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Toxicity of fuel-contaminated soil to antarctic moss and terrestrial algae

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Toxicity of fuel-contaminated soil to antarctic moss and terrestrial algae

Abstract

Fuel pollution is a significant problem in Antarctica, especially in areas where human activities occur, such as at scientific research stations. Despite this, there is little information on the effects of petroleum hydrocarbons on Antarctic terrestrial biota. The authors demonstrate that the Antarctic mosses *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, *Schistidium antarctici*, and *Ceratodon purpureus*, and the Antarctic terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa* are relatively tolerant to Special Antarctic Blend (SAB) fuel-contaminated soil (measured as total petroleum hydrocarbons). Freshly spiked soils were more toxic to all species than were aged soils containing degraded fuel, as measured by photosynthetic efficiency (variable fluorescence/maximum fluorescence [Fv/Fm]), pigment content, and visual observations. Concentrations that caused 20% inhibition ranged from 16 600 mg/kg to 53 200 mg/kg for freshly spiked soils and from 30 100 mg/kg to 56 200 mg/kg for aged soils. The photosynthetic efficiency of *C. purpureus* and *S. antarctici* was significantly inhibited by exposure to freshly spiked soils with lowest-observed-effect concentrations of 27 900 mg/kg and 40 400 mg/kg, respectively. *Prasiola crispa* was the most sensitive species to freshly spiked soils (Fv/Fm lowest-observed-effect concentration 6700 mg/kg), whereas the Fv/Fm of *B. pseudotriquetrum* was unaffected by exposure to SAB fuel even at the highest concentration tested (62 900 mg/kg). Standard toxicity test methods developed for nonvascular plants can be used in future risk assessments, and sensitivity data will contribute to the development of remediation targets for petroleum hydrocarbons to guide remediation activities in Antarctica

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22 **Toxicity of fuel contaminated soil to Antarctic moss and terrestrial algae**

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ABSTRACT

85 Fuel pollution is a significant problem in Antarctica, especially in areas where human
86 activities occur, such as at scientific research stations. Despite this, there is little information
87 on the effects of petroleum hydrocarbons on Antarctic terrestrial biota. This paper
88 demonstrates that the Antarctic mosses *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, *Schistidium antarctici*,
89 *Ceratodon purpureus* and the Antarctic terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa* are relatively tolerant
90 to Special Antarctic Blend (SAB) fuel contaminated soil (measured as total petroleum
91 hydrocarbons, TPH). Freshly-spiked soils were more toxic to all species than were aged soils
92 containing degraded fuel, as measured by photosynthetic efficiency (Fv/Fm), pigment content
93 and visual observations. Inhibitory concentration (IC20) values ranged from 16,600 to 53,200
94 mg/kg for freshly-spiked soils and from 30,100 to 56,200 mg/kg for aged soils.
95 Photosynthetic efficiency of *C. purpureus* and *S. antarctici* was significantly inhibited by
96 exposure to freshly-spiked soils with lowest observable effective concentrations (LOECs) of
97 27,900 and 40,400 mg/kg, respectively. *Prasiola crispa* was the most sensitive species to
98 freshly-spiked soils (Fv/Fm LOEC of 6,700 mg/kg), whereas Fv/Fm of *B. pseudotriquetrum*
99 was unaffected by exposure to SAB even at the highest concentration tested (62,900 mg/kg).
100 Standard toxicity test methods developed here for non-vascular plants can be used in future
101 risk assessments and sensitivity data will contribute to the development of remediation targets
102 for petroleum hydrocarbons to guide remediation activities in Antarctica.

103 **Key words**

104 Chlorophyll fluorescence, Ecological risk assessment, Petroleum hydrocarbon, Soil
105 contamination, Toxic effects

106

INTRODUCTION

Most contaminated sites in Antarctica occur around research stations located in ice-free coastal areas [1]. These ice-free areas comprise < 0.3% of the Antarctic land mass yet support the majority of the terrestrial ecosystem biota [2]. Despite this, there is little information on the sensitivity of local species and the toxic effects of contaminants including petroleum hydrocarbons on Antarctic terrestrial biota, with the exception of soil microbial communities [1, 3]. In addition, no soil quality guidelines for Antarctica currently exist.

Data from toxicity tests are crucial in the development of site-specific environmental quality guidelines, including remediation targets for contaminated sites. Establishing relevant remediation targets for petroleum hydrocarbons in Antarctica is necessary to inform remediation activities, facilitate soil re-use, and enable a site to be recognised as no longer posing significant environmental risk. In temperate regions, seed germination as well as shoot and root growth in vascular plants have commonly been used as endpoints in toxicity tests using plants to identify their tolerance thresholds to contaminated soils [Macoustra et al. unpublished results; 4, 5]. However, these toxicity tests and endpoints cannot be applied to Antarctic regions, where plant life is largely limited to cryptogams, such as moss and algae, which do not have roots nor produce seeds [6]. These cryptogams are specially adapted to survive in extreme environments, with an ability to withstand low temperatures and periodic desiccation [e.g. 7, 8]. Mosses are the main components of the Antarctic flora, and grow on ice-free refuges often in combination with terrestrial algae [6]. Moss and terrestrial algae therefore represent ideal test species for toxicity bioassays evaluating contaminated Antarctic soils.

Mosses are known to accumulate elements, as well as some inorganic and organic compounds in their tissue [e.g. 9, 10, 11, 12]. While some studies have investigated the effects of metals [e.g. 11, 12], there are no published investigations into the effect of

132 petroleum hydrocarbons on moss. Furthermore, there is only one published study on the
133 effect of petroleum hydrocarbons on terrestrial algae, namely soil microalgae [13].

134 Petroleum hydrocarbons are considered persistent hazardous pollutants that can have
135 both direct and indirect toxic effects on soil ecosystems [2, 3, 14]. Hydrocarbons may
136 accumulate in the membrane lipid bilayer of cells, affecting their structural and functional
137 properties, including membrane fluidity and function, which may lead to leakage of cell
138 contents and cell death [3, 15].

139 The toxicity of petroleum hydrocarbons in soil may decrease with time as a result of
140 weathering and aging processes [16]. Aging changes the composition and concentration of
141 petroleum hydrocarbons through biological and physico-chemical processes, such as
142 volatilisation, sorption, and microbial degradation [17]. In Antarctic soils, these processes are
143 significantly slower than in temperate and tropical regions and consequently, natural
144 attenuation is extremely slow [2, 18]. As the toxicity of petroleum hydrocarbons in soils
145 change through time, testing the toxicity of both aged and fresh fuel contamination provides a
146 better understanding of toxicity to terrestrial biota [14].

147 The most commonly used fuel at Australian Antarctic Research Stations for power
148 generation and station equipment is Special Antarctic Blend (SAB) diesel. Special Antarctic
149 Blend fuel is primarily composed of aliphatic alkanes in the range n-C9 to n-C14 (80-90%)
150 with trace amounts of n-C15 to n-C23 and aromatics, such as polycyclic aromatic
151 hydrocarbons (PAHs, 10-20%) [19, 20].

152 Chlorophyll fluorescence has been used in previous toxicity studies to determine the
153 impacts of petroleum hydrocarbons on vascular plants [21], the impact of PAHs on aquatic
154 plants [22], and the toxicity of metals to moss [12]. The variable to maximum chlorophyll
155 fluorescence ratio (F_v/F_m) is indicative of the photosynthetic efficiency of a plant and a
156 decrease in F_v/F_m implies a decrease in the potential efficiency of photosystem II (PSII)

157 photochemistry. Damage to PSII is often the first sign of stress in a plant, thus Fv/Fm
158 provides a good measurement of plant health [23]. Under optimal conditions, Fv/Fm is
159 around 0.8 for most species. Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements are non-destructive and
160 can be used repeatedly to rapidly assess contaminant effects throughout the exposure duration
161 [22].

162 Chlorophyll content can also provide valuable information regarding the
163 physiological status of photosynthetic organisms. Pigment content and composition is closely
164 associated with environmental conditions, and is affected by stressors such as metal
165 contamination [24] and ultraviolet light (UV) [25].

166 The aim of this research was to determine the toxicity of fuel contaminated soil to
167 Antarctic moss and terrestrial algae using photosynthetic efficiency, pigment content and
168 visual health as endpoints. As the composition and concentration of fuel in the environment
169 changes through time, the toxicity of both aged and freshly-spiked soils was investigated.
170 This research provides ecologically relevant toxicity data that can be used in the development
171 of site-specific environmental quality guidelines and to establish remediation targets for
172 contaminated soils for use throughout Antarctica.

173 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

174 ***Field site and test species***

175 Field collections were conducted in the Windmill Islands region of East Antarctica, in
176 the vicinity of Australia's Casey Station (66°17'S, 110°32'E). Ice-free areas in this region
177 support vegetation that is exceptionally well developed and diverse [26]. There are a number
178 of petroleum hydrocarbon contaminated sites close to Casey Station [19, 27] and *in situ*
179 remediation of a previous fuel spill is currently underway.

180 Four cryptogamic species commonly found in ice-free refuges near Casey Station
181 were selected for the present study. These include three mosses: *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*
182 (Hedw.) P. Gaertn., B. May. & Scherb, *Schistidium antarctici* (Cardot) L. I. Savicz &
183 Smirnova, and *Ceratodon purpureus* (Hedw.) Brid, and one terrestrial green alga, *Prasiola*
184 *crispa* (Lightfoot) Kützing. *Schistidium antarctici* is endemic to Antarctica, *C. purpureus* has
185 a cosmopolitan distribution, while *B. pseudotriquetrum* occurs throughout polar regions [28].
186 These are the only moss species known to occur in the Windmill Islands and availability of
187 free water is believed to be the primary driver of their distributions. *Schistidium antarctici* is
188 restricted to relatively wet habitats, *C. purpureus* is more abundant in drier sites and *B.*
189 *pseudotriquetrum* has a wide distribution, co-occurring with the other two species across
190 these two extremes [8, 26, 29]. *Prasiola crispa* is a cosmopolitan thalloid terrestrial green
191 alga. It is abundant on the upper shorelines on the coast of Antarctica, often around penguin
192 colonies [30]. These four test species, together with a range of lichens, comprise the majority
193 of the macroflora of this region.

194 *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, *S. antarctici* and *C. purpureus* were collected from moss
195 turfs near Casey Station, and *P. crispa* was collected from Clark Peninsula, 2.5 km north of
196 Casey Station, in January 2013. Live samples were desiccated, and stored at -18°C during
197 transport to Australia.

198 ***General procedures***

199 All glass and plasticware for chemical analyses were cleaned by soaking in 10% (v/v)
200 nitric acid (BDH, Analytical Reagent grade) for a minimum of 24 h followed by thorough
201 rinsing with Milli-Q deionised water (18 MΩ/cm; Merck Millipore). All glassware used for
202 analyses of hydrocarbons and extraction techniques were cleaned by rinsing with acetone and
203 dichloromethane (Suprasolv, Merck).

204 ***Test soils***

205 A laboratory-formulated substrate was used in toxicity tests, providing a standardised
206 soil matrix for spiking with contaminants [5] and preventing unnecessary disturbance and
207 removal of Antarctic soil. The matrix was modified from standard methods [5] in order to
208 closely represent field soil properties, and was comprised of 20% (w/w) kaolin clay (particles
209 <40 µm) and 80% (w/w) propagating sand (sieved to 1 mm). Soils were characterised for
210 physico-chemical parameters as reported in a companion paper (Macoustra et al.,
211 unpublished results). Two spiked stock soils were prepared to nominal concentrations of
212 30,000 and 60,000 mg TPH/kg (soil dry mass) using SAB fuel obtained from Casey Station.
213 Spiked soils were homogenised overnight in a mechanical sample rotator (Environmental
214 Express, 12 places LE rotator).

215 ***Toxicity of fresh fuel in soils***

216 A concentration series of seven soils was prepared by mixing the freshly-spiked soil
217 stock with uncontaminated control soil to produce nominal treatment concentrations of 0,
218 10,000, 20,000, 30,000, 40,000, 50,000 and 60,000 mg TPH/kg. The highest test
219 concentration was based on the maximum concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbons reported
220 from contaminated sites at Casey Station [18, 27]. Aged soils were prepared by storing spiked
221 stock soils in 2.5 L amber schott bottles at $15 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ for two weeks before being diluted with
222 controls. Whilst two weeks of aging may not accurately represent an older fuel spill, it is
223 sufficient time for most of the volatile hydrocarbons to have evaporated [17]. Concentrations
224 with a geometric or logarithmic dilution series are generally used for toxicity testing.
225 However, due to the current lack of information available on the toxicity of petroleum
226 hydrocarbons to moss and algae, and the high tolerance all species demonstrated to SAB fuel
227 in pilot studies, a greater number of higher SAB fuel concentrations were tested in the present
228 study.

229 There were six replicates per treatment, each with approximately 50 mL of soil spread
230 evenly within a glass petri dish (90 x 15 mm) containing 10 mm stainless steel washers that
231 encased approximately 0.5 cm² of each plant species placed in an indentation in the soil
232 (Figures 1 and 2). Plant material was desiccated prior to testing, to mimic field conditions
233 (periodic lack of free water, causing desiccation of moss and terrestrial algae), and to
234 facilitate uptake of contaminants upon rehydration. Petri dishes were placed within sealable
235 transparent plastic containers (©Sistema, 5 L, 21.0 x 24.2 x 10.5 cm). Two water level
236 treatments were investigated. These consisted of 17% moisture content, hereafter referred to
237 as ‘low water’; and fully saturated soils, with MilliQ water almost up to the tip of the moss
238 shoots, hereafter referred to as ‘high water’. The moisture content in low water treatments
239 was based on standard protocols, calculated on a dry-weight basis, by dividing the mass of
240 water by the mass of dry soil and expressed as the percentage of water retained in a saturated
241 subsample of soil [5]. High water levels were used to simulate natural field conditions in
242 Antarctica during a melt event.

243 Bioassay treatments were incubated for 28 days in a temperature controlled cabinet
244 (Thermoline Scientific) at 15 ± 1°C on a day/night photoperiod of 16/8 hours. Maximum
245 light intensity inside the plastic containers was 55 μmol/m²/s. The temperature and
246 photoperiod were chosen to mimic conditions in moss turf during summer months in
247 Antarctica, but also to stimulate photosynthesis and growth. Antarctic mosses only grow
248 during the summer, when moss beds and surface soils are commonly >20°C above ambient
249 air temperatures [31]. Furthermore, 15°C has been shown to be the optimal temperature for
250 photosynthesis in both *B. pseudotriquetrum* and *C. purpureus* [32]. Since Antarctic mosses
251 grow exceptionally slowly under natural conditions [0.1 to 4.6 mm.yr⁻¹ for these species;
252 33], optimised culture conditions were used to enable responses to be observed within a
253 reasonable test period.

254 ***Toxicity of aged fuel in soils***

255 Aged fuel bioassays were set up per the fresh fuel bioassays, with the following four
256 modifications: (i) soils were aged for two weeks, (ii) exclusion of the 10,000 mg TPH/kg
257 treatment, (iii) use of high water level treatment only; and (iv) a 21-day exposure period.

258 ***Toxicity test end points***

259 *Visual health and photosynthetic efficiency*

260 Any colour change or other obvious visual change, such as growth of moss shoots,
261 was noted throughout the exposure period. Photosynthetic efficiency measurements (Fv/Fm)
262 were made using a pulse-amplitude modulated fluorometer (MINI PAM, Heinz Walz GmbH,
263 Effeltrich, Germany), following 20 minutes of dark-adaptation. Fv/Fm measurements were
264 taken daily during the first week, then subsequently every third day.

265 *Photosynthetic pigment content*

266 Total chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments extracted from moss leaf tip and algal
267 material were determined spectrophotometrically in 80% acetone using the methodology of
268 Lichtenthaler & Buschmann [34].

269 ***Total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) analysis***

270 The concentration of SAB in spiked soils was measured as TPH by Gas
271 Chromatography with Flame Ionisation Detector (GC-FID) [as per 14]. Samples were
272 extracted in hexane, mixed with internal standard (containing 50 µg/mL 1,4-dichlorobenzene,
273 50 µg/mL p-terphenyl, 250 µg/mL cyclooctane, 50 µg/mL C₂₄D₅₀ and 250 µg/mL
274 bromoeicosane) and MilliQ water. Samples were tumbled (17 h), centrifuged (1,000 rpm, 5
275 min) and 3 µL aliquots were analysed (GC oven temperature 50°C for 3 min, then increased
276 to 320°C at 18°C/min, detector temperature was 330°C). Reported concentrations of TPH

277 were for the SAB fuel hydrocarbon range of n-C9 to n-C18, calculated on a soil dry weight
278 basis (mg TPH/kg).

279 *Statistical analysis*

280 Dose-response analysis was performed on photosynthetic efficiency and pigment data
281 using the software ToxCalc for Microsoft Excel (Version 5.0.23, TidePool Scientific
282 Software, California, 1994), with significance set at an alpha level of 0.05. Data were tested
283 for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk W test, and for homogeneity of variance using
284 Bartlett's test. Data were power² or square root transformed where necessary. Point estimates
285 including inhibitory concentrations (IC10 and IC20) were calculated using linear
286 interpolation and one tailed distribution. Where IC10 and IC20 estimates were extrapolated
287 outside the range of concentrations tested, results are not reported. No observed effective
288 concentration (NOEC) and lowest observable effective concentration (LOEC) values were
289 determined using Steel's Many-One Rank test, with significance set at $P < 0.05$.

290

291

292

RESULTS

293 *Total petroleum hydrocarbons in test soils*

294 Measured TPH concentrations in freshly-spiked soils were within 1 to 33 % of target
295 nominal concentrations (Table 1). Following two weeks of aging, measured TPH
296 concentrations deviated between 2 and 15% from target nominal concentrations. In both fresh
297 and aged soils, deviation between the measured and nominal concentrations generally
298 decreased with increasing concentration (Table 1).

299

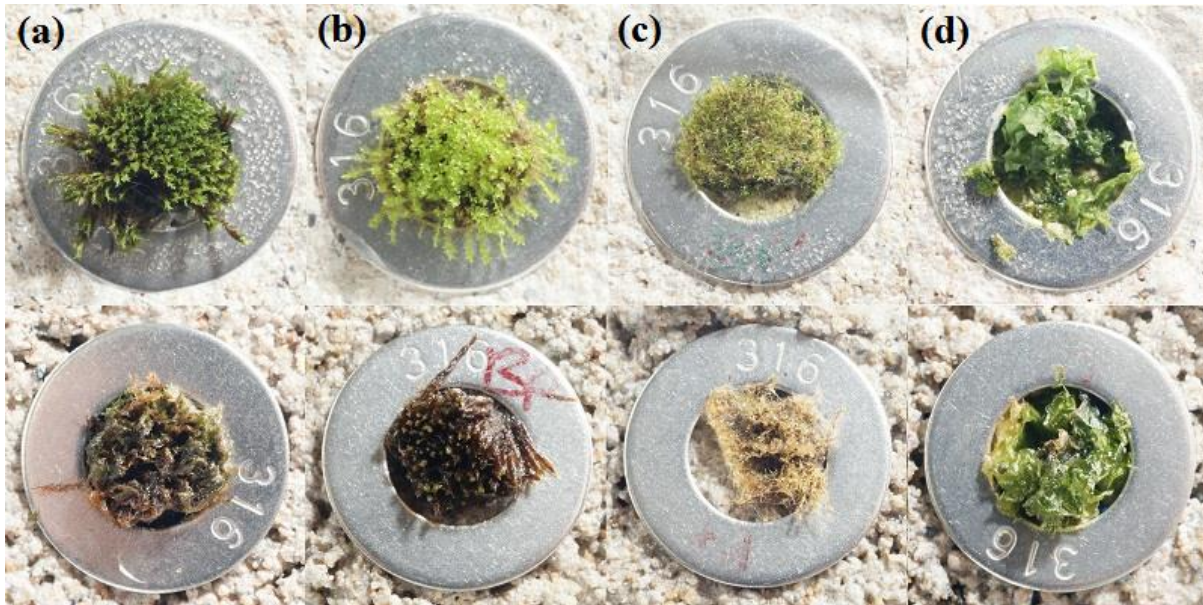
300 **Table 1** Nominal and measured total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) concentrations for freshly-spiked and aged (two
 301 weeks) soils. Soils were spiked with Special Antarctic Blend (SAB) fuel and measured on a dry weight basis.
 302 Measured concentrations were determined for soils at the commencement of tests.

Test soil type	Nominal TPH (mg/kg soil)	Measured TPH (mg/kg soil), day 0.	Deviation from nominal (%)
Freshly-spiked	10,000	6,700	33
	20,000	16,300	18
	30,000	27,900	7
	40,000	40,400	1
	50,000	51,900	3
	60,000	61,800	3
Aged	20,000	17,200	14
	30,000	25,500	15
	40,000	35,800	10
	50,000	48,800	2
	60,000	62,900	4

303

304 ***Visual health***

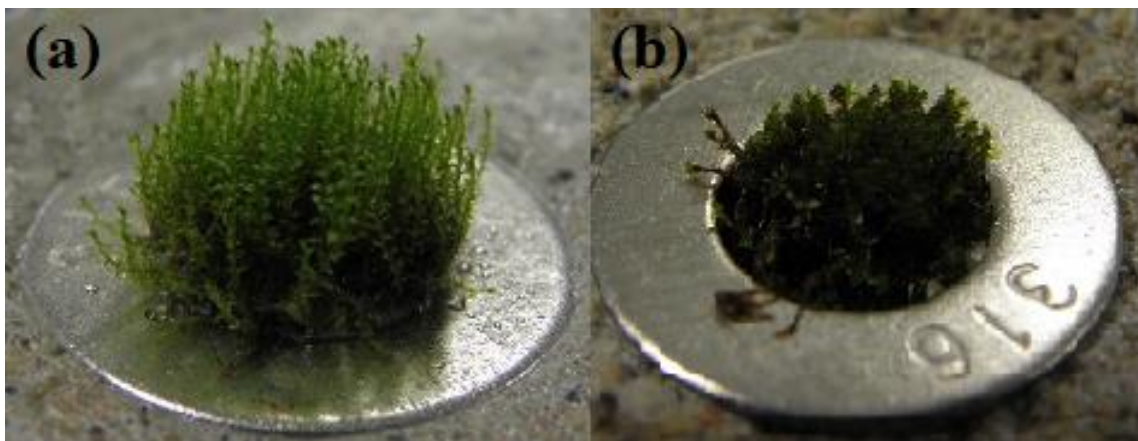
305 Physiological impacts were observed in many samples of moss and algae following
 306 28-day exposures to freshly-spiked soils up to 61,800 mg TPH/kg (Figure 1). *Ceratodon*
 307 *purpureus* demonstrated considerable chlorophyll bleaching (chlorosis) as indicated by
 308 yellowing of tissue, following exposure to concentrations $\geq 16,300$ mg TPH/kg. Chlorosis
 309 was less severe in *B. pseudotriquetrum* and *S. antarctici* which instead turned dark brown in
 310 concentrations of $\geq 16,300$ mg TPH/kg. Growth was apparent in all control treatments for *B.*
 311 *pseudotriquetrum* with new shoots growing up to 6 mm over 28 days, compared to less than 2
 312 mm in fuel treatments (Figure 2). *Prasiola crispa* showed no visual response to freshly-
 313 spiked soils. Exposure to aged SAB fuel showed no clear visual impact on any of the species
 314 tested.



315

316 **Figure 1** Representative samples of the Antarctic mosses (a) *Schistidium antarctici*, (b) *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, (c)
 317 *Ceratodon purpureus*, and the (d) Antarctic terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa* from low water treatments following 28-
 318 day exposures to control soils (0 mg TPH/kg) (top row) and to soils freshly spiked with Special Antarctic Blend
 319 (SAB) fuel at 61,800 mg TPH/kg soil (bottom row). Similar responses were observed in the high water treatments.

320



321

322 **Figure 2** Representative samples of the Antarctic moss *Bryum pseudotriquetrum* from low water treatments following
 323 28-day exposures to (a) control soils (0 mg TPH/kg) and (b) soils freshly spiked with Special Antarctic Blend (SAB)
 324 fuel at 61,800 mg TPH/kg soil.

325

326 *Toxicity of fresh fuel in soils*

327 Exposure to freshly-spiked soils up to 61,800 mg TPH/kg had no impact on Fv/Fm of
 328 *B. pseudotriquetrum* in either low or high water treatments following 28-day exposures
 329 (Table 2, Figure 3). Similarly, there was no impact on Fv/Fm of *S. antarctici* in high water
 330 treatments, however in low water treatments a 20% decrease was observed with an IC20
 331 estimated at 33,700 mg TPH/kg. The IC20 for *C. purpureus* exposed to freshly-spiked soils

332 was 33,500 mg TPH/kg in low water treatments, whereas the IC20 in high water treatments
333 could not be calculated as the inhibitory effect of freshly-spiked soils on Fv/Fm was less than
334 20% at the highest concentration tested. Freshly-spiked soils had a greater impact on Fv/Fm
335 of *P. crispa* in low water than in high water treatments, with IC20 values of 21,300 and
336 53,200 mg TPH/kg, respectively.

337 Total chlorophyll and carotenoid content of *B. pseudotriquetrum* was significantly
338 inhibited by exposure to freshly-spiked soils at 6,700 mg TPH/kg in both high and low water
339 treatments (LOEC values, Table 2). The average decrease in chlorophyll content was 72 and
340 73% (relative to the control) in high and low water treatments, respectively (Figure 3). In
341 high water treatments, freshly-spiked soils up to 61,800 mg TPH/kg had no impact on *S.*
342 *antarctici*, whereas low water treatments have an estimated 20% decrease in total chlorophyll
343 and carotenoid content at 20,400 and 20,600 mg TPH/kg, respectively. Freshly-spiked soils
344 significantly inhibited total chlorophyll content of *C. purpureus*, with a LOEC of 27,900 mg
345 TPH/kg in both high and low water treatments (Table 2). In high water, freshly-spiked soils
346 up to 61,800 mg TPH/kg had no impact on *P. crispa*, whereas low water treatments have an
347 estimated LOEC of 16,300 mg TPH/kg (Table 2). Total chlorophyll of *P. crispa* in high water
348 treatments was nearly three times higher in 61,800 mg TPH/kg than in 27,900 mg TPH/kg
349 (Figure 3).

350 ***Toxicity of aged fuel in soils***

351 Exposure to aged soils over 21 days significantly inhibited photosynthetic efficiency
352 (Fv/Fm) of *C. purpureus* and *P. crispa*, with LOEC values of 25,500 and 48,800 mg TPH/kg,
353 respectively (Table 2). A 20% decrease in Fv/Fm is predicted to occur at 39,000 mg TPH/kg
354 for *P. crispa*, however, there was no change in Fv/Fm response for *B. pseudotriquetrum* or *S.*
355 *antarctici* for concentrations up to 62,900 mg TPH/kg (Table 2, Figure 4).

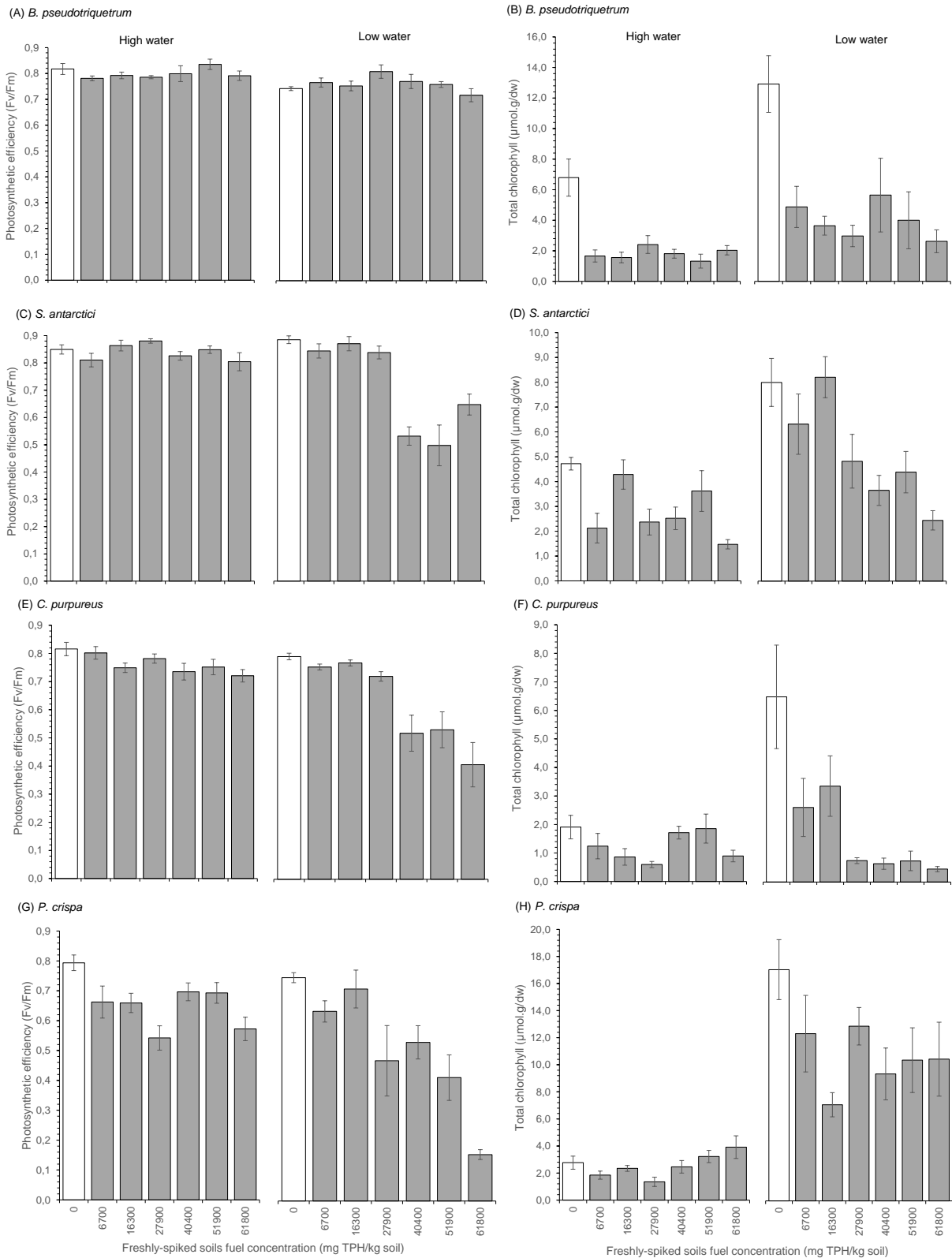
356

357 **Table 2** Toxicity estimates for soils spiked with Special Antarctic Blend (SAB) fuel in tests with the Antarctic mosses *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, *Schistidium antarctici*, *Ceratodon*
 358 *purpureus*, and the Antarctic terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa*. Exposure response was measured as change in photosynthetic efficiency (Fv/Fm) and total chlorophyll and carotenoid
 359 contents relative to the control following 28-day exposures to freshly-spiked soils (Fresh) at six concentrations from 6,700 to 61,800 mg TPH/kg, and 21-day exposures to spiked soils
 360 aged for 2 weeks (Aged) at five concentrations from 17,200 to 62,900 mg TPH/kg, under different waters levels (High and Low). Point estimates were calculated from Day 0
 361 measured total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) concentrations (range n-C9 to n-C18).

Species SAB/Water level	Fv/Fm				Total chlorophyll				Total carotenoid			
	NOEC	LOEC	IC10	IC20	NOEC	LOEC	IC10	IC20	NOEC	LOEC	IC10	IC20
<i>B. pseudotriquetrum</i>												
Fresh/High	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	N/D ^a
Fresh/Low	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	N/D ^a
Aged/High	62,900	N/A	N/A	N/A	<17,200	17,200	N/D ^a	56,200	<17,200	17,200	N/D ^a	58,200
<i>S. antarctici</i>												
Fresh/High	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A	61,800	N/A	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	61,800	N/A	N/D ^a	54,800
Fresh/Low	27,900	40,400	29,800	33,700	16,300	27,900	16,600	20,400	16,300	27,900	18,100	20,600
Aged/High	62,900	N/A	N/A	N/A	62,900	N/A	30,800	N/A	25,500	35,800	N/A	N/A
<i>C. purpureus</i>												
Fresh/High	27,900	40,400	56,000	N/A	16,300	27,900	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A
Fresh/Low	16,300	27,900	28,500	33,500	16,300	27,900	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	16,300	27,900	N/D ^a	N/D ^a
Aged/High	17,200	25,500	N/A	N/A	62,900	N/A	N/D ^a	30,100	62,900	N/A	N/D ^a	N/D ^a
<i>P. crispa</i>												
Fresh/High	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	53,200	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A	61,800	N/A	N/A	N/A
Fresh/Low	<6,700	6,700	N/D ^a	21,300	6,700	16,300	N/D ^a	N/D ^a	6,700	16,300	N/D ^a	N/D ^a
Aged/High	35,800	48,800	N/D ^a	39,000	62,900	N/A	N/A	N/A	62,900	N/A	N/A	N/A

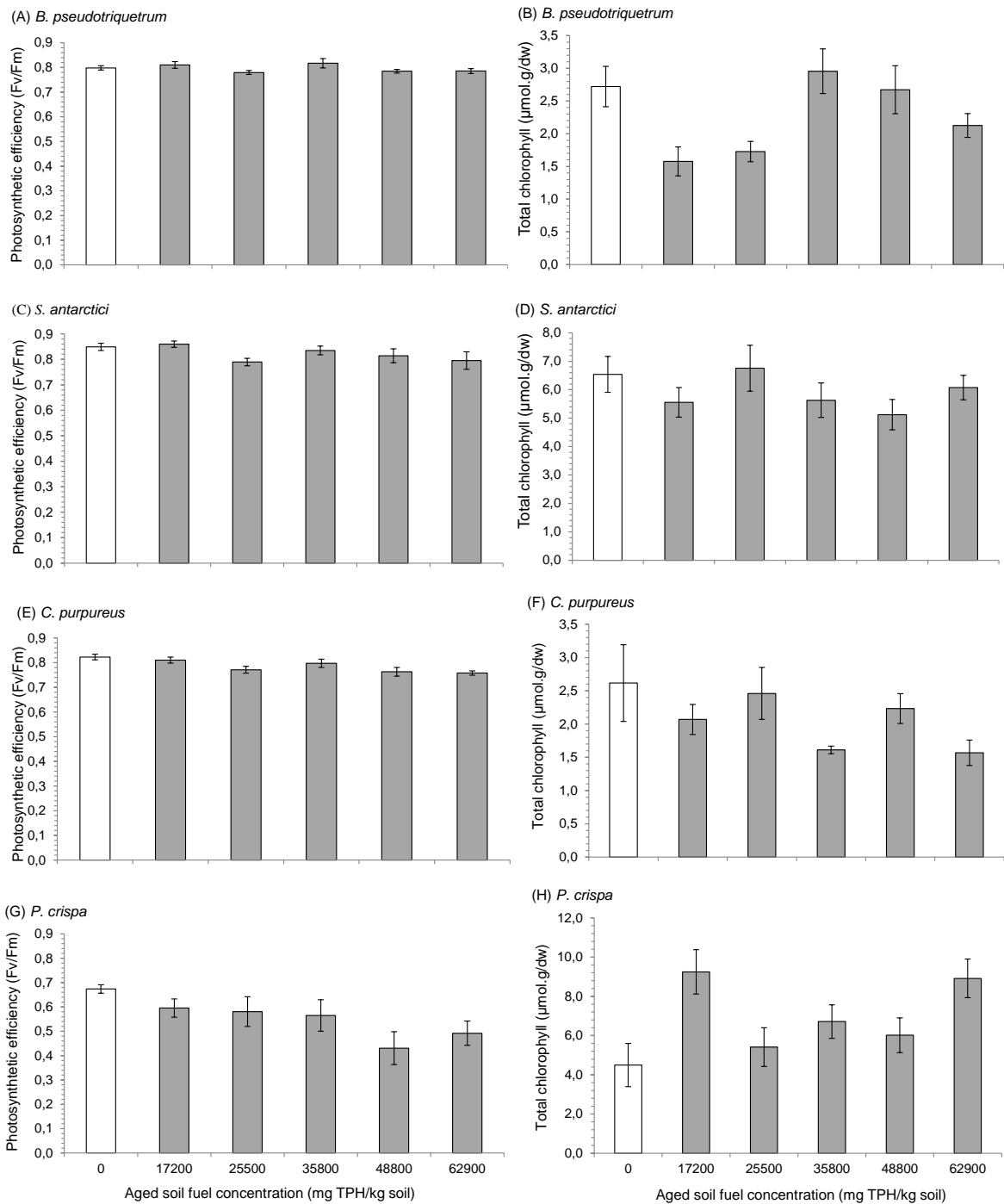
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363



364

365 **Figure 3** Photosynthetic efficiency (left column) and total chlorophyll content (right column) of the Antarctic mosses
 366 (a,b) *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, (c,d) *Schistidium antarctici*, (e,f) *Ceratodon purpureus* and the (g,h) Antarctic
 367 terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa* following 28-day exposures to soils freshly-spiked with Special Antarctic Blend (SAB)
 368 fuel, under different water levels (high and low). White bars represent control (0 mg TPH/kg soil) and grey bars
 369 represent fuel treatments. Values are mean (\pm SE, $n=6$). Response in total carotenoids was similar to total chlorophylls
 370 for all species tested, therefore, only results from total chlorophylls are presented.



372

373 **Figure 4** Photosynthetic efficiency (left column) and total chlorophyll content (right column) of the Antarctic mosses
 374 (a,b) *Bryum pseudotriquetrum*, (c,d) *Schistidium antarctici*, (e,f) *Ceratodon purpureus* and the (g,h) Antarctic
 375 terrestrial alga *Prasiola crispa* following 21-day exposures to aged soils spiked with Special Antarctic Blend (SAB)
 376 fuel, under high water levels. White bars represent control (0 mg TPH/kg soil) and grey bars represent fuel treatments.
 377 Values are mean (\pm SE, $n=6$). Response in total carotenoids was similar to total chlorophylls for all species tested,
 378 therefore, only results from total chlorophylls are presented.

379

380 The aged soils inhibited total chlorophyll and carotenoid content in *B.*
381 *pseudotriquetrum* following exposure to $\geq 17,200$ mg TPH/kg (LOEC (Table 2). At
382 approximately 30,000 mg TPH/kg, a 20% and 10% decrease in chlorophyll content was
383 predicted for *C. purpureus* and *S. antarctici*, respectively (Table 2). Chlorophyll and
384 carotenoid content of *P. crista* was unaffected by exposure to aged soils up to 62,900 mg
385 TPH/kg (Figure 4).

386 DISCUSSION

387 Soils containing fresh SAB fuel were generally more toxic than aged SAB fuel to the
388 test species, as observed in a number of endpoints including photosynthetic efficiency,
389 pigment content and visual health. The low response observed following exposure to aged
390 SAB fuel may be explained by the change in petroleum hydrocarbon composition resulting
391 from two weeks of aging. It has been demonstrated that at an average temperature of 15°C,
392 95% of volatile aromatic hydrocarbons evaporate in just two weeks following a fuel spill
393 [20]. Therefore it is feasible that the majority of the more toxic and volatile aromatic
394 hydrocarbons had evaporated during the two week aging period in the present study leaving
395 the less toxic (and/or less labile) residual compounds.

396 The high tolerance demonstrated by all species exposed to aged SAB fuel may depend
397 on the ability of the moss and algae to uptake hydrocarbons from the soil. Mosses and algae
398 lack the developed root and vascular systems found in higher plants, and this is thought to
399 limit their access to soil nutrients [9]. It has consequently been argued that the uptake of
400 nutrients and pollutants by mosses occurs exclusively via atmospheric deposition [35].
401 However, the moss *C. purpureus* has been found to accumulate metals including copper, lead
402 and zinc from contaminated soil (T. Gibson, 2000, Honour's thesis, University of
403 Wollongong, Wollongong, Australia). In addition, stable isotopic techniques (^{15}N) have been

404 used to establish that the two moss species *Polytrichum alpinum* and *Racomitrium*
405 *lanuginosum* are able to derive nitrogen from the soil [10]. While it has been shown that
406 mosses have the ability to derive nutrients and metals from soil, it is unknown whether
407 mosses have the ability to similarly acquire organic compounds.

408 The higher toxicity of fresh SAB fuel to moss and algae exposed to the low water
409 treatment, compared to high water treatment, also suggests that the more volatile
410 hydrocarbons may have caused the greatest impact. In low water treatments, moss and algae
411 did not have access to free water, and therefore had to obtain moisture either from the soil or
412 the atmosphere. The majority of mosses are ectohydric, mostly absorbing water from
413 precipitation or from flowing water. Only a few species are endohydric, transporting water up
414 from the underlying substrate by means of water-conducting hydroids [36]. Unlike the other
415 two moss species in the present study, *C. purpureus* has been shown to possess such
416 hydroids, and may consequently be capable of hydrocarbon uptake from the soil [37]. This
417 may explain why *C. purpureus* was the only moss species impacted by exposure to aged SAB
418 fuel. Furthermore, terrestrial algae do not have water-conducting hydroids, suggesting that
419 they mostly obtain water from the atmosphere, from precipitation or flowing water [38].
420 Since moss and algae take up gases for photosynthesis from the atmosphere, it is likely that
421 they also take up some volatile hydrocarbons, particularly as both taxa lack cuticles such that
422 cells are in close contact with the atmosphere. However, further studies quantifying and
423 analysing the uptake, and possible bioaccumulation, of petroleum hydrocarbons into the moss
424 and algal tissue are required to determine their mechanism of tolerance, whether these species
425 can detoxify accumulated hydrocarbons, or exclude hydrocarbons from their cells.

426 Although all species, except *B. pseudotriquetrum*, showed reduced photosynthetic
427 efficiency in response to fresh SAB fuel exposure, all species were quite tolerant to fuel
428 contaminated soil, with IC20 values (when these could be calculated) ranging from 21,300 to

429 61,500 mg TPH/kg. The high tolerance of moss and algae to fuel observed in the present
430 study contrasts strongly with the high sensitivities reported for Antarctic and subantarctic
431 microbial communities and invertebrates [1, 14]. For example, Schafer et al. [22] found that
432 the Antarctic microbial community was sensitive to SAB fuel contaminated soil, with an
433 EC25 (effective concentration causing a 25% effect) for community composition and for
434 microbial biomass of 800 and 2,400 mg TPH/kg, respectively. Furthermore, following
435 toxicity tests with native earthworms, concentrations of 50 to 200 mg TPH/kg were suggested
436 as appropriate protective remediation targets for SAB fuel contamination at subantarctic
437 Macquarie Island [14]. In comparison with these previous studies on Antarctic and
438 subantarctic biota, Antarctic moss and terrestrial algae appear exceptionally tolerant to
439 petroleum hydrocarbons.

440 Antarctic mosses are known to be extremely tolerant to a range of environmental
441 stressors, being able to withstand extreme weather conditions with sub-zero temperatures,
442 lack of free water and nutrients, diurnal freeze/thaw cycles, high levels of UV radiation and
443 periodical desiccation [31]. *Prasiola crispa* is also exceptionally tolerant to many
444 environmental stressors, such as hypersaline conditions and desiccation, and is capable of
445 photosynthesis at sub-zero temperatures [30]. Antarctic moss and terrestrial algae must be
446 able to survive the transition from a desiccated or frozen state to a thawed and hydrated state
447 without loss of cellular integrity and viability. During the Antarctic summer, these transitions
448 often occur repeatedly over short time spans [7]. It has been shown that terrestrial algae
449 possess a number of genes that code for specific substances that promote cellular integrity,
450 structure, and viability through these extreme transitions [38]. It is possible that Antarctic
451 mosses have similar genes protecting their cells from damage due to environmental stress and
452 also making them highly tolerant to SAB fuel.

453 The observed declines in photosynthetic efficiency of moss and algae in response to
454 contaminant exposure are in agreement with previous toxicity studies [12, 22]. For example,
455 photosynthetic efficiency of Australian *C. purpureus* was found to decrease following
456 exposure to copper, lead and zinc contaminated water as well as when exposed to zinc
457 contaminated soil (T. Gibson, 2000, Honour's thesis, University of Wollongong,
458 Wollongong, Australia). Furthermore, photosynthetic efficiency of the algal species *Lemna*
459 *gibba* and the aquatic plant *Myriophyllum spicatum* decreased following exposure to PAHs
460 [22].

461 Decreasing photosynthetic efficiency in response to contaminant exposure is a strong
462 indicator of plant stress and could be a consequence of the breakdown of photosynthetic
463 pigments or of damage to PSII [39]. Since hydrocarbons are lipophilic, it is reasonable to
464 hypothesise that cellular membranes are the site of cellular disruption [40]. Hydrocarbons
465 may dissolve in the plasma membrane and make it more permeable by displacing membrane-
466 bound lipids, leading to leakage of cell contents, and enabling hydrocarbons to enter the cells
467 and affect intracellular organelles [40]. Therefore, the decrease in photosynthetic efficiency
468 observed in the present study could be due to disruption of chloroplast and/or thylakoid
469 membranes. The inhibitory effect of fuel contamination on photosynthesis may also be due to
470 increased membrane permeability as this would impact on proton gradients within the cell
471 [15]. A change in the proton gradient would compromise the electrochemical gradient across
472 the thylakoid membrane and, in turn, decrease the photosynthetic yield of PSII [39].

473 For all moss species in the present study there was generally a significant breakdown
474 or inhibition of biosynthesis of both chlorophylls and carotenoids in response to increasing
475 concentrations of freshly-spiked soils when water levels were low. However, when water
476 levels were high, this response was observed in *B. pseudotriquetrum* only. A decrease in
477 pigment content in moss and algae when exposed to increasing concentrations of

478 contaminants has been observed in previous toxicity studies [22, 24, 39]. For example,
479 chlorophyll content in the alga *L. gibba* decreased in a concentration-dependent manner in
480 response to PAH exposure [22], and chromium exposure caused extensive chlorophyll
481 degradation in the alga *Scenedesmus obliquus* [39]. Similarly, chlorophyll content in the
482 mosses *Thuidium delicatulum* and *T. sparsifolium* was reduced following exposure to copper
483 [24]. Although, the mechanisms of hydrocarbon and copper toxicity may differ, it has been
484 argued that both contaminants alter membrane structure and function [40]. Thus, the decrease
485 in pigment content observed in the present study may be due to damage to chloroplast
486 membranes, or to damage of cell membranes resulting in leakage of cell content.

487 Interestingly, *B. pseudotriquetrum* was the only species showing a response in
488 pigment content to soils freshly-spiked with SAB fuel at the lowest concentration of 6,700
489 mg TPH/kg, while there was no impact on photosynthetic efficiency in concentrations up to
490 61,800 mg TPH/kg. This breakdown of pigments, without any impact on photosynthetic
491 efficiency, suggests that the available chlorophyll was not affected by the hydrocarbons, and
492 there was no damage to PSII. A likely explanation is that the total chlorophyll levels of
493 *B. pseudotriquetrum* under control conditions actually increased during the experiment, thus
494 even though there appears to be an impact on chlorophyll content in response to exposure to
495 SAB fuel, the pigment levels could potentially have remained relatively consistent throughout
496 the experiment. *Bryum pseudotriquetrum* is the fastest growing of the three moss species
497 tested [33] and was the only species that demonstrated new growth during the course of the
498 experiments and mainly in the control treatment. Therefore, the higher total chlorophyll
499 content observed in *B. pseudotriquetrum* on uncontaminated soil is likely due to this new
500 growth containing much higher levels of pigment than the older shoots.

501 When there was free water available on the surface of the soil, photosynthetic
502 efficiency of all mosses was unaffected by exposure to high concentrations of fresh SAB fuel.

503 This suggests that when melt-water runs through contaminated sites in Antarctica during the
504 summer, and petroleum hydrocarbons and other contaminants become mobilised, the impact
505 of exposure on these mosses may be reduced. The high tolerance of the test species to fresh
506 SAB fuel in high water treatments may be explained by the moss and algae quickly becoming
507 fully hydrated with no need for further water uptake, and limited diffusion of volatile
508 hydrocarbons from the surrounding water. Furthermore, the hydrated tissue may repel the
509 petroleum hydrocarbons due to their hydrophobicity. Thus the rapid hydration of moss and
510 algae that occur when free water is available may provide protection from fuel contaminants
511 within melt-water. However, Antarctica is the driest continent in the world, and it is believed
512 the East Antarctic climate is becoming drier as a result of climate change [33]. This is of
513 concern given that in the present study, the greatest response to SAB fuel demonstrated by
514 both moss and algae occurred when free water was limited (in low water treatments).
515 Consequently, the impact of fuel contamination on Antarctic terrestrial flora may become
516 more severe in the future as the climate changes and Antarctic terrestrial environments
517 become drier.

518 In conclusion, all species tested appeared to experience little physiological damage as
519 a result of exposure to SAB fuel in highly contaminated soils under the controlled test
520 conditions used in the present study. Therefore, Antarctic moss and algal communities may
521 be resilient to the range of concentrations of hydrocarbons currently reported at many
522 contaminated sites in Antarctica. However, results suggest that interactions with
523 environmental parameters associated with climate change are potentially important, and that
524 fuel contamination may impact on Antarctic terrestrial flora in the future, particularly if the
525 Antarctic climate continues to get drier. The toxicity test procedures presented in the present
526 study can readily be used on site in Antarctica to assess the risk of contaminants, including
527 petroleum hydrocarbons and metals in soils to Antarctic terrestrial flora. Toxicity estimates

528 reported here will be used along with toxicity data from other species across multiple
529 taxonomic groups, to establish site specific protective concentrations and remediation targets
530 for petroleum hydrocarbons in Antarctica. These guidelines will inform and guide
531 remediation activities at contaminated sites in Antarctica, and enable sites to be signed off as
532 no longer posing significant environmental risk.

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