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2 **Adhesion of mechanically and chemically dispersed crude oil droplets to eggs of Atlantic**
3 **cod (*Gadus morhua*) and haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*)**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Crude oil accidentally spilled into the marine environment undergoes natural weathering processes
15 that result in oil components being dissolved into the water column or present in particulate form as
16 dispersed oil droplets. Oil components dissolved in seawater are typically considered as more
17 bioavailable to pelagic marine organisms and the main driver of crude oil toxicity, however, recent
18 studies indicate that oil droplets may also contribute. The adhesion of crude oil droplets onto the eggs
19 of pelagic fish species may cause enhanced transfer of oil components via the egg surface causing
20 toxicity during the sensitive embryonic developmental stage. In the current study, we utilized an oil
21 droplet dispersion generator to generate defined oil droplets sizes/concentrations and exposed
22 Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*) to investigate if the potential
23 for dispersed oil droplets to adhere onto the surface of eggs was species-dependent. The influence of
24 a commercial chemical dispersant on the adhesion process was also studied. A key finding was that
25 the adhesion of oil droplets was significantly higher for haddock than cod, highlighting key differences
26 and exposure risks between the two species. Scanning electron microscopy indicates that the
27 differences in oil droplet adhesion may be driven by the surface morphology of the eggs. Another
28 important finding was that the adhesion capacity of oil droplets to fish eggs is significantly reduced
29 (cod 37.3%, haddock 41.7%) in the presence of the chemical dispersant.

30

31 **Key words:** Petroleum; fish embryo; adhesion; Arctic; dispersant

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Formation of mechanically dispersed oil droplets in the water column following an oil spill may be
34 caused by many factors, including the nature of the spill (e.g. an underwater blowout) and turbulence
35 caused by wave-action. This formation of oil droplets is often seen as beneficial in spill scenarios, as
36 the higher oil-water surface area increases the rate of oil compound dissolution and subsequently
37 biodegradation (Brakstad et al., 2015a; NRC, 2005). In some cases, dispersion of spilled oil is
38 encouraged through intentional application of chemical dispersants to a slick or underwater plume
39 (Brandvik et al., 2013). Mechanically dispersed oil droplets are typically < 100 µm (Muschenheim and
40 Lee, 2002), while chemically dispersed droplets are typically smaller (Khelifa et al., 2008; Li et al., 2007).
41 Produced water emissions also contains dispersed oil droplets, and the legislations on the Norwegian
42 continental shelf is that produced water should not exceed 30 mg/L produced water.

43

44 It is generally considered that the dissolved fraction of crude oil is the most bioavailable to marine
45 organisms, and therefore contributes most to bioaccumulation. However, oil droplets present in
46 dispersions have the potential to significantly affect filter-feeders, which ingest oil droplets that match
47 the size of their natural prey and coat feeding apparatus reducing feeding efficiency (Almeda et al.,
48 2014; Hansen et al., 2012; Hansen et al., 2009). Importantly, in a crude oil dispersion in seawater, most
49 of the oil component mass is present in the droplet phase. For oil dispersions in seawater with oil
50 concentrations in the range 0,1 – 10 mg/L this also applies to the larger PAHs (MW>230 Da) and high
51 logK_{ow} (>6) and their dissolved concentrations are generally very low. On the other hand, lighter
52 components such as naphthalenes (e.g. naphthalene: logK_{ow}=3.17, MW=128,171 Da) are mostly found
53 in the dissolved phase and only a small mass fraction is retained in the oil (Nordtug et al., 2011a)
54 Previous studies have shown that oil droplets do not appear to contribute to the observed toxicity of
55 oil dispersions to fish larvae (Carls et al., 2008; Nordtug et al., 2011b; Olsvik et al., 2011; Olsvik et al.,
56 2010), or the uptake of PAHs by other marine species (Viaene et al., 2014). However, recent studies

57 have suggested that adhesion of oil droplets onto the chorion of fish eggs may be an important route
58 of entry for oil components to the developing fish embryos (Sørhus et al., 2015; Sørhus et al., 2016).

59
60 It has been reported that cod and haddock eggs exposed to similar doses of mechanically dispersed
61 crude oil were exhibiting significantly differences in PAH accumulation resulting in more severe toxicity
62 (cardiotoxicity and larvae deformation) in the latter (Sørensen et al., 2017; Sørhus et al., 2015). The
63 studies showed that dispersed oil droplets adhered to the chorion of haddock eggs, while the same
64 phenomenon was not observed for cod eggs. The adhesion appeared to correlate with an increase in
65 body residue of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in the haddock eggs, as well as more severe
66 malformations (Sørensen et al., 2017). At the embryo stage, the haddock and cod eggs are nearly
67 identical in terms of size, colour and embryonic development (Fridgeirsson, 1978; Hall et al., 2004).
68 Like most pelagic species, both cod and haddock eggs have a thin, homogenous, lamellated chorion
69 (Lønning et al., 1988; Morrison et al., 1999). Therefore, the differences in oil droplet adhesion observed
70 between eggs of the two species could be driven by variations in the chemistry and/or surface
71 morphology of egg chorions facing the surrounding water.

72
73 Despite oil production and transport within spawning areas, both in Norwegian waters and globally,
74 there is currently a lack of data on how dispersed crude oil droplets affect the early life stages of fish
75 (Olsen et al., 2013). The areas around the Lofoten Islands of northern Norway, as well as the Barents
76 Sea, and the Atlantic Arctic area, are considered especially vulnerable to oil spills since they are
77 spawning and larval-drift areas for several commercially important species of marine fish, including
78 Atlantic haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*) and cod (*Gadus morhua*) (Hauge et al., 2014; Misund
79 and Olsen, 2013; Olsen et al., 2010). A more detailed understanding of the effects of dispersed crude
80 oil on different fish species is therefore necessary to identify both species and regions that represent
81 highest risks for oil spill impacts.

82

83 In the present study, the capacity for dispersed oil droplets to adhere to the chorion of cod and
84 haddock eggs were estimated and compared. Furthermore, the potential differences in the adhesion
85 properties of mechanically (MD) and chemically dispersed (CD) crude oil to the eggs was also assessed.
86 Identical oil dispersions, in terms of concentrations and oil droplet sizes, of mechanically and
87 chemically dispersed (added chemical dispersant) crude oil were prepared and eggs of both species
88 were exposed for 24 hours. Body burden analyses of high $\log K_{ow}$ PAHs were used as a proxy for oil
89 droplet adhesion estimation. Differences in cod and haddock egg surface morphology were
90 investigated using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging. The study should provide important
91 information about potential species-differences in oil adhesion capacity and how chemical dispersants
92 affect this process. For net environment benefit analyses and resource damage assessment processes
93 in the event of an accidental oil spill, these results are key to decide on oil spill responses and to
94 estimate exposure and toxicity to native fish populations.

95

96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97 2.1. Eggs

98 Fertilized eggs were collected from the stock fish facility at the Institute of Marine Research at
99 Austevolden, Norway. The eggs were transported by air freight to Trondheim and kept at 5°C in
100 incubator tanks until used for experiments and analyses.

101

102 2.2. Dispersion generation, egg exposure, sampling and analyses

103 Uniform oil dispersions were generated using an oil droplet generator (Nordtug et al., 2011a), where
104 crude oil (Heidrun blend) was dispersed in filtered (0.22 μm cartridge filter) sea water through a series
105 of nozzles yielding a constant flow of dispersion with a homogeneous droplet size. To generate the
106 chemically dispersed oil (CD), the commercially available oil spill dispersant Dasic NS was premixed
107 into the oil (4% w/w dispersant) prior to dispersion. Oil dispersions generated without the use of
108 chemical dispersant are termed mechanically dispersed (MD). The two dispersions were generated

109 with identical set-up, but to achieve a similar oil droplet size distribution and concentration in the two
110 treatments, the energy input (water flow and thus turbulence) for generating the dispersion with Dasic
111 NS was reduced compared to the purely mechanically generated dispersion (Nordtug et al., 2011a).
112 Both dispersions were generated at a nominal concentration of 1 mg oil/L. Droplet size distributions
113 were verified by a Coulter Counter (Multisizer 3, with 100 µm aperture).

114

115 Freshly prepared dispersions were transferred to 2 L borosilicate bottles (N=4 for each treatment), 200
116 cod or haddock eggs (14 days post fertilization) were added, and the bottles capped with Teflon-lined
117 caps (VWR International). The bottles were filled completely (no headspace) and mounted on a
118 custom-built carousel incubation system, as previously described (Brakstad et al., 2015a; Brakstad et
119 al., 2015b). Bottles filled only with filtered sea water and eggs (no oil) were used as negative controls
120 (N=4). The carousel system maintained a constant clockwise rotation at a velocity of 0.75 rpm at 5°.
121 After 24 h rotation, the bottles were taken off the carousel and sampled immediately.

122

123 The fish eggs were separated from the water phase by sieving the dispersions through a 100 µm size
124 mesh. An aliquot of the water sample was also analysed for droplet size distribution and
125 concentrations using Coulter Counter Multisizer. A sub-sample (40 mL) was removed for analysis of
126 volatile organic compounds using purge and trap gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry
127 (Faksness et al., 2015). The remaining volume of water was acidified (pH~2, HCl) and extracted by serial
128 liquid-liquid extraction using dichloromethane (45-30-30 mL) for analysis of semi-volatile organic
129 components (SVOC). Surrogate internal standards (*o*-terphenyl, naphthalene-*d*8, phenanthrene-*d*10,
130 chrysene-*d*12 and phenol-*d*6) were added prior to extraction. The combined extracts were dried over
131 sodium sulfate and concentrated to approximately 1 mL before addition of recovery internal standards
132 (5α-androstane, fluorene-*d*10). The total extractable material (TEM) was quantified using GC coupled
133 to a flame ionization detector (GC-FID), while decalins, PAHs, alkyl PAHs and alkyl phenols were
134 quantified using GC coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS/MS).

135

136 Approximately 50 eggs were sampled for body residue analyses using the method described in
137 Sørensen et al. (2016). After addition of surrogate standards (naphthalene-*d*8, biphenyl-*d*8,
138 acenaphthylene-*d*8, anthracene-*d*10, pyrene-*d*10, perylene-*d*12 and indeno[1,2,3-*cd*]pyrene-*d*12), the
139 samples were homogenized in *n*-hexane-DCM (1:1 v/v, 2 mL) followed by addition of anhydrous
140 sodium sulphate (150 mg) to remove residual water, vortex extraction (30 s) and centrifugation (2000
141 rpm, 2 min). The supernatant was collected and the extraction step repeated twice. The combined
142 organic extract was concentrated to ~1 mL prior to clean-up by solid phase extraction (SPE) using silica
143 (Agilent Bond Elut SI, 500 mg, Agilent Technologies, USA). The extract was eluted with
144 dichloromethane in *n*-hexane (1:9, v/v, 6 mL). Immediately prior to the analysis, the volume of the
145 purified extract was reduced to 100 µL under a gentle stream of N₂. PAHs and alkyl PAHs were analysed
146 by GC-MS/MS as described in Sørensen et al (2017).

147

148 2.3. Fluorescence microscopy

149 The remaining eggs were transferred to clean, filtered sea water and imaged both in bright field and
150 fluorescence using microscopy. A microscope (Nikon eclipse 80i, Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan) equipped
151 with a 10× S Fluor objective (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan; NA 0.50) was used to visualize crude oil droplet
152 fluorescence on egg surface, induced by illuminating the specimen with a 120-W mercury arc lamp
153 (xcite 120, EXFO Corp., Quebec, Canada) passing through a B-2A filter cube (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan).
154 Images were captured with a Peltier cooled CCD camera (DS 5Mc, Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan)
155 controlled from a computer running NIS Elements F (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan; v. 4.30).

156

157 2.4. Estimation of oil mass associated with eggs

158 To estimate the total amount of oil mass adhering to the eggs, the measured concentrations of
159 individual low-solubility oil components ($\log K_{ow} > 6.0$, N=13 for each sample) associated with the eggs
160 and in the bulk oil (Oil profile given in Supporting Information Table S3) were determined. Under the

161 assumption that loss through dissolution is negligible during the experiment, the ratio of the two
162 concentrations provides the required estimate. The concentrations are:

163
$$C_{KO} = \frac{m_K}{m_O}, C_{KE} = \frac{m_K}{m_E}$$

164 where C_{KO} is the measured concentration of oil component K in the bulk oil (ug/g) and C_{KE} is the
165 measured concentration of oil component K associated with the egg (ug/g), m_K is the mass of
166 component K in the parent oil, m_O is the mass of the oil and m_E is the mass of the eggs in the sample.

167 An estimate of total oil in the egg C_{OE}^K (g/g) based on component K is thus:

168
$$C_{OE} = \frac{C_{KE}}{C_{KO}} = \frac{m_K m_O}{m_E m_K} = \frac{m_O}{m_E}$$

169 There are variations in these estimates for different components, so the final estimate is based on a
170 component average (N components) for each sample:

171
$$\overline{C_{OE}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{K=1}^N C_{OE}^K$$

172 and the corresponding standard deviation to quantify the spread in the estimate.

173

174 2.5. Egg surface morphology

175 To investigate physical differences in the surface morphology of the eggs from cod and haddock, a
176 batch of eggs from each species were subjected to imaging by scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
177 SEM was performed with a secondary electron signal using a NOVA NANOSEM 650 FEI instrument.
178 Sample preparation involved fixation in 3% glutaraldehyde (pH 7.4), dehydration in ascending
179 concentrations of ethanol and finally critical point drying. Prior to observation the samples were coated
180 with carbon to enhance the contrast.

181

182 2.6. Statistical analyses

183 The software GraphPad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA) was used for visualizing
184 data and performing statistical analyses. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess

185 differences between treatments. Tukey's multiple-comparison post hoc test was used to compare the
186 exposed groups against the control or for comparison between exposure groups. A significance level
187 of $p < 0.05$ was used for all tests.

188

189 **3. Results and Discussion**

190 Pelagic fish eggs are at risk of being exposed to oil dispersions if an acute oil spill occurs in spawning
191 areas. Dissolved oil components will be taken up through passive diffusion, but adhesion of oil droplets
192 onto the chorion of fish eggs may also be a contributing exposure route for less water-soluble oil
193 components resulting in increased toxicity during this early stage. This study focussed on adhesion of
194 MD and CD oil droplets on the chorion of fish eggs. This was done by exposing eggs to comparable
195 MD/CD dispersions for a short period of time and estimate oil droplet associated with eggs based on
196 concentrations of high $\log K_{ow}$ (>6.0) oil components analysed in eggs and parent oil.

197

198 Droplet size distribution analysis confirmed that the exposure experiments were conducted using
199 comparable droplet sizes in all exposure treatments (Table 1). The measured average oil droplet sizes
200 were slightly larger in the MD treatment (11.4-12.2 μm) than in the CD treatment (9.2-9.9 μm) (Table
201 1). A smaller droplet will have a lower surfacing velocity than a larger droplet and this may affect the
202 droplet concentration over time. However, in the current experiment droplets were constantly kept in
203 suspension by turbulence created by rotating the exposure bottles, and the observed size differences
204 did not affect exposure concentrations. Thus, the difference in the droplet size range between CD and
205 MD treatment is not expected to affect the conclusions of the study. Exposure concentrations of
206 droplets as measured by the Coulter Counter indicated good comparability across all exposure
207 treatments (1.05-1.08 mm^3/L at 0h and 0.85-0.96 after 24 h). GC-MS analyses confirmed that the
208 chemical composition of the exposure treatments was almost identical for MD and CD as well as
209 between cod and haddock exposures (Table 2). A detailed chemical composition of each exposure
210 treatment is given in the Supporting Information (Tables S1).

211

212 Fluorescence microscopy imaging was performed to visualize oil droplets attached to the surface of
213 eggs after 24 h exposure to MD and CD. Although relatively few, adhered oil droplets were clearly
214 visible on the chorion of eggs from both species as well as from MD and CD treatments (example of
215 cod after MD-treatment given in Figure 1). Unfortunately, it was not possible to estimate any
216 quantitative differences in droplet number based on the images, possibly due to the low depth of field,
217 but oil droplets did not appear to be located at any specific location on the chorion for either of the
218 two species. Previous use of this methodology on dispersion-exposed copepods has successfully
219 provided insights into the filtration and adhesion characteristics of MD and CD crude oil (Hansen et al.,
220 2009; Nordtug et al., 2015).

221

222 The body burden of total PAHs and individual PAH classes determined in cod and haddock eggs differed
223 between treatments, being most different for high $\log K_{ow}$ compounds ($\log K_{ow} > 6.0$; Table 2 and
224 Supporting Information Table S2). These components are mainly associated with oil droplets because
225 of their low water solubility (Nordtug et al., 2011a). Therefore, if egg analyses indicate the presence of
226 high molecular weight compounds, the eggs must be adhering droplets. In the current study, this
227 behaviour of different oil components is observed for haddock and, to a somewhat lesser extent, for
228 cod. Estimation of the oil mass on cod and haddock eggs was conducted using GC-MS/MS analysis of
229 the fraction of high $\log K_{ow}$ compounds (>6.0) associated with crude oil and eggs. This approach
230 assumes that high $\log K_{ow}$ components are only associated with eggs through adhered oil droplets and
231 not accumulated as dissolved compounds through the water phase. Although components with $\log K_{ow}$
232 values > 6.0 have a very low solubility, some uptake by the eggs of these components from the water
233 phase over time is possible. Furthermore, oil droplets may also act as a reservoir for PAHs, replenishing
234 them in the dissolved phase when they are removed by uptake into the eggs (Redman, 2015). However,
235 these processes are slow, and the short exposure time (24 h), and the static exposure design
236 implemented in the current study, should reduce any significant uptake of high $\log K_{ow}$ components

237 from the water phase. It is therefore assumed that any high $\log K_{ow}$ components found to be associated
238 with eggs come from the adhered oil droplets.

239

240 A significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher oil mass was associated with haddock eggs compared to cod eggs in the
241 MD exposure (Figure 2). This is consistent with a previous study where higher numbers of oil droplet
242 were observed on haddock eggs compared to cod eggs (Sørhus et al., 2015). This higher association of
243 oil droplets to haddock eggs may explain differences observed between these species in terms of oil
244 toxicokinetics and sensitivity (Sørensen et al., 2017). Increased adhesion of oil droplets was found to
245 correlate with an increase in PAH body residue in haddock eggs and more severe malformations in
246 embryos (Sørensen et al., 2017).

247

248 The underlying mechanism causing this difference in oil droplet adhesion to cod and haddock eggs has
249 not been elucidated but may be related to variations in chemistry and/or morphology of the chorions
250 of the two species. SEM images of the chorion surface of cod and haddock eggs revealed significant
251 morphological differences, suggesting this may contribute to the observed variations in oil droplet
252 adhesion (Figure 3). The cod chorion was characterised by a rough surface comprised of long, densely
253 packed filaments (Figure 3A), while the haddock chorion appeared much smoother with low-density
254 distribution of nodules or filaments (Figure 3B). The haddock egg surface has been previously described
255 as a featureless thin surface coating (Morrison et al., 1999), consistent with the observations in the
256 current study.

257

258 It is suggested that this lack of features or filaments on haddock eggs may facilitate the adhesion of oil
259 droplets owing to an increased contact area between the droplet and the egg surface. The larger
260 filaments present on cod eggs suggest a significantly reduced contact area is available for droplets to
261 attach to the chorion surface than for haddock. Interestingly, pores were visible on both egg types, but
262 they are partly covered in cod eggs by the long filaments (Figure 3B). This may serve to protect cod

263 eggs against uptake of components from oil droplets, as the filaments increase the distance between
264 the droplet and the pore, while for haddock there is potential for direct contact between droplets and
265 pores. Furthermore, haddock eggs have an outer chorion membrane that is absent in cod eggs
266 (Fridgeirsson, 1978), and it is believed that this outer membrane changes or even disappears during
267 development of the embryo. As the current study was performed using eggs close to hatching, the
268 haddock may thus have a thinner chorion than cod. These changes in haddock chorion during
269 development have been shown to change the adhesion potential of oil droplets, with adhesion being
270 confined to in defined regions of the haddock chorion during late exposure (Sørensen et al., 2017;
271 Sørhus et al., 2015). This also suggests that chemical changes or differences in the surfaces of the two
272 egg types might also influence adhesion of oil droplets and requires further study to fully understand
273 the underlying mechanisms controlling oil droplet adhesion to fish eggs.

274

275 Both cod and haddock also displayed significantly lower oil mass association with eggs exposed to CD
276 compared to eggs exposed to MD (Figure 2). Previous work has confirmed that there is no difference
277 in the water soluble fraction of oil when the oil is chemically or mechanically dispersed at the same
278 droplet size and concentration (Sørensen et al., 2014). Therefore, any difference in body burden should
279 be directly related to the adhesion of droplets. Results from the current study suggest that
280 mechanically dispersed oil is more "sticky" than chemically dispersed oil, leading to increased
281 interaction with the chorion of fish eggs. This difference has previously been reported for the
282 interaction between mechanically and chemically dispersed oil droplets and inorganic particles
283 (Sørensen et al., 2014). Furthermore, a previous study has shown that differences in MD and CD oil
284 may influence toxicity of oil dispersions. First-feeding cod larvae were exposed to MD and CD oil at
285 comparable oil concentrations and droplet size ranges, the MD treatment elicited more significant
286 responses in acute toxicity, transcriptional responses and metabolic alterations relative to CD
287 exposures (Hansen et al., 2016). The differences in adhesion properties between CD and MD oil
288 droplets may also be explained by the surface properties of the droplets. For CD, the dispersant will

289 align on the surface of the droplet with a hydrophilic component interacting with the water and a
290 hydrophobic component interacting with the oil (NRC, 2005). This changes the interfacial tension and
291 possibly the electric charge of the droplets in the CD oil droplets compared to the MD droplets, and
292 this may cause differences in the interactions between oil droplets and chorion components (proteins,
293 glycoproteins, mucosaccharides and lipids). This topic is not covered in the present work and deserves
294 attention for future research.

295

296 **3. Conclusions**

297 Oil droplets adhere to the chorion of both haddock and cod eggs, indicating this may be a significant
298 exposure route for larger, apolar crude oil components ($\log K_{ow} > 6.0$) when released into the marine
299 environment. Adhesion of droplets is more significant for haddock eggs relative to cod eggs, and may
300 be facilitated by morphological differences of the surfaces between the two egg types. MD oil droplets
301 were observed to adhere more frequently to eggs of both species than CD oil droplets, suggesting the
302 use of chemical dispersants under oil spill scenarios may help to reduce adhesion and certain
303 toxicological effects. A knowledge of fish egg morphology may be useful when undertaking risk
304 assessments of oil production or transport in marine regions known to be spawning grounds for
305 specific commercial fish species. Future research should focus on understanding the underlying
306 physicochemical mechanisms (membrane chemistry and morphology) controlling the adhesion of oil
307 droplets to fish eggs, as well as detailed understanding of the surface chemistry of oil droplets
308 with/without dispersant. Finally, dechorionizing eggs followed by extraction and PAH analyses of the
309 embryos may provide evidence of droplet-enhanced uptake of heavy oil components.

310

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314

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407 **Figure legends**

408

409 Figure 1: Example of egg imaged in bright field (A) and fluorescence (B) using microscopy. Oil droplets
410 are barely visible in bright field, but they show yellow-green stain using fluorescence. The example
411 shows oil droplets adhered to the chorion of a cod egg exposed to mechanically dispersed (MD) crude
412 oil. Inside the egg, the head of the cod embryo is displayed.

413

414 Figure 2: Estimated mass of oil adhered onto cod (COD) and haddock (HAD) eggs (in mg oil/g egg) after
415 24 h exposure to mechanically dispersed (MD) and chemically dispersed (CD) oil. Letters display
416 significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among treatments (mean \pm STDEV, N=4 and each replicate consists of
417 13 components each using the whole data set in Two-way ANOVA analysis).

418

419 Figure 3: Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) of haddock (A) and cod (B) chorion after Karnovsky
420 fixation. The cod image was taken at 20 000x magnification, and the haddock was taken at 14 000x
421 magnification. The white bars indicate 3 μm .

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