

Proposed Environmental Quality Standards for Ethylbenzene in Water

R&D Technical Report P2-115/TR4

Proposed Environmental Quality Standards for Ethylbenzene in Water

R&D Technical Report P2-115/TR4

N J Ayscough, W Young and P Whitehouse

Research Contractor:
WRc-NSF Ltd

Publishing Organisation:

Environment Agency, Rio House, Waterside Drive, Aztec West, Almondsbury, Bristol BS32 4UD

Tel: 01454 624400

Fax: 01454 624409

Website: www.environment-agency.gov.uk

© Environment Agency 2002

ISBN No: 1 85705 559 4

This report is the result of work jointly funded by the Environment Agency and the Scotland and Northern Ireland Forum for Environmental Research (SNIFFER).

All rights reserved. No part of this document may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without the prior permission of the Environment Agency.

The views expressed in this document are not necessarily those of the Environment Agency. Its officers, servant or agents accept no liability whatsoever for any loss or damage arising from the interpretation or use of the information, or reliance upon views contained herein.

Dissemination status

Internal: Released to Regions

External: Released to Public Domain

Statement of use

This report reviews the available data on the use, fate/behaviour and aquatic toxicity of ethylbenzene. Environmental Quality Standards have been proposed for the protection of aquatic life which will assist Agency staff in assessing the potential effects of this substance on water quality.

Research contractor

This document was produced under R&D Project P2-115 by:

WRc-NSF Ltd
Henley Road
Medmenham
Marlow
Buckinghamshire
SL7 2HD

Tel: 01491 636500

Fax: 01491 636501

WRc Report No.: EA 4979

Environment Agency's Project Manager

The Environment Agency's Project Manager for R&D Project P2-115 was:
Helen Wilkinson, NCEHS, Wallingford

The Scottish Environment Protection Agency's Project Manager for R&D Project P2-115 was:
C McPhail, SEPA West, East Kilbride, Glasgow

Further copies of this report are available from:
Environment Agency R&D Dissemination Centre,
c/o WRc, Frankland Road, Swindon, Wilts SN5 8YF



Tel: 01793 865138/012 Fax: 01793 514562 E-Mail: publications@wrcplc.co.uk
URL: www.wrcplc.co.uk/rdbookshop

R&D TECHNICAL REPORT P2-115/TR4

FOREWORD

This report, which proposes Environmental Quality Standards (EQSs) for the protection of fresh and saltwater life and water intended for human consumption from exposure to ethylbenzene, is one of a series produced under the Environment Agency/SNIFFER co-funded Phase V EQS contract.

| CONTENTS | Page |
|---|------------|
| FOREWORD | i |
| LIST OF TABLES | iii |
| EXECUTIVE SUMMARY | 1 |
| KEY WORDS | 2 |
| 1. INTRODUCTION | 3 |
| 2. ETHYLBENZENE IN THE ENVIRONMENT | 4 |
| 2.1 Physico-chemical properties | 4 |
| 2.2 Manufacture | 5 |
| 2.3 Uses | 5 |
| 2.4 Entry into the aquatic environment | 5 |
| 2.5 Concentrations in the aquatic environment | 5 |
| 3. ANALYSIS | 6 |
| 3.1 Analytical requirements for EQS monitoring | 6 |
| 3.2 Analytical Techniques | 6 |
| 4. FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE ENVIRONMENT | 8 |
| 5. SUMMARY OF AQUATIC TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION | 9 |
| 5.1 Introduction | 9 |
| 5.2 Freshwater toxicity | 9 |
| 5.3 Saltwater toxicity | 10 |
| 5.4 Bioaccumulation | 11 |
| 6. DERIVATION OF EQSs | 13 |
| 6.1 Standards in other countries | 13 |
| 6.2 Protection of freshwater life | 13 |
| 6.3 Protection of saltwater life | 14 |
| 6.4 Abstraction of water to potable supply | 14 |
| 7. CONCLUSIONS | 16 |

APPENDICES

| | | |
|------------|---|----|
| APPENDIX A | FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE ENVIRONMENT | 20 |
| APPENDIX B | FRESHWATER TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION | 25 |
| APPENDIX C | SALTWATER TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION | 39 |
| APPENDIX D | MAMMALIAN TOXICOLOGY | 46 |
| APPENDIX E | SPECIES CITED | 48 |
| APPENDIX F | ABBREVIATIONS USED | 49 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | | |
|------------|--|----|
| Table S1 | Proposed standards for ethylbenzene ($\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$) | 2 |
| Table 5.1 | Lowest reliable acute and chronic toxicity data for ethylbenzene to freshwater and saltwater organisms | 12 |
| Table 6. 1 | Maximum permissible concentrations (MPCs) and negligible concentrations (NCs) for different environmental compartments | 13 |
| Table B1 | Toxicity of ethylbenzene to freshwater life | 28 |
| Table C1 | Toxicity of ethylbenzene to marine life | 41 |

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report, prepared for the Environment Agency and the Scottish Environment Protection Agency, reviews and critically assesses information available on the environmental fate and toxicity of ethylbenzene. The information is used to propose standards for the protection of aquatic life and a reference level for the protection of water abstracted to potable supply.

Ethylbenzene is an aromatic hydrocarbon mainly used in the production of polystyrene. It is also a component of petroleum, and the derived product is a mixture with benzene, toluene and xylenes, commonly known as BTEX. As a component of 'mixed xylenes' it is widely used as an organic solvent, for example in the rubber and chemical industries and as a diluent in paints and lacquers and as a motor fuel additive.

Volatilisation is likely to be the major process contributing to losses of ethylbenzene from water. In this medium it has a half life ranging from a few hours to several weeks. Aerobic biodegradation of ethylbenzene is rapid after a period of acclimatisation and half lives of between 2-20 days for this process have been reported. Other fate processes, such as photolysis, oxidation, and hydrolysis are unlikely to be significant. Few studies have been conducted on the fate and behaviour of ethylbenzene in soil. However, its moderate adsorption to soil indicates that some leaching may occur into groundwater.

The available aquatic toxicity data for ethylbenzene are limited mainly to short-term single species laboratory tests, and in the majority of cases, static laboratory tests. Few studies are available on the effect of long term exposure to aquatic organisms. No multispecies (e.g. mesocosms) or field studies have been reported in the open literature. Interpretation of toxicity data is dependent on appropriate preparation of stock and test solutions and the extent to which test concentrations have been maintained, particularly due to losses from volatilisation.

In studies where appropriate measures have been taken in the preparation of test solutions and maintenance of test concentrations, ethylbenzene is of moderate toxicity to aquatic organisms with lowest reliable effect concentrations of *ca.* 2 mg l⁻¹. Algae, *Daphnia* and fish are well-represented in the available acute toxicity data but few data exist for other aquatic taxa. Data obtained from experiments with marine species indicates a similar sensitivity to freshwater species. Ethylbenzene may exhibit moderate bioaccumulation in aquatic organisms, based on its log BCF and K_{ow} values of approximately 2 and 3, respectively.

Proposed standards are shown in Table S1.

A method for the determination of ethylbenzene in potable waters has been produced by the Standing Committee of Analysts (SCA). The method involves solvent extraction of the sample with pentane and separation and detection by gas chromatography with a flame ionization detector. The detection limit is 0.941 µg l⁻¹. This method would be adequate for the analysis of the proposed standards.

Table S1 Proposed standards for ethylbenzene ($\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$)

| Use | AA | MAC | Notes |
|-------------------------------|----|-----|-------|
| Protection of freshwater life | 20 | 200 | |
| Protection of saltwater life | 20 | 200 | |
| Abstraction to potable supply | | 20 | 1 |

Notes to Table S1:

AA Annual Average

MAC Maximum Allowable Concentration

1 Based on taste and odour

KEY WORDS

Environmental Quality Standards, EQS, ethylbenzene, aquatic toxicity, bioaccumulation, freshwater, saltwater, mammalian toxicity, potable supply.

1. INTRODUCTION

Ethylbenzene is an aromatic hydrocarbon mainly used in the production of polystyrene. It is also a component of petroleum, and the derived product is a mixture with benzene, toluene and xylenes, commonly known as BTEX. As a component of 'mixed xylenes' it is widely used as an organic solvent, for example in the rubber and chemical industries and as a diluent in paints and lacquers and as a motor fuel additive.

This report reviews and critically assesses the information available on the inputs and concentrations of ethylbenzene in the environment (Section 2), the analytical methods available for its detection (Section 3), the fate and behaviour of ethylbenzene in the environment (Section 4 and Appendix A) and the aquatic and mammalian toxicity of ethylbenzene (Section 5 and Appendices B to D). This information is used, where possible, to derive Environmental Quality Standards (EQSs) for the protection of fresh and saltwater life and to recommend reference levels for the abstraction of water to potable supply.

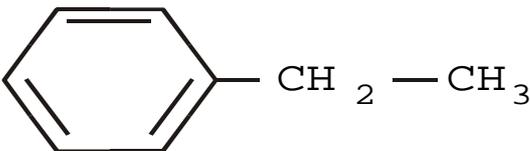
2. ETHYLBENZENE IN THE ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Physico-chemical properties

Ethylbenzene is an aromatic hydrocarbon. It is a component of the liquid petroleum product containing benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylenes known as BTEX. The following sections of the report refer to ethylbenzene itself rather than the BTEX mixture, unless otherwise stated. A summary of the physico-chemical properties of ethylbenzene is provided in Table 2.1

Ethylbenzene is a colourless liquid which is immiscible with water and volatilizes readily due to its low solubility and relatively high vapour pressure at ambient temperatures. This is reflected in the high Henry's law constant (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Chemical and physical properties of ethylbenzene

| | |
|--|--|
| IUPAC CHEMICAL NAMES | Ethylbenzene |
| SYNONYMS | Phenylethane, EB, Ethylbenzol |
| CAS NUMBER | 100-41-4 |
| MOLECULAR FORMULA | C ₈ H ₁₀ |
| MOLECULAR STRUCTURE |  |
| MOLECULAR WEIGHT (g) | 106.16 |
| COMPOSITION | C 90.5% H 9.5% |
| APPEARANCE | Colourless liquid ⁽³⁾ |
| MELTING POINT (°C) | -95.01 ⁽³⁾ |
| BOILING POINT (°C) | 136.25 ⁽³⁾ |
| FLASH POINT (°C) | 18 ⁽¹⁾ |
| VAPOUR PRESSURE (mm Hg) | 9.53 ⁽³⁾ |
| WATER SOLUBILITY (mg l⁻¹) @ 20°C | 152 ⁽²⁾ |
| HENRY'S LAW CONSTANT (atm m³ mol⁻¹) | 8.44 x 10 ⁻³⁽³⁾ |
| log K_{ow} | 3.13 ⁽²⁾ , 3.15 ⁽³⁾ |
| log K_{oc} | 1.98-3.04 ⁽¹⁾ |
| Half life (days) | Several days to 2 weeks ⁽³⁾ |

References:

1. Merck (1989)
2. WHO (1996)
3. Howard (1989)

2.2 Manufacture

Ethylbenzene is produced from petroleum as a mixture with benzene, toluene and xylenes (BTEX). It is not economical to use fractionation and ultrafractionation to extract the ethylbenzene from the mixture. Around 90% of ethylbenzene used in the chemicals industry is manufactured via alkylation of benzene using a soluble aluminium chloride catalyst. Ethyl chloride or hydrogen chloride can be used as a catalyst promoter. In 1983, the production of ethylbenzene in Western Europe was around 3 million tonnes (ECETOC 1986) with a similar amount produced in the USA (WHO 1996). Plant capacity in the UK was reported as around 310 000 tonnes in 1986, with the annual production figures predicted to remain at the 1986 level of 295 000 tonnes (DoE 1992).

2.3 Uses

The majority of ethylbenzene is manufactured and used on site to produce the styrene monomer for polystyrene. Ethylbenzene as a component of “mixed xylenes” is used as a motor fuel additive, component of solvents, as a diluent in paints and lacquers and as a solvent in the rubber and chemical manufacturing industries (WHO 1996). Ethylbenzene is also a constituent of asphalt and commercial naphtha (Verschueren 1996).

2.4 Entry into the aquatic environment

Ethylbenzene can enter the aquatic environment from industrial sites as a result of surface run-off, although this will be a minor route due to its low solubility and high vapour pressure. Point sources include effluent discharges or spills from manufacturing plants and petroleum refining. As ethylbenzene comprises around 4.6% of gasoline, diffuse sources will include the hydrocarbon in run-off from roads and in seepage from boats etc. Crude oil is also an important source of ethylbenzene (Benville and Korn, 1977).

2.5 Concentrations in the aquatic environment

Ethylbenzene has a low solubility in water and a high volatility. It is therefore likely to partition into the vapour phase and concentrations in the aquatic environment will be low. Water samples collected from UK monitoring stations (estuaries and offshore sites) in 1992 did not contain ethylbenzene above the detection limit (10 ng l⁻¹) except, on one occasion, in a sample taken from the Tees mid-estuary (Dawes and Waldcock 1994).

3. ANALYSIS

3.1 Analytical requirements for EQS monitoring

The adequate monitoring of EQSs requires a suitably accurate analytical method. The accepted approach for the derivation of the accuracy requirements of an analytical system (when monitoring to a particular water quality standard) is described in WRc Report NS30 (Cheeseman *et al* 1989).

For an EQS of X units, the error on a single analytical result should not be larger than X/10 concentration units or 20% of the concentration in the sample, whichever is the greater. Following the convention of dividing the tolerable error equally between random and systematic sources, this implies:

- a maximum tolerable standard deviation of X/40 concentration units or 5% of the concentration in the sample, whichever is the greater; and
- a maximum tolerable bias of X/20 concentration units or 10% of the concentration in the sample, whichever is the greater.

It is recommended that the target limit of detection should be set at X/10 concentration units.

For example, for a proposed EQS of 1 mg l⁻¹:

- the limit of detection should be 0.1 mg l⁻¹ or less;
- the total error should not exceed 0.1 mg l⁻¹ or 20% of the determinand concentration (whichever is the greater);
- the systematic error or bias should not exceed 0.05 mg l⁻¹ or 10% of the determinand concentration (whichever is the greater); and
- the total standard deviation of individual results should not exceed 0.025 mg l⁻¹ or 5% of the determinand concentration (whichever is the greater).

3.2 Analytical Techniques

A method for the determination of ethylbenzene in potable waters has been produced by the Standing Committee of Analysts (SCA) in the Blue Book “Determination of very low concentrations of hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons in water” (HMSO 1987).

The method involves solvent extraction of the sample with pentane; removal of non-hydrocarbons with florisil; concentration; and separation and detection by gas chromatography (GC) with a flame ionization detector (FID). The recovery is around 100%. The calibration is linear over the range of application (0–20 µg l⁻¹), with a detection limit (LOD) of 0.941 µg l⁻¹. The reported total standard deviation is 0.04 µg l⁻¹ for the low

concentration standard ($1 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$) and $2.60 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ for the higher concentration standard ($20 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$).

A number of other methods have been reported in the open literature for the analysis of ethylbenzene, however few are applicable for the determination of low concentrations in environmental samples. One exception is a new methodology for the analysis of groundwater samples using compound-specific isotopic analysis (Dempster *et al* 1997). Pentane extraction was followed by compositional analysis using GC-FID and isotopic analysis using GC/combustion/isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC/C/IRMS). Extraction efficiencies of 80-85% were obtained by this method and analysis was conducted in the range $0.1\text{-}100 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$.

An automated headspace analysis method has been developed by Otson and Kumarathasan (1995) for analysis of blood and water samples. An automated head space sampler was connected to a GC with FID detection. A minimum detection limit of around $1 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ was achieved.

Dawes and Waldcock (1994) analysed estuarine and marine samples for 13 volatile organic compounds including ethylbenzene using an automatic purge and cryotrapping method. In this method, separation was achieved by GC and analysis by quadrupole MS (electron impact ionization). The internal standard was deuterated toluene. The linear range for ethylbenzene was unknown, but the reported limit of detection was 10 ng l^{-1} .

Leonard *et al* (1998) reported a high speed gas extraction-gas chromatography method for ethylbenzene. The hydrocarbon was extracted from samples (1-2 ml) using elevated temperatures ($95 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and a reflux condenser. Extract was injected on a 250 nm DB-1 column ($8 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm i.d.}$) with hydrogen as the carrier gas (200 cm/s) and with an oven temperature of $65 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Detection was with FID. The calibration graphs were linear from $100\text{-}10\,000 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$, with an LOD of $2.3 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$. The RSD was 8.9% ($n=4$) and recovery was approximately 90%.

4. FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE ENVIRONMENT

Ethylbenzene has a low solubility in water and a relatively high vapour pressure. It therefore volatilises readily from water with a half life ranging from a few hours to several weeks. Ethylbenzene does not absorb light above 290 nm and is therefore unlikely to be directly photolysed in water. Hydrolysis is not expected to be a significant loss process. Oxidation by hydroxyl radicals in air is rapid and it is possible that ethylbenzene is removed from aquatic systems by similar processes (WHO 1996).

The log K_{ow} and K_{oc} for ethylbenzene have been reported as 3.13-3.15 and 1.98-3.04, respectively (Merck 1989, WHO 1996, and Howard 1989). These data suggest that ethylbenzene will have a moderate to low tendency to adsorb to soils, sediments and suspended matter although, in practice, such residues are likely to be low due to the predominating effect of losses by volatilisation.

Aerobic biodegradation of ethylbenzene is rapid after a period of acclimatisation. In seawater, half lives of 2.1 and 20 days were observed in summer and spring, respectively, with appreciable lag times occurring in spring (Wakeham *et al.* 1983). Laboratory bioreactor studies have shown biodegradation up to 98% within 37 days (van der Hoek *et al.* 1989). Anaerobic biodegradation is slower than aerobic degradation and a 30 day lag period has been observed in an aquifer microcosm under denitrifying conditions (Hutchins *et al.* 1991). Under methanogenic conditions, no degradation was observed after 20 weeks, however after 40 and 120 weeks ethylbenzene was degraded to 26% and <1% respectively (Wilson *et al.* 1986).

Few studies have been conducted on the fate and behaviour of ethylbenzene in soil. However, the data available suggest that some leaching may occur into groundwater. This has been illustrated by a study set up following a pipeline break in the USA (Cozzarelli *et al.* 1990). In soil, hydrolysis and photolysis are unlikely to be important fate processes and biodegradation is probably an important loss process for ethylbenzene following a period of acclimatisation. *Pseudomonas* has been shown to degrade ethylbenzene, with the formation of hydroxy intermediates (Gibson *et al.* 1973).

5. SUMMARY OF AQUATIC TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION

5.1 Introduction

This section summarises the available data on the aquatic toxicity of ethylbenzene, highlighting those values of most significance to the derivation of EQS values (Table 5.1). A more detailed consideration of the data is made in Appendices B, C and D.

The available aquatic toxicity dataset for ethylbenzene is limited to short-term single species laboratory tests, and in the majority of cases, static laboratory tests. Although data for only 16 freshwater species have been located (and 13 saltwater species) numerous acute studies have been carried out with several of them (notably freshwater algae, *Daphnia* and fish). By contrast, few studies are available on the effect of long term exposure to aquatic organisms. No multispecies (e.g. mesocosms) or field studies have been reported in the open literature. No data could be located for freshwater macrophytes, annelids, molluscs, insects or amphibians, or for marine bacteria, annelids and echinoderms. Additionally, the dataset for ethylbenzene was insufficient to enable any assessment of the influence of water quality parameters (e.g. hardness, pH) or environmental conditions (e.g. temperature) on observed toxicity.

The most important consideration in the evaluation of toxicity data for ethylbenzene concerns the extent to which reported effect concentrations reflect actual exposure concentrations. Inaccurate preparation of stock and test solutions is likely unless dilutions are prepared from a saturated stock solution from which undissolved test substance has been removed. A number of reports describe effects at concentrations in excess of the water solubility of ethylbenzene and these must be regarded as suspect. Furthermore, losses due to volatilisation may lead to a marked under-estimation of test concentrations and hence, to estimated effect concentrations. Whilst a significant number of studies (particularly with *Daphnia* and to a lesser extent with unicellular algae) have been carried out using closed test systems and with analytical confirmation of test solutions, many others have not. Only where testing has been performed using closed test vessels, and/or test solutions have been confirmed by analysis, have test data been considered suitable for the derivation of standards. Table 5.1 summarises those studies where this requirement has been met. These also tend to be the lowest effect concentrations, probably because of more accurate generation and maintenance of test concentrations with the result that the risks of under-estimating toxicity have been reduced.

The toxic effects in aquatic organisms of ethylbenzene result from nonpolar narcosis (Niederlehner *et al.*, 1998). Compared to other related aromatic hydrocarbons, ethylbenzene is more toxic to aquatic organisms than benzene or toluene and exhibits similar acute toxicity to xylenes, isopropyl benzene and *n*-propyl benzene (Benville and Korn, 1977; Galassi *et al.*, 1988).

5.2 Freshwater toxicity

Freshwater bacteria do not appear to be very sensitive to ethylbenzene with 24 hour IC₅₀ values of around 159 mg l⁻¹ (corrected for pK_a and pressure) for *Nitrobacter* (Tang *et al.*

1992) and 96 mg l⁻¹ for *Nitrosomonas* (Blum and Speece (1991)). The lowest data are for *Pseudomonas putida* with a Toxicity Threshold value of 12 mg l⁻¹ (Bringmann and Kuhn 1980). No data are available for saltwater species.

The data relating to the effect of ethylbenzene on freshwater algae covers an order of magnitude. The lowest reliable data are from two closed static tests using the green alga (*Selenastrum capricornutum*). EC50 (growth) values of 4.6 and 5.4 mg l⁻¹ were reported by Galassi *et al.* 1988 and Masten *et al.* 1994, respectively, following 72 hours exposure. After 96 h, the EC50 to this species had declined to 3.6 mg l⁻¹ (Masten *et al.*, 1994). The tests were conducted under standard OECD and EPA guidelines respectively, modified for the testing of volatile substances and were supported by analysis of test solutions.

The majority of EC50 data for freshwater invertebrates relate to *Daphnia magna* and range from around 2 mg l⁻¹ to 200 mg l⁻¹. The higher values are mainly reported in older, less reliable studies where exposure conditions are either not well described or where losses due to volatilisation have not been adequately accounted for. The lowest *Daphnia* EC50 values (ca. 2 mg l⁻¹) are the lowest of all the acute data reported for ethylbenzene and were achieved in static test regimes but using closed vessels and with analytical verification of test concentrations. Probably the most reliable is that reported by Galassi *et al.* (1988) where tests were initiated using saturated solutions of ethylbenzene, closed test vessels were employed in which any air space above the test solutions was eliminated, and test solutions were subjected to analytical confirmation. This study gave rise to a 24 h EC50 of 2.2 mg l⁻¹.

Only one chronic study (on the effect of ethylbenzene on reproduction in the freshwater crustacean, *Ceriodaphnia dubia*) has been located. A 7-day NOEL of 9 mg l⁻¹ and LOEL of 16 mg l⁻¹ for reproductive effects was reported by Niederlehner *et al.* (1998) in a study carried out according to methods described in the USEPA's Whole Effluent Testing Programme, with modifications to minimise the volatilisation of test chemical. Compared with a corresponding acute (48h) LC₅₀ of 30 mg l⁻¹ in the same study, only a small acute:chronic ratio is indicated.

Fish toxicity data reported in the open literature indicate LC₅₀ values ranging between 1 mg l⁻¹ and 285 mg l⁻¹ and relate to short term (acute) exposure only. No data could be located on the long term effects of ethylbenzene to freshwater fish. The lowest acute LC₅₀ value to fish was cited in Vittozi and De Angelis (1991) but it has not been possible to examine or assess the quality of the data. However, Galassi *et al.* (1988) determined a 96 h LC50 of 4.2 mg l⁻¹ for rainbow trout under static conditions using closed bottles and with renewal of test solution at 48 hours. The test was carried out according to OECD guideline 203 (modified for testing volatile compounds) and test concentrations were analysed by HPLC.

5.3 Saltwater toxicity

Freshwater algal toxicity data are comparable with those reported for the marine alga *Skeletonema costatum* (EC50s (growth inhibition) of 4.9-8 mg l⁻¹) (Masten *et al.* 1994). The lowest reliable effect concentration is a 96h EC₅₀ of 7.7 mg l⁻¹ conducted under EPA standard guidelines, adapted for the volatile test compound.

The dataset for marine invertebrates relates mainly to crustaceans and EC50 values are in the same order of magnitude as those seen with the algae. The lowest reliable effects concentrations arise from a study using the mysid shrimp (*Mysidopsis bahia*) and reported an

acute (96h) NOEC and LOEC (for survival) of 1.0 and 2.7 mg l⁻¹, respectively (Masten *et al.* 1994). Although a lower value has been reported (a 96h LC₅₀ to the bay shrimp, *Crago franciscorum*, of 0.49 µl l⁻¹), this experiment was performed in open vessels and it is clear that most of the ethylbenzene introduced into the test vessels (>99%) had volatilised after 48h. It is noteworthy that the LC₅₀ declined from 24h to 96h by a factor of 4 (from 2.2 µl l⁻¹ to 0.49 µl l⁻¹) even though most of the ethylbenzene had volatilised from test vessels at concentrations bracketing the 24h LC₅₀ (>99% loss at 1.0 µl l⁻¹ and 67% at 4.9 µl l⁻¹). It is not clear from the paper describing this study the basis for the reported LC₅₀ values. Furthermore, the absence of density data for ethylbenzene prevents conversion of toxicity data reported in terms of µl l⁻¹ to µg l⁻¹. Consequently, this study is considered unsuitable for the derivation of standards.

Tokuda (1984) investigated the behaviour in light of the motile spores of the seaweed, *Ulva pertusa*. Although phototaxis was impaired at concentrations as low as 0.19 mg l⁻¹, the extent of inhibition is not defined. Coupled with uncertainties about the ecological significance of the endpoint used, it is felt these data are not suitable for the derivation of standards.

Marine data for molluscs are restricted to a 96 hour LC₅₀ of 1030 mg l⁻¹ developing embryo-larvae of the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*. (LeGore cited in ECDIN 1991).

Effects concentrations for marine fish species are broadly similar to freshwater toxicity values. The lowest reliable effects concentration is a 96 h LC₅₀ of 5.1 mg l⁻¹, estimated from a study conducted according to ASTM/EPA standard guidelines for the Atlantic silverside (*Menidia menidia*). A NOEC and LOEC (survival) of 3.3 and 5.9 mg l⁻¹ were also reported for this study (Masten *et al.* 1994).

5.4 Bioaccumulation

With a log K_{ow} value of approximately 3, a moderate tendency to bioaccumulate is indicated, and this is borne out in experimental studies using fish and algae (Herman *et al.*, 1991; EUCLID, 1996; Mancha *et al.*, 1997). Herman *et al.* (1991) noted that there was a greater bioaccumulation potential for ethylbenzene than there was for benzene (BCF 1.63) and toluene (BCF 1.99) and values were comparable to the xylenes (2.34 - 2.41). This ranking is the same as that emerging from studies into the acute toxicities of these substances to aquatic life (Benville and Korn, 1977; Galassi *et al.*, 1988).

Further details of bioaccumulation studies are to be found in Appendix B2.

Table 5.1 Lowest reliable acute and chronic toxicity data for ethylbenzene to freshwater and saltwater organisms

| Species | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|---------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-----|
| Freshwater | | | | |
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> (Green alga) | 72 h | 4.6 | EC50 (growth inhibition) | 1 |
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> (Green alga) | 72 h | 5.4 | EC50 (growth inhibition) | 2 |
| | 96h | 3.6 | EC50 (growth inhibition) | |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> (Water flea) | 24 h | 2.2 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 1 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> (Water flea) | 48 h | 2.93-2.97 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 5 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> (Water flea) | 24 h | 2.27-2.89 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 6 |
| | 48h | 1.81-2.41 | EC50 (immobilisation) | |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> (Water flea) | 48 h | 2.93-2.97 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 5 |
| <i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i> (Water flea) | 7 d | 9 | NOEL (reproduction) | 4 |
| | 7 d | 16 | LOEL | |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout) | 96 h | 4.2 | LC50 | 1 |
| Saltwater | | | | |
| <i>Skeletonema costatum</i> (Diatom) | 96 h | 7.7 | EC50 (growth) | 2 |
| <i>Artemia salina</i> (Brine shrimp) | 48 h | 6.5 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 5 |
| <i>Mysidopsis bahia</i> (Mysid shrimp) | 96 h | 2.6 | LC50 | 2 |
| | | 2.7 | LOEC (survival) | |
| | | 1.0 | NOEC (survival) | |
| <i>Menidia menidia</i> (Atlantic silverside) | 96 h | 5.1 | LC50 | 2 |
| | | 3.3 | NOEC (survival) | |

References:

1. Galassi *et al.* (1988)
2. Masten *et al.* (1994)
3. Tosato *et al.* (1993)
4. Niederlehner *et al.* (1998)
5. Maclean and Doe (1989)
6. Vigano (1993)

6. DERIVATION OF EQSs

6.1 Standards in other countries

The Water Supply (Water Quality) Regulations (HMSO 1989) implementing the EC Drinking Water Directive, do not stipulate a standard specifically for ethylbenzene.

However, Canada has adopted an interim standard for ethylbenzene of 90 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ expressed as a Maximum Allowable Concentration (MAC). The standard was derived by applying a safety factor of 20 to the 48 h EC50 (immobilisation) value of 1800 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ for *Daphnia magna* (water flea), identified as the most sensitive organism tested (Vigano, 1993). The safety factor was reported to take account of the non-persistent nature of ethylbenzene and extrapolation of acute data to a NOAEL in the field (CCME 1999).

An interim standard for the protection of saltwater organisms of 25 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ has been adopted by Canada and is expressed as a MAC. It was derived by applying a safety factor of 20 to the 24 h LC50 value for the bay shrimp (*Crago franciscorum*) (Benville and Korn 1977). Again, the safety factor was intended to take account of the non-persistent nature of ethylbenzene and extrapolation of acute data to a NOAEL in the field (CCME 1999).

A number of Environmental Quality Objectives have been derived in the Netherlands (RIVM 1999) and these are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Maximum permissible concentrations (MPCs) and negligible concentrations (NCs) for different environmental compartments

| | Surface Water ($\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$) | Soil (mg kg^{-1}) | Sediment (mg kg^{-1}) | Air ($\mu\text{g/m}^3$) |
|-----|--|------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| MPC | 370 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 39 |
| NC | 3.7 | 0.031 | 0.031 | 0.39 |

6.2 Protection of freshwater life

Data on the toxicity of ethylbenzene to freshwater and saltwater life are limited to 16 freshwater species. Nevertheless, numerous studies have been performed with some of the species (Table B1), and a high proportion have been carried out according to standard test guidelines (e.g. OECD, EPA), often with modifications to reduce losses due to volatilisation (e.g. use of sealed test vessels) and with analytical verification of stock and/or test concentrations.

Ethylbenzene is of moderate toxicity to freshwater organisms, with no taxon exhibiting particularly high sensitivity. Effects concentrations for the most reliable studies (Table 5.1) lie between 2 and 4 mg l^{-1} for algae, crustaceans and fish following acute exposure. The only chronic study is one describing the effects of ethylbenzene on reproduction of *Ceriodaphnia*

dubia (Neiderlehner *et al.*, 1998). This study led to a 7 d LOEC and NOEC of 16 and 9 mg l⁻¹, respectively.

The lowest reliable effects concentration is a 24 hour EC50 (immobilisation) of 2.2 mg l⁻¹ for *Daphnia magna* (Galassi *et al.*, 1988) which was generated from a study where appropriate measures were taken to control losses of ethylbenzene due to volatilisation and where test concentrations were verified by analysis. To protect freshwater life from short term exposure to ethylbenzene, an EQS of 200 µg l⁻¹ is proposed. This is derived by applying a safety factor of approximately 10 to the 24 hour EC50 (immobilisation) of 2.2 mg l⁻¹ for *Daphnia magna*. This EQS should be expressed as a Maximum Allowable Concentration (MAC). To protect freshwater life from long term exposure to ethylbenzene, an Annual Average (AA) of 20 µg l⁻¹ is proposed, derived by applying a safety factor of 100 to the same effect concentration. Although chronic toxicity data are not plentiful, this AA should provide adequate protection to aquatic life in the event of prolonged exposure to ethylbenzene by virtue of (a) the substantial safety factor involved, (b) the standard being substantially higher than the reported *Ceriodaphnia* chronic NOEC and (c) also higher than chronic effects seen in studies with related aromatic hydrocarbons such as xylenes and benzene (Hedgecote and Lewis, 1997a; 1997b).

6.4 Protection of saltwater life

The toxicity dataset for saltwater organisms is represented by a similar number of species (13) as the freshwater dataset but these species have been subject to much less intensive investigation. The data presented in Table B1 indicate that saltwater organisms have a similar sensitivity to ethylbenzene as freshwater organisms. The lowest reliable effects concentration is a 96 h LC₅₀ of 2.6 mg l⁻¹ and corresponding LOEC of 2.7 mg l⁻¹ to the mysid shrimp (*Mysidopsis bahia*) (Masten *et al.*, 1994). Applying a safety factor of approximately 10 to this value, and bearing in mind the similar sensitivities of freshwater and saltwater species, a standard of 200 µg l⁻¹ results. As with the proposed standards for freshwater life, an Annual Average of 20 µg l⁻¹ is also proposed to protect against the effects of possible long-term or continuous exposure.

In proposing these saltwater standards, it should be noted that the data used by Canada's CCME (24 h LC₅₀ value for the bay shrimp (*Crago franciscorum*) (Benville and Korn 1977)) to derive its standard have been excluded from this EQS derivation for the reasons explained in Section 5.3.

6.6 Abstraction of water to potable supply

This section outlines the derivation of reference levels for abstraction of water to potable supply. Reference levels may be based on either mammalian toxicology (to determine a level for the protection of human health) or on the taste and odour properties of a substance. A summary of the mammalian toxicity data is given in Appendix D.

The mammalian toxicity of ethylbenzene was reviewed by the World Health Organization (WHO) in its 1993 revision of the Drinking Water Guidelines (WHO 1993, WHO 1996) and also under the International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS 1996).

In 1993, WHO recommended a tolerable daily intake (TDI) of $97.1 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ body weight day^{-1} (WHO 1993). This was based on applying an uncertainty factor of 1000 to a NOAEL of 97.1 mg kg^{-1} body weight day^{-1} established in a limited 6-month gavage study in rats. Assuming a 60 kg adult drinking 2 litres of water per day and 10% allocation of the TDI to drinking water, a health-based guideline value of $300 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ was proposed.

However, low odour and taste threshold concentrations of between around 2-550 and 30-780 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$, respectively, have been reported for ethylbenzene (WHO 1996). The taste and odour threshold concentration is most likely to be between 20 to 200 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$, although the lowest reported odour threshold is around 2 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$.

A reference level of 20 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ is proposed for ethylbenzene based on taste and odour considerations.

7. CONCLUSIONS

1. Ethylbenzene is an aromatic hydrocarbon mainly used in the production of polystyrene. It also occurs as a component of crude oil and petroleum, and the derived product is a mixture with benzene, toluene and xylenes, commonly known as BTEX. As a component of 'mixed xylenes', it is widely used as an organic solvent, for example in the rubber and chemical industries and as a diluent in paints and lacquers and as a motor fuel additive.
2. Ethylbenzene is a colourless liquid which floats on water and volatilizes readily due to its low solubility, and relatively high vapour pressure. Its volatilisation half life ranges from a few hours to several weeks. Photolysis, oxidation, hydrolysis and sorption are unlikely to be significant loss processes from water.
3. Ethylbenzene is biodegraded relatively rapidly under aerobic conditions following a period of acclimatisation. In seawater, half lives of 2.1 and 20 days were observed in summer and spring respectively. However, anaerobic biodegradation is slower.
4. Few studies have been conducted on the fate and behaviour of ethylbenzene in soil. However, its moderate adsorption to soil indicates that volatilisation is likely and some leaching into groundwater is possible.
5. The available toxicity dataset for ethylbenzene is limited mainly to short-term single species laboratory tests, in the majority of cases using static test regimes. Few studies are available on the effect of long term exposure to aquatic organisms. No multispecies (e.g. mesocosms) or field studies have been reported in the open literature.
6. In studies where appropriate measures have been taken in the preparation of test solutions and maintenance of test concentrations, ethylbenzene is of moderate toxicity to aquatic organisms with lowest reliable effect concentrations of *ca.* 2 mg l⁻¹. Algae, *Daphnia* and fish are well-represented in the available acute toxicity data but few data exist for other aquatic taxa.
7. Ethylbenzene may exhibit moderate bioaccumulation in aquatic organisms, based on its log BCF and K_{ow} values of approximately 2 and 3, respectively.
8. A Maximum Acceptable Concentration of 200 µg l⁻¹ and an Annual Average of 20 µg l⁻¹ are proposed for the protection of freshwater and saltwater life.
9. For the abstraction of water to potable supply, a reference level of 20 µg l⁻¹ is proposed for ethylbenzene based on aesthetic considerations.
10. Current analytical methods are adequate for monitoring the proposed guidelines and reference level.

REFERENCES

Benville, P.E. and Korn, S. (1977) The acute toxicity of six monocyclic aromatic crude oil components to striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) and bay shrimp (*Crago franciscorum*). *California Fish and Game*, **63**(4), 204-209.

Blum, D.J.W. and Speece, R.E. (1991) A database of chemical toxicity to environmental bacteria and its use in interspecies comparisons and correlations. *Research Journal of the Water Pollution and Control Federation*, **63** (3), 198-207.

Bringmann, G. and Kühn, R. (1980) Comparison of the toxicity thresholds of water pollutants to bacteria, algae and protozoa in the cell multiplication inhibition test. *Water Research* **14**, 231-241.

CCME (1999) Ethylbenzene. Canadian Water Quality Guidelines for the protection of Aquatic life. Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment.

CEC (Council of the European Communities) (1980) Council Directive relating to the quality of water intended for human consumption, 80/778/EEC. *Official Journal*, **L229**, 20 August 1980.

Cheeseman R.V., Wilson A.L. and Gardner M.J. (1989) A manual on analytical quality control for the water industry. WRc report NS30.

Cozzarelli, I.M., Eganhouse, R.P. and Baedecker, M.J. (1990) Transformation of monoaromatic hydrocarbons to organic acids in anoxic groundwater environment. *Environmental Geology and Water Science*, **16**, No. 2, 135-141.

Dawes, V.J. and Waldcock, M.J. (1994) Measurement of volatile organic compounds at UK National Monitoring Stations. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* **28**, No. 5, 291-298.

Dempster, H.S., Sherwood Lollar, B. and Feenstra, S. (1997) Tracing organic contaminants in groundwater: a new methodology using compound specific isotopic analysis. *Environmental Science and Technology*, **31**, 3193-3197.

DoE (1992) Environmental hazard assessment: ethylbenzene. Garston, Building Research Establishment.

ECDIN (1991) Environmental Chemicals Data and Information Network. Joint Research Centre, Ispra, Italy..

ECETOC (1986) Joint assessment of commodity chemicals No. 7: Ethylbenzene. CAS 100-41-4. Brussels.

Galassi, S., Minazzini, M., Viganò, L., Cesareo, D. and Tosato, M.L. (1988) Approaches to modelling toxic responses of aquatic organisms to aromatic hydrocarbons. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, **16**, 158-169.

Gibson, D.T., Gschwendt, B., Yek, W.K. and Kobal, V.M. (1973) Initial reactions in the oxidation of ethylbenzene by *Pseudomonas putida*. *Biochemistry* **12**, 1520-1528.

Hedgecote S. and Lewis S. (1997a) An update on proposed Environmental Quality Standards for benzene in water. Final Report to the Department of the Environment, WRc Report No. DoE 4287/1.

Hedgecote S. and Lewis S. (1997b) An update on proposed Environmental Quality Standards for xylenes in water. Final Report to the Department of the Environment, WRc Report No. DoE 4273/1.

Howard, P.H. (1989) Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data for Organic Chemicals, Vol I: Large production and priority pollutants. Lewis Publishers, Chelsea, Michigan.

HMSO (1997) Methods for the Examination of Waters and Associated Materials: Determination of very low concentrations of hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons in water (1984-5). Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London. ISBN 011 752004 7.

HMSO (1989) The Water Supply (Water Quality) Regulations. Statutory Instrument No 1147.

Hutchins, S.R., Sewell, G.W., Kovacs, D.A. and Smith, G.A. (1991) Biodegradation of aromatic hydrocarbons by aquifer microorganisms under denitrifying conditions. *Environmental Science and Technology* **25**, No. 1, 68-76.

International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS) (1996) Environmental Health Criteria 186 - Ethylbenzene. World Health Organization, Geneva.

Leonard, C., Liu, H-F., Brewer, S. and Sacks, R. (1998) High-speed gas extraction of volatile and semivolatile organic compounds from aqueous samples. *Analytical Chemistry*, **70**, 16, 3498-3505.

Maclean, M.M. and Doe, K.G. (1989) The comparative toxicity of crude and refined oils to *Daphnia magna* and *Artemia*. Report by Environment Canada EE-111.

Masten, L.W., Boerli, R.L. and Walker, J.D. (1994) Strategies employed to determine the acute aquatic toxicity of ethylbenzene, a highly volatile, poorly water-soluble chemical. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* **27**, 335-348.

Merck (1989) The Merck Index, An encyclopaedia of chemicals, drugs and biologicals, 11th Edition. Merck & Co. Inc., Rahway, N.J. USA.

Niederlehner, B.R., Cairns, J. Jr. and Smith, E.P. (1998) Modeling acute and chronic toxicity of nonpolar narcotic chemicals and mixtures to *Ceriodaphnia dubia*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* **39**, 136-146.

Otson, R. and Kumarathasan, P. (1995) An automated head space analysis method for xylenes and ethylbenzene in blood and water. *Chemosphere*, **30**, 6, 1109-1123.

RIVM (1999) Environmental risk limits in the Netherlands. National Institute of Public Health and the Environment.

Tang, N.H., Blum, D.J.W., Nirmalakhandam, N. and Speece, R.E. (1992) QSAR parameters for toxicity of organic compounds to *Nitrobacter*. *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, **118** (1) 17-37.

Tosato, N.L., Pino, A., Passerini, L., Marchini, S., Viganò, L. and Hoglund, M.D. (1993) Updating and validation of a *Daphnia* toxicity model for benzene derivatives. *Science of the Total Environment*, Supplement 1983, 1479-1490.

van der Hoek, J.P., Urlings, L.G.C.M., and Grobben, C.M. (1989) Biological removal of polyaromatic hydrocarbons, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylene and phenolic compounds from heavily contaminated groundwater and soil. *Environmental Technology Letters* **10**, 185-194.

Viganò, L. (1993) Reproductive strategy of *Daphnia magna* and toxicity of organic compounds. *Water Research* **27** (5), 903-909.

Vittozzi, L. and De Angelis, G. (1991) A critical review of comparative acute toxicity data on freshwater fish. *Aquatic Toxicology* **19**, 167-204.

Verschuere, K. (1996) Handbook of Environmental Data on Organic Compounds, 3rd Edition. Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

Vigano, L. (1993) Reproductive strategy of *Daphnia magna*.

Wakeham, S.G., Davis, A.C. and Karas, J.L. (1983) Mesocosm experiments to determine the fate and persistence of volatile organic compounds in coastal seawater. *Environmental Science and Technology* **17**, 611-617.

Wilson, B.H., Smith, G.B. and Rees, J.F. (1986) Biotransformations of selected alkylbenzenes and halogenated hydrocarbons in methanogenic aquifer materials: A microcosm study. *Environmental Science and Technology* **20**, 997-1002.

WHO (1993) Guidelines for drinking-water quality. Second edition. Volume 1. Recommendations. WHO, Geneva.

WHO (1996) Guidelines for drinking-water quality. Second edition. Volume 2. Health criteria and other supporting information. WHO, Geneva.

APPENDIX A FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE ENVIRONMENT

A1 FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN SOIL

A1.1 Abiotic processes

Ethylbenzene exhibits a moderate adsorption to soil (Howard 1989) and volatilisation will predominate. Hydrolysis and photolysis are unlikely to be significant fate processes in soil.

A1.3 Biodegradation

Little information is known regarding the biodegradation of ethylbenzene in soil. However, biodegradation studies in water indicate rapid aerobic biodegradation after an initial lag period, and this is likely to be the case with unacclimated soil. Microbial oxidative degradation has been shown to proceed via hydroxylation of the benzene ring to give 2,3-dihydroxy-1-ethylbenzene (Gibson *et al.* 1973) and similarly a 2,3-hydroxy intermediate has been postulated in the degradation of ethylbenzene by *Pseudomonas* cultures followed by a meta-cleavage of the benzene ring (Smith and Ratledge 1989).

A1.4 Sorption

The moderate adsorption to soil indicates that leaching is likely to occur (Howard 1989). This has been illustrated in a study following pollution from a pipeline break, where ethylbenzene was observed to leach into a shallow aquifer (Cozzarelli *et al* 1990).

A2 FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN WATER

Ethylbenzene has a low solubility in water and a relatively high vapour pressure. The calculated Henry's Law Constant is $8.44 \times 10^{-3} \text{ atm m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, which suggests that volatilisation will be an important fate process in the aquatic environment. Half-lives ranging from a few hours to several weeks have been reported (Howard 1989).

The rate of volatilisation was illustrated in a laboratory study using an upflow aerated column (UAC) designed for the removal of ethylbenzene from contaminated groundwater and soil. Approximately 8% of ethylbenzene was collected in the vapour phase (van der Hoek *et al* 1989). Other studies concerning the volatilisation of ethylbenzene include a study on its removal from an acclimated activated sludge reactor. Around 22% was volatilised (six day sludge residence time) compared to 78% biodegradation. A mesocosm experiment to determine the fate and persistence of VOCs in seawater indicated that volatilisation was an important fate process, particularly in winter with a degradation half life of 13 days (Wakeham *et al* 1983).

The moderate K_{ow} of ethylbenzene indicates that some adsorption to sediments and suspended solids will occur. However, losses due to volatilisation are expected to be more important under most circumstances.

A2.1 Abiotic processes

Abiotic degradation is unlikely to be a significant loss process in the aquatic environment. Ethylbenzene does not absorb light above 290 nm and is therefore unlikely to be directly photolysed in water. Additionally, hydrolysis is not expected to be a significant loss process. Oxidation by hydroxyl radicals in air is rapid and it is possible that ethylbenzene could be removed from aquatic systems by similar processes (WHO 1996). However, this is unlikely to be a significant removal mechanism from water.

A2.2 Biodegradation

Biodegradation has been shown to be an important degradation pathway in aquatic systems, with half lives in spring and summer of 2.1 and 20 days in seawater, respectively (Wakeham *et al.* 1983). A lag period was observed indicating that acclimation was taking place, and was faster at warmer temperatures. Ethylbenzene was degraded to concentrations under $5 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ within seven days under aerobic conditions in a mesocosm prepared from aquifer material (Hutchins 1991). In an aquifer field test, BTEX compounds underwent rapid biodegradation and were almost completely attenuated during a 16 month observation period (Schirmer and Barker 1998). In upflow aerated column (UAC) and rotating disc biological contactor (RBC) experiments, 96% of ethylbenzene in contaminated groundwater and soil was removed in 146 days (RBC) whereas 98% of ethylbenzene was removed after 37 days and 100% after 92 days in the UAC (van der Hoek *et al.* 1989).

A2.2.1 Anaerobic biodegradation

The bacterial metabolism of ethylbenzene has been recently reviewed (Heider *et al.* 1998). Ethylbenzene is oxidised at the methylene carbon to 1-phenylethanol and subsequently to acetophenone. After which it is carboxylated to 3-oxophenylpropionate and converted to benzoyl-CoA and acetyl-CoA.

In an aquifer microcosm study under methanogenic conditions, a long lag time was observed before the onset of biodegradation. Ethylbenzene was not degraded during the first 20 weeks, however after 40 weeks the concentration of ethylbenzene was reduced to 26% of the original concentrations. After 120 weeks, the concentration was less than 1% of the original (Wilson *et al.* 1986). A pipeline break in Minnesota, USA, resulted in contamination of a shallow aquifer. Degradation of ethylbenzene and other monoaromatic hydrocarbons occurred in the anoxic groundwater with the formation of organic acids (Cozzarelli *et al.* 1990).

A microcosm study using uncontaminated aquifer materials under denitrifying conditions indicated a 30 day lag period before biodegradation. Biodegradation was then rapid with high nitrate concentrations (75 mg l^{-1}) and significant even with a low concentration of nitrate (30 mg l^{-1}). With contaminated aquifer materials, the lag time was longer and biodegradation was much slower with insignificant biodegradation after six months (Hutchins *et al.* 1991). It has also been shown that in the absence of oxygen, nitrate or nitrous oxide was required for degradation of ethylbenzene (Hutchins 1991).

A3 BEHAVIOUR IN SEWAGE TREATMENT PROCESSES

A number of studies indicate that ethylbenzene is readily degraded after a period of acclimatisation. Weber (1987) reported that 78% (out of 82% total degradation) of ethylbenzene was biodegraded in a bench scale mixed batch reactor with a six day sludge residence time at a concentration of 0.1 mg l^{-1} . The inoculum used was adapted activated sludge and analysis of test concentrations was by gas chromatography. IUCLID (1996) reported 78% degradation of 0.029 mg l^{-1} ethylbenzene in a wastewater plant of an organic chemical manufacturing site using a combined powdered carbon-biological process. Test concentrations were analysed. The Japanese Chemicals Testing and Inspection Institute reported 81-100% degradation (of the ThOD) of 100 mg l^{-1} ethylbenzene after 14 days in the MITI test (IUCLID 1996).

REFERENCES FOR APPENDIX A

- Cozzarelli, I.M., Eganhouse, R.P. and Baedecker, M.J. (1990) Transformation of monoaromatic hydrocarbons to organic acids in anoxic groundwater environment. *Environmental Geology and Water Science*, **16**, No. 2, 135-141.
- Gibson, D.T., Gschwendt, B., Yek, W.K. and Kobal, V.M. (1973) Initial reactions in the oxidation of ethylbenzene by *Pseudomonas putida*. *Biochemistry* **12**, 1520-1528.
- Heider J., Spormann A.M., Beller H.R. and Widdel F. (1998) Anaerobic bacterial metabolism of hydrocarbons. *Fems Microbiology Reviews* **22**, 5, 459-473. (abstract)
- Howard, P.H. (1989) Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data for Organic Chemicals, Vol I: Large production and priority pollutants. Lewis Publishers, Chelsea, Michigan.
- Hutchins, S.R. (1991) Biodegradation of monoaromatic hydrocarbons by aquifer microorganisms using oxygen, nitrate or nitrous oxide as the terminal electron acceptor. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **57**, No. 8, 2403-2407.
- Hutchins, S.R., Sewell, G.W., Kovacs, D.A. and Smith, G.A. (1991) Biodegradation of aromatic hydrocarbons by aquifer microorganisms under denitrifying conditions. *Environmental Science and Technology* **25**, No. 1, 68-76.
- IUCLID (1996) Ethylbenzene. International Uniform Chemical Information Database, European Chemicals Bureau.
- Schirmer, M. and Barker, J.F. (1998) A study of long term MTBE attenuation in the Borden Aquifer, Ontario, Canada. *Groundwater Monitoring and Remediation* Spring 1998, 113-122.
- Smith, M.R. and Ratledge, C. (1989) Catabolism of alkylbenzenes by *Pseudomonas* sp NCIB 10643. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* **32**, 68-75.
- van der Hoek, J.P., Urlings, L.G.C.M., and Grobben, C.M. (1989) Biological removal of polyaromatic hydrocarbons, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylene and phenolic compounds from heavily contaminated groundwater and soil. *Environmental Technology Letters* **10**, 185-194.
- Wakeham, S.G., Davis, A.C. and Karas, J.L. (1983) Mesocosm experiments to determine the fate and persistence of volatile organic compounds in coastal seawater. *Environmental Science and Technology* **17**, 611-617.
- Weber, W.J. (1987) Fate of toxic organic compounds in activated sludge and integrated PAC systems. *Water Science and Technology* **19**, 471-482.
- WHO (1996) Guidelines for drinking-water quality. Second edition. Volume 2. Health criteria and other supporting information. WHO, Geneva.

Wilson, B.H., Smith, G.B. and Rees, J.F. (1986) Biotransformations of selected alkylbenzenes and halogenated hydrocarbons in methanogenic aquifer materials: A microcosm study. *Environmental Science and Technology* **20**, 997-1002.

APPENDIX B FRESHWATER TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION

B1 INTRODUCTION

Flow through tests are often preferred for rapidly degraded chemicals. Hydrolysis, photolysis, and biodegradation (for unacclimatised organisms) would not be significant over the duration of acute tests with ethylbenzene and, therefore, static tests would be adequate for assessing short term exposure to ethylbenzene. However, ethylbenzene is a volatile liquid hydrocarbon with a vapour pressures of 9.53 mmHg and a Henry's Law constant of $8.44 \times 10^{-3} \text{ atm m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$. It will have a tendency to volatilise from water and therefore, it is important for toxicity studies to be carried out in sealed test units to minimise its loss, and to allow an accurate assessment of toxicity.

Chronic studies would need semi-static or flowthrough test designs to maintain the desired concentration of the substance, ideally supported by the analysis of actual exposure concentrations to ensure that losses due to volatilisation are accounted for, and that overall toxicity is not underestimated.

The data relating to the freshwater toxicity of ethylbenzene are given in Table B1. Many of these studies have been performed in the context of deriving QSARs for nonpolar narcotic chemicals, of which ethylbenzene is an example (Niederlehner *et al.*, 1998).

B1.2 FRESHWATER TOXICITY

The available toxicity dataset for ethylbenzene (see Table B1) is limited mainly to short-term single species laboratory tests, and in the majority of cases, static laboratory tests. Only one chronic study for *Ceriodaphnia dubhia* reproduction has been located in the open literature. No multispecies (e.g. mesocosms) or field studies could be located in the open literature. The dataset reported in subsections B1.2.1 to B1.2.4 covers three bacteria species, one protozoan species, three algal species, two crustacean species, and seven fish species.

No data are available at the present time for macrophytes, annelids, molluscs, insects or amphibians.

B1.2.1 Bacteria

Bacteria do not appear to be very sensitive to ethylbenzene with 24 hour IC₅₀ values of around 159 mg l⁻¹ (corrected for pK_a and pressure) for *Nitrobacter* (Tang *et al.* 1992) and 96 mg l⁻¹ for *Nitrosomonas* (Blum and Speece 1991). In the latter test, the inhibition of ammonia consumption was used as the criterion for toxic inhibition and nitrite was checked to ensure that only toxicity to *Nitrosomonas* and not to *Nitrobacter* was controlling the rate of metabolic activity. The Tang *et al.* study used a similar test method to ensure that the results were comparable, albeit for a different species. The lowest data are for *Pseudomonas putida* with a Toxicity Threshold value of 12 mg l⁻¹ (Bringmann and Kuhn 1980). This test measured the concentration of bacterial suspension using a turbidity meter to assess the inhibition of growth. However, few details relating to test conditions were reported.

B1.2.2 Algae

The data relating to the effect of ethylbenzene on freshwater algae are variable, with EC50 values ranging from 3.6 to 51 mg l⁻¹. The lowest reliable data are for two closed static tests with the green algae (*Selenastrum capricornutum*). EC50 values (72 hour) of 4.6 and 5.4 mg l⁻¹ were reported by Galassi *et al.* (1988) and Masten *et al.* (1994), respectively. The growth inhibition test reported by Galassi *et al.* was conducted under OECD standard guidelines, modified as appropriate in order to prevent hydrocarbon loss by volatilization. The concentrations of the substrates in the test solutions were also periodically measured by HPLC. Masten *et al.* followed an EPA test procedure modified by the use of sealed, filled vials as test vessels in place of partially filled Erlenmeyer flasks.

Other algal studies have shown that 13, 38, 46 and 48% inhibition of oxygen uptake by *Chlorella vulgaris* occurred at 13, 33, 65 and 130 mg l⁻¹ respectively (Potera cited in ECDIN 1991).

B1.2.3 Invertebrates

Data relating to the toxicity of ethylbenzene to invertebrates are limited to crustaceans and mainly for the crustacean, *Daphnia magna*. Toxicity values for this species generally range from around 2 mg l⁻¹ to 200 mg l⁻¹ (Table B1). The higher values are mainly reported in older, less reliable studies where exposure conditions are either not well described or where losses due to volatilisation have not been adequately accounted for. The lowest *Daphnia* EC50 values (ca. 2 mg l⁻¹) were achieved in static test regimes but using closed vessels and with analytical verification of test concentrations. Probably the most reliable is that reported by Galassi *et al.* (1988) where tests were initiated using saturated solutions of ethylbenzene, closed test vessels were employed in which any air space above the test solutions was eliminated, and test solutions were subjected to analytical confirmation. This study gave rise to a 24 h EC50 of 2.2 mg l⁻¹.

One study has been conducted on *Ceriodaphnia dubia* where a 48 h LC50 of 30 mg l⁻¹ (Niederlehner *et al.* 1998) resulted in an experiment using sealed test vessels and with analytical verification of test solutions. This suggests that *Daphnia* may be less sensitive to ethylbenzene than *Ceriodaphnia*.

Only one study appears to be available on the effect of ethylbenzene on reproduction in crustacea. A 7-day NOEL of 9 mg l⁻¹ and LOEL of 16 mg l⁻¹ for reproductive effects was reported by Niederlehner *et al.* (1998). This study was carried out according to procedures described in the USEPA's Whole Effluent Testing Programme, with modifications to minimise volatilisation of test chemicals.

B1.2.4 Fish

Unlike the studies using daphnids, few of the toxicity studies with fish indicate measures to control losses of ethylbenzene due to volatilisation, possibly because of the practical difficulties in conducting fish studies in sealed vessels and the consequent depletion of dissolved oxygen levels.

Fish toxicity data reported in the open literature range from around 1 mg l⁻¹ to 285 mg l⁻¹ and relates to short term exposure only. No data could be located which describe possible effects of long term exposure of freshwater fish to ethylbenzene.

The lowest effect concentrations obtained with fish (1.15, 1.51 and 1.69 mg l⁻¹ for 96 h LC50 with rainbow trout, bluegill sunfish and fathead minnows, respectively) were cited in Vittozi and De Angelis (1991). The original study reports are not available and, therefore, it is not possible to assess the quality of the data giving rise to these results.

Arguably the most reliable fish toxicity data arise from a study performed by Galassi *et al.* (1988). They determined a 96 h LC50 of 4.2 mg l⁻¹ for rainbow trout under static conditions using closed bottles and with renewal of test solution at 48 hours. The test was carried out according to OECD guideline 203, modified as appropriate for the testing volatile compounds, and concentrations were analysed by HPLC.

Table B1 Toxicity of ethylbenzene to freshwater life

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|---------|---------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|-----|
| BACTERIA | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Nitrobacter</i> | nd | S,cs | N | 25 | nd | 8.5-9.1 | 24 h | 259 (observed) 159 (H) | IC50 | 1 |
| <i>Nitrosomonas</i> | nd | S,cs | N | 25 | nd | 6.5-8 | 24 h | 96 (H) | IC50 | 2 |
| Methanogens | nd | S,cs | N | 35 | nd | 7 | 48 h | 160 (H) | IC50 | 2 |
| Aerobic heterotrophs | nd | S,cs | N | 35 | nd | 7 | 15 h | 130 (H) | IC50 | 2 |
| <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> | nd | S,cs | N | 25 | nd | nd | nd | 12 | TT (Toxicity threshold) | 3 |
| <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> | nd | S | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | >100 | Oxygen consumption inhibition test | 4 |
| PROTOZOA | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Entosiphon sulcatum</i> Protozoa | nd | S,cs | N | 25 | nd | 6.9 | 72 h | 140 | TT (Toxicity threshold) | 3 |
| ALGAE | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Scendesmus quadricauda</i> | nd | S,cs | N | 25 | nd | nd | 7 d | >160 | TT (Toxicity threshold) | 3 |
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> | nd | S,cs | Y | nd | nd | nd | 72 h | 4.6 | EC50 (growth) | 5 |
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> | nd | S,cs | Y | nd | nd | nd | 8 d | 4.8 | EC50 (growth) | 6 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|-----|------------------------------|--|---|-----|
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> | nd | S,cs* | Y | 20±1 | nd | 7.5 | 24 h 48 h 72 h 96 h | 13.4 (0.02-938) 7.2 (3.4-15.1) 5.4 (2.6-11.3) 3.6 (1.7-7.6) | EC50 (growth) | 7 |
| <i>Chlamydomonas angulosa</i> | nd | S | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | 51 | EC50 photosynthetic inhibition | 8 |
| <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> | nd | S | nd | nd | nd | nd | 3h | 63 | Inhibition of photosynthesis | 8 |
| <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> | nd | nd | nd | 20 | nd | nd | nd | 13 | 17% inhibition of O ₂ consumption | 22 |
| | nd | nd | nd | 20 | nd | nd | nd | 130 | 48% inhibition of O ₂ consumption | |
| | nd | nd | nd | 30 | nd | nd | nd | 130 | 59% inhibition of O ₂ consumption | |
| ARTHROPODS - CRUSTACEANS | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | nd | S,cs* | Y | nd | nd | nd | 24 h | 2.2 | IC50 | 5 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | neonates <24 hr | S,cs | Y | 20 | nd | 7.8 | 48 h | 2.9 (2.5-4.4) 18.4 (11.5-25.4) 13.9 (10.6-17.2) | EC50 (immobilisation) EC50 (immobilisation) EC50 (immobilisation) | 9 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | 4-6 d | S,cs* | N | 23±2 | nd | nd | 48 h | 2.1 (20mmol/m3) | LC50 | 10 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|------------------------------------|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|---------|----------------------|---|--|-----|
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | neonates | S,cs* | Y | 20±1 | nd | nd | 24 h 48 h | 2.27-2.89 1.81-2.41 | EC50 (immobilisation) | 11 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | nd | S | N | nd | nd | nd | 48 h | 75 | LC50 | 12 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | <24 hr | S,cs | N | 22±1 | 72 | 6.7-8.1 | 24 h 48 h NOEC | 77 (57-100) 75 (50-120) 6.8 | LC50 | 13 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | nd | S | nd | nd | nd | nd | 24 h | 2.08 (1.55-2.63) | EC50 (immobilisation) | 14 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | <24 | S, os | nd | 20 | 16° | 8.0±2 | 24 h | 184 (173-196) 137 200 | EC50 (immobilisation) EC0 EC100 | 15 |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> Water flea | <24 h | S,os | nd | 20-22 | 16° | 7.6-7.7 | 24 h | 190 120 200 | EC50 EC0 EC100 | 16 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|-----|-------------------------------|--|---|-----|
| <i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i> Water flea | nd | S,cs* | Y | nd | nd | nd | 48 h 7 d 7 d 7 d | 30 (23-39) 34 (29-40) 9 16 31 (25-35) µM | LC50 LC50 NOEL (reproduction) LOEL (reproduction) IC50 (reproduction) | 17 |
| FISH | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Pimephales promelas</i> Fathead minnow | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | 96 h | 1.69 | LC50 | 18 |
| <i>Pimephales promelas</i> Fathead minnow | nd | F | nd | nd | nd | nd | 96 h | 12 | LC50 | 2 |
| <i>Pimephales promelas</i> Fathead minnow | nd | F | nd | 26 | 45.6 | 7.4 | 96 h | 12.1 | LC50 | 12 |
| <i>Pimephales promelas</i> Fathead minnow | 3.8-6.4 cm 1-2 g | S | N | 25 | 20 360 | 7.5 | 24 h 48 h 96 h | 48.5 48.5 48.5 (38.9-62.83) | LC50 | 19 |
| | | | | | | 8.2 | 24 h 48 h 96 h | 42.3 42.3 42.3 (33.52-53.47) | | |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|-------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|-------------|----------------------|---|--------------|-----|
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 g | nd | nd | 17 | nd | nd | 96 h | 1.94 | LC50 | 18 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | 96 h | 1.51 | LC50 | 18 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | young 0.32- 1.2 g | S, os | N | 20-24 | 28-44 | 6.7- 7.4 | 24 h 96 h | 169 150 (130-200) | LC50 LC50 | 20 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | nd | S | nd | 17 | 40-50 | 7.2- 7.5 | 96 h | 88 (62-122) | LC50 | 12 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 3.8- 6.4 cm 1-2 g | S,os | N | 25 | 20 | 7.5 | 24 h 48 h 96 h | 35.1 (26.74- 43.67) 32 (32 -32) 32 (32-32) | Tlm | 19 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 | S | nd | nd | 44 | 7.4 | 24 h 96 h | 100 (70-149) 84 (57-124) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 | S | nd | nd | 44 | 7.4 | 24 h 96 h | 160 (113-226) 140 (93-211) | LC50 | 21 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|-----|---------------|--------------------------------|--------|-----|
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 g | S | nd | nd | 44 | 6.5 | 24 h 96 h | 135 (66-276) 56 (40-78) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 g | S | nd | nd | 44 | 7.5 | 24 h 96 h | 220 (129-376) 86 (55-134) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.2 g | S | nd | nd | 44 | 8.5 | 24 h 96 h | 285 (189-431) 285 (189-431) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.5 g | S | nd | nd | 12 | 8.0 | 24 h 96 h | 198 (142-277) 135 (113-162) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.5 g | S | nd | nd | 44 | 8.0 | 24 h 96 h | 134 (112-170) 134 (122-170) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.5 g | S | nd | nd | 162 | 8.0 | 24 h 96 h | 80 (64-101) 80 (64-101) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> Bluegill sunfish | 0.5 g | S | nd | nd | 300 | 8.0 | 24 h 96 h | 135 (113-162) 135 (113-162) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Poecilia reticulata</i> Guppy | nd | S,cs | Y | 21±1 | nd | nd | 96 h | 9.6 | LC50 | 5 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|--|------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|---------|----------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|-----|
| <i>Poecilia reticulata</i> Guppy | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | nd | 96 h | 1.99 | LC50 | 18 |
| <i>Poecilia reticulata</i> Guppy | 1.9-2.5cm 0.1-0.2 g | S,os | N | 25 | 20 | 7.5 | 24 h 48h 96 h | 97.1 97.1 97.1 (81.5-114.8) | TLm | 19 |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> Channel catfish | nd | S | nd | 22 | 40-50 | 7.2-7.5 | 96 h | 210 (134-330) | LC50 | 21 |
| <i>Carassius auratus</i> Goldfish | 3.8-6.4 cm 1-2 g | S,os | nd | 25 | 20 | 7.5 | 24 h 48 h 96 h | 94.4 94.4 94.4 (79.62-110.8) | Tlm | 19 |
| <i>Leuciscus idus melanotus</i> Golden Orfe | nd | S,os | nd | 20 | nd | 7-8 | 48 h | 26 44 70 | LC0 LC50 LC100 | 12 |
| FISH (salmonid) | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> Rainbow Trout | nd | S,cs | Y | 12±1 | nd | nd | 96 h | 4.2 | LC50 | 5 |
| Trout | 2.4 g | nd | nd | 12 | nd | nd | 96 h | 1.15 | LC50 | 18 |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> Rainbow Trout | nd | S | nd | 12 | 40-50 | 7.2-7.5 | 96 h | 14 | LC50 | 12 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|----------------------------|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--|-----|---------------|-----------------------------|--------|-----|
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 2.4 g | S | nd | 12 | 44 | 7.4 | 24 h | 14 (11-18) | LC50 | 21 |
| Rainbow Trout | | | | | | | 96 h | 14 (11-18) | | |

Notes:

(H) Corrected for H

F Flow through

S Static

os Open system

cs Closed system

cs* Closed system with headspace eliminated

nd no data

h hours

d days

References:

1. Tang *et al.* (1992)
2. Blum and Speece (1991)
3. Bringmann and Kuhn (1980)
4. Niemitz cited in ECDIN (1991)
5. Galassi *et al.* (1988)
6. Herman *et al.* (1991)
7. Masten *et al.* (1994)
8. Hutchinson cited in ECDIN (1991)
9. Maclean and Doe (1989)
10. Abernethy *et al.* (1986)
11. Vigano (1993)
12. ECDIN BAS (1991)/Mayer and Ellersieck (1986)
13. LeBlanc (1980)
14. Tosato *et al.* (1993)
15. Bringmann and Kuhn (1982)
16. Bringmann and Kuhn (1977)
17. Niederlehner *et al.* (1998)
18. Cited in Vittozzi and De Angelis (1991)
19. Pickering and Henderson (1966)
20. Buccafusco *et al.* (1981)
21. Mayer and Ellersieck (1986)
22. Potera, cited in ECDIN (1991)

B2. BIOACCUMULATION

The log K_{ow} values for ethylbenzene have been reported to be 3.13 and 3.15 by WHO (1996) and Howard (1989), respectively. These data suggest that ethylbenzene may exhibit moderate bioaccumulation in freshwater organisms although competing losses due to volatilisation are likely to reduce exposure concentrations in the field and to reduce the extent of bioaccumulation.

Few studies are available that have examined the bioaccumulation of ethylbenzene in freshwater organisms. Herman *et al.* (1991) determined a log bioconcentration factor of 2.31 for *Selenastrum capricornutum*. Bioaccumulation was calculated using the loss-from-headspace technique. The authors noted that there was a greater bioaccumulation potential for ethylbenzene than there was for benzene (BCF 1.63) and toluene (BCF 1.99) and values were comparable to the xylenes (2.34 - 2.41). This ranking is the same as that emerging from studies into the acute toxicities of these substances to aquatic life (Benville and Korn, 1977; Galassi *et al.*, 1988). Additionally, Herman *et al.* (1991) observed that there was a good correlation between bioconcentration and log K_{ow} for ethylbenzene.

Mancha *et al.* (1997) determined experimentally a log K_{ow} of 3.25 for ethylbenzene using the OECD method 117, based on the retention time in an HPLC system. They calculated a log BCF value of 2 for fish using the Connel and Hawker equation and Veith equation (Mancha *et al.* (1997).

IUCLID (1996) reported a log BCF of 1.9 for the goldfish *Carrasius auratus*. No further details were provided.

REFERENCES FOR APPENDIX B

- Abernethy, S., Bobra, A.M., Shiu, W.Y., Wells, P.G. and Mackay, D (1986) Acute lethal toxicity of hydrocarbons and chlorinated hydrocarbons to two planktonic crustaceans: The key role of organism-water partitioning. *Aquatic Toxicology* **8**, 163-174.
- Blum, D.J.W. and Speece, R.E. (1991) A database of chemical toxicity to environmental bacteria and its use in interspecies comparisons and correlations. *Research Journal of the Water Pollution and Control Federation*, **63** (3), 198-207.
- Bringmann, G. and Kühn, R. (1977) The toxicity of waterborne contaminants to *Daphnia magna*. *Zeitung für Wasser Abwasser Forshung* **10** (5) 161 - 166.
- Bringmann, G. and Kühn, R. (1980) Comparison of the toxicity thresholds of water pollutants to bacteria, algae and protozoa in the cell multiplication inhibition test. *Water Research* **14**, 231-241.
- Bringmann, G. and Kühn, R. (1982) Results of the toxic action of water pollutants on *Daphnia magna* by an improved standardized test method. *Zeitung für Wasser Abwasser Forshung*. **15** (1), 1-6.
- Buccafusco, R.J., Ellis, S.J. and LeBlanc, G.A. (1981) Acute toxicity of priority pollutants to Bluegill (*Lepomis macrochirus*). *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* **26**, 446-452.
- ECDIN (1991) Environmental Chemicals Data and Information Network. Joint Research Centre, Ispra, Italy.
- Galassi, S., Minazzini, M., Viganò, L., Cesareo, D. and Tosato, M.L. (1988) Approaches to modelling toxic responses of aquatic organisms to aromatic hydrocarbons. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, **16**, 158-169.
- Herman, D.C., Inniss, W.E. and Mayfield, C.I. (1990) Impact of volatile aromatic hydrocarbons, alone and in combination, on growth of the freshwater alga *Selenastrum capricornutum*. *Aquatic Toxicology* **18**, 87-101.
- Herman, D.C., Mayfield, C.I. and Inniss, W.E. (1991) The relationship between toxicity and bioconcentration of volatile aromatic hydrocarbons by the alga *Selenastrum capricornutum*. *Chemosphere* **22** (7), 665-676.
- IUCLID (1996) Ethylbenzene. International Uniform Chemical Information Database, European Chemicals Bureau.
- Juhnke, V.I. and Lüdemann, D. (1978) Ergebnisse der Untersuchung von 200 chemischen Verbindungen auf akute Fischtoxizität mit dem Goldorfontest. *Zeitschrift für Wasser und Abwasser Forschung*, **11** (5), 161- 164.
- LeBlanc, G.A. (1980) Acute toxicity of priority pollutants to water flea (*Daphnia magna*). *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **24**, 684-691.

Maclean, M.M. and Doe, K.G. (1989) The comparative toxicity of crude and refined oils to *Daphnia magna* and *Artemia*. Report by Environment Canada EE-111.

Mancha, R., Diaz, G. and Arese, A. (1997) Prediction of bioaccumulation potential of some aromatic hydrocarbons in indicator species of ecotoxicity. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* **59**, 422-429.

Masten, L.W., Boerli, R.L. and Walker, J.D. (1994) Strategies employed to determine the acute aquatic toxicity of ethylbenzene, a highly volatile, poorly water-soluble chemical. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* **27**, 335-348.

Mayer, F.L. Jr and Eilersieck, M.R. (1986) United States Department of the Interior. Manual of Acute Toxicity: Interpretation and Database for 410 Chemicals and 66 Species of Freshwater Animals. Fish and Wildlife Service Resource Publication 160.

Niederlehner, B.R., Cairns, J. Jr. and Smith, E.P. (1998) Modelling acute and chronic toxicity of nonpolar narcotic chemicals and mixtures to *Ceriodaphnia dubia*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* **39**, 136-146.

Pickering, Q.H. and Henderson, H. (1966) Acute toxicity of some important petrochemicals to fish. *Journal of Water Pollution and Control Federation* **38**, 1419-1429.

Tang, N.H., Blum, D.J.W., Nirmalakhandam, N. and Speece, R.E. (1992) QSAR parameters for toxicity of organic compounds to *Nitrobacter*. *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, **118** (1) 17-37.

Tosato, N.L., Pino, A., Passerini, L., Marchini, S., Viganò, L. and Høglund, M.D. (1993) Updating and validation of a daphnia toxicity model for benzene derivatives. *Science of the Total Environment*, Supplement 1983, 1479-1490.

Viganò, L. (1993) Reproductive strategy of *Daphnia magna* and toxicity of organic compounds. *Water Research* **27** (5), 903-909.

Vittozzi, L. and De Angelis, G. (1991) A critical review of comparative acute toxicity data on freshwater fish. *Aquatic Toxicology* **19**, 167-204.

APPENDIX C SALTWATER TOXICITY AND BIOACCUMULATION

C1. SALTWATER TOXICITY

The available toxicity dataset for ethylbenzene (Table C1) is limited mainly to short-term single species laboratory tests, and in the majority of cases, static laboratory tests. No data are available on the effect of chronic exposure of ethylbenzene on marine organisms. No multispecies (e.g. mesocosms) or field studies have been reported in the open literature. The dataset reported in subsections C1.1 to C1.4 covers one algal/diatom species, one species of macroalga, six crustacean species, one mollusc species and four fish species.

C1.1 Algae

Toxicity data for ethylbenzene to marine algae are restricted to a single study using the marine diatom, *Skeletonema costatum* and the macroalga, *Ulva pertusa*.

EC50 (growth inhibition) values of 8, 7.5, 4.9 and 7.7 mg l⁻¹ to *Skeletonema costatum* were reported by Masten *et al.* (1994) following 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours, respectively. The test was carried out according to EPA standard guidelines, adapted for testing of volatile test compound by the use of sealed test vessels. Ethylbenzene concentrations in test solutions were also measured by gas chromatography. Although Masten *et al.* took careful precautions to control losses of ethylbenzene during exposure, they noted a 'salting out' effect which is likely to have impaired interpretation of the results, in particular the concentrations responsible for observed effects.

Tokuda (1984) investigated the behaviour in light of the motile spores of the seaweed, *Ulva pertusa*. He found that inhibition of sporal phototaxis was complete at 1.9 mg l⁻¹ ethylbenzene, with some inhibition (not defined) at 0.62 and 0.19 mg l⁻¹. The test used headspace gas chromatography to analyse concentrations at the start of the test and sporal inhibition was assessed visually following illumination of the solution for 30-60 min. The test solutions were kept in beakers sealed with aluminium foil and polychlorinated vinylidene film.

C1.2 Invertebrates

The data relating to the effect of ethylbenzene on marine invertebrates are limited to crustaceans and molluscs.

Effects concentrations for crustaceans range from 0.49-87.6 mg l⁻¹. A 48 h EC50 (immobilisation) of 6.5 mg l⁻¹ was reported for *Artemia salina* by Maclean and Doe (1989) with confirmation of test concentrations by fluorescence spectroscopy. The results from this study compare well with the 48 h and 72 h LC50 of >5.2 and 4.0 mg l⁻¹, respectively, reported by Masten *et al.* (1994) for the mysid shrimp (*Mysidopsis bahia*). The latter study also reported a NOEC and LOEC of 1.0 and 2.7 mg l⁻¹ respectively. Masten *et al.* were again careful to control losses of ethylbenzene during exposure and to confirm test concentrations by analysis. Their results are also consistent with reported values for 24 h LC50s of 14.4 -17.3 for *Palaemonetes pugio*, 15.4 mg l⁻¹ for *Artemia* and 16 mg l⁻¹ for *Nitocra bahia*. (Potera cited in ECDIN 1991 and Abernethy *et al.* 1986).

The lowest reported LC50 values are for the bay shrimp *Crago franciscorum*. The 24h and 96 h LC50 values were reported as 2.2 and 0.49 mg l⁻¹, respectively (Benville and Korn 1977) but this experiment was performed in open vessels and it is clear that most of the ethylbenzene introduced into the test vessels (>99%) had volatilised after 48 h. Even after 24 h, most of the ethylbenzene had volatilised from test vessels at concentrations bracketing the 24 h LC50 (>99% loss at 1.0 µl l⁻¹ and 67% at 4.9 µl l⁻¹). It is not clear from the paper describing this study the basis for the reported LC50 values. Furthermore, the absence of density data for ethylbenzene prevents conversion of toxicity data reported in terms of µl l⁻¹ to µg l⁻¹.

The only study that has examined the toxicity of ethylbenzene to molluscs was performed on the larvae of Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* in a static test, without analysis of test concentrations. A 96 hour LC50 of 1030 mg l⁻¹ was reported (LeGore cited in ECDIN 1991).

C1.4 Fish

Few data have been reported on the effect of ethylbenzene on marine fish species. The lowest reliable 96 h LC50 of 5.1 mg l⁻¹ was reported from a study conducted under ASTM/EPA standard guidelines for atlantic silversides (*Menidia menidia*). A NOEC and LOEC (survival) of 3.3 and 5.9 mg l⁻¹ was reported for this study (Masten *et al.* 1994). The data reported by Masten *et al.* are similar to data reported by Benville and Korn (1977), who reported a 96 h LC50 of 4.3 mg l⁻¹ for *Morone saxatilis*. However, few experimental details are available for this latter study and again, apparently high losses of ethylbenzene during exposure make interpretation difficult.

C2. SALTWATER BIOACCUMULATION

There are no data in the open literature on the bioaccumulation of ethylbenzene to marine organisms.

Table C1 Toxicity of ethylbenzene to marine life

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Salinity (%) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref | |
|---------------------------------------|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--------------|--|----|---------------|--|---------------------------|-----|------|
| ALGAE / DIATOM | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Skeletonema costatum</i> Diatom | nd | S,cs | Y | 20±1 | | nd | 8 | 24 h | 8.0 (6.2-10.4) | EC50 (growth) | 1 | |
| | | | | | | | | 48 h | 7.5 (5.0-11.2) | EC50 | | |
| | | | | | | | | 72 h | 4.9 (2.4-9.8) | EC50 | | |
| | | | | | | | | 96 h | 7.7 (5.9-10.0) | EC50 | | |
| <i>Ulva pertusa</i> Seaweed | zoo-spores | S-cs | nd | 20 | seawater | nd | nd | 0.5 -1 h | | Inhibition of phototaxis: | 4 | |
| | | | | | | | | | | 1.9 | | 100% |
| | | | | | | | | | | 0.62 | | some |
| | | | | | | | | 0.19 | some; ca 60% spores with abnormal movement, 40% with extremely abnormal movement | | | |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Salinity (%) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|---|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|--------------|--|-------------|----------------------|---|--|-----|
| ARTHROPODS (CRUSTACEANS) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Artemia</i> Brine shrimp | nd | S,cs* | N | 20±1 | 30 | nd | nd | 24 h | 15.4 (145 mmol/m3) | LC50 | 5 |
| <i>Artemia</i> Brine shrimp | nd | S, cs | Y | 23-24 | 30 | nd | 8.1- 8.2 | 48 h | 6.5 - 13.3 8.8 - 13.3 | EC50 (immobilisation) LC50 | 6 |
| <i>Artemia salina</i> Brine shrimp | nd | S,cs | Y | 23-24 | 30 | nd | 8.1 | 48 h | 9.2 | EC50 | 6 |
| <i>Crago franciscorum</i> Bay shrimp | nd | S,os | Y | 16 | 25 | nd | nd | 24 h 96 h | 2.2 0.49 | LC50 LC50 | 7 |
| <i>Mysidopsis bahia</i> Mysid shrimp | <24 h | F,cs | Y | 25±1 | | nd | nd | 48 h 72 h 96 h | > 5.2 4.0 (2.7-5.2) 2.6 (2.0-3.3) 1.0 2.7 | LC50 LC50 LC50 NOEC (survival) LOEC (survival) | 1 |
| <i>Mysidopsis bahia</i> Mysid shrimp | nd | S | N | nd | nd | nd | nd | 96 h | 87.6 | LC50 | 8 |
| <i>Nitocra bahia</i> Copepod | nd | S,os | nd | 10-20 | 15-20 | nd | nd | 24 h | 16 | LC50 | 3 |
| <i>Palaemonetes pugio</i> Shrimp | nd | S,cs | nd | 10-20 | 15-20 | nd | nd | 24 h | 14.4-17.3 | LC50 | 3 |

| Species | Life stage | Test type | Analysis | Temp (°C) | Salinity (%) | Hardness (mg CaCO ₃ l ⁻¹) | pH | Exposure time | Concn (mg l ⁻¹) | Effect | Ref |
|---|-----------------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|---------------|--|-----|--------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|-----|
| <i>Cancer magister</i> Dana Dungeness crab | larvae first stage zoeae | F | Y | 13 | | nd | nd | 48 h 96 h | 40 13 | LC50 LC50 | 9 |
| MOLLUSCS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Crassostrea gigas</i> Pacific oyster | larvae | S | N | 17-20 | 25.3- 30.8 | nd | nd | 96 h | 1030 | LC50 | 10 |
| FISH | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Cyprinodon variegatus</i> Sheepshead minnow | 8-15 mm 14-28 d | S,os | Y | 25-31 | | nd | nd | 24 h 48 h 72 h 96 h 96 h | 300 (250-340) 360 (310-440) 320 (270-380) 280 (260-290) 88 | LC50 LC50 LC50 LC50 NOEC | 11 |
| <i>Menidia menidia</i> Atlantic silversides | 9-13 mm | F,cs | Y | 22±1 | | 63 | 8 | 96 h >96 h | 5.1 (4.4-5.7) 3.3 5.9 | LC50 NOEC LOEC | 1 |
| <i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> Coho salmon | young 5-40 g | S,csa | N | 8 | 30 | nd | 8.1 | 96 h 96h | 10 <50 | LOEC LC50 | 12 |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> Striped Bass | nd | S | Y | 16 | 25 | nd | nd | 24 h 96 h | 4.3 (3.9-4.7) 4.3 (3.9-4.7) | LC50 | 7 |

References for Table C1:

1. Masten *et al.* (1994)
2. Hutchinson cited in ECDIN (1991)
3. Potera cited in ECDIN (1991)
4. Tokuda (1984)
5. Abernethy *et al.* (1986)
6. Maclean and Doe (1989)
7. Benville and Korn (1977)
8. Mayer and Ellersieck (1986)
9. Caldwell *et al.* (1976)
10. LeGore cited in ECDIN (1991)
11. Heitmuller *et al.* (1981)
12. Morrow *et al.* (1975)

REFERENCES FOR APPENDIX C

Abernethy, S., Bobra, A.M., Shiu, W.Y., Wells, P.G. and Mackay, D (1986) Acute lethal toxicity of hydrocarbons and chlorinated hydrocarbons to two planktonic crustaceans: The key role of organism-water partitioning. *Aquatic Toxicology* **8**, 163-174.

Benville, P.E. and Korn, S. (1977) The acute toxicity of six monocyclic aromatic crude oil components to striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) and bay shrimp (*Cargo franciscorum*). *California Fish and Game*, **63**(4), 204-209.

Caldwell, R.S., Caldarone, E.M. and Mallon, M.H. (1976) Effects of a seawater-soluble fraction of Cook inlet crude oil and its major aromatic components on larval stages of the Dungeness crab, *Cancer magister* dana. In: Fate and Effect of Petroleum Hydrocarbons in Marine Organisms and Ecosystems, D.A Wolfe Ed., Pergamon Press, Oxford, pp 210-220.

ECDIN (1991) Environmental Chemicals Data and Information Network. Joint Research Centre, Ispra, Italy..

Heitmuller, P.T., Hollister, T.A. and Parrish, P.R. (1981) Acute toxicity of 54 industrial chemicals to sheepshead minnows (*Cyprinodon variegatus*). *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **27**, 596-604.

LeGore, R.S. (1974) The effect of Alaskan crude oil and selected hydrocarbon compounds on embryonic development of the pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*. Doctoral thesis, University of Washington. Cited in CD ROM ECDIN.

Macleon, M.M. and Doe, K.G. (1989) The comparative toxicity of crude and refined oils to *Daphnia magna* and *Artemia*. Report by Environment Canada EE-111.

Masten, L.W., Boerli, R.L. and Walker, J.D. (1994) Strategies employed to determine the acute aquatic toxicity of ethylbenzene, a highly volatile, poorly water-soluble chemical. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* **27**, 335-348.

Morrow, J.E., Gritz, R.L. and Kirton, M.P. (1975) Effects of some components of crude oil on young coho salmon. *Copeia* (2) 326 - 331.

Potera, F.T. (1975) The effects of benzene, toluene and ethylbenzene on several important members of the estuarine ecosystem. PhD dissertation, Lehigh University. Cited on CD ROM ECDIN.

Tokuda, H. (1984) Influence of an aqueous extract of a mineral oil on phototaxis of gametes and zoospores and on germination of zygotes of *Ulva pertusa* (Ulvaceae, Chlorophyta). *Hydrobiologia* **116/7**, 433-437.

Mayer, F.L. Jr and Eilersieck, M.R. (1986) United States Department of the Interior. Manual of Acute Toxicity: Interpretation and Database for 410 Chemicals and 66 Species of Freshwater Animals. Fish and Wildlife Service Resource Publication 160.

APPENDIX D MAMMALIAN TOXICOLOGY

The mammalian toxicity of ethylbenzene was extensively reviewed by the World Health Organization (WHO) in its 1993 revision of the Drinking Water Guidelines (WHO 1993) and more recently, under the International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS 1996).

Ethylbenzene is readily absorbed by ingestion or through the skin and is rapidly excreted. In man, it is readily converted into soluble metabolites (mainly mandelic acid and phenylglyoxalic acid) which are excreted rapidly in the urine (WHO 1996).

Most toxicity data relate to the inhalation route of exposure and, at high doses, it can cause irritation of the eyes, nose and throat and CNS depression (Ware 1988, Fawell and Hunt 1988). Based on laboratory animal studies, ethylbenzene is of very low acute oral toxicity (rat oral LD₅₀ range from 3.5 - 4.7 g kg⁻¹) (WHO 1996). Short-term oral studies have been carried out in laboratory animals which indicate that it is of low chronic oral toxicity, with target organs being the liver and kidney. In a six-month gavage study in female rats, no adverse effects were seen at a dose of 136 mg kg⁻¹ (administered five days/week), whereas higher doses (408 or 608 mg kg⁻¹) had slight effects on the liver and kidney (WHO 1996, IPCS 1996).

Ethylbenzene is considered not to be mutagenic in a variety of tests in bacteria, yeast, insects, mammalian cells and intact mammals (WHO 1996, IPCS 1996) although there are currently inadequate data to assess its carcinogenicity (WHO 1996, IPCS 1996). It can cross the placenta but it is not fetotoxic in rodents (Clayton and Clayton 1994) and, although poorly studied, is unlikely to be teratogenic based on inhalation studies in rodents (Ware 1988).

In 1993, WHO recommended a tolerable daily intake (TDI) of 97.1 µg kg⁻¹ body weight day⁻¹ (WHO 1993, 1996) This was based on applying an uncertainty factor of 1000 to a NOAEL of 136 mg kg⁻¹ body weight day⁻¹ which was based on liver and kidney toxicity observed in a limited six-month study in rats (administration five days/week; equivalent dose 97.1 mg kg⁻¹). An uncertainty factor of 1000 was applied to allow for intra- and interspecies variation and 10 for the limited database and short duration of the study. Assuming a 60 kg adult drinking two litres of water per day and 10% allocation of the TDI to drinking water, a health-based guideline value of 300 µg l⁻¹ was proposed.

However, WHO noted that this value exceeded reported odour thresholds in drinking water. Odour threshold concentrations reported in the literature range from 1.6, 3.2, 10, 29, 100, 140, 150, 200 and 550 µg l⁻¹ (Ware 1988, Fawell and Hunt 1988, Van Gemert and Nettenbriejer 1977, Alexander *et al.* 1982, Young *et al.* 1996). The lowest odour concentrations were reported at 60 °C whereas the threshold value of 150 µg l⁻¹ was reported at 40 °C (Alexander *et al.* 1982, Young *et al.* 1996). Taste threshold concentrations of 29, 64, 72, 80, 200, 390 and 780 µg l⁻¹ have been reported (Ware 1988, Alexander *et al.* 1982, Young *et al.* 1996, WHO 1996). The taste concentrations of 64 and 80 µg l⁻¹ were reported at 40 °C whereas the value of 390 µg l⁻¹ was reported at 25 °C (Alexander *et al.* 1982, Young *et al.* 1996).

The taste and odour threshold concentration for ethylbenzene is most likely to be between 20 to 200 µg l⁻¹.

REFERENCES FOR APPENDIX D

Alexander, H.C., McCarty, W.M., Barlett, E.A. and Syverud, A.N. (1982) Aqueous odour and taste threshold values of industrial chemicals. *JAWWA* **74**(11), 595-599.

Clayton, G.D. and Clayton, F.E. (1994) *Patty's Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology*. 4th edition. Volume II, Part B, 1342-1343.

Fawell, J.K. and Hunt, S. (1988). *Environmental Toxicology: organic pollutants*. pp. 243-246. Ellis Horwood Series.

International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS) (1996) *Environmental Health Criteria 186 - Ethylbenzene*. World Health Organization, Geneva.

Van Gemert, L.J. and Nettenbriejer, A.N. (1977) *Compilation of odour values in air and water*. National Institute for Nutrition and Water Supply. Central Institute for Nutrition and Food Research, Netherlands.

Ware, G. (ed). (1988) *Reviews of environmental contamination and toxicology*. Volume 106. pp. 37-68. USEPA, Springer-Verlag

WHO (1993) *Guidelines for drinking-water quality*. Second edition. Volume 1. Recommendations. WHO, Geneva.

WHO (1996) *Guidelines for drinking-water quality*. Second edition. Volume 2. Health criteria and other supporting information. WHO, Geneva.

Young, W.F., Horth, H., Crane, R., Ogden, T. and Arnott, M. (1996) Taste and odour threshold concentrations of potential potable water contaminants. *Water Research* **30**(2), 331-340.

APPENDIX E SPECIES CITED

| Scientific name | Common name | Organism | Water |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|------------|-------|
| <i>Artemia salina</i> | Brine shrimp | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Cancer magister</i> | Dungeness crab | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Carassius auratus</i> | Goldfish | Fish | FW |
| <i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i> | Water flea | Crustacean | FW |
| <i>Chlamydomonas angulosa</i> | Green alga | Algae | FW |
| <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> | Green alga | Algae | SW |
| <i>Crago franciscorum</i> | Bay shrimp | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Crassostrea gigas</i> | Pacific oyster | Mollusc | SW |
| <i>Cyprinodon variegatus</i> | Sheepshead minnow | Fish | SW |
| <i>Daphnia magna</i> | Water flea | Crustacean | FW |
| <i>Entosiphon sulcatum</i> | Protozoa | Protozoa | FW |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> | Channel catfish | Fish | FW |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> | Bluegill sunfish | Fish | FW |
| <i>Leuciscus idus melanotus</i> | Golden orfe | Fish | FW |
| <i>Menidia menidia</i> | Atlantic silversides | Fish | SW |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> | Striped bass | Fish | SW |
| <i>Mysidopsis bahia</i> | Mysid shrimp | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Nitocra bahia</i> | Copepod | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Nitrobacter</i> | Bacteria | Bacteria | FW |
| <i>Nitrosomonas</i> | Bacteria | Bacteria | FW |
| <i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> | Coho salmon | Fish | SW |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | Rainbow trout | Fish | FW |
| <i>Palaemonetes pugio</i> | Brown shrimp | Crustacean | SW |
| <i>Pimephales promelas</i> | Fathead minnow | Fish | FW |
| <i>Poecilia reticulata</i> | Guppy | Fish | FW |
| <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> | Bacteria | Bacteria | FW |
| <i>Scendesmus quadricauda</i> | Green alga | Algae | FW |
| <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> | Green alga | Algae | FW |
| <i>Skeletonema costatum</i> | Diatom | Diatom | SW |
| <i>Ulva pertusa</i> | Seaweed | Algae | SW |

APPENDIX F ABBREVIATIONS USED

BCF = bioconcentration factor

EC50 = concentration required to elicit specified effect in 50% of exposed population

EQS = environmental quality standard

LC50 = concentration required to cause mortality in 50% of exposed population

LC100 = concentration required to cause mortality in 100% of exposed population

LOAEL = lowest observed adverse effect level

LOEC = lowest observed effect concentration

ND = no data

NOAEL = no observed adverse effect level

NOEC = no observed effect concentration

NOEL = no observed effect level

MATC = maximum acceptable toxicant concentration

S = static test

ADI = admissible daily intake