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Sunscreen pollution is abated during the COVID-19 "Anthropause" of 2020 in two U.S. National Parks: Cape Lookout National Seashore and Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park

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Abstract

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- From March to June 2020, governments across the world imposed lockdowns in an attempt to
- reduce the transmission of COVID-19 during the early phase of the pandemic. This period of
- time in which human activity slowed worldwide has been coined the "Anthropause". The goal of
- this study was to determine if sunscreen pollution abated during the Anthropause and to identify
- the severity of the pollution when tourism/recreation recovered at two coastal units of the U.S.
- National Park System: Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawaiʻi, U.S.A. and Cape
- Lookout National Seashore in North Carolina, U.S.A. Active ingredients of sunscreen products
- were measured in water and sand samples at both locations, including oxybenzone, octinoxate,
- octocrylene, octisalate, homosalate, and relevant breakdown products of some of these
- ingredients. A risk assessment was conducted on Anthropause and post-Anthropause
- contaminant levels for both locations to determine if there was a threat reduction during the Anthropause, and whether tourism recovery in the post-Anthropause period served as a threat to
- coastal wildlife. Both national park units exhibited an almost absolute reduction in the levels of
- sunscreen contamination during the Anthropause period, a striking commonality considering the
- geographic expanse separating the parks. Once travel restrictions were lifted, a large influx of
- tourists ensued at both locations, resulting in a relatively sudden and dangerous increase in the
- levels of sunscreen chemical pollution. This study supports the argument that unmanaged
- tourism is a source of coastal sunscreen pollution that poses a threat to the localized continuity of
- species populations and biodiversity, especially to coral reefs and fisheries.
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- Keywords: oxybenzone, National Park, sunscreen pollution, risk assessment, Anthropause,
- COVID-19
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1. Introduction

 From March to June 2020, governments across the world imposed lockdowns in an attempt to reduce the transmission of COVID-19 during the early phase of the pandemic. This period of time in which human activity slowed worldwide has been coined, the "Anthropause" (Rutz et al., 2020). The effect of the Anthropause was apparent in tourist hotspots (Zielinksi and Botero, 2020; Ormaza-González et al., 2021; Kough et al., 2022; Moustafa and Mansour, 2022). As travel ground to a halt, tourist destinations were among those to record the largest declines in human activity with concomitant improvements in local environmental conditions (Dutta et al., 2020; Manenti et al., 2020; Oarani, 2020; Thomson et al., 2020; Zambrano-Monserrate et al., 2020; Callejas et al., 2021; Soto et al., 2021; Bertucci et al., 2023). Thus, the "pause" serves as an opportune natural experiment for testing the relationship between tourism and environmental degradation and assessing the effectiveness of visitation policies in reducing contamination (Rutz et al., 2020; Gaiser et al., 2022).

 Over the past 60 years, the exponential increase in tourism has spurred environmental degradation and loss of biodiversity, with coral reefs among the most globally impacted ecosystems (Gardner et al., 2003; Gil et al., 2015; Partelow et al., 2015; Downs et al., 2022a; Lin et al., 2023). Sunscreen pollution is one of the symptoms of unsustainable tourism and coastal development (Sánchez-Quiles and Tovar-Sánchez, 2014; Tovar-Sánchez et al., 2019; Casas- Beltrán et al., 2020; Casas-Beltrán et al., 2021; Downs et al., 2022b, 2022c). Tourism-associated sunscreen pollution contaminates the entire range of marine habitats, from Arctic and Antarctic coastlines and Norwegian Fjørds to temperate beaches, as well as coral reefs (Langford and Thomas, 2008; Bratkovics et al., 2015; Downs et al., 2016; Dominguez-Morueco et all., 2020; Garcia-Pimentel et al., 2023). Tourism and water-recreational activities also contaminate limnological systems with sunscreen pollutants, with major sources that include activities such as river tubing, paddle boarding, kayaking/canoeing, and other water sports (Balmer et al., 2005; Cuderman and Heath, 2007; Mandaric et al., 2017; Domingiez-Morueco et al., 2020; Rand et al., 2020; Newham et al., 2021; Harjung et al., 2022; Homem et al., 2023). As a consequence of more than a decade of research on its impacts, tourism-associated sunscreen pollution is no longer an "emerging concern" but a managed pollutant that is being mitigated through legislative rules or executive policies that ban or restrict the presence of offending sunscreen chemicals (Downs et al., 2022a). What remains unclear is how much of a driver tourism versus other potential sources is on sunscreen pollution, regardless of policy status.

 Sunscreen chemicals reach levels in some aquatic environments that they pose a localized threat to biodiversity, especially in conjunction with other stressors, such as climate change factors, microplastic pollution, and other kinds of pollutants (Alonso et al., 2015; Pont et al., 2004; Le Bihanic et al., 2020; Wijgerde et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2023). In fish, oxybenzone, octocrylene, octisalate and other sunscreen chemicals induce a range of acute toxicities, from genotoxicity and developmental deformities to impacting reproductive fitness over multiple generations (Kim et al., 2014; Almeida et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023). Fish seem exceedingly susceptible to the endocrine-disrupting nature of many of these sunscreen chemicals, with impacts such as skeletal deformations, feminization and sex change of males to females, thyroid-axis pathologies, and adverse alterations to critical social behaviors (Ziarrusta et al., 2018; Simons et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2022; Tao et al., 2023). For aquatic invertebrates, these chemicals elicit similar multi-generational toxicities as seen in vertebrates, but are also documented to interfere with aragonite or shell deposition in species ranging from

corals to bivalves (Downs et al., 2016; Coinaldesi et al., 2017; Campos et al., 2019; Lopes et al.,

- 2020; Santonocito et al., 2020; Pham et al., 2022). In all animal taxa, the benzophenones from
- sunscreens, such as oxybenzone and benzophenone, are noted reproductive and developmental
- toxicants, and have carcinogenic potential (DiNardo and Downs, 2019; Tao et al., 2020; Downs
- et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2023). Moreover, aquatic algae and plants are
- extremely susceptible to various sunscreen chemicals, exhibiting growth-inhibition toxicities as
- low as parts per trillions (Mao et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2019; Xing et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023).
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 Ecotoxicological and risk assessment research on terrestrial species and habitats has lagged far behind studies of aquatic systems, but has recently gained prominence because of the impact sunscreen chemicals have had on hydroponics and irrigated agriculture (Downs et al., 2022b; Gautam et al., 2022). Independent groups in China, Mexico, Portugal, and Spain noticed a significant reduction in crop yields when R1 recycled-waters from municipal waste-water treatment facilities (WWTF) were used for irrigation (Sabourin et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2017; Cabrera-Peralta and Peña-Alvarez, 2018; Zhong et al., 2020; Ramos et al., 2021). Experimental and reductive investigations established that one of the main categories of toxicants to plants were sunscreen chemicals, especially oxybenzone, avobenzone, and octocrylene (Chen et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2020). This finding is consistent with the historical usage of these chemicals (Downs et al., 2021). These findings led to research regarding sunscreen-chemical impacts to agricultural outcomes when biosolids from a WWTF were used as soil amendments (Wang and Kannan, 2017; Gautam et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022). New research shows that sunscreen chemical contamination and toxicities extend to migratory birds, sea turtles, and even amphibians (Fin et al., 2017; Molins-Delgado et al., 2017; Li et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023). Concern over sunscreen pollution has become so great that even indirect routes of contamination, including atmospheric deposition from saerosolized sunscreen volatile organic carbons (VOCs), surf aerosolization, and various means of discharge from WWTF are now identified as critical targets for mitigation efforts (Teplitz et al., 2018; Pegoraro et al., 2020; Bayati et al., 2021; Franklin et al., 2021; Pendergraft et al., 2021; Franklin et al., 2022).

 Several environmental monitoring studies have suggested the value of using the Anthropause to establish baseline data for determining the impact of tourism to wildlife receptors and natural resources (Coll, 2020; Chakraborty et al., 2021). Research on the Anthropause has been a crucial factor in identifying the lack of effectiveness of current conservation management policies regarding tourism/recreational activities and intensity, allowing for resource management to adjust policies to increase effectiveness, and providing a measure for policy effectiveness (Bates et al., 2020; Callejas et al., 2021; Ben-Haddad et al., 2022). For example, using the Anthropause as a baseline, it was shown that tourism-associated chemical pollution was responsible for the high-levels of genotoxicity seen in near-shore populations of sergeant-major reef fish (de Lima e Silva et al., 2022). Schofield and co-workers also used the Anthropause to demonstrate that tourism served as a major disturbance to sea turtle nesting (critical or essential habitat) and recommended that a refuge zone be established to facilitate increased turtle aggregation in this critical habitat (Schofield et al., 2021). In other studies, fish densities in ecologically important habitat structures improved significantly during the Anthropause, but subsequently declined as tourism recovered (Bertucci et al., 2023). Ghost crab populations on tourist beaches were recognized to be severely reduced because of the Anthropause differential, concluding that "… urban beaches should not be exclusively managed for recreational purposes." (Costa et al., 2022).

 The goal of this study was to determine if sunscreen pollution abated during the Anthropause and to identify the severity of the pollution when tourism/recreation recovered at two coastal units of the U.S. National Park System: Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawaiʻi, U.S.A. and Cape Lookout National Seashore in North Carolina, U.S.A. These two sites were selected because the U.S. National Park Service had concerns about the implications of mass tourism and the impact to two of the major coastal park units. The Hawaii site represented a Pacific coast location while the North Carolina site represented an Atlantic location. Active ingredients of sunscreen products were measured in water and sand samples at both locations, including oxybenzone, octinoxate, octocrylene, octisalate, homosalate, and relevant breakdown products of some of these ingredients. A risk assessment was conducted on Anthropause and post-Anthropause contaminant levels for both locations to determine if there was a threat reduction during the Anthropause, and whether tourism recovery in the post-Anthropause period served as a threat to coastal wildlife. To this end, shoreline sand samples were collected at both National Park units in May 2020 and then again in August 2021. Our results contribute to the baseline information on the linkages between tourism/recreation and coastal natural resources, which can be used to facilitate the development of effective, evidence-based management policies to ensure conservation of biodiversity, as well as sustainable use by tourism (Zieleniski and Botero, 2020; Armstrong et al., 2022; Procko et al., 2022).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Sample Locations and Collections

2.1.1 Sample Locations

 Seawater and beach-sand samples were collected from two U.S. National Park units: Kaloko- Honokōhau National Historical Park on the Island of Hawaiʻi in the State of Hawaiʻi (U.S.A.; **Figures 1A and 1B**) and Cape Lookout National Seashore in the southern Outer Banks region of the State of North Carolina (U.S.A.; **Figure 1C**). Samples were collected along shoreline of the ʻAiʻōpio Fishtrap within Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park (**Figure 1B**). For Cape Lookout National Seashore, two separate locations were sampled (**Figure 1C**). One location is the western end of the island of Shackleford Banks (**Figures 1C and 1D**) and the other is on the island of South Core Banks that is adjacent to the Cape Lookout Lighthouse facility (**Figures 1C and 1E**). Coordinates for all sampling sites are listed in **Supplemental Table 1** and, in most cases, were determined using a Garmin WAAS-enabled GPS. Accuracy for all locations was within three meters.

2.1.2 Sampling time points.

 At Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park, water samples were collected in April 18, 2018 (15:30-15:48 HST), November 11, 2019 (11:47 HST), May 8, 2020 (16:00-17:00 HST), and August 18, 2021 (sand samples were collected from 09:06 to 09:24, and water samples were collected from 14:10 to 14:21 HST). Water samples were collected during the outgoing tide because concentrations are the highest at this time period (unpublished data).

 At Cape Lookout National Seashore, sand samples from both the South Core Banks and the Shackleford Banks sites were collected in May 14, 2020 (Figure 1C). Water and sand 171 samples were collected July 25, 2021, at the South Core Banks site. Water and sand samples were collected July 24, 2021 at the Shackleford Banks site. Water samples were collected during the outgoing high tide and sand samples were collected between 2-4 pm, when tourist density on the beaches is greatest.

2.1.3 Sampling Methods

 Spatulas for sand collection and sample vessels were precleaned following EPA Method 815-R-05-004.

 Water samples were collected using either precleaned one-liter amber glass bottles with Teflon-lined lids (I-Chem, 300 series, VWR) or precleaned 5 mm PFE-bags with seals, at a depth of 30 cm below the surface of the water. This depth reflects the measurement of the contaminants in the water column versus what is found on the water surface.

186 Sand samples were collected by measuring a 10 x 10 cm area on the surface of the beach, and a cleaned spatula was used to collect the top 0.5 cm of surface sand into a precleaned 100 mL amber jar with a Teflon-lined lid (Environment Express). Spatulas were only used once to prevent cross-contamination.

- After collection, both water and sand samples were placed in a cooler until transferred to a freezer between -20°C to -30°C. Samples were shipped frozen to the laboratory and remained 193 in a -30°C freezer until processing.
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- *2.2 Analytical standard and chemicals*

 The following analytical standards (> 97% purity) were used: 2-Hydroxy-4- metoxybenzophenone (oxybenzone (BP3), dihydroxy benzophenone (benzophenone-1, BP1), 5- benzoyl-4-hydroxy-2-methoxybenzene-1-sulfonic acid (benzophenone-4, BP4), 4- hydroxybenzophenone (4HB), 4,4'-dihydroxy benzophenone (4DHB), 3-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-1- (4-methoxyphenyl)propane-1,3-dione (avobenzone,AVO), drometrizole (UVP), dimethyl benzotriazole (DMBZT), octocrylene (OC), 3,3,5-trimethylcyclohexyl 2-hydroxybenzoate (homosalate, HMS), 2-ethylhexyl salicylate (octisalate,OS), and BP-13C were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Darmstadt, Germany). Benzophenone-2 (BP-2), 2,2'-dihydroxy-4- methoxybenzophenone (DHMB, benzophenone-8), ethyl p-aminobenzoic acid (benzocaine, EtPABA), octinoxate (ethylhexyl methoxycinnamate), and 1H-benzotriazole (BZT) were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). 4-Methylbenzylidene camphor was obtained from Dr. Ehrenstorfer (Augsburg, Germany). MeBZT was acquired from TCI (Zwijndrecht, Belgium). 208 Then isotopically labelled standards BP3-¹³C, BP3-d5, 4MBC-d4 and BZT-d4 were obtained from CDN isotopes (Quebec, Canada). Methanol (MeOH), acetonitrile (ACN), dichloromethane (DCM), ethyl acetate (EtAc),

 formic acid and HPLC-grade water were purchased from J.T. Baker (Deventer, The Netherlands) and were all ≥99.9% purity and included Certificates of Analysis. Aluminum oxide (≥99.9% purity), used as a clean-up agent in the pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) cells, was obtained from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Nitrogen and argon gasses (purchased from Air Liquid – Barcelona, Spain) were of 99.999% purity. Glass fiber filters (1 µm) and nylon membranes (0.45 216 um) from Whatman International Ltd. (Maidstone, UK) and syringe filters supplied by Dionex Corporation (Sunnyvale, CA, USA) were used.

 Stock solutions of the UV-filters and internal standards were prepared at 100 mg/L in 220 MeOH and stored in the dark at -20 °C. Separate working standard solutions with UV-filters and 221 internal standards were prepared at 10 mg/L in MeOH, stored in the dark at -20 \degree C, and refreshed weekly.

2.3 Sample pre-treatment and analytes extraction

 The optimized and validated analytical methods used for the multiresidue determination of the target compounds and isotopically labelled standards in the standard solutions and in the sample extracts, were based on previous procedures developed in our laboratories (Gago-Ferrero et al., 2011; Downs et al., 2022b) and expanded for new compounds as described in Downs et al.,

- 2022c.
- *2.3.1 Sand*

The extraction of the selected analytes from the sediment samples was carried out according to

- the expanded method based on Rodrigues et al*.* (2021). Benzophenone (BP), Tinosorb M
- (methylene bis-benzotriazolyl tetramethylbutylphenol; CAS# 103597-45-1), and oxybenzone
- (CAS# 131-57-7) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Lyon, France). Tinosorb S (bis-
- ethylhexyloxyphenol methoxyphenyl triazine; CAS# 187393-00-6), avobenzone (butyl
- methoxydibenzoylmethane; CAS# 70356-09-1), homosalate (CAS# 118-56-9), octisalate
- (ethylhexyl salicylate; CAS# 118-60-5) and octocrylene (CAS# 6197-30-4) were kindly provided
- by Pierre Fabre Laboratories. Butyloctyl salicylate (CAS# 190085-41-7) was obtained from
- Innospec Active Chemicals. Octinoxate (ethylhexyl methoxycinnamate; CAS# 5466-77-3) was
- 240 obtained from Accustandard (Cat# ALR144N).

 The standard additions method was used to measure the concentration of UV filters in sand, as described previously (Rodrigues et al., 2021). Briefly, the extraction solutions were MeOH containing 2000, 500, 200, 150, 100, 50, and 0 ng/mL of each UV filter. Exact concentrations were calculated from the concentrations of each compound in the stock solution. 245 Extraction was performed on sand samples (seven samples, \sim 2 g of sand per each) each with a MeOH (2 mL), and the concentration of UV filters in the supernatant was measured by direct injection using an Ultra High Performance liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometer (UHPLC-HRMS) and calculation of the intersection of the regression line with the x-axis. After analysis, the solvent and the interstitial water were removed by evaporation with a GeneVac HT-4X. The exact mass of dry sand gave the initial mass of water in the sand and the total volume of supernatant (2-mL MeOH + interstitial water), allowing for correction of the

concentrations in supernatant and in sand. The limits of quantification (LOQ) are provided in

Supplemental Table 2.

 The recovery rates were calculated from spiked sand samples, which were extracted with MeOH using the same protocol as for extraction of natural sand samples (Rodrigues et al., 2021). The recovery rates are reported in **Supplemental Table 3**.

- *2.3.2 Water*
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 The extraction of the 20 aromatic hydrocarbon ultraviolet filters (parent and transformation products) from the water samples followed the expanded method based on Downs et al. (2021).

2.4 LC-MS analysis

2.4.1 HPLC- MS/MS analysis of water

 The chromatographic separation and tandem-mass spectrometry detection for water analysis was performed as described in Downs et al, (2022b and c).

 Several methodological blanks were included (reagent blanks were run by processing HPLC water in the same way as samples and procedural blank without matrix or sample). A surrogate standard (BP-13C) as evaluation of the extraction performance and IS for the quantification of the target analytes (**Supplemental Table 4**).

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 We use isotopically labeled standards to spike the samples. These isotopic compounds are not used commercially and can be differentiated in both the chromatograms and with their mass:charge ratios. We use these isotopic standards to determine the %recovery of our extraction method – a measure of quantitation accuracy.

2.4.2 UHPLC-(ESI)-Orbitrap MS analysis of sand

- The chromatographic separation of all analytes is described in Downs et al., 2022b and was 277 performed in an Acquity UHPLC C18 column (100 Å, 1.8 μ m, 2.1 ×100 mm) with a guard column containing the same material, using an Acquity ultra-high-performance liquid chromatograph (UHPLC) (Waters Corporation, Milford, Ma, USA) coupled to a Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, Ma, USA).
- All samples were measured in duplicate and the reported value corresponds to the mean of the two determinations. All the compounds were quantified and confirmed with the two most intense transitions by the isotope dilution approach.
- LODs, LOQs and recovery rates are listed elsewhere of analytes and the average recovery rates are the same as found in (Downs et al, 2022b).
- *2.5. Risk Analysis*

 As described in previous papers (Downs et al., 2022b, 2022c), the European Commission guidance was used to calculate risk quotients (RQs) for oxybenzone and octocrylene in both

water and sand samples (European Commission 2003; European Medicines Agency 2006;

 Dussault et al., 2008; Hernando et al., 2006; Downs et al., 2021; Downs et al., 2022b).

 It is praxis to use an AF of 1000 for acute toxicity data and 100 for chronic toxicity data 295 (Belanger et al., 2021). To calculate RQs, the following equation was used: $RQ =$ 296 (MEC)/(PNEC, NOEC, LC₅₀ or EC₅₀) x 1000. Toxicity reference values were obtained from the published literature (**Tables 2-4, 5-7**) (Chapman et al., 2009; Dussault et al., 2008; Environment Canada, 2013; Belanger et al., 2021; Jung et al., 2021).

 The criteria for Levels of Concern for organisms in ecosystems for interpreting the RQs is described in Downs et al., 2022b and 2022c. A color scheme is used for ease of visualization of the Levels of Concern for this methodology (Downs et al., 2021a; **Tables 1 and 2,**

Supplemental Table 5). Red boxes represent RQ values greater than 1, indicating an

 unacceptable risk requiring immediate action, and RQ≥1 is the standard criteria for the Level of Concern within the European Commission framework. Orange boxes represent values between 0.5 and 1.0, a moderate concern for an acute impact. Yellow boxes represent values between 0.1 and 0.49, indicating a lower risk of impact. White boxes indicate no concern of danger with

- values below 0.1.
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3. Results

3.1.1 Water Samples from Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park.

 Sunscreen target analytes in water samples collected from 2018 to 2021 are listed in **Table 1A**. Site W3 was sampled from 2018 to 2021. Nine out of the 17 target UVFs analyzed were

detected at least in one water sample (**Table 1A**). Oxybenzone levels ranged from 5,150 ng/L to

 35,207 ng/L in 2018-2019, but were below the limit of quantification during the Anthropause. Oxybenzone levels remained at this unquantifiable level in 2021. Avobenzone, octisalate,

homosalate and octocrylene at site W3 did not follow this behavior. In 2018-2019, these

sunscreen compounds were quantifiable in the µg/L concentrations, but were not quantifiable

during the Anthropause sampling period. All target compounds (except oxybenzone) were

detected several-fold higher in 2021 compared to 2018-2019 (**Table 1A**). During the

- Anthropause sampling, only Site W5 had measurable quantities of a single sunscreen compound $323 - 85$ ng/L oxybenzone.
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3.1.2. Sand Samples from Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park.

- Only one sample from site S4 was collected (2018) before the Anthropause time-period. Site S4 is a popular area for beachgoers to dwell during their visit. In 2018, common sunscreen compounds were detected in concentrations of parts per billion, while the breakdown product of octocrylene, benzophenone, was detected at 60 ng/g (**Table 1B**). During the Anthropause 331 sampling period, all five beach sites had quantifiable levels of octocrylene (mean $= 57$ ng/g, Std 332 deviation = 36.7 ng/g , but no measurable concentration of the other six sunscreen compounds (**Table 1B**). In 2021, oxybenzone was not detected at any of the beach sites. Octocrylene (mean $334 = 27,485$ ng/g, Std deviation = 4,414 ng/g) and avobenzone (mean = 3,700 ng/g, Std Deviation = 335 5,666 ng/g; median = 1,333 ng/g) were measurable at all four 2021-beach sites. Homosalate 336 (mean = 22,102 ng/g, Std deviation = 21,029 ng/g; median = 18,860 ng/g) and octisalate (mean = 337 12,393 ng/g, Std deviation = 12,583; median = 9,814 ng/g) were measurable at sites S2-S4, but were not detectable at site S1(**Table 1B**).
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 3.1.3. Water samples from South Core Banks and Shackleford Banks, Cape Lookout National Seashore area

 Water samples were not collected during the Anthropause period, but were collected during the 2021 sampling period. Sampling occurred in the proximity of a high density of swimmers for Site CW1, but Site CW2 had only 22 swimmers south of the collection site. At the time of sample collection, current flow was moving south to north. At the South Core Banks sites, Site CW1 had extremely high levels of avobenzone, octisalate, octocrylene, and oxybenzone (**Table 2A**). At site CW1, it was observed that individuals were standing in the water and applying aerosol sunscreen to 90% of their body, then quickly entering into the water.

 The site SW1 sample at the Shackleford Banks area (**Figure 1D, Table 2A**) was collected in the midst of ~80 people in the water in a small cove that contained a centralized eddy. It was also observed that at least two individuals sprayed aerosol sunscreen onto their bodies while standing in the water. Several individuals on watercraft anchored next to shore were also spraying aerosol sunscreen to their bodies, and the spray was drifting onto the cove's water-surface.

 3.1.4. Sand samples from South Core Banks and Shackleford Banks, Cape Lookout National Seashore area

 Sand samples collected during the Anthropause period at the South Core Banks site (**Figures 1C, 1E**) have no quantifiable levels of target sunscreen chemicals (**Table 2B**). During this period, the commercial ferry services to the islands were not operating transport to either of the islands. During the sampling period of 2021, levels of avobenzone, homosalate, octisalate, octocrylene, and oxybenzone were all measurable in sand samples, though concentrations ranged by as much as 12-fold (**Table 2B**). Benzophenone was measurable at site C1 and site C4 (**Table 2B**).

 Sand samples collected during the Anthropause period at the Shackleford Bank site (**Figures 1C, 1D**) had no quantifiable levels of target sunscreen chemicals with the exception of Site 4, where 10 ng/g of octinoxate was measured (**Table 2C**). During the 2021 sampling period, levels of six of the seven target sunscreens chemicals were measurable, the exception being octinoxate (**Table 2C**).

- 3.2. Risk Analysis
- 3.2.1. *Risk quotients for water samples Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park.*
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 During the 2018-2019 pre-Anthropause period, RQs for oxybenzone concentrations in water samples exhibited a severe threat to the range of taxonomic receptors found at Kaloko- Honokōhau (**Table 3**). This result is in striking contrast to the RQs for all the water samples during the 2020 Anthropause period, except for site W5. For 2020 W5, the measurement of oxybenzone posed a severe threat to coral receptors, lower threat levels to arthropods and molluscs, and a moderate to severe threat to fish and photosynthetic taxa (**Table 3**). Risk quotients for oxybenzone in water samples in 2021 was "0" because oxybenzone was always below the limit of detection, i.e., not detected.

- Octocrylene RQs in water samples from 2018-2021 showed a different trend than that of oxybenzone (**Table 3**); the RQs for the four major taxonomic groups exhibited a severe threat. During the Anthropause period, RQ values were "0" or not calculable because octocrylene was not detected. In 2021, with the return of crowds using oxybenzone-free sunscreens, octocrylene levels in W2 and W3 had RQ>1, indicating a severe threat to the four taxonomic groups.
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- 3.2.2. *Risk quotients for sand samples* at *Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park.*

 The single sand sample collected in 2018 had a RQ > 1 for oxybenzone, indicating a severe threat to the two terrestrial taxonomic groups (**Table 4**). Sand samples collected in 2020-2021 had an RQ of >0, indicating no threat from oxybenzone because oxybenzone was not detected in any of the water samples.

 In contrast, the RQ values for octocrylene were "0" in all the sand samples collected from 2018-2021, except for site S5 (**Table 4**). Tourists are prohibited from lounging at site S5 by a park-specific policy of the U.S. National Park System.

3.2.3. *Risk quotients for water samples at South Core Banks, Cape Lookout National Seashore*

4. Discussion

 Both national park units exhibited an almost absolute reduction in the levels of sunscreen contamination during the Anthropause period, a striking commonality considering the geographic expanse separating the parks. Once travel restrictions were lifted, a large influx of tourists ensued at both locations, resulting in a relatively sudden and increase in dangerous levels of sunscreen chemical pollution. This study supports the argument that unmanaged tourism is a source of coastal sunscreen pollution that poses a threat to the localized continuity of species populations and biodiversity, especially to coral reefs and fisheries (Downs et al., 2022c; Pei et al., 2023).

 One major difference between the two sites was the absence of oxybenzone in the post- Anthropause-period in Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park. This absence is most likely a direct result of the implementation of the State of Hawaiʻi Act 104 (2018), which banned the sale and distribution of sunscreen products containing oxybenzone or octinoxate and went into effect on January 1, 2021 (Downs et al., 2022b). Octocrylene contamination during the Anthropause at this location may have come from local residents who were able to access the beach areas even when the park was officially closed (**Table 1B**; State of Hawaiʻi, 2020). It should be noted that at these two locations, the major proximate source for sunscreen chemical contamination are swimmers, and that fluvial sewage discharges from homes or municipalities are not present within the boundaries of the National Park units and the nearest municipal discharge is over 7 km way with prevailing current going away from Shackleford Banks.

 The high RQ values for Kaloko-Honokōhau NHP for water and beach areas indicate that actions to mitigate sunscreen pollution are warranted. Besides the threat to the taxonomic categories included in this risk analysis, the threat to other endangered species (including those on the IUCN Red List and those protected under the U.S. Endangered Species Act) should be considered. Sea turtles accumulate sunscreen compounds and exhibit associated pathologies (Cocci et al., 2020; Cocci et al., 2022; Guevara-Melendez et al., 2023). Juvenile green sea turtles (*Chelonia mydas*) frequently haul-out onshore to bask along the shoreline of the ʻAiʻōpio Fishtrap at Kaloko-Honokōhau NHP. Because these chemicals are readily absorbed through the skin, the concentrations of sunscreen contamination at this location may prove a serious threat both in and out of the water. Food sources in this area (macroalgae and turf algae) could also be contaminated with sunscreen chemicals and could be another route of exposure for these turtles as has been found in macroalgae and sea grasses elsewhere (Cunha et al., 2015; Agawin et al., 2022; Xing et al., 2022; García-Márquez et al., 2023).

 Both national park units provide important sea turtle habitat. Kaloko-Honokōhau NHP is a feeding and resting area for juvenile green turtles. The Cape Lookout National Seashore is a critical nesting habitat for loggerhead, Kemp's Ridley, green, and leatherback sea turtle species. Sunscreen contamination can occur on sands immediately adjacent to sea turtle nesting sites at Cape Lookout (**Supplemental Figure 1**), either via drift from surf-action or from aerosol spray discharges, as well as from urination of tourists and their canine pets (C. Downs, personal observation). We observed both signs of human urination (done out of ignorance with confirmed admission by the perpetrators) and canines urinating on the sea turtle marker poles during our field sampling. Canine urine can potentially be a source of contamination because of market pressure to use canine sunscreen on pets, licking their owners' sunscreen-laden skin, and from drinking from plastic dishes or on canine chew-toys which often contain oxybenzone as a UV

 stabilizer (Asimakopoulos et al., 2016; Karthikraj et al., 2020; American Kennel Club, 2023). Temperature is a major driver of sea turtle sex ratio (Mrosovsky and Provancha, 1989; Tanner et al., 2019; Hays et al., 2023). For a broad range of vertebrates, oxybenzone can cause feminization of juveniles, effect change in primary and secondary sex ratios, and alter embryonic developmental fates (Bae et aal., 2016; Santamaria et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021; Moreira et al., 2022; Bai et al., 2023). In Florida, reports of sex ratios in sea turtle nests are 99 females:1 male, even in areas/years where average temperatures during nesting incubations are not above the critical threshold (U.S. NOAA, 2023b). Could sunscreen pollution be a contributing factor to skewed sex ratios? Monitoring data collected for 2020-2021 nest hatching during the Anthropause in Cape Lookout and other marine parks may provide some insight. The 2014-2017 global coral bleaching event caused extensive mortality to the park's coral reefs (McCutcheon and McKenna, 2021). The RQ analysis indicates that live coral recovery may be affected by sunscreen contamination, particularly if bleaching events associated with temperature increases become more frequent with the progression of global climate change.

 Increase in sea surface temperatures can aggravate the toxicities of oxybenzone, avobenzone, and octocrylene suggesting that the compound stressors may exacerbate localized population declines (Wijgerde et al., 2020; Bordalo et al., 2023; He et al., 2023; Vuckovic et al., 2022; Morais et al., 2023; He et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024). Mitigation of sunscreen pollution will be necessary for coral reef recovery and conservation efforts (Downs et al., 2022a; Pastorino, 2024).

 High RQ values for the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashores barrier islands indicate a threat to both the marine and beach ecosystems. The botanical diversity of the beach dunes on these islands provides critical ecosystem services for preventing coastal erosion. Oxybenzone, octocrylene, avobenzone, and octinoxate are toxic to vascular plants (Zhong et al., 2020; Santo et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023). Benzophenone, the breakdown product of octocrylene, is an herbicide patented by both Monsanto and the Rohm & Haas Company (Downs et al., 2021). The major metabolite of benzophenone, 4-hydroxybenzophenone, is a powerful estrogenic endocrine disruptor (Carstensen et al., 2023). Ecotoxicological studies should be conducted using native plants species from this area to generate a relevant ecological risk assessment for these chemicals on their impact to native floral species, and their threat to the ecological-services structures they provide (Feagin et al., 2013; Feagin et al., 2019). As a result of sunscreen chemical toxicity, decreased botanical root densities in these dunes may make them more susceptible to erosion from storm action (Li et al., 2023). Rising sea levels with increasingly intense storms threaten North Carolina's barrier islands; therefore, it is important to address factors that decrease resilience to coastal erosion (Sweet et al., 2022; Balaguru et al., 2023).

 Although plants can act as keystone species for building-up and sustaining dune landscapes, ghost crabs (Genus *Ocypode*) contribute to the bioerosion and aeration of dune structures, as well as beach sedimentary turnover and mixing (Hughes et al., 2014). They are a vital component of the beach landscape food web, acting as an important food source for birds and mammals (Wolcott, 1978). Ghost crabs are an indicator-species for the health condition of coastal dunes impacted by tourism (Schlacher et al., 2010; Noriega et al., 2012; Schlacher et al., 2016). With high concentrations of sunscreen chemicals in both national park units, it begs the question of whether sunscreen ingredients could be the etiological drivers for tourism-associated declines of ghost crab demographics and detrimental changes in social behaviors, especially because oxybenzone, octocrylene, benzophenone, and avobenzone are renowned endocrine disruptors (Campos et al., 2019; Muñiz-González and Martínez-Guitarte, 2020; Boyd et al.,

 2021). Decapods are susceptible to estrogenic endocrine disruption, especially to estrogenic-axis disruption which will inappropriately induce vitellogenin production in males, exhibit significant shifts in sex ratios in decapod populations, and display a reduction in population persistence (Brian, 2005; Lye et al., 2008; Matozzo et al., 2008; Park et al., 2014; Langston, 2020). Furthermore, oxybenzone and octocrylene's degradate, benzophenone, are genotoxic and the high concentration of these chemicals on beach sands may explain why high levels of genotoxicity in ghost crabs were associated with tourist/recreational beaches (de Lima de Silva et al., 2002; Ma et al., 2023). Ghost crabs are not the only decapod species under threat. The Barden Inlet Blue Crab Spawning Sanctuary is within the boundaries of the Cape Lookout National Seashore, between Shackleford Banks and South Core Banks. This Sanctuary is immediately adjacent to the Cape Lookout sampling site, and rests within the pollution plume of this site. The tourism's sunscreen pollution plume in this area could potentially impact this spawning habitat.

 Many species of migratory birds subsist on ghost crabs, and their principle feeding grounds are coastal beaches. Storks, harriers, gulls, eagles, kestrels, and other carnivorous bird species were shown to have excessive amounts of oxybenzone and its metabolites and octocrylene accumulating in eggs (Molins-Delgado et al., 2017; Oró-Nolla et al., 2021). Octocrylene was detected in 100% of the bird egg samples from the variety of species studied; therefore, benzophenone (a known carcinogen and reproductive toxicant) may also be a contaminant (Downs et al., 2021). Ghost crabs' primary habitat is regularly visited by tourists and local recreationists; their shoreline habitat is highly contaminated with sunscreen pollutants. Could a diet of ghost crabs inhabiting sunscreen-polluted beaches be a major factor for egg contamination and subsequent hatching success? The bioaccumulation and biomagnification of these sunscreen chemicals need to be assessed in wildlife settings, starting with a rigorous survey of contaminant loads in ghost crabs from various locations.

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 The beaches of Kaloko-Honokōhau are designated Critical Habitat for the recovery of monk seals under the Endangered Species Act (Federal Register, 2015). Hawaiian Monk seals (*Neomonachus schauinslandi*) may spend about 1/3 of their time resting on beaches in the main Hawaiian Islands (Wilson et al., 2017). In Kaloko-Honokōhau, seals have been recorded to haul out and rest at some of the same locations the samples were collected. In mammals, oxybenzone, avobenzone, benzophenone and octocrylene can be readily absorbed through the skin and detected in blood samples after two weeks from a single acute exposure (Matta et al., 2019; Matta et al., 2020; Downs et al., 2021; Pilli et al., 2021). Increasing exposure concentration often translates into increased body absorption, and with no vehicle formulation to protect or mitigate the rate of absorption, exposure directly from sand may result in a very high rate of absorption (Kurul and Hekimoglu, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Do et al., 2022). Octocrylene has been shown to be carried at a high body-burden concentration in cetaceans, and octocrylene contamination can be passed directly from mother to neonate via breastmilk, suggesting a similar phenomenon in pinnipeds (Gago-Ferrero et al., 2013; Alonso et al., 2015). Octocrylene can directly reduce Vitamin D production (Abdi et al., 2022). Octocrylene accumulation from beach- reposed seals may affect Vitamin D seasonal variance, and result in deficiencies at vulnerable times during reproductive development as well as immunocompetence (Wilske, 1993; Atkinson and Gilmartin, 1992; Wilske and Arnbom, 1996). Monk seals may also consume high levels of microplastics (Pietroluongo et al., 2022; Mclvor et al., 2023). Marine plastic debris is a concentrator of sunscreen chemicals, thus consumption of marine plastics in sunscreen polluted

waters may increase exposure risk and body burdens to pinnipeds that haul out on shore

 (O'Donovan et al., 2020; Achar et al., 2021; Cui et al., 2022). Research on contaminant accumulation in phocid seals is necessary to better understand this threat.

 It is important to note that the water samples we collected were at least 30 cm below the surface of the water. In Shackleford Bank, the water sample was collected about 10 meters from the narrow swash zone, in and amongst over 120 swimmers in the water within 20 meters of the collection point. Kaloko-Honokōhau is a protected embayment that is the remnants of a cultural Hawaiian fishpond – it had no active swash zone on any of the collection days. Concentrations of many of the sunscreen compounds were above the solubility in fresh water or salt water (36 ppt salinity). This is because water column loading of organic compounds can increase the solubility of these slightly hydrophobic and polyaromatic compounds (Witt, 1995; Dong et al., 2012; Nasher et al., 2013; Abdel-Safy and Mansour, 2016; Zukausjaute et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2023). Sunscreen compounds, such as oxybenzone and octocrylene, can readily be bound to proteins for increased solubilization and bioavailability (Ao et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2023a; Ma et al., 2023c; Tsurushima et al., 2023). Proteins and acyl-chain compounds are major components of marine flocculence and organic carbon in the marine water column allowing for the increased availability within the length of the water column (Lee et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2019). This is why we see a fraction of the sunscreen compounds on the surface of the water, and can detect sunscreen compounds meters deep in waters amongst corals (Tsui et al., 2017; He et al., 2023). Coral themselves are major sources of organic matter in the water column of coral reefs; including sunscreen solubilizing solvents such as dimethyl sulfoxide and dimethylsulphoniopropionate (Ferrier-Pages et al., 1990; Broadbent and Jones, 2006; Deschaseaux et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2015; Gardner et aal., 2016; Gardner et aal., 2017).

 Aerosol-spray sunscreen was observed to be an obvious mode of environmental contamination at both locations. Daily onshore winds at Cape Lookout frequently reach 10-20 knots (https://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/station_page.php?station=clkn7). Sunscreen drift from aerosol applicators can be significant with as much as 60-95% of the discharge not deposited on human skin. In a laboratory setting with no wind, the amount of aerosol sunscreen lost to the environment and not deposited on the skin is over 61% of the discharge (Broussard et al., 2019). Furthermore, to achieve the SPF protection on the product label, the amount of aerosol sunscreen to be discharged is significantly higher than commonly assumed; a full body application to reach labeled SPF levels would require more than a 90-second-long continuous discharge application (Cancer Council, 2020). The high concentration of sunscreen contamination on surface sands is a testament to this form of environmental contamination. Aerosol applications have also been observed when beachgoers wade into the sea and discharge the product directly into receiving waters (*e.g.*, Sample Site CW1, **Figure 1E**, **Supplemental Video 1**). In most observed cases, the sunscreen-drift directly contaminates the water as the person applies the aerosol sunscreen. Tourists and local visitors have also been observed to submerge their bodies and swim immediately after sunscreen application of both lotions and aerosol applications without waiting the 15 minutes for the matrix formula to polymerize as indicated by the product's directions for use (personal observations). This failure to use the technology as directed increases the discharge rate of the sunscreen product ingredients into the environment as well as causing "Sunscreen Abuse" which can cause harm to the individual and public health by potentially increasing their risk for UV-associated skin cancer (Autier, 2009; DiNardo and Downs, 2021). Estimates for the amount of sunscreen contamination of a specific location can be calculated based on rigorous surveys of the number of visitors and the percentage of those visitors using aerosol sprays (e.g.,

Downs et al., 2002c). Regulating the use of aerosol sunscreen sprays should be considered for

- marine protected areas as a way of mitigating environmental contamination via sunscreen aerosol
- drift (Logemann et al., 2022).
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5. Conclusion

During the Anthropause of 2020, the concentrations of UV filters in water and sand samples at

- two national park units in the U.S. were lower than at times of normal visitation. Because these
- filters, at the levels present in the collected samples from after the Anthropause, can negatively
- affect marine life, interventions will be necessary to avoid these deleterious effects. Previous
- studies have identified several behavioral barriers that may prevent visitors from adopting
- ecologically friendly sun protection behaviors. A multi-faceted approach, including educational
- campaigns, behavior change strategies, and park-specific prohibitions would address many of the
- challenges that parks face regarding sunscreen pollution while maintaining the quality of the
- visitor experience.

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Figure and Table Legends

 Figure 1. Location of water and sand sampling sites. (Panel A) Sampling sites of water and sand samples within Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A. (Panel B)

Locations of Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park on the Island of Hawai'i, Hawaii,

- U.S.A. (Panel C) Location of the two sampling areas within the Cape Lookout National Marine
- Seashore where "D" indicates the Shackleford Banks sampling area and "E" indicates the South
- Core Banks sampling area. (Panel D) Location of the sand and water sampling sites at
- Shackleford Banks. (Panel E) Location of the sand and water sampling sites in the South Core
- Banks sampling area adjacent to the Cape Lookout Light House compound.
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- 1696 **Table 1**. Concentrations of sunscreen chemicals and their metabolites in water (Table 1A) and beach sand (Table 1B) individual samples collected within the Kaloko-Honokolau National beach sand (Table 1B) individual samples collected within the Kaloko-Honokōhau National
- 1698 Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A. Location of individual sample collection is shown in Figure 1699 1A,B. Samples were collected in 2018-2021. Concentrations are in nanograms per liter. NA =
- 1699 1A,B. Samples were collected in 2018-2021. Concentrations are in nanograms per liter. $NA = 1700$ Not assayed. $\langle LOQ = Below$ the Limit of Quantitation. $\langle LOD = Below$ the Limit of Detection
- Not assayed. $\langle LOQ = Below$ the Limit of Quantitation. $\langle LOD = Below$ the Limit of Detection.

1702 1703

- **Table 2.** Concentrations of sunscreen chemicals and their metabolites in individual water and
- beach sand samples collected within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore in North
- Carolina, U.S.A. Location of individual sample collection is shown in Figure 1(Panel C-E).
- Table 2A are concentrations in water samples collected from the South Core Bank area (Figure
- 1E). Table 2B are concentrations in beach sand samples collected from the South Core Bank area
- (Figure 1E). Table 2C are concentrations in beach sand samples collected at Shackleford Banks
- area (Figure 1D). Samples were collected in 2020-2021. Concentrations are in nanograms per
- 1711 liter. NA = Not assayed. \langle LOQ = Below the Limit of Quantitation. \langle LOD = Below the Limit of
- Detection.

Table 2A. Concentrations in South Core Banks Water Sample:

Table 2B. Concentrations in South Core Banks Sand Samples

Table 2C. Concentrations in Shackleford Banks Sand Samples

- 1716 Table 3. Risk Quotient for Acute Toxicity of oxybenzone and octocrylene in water samples
1717 collected at Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A from 2018-2021
- 1717 collected at Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A from 2018-2021
- 1718 associated with Table 1A for Cnidarian species, invertebrate (non-Cnidarian) species, plant and algae species, and fish species. Color chart: RED= Severe condition for a potential toxic effect
- algae species, and fish species. Color chart: RED= Severe condition for a potential toxic effect
- 1720 \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat condition for a potential toxic effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.
- condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1 .

- 1723 Table 4. Risk Quotient for Acute Toxicity of oxybenzone and octocrylene in beach sand samples
1724 collected at Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A from 2018, 2020,
- collected at Kaloko-Honokōhau National Historical Park in Hawai'i, U.S.A from 2018, 2020,
- 1725 and 2021 associated with Table 1B for Annelida and Arthropoda species. Color chart: RED=
- 1726 Severe condition for a potential toxic effect \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat condition for a
- 1727 potential toxic effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.

1728 1729 Chironomus riparius

NOEC

 $3,410$

 $6,250$

 $\overline{\textbf{8}}$

 $16[°]$

 $16[°]$

 29

 $\mathbf{0}$

9,822 7,857 7,857 6,704

Campos et al 2017b

- 1730 Table 5. Risk Quotient for Acute Toxicity of oxybenzone and octocrylene in water samples
1731 collected at South Core Banks within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore, North
- collected at South Core Banks within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore, North
- 1732 Carolina U.S.A in 2021 associated with Table 2A for Cnidarian species, invertebrate (non-
- 1733 Cnidarian) species, plant and algae species, and fish species. Color chart: RED= Severe
- 1734 condition for a potential toxic effect \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat condition for a potential toxic effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.
- effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.

- 1737 **Table 6.** Risk Quotient for Acute Toxicity of oxybenzone and octocrylene in beach sand samples collected at South Core Banks within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore, North
- collected at South Core Banks within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore, North
- 1739 Carolina U.S.A in 2021 associated with Table 2B for Annelida and Arthropoda species. Color chart: RED= Severe condition for a potential toxic effect \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat condition
- chart: RED= Severe condition for a potential toxic effect \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat condition
- 1741 for a potential toxic effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.

- 1744 **Table 7.** Risk Quotient for Acute Toxicity of oxybenzone and octocrylene in beach sand samples
- 1745 collected at Shackelford Banks within the Cape Lookout National Marine Seashore, North
- 1746 Carolina U.S.A in 2020-2021 associated with Table 2C for Annelida and Arthropoda species.
- 1747 Color chart: RED= Severe condition for a potential toxic effect \geq 1; Orange = Moderate threat
- 1748 condition for a potential toxic effect = 0.5 to 1.0; Yellow= Low condition of concern 0.49 to 0.1.

2020
S1 $\frac{2020}{\$3}$ $\frac{2020}{S4}$ $\frac{2020}{55}$ $\frac{2021}{S2}$ $\frac{2021}{\$3}$ $\frac{2021}{S1}$ $\frac{2021}{S4}$ $\frac{2021}{S5}$ Oxybenzone \bullet $\pmb{\mathfrak{o}}$ \bullet $\pmb{\mathfrak{o}}$ 2604 7408 89 5066 199 Environ. Concen. ng/g Toxicity
ference Va **References for Toxicity SPECIES** Reference Values ng/g Eisenia fetida Mortatlity 14 days **LC50** 364,000 $\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ $20[°]$ $\mathbf{0}$ 13.92 0.55 Gautam et al 2022 Eisenia fetida 38 \bullet 26 Gautam et al 2022 Growth rate, 14 days **NOEC** 196,000 $\mathbf{0}$ \bullet \bullet \bullet 13 \mathbf{o} 143 407 278 Eisenia fetida Coccon production 56 days PNEC 18,200 \mathbf{o} $\mathbf{0}$ \bullet $\overline{11}$ Gautam et al 2022 Reduction in Juvenile formation 56 Eisenia fetida 715 Gautam et al 2022 3,640 $\mathbf{0}$ \bullet \bullet \bullet 2,035 1,392 66 PNEC 24 d avs **Hediste diversicolor** 10,000 \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a} **260** 741. 507 $\overline{20}$ Clergeaud et al 2022 Avoidance behavior, 24 h **NOEC** Hediste diversicolor Survival rate, 28 days **NOEC** 10.000 \bullet \bullet $\mathbf 0$ \bullet 260 744 **CAP** 9ň Clergeaud et al 2022 **Arthropoda** Sericostoma vittatum Feeding inhibition 6 days PNEC $1,775$ $\overline{\bullet}$ $\overline{\bullet}$ $\overline{\bullet}$ $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ Campos et al 2017a 2854 Sericostoma vittatum \bullet 112 Campos et al 2017a Carbohydrates content, 6 days PNEC 1,775 \bullet \bullet 1467 4174 50 2854 $\mathbf{0}$ Oxidative stress & neurotoxicity, 6
days Sericostoma vittatum **NOEC** 3,550 \bullet \bullet \bullet $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ 734 2087 25 1427 56 Campos et al 2017a Sericostoma vittatum Glutathione levels, 6 days PNEC 725 \bullet $\mathbf{0}$ \bullet \bullet 3592 10218 123 6988 274 Campos et al 2017a \bullet 531 Campos et al 2017b **Chironomus riparius** Larval growth inhibition, 28 days PNEC 375 \bullet \bullet \bullet 6944 19755 237 13509 Delaved development. females $\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ 2971 117 Campos et al 2017b **Chironomus riparius** PNEC 1.705 $\mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ 1527 4345 52 28 days Delayed development,
male, 28 days **Chironomus riparius NOEC** $3,410$ \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet 764 2172 $\overline{26}$ 1486 58 Campos et al 2017b Decrease in adult bodyweight. 28 117 Campos et al 2017b PNEC \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet 1527 52 2971 **Chironomus riparius** 1,705 4345 days \mathbf{o} 199 **Chironomus riparius** Egg rope hatching 1.000 \mathbf{o} $\mathbf{0}$ \mathbf{o} 2604 7408 89 5066 Campos et al 2019 PNEC Emergence and developmental rate Chironomus riparius $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ 1302 3704 2533 Campos et al 2019 2,000 45 100 PNEC 28 Days 2020
S1 2020
S3 2020
S5 2021
S1 $\frac{2021}{S2}$ $\frac{2021}{\$3}$ $\frac{2021}{S4}$ 2021
S5 **Octocrylene** Environ. Concen. ng/g 0.00 10590 $\overline{827}$ 0.00 0.00 0.00 7179 15172 \bullet **Toxicity** References for Toxicity
Reference Values **SPECIES** Reference Value ng/g **Hediste diversicolor NOEC** 10,000 \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet 718 $1,517$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$,059 $\overline{83}$ Clergeaud et al 2022 Survival rate, 28 days Hediste diversicolor Avoidance behavior, 24 hr **NOEC** 10,000 \bullet \bullet $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ \bullet **718** 4.647 $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ **LOSO** g. Clergeaud et al 2022 Chironomus riparius PNEC 1,165 $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ $\pmb{\mathfrak{o}}$ 9,090 710 Campos et al 2017b Larval growth inhibition, 28 days 6,162 13,023 Developmental delay of male and
female, 28 days **NOEC** \mathbf{o} 3,081 $6,512$ \bullet 4,545 355 Campos et al 2017b **Chironomus riparius** 2,330 $\pmb{0}$ $\mathbf{0}$ \bullet Chironomus riparius Adults bodyweight, 28 days **NOEC** $3,410$ \bullet \bullet $\pmb{\mathsf{o}}$ \bullet 2,105 4,449 \bullet 3,106 243 Campos et al 2017b