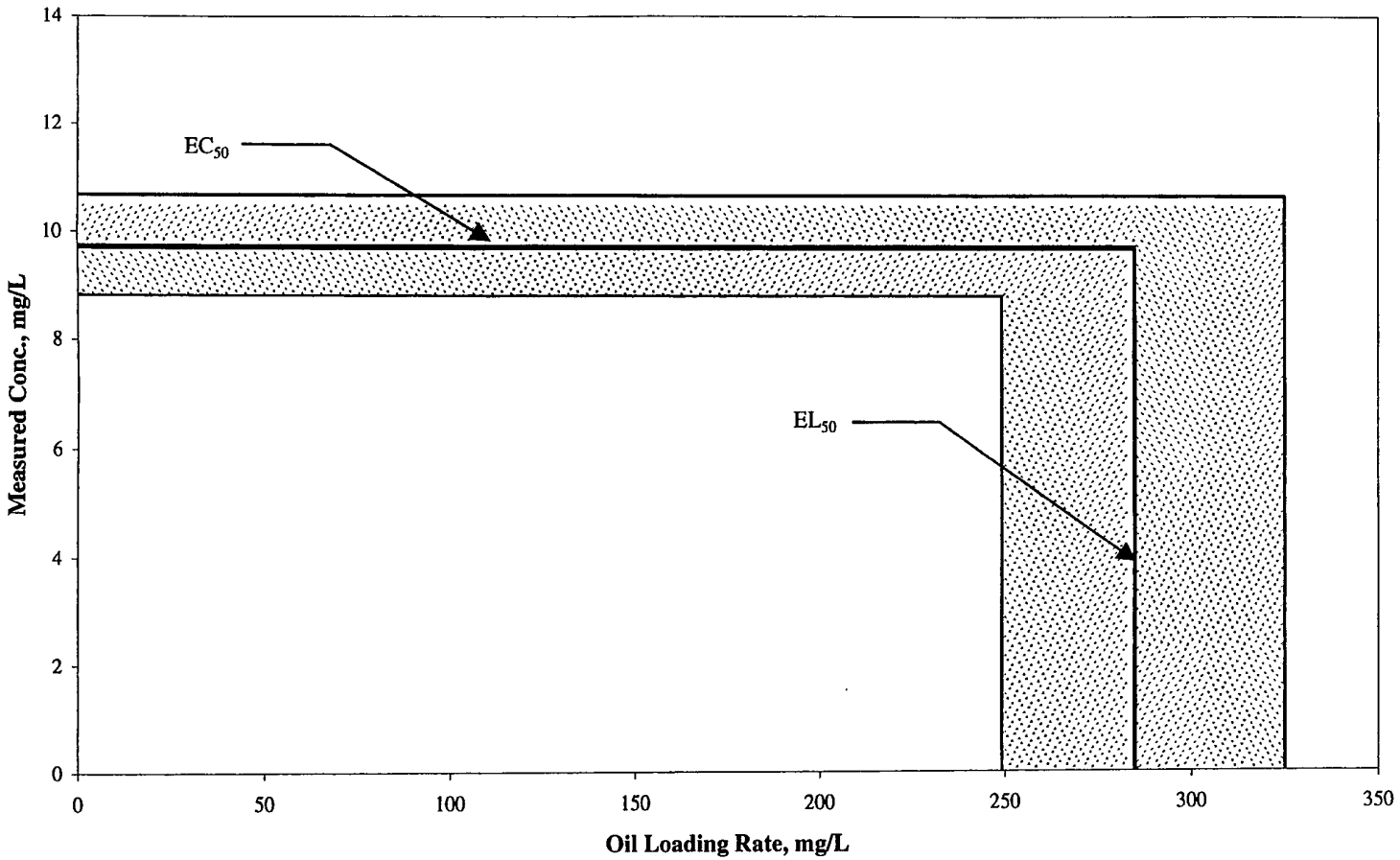

Figure 3-5a. Relationship of median effective concentrations by measured concentrations (EC_{50}) and oil loading rates (EL_{50}) of fresh ANS WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* under spiked exposure

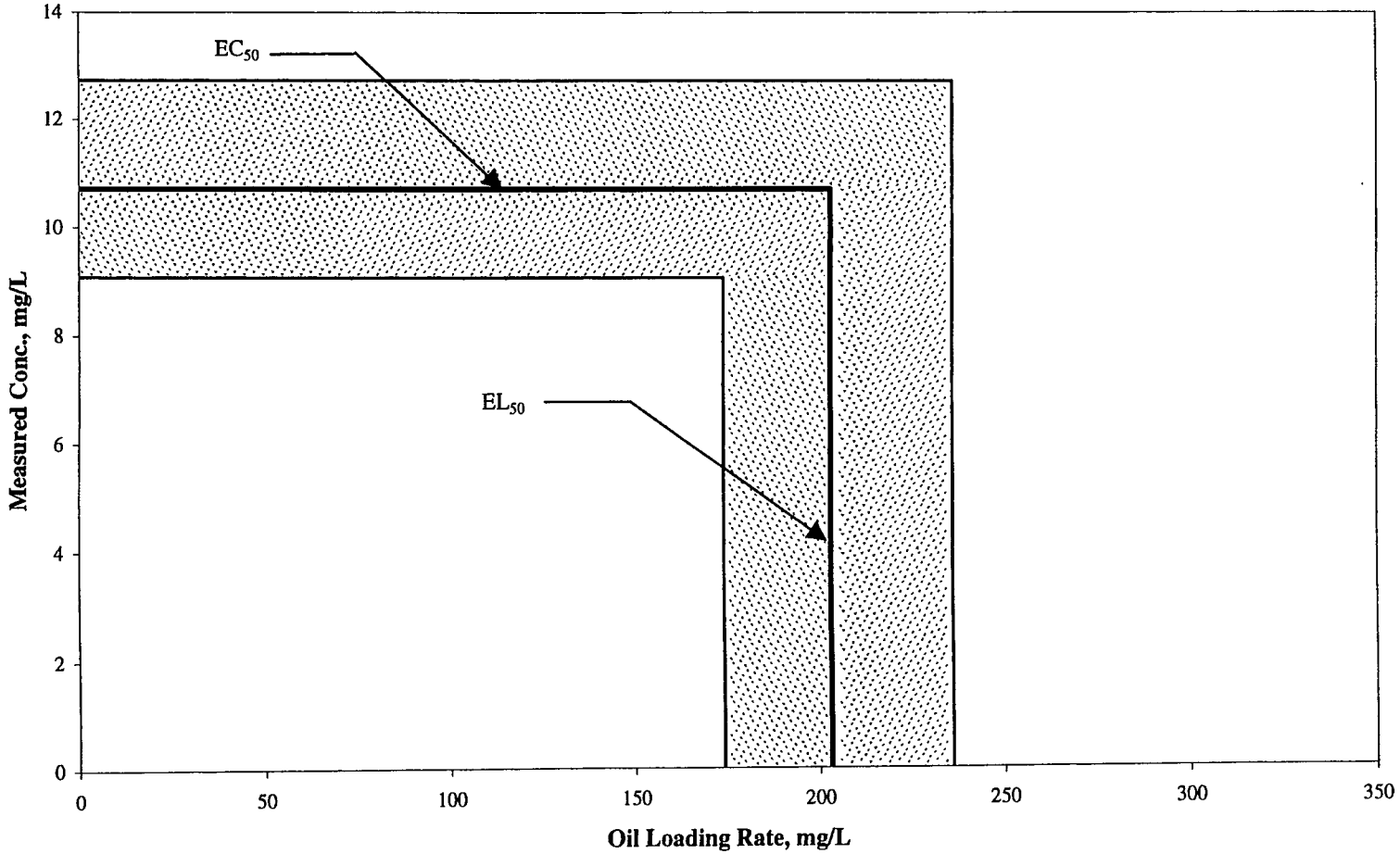

Figure 3-5b. Relationship of median effective concentrations by measured concentrations (EC_{50}) and oil loading rates (EL_{50}) of fresh ANS CE-WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* under spiked exposure

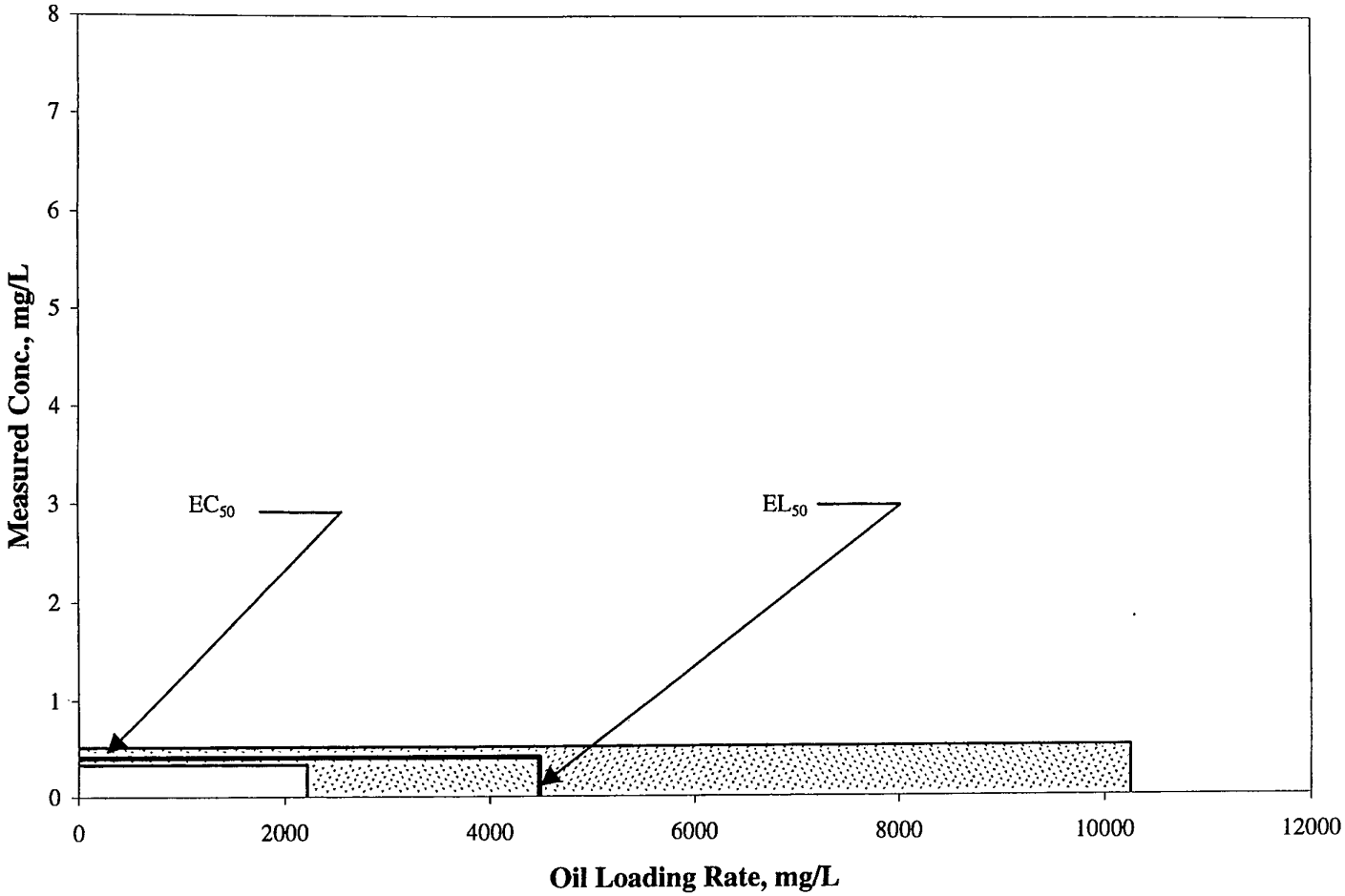

Figure 3-6a. Relationship of median effective concentrations by measured concentrations (EC_{50}) and oil loading rates (EL_{50}) of weathered ANS WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* under spiked exposure

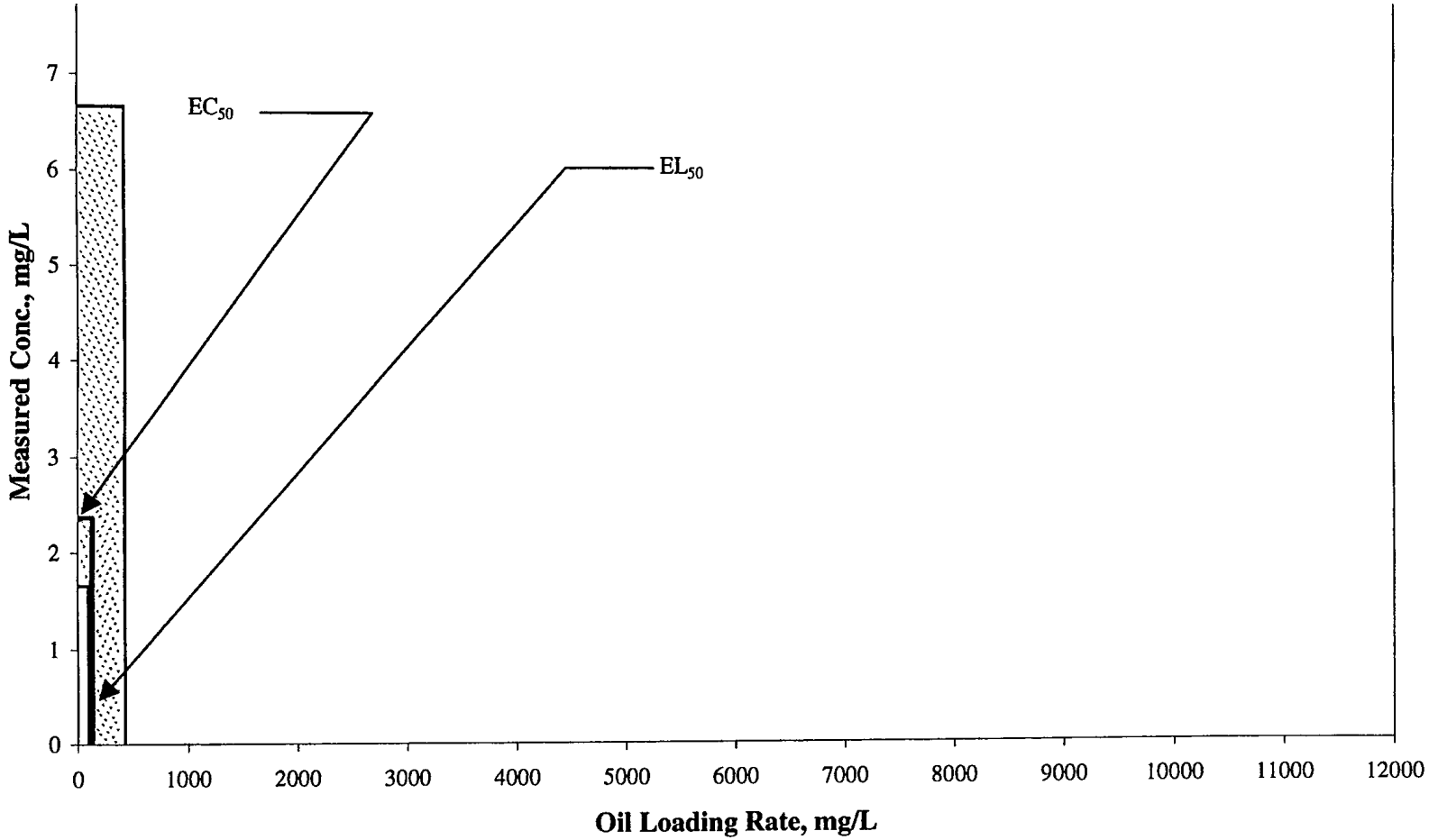

Figure 3-6b. Relationship of median effective concentrations by measured concentrations (EC_{50}) and oil loading rates (EL_{50}) of weathered ANS CE-WAF test solutions for *C. bairdi* under spiked exposure

a net environmental benefit analysis (Lewis and Aurand, 1997). For example, what are the effects of a "one-time hit" – to zooplankton, for instance, an important yet numerous food-web species – by dispersing oil versus not dispersing? Not dispersing could possibly result in oiled gravel beaches that may affect an important ecological and economical species (*e.g.*, pink salmon embryos; Heintz *et al.*, 1995) or larger mammalian species that may be more sensitive than the most-sensitive life-stages of zooplankton with respect to the length (and number of progeny) of their reproductive cycle.

Finally, long-term effects should be considered. Dispersing oil is generally believed to enhance biodegradation through increasing the surface area of the oil and observation of increased biodegradation rates (NRC, 1989). However, the actual fate of dispersed oil may not be one of complete mineralization, as a recent study suggests that dispersant addition may cause selective enrichment of more persistent hydrocarbons (Lindstrom *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, if dispersed oil becomes associated with sediment, the bioavailability of some hydrocarbons can decrease, limiting biodegradation (Braddock and Richter, 1997).

Future Investigations

Toxicity tests of crude oil, both weathered or fresh, conducted in the future should consider the following: 1) the contributions of physical toxicity factors due to the presence of particulate oil in dispersed oil solutions; 2) the role of enhanced concentrations of soluble compounds that may possess a greater potency as estimated by their octanol-water partitioning coefficients; and 3) the possibility that octanol-water partitioning coefficients may be altered by the addition of dispersants.

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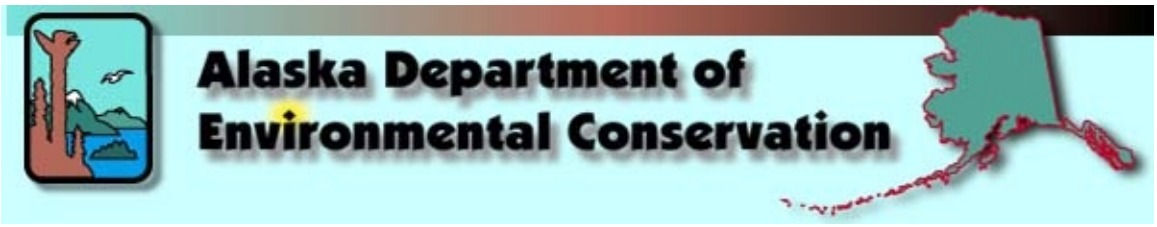

Assessment of Alaskan Marine Species for Toxicity Tests

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CONTENTS

I. Executive summary, conclusions, and recommendations

The standard toxicity test protocols for marine organisms expose a warm-water test species to test chemicals. Most tests are done at room temperature (25 ^{o} C). For colder water, for example the typical Alaskan marine water temperature of 4 ^{o} C, there are no standard toxicity test protocols. Many of the standard test protocols can be emulated, by following all the standard procedures, and reducing the test water temperature to the desired colder temperature. The test temperatures relative to Alaskan waters, however, are likely to be fatal to most standard test species. This paper summarizes a literature search and interviews with Alaskan marine biological experts in an effort to identify Alaskan species that would be suitable for toxicity testing in cold water. The toxicity test protocols considered were primarily those of the Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Effects Research Forum (CROSERF). CROSERF is a research group composed of laboratories from government, academia and industry dedicated to improving laboratory research on the ecological effects of chemical agents used in oil spill response [8]. Those CROSERF protocols were designed to test the toxicity of oil and oil dispersants following a spill of oil in the marine environment. Also considered in this paper is the EPA's Short-Term Methods for Estimating the Chronic Toxicity of Effluents and Receiving Waters to West Coast Marine and Estuarine Organisms (EPA West Coast) [16], and some more general textbook toxicity tests [1, 2, 3]. While the CROSERF tests focus on the effects of chemical oil dispersants to pelagic organisms, the EPA West Coast tests consider nearshore and estuarine events.

Most modern marine toxicity experiments are done with animals in the immature or larval stages of development, typically the first two or three weeks after hatching. This is because the larval stages are sensitive to toxic chemicals, sometimes 10 or 100-fold more sensitive than the adults of the same species. Most Alaskan species only produce young once a year. This usually takes place during the spring bloom, the period of increasing sunlight in mid-spring. The exact timing and duration of the spring bloom varies from year to year. This means the larvae of most Alaskan species are available for only a few weeks. This leads to two broad choices for conducting toxicity tests on larval stages of

Alaska species: either most toxicity testing must be planned for sometime in a three month window in the spring, or an Alaskan species must be made available from a culture facility. Both choices have drawbacks, primarily drawbacks related to scheduling uncertainty in the first case and expense in the second case. For the first choice, the research team must be prepared well in advance of the spring bloom to begin the tests at a moments notice, while staying "on hold" waiting for egg production and hatching to begin. Once hatching begins, all the various research procedures must be completed in a few weeks. One critical mistake may delay the testing a full year. Working with small laboratory animals is filled with opportunities for such mistakes. For the second choice, culturing a new species requires research and development. Keeping marine species alive can be technically challenging, especially with larger species, but in general is quite feasible, given sufficient resources. The greater scientific problem is the induction of gamete (sperm and egg) production and spawning, such that larvae may be continuously produced or reliably produced on demand.

Included in the choices above is consideration of the location of the test facility. The University of Alaska Fairbanks (UAF) provides an economical location since analytical equipment and personnel are located in Fairbanks. Not all tests can be done at UAF, especially if the test procedure requires large amounts of seawater or quick access to the ocean.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The following are the conclusions and recommendations regarding a marine species for toxicity testing that may be applicable to Alaskan conditions. Regarding the order of listing, the least expensive and most relevant to the CROSERF dispersed oil procedures are listed first. All six species listed below, however, may be useful for certain types of toxicity testing and all should be considered for future studies.

1. Test the topsmelt (*Atherinops affinis*) in water as cold as practical. Topsmelt belong to the family Atherinidae, which is the most common family used in marine toxicity testing. No members of this family, however, are native to Alaskan waters. The topsmelt is cultured at colder temperatures, and larvae will likely survive down to

12 ^{o} C. Tests at lower temperatures have not been reported, although 8 ^{o} C is a likely lower limit of larval survival. Perform a series of temperature tolerance tests with the topsmelt. Begin by receiving larvae at 15 ^{o} C from a commercial culture facility, then decrease the water temperature 2 ^{o} C per day and observe the lowest temperate at which the larvae appear normal. Then run negative controls (without any test chemicals) and positive controls with the reference toxicant, copper chloride, according to standard EPA protocols. The rational for this recommendation is the commercial availability of topsmelt, its widespread use as a test species, and the current culture of this species at a temperature 10 ^{o} C lower than other commerically available species. This option will have moderate costs and conforms to the CROSERF protocols exactly, except for the reduced water temperature.

2. Culture a sea urchin species, most likely the purple urchin, *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*, found in Alaska. Collect and culture the organisms initially at the UAF Seward Marine Center. (The green urchin, *S. droebachiensis*, may be easier to collect, and could also be used.) Experiment with methods of transporting urchins to UAF to determine the best transport methods. Perform negative and positive controls using both of the EPA's standard test methods, the embryo-larval development test and the fertilization test. The sea urchin test methods are well-known and widely accepted. They are excellent methods of testing for both successful fertilization and early development, and are considered sensitive tests of early life stages. The technology of making urchins spawn is available. The closely related species *S. franciscanus*, the red urchin, is harvested in southeast Alaska. Gonads of the red urchin are a delicacy in Japan. There is a green urchin fishery in Kodiak, also for the Japanese market. In the natural environment, urchins are eaten by the sea otter. Urchins are benthic or nearshore animals, but are relevant to dispersant studies because their gametes are dispersed into the water column and are known to disperse widely. This option is probably of moderate expense and conforms to the EPA West Coast toxicity protocols exactly, except for the water temperature, which will be colder in the Alaskan tests.

3. Coordinate with the Qutekcak Shellfish Hatchery (QSH) in Seward and obtain sperm and eggs from shellfish that QSH is spawning for commercial uses. The Pacific

oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, (also known as the Japanese oyster) is a standard EPA West Coast test species, and this is the species most cultured by QSH. There is an excellent chance that sufficient gametes can be obtained as a by-product of QSH's normal operations. Run negative and positive controls, per EPA protocols. Timing of the shellfish protocols indicates that the laboratory work must be done in Seward. While gametes from shellfish may be available from time to time from QSH, the culturing of shellfish is a major technical undertaking. It is unlikely that it will be economical to culture shellfish for toxicity testing as a stand-alone operation. It may be possible to work with QSH to produce gametes on demand, but this would be an interruption of QSH's normal commercial activities and may be expensive. If the control experiments have good success, the economic aspects of this course of action may be perused further with QSH. Shellfish are benthic and most are nearshore species. This option may be of moderate expense and conforms to the EPA West Coast toxicity protocols exactly, except for the water temperature, which will be colder in the Alaskan tests. Expenses may depend on details of coordination with QSH.

4. Mysids and copepods are small crustaceans and species of both orders are used in standard toxicity tests. Both are found in the plankton and are relevant to dispersed oil studies. They are widespread and relevant to studies of effluent and other nearshore toxicity issues. They have a relatively short life, 90 to 120 days, and reproduce all year. They would have to be cultured, but it is likely that once cultured, they would produce larvae continuously. While mysids and copepods may be found all year, they are much more common during the spring bloom. At other times of year, a particular species may not be found. While the expense to culture either mysids or copepods would not be as great as the expense for the fish species discussed below, it would still be substantial. In addition, because copepods and mysids are so small and have such varied early life stages, skilled microscopists and taxonomists will be required to sort the animals prior to and during culturing. Readily available fresh seawater is desirable, but it is possible that, once a culture colony is established, culturing might be continued at UAF using artificial seawater. The selection of the particular species for culturing would require more study, with

the most likely prospect being a species with which other Alaska researchers have experience. This option is probably significantly more expensive than the first three listed. The mysid tests conform to the CROSERF protocols except for the water temperature, which will be colder in the Alaskan tests.

5. Pink salmon fry are available from hatcheries in the spring and could be tested. The only disadvantage, besides timing, is that the fry are no longer larvae and are expected to be relatively resistant to toxic chemicals. The fry would need large quantities of fresh seawater and therefore it is probably not practical to test salmon fry at UAF. This option will be of moderate expense, but conforms to neither the EPA West Coast nor the CROSERF protocols.

6. If the funds were available to establish a culture of an Alaska fish for use in toxicity testing, there are many possibilities. All would be new technology. The herring has the advantages of social and ecological relevance, but in general, a smaller species such as tidepool sculpin, sandlance, or members of the gunnel or prickleback families would be less expensive to maintain. Besides the initial problem of survival of the fish, technology would have to be developed to induce spawning on demand. Induction methods typically involve manipulations of photoperiod, water temperature, nutrition, and sometimes exogenous chemicals. Regardless of the species chosen, it may not be possible to induce spawning in northern species. Species from warmer climates sometimes spawn several times each year in nature, so these may be more amenable to induced spawning in the laboratory. Northern species generally have a very narrow window for spawning and may be less amenable to laboratory induced spawning. On this basis, the tidepool sculpin has a wide range and may be the best choice for a culturing experiment. This option is the most expensive of the six, but if successful will permit testing according to CROSERF, EPA West Coast, and other standard toxicity test protocols.

II. Introduction

II.A. Preliminary information

Contract INE 97.73, between the Institute of Northern Engineering (INE) of the University of Alaska Fairbanks (UAF) and Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation (ADEC) is titled: Evaluation of Toxicity of Dispersants and Dispersed Oil to Alaskan Marine Organisms. This report is submitted to fulfill Task 5 of that contract, Assessment of Other Alaskan Species for Toxicity Tests. This report takes advantage of INE's experience completing Task 3 of the contract, Toxicity Tests on Alaskan Tanner Crab Larvae. That toxicity testing was done according to testing methods of the Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Effects Research Forum (CROSERF). For the crab, this involved capturing gravid adult crabs in early January, maintaining them in holding tanks in UAF's Seward Marine Center (SMC) until March and April for egg development and larval hatching, and completing the toxicity testing in the narrow time window before hatching ceased, about 4 weeks. The many chemical samples required by the CROSERF procedures had to be shipped from SMC to UAF for analysis. The short time available for testing and the long lines of communication between UAF and SMC motivated the change in Task 5 from immediate testing of alternate species at the SMC to a literature search and investigation of alternate methods that would permit the animal care and rearing and the analytical work to be done at the same facility, preferably UAF. Also, the search was expanded to identify a cold-region species that might provide larvae or the other immature life stages, for use in toxicity testing methods other than the CROSERF methods.

II.B Why are we interested in dispersed oil?

In the event of a large oil spill, decision makers must determine if the spill should be treated by application of oil dispersants. Without dispersion, the oil, most of which remains on the surface, may contaminate marine epifauna, such as whales and birds. Wind and currents may result in large deposits of oil on surface features such as beaches, which may permit the further contamination of land fauna. Dispersants dissolve oil on the water's surface, then natural surface energy mixes the oil and dispersant into the

water column. While this removes most of the oil from the water's surface, the resultant oil and dispersant is then available to contaminate the pelagic (sub-surface) environment. The decision to apply dispersants to an oil spill requires a knowledge of the toxicity of the undispersed oil to pelagic marine life occurring via natural dispersion, versus the toxicity of the oil-dispersant mixture. Understanding the toxicity of the dispersant alone is also useful to decision makers, because during an oil spill response, not all the dispersant will contact oil.

II.C Why are we interested in test species?

The Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Effects Research Forum (CROSERF) is a working group composed of individuals from Federal and state governments, academia, and industry dedicated to improving laboratory research on the ecological effects of chemical agents used in oil spill response[8]. Toxicity studies for several brands of dispersant on several types of crude oil have been performed. None of these studies were done on cold-water species and few were done with Alaskan North Slope crude oil (ANS crude), the most prevalent oil cargo in Alaskan waters. The composition of ANS crude oil can differ substantially from other crude oils and the physical behaviors of crude oil in cold water will differ from its behavior in warm water. The marine life will also vary as a function of temperature. Alaskan marine life will be acclimated to colder water temperatures, as low as 4^0 C, compared with most laboratory test species that are acclimated at 25^0 C. Ongoing research sponsored by the ADEC is studying the effects of Corexit 9500 dispersant and ANS crude on Tanner Crab larvae. Other ongoing ADEC sponsored research is focusing on the physical effects of ANS crude in cold water [9].

Most of the earlier CROSERF work was conducted using warm-water species. The testing temperatures were 25^o C. Typically the animals were cultured by the testing laboratory or were bought from commercial culturing facilities. This earlier CROSERF work has provided a body of knowledge about relatively few test species. The selection of a new test species will serve to enhance CROSERF work by extending the toxicity database to include new test species

This portion of the study focuses on the evaluation of other Alaskan marine species for toxicity testing. While the primary intent is to evaluate Alaska marine species for dispersant-oil toxicity testing, the species selected might also be pertinent to the testing of other xenobiotic chemicals in a cold-region marine environment.

III. Selection Criteria for Alaska Test Species

III. Introduction, ecological risk assessment

The possible adverse consequences of an action on the environment can be evaluated via a procedure known as an environmental risk assessment. Introduction of a stressor, such as a chemical oil dispersant, into the environment is an example of an action that can be evaluated by an ecological risk assessment. The two main data gathering phases of a risk assessment are the exposure assessment and the exposure-response evaluation. The exposure assessment examines the concentration to which the naturally occurring organisms in the environment will be exposed, that is, the environmental fate of the chemical in question. An exposure-response evaluation (or stressor-response profile, or dose-response curve) evaluates the likelihood of adverse ecological effects at various plausible concentrations of the stressor.

While the goal of the risk assessment is to evaluate the entire ecosystem, exposure-response testing is only practical with a few selected test species. The death or disability of selected species in laboratory tests is the assessment endpoint used in ecological risk assessment. The general methods and guidelines for selecting assessment endpoints in environmental risk assessment are available in standard texts [10] and EPA documents [7]. Generally the species used are socially recognized, ecologically relevant, susceptible to the chemical being tested, and manageable in the laboratory or observable in the field. The manageability in the laboratory, for the purposes of this project, must be compared to the standard CROSERF protocols.

III.A Socially recognized

Social recognition, in this context, refers to the public's acceptance of the risk assessment in general or the species selected as the endpoint. It is important that the testing can be used to support management decisions based on values and organisms that people care about [7].

The most readily accepted ecological endpoint would be an effect that was perceived to harm the public economically. The death of commercially or recreationally important species is a readily acceptable endpoint. This also requires consideration of habitat and lower trophic levels. In Alaska, both commercial and sport fishing are economically important.

Species that are protected by law, such as rare or endangered species, would be socially relevant, but these are usually not available for laboratory toxicity tests. The selection of species that are the prey of commercially or recreationally important species are also socially recognized, although their importance must be emphasized according to their role in the food chain. The selection of charismatic species, such as whales and eagles, is generally not logistically possible, but the relationship of the endpoint species to these charismatic species might bring public acceptance to the risk assessment.

III.B Ecological relevance

EPA states, “Changes in ecologically relevant endpoints can result in unpredictable and widespread effects [7]." The selected species should represent some ecological function that would be impaired by the chemical, i.e., are not rare or transient species. Small animals are food for larger animals. Young animals are both a food for larger animals and the means of propagation of their own species. In general, species with a long life are more sensitive to toxic chemicals than rapidly reproducing species.

III.C Susceptibility to known or potential stressors

The CROSERF procedures envision the application of dispersant to oil in an open marine environment, that is, not in nearshore wetlands, shallow water or small protected bays. Further, the dispersant or dispersant/oil mix will leave the surface and enter the water column, but this is typically in the upper few meters of the water column. Hence, the relevant endpoints must be pelagic species. It is important to realize that several important benthic (bottom dwelling) species have immature life stages that are planktonic life stages, and may be considered pelagic during that life stage.

The best input to the decision making process involves assessment of the most sensitive of the ecologically relevant endpoints that will be exposed to the stressor. That is, if the test or indicator species is ecologically relevant, it means that the depression of that species will certainly have an important effect on the ecosystem. Since typically there are many such ecologically relevant species, it is most economical to perform the endpoint on the most sensitive of those species.

Relative sensitivities of certain species to various classes of chemical toxicants are known. It is sometimes assumed that the sensitivity of a test species is representative of the particular class or phyla that the species represents. "A fish is a fish" is generally true for adults of many marine species. That is, for acute toxicity tests, the adults of many fish species are approximately equally sensitive [1]. While in general there is a high correlation between related species, some species may be much more sensitive to a particular class of compound, and there is no *a priori* means of detecting such sensitivities without substantial biochemical data.

For immature life stages, there is less information available. Typically the young are more sensitive than adults, although there may be other sensitive life stages, such as migration or shell molting. For many species that disperse sperm and eggs into the water, the gametes may be the most sensitive. Also, some species have a particularly sensitive season, when a food shortage or an abundance of predators make the species more sensitive.

Regarding application of dispersants to an oil spill, it will not be known what season the spill may take place. The worst case would be spill at the time the most sensitive life stages were present.

III.E Laboratory viability and practicality

CROSERF exposure regime and alternates.

The matters of laboratory viability and practicality must be evaluated relative to the exposure apparatus and exposure regime planned. For dispersed oil, the exposure apparatus and exposure regimes use to evaluate the stressor-response relationship are methods of the field of aquatic toxicology. The CROSERF procedures have been standardized for exposure to chemical dispersants alone, the water accommodated fraction (WAF, which includes both the oil dissolved in water and the oil otherwise present beneath the surface, i.e., micro-droplets), and the chemically enhanced water accommodated fraction (CE-WAF, which again includes micro-droplets, micelles of dispersant, oil, and a dispersant/oil combination). The Alaskan test species selected, however, might be used for toxicity testing other than for CROSERF protocols, that is, the stressor-response portions of the ecological risk of other chemicals might be more appropriately tested using procedures other than CROSERF. In the following paragraphs, the CROSERF procedures are described, then alternates to the CROSERF procedures that are plausible for uses of Alaskan species in aquatic toxicology are presented. The discussion of individual species selected for consideration will include what alterations to the standard CROSERF procedures would be required, if a candidate test species is otherwise desirable, based on social and ecological relevance.

Description of the CROSERF regime

The two main CROSERF protocols are called the “flow through” or “spiked” exposure and the “continuous” exposure. Both tests last 96 hours. The CROSERF flow through protocol is designed around special 250-ml, glass flow-through chambers [11]. These chambers were originally built by The University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) and are loaned to various CROSERF participating laboratories. The CROSERF flow through procedure is used to simulate the brief high exposures of marine organisms to dispersant

treated oil, following a spill in the marine environment. Wind and currents aid natural dispersion in the exponential decrease in concentration of CE-WAF to which the organisms are exposed. Note that in aquatic toxicology the words “flow-through” chamber usually has a different meaning. In the typical flow-thorough arrangement, the purpose of the flow-thorough system is to supply oxygen and remove wastes from the organism holding chambers. In that use, the test chemical is continuously added to the influent supply so that the organisms are exposed to a constant volume of contaminant. For that reason, the CROSERF flow-through exposure regime is called “spiked” exposure.

The other CROSERF procedure is “continuous exposure” whereby the test water is changed once every 24 hours, but each water change has the original concentration of test chemical. That is, the test animals are exposed to approximately a constant level of test chemical for 96 hours. The continuous procedure is very common in aquatic toxicology, so it is useful to correlated CROSERF findings with those of other, non-CROSERF researchers. The continuous exposure procedure does not mimic exposures from a chemically dispersed oil spill. Recently, the need for the continuous exposure procedure has been questioned and its use is no longer recommended for CROSERF dispersed oil studies [12].

Alternates: chamber size

Both CROSERF procedures are done with 250 ml containers, this is compatible with 5 to 10 individual test organisms per chamber. The small size of the chambers minimizes waste material and chemical use. This chamber size is about the minimum that can permit visible animals adequate swimming room, but limits the CROSERF procedures to small animals and would exclude species such a pink salmon fry and herring fry.

If it was not critical to following the CROSERF flow-through procedure with the UCSC glass exposure chambers, it would be possible to use larger animals. One general principal is that test animal should be as unstressed as is practical. Larger chambers are common in aquatic toxicology testing and would be required to test adult fish, since

overcrowding causes stress. For continuous exposures, a chamber size of 0.5 to 0.8 gram of organism per liter of water is a general rule of thumb to avoid overcrowding for static/renewal [1]. Which would limit the size of animal in CROSERF chambers to about 0.1 to 0.2 g for an individual or 0.01 to 0.0.04 g for a test of 5 to 10 individuals. For flow through exposures, 0.5 to 1.0 gram of organism per liter per day is the minimum flow recommended.

Alternates: test regimes

General

All the CROSERF protocols, both spiked and continuous, are 96-hr acute tests. This conforms to the general exposure scenario of rapidly decreasing exposure concentration with time, the exposure reaching low concentrations in a few days. There are many ASTM and EPA toxicity tests for marine organisms that, other than the small CROSERF chamber size, are the same as the CROSERF continuous exposure regime. If these tests can be designed to expose the organism to declining concentrations, they might serve the ultimate purpose of dispersant testing with the spiked exposure as well.

Water

Most of the standard ASTM and EPA tests are done in 25^{o} C water, typically with a +/- 3^{o} C allowance. This is approximately room temperature, which is convenient for many purposes including simplicity of equipment. The Alaska species will be tested at a colder temperature, 4^{o} to 8^{o} C, and this will require the entire test be done in a cold room, or that portions of the test apparatus be chilled.

Life stage

Most of the acute 96-hr tests are done with the most sensitive life stage available, usually larvae or other immature stages of development. Life cycle tests are most appropriate for general toxicity but are usually considered chronic tests, rather than acute, and are more expensive. Testing of the toxicity of the test chemical to gametes, sperm and eggs, is very appropriate to spawning species. These tests take less time than the life cycle tests and are usually considered acute tests.

III.F The criteria of comparability

Several lists of commonly tested species for saltwater toxicity tests are found in Table 2 of Rand [3]. ASTM 729, *Standard Guide for Conducting Acute Toxicity Tests on Test Materials with Fishes, macroinvertebrates, and Amphibians* [2], Section 10.1, encourages the use of standard species: "If an objective of the test is to increase the comparability of results or increase information about a few commonly used species, or both, the test should be conducted with a species listed in Table 4. These species were selected on the basis of availability; commercial, recreational, and ecological importance; past successful use; and ease of handling in the laboratory. Their use is encouraged to increase the comparability of results and availability of much information about a few species rather than a little information about many species. If a desired species is unavailable, a species from a listed genus should be used." In the referenced ASTM table, the lowest test water temperature listed is 12^{o} C, (54^{o} F) with most tests at 17^{o} or 22^{o} C.

The approach used in this assessment is as follows: a list of likely Alaskan species to test was made based on personal communications from acknowledged Alaskan experts. A second list was formed by comparing the species and genera from the lists of standard (warm water) tests and review compendiums of Alaska species to see if species of the same genera are present in Alaskan water. The Alaskan species that are selected as being comparable will then be examined individually for social, ecological, and oil spill relevance, laboratory viability, and changes to the standard CROSERF protocols that might be necessary.

IV. Taxonomy of Plausible Test Species

The tables that follow integrate information from two main sources: first, lists of standard species that are commonly used in toxicity testing, most of these require warm water; and second, individual species that were recommended by various Alaskan researchers and ecologists, although not necessarily aquatic toxicologists. The tables indicate the taxonomy of each species, that is: phylum, class, order, family, genera, species, so that an approximate evaluation may be made regarding the how closely related various test species are. As noted earlier, if standard test species can not be used, species from the same genera are recommended.

Several large groups of species were not analyzed :

- Members of the plant kingdom, such as algae and macrophytes (seaweed). The testing of these is new technology and seldom used [3],
- Cnidarians: hydra, jellyfish, sea anemones and corals. Not usually considered socially or economically important, and
- Annelids, i.e., marine worms, not pelagic and not usually considered socially relevant.

Some species are not obviously relevant, but are included:

- Although the CROSERF procedures are written around a pelagic species, oysters and mussels are benthic or nearshore fauna, but their germ and larvae are pelagic, and
- Echinoderms, such as sea urchins and star fish are not usually considered socially or ecologically important, but there are many standard tests of life cycle toxicity that use these species and Alaskan urchins have been used commerically.

IV.B.1

Crustaceans (large: shrimp, crabs, lobsters)

SHRIMP

In the tables below, "AK" refers to a species recommended or used by Alaskan scientists. The other species are EPA or ASTM standard test species.

Phylum: Arthropoda (arthropods)					
Class: Crustaceans					
Order	**Family**	**Genus**	**Species (common name)**	**AK?**	**Ref.**
Decapodia (decapods)					
SHRIMP (Subclass malacostraca)					
suborder pleocyemata	Palaemonidae	Palaemon	adsperus		3
		Palaemon	macrodactylus		3
		Palaemonetes	pugio(grass shrimp)		2,3
		Palaemonetes	vulgaris(grass shrimp)		2,3
		Palaemonetes	intermedius(grass shrimp)		2
	Hippolytidae	Eualus	suckleyi (Kelp shrimp)	AK	
	Pandalidae	Pandalus	jordani		2
	Pandalidae	Pandalus	danae (Dock shrimp)	AK	2, 17
	Pandalidae	Pandalus	borealis (Pink shrimp)	AK	17, 18
	Pandalidae	Pandalus	hypsinotus (Coonstripe)	AK	17
suborder Dendrobranc-hiata	(Penaeid shrimp)	Penaeus	aztecus (brown shrimp)		2,3
	(Penaeid shrimp)	Penaeus	duorarum (pink shrimp)		2,3
	(Penaeid shrimp)	Penaeus	setiferus (white shrimp)		2,3
	(Penaeid shrimp)	Penaeus	stylirostris		3
	Caridea (Sand shrimp)	Crangon	septemspinosa (& other spec.)		2,3
	Caridea? (Bay shrimp)	Crangon	nigricuda		2

Crustaceans (large: shrimp, crabs, lobsters) continued

Crabs and lobsters					
CRABS class crustaceans					
Order	Family	Genus	Species	AK ?	Ref.
Decapodia sub(or infraorder Brachyura)	Canceridae	Cancer	irroratus (Rock crab)		3
	Canceridae	Cancer	magister (Dungeness)	AK	19
	Canceridae	Cancer	productus (Red)	AK	3
	Majidae	Chionoecetes	bairdi (Tanner)	AK	19
	Lithodidae	Paralithodes	camtschaticus (King)	AK	17
	Portunidae	Callinectes	sapidus (blue crab)		2,3
	Portunidae	Carcinus	maenas (Green crab)		2
	Gapsidae	Hemigrapsus	(several), “shore crab”		2
	Gapsidae	Pachygrapsus	(several), “shore crab”		2
	?	Uca	(several) (fiddler crab)		3
LOBSTER					
Decapodia	Nephropidae (lobster)	Homarus	americanus		2

IV.B.2

Crustaceans (small: mysids and copepods)

Phylum: Arthropoda (arthropods) Class Crustaceans					
Order	**Family**	**Genus**	**Species**	**AK?**	**Ref.**
Subclass Copepoda (copepods)					
Calanoida		Acartia	clausi		2
		Acartia	tonsa		
			(several)	AK	
Harpacticoida		Tigriopus	brevicornis		2
			(several)	AK	
MYSIDS Malacostraca subclass Peracarida					
Mysidacae Suborder Mysina	Mysidae	Mysidopsis	bigelowi		2
	Mysidae	Holmesimysis	costata		16
	Mysidae	Archaeomysis	grebnitzkii	AK	4,5
		Mysidopsis	almyra		2
		Mysidopsis	bahia		8
	?	Acanthomysis	pseudomacropsis	AK	25

IV.A.3

Other invertebrates

Phylum: Molusca Class: Pelecypoda (bivalves: clams, oysters, mussels)					
order	**family**	**Genus**	**Species**	**STD/AK**	**ref.**
Ostreoida (suborder. Ostreina)	ostreidae	Crassostrea (Atlantic oyster)	virginica		2
		Crassostrea (Japanese oyster)	gigas	AK	2
		Mercenaria (hard clam or Quahog)	mercenaria		2
Mytiloida	Mytilidae	Mytilus (blue mussel)	edulis (trossulus in AK and NW)	AK	2
Class: Gastropoda, Subclass Prosobranchia (snails and abalone)					
Archaeogastropoda Suborder Pleurotomariina	Haliotidae	Haliotis	rufescens		16
Neogastropoda Suborder: Rachiglossa	Nucellidae	Nucella	lima	AK	
Phylum: Echinodermata (echinoderms: sea stars, urchins) Class: Echinoidea)					
Arbacioda	Arbaciidae	Arbacia	punctulata (Atlantic purple urchin)		1
Subclass Euechinoidea Order: Echinoida	Strongylocentrotidae	Strongylocentrotus	purpuratus (Pacific purple urchin)	AK	16
Subclass Euechinoidea Order: Echinoida	Strongylocentrotidae	Strongylocentrotus	droebachiensis (green urchin)	AK	4,5
		Strongylocentrotus	franciscanus (red urchin)	AK	
Clypeasteroida Suborder: Scutellina	Dendraster-idae	Dendraster	excentricus		16

IV.C **Phylum: Vertebrate**

Class: Pices

Subclass: Teleostei (bony fish)

Family	**Genus**	**Species**	**Common name**	**Notes**	**Ref.**
Order: Atheriniformes					
Atherinidae	Menidia	(several) (M. menidia used for dispersant res.	Silverside	family not AK	2, ,13, 14, 15
Atherinidae	Menidia	beryllina	Silverside (CROSERF)	family not AK	2, 13,14
Atherinidae	Atherinops	affinis	Topsmelt	family not AK (Aquatic Biosystems cultures cold)	Used in dispersant tests.
Order: Clupeiformes					
Clupeidae (Herrings)	Clupea	harengus (pacific herring C. pallasi)	Herring	found in AK	2 13, 14
Order: Cypriniformes					
Cyprinidae	Cyprinodon	variegatus	Sheepshead minnow	family not AK	2,13,14
Cyprinodontidae	Fundudlus	heteroclitus	Mummichog	family not AK	2, 13,14
Cyprinodontidae	Fundulus	similis	Longnose killifish	family not AK	2, 13,14
Order: Gadiformes					
Gadidae	Theragra	chalcogramma	Walleye Pollock	species found in AK	21, 25
Order: Gasterosteiformes					
Gasterosteidae	Gasterosteus	aculeatus	Threespine stickleback	species found in AK	2,13,14
?	Lagodon	rhomboides	Pinfish	genus not AK	2
?	Leiostomus	xanthurus	Spot	genus not AK	2
Aulorhynchidae	Aulorhynchus	flavidus	Tubesnout	found in AK	21, 25
Order: Perciformes					
Ammodytidae	Ammodytes	hexapterus	Pacific Sand Lance	found in AK	13, 14
Embiotocidae (surfperchs)	Cymatogaster	aggregata	Shiner perch	not found north of Wrangle	2, 13, 14
Stichaeidae	Spp.		(Pricklebacks)	24 species in AK	14

Class: Pices
Subclass: Teleostei (bony fish) (continued.)

Order: Perciformes (cont.)					
Stichaeidae	Anoplarchus	purpurescens	cockscomb prickleback	found in AK	21, 25
Pholidae (gunnels)	Spp			5 species in AK	14
Pholidae	Pholis	laeta	Crescent Gunnel	found in AK	21, 25
Order: Pleuronectiformes (flat fish)					
Bothidae	Citarichthys	stigmaeus	Sanddab	south to SE AK only	2, 13
Bothidae	Paralichthys	dentatus	Flounder	genus not AK	2, 13,14
Bothidae	Paralichthys	lethostigma	Flounder	genus not AK	2,13,14
Pleuronectidae (Halibut family)	Platichthys	stellatus	Starry flounder	found in AK	2, 13,14
Pleuronectidae (Halibut family)	Parophrys	vetulus (or vetula)	English sole	found in AK	2, 13,14
Order: Salmoniformes					
Salmonidae	Salvelinus	malma	Dolly Varden	found in AK	13, 25
Salmonidae	Oncorhychus	gorbuscha	Pink salmon (all AK salmon in this genus)	found in AK	13, 25
Order: Scorpaeniformes					
Cottidae	Oligocottus	maculosus	tidepool sculpin	species found in AK	2, 13, 14
Cottidae	Myoxo-cephalus	polyacantho-cephalus	Great Sculpin	species found in AK	21, 25

V.0

Discussion of species

V. General

Environmental toxicity testing is done with the most sensitive life stage available. For aquatic toxicology, this is typically the larval life stage, that is, shortly after hatching. For most Alaskan waters, all the life forms are synchronized to the "spring bloom." The timing of the spring bloom varies with year and location, but is typically between March and May. This bloom is primarily dependent on the sunlight and the stability of the water column, not the temperature. At depth, waters are the coldest at this time. During the spring bloom there is a great increase in the amount of photosynthetic algae. This increase in numbers of producers at the lowest trophic level provides food for the first level of consumer species, either small animals or the larval stage of larger animals. These in turn provide food for the large species. In colder waters most species reproduce only once per year, and these species time the hatching of their eggs to coincide with this spring bloom. The implications of this for cold regions toxicity testing are that the larval stages will only be available during this spring bloom. For toxicity testing at other times of year, testing is limited to species that are not on this cycle, or species which are amenable to having this cycle perturbed in the laboratory.

The idea of freezing developed eggs, then thawing them when larvae were needed for toxicity testing is attractive because the cost of maintaining a frozen stock is much smaller than that of a live culture facility. The freezing of fish eggs for mariculture has been attempted and some success has been reported [24], but this new technology is not well developed. For Alaska species, it is clear that freezing eggs for storage would be a major research project in itself. Therefore, freezing of eggs will not be considered in the analysis that follows. If the state of the art improves, so that basic techniques are known, the freezing of eggs for future testing should be revisited.

Culturing small laboratory animals is common technology. For aquatic species, a source of fresh sea water is generally required. Artificial sea water is available, but for most culturing applications, large quantities of water are needed. For the culturing of an

Alaskan species to be useful for toxicity testing, the animals must not only be amenable to surviving in a culture facility, it is also necessary that they may be induced to spawn on certain schedules. For some animals, especially small fish, copepods, and mysids, this is not complex technology. In order to induce them to spawn on a particular schedule, however, would take a major project of one or perhaps several years.

V.A. Shrimp

1. Availability and General Information

There are five genera of shrimp listed as common for toxicity tests*: Palaemon, Palaemonetes, Penaeus, Crangon, and Pandalus.* Of these five genera, only *Pandalus* and *Crangon* have species commonly found in Alaskan Waters.

The genus *Pandalus* is well represented with 9 species of family Pandalidae mentioned by Kozloff [5]. Both *P. jordani* and *P. danae*, listed in ASTM procedures [2] are found in the northwest. Three additional *Pandalus* species, not in the standard lists: *P borealis*, *P. hypsinotus* and *P. goniurus*, have been recovered in Lower Cook Inlet [18]. There are many species of family Crangonidae, with 7 of Genus *Crangon* listed in Kozloff [5] but none of these are mentioned as standard test species. Crangon are found in the sand of shallow water environments [4]. Clearly members of the genera *Crangon* and *Pandalus* are found in Alaskan waters, and any of these would be similar to standard test species.

2. Exposure Methods

Tests of shrimp larvae consist of capturing ovigerous (egg bearing) females, clipping their chelipeds (appendage with claws) with fine scissors, and maintaining the shrimp in tanks. The fertilized eggs soon hatch releasing larvae, and the testing is done on larvae [3]. Once the larvae hatch, standard 96-hr exposure tests can be done (see below), so the CROSERF procedures could be used without modification.

3. Practicality

The Alaskan shrimp species: Coonstripe shrimp (*Pandalus hypsinotus*), dock shrimp (P. *danae*), and kelp shrimp (*Eualus suckleyi*) were used to test their sensitivity to drilling muds [17]. The method used was to collect gravid shrimp, isolate the various species into flow through tanks, and separate the larvae. Each test began with "stage I larvae, 0-3 days old." The tests may have lasted longer, but were "ended before first molt because of high natural mortality with first molt" [17] (the first molt takes place at an age of about 7 days). The water temperature was 5.6 ^{o} C; the larvae were not fed. Alaskan shrimp can be used for testing, when gravid shrimp are available.

4. Social relevance

The shrimp is well known to the public and likely to be perceived by the public as an important animal to investigate. Depending on the species chosen, the shrimp might also be economically relevant.

5. Ecologically relevant

All the shrimp species are important in the food chain. Some care is required in selecting the species so that a rare or transient species is not selected.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

The shrimp may be benthic (bottom dwelling) but the larvae are pelagic (free swimming) Some species are only found near shore or in limited locations. The species selected should be have a wide range.

7. Recommendations

With some further selection, there are several species of shrimp that are suited for toxicity testing of dispersants and other marine chemicals. Gravid Alaskan shrimp are not available commerically. They must be collected prior to each experiment, and held until they release larvae. Since the shrimp are only gravid during the "spring bloom," collection is highly seasonal. Shrimp could be cultured at the SMC, but it would take a major effort, perhaps one person half time while the shrimp are maintained. With this

however, it is not certain that the shrimp can be induced to spawn at other than their natural times during spring bloom. In that case, there is no advantage to culturing them. There is no clear advantage to using shrimp over crab.

If testing of shrimp is required, several items could be researched further:

- Develop a schedule for each species of the usual hatching season at likely collection locations.
- Determine the species that are reliably collectable, based on historical data.

V.B. Crabs and Lobster

Crabs

1. Availability and General Information

Of the three species of the family Cancridae, genus *Cancer*, that have been used in standard toxicity tests, two species are common in Alaska, the Dungeness crab and the Red crab. *C. magister*, the Dungeness crab, is common and an important fishery. *C. productus*, the Red crab is also common, but not commercially fished because of its hard thick shell. The other families used in standard toxicity tests are not present in Alaska waters, except for several members of the genus *Hemigrapsus*, the shore crab, which are not relevant to dispersants and not likely to be economically or socially important and are not considered further. Family Nephroidae, lobsters, are not found in Alaskan waters.

In addition the Tanner Crab and King Crab have been used in Alaska for toxicity testing. The Tanner Crab, *Chionoecetes bairdi*, belongs to the family Majidae, and the King Crab, *Paralithodes camtschaticus*, belongs to the family Lithodidae.

2. Exposure Methods

The earlier work with Alaska crab species indicated the following procedure will work: Gravid females are collected in December or January and maintained in a mariculture facility with running seawater. The larvae are released from the female in the spring.

The larvae are separated from the mothers when they are 0 to 24 hours old and exposed in CROSERF or other chambers. The crab larvae are fed algae or diatoms and survive well.

3. Practicality

Toxicity tests with crab larvae are straightforward and have been done with Alaska species both by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife group at Auke Bay and the UAF group at the SMC. The crabs are seasonal, even though they are in a culture, the eggs reach maturity and hatch about the same time. This hatching time is not known in advance, however, and there is about a three-month window during which the experimenters must be prepared to start work and complete the work in 3 to 4 weeks.

4. Social relevance

All the Alaska species are harvested and perceived by the public as important. The Red crab slightly less so.

5. Ecologically relevant

All are ecologically relevant. The king is a deep water species.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

The larvae are pelagic and all the Alaska species can be used. The larvae (actually called zoae) fit 5 to 10 in a CROSERF chamber, but are still visible.

7. Recommendations

The techniques with crab larvae are well established. Any of the four species: Red, Dungeness, Tanner, and King could be used in CROSERF or other acute toxicity tests. The only limitation is the timing and the need to maintain the gravid females for several months. Hence the animal maintenance and chemical exposure work could not be done at UAF.

V.C. Mysids

1. Availability and General Information

All mysid species mentioned in the standard toxicity testing references [1,2,16] are warm water species. Mysids, sometimes called "opossum shrimp," are common in plankton and other marine environments. A species common in British Columbia and the Northwest is *Archaeomysis grebnitzkii*. The mysid, *Acanthomysis pseudomacropsis* has been used for toxicity testing in Alaska [25]. The warm water mysid species are easily cultured and many tests can be done with them through their 28-day life and reproduction cycles [2]. Selecting and rearing a cold water species might be a difficult task. The standard EPA West Coast tests uses the mysid *Holmesimysis costata*, which is "common intertidal among eelgrass and algae on sandy or rocky beaches; found near river mouths and in bays and lagoons, but generally restricted to higher salinities [4,16]."

2. Exposure Methods

The warm water mysids are common in aquatic toxicology and are used in many different types of tests, both acute and reproductive. The EPA West Coast test method has a procedure for testing of mysids that uses water as cold as 13^{o} C.

3. Practicality

Developing a cold water species will take considerable effort. The warm water procedures assume that gravid females can be collected as needed. The short life of the mysid requires that breeding continue all year. This is true in colder waters as well, but there are fewer individuals in the colder seasons. Finding sufficient adults for testing is not a sure thing. Identification of species is also difficult and requires a skilled taxonomist. It is likely that once a species is collected, it will be necessary to culture it through one or more generations to assure sufficient animals are available for testing.

These problems are similar to that of copepods, as discussed below. Use of the standard EPA West Coast test method mysid, *H. costata*, may be possible at colder temperatures. This mysid is available from commercial laboratories.

4. Social relevance

Mysids are not known to the general public. The importance of mysids in food chain of larger species would require some explanation.

5. Ecologically relevant

Mysids are an important part of the food chain. Some knowledge of the species selected would be required in order to assure it is not a transient or rare species.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

Mysids are part of the plankton and nearshore waters. They are used in dispersant investigations, although the species used to date have been estuarine species.

7. Recommendations

Since mysids are so common in aquatic toxicity testing, a cold water mysid would be credible to other scientists in aquatic toxicology and be a species for which many different testing regimes have been used. If funding were available, a stock of mysids could be cultured at SMC or other marine center with running sea water available. The following recommendations parallel those for the copepod below:

- Run a plankton trawl in the colder months and carefully review the species of mysid obtained. Separate into species and count the number of gravid females. Take the several species so obtained and maintain them separately in tanks in SMC. Feed the most appropriate food that is readily available. Sample periodically and assess the number of gravid females and assure the integrity of the species, and
- Run a ranging test, using the EPA West Coast protocol, in so far as practical. This test requires juveniles. These larvae could be obtained from the freshly collected females if sufficient quantities are obtained, or from the cultured group.

V.D. Copepods

1. Availability and General Information

Copepods are small crustaceans. The two genera common in toxicity testing, *Acartia* and *Tigriopus*, are not found in the Northwest or Alaska. There are several species of orders *Calanoida* and *Harpacticoida* found in Alaska. Because they are noted as being better laboratory species, only the order Harpacticoida will be considered.

2. Exposure Methods

There are many tests that can be done with harpacticoid copepods, including the standard 96-hour tests. Since egg sacks are produced every three days, multigenerational studies are practical. Both 7 and 12 day exposures have been used.

3. Practicality

Use of copepods would require first collecting, then culturing. Generally, adults must be collected because the immature life stages vary so much from the adult, separating is not practical until adulthood. In choosing a species, it is important to choose a species that is easy to distinguish. Further, copepods can be herbivorous, carnivorous or omnivorous. Food will be easier to find for the herbivorous species. Some species are common in most years, but not every year.

Rand has references to culturing copepods in laboratory but he notes many attempts fail, although harpacticoids are easier to rear than Acartia [3]. Using a 7-day test and counting the offspring will assure several stages of larvae have been exposed. A skilled microscopist is needed to count the copepods.

4. Social relevance

Herbivorous copepods are the first level consumers in the food chain. They are frequently found in the stomach of salmon smolt and are assumed important in the diet of young salmon.

5. Ecologically relevant

Care is required when selecting species that a rare species is not chosen. The common species are important in the food chain.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

Copepods are an important part of the plankton, and are a pelagic species and relevant to dispersants.

7. Recommendations

If funding were available, copepods could be cultured in the laboratory.

- Parallel to the recommendations for mysids above, a cold weather plankton tow should be done and species separated, counted etc.
- There is a good possibility copepods can be reared successfully in the lab, but more information is needed on the basic biology and identification of the species, nutrition, etc.

V.E.I Mollusks

0. General

The discussion of mollusks is divided into the major classes of mollusks, bivalves: clams, oysters, etc., and gastropods: snails-like animals.

I. Bivalves

1. Availability and General Information

Clams, oysters and mussels have long been used in aquatic toxicity studies. The two oyster and one clam species mentioned common in toxicity testing [2] are not native to Alaska nor the Northwest Pacific, but they have been introduced in some Northwest localities [4]. Japanese oyster (sometimes called the Pacific oyster) which is common in toxicity testing [2,16] has been introduced into Alaskan waters. It will not reproduce naturally in cold water, but commercial growers can import young oysters (spat) and settle them on empty shells (clutch) [4].

The mussel *Mytilus edulis* is used in toxicity testing [2,3] and is common in Alaska. There is some confusion regarding the name of the mussel species, *Mytilus edulis*. True *M. edulis* is probably only found on the Atlantic coast. The species reported as *M. edulis* in Alaska and the Northwest is properly *M. trossulus* [5]. *M. edulis* and *M. trossulus* are very closely related, certainly the same genus. The following assumes that all references in Kozloff [4,5] to *M. edulis* are *M. trossulus*, and are transcribed as *trossulus*.
M. trossulus, also known as the blue mussel or bay mussel, prefers quiet waters and estuaries where the salinity is relatively low. It attaches to rocks or wood piling.

The Qutekcak Shellfish Hatchery (QSH), co-located with the Seward Marine Facility, cultures shellfish spat (early life stages) for sales to Alaska Native mariculture operations. The species of shellfish QSH cultures or has been culturing include:
Littleneck Clam *(Protothaca staminea*)
Pacific Oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*)
Rock Scallop (*Crassadoma gigantea*)
Cockle (*Clinocardium nuttallii*)
Geoduck (*Panope abrupta*)
QSH could culture other shellfish, including mussels, but this currently lacks an economic basis. The Rock scallop and Geoduck are not noted as Alaskan species in Kozloff [5].

2. Exposure Methods

The shellfish are cultured (kept alive in a laboratory). Light, feeding, and water temperature cycles are adjusted to bring the shellfish to fertility. Eggs and sperm are collected separately, then mixed. The newly fertilized eggs, embryos, are placed in the test solution. After 48 hours the number of properly developed larvae is counted. This is typically a static, non-renewal test.

3. Practicality

There are standard ASTM and EPA test methods for both the Pacific oyster and the Blue mussel and the methods are similar. Culturing the shellfish probably requires a sophisticated facility with running sea water. It may be possible to culture shellfish for a short time in a UAF lab. Besides seawater, the shellfish required phytoplankton for food, and these must also be cultured. Blanchard and Feder [20] notes blue mussels developed gametes throughout the winter in Prince William Sound, including periods of freezing air and water. The main factors controlling reproduction and nutritional storage cycles are thought to be temperature and food availability. However, these cycles are apparently flexible, as mussels are able to adapt to individual environment quickly.

The QSH is set up and produces the embryos needed for these tests. The goal of QSH is not toxicity testing, so some modification to the QSH procedures are required in order to conform to the ASTM or EPA procedures. By scheduling the toxicity testing to conform to the QSH schedule, the test organism would be available, perhaps at no expense.

4. Social relevance

All the shellfish cultured at QSH are socially relevant, that is, they are being cultured commerically. Most are recognized by the public. The Blue Mussel is eaten by sea otters and other socially relevant species.

5. Ecologically relevant

The Pacific Oyster is not native to Alaska, and will not reproduce in cold water. It will live and grow in cold water. The mussel is native to Alaska and will reproduce in cold water, but is not cultured in QSH because there is no commercial demand for it. Blue mussels are in the food chain of many species

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

Mussels and oysters are nearshore species. Their fertilization and embryonic development could take place pelagicly but most takes place in the nearshore. These shellfish tests would be more relevant to nearshore effluent issues, than oil dispersants.

Because the shellfish tests are so well established and because of the possibility of applications of dispersant closer to the shore, the shellfish tests are not irrelevant to dispersant studies.

7. Recommendations

Coordination with QSH is important, but if good coordination, both administrative and technical, is achieved, it may be possible to perform the shellfish tests using small amounts of sperm and eggs produced a byproduct of QSH's normal operations. In addition, there is some lab space in the QSH building. The standard ASTM and EPA tests are not simple and require personnel skilled in both shellfish culture and aquatic toxicity testing. In addition, it is unlikely that the tests could be done satisfactorily the first time. For relevant reproduction testing, the personnel would need experience with the test. Because it is not the most relevant tests to dispersants, the work involved is probably not justified for dispersant studies. On the other hand, for near shore pollutants, it may be one of the most relevant tests.

II. Gastropods.

1.Availability and General Information

The red abalone is a standard test species [16] but it is a warm water species, as are the other members of family Haliotidae. There is a "northern abalone," *Haliotis kamtschatkana*, which may be found in colder waters, but it was not recommenced by Alaskan researcher and may not be common [4].

Several Alaskan researchers have mentioned the use of the snail species *Nucella lima* which deposits a pouch of eggs in the intertidal zone. The pouches are available in the winter, in some locations. Inside the pouches are fertilized eggs, which develop into small snails. The pouch is sturdy and can be maintained in oxygenated seawater without food.

2. Exposure Methods

There are no established exposure methods for the snail

3. Practicality

This is a species that is available in the winter, at least in some locations in Alaska and the pouches could be transported back to UAF for testing. Although the pouches are available in the winter, in nature they hatch in the spring. It may be possible to accelerate this hatching, but this would be new technology. In addition, the pouches of several species appear similar and species identification may not be possible .

4. Social relevance

Probably not socially relevant.

5. Ecologically relevant

Snails are predators of clams and barnacles. Snails are eaten by birds. Snails are not known as a vital part of the food chain.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

Unknown

7. Recommendations

Do not investigate further.

V.F. Echinoderms

1. Availability and General Information

Sea urchins are commonly used in experimental biology and keeping a sea urchin colony alive in the laboratory is relative easy [17]. They are sensitive to pollutants [16,17]. The most commonly tested sea urchin,[2] the purple urchin, *Arbacia punctulata*, is a warm water species. Neither its genus nor family is found in the Northwest [4,5]. There is an urchin species, *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*, also called the purple urchin, that is common to Alaskan waters and is a standard EPA West Coast test species [16]. A member of that genus, *Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis*, the Green Sea Urchin, has a

wide distribution in northern waters. The advantage with *S. purpuratus* is that there is much comparative literature regarding toxicity.

The green sea urchin is abundant in rocky intertidal areas. *S. purpuratus*, the purple urchin, also has a wide range. The red urchin, *S. franciscanus*, is found in warmer Alaskan waters, typically south of Sitka. In nature, the eggs and sperm are discharged into the sea. If the eggs are fertilized, they develop into a distinctive planktonic stage, which later settle out.

The sand dollar, *Dendraster excentricus*, is also an EPA test species and is found in the Northwest in sandy areas, but perhaps not as far north as south-central Alaska. Other sand dollar species are found in Alaska. The focus here will be on the urchin, because more is known about the Alaskan species and the test methods are better known.

2. Exposure Methods

The EPA test is essentially a test of the toxicity of the test chemical to the sperm, eggs and the fertilization process. After a brief, 20-minute, exposure of the sperm, eggs are added and 20 minutes later the process is stopped and the material fixed and the number of fertilized and properly developed embryo counted. Spawning is induced with chemical injection.

3. Practicality

The urchins are generally collected, which may require scuba diving for collection of purple and red urchins, or green urchins may be collected at low tide. Fresh seawater is required but this may be supplied by artificial seawater. Following collection, the urchin may be transported to UAF. The urchins eat seaweed pieces and other detritus. Urchins have developed gonads throughout the year, so urchins may be a good candidate for induced spawning [26].

4. Social relevance

The sea urchin tests directly measure toxicity to the fertilization process and there are well established procedures for those tests. Also, the Alaskan species, *S. franciscanus*, the red urchin, is harvested. Gonads of the red urchin are a delicacy in Japan. There is an active green sea urchin fishery on Kodiak Island. The red urchin is larger than the green and its selection as a food item is likely related to its size rather than other characteristics.

5. Ecologically relevant

Urchins are a food for sea otters.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations.

Although adults of most species have maximum depths of 10 to 15 meters, the sperm and eggs are pelagic. And as noted above, sea urchin tests are excellent tests of toxicity to the fertilization process. The sea urchin fertilization test is quite different than the standard CROSERF tests.

7. Recommendations

The urchin test is not a CROSERF test, but it is a standard EPA test and is the best test of fertilization and may be quite feasible in UAF. We recommend getting a supply of urchins at a convenient time, arrange with SMC to care and feed them, then with a subset of these, examine transporting them to UAF and try culturing them and inducing spawning, etc. If so, perform ranging tests with reference toxicant. Temperature limitation of spawning is a separate experiment.

V.G FISH

V.G Introduction

Many species of fish have been used in aquatic toxicity testing and many others have been recommended by Alaskan researchers. Toxicity testing has been done on nine fish species which included an estimation of the median lethal dose of crude oil [25]. In interest of brevity, the discussion of most species is limited to the major technical

disadvantages that would make it difficult for that species use in aquatic toxicity testing. In most cases, the disadvantage is that the adult fish must be cultured in order to obtain the larval or immature life stages needed for testing. Many of these fish could be cultured in a marine laboratory such as the SMC, but this would have a large time and money cost, and in general we deemed those species impractical. Some species are mentioned as possibilities for laboratory culture, because they have other advantages.

In general, all the fish are tested in the first week after hatching and would conform to the CROSERF protocols and similar ASTM and EPA test methods, so exposure scenarios for individual species are usually not discussed.

V.G 1: Standard test species:
Of the listed marine species [2] only the Threespine stickleback, tidepool sculpin, Starry flounder, English sole, and Herring are found in colder Alaskan waters. In addition, the Shiner perch and Sanddab are found in Southeast Alaska.

Threespine stickleback
1. Availability and General Information
The Threespine stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) has two varieties listed by Wilimovsky [14], *G. aculeatus aculeatus*, and *G. aculeatus microcephalus*. Both species are found in Alaskan waters. Eschmeyer [13] notes they are anadromous, spawning mostly in fresh water. They are properly described as euryhaline rather than marine. They eat small pelagic organisms, mostly crustaceans, and small fish. The stickleback is eaten by fish, seals, and sea birds. Record size is 10 cm, but most are much smaller.

2. Exposure Methods
The stickleback is no longer used as an EPA test species, although it is still used by the Corps of Engineers for dredging permits. The older standard tests of the stickleback used adult fish, hence the CROSERF chambers would not work and larger tanks would be required. If larval fish were used, the CROSERF procedure would work.

3. Practicality

Sticklebacks could be collected in Alaska. Adult sticklebacks are available from a supplier in California.

4. Social relevance

Not well known.

5. Ecologically relevant

A part of the food chain for many species.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

Yes, if cultured.

7. Recommendations

Adult sticklebacks have passed out of use for most marine aquatic toxicology testing because it was found that the adults were not a sensitive species, that is, they could survive higher concentrations of most toxicants than similar species. For that reason, the large investment required to culture sticklebacks in Alaska is not recommended.

Tidepool Sculpin

1. Availability and General Information

The tidepool sculpin is a nearshore species that commonly inhabit tidepools and the calmer intertidal areas [13, 21]. They are common and easy to collect. Maximum lengths up to 9 cm have been reported. Another sculpin, the great sculpin, has been used in oil toxicity testing [25].

2. Exposure Methods

Standard

3. Practicality

Easy to collect adults. Would require culturing to obtain larvae. In nature, their reproduction is keyed to the spring bloom.

4. Social relevance

Not a well known species, the ease of observation of the adults might give them some recognition.

5. Ecologically relevant

Their prevalence indicates they are probably in the food chain of many species, but this is not noted in literature.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

The adults are common near shore and intertidal. They are known to prefer their home tidepools, hence they might not be considered pelagic.

7. Recommendations

Because this is a common test species and easily obtained, it would be a good candidate, if a culture facility were attempted. It is kept in aquaria [21]. Prior to selection, more literature searching should be done to determine if successful culturing has been done, albeit with warmer waters. The key to culturing successfully would be to determine if they could be made to spawn on demand, hence produce larvae as needed for toxicity testing. This would require development of new technology.

Flat fish

1. Availability and General Information

Two flat fish species are both common in marine research, the Starry flounder (*Platichthys stellatus*) and the English sole (*Parophrys vetulus*) and found in Alaska waters. They are different genera, but must be closely related species because a cross between the two species, the Hybrid sole, is noted. The English sole, also known as the Lemon sole, is important commerically [13, 21]. The Starry flounder is noted as a game

fish [13]. The Sanddab is in the same family as two species that are found in colder waters, so it will not be discussed further.

2. Exposure Methods

Although listed as a common test species by ASTM, recent references to their use in toxicity testing were not found.

3. Practicality

Uncertain. Culturing would be required. Conversations with culturing facilities indicated that most flat fish, especially the Sanddab, were collected, not cultured, which indicates testing by others has not been done on larvae.

4. Social relevance

Flatfish have a high public recognition.

5. Ecologically relevant

Adult flatfish are bottom dwellers or benthic species. Many species spawn in shallow water and migrate to deeper water later.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

Their habits make them not highly relevant to dispersants, which are assumed to be used in deeper water, since the eggs and larvae are deposited in shallow water. They would be relevant in general for effluent toxicity.

7. Recommendations

Because of their strong social recognition and the economic importance of closely related species such as halibut, either of these flatfish species should be a candidate, if culturing is a possibility. The adults are large, and this might make them less practical for culturing. A literature search and interviews may provide insight into details of their use.

Shiner perch

The Shiner perch family is not important in Alaska, so its warmer water habitat and lack of important do not invite further discussion.

Herring

1. Availability and General Information

Herring are seasonally common and have been used in toxicity testing in Alaska. Herring are usually found inshore in harbors and large estuaries during spawning. Spawning takes place in winter and/or spring (later in the north). Each female lays up to 125,000 eggs which are sticky and cling in masses to eelgrass, kelp, and fixed objects. The Alaska species is considered by some researches to be a Pacific population of the Atlantic herring, *Clupea harengus* [13].

Rice, et al., [22] used adult herring and eggs in several experiments. In one experiment the researchers started with adults in 1000L fiberglass tanks collected with purse seine. They also tested collected eggs from seaweed to which they are attached. They noted that "Feeding larvae...are killed by shorter exposures and lower concentration than the eggs or adults."

2. Exposure Methods

Many methods have been used, included larvae, which would fit the CROSERF procedures.

3. Practicality

Eggs are readily available in the spring. Eggs could be rapidly shipped to UAF or other locations for the experiments.

4. Social relevance

Important commerically and easily recognized by the public.

5. Ecologically relevant

Important species.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

Spawning takes place between high tide line and depths of 36 feet [21]. The larvae remain in shallow water the first six months of life, then migrate to deeper waters. The adults are certainly pelagic and directly relevant to CROSERF. The larvae are more relevant to effluent pollution issues.

7. Recommendations

Herring are an excellent test species, the only drawback in the narrow time window when their eggs are available.

Sand Lance

1. Availability and General Information

Sand Lance is found is several habitats: offshore, in schools in channels , and buried in the sand nearshore. It is common in Alaska. Adults can grow to 8-10 inches. The sand lance is a long narrow fish. Sand lance (Pacific sand lance, *Ammodytes hexapterus*) is an important food for predatory fishes, sea birds and marine mammals. Habitat includes burying into the sand and swimming in schools [13, 21].

2. Exposure Methods

There are no reports of this species being used in toxicity testing.

3. Practicality

Adults are very common at some times and would be readily available by seining. At other times their availability may be more difficult. Details of its life cycle and spawning habits are not known.

4. Social relevance

Not a well known species, but their place in the food chain as salmon prey would help public accept them.

5. Ecologically relevant

The sand lance is frequently taken as food by Chinook and Coho salmon, lingcod, halibut, fur seals, and many other marine vertebrates, including birds [21].

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

The varied habitats of the sand lance would make it relevant to most types of aquatic toxicity testing.

7. Recommendations

Culturing the sand lance would be required in order to test larvae. The varied habitats of the sand lance might make it amenable to culturing, but this is unknown. It would be new technology, and this is not recommended unless more is know about the life cycle.

Gunnels

1. Availability and General Information

Three species of family Pholidae: *Apodichthys flavidus, Pholis laeta, P. ornata*, are noted in Alaska [21]. The most common, *P. laeta*, the Crescent Gunnel, occurs in the intertidal zone and tidepools, but also down to 55-73 meters. It has been used in Alaska toxicity testing [25].

2. Exposure Methods

Adults were used in testing of crude oil toxicity, reported in 1979 [25].

3. Practicality

Details of its life cycle and spawning habits are not known for all three species. The adults are noted to be easy to find intertidally by seining.

4. Social relevance

Not a well known species.

5. Ecologically relevant

Not known.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

The varied habitats of the gunnels would make them relevant to most types aquatic toxicity.

7. Recommendations

Culturing the gunnel would be required in order to test larvae. It would be new technology, and this is not recommended unless more is known about the life cycle. SMC noted it would be a 1 to 2 year project to establish the reproductive biology and perhaps establish a culture. It may be that reproduction is light sensitive.

Pricklebacks

1. Availability and General Information

Many species of family Stichaeidae are found in Alaska waters: *Anoplarchus insignis, A. purpurescens, Chirolophis decoratus, C. nugator, Lumpenus maculatus, L. sagitta, Phytichthys chirus, Poroclinus rothrocki, Xiphister atropurpureus, X. mucosus,* are noted [21]. *A. purpurescens* has been used in Alaska toxicity testing [25].

2. Exposure Methods

A. purpurescens has been used in testing toxicity of crude oil [25].

3. Practicality

Details of its life cycle and spawning habits are not known for any of the species. They are noted as being found in trawl nets and some are available by this method.

4. Social relevance

Not a well known species.

5. Ecologically relevant

Not known.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

The many species of Pricklebacks makes it likely that some of them would be relevant to aquatic toxicity testing.

7. Recommendations

Culturing the Pricklebacks would be required in order to test larvae. It would be new technology, and this is not recommended unless more is known about their life cycle.

Pink salmon fry

1. Availability and General Information

Pink salmon fry are available, at a certain time of year, from hatcheries.

2. Exposure Methods

Fry are to too large to fit in the CROSERF chambers, but have been tested in tanks. The fry are not a larval form, they almost one year old, and are expected to be relatively resistant to toxics. Because of their larger size, continuous flow-though type testing would be required. They have been used for toxicity testing in Alaska. Carls, et al., [23] used pink fry from hatchery, and implied they were put directly into seawater. Fry were maintained in 800L tanks then put in 65 L for testing.

3. Practicality

The fry are readily available. Directly from the hatchery they are still acclimated to fresh water and would have to acclimated to salt water. For the pink salmon, this is a rapid process, i.e., several days. Some hatcheries use a "net pen" towards the end of the hatchery process. The pens are placed in salt water. Fry from these pens would be acclimated to salt water and might be hardier. The fry would require large quantities of salt water and the testing would not be practical at UAF.

4. Social relevance

Highly recognized.

5. Ecologically relevant

Yes.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

In general, salmon fry after they enter marine waters are a pelagic species and would be relevant for CROSERF testing. Their presence in nearshore waters is brief and hence they would not be relevant for chronic effluent toxicity.

7. Recommendations

The pink salmon fry make an excellent test species except for their seasonality and the fact that as a more mature life stage, they may be resistant. Dolly Varden have also been used for toxicity testing in Alaska, but provide no advantages over the pink salmon [25].

Topsmelt

1. Availability and General Information

Atherinops affinis is common in California but is found only north to southern British Columbia. They are included here for two reasons, first, they are a standard EPA West Coast test species [16] and second, commercial culturing facilities have some experience culturing this fish at low temperatures.

2. Exposure Methods

Nine to 15-day old larvae are tested in static renewal tests for the EPA methods, but the topsmelt have been used in a great variety of aquatic toxicity tests

3. Practicality

Larvae are readily available by fast air shipment from culture facilities in the lower-48.

4. Social relevance

Not well known outside scientific circles. In California, they are a very common species and are often among the most abundant species in California estuaries [16].

5. Ecologically relevant

Not relevant in Alaska.

6. Relevant to dispersant investigations or other investigations

In the warmer waters where it is found, its habits are similar to the herring, and it is likewise relevant to both dispersant and effluent testing.

7. Recommendations

Aquatic Biosystems (AB) raises topsmelt and drops their water temperature to 12.8^{o} C AB noted that adults do fine at 8-12 ^{o} C. They spawn at 16-22 ^{o} C. AB does not see a problem with shipping larvae at 15 ^{o} C nor with survival down to 12 ^{o} or 10 ^{o} C. Below 10^{o} C the larvae may become lethargic. A reasonable experiment would be to obtain larvae that have been shipped at 15 ^{o} C and drop the temperature 2 ^{o} degrees per day and observe fitness and mortality down to 8 ^{o} C or perhaps lower. (The test temperature for a cold water should be 4 ^{o} C, this may not be possible with the topsmelt.) An allied problem is the feeding of the larvae. The standard food, brine shrimp nauplii, dies at cold temperatures. The topsmelt larvae may or may not eat the dead nauplii, if not, alternate foods are required to feed the larvae for the 4 or 7 day tests. If the topsmelt larvae survive and are testable at a low temperature, positive controls, that is, exposure to a reference toxicant should be done.

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