Paper III

1	Effects of alkylphenols (4- <i>tert</i> -butyl-, 4- <i>n</i> -pentyl-, 4- <i>n</i> -hexyl- and 4- <i>n</i> -
2	heptylphenol) on the reproductive system of Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua).
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1 Abstract

4	Offshore oil production releases large amounts of lipophilic compounds in produced water into the
5	ocean. The discharge of produced water from the Norwegian petroleum sector are continuously
6	increasing with the age of the oilfields and were in 2004 143 million m ³ . Produced water contains
7	significant amounts of alkylphenols, which have been reported to be estrogenic, causing endocrine
8	disruption in fish. In year 2004, approximately 13 tons of long-chain ($\geq C_4$) alkylphenols were released
9	on the Norwegian continental shelf in connection with discharge of produced water. Little is known
10	about the biological effects of alkylphenols when released in the marine environment. Our objective
11	was to clarify how alkylphenols affect the reproduction in first-time spawning Atlantic cod (Gadus
12	morhua). Model compounds tested included 4-tert-butylphenol, 4-n-pentylphenol, 4-n-hexylphenol
13	and 4-n-heptylphenol, all found in produced water. Two groups of cod were exposed through the feed
14	with a mixture of these four alkylphenols from October to the end of January (14 weeks): 0.02 mg/kg
15	low group and 2 mg/kg high group. The fish were sampled ones a month through out the experiment
16	(4 samplings points). Variations in hormone levels (17ß-estradiol, testosterone and 11-keto-
17	testosterone) in blood plasma and gonadal development in control groups were compared with groups
18	of cod exposed to alkylphenols.
19	The study demonstrated that "estrogenic" alkylphenols induced an anti estrogenic effect in the female
20	fish by reducing the natural estrogen levels in plasma, even at very low doses alkylphenols. For the
21	male fish were there only minor difference between the exposed groups and the control group. In
22	November, after 2 month exposure were both testosterone and 11-keto-testosterone significant reduced
23	in the males from the alkylphenols groups, but this were not evident in any of the samplings points.
24	There was an weak induction of vitellogenin in plasma of the exposed male cod, the variation in
25	between the groups were large, but only 20 $\%$ of the male fish in the control group had detectable
26	levels of VTG in plasma, whether the number for the low AP exposure and high AP exposure were
27	53% and 72% respectably.

Generally was the large variation on all variables mesured. It was evaluated that the experimental
 setup, where we exposed the fish as a group through the feed, could be partly responsibly for this big
 variation in between the group responses. There was no control of how high the doses were for each
 individually fish, some fish have probably eaten more than others and therefore been more exposed.
 The experiment was lather repeated using force-feeding of all individual fish to insure a defined dose
 per unit weight for all fish and the finding were confirmed.

8 Key words: Alkylphenols, Endocrine disruption, Cod (*Gadus morhua*), Produced water, Steroids,
9 Ovari

10

11 2 Introduction

12 The estrogenic effects of alkylphenols (AP) are known from a large number of in vitro and in vivo 13 studies (Nimrod and Benson 1996). The APs bind to, and affect the estrogen receptors in the same 14 way as 17 β -estradiol (E₂), but the response is much weaker (Mueller and Kim 1978; Soto *et al.* 1991; 15 Jobling and Sumpter 1993). Virtually all research in this field has dealt with the two long-chain APs: 16 Nonylphenol (NP) and octylphenol (OP). These are degradation products of the non-ionic surfactants 17 known as alkylphenol ethoxylates (APE). APEs are among the most widely used surfactants in the 18 world, with an annual production of around 500,000 tonnes, and has been utilized in a large number of 19 products, including herbicides, paints and industrial cleaning and degreasing agents (Naylor et al. 20 1992; Renner 1997). In Norway, the use of APEs has been very limited, and has fallen significantly 21 during the 1990s, from 615 tonnes in 1995 to 113 tonnes in 2000 (www.SFT.no, 2001). The use of 22 NP, OP and their ethoxylates has been forbidden in Norway since January 2002 23 (www.miljoverndepartementet.no, 2001). The European Union are also planning to ban the use of 24 these substances (EU 2003), which are also on the Oslo-Paris Commission's (OSPAR) list of 25 chemicals which ought to be phased out. On the other hand, APEs are still widely used in the U.S. 26 (Renner 1997).

27

1 NP has been identified at a large number of locations in the marine environment. Analyses of coastal 2 seawater from areas near cities have shown concentrations up to $1.2 \mu g/l$, while values from sediment 3 samples can be as high as 20 mg/kg in particularly exposed sites (Langston et al. 2005). Identification 4 of NP- and OP in samples from offshore open waters places high demands on analytical methodology, 5 due to the very low concentrations involved. Only three studies have to our knowledge made this kind 6 of measurements. Kannan et al. (1998) found very low levels of NP in the Sea of Japan (0.002 - 0.093 7 ng/l), while measurement from the North Sea (German Bight) showed significantly higher values (Bester et al. 2001). Bester et al. found NP concentrations in seawater between 0.7 and 4.4 ng/l, and 8 9 reported 13 µg/kg NP in sediments taken more than 100 km offshore. The water concentration of NP 10 offshore from the Dutch coastal zone are found to be as high as 28-82 ng/l (Jonkers et al. 2005).

11

12 In addition to being degradation products of the APEs, alkylphenols are natural components of crude 13 oil (Ioppolo-Armanios et al. 1995; Ioppolo-Armanios et al. 1992; Taylor et al. 1997; Rolfes and 14 Andersson 2001). As a result of their solubility in water a high proportion will be found in the aqueous 15 phase after water/oil separation and therefore be discharged into the sea with the produced water. The 16 alkylphenols are typically found in concentrations of 0.6 - 10.0 mg/l in produced water. About 80 % of 17 the total amount consists of the most water-soluble alkylphenols (phenol and cresol (C_1)). Of the 18 remaining components, the higher alkylphenols from butyl- to heptylphenols occur in low 19 concentrations of 0.07 - 237 µg/l (Grahl-Nielsen 1987; Brendehaug et al. 1992; Røe and Johnsen 20 1996; Boitsov et al. 2004).

21

In spite of the slow breakdown of long-chain alkylphenols, these substances are fully biologically degradable, and when APEs are phased out, the potential environmental problems caused by these substances will disappear in a relatively short time. On the other hand, even if the most serious environmental threat from the alkylphenols will disappear with the phasing out of APEs, any problems associated with discharges of long-chain alkylphenols from petroleum production will remain.

27

Very little is known about the fate of these substances in the marine offshore environment. There are no empirical data on concentrations of long-chain alkylphenols in the sea around North Sea offshore

1 installations. One study showed that phenol and lighter alkylphenols (C1-C4) occur at the 2 concentrations of 486 and 140 ng/l, respectively (Riksheim and Johnsen 1994). We are therefore 3 forced to use models when estimating the levels to which fish may be exposed. Rye et al. (1996) 4 simulates the spread of AP discharges from produced water from the Halten Bank, and calculates the 5 likely uptake by pelagic fish using a model. The model simulates the dissemination of total AP 6 discharges from two platforms, and includes biological response estimates (Bioconcentration Factor 7 (BCF) and constants for uptake and elimination). The calculations of a "worst case scenario" show that 8 the body burden of AP in the fish modelled will be in the range 0 - 10 μ g/kg (Rye *et al.* 1996).

9

10 This article presents the results from a project carried out during 1997-2001 where the goal was to 11 study long-term biological effects of very low concentrations of selected C_4 - C_7 AP found in 12 production water on sex hormones and reproduction in Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*). The study was 13 carried out under controlled laboratory conditions. The compounds tested were 4-tert-butylphenol, 4n-14 pentylphenol, 4n-hexylphenol and 4n-heptylphenol.

15

Given the lack of field data, we used the model values indicated in Rye *et al.*'s article as a basis for choosing the exposure regimes in our experiments. Using a mixture of four components with differing chain lengths (C4 to C7), an attempt has been made to take into account the wide range of different APs found in produced water. The intention of the tests was to dose the fish to a body burden within the range of Rye *et al.*'s estimates. Using the available information, it was concluded that 5 μ g/kg of each of the four AP ought to correspond to a fairly realistic dose.

22

The groups exposed to AP were compared with control groups with respect to variations in the steroid hormones 17 ß-estradiol (E₂), testosterone (T) and 11-keto-testosteroner (11-KT) as well as the yolkprotein vitellogenin (VTG) in blood plasma and gonadal development. Morphological and histological methods were used to search for effects on oocyte maturation and number (potential fecundity).

3 Materials and methods

2 3.1 Experimental design

3 The experiment was undertaken for 4 months in 1997/98 (Table 1).

4 *Table 1. Exposure and sampling scheme.*

Experiment
1997-09-30
1997-10-30
1997-11-27
1997-12-16
1998-01-26

6 This experiment used 300 two-year old cod (mean weight 0.631 kg) expected to spawn for the first 7 time in the following season. The fish came from a strain of Arcto-Norwegian cod produced at the Institute of Marine Research (IMR)'s station in Øygarden (Parisvatnet) near Bergen, Norway. The fish 8 9 were transported to Bergen and divided between one control group and two experimental (exposure) 10 groups in separate 15 m³ outdoor tanks (100 fish per tank). The fish tanks were supplied with water 11 from a 100 m depth and the water temperature remained stable at 8 - 10° C throughout the experiment. 12 The fish were fed three times a week with an amount of feed equivalent to a daily ration of 0.5% of 13 body weight (Kjesbu et al. 1996). The amount of feed supplied was adjusted after each monthly 14 sampling.

15

5

16 The exposed groups were given a mixture of 4-tert-butylphenol (C4) (Aldrich, Norway), 4n-17 pentylphenol (C_5) (Aldrich, Norway), 4n-hexylphenol (C_6) (Aldrich, Norway) and 4n-heptylphenol 18 (C_7) (TCI, Japan). The APs were dissolved in soya oil and mixed into the feed (wet pellets; 19 herring:fish meal, 60:40%) in concentrations of 1 or 100 mg/kg of each compound. The intention was 20 to achieve a daily "body burden" equivalent to a theoretical dose of 5 or 500 µg/kg of each AP per fish 21 per day. The fish were fed three times a week with a quantity of feed equivalent to a daily ration of 22 0.5% of body weight, i.e. the fish received 11 or 1166 μ g/kg body weight per feeding (three times a 23 week) in the low- and high-dose groups respectively.

24 The low dose was intended to represent an environmentally realistic value and the high dose a positive 25 control. Monthly samples of 15-20 fish were taken from each group.

2

3 3.1.1 Sampling

The cod were anaesthetized with benzocaine and blood samples were extracted from the sinus caudalis with a heparinised syringe. The samples were immediately centrifuged at 3000 G for 5 min. at 4° C. The plasma was frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80° C until analysis. The fish were killed by a blow to the head and their weights and lengths measured. Samples of various tissues (liver, gonads, brain and muscle) were rapidly excised with a scalpel. All samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80° C. Tissue samples for histology were fixed as described below.

10

11 3.2 Analyses

12 3.2.1 Steroid analyses

13 The plasma steroids were analysed by enzyme-linked immunoabsorption assay (ELISA) according to 14 a procedure described by Dahle *et al.* (2003). The female fish were analysed for E₂ and T and the 15 males for 11-KT and T.

16

17 3.2.2 Vitellogenin

18 The biomarker VTG was analysed by means of a quantitative ELISA technique developed at the IMR, 19 Austevoll Aquaculture Station. An assay was established for female fish (high VTG content) and a 20 more sensitive assay for male fish (low VTG content, detection threshold 0.1 µg/ml). Detalies are 21 giving in Meier et al., (2006 a,b)

22

23 3.2.3 Histology and morphology

24 Samples from selected groups were studied for signs of histological changes. The histological samples

25 were collected in January (at the end of feeding) form Control group, 0.02 mg AP/kg and 2 mg AP/kg.

2	Fixation protocol					
3	Tissue samples from all female fish were fixed in buffered formalin (3.6% formaldehyde based on					
4	Merck p.aquality formalin) in 0.0295 M sodiumdihydrogenphosphate and 0.0461 M					
5	disodiumhydrogenphosphate for estimates of fecundity and size distribution, and in modified					
6	Karnovsky fixative (2.5% formaldehyde based on Merck p.aquality formalin), 2.5% glutaraldehyde					
7	and 7% sucrose in 0.05M sodium dimethylarsenate (sodium cacodylate) for histological studies.					
8						
9	Embedding procedure					
10	Samples for histological studies were dehydrated through a graded ethanol series, embedded in					
11	methacrylate (Technovit 7100) and sectioned on a Reichert/Jung microtome. The sections were					
12	stained with toluidine blue (1% in 2% borax solution).					
13						
14	Liver index, gonadosomatic index and Fulton's K					
15	The liver index (hepatosomatic index) was calculated as					
16	HSI = (LW·100)/(W) (%),					
17	where LW is liver weight (g) and W is the wet weight of the fish (g).					
18						
19	The gonadosomatic index (GSI) was defined as:					
20	$GSI = (GW \cdot 100)/(W - GW)$ (%),					
21	where GW is the gonadal weight (g) and and W is the wet weight of the fish (g).					
22						
23	Fulton condition factor (Fulton K) was set equal to (W/L^3) *100,					
24	where L is the length.					
25						
26	Follicle diameter and fecundity					
27	Follicle diameter and potential fecundity were estimated in all groups using the method described by					
28	(Thorsen and Kjesbu 2001). Background lighting was adjusted to ensure measurements as similar as					
29	possible to manual measurements made with an ocular micrometer.					

1	
2	Potential fecundity was calculated as (Thorsen and Kjesbu 2001):
3	
4	(2) Potential fecundity = $2.139 \cdot 10^{11} \cdot \text{FD}^{-2.7} \cdot \text{ovary weight}$,
5	Where FD is the mean follicle diameter
6	
7	The potential relative fecundity was defined as: Potential fecundity / somatic weight (g), and the
8	potential fecundity condition factor as: Potential fecundity / length ³ (cm).
9	
10	Time to spawning
11	Time to spawning was calculated as (2). $y = 3.33 \cdot 10^6 \cdot x^{-1.817}$ (Kjesbu 1994), where y is days to
12	spawning and x is the diameter of the most mature follicles (so-called G1 or leading cohort). G1
13	diameter was estimated as the mean diameter of the 10 largest follicles (Thorsen and Kjesbu 2001).
14	
15	3.2.9 Statistical analyses
16	One-way ANOVA and Dunnet's test as a post-hoc test were used to analyse for statistical differences
17	between the control group and the exposed groups for all morphological variables (size, growth, GSI,
18	HSI, fulton K). For the vitellogenin, steroid measurements and histological data the statistical
19	differences between the control group and the exposed groups were tested by non-parametric Kruskal-
20	Wallis followed by two-tailed Mann-whitney U-test. The frequency distribution of VTG
21	measurements was tested by two-tailed Chi-square test. Significance levels are given in the figure and
22	table legends. The statistical analyses were all performed using Statview software (SAS Institute,
23	Cary, NC, USA) or XLSTAT software (Addinsoft, US).

Results 4 1

2 4.1 Effects of alkylphenols on plasma levels of steroids and vitellogenin. 3 The exposure to APs had major effects on natural levels of steroids in the female fish. A highly

4 significant down-regulation of E_2 concentrations in the exposed groups was found. In January at the

5 end of the exposure, E2 levels were reduced in both the low-dose (0.02 mg/kg) and high-dose (2

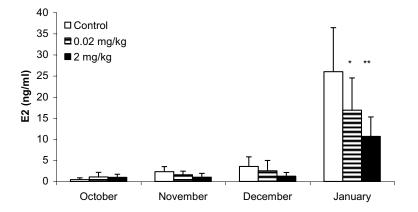
6 mg/kg) AP. The trend were visible already in November (Low-dose were 68 % and high-dose 44 % of

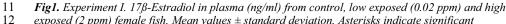
7 the control), became stronger in December (Low-dose were 71 % and high-dose 35 % of the control),

8 but the difference were first significant in January (properly because that the number of fish in the

9 analysis were to low in November and December to extract statistical significant, see table 2).







exposed (2 ppm) female fish. Mean values ± standard deviation. Asterisks indicate significant

13 *difference from the control group,* $p \leq 0.05$, $p \leq 0.01$.

¹⁴

¹⁵ The effect of the AP exposure on the plasma T level in the female fish was less clear. Generally, T 16 values were an order of magnitude lower than E2 values. In the early part of the experiment, the 17 plasma concentrations of T rose significantly (October sample) in both the high and the low exposed 18 group. Lower T value was found in the 2 mg/kg group in December, but later in the season no 19 significant difference compared to the control could be demonstrated (Table 2).

For the male fish were there only minor difference in the steroids concentrations in plasma between the exposed groups and the control group. In November, after 2 month exposure were both testosterone and 11KT significant reduced in the males from the alkylphenols groups, but this were not evident in any of the samplings points (table 2).

5 There was no difference between the treatments on the VTG levels in the plasma for the females.

6 There was a seasonal increasing in plasma VTG that followed the rice in E2 levels as one could

7 expect. The VTG concentrations were more that 1000 times higher than for the males (table 2).

8 For the male fish was there weak induction of VTG in plasma of the exposed male cod. The variation

9 in between the groups were large and when looking on average values for the groups were the

10 differences only significant for high-doses in october, However, pooled data clearly demonstrated that

11 a higher proportion of individuals produced VTG in the exposed groups (Fig 2) compared to control.

12 Among the control fish, only about 20% of the individuals had more than 0.1 µg VTG/ml, whereas

13 53% and 72% of the fish in the 0.02 mg/kg and 2 mg/kg groups had VTG levels above 0.1 μ g/ml,

14 respectively.

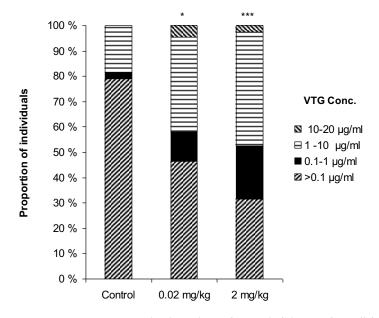


Fig. 2. Experiment I. VTG-levels in plasma from male fish. Data from all four samplings are pooled.
 (Control, n=38; 0.02 mg AP/kg, n=41; 2 mg AP/kg, n=38). Asterisk indicates statistical difference

¹⁷ *from control (* P<0.05, *** P<0.001, Chi-square test)*

Table 2. Div. Results for female and male. Plasma levels of sex hormones (T for female; 11-KT and T
 for male) and vitellogenin (VTG), as well as GSI, HSI and Fulton's K in control, low dose exposed
 (0.02 mg /kg) and high dose exposed (2 mg /kg). AP doses are given as the sum of 4-tert-butylphenol,
 4n-pentylphenol, 4n-hexylphenol and 4n-heptylphenol concentrations. Mean values ± standard
 deviation are tabled. Asterisk indicates statistical difference from control (* P<0.05, ** P<0.01,
 Dunnett's post-hoc test for GSI, HSI and Fulton K; Mann-Whitney U-test for the 11-KT, T and VTG
 data).

/	Female			Male			
	Control	0.02 mg/kg	2 mg/kg	Control	0.02 mg /kg	2 mg/kg	
	Number of fish sampled		Number o	Number of fish sampled			
October	10	9	10	11	11	11	
November	7	7	7	9	7	8	
December	6	6	7	6	9	9	
January	11	12	11	18	16	15	
	T (ng/ml))		T (ng/ml)			
October	0.5 ± 0.2	1.5±0.4**	$1.3\pm0.6^{**}$	$0.9{\pm}0.5$	1.6 ± 0.5	1.2 ± 0.8	
November	0.7 ± 0.3	0.5 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.9	$1.0{\pm}0.3^{*}$	$0.9{\pm}0.1^{**}$	
December	$0.9{\pm}0.4$	1.1±0.5	$0.5{\pm}0.1^{*}$	$1.9{\pm}0.6$	$2.4{\pm}1.0$	1.3 ± 0.7	
January	1.3±0.3	1.5 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 0.6	8.3±5.2	8.5±4.3	11.4 ± 3.1	
				11-KT (ng	g/ml)		
October				1.0 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.7	1.3 ± 0.9	
November				1.9 ± 0.9	$0.9{\pm}0.2^{**}$	$0.7{\pm}0.2^{**}$	
December				1.3 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 0.3	
January				7.8 ± 4.9	11.0 ± 6.4	7.3±4.3	
VTG (mg/ml)				VTG (µg/ml)			
October	0.7 ± 1.1	0.6 ± 0.7	0.7 ± 0.8	$0.2{\pm}0.4$	0.9 ± 1.4	$2.5{\pm}2.8^*$	
November	$1.1{\pm}0.7$	$0.9{\pm}0.6$	1.2 ± 0.5	2.0 ± 2.7	$3.9{\pm}6.8$	3.6 ± 5.7	
December	1.1 ± 0.7	$2.4{\pm}1.0$	1.5 ± 0.7	0.1 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 7.2	1.8 ± 2.6	
January	5.6±1.4	4.9±1.6	4.8±2.4	$0.2{\pm}0.7$	0.8±1.6	0.7 ± 0.7	
	GSI (%)			GSI (%)			
October	2.3 ± 0.8	2.5 ± 0.8	2.0 ± 0.7	2.1±1.6	1.5 ± 1.2	2.1±2.1	
November	2.8 ± 0.5	$2.7{\pm}0.8$	3.0 ± 0.7	8.6 ± 4.2	6.9 ± 3.0	7.9 ± 2.3	
December	4.4±2.1	4.1±1.3	3.2±1.1	7.9 ± 2.2	10.3 ± 2.5	7.9 ± 2.1	
January	11.5±2.3	9.8 ± 2.8	9.7±3.2	11.9±3.6	10.3 ± 3.3	10.1 ± 1.9	
	HSI (%)			HSI (%)			
October	9.8±2.2	9.5±1.6	9.1±2.1	9.2±1.8	10.1±2.7	8.8±2.0	
November	8.3 ± 1.8	9.3±1.5	9.0±0.6	8.0±2.7	7.1±2.0	8.3±1.6	
December	8.8±2.1	11.6±2.0	8.1±1.6	6.8±2.2	9.1±1.4	$7.0{\pm}1.8$	
January	9.8±1.8	10.3±1.5	9.2±2.8	7.4±2.2	8.7±1.4	8.2±2.0	
	Condition	n factor (Fult	on K)	Condition	factor (Fulto	on K)	
October	$1.0{\pm}0.1$	1.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	$0.9{\pm}0.1$	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0±0.1	
			1 0 0 1	1 0 . 0 0	1.1 ± 0.1	1 0 0 1	
November	$1.0{\pm}0.1$	1.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	
November December	1.0±0.1 1.1±0.1	1.1 ± 0.1 1.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1 1.0±0.1	1.0 ± 0.2 1.0±0.1	1.1 ± 0.1 1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1 1.0±0.1	

8

9 4.2 Effects of alkylphenols on fecundity, gonadosomatic index and somatic growth

10 No differences in somatic growth, condition factor (Fulton's K) or hepatosomatic index were detected 11 for nether the male or female fish. The female fish had a growth of about 30 %; from about 700 g in 12 September to 900 g in the end of January and the males The male grow from approx. 600g in 13 September to about 800g in January, a 25% increase in weight. 1 The January sample from had a lower mean GSI for the female fish in the two exposed groups

2 compared with the controls. However, this apparent difference was not statistically significant due to

3 high variance (Table 2). No significant effects on variables related to fecundity or oocyte size were

⁵ **Table 3.** Experiment I. Potential relativ fecundity, fecundity condition factor and estimated time to 6 spawning.

	Control	0.02 mg/kg	2 mg/kg
Relative fecundity	1062 ± 406	995±276	901±239
Fecundity condition factor	10.6 ± 3.7	10.1±3.3	8.7±2.7
Time to spaning (day to spawning)	26.4±3.1	29.1±3.4	28.1±3.6

⁷

8 5 Discussion

9 It was found that AP exposure brings about a considerable drop in the plasma E2 level even at very 10 low doses of APs (0.02 mg/kg). This response was consistent and was seen at all samplings times from 11 November to January. The plasma level of T in this female fish and T and 11-KT in the males was 12 also affected but the results were more ambiguous than those for E2. 13 In this experiment, the cod were fed in groups. This resulted in some fish receiving a lower total dose 14 of APs than others due to competition for food, and increased the variation in the results. 15 A second experiment was therefore carried out as a follow-up of this experiment. This was designed to 16 obtain more control over the level of exposure for each individual fish. Cod of the same age and status 17 were used as in this experiment. For five weeks in November 1999 five groups of cod were 18 administered a single oral dose per week of 0.05 mg/kg, 0.5 mg/kg, 5 mg/kg, 10 mg/kg and 20 mg/kg 19 total body dose of each of the four C₄-C₇ APs respectively. A control group and a positive control 20 group dosed with 5 mg/kg E2 were also included in the experiment. The biological effect parameters 21 examined were the same as in the experiment presented in this article. 22 The new experiment showed the same down regulation of E2 levels in the blood of the AP exposed 23 females. On the contra to the present study did the gonads of exposed female cod displayed a lower 24 gonadosomatic index (GSI) compared to controls, and their gonads developed more slowly. The 25 steroids levels also fell in male fish given APs. There were as here seen VTG induction in the AP

26 exposed males and there were significant changes in the maturation status of the testis. Even at the

⁴ found (Table 3). There were no significant effects in the GSI for the males.

1 lowest exposure to alkylphenols the amount of spermatozoa was reduced, while there were increases 2 in spermatogonia and spermatocytes. 3 All the finding from this study were therefore confirmed together with a number of other responses 4 that now gave significant differences between the control and the AP treated groups. For further 5 discussion of the mechanism behind the effects of AP, see Meier, 2007 6 7 8 9 Acknowledgements 10 This work has been supported by the Norwegian Research Council, Project no. 134109/720, 11 136382/720 and 11435/120 and the Norwegian Oil Industry Association (OLF). The authors are 12 indebted to Linda Johansen and Martin Lignell for help with the steroid analysis. 13 14 15 Reference List 16 Bester K, Theobald N, Schroder HFR (2001) Nonylphenols, nonylphenol ethoxylates, linear 17 alkylbenzenesulfonates (LAS) and bis (4-chlorophenyl)-sulfone in the German Bight of the North Sea. 18 Chemosphere 45, 817-826. 19 Boitsov S, Meier S, Klungsovr J, Svardal A (2004) Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis 20 of alkylphenols in produced water from offshore oil installations as pentafluorobenzoate derivatives. 21 Journal of Chromatography A 1059, 131-141. 22 Brendehaug J, Johnsen S, Bryne KH, Gjøse AL, Eide TH, Aamot E (1992) Toxicity testing and 23 24 chemical characterization of produced water - A preliminary study. In 'Produced water'. (Eds JP Ray and FR Engelhart) pp. 245-256. (Plenum Press: New York) 25 EU. Proposal for a European Parliament and Council directive relating to restictions on the marketing 26 and use of nonylphenol, nonylphenol ethoxylate and cement (26th amendment of Council Directive 27 76/769/EEC). Bulletin EU 5-2003 . 2003. 28 Ref Type: Electronic Citation 29 Grahl-Nielsen O (1987) Hydrocarbons and phenols in discharge water from offshore operations. Fate 30 of the hydrocarbons in the recipient. SARSIA 72, 375-382. 31 Ioppolo-Armanios MI, Alexander R, Kagi RI (1992) Identification and analysis of Co.C3 phenol in 32 Australian crude oils. Organic Geochemistry 18, 603-609. 33 Ioppolo-Armanios MI, Alexander R, Kagi RI (1995) Geosynthesis of organic compounds. 1. 34 Alkylphenols. Geochimica Et Cosmochimica ACTA 59, 3017-3027. 35 Jobling S, Sumpter JP (1993) Detergent components in sewage effluent are weakly oestrogenic to fish: 36 An in vitro study using rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) hepatocytes. Aquatic toxicology 27, 361-37 372. Jonkers N, Laane RWPM, De Voogt P (2005) Sources and fate of nonylphenol ethoxylates and their 38 39 metabolites in the Dutch coastal zone of the North Sea. Marine chemistry 96, 115-135. 40 Kannan N, Yamashita N, Petrick G, Duinker JC (1998) Polychlorinated biphenyls and nonylphenols in 41 the Sea of japan. Environmental Science & Technology 32, 1747-1753.

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