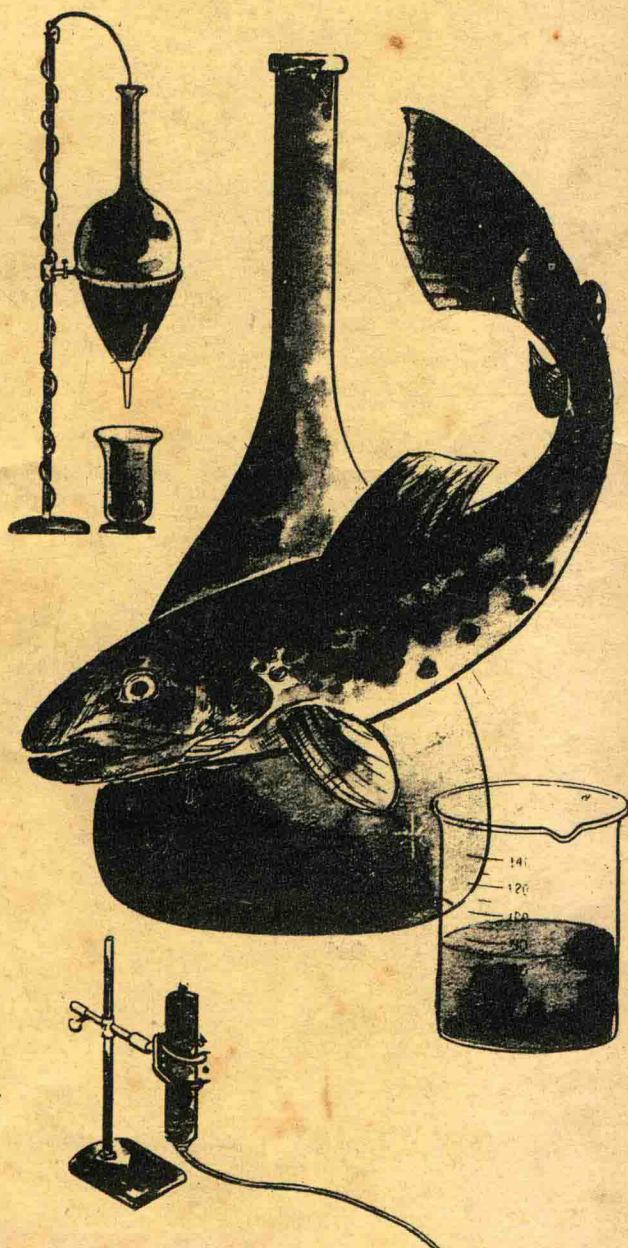


A CONTINUOUS FLOW KINETIC MODEL TO PREDICT THE EFFECTS OF TEMPERATURE ON THE TOXICITY OF WASTE TO ALGAE

James H. Reynolds
E. Joe Middlebrooks
Donald B. Porcella
William J. Grenney



PRWGI05-3

Utah Water Research Laboratory
College of Engineering
Utah State University
Logan, Utah 84322

June 1974

**A CONTINUOUS FLOW KINETIC MODEL TO PREDICT THE EFFECTS
OF TEMPERATURE ON THE TOXICITY OF WASTE TO ALGAE**

by

James H. Reynolds
E. Joe Middlebrooks
Donald B. Porcella
William J. Grenney

The work reported by this project completion report, the third of four reports, was supported in part with funds provided by the Department of the Interior, Office of Water Resources Research under P.L. 88-379, Project Number B-070-Utah, Agreement Number 14-01-0001-3659, Investigation Period - July 1, 1971, to October 31, 1973.

Utah Water Research Laboratory
College of Engineering
Utah State University
Logan, Utah 84322

June 1974

PRWG105-3

ABSTRACT

A continuous flow kinetic model to describe and predict the effects of temperature on the toxicity of a specific oil refinery waste to the green alga, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, is developed. The model is based on enzyme inhibition kinetics and is developed using semi-continuous flow and continuous flow algal cultures grown between 20°C (68°F) and 33°C (91°F). Phenol is employed as the controlling inhibitor or toxicant. The model is applied to continuous flow algal cultures exposed to an actual oil refinery waste.

In addition, the maximum specific growth rates, $\hat{\mu}$, the half saturation constants, K_s , and the nutrient utilization constants, K_A and K_B , for two luxury uptake functions are determined for the alga, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, growing in an ammonium-nitrogen limited environment between 20°C (68°F) and 33°C (91°F).

Results indicate that phenol and the oil refinery waste studied exert competitive inhibition of *Selenastrum capricornutum*, and that phenol is more toxic at 24°C (75°F) than at either 20°C (68°F) or 28°C (82°F). In addition, the maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, has a maximum value between 24°C (75°F) and 27°C (81°F). Also, the ammonium-nitrogen half saturation constant, K_s , does not vary with temperature between 20°C (68°F) and 33°C (91°F). The variation of the nutrient utilization constants, K_A and K_B , for the luxury uptake functions is similar to the variation of the maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, for the temperature range studied.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by Predoctoral Fellowship Number U910073 granted by the Environmental Protection Agency and by funds provided by the Department of the Interior, Office of Water Resources Research under P.L. 88-379, Project Number B-070-Utah, Agreement Number 14-01-0001-3659 with matching funds provided by the Utah Water Research Laboratory, Logan, Utah.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I INTRODUCTION	1
Nature of the Problem	1
Scope of the Study	1
Objectives	1
Significance	2
II LITERATURE REVIEW	3
Temperature and Toxicity	3
Oil Refinery Wastes	3
General characteristics	3
Oil refinery waste toxicity	4
Phenol Toxicity	5
Toxicity to algae	5
Biochemical mechanism	5
Luxury Uptake	5
III THEORY	7
Inhibition Models	7
General	7
Chemostat kinetics	7
Inhibition kinetics	8
Use of inhibition models	9
Luxury Uptake	10
Luxury Uptake, Chemostat Kinetics, and Inhibition Kinetics	12
IV EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES	15
General	15
Semi-Continuous Flow Cultures	15
Continuous Flow Culture Experiments	17
Oil Refinery Waste	17
Data Analysis	17
V RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	19
Preliminary Studies	19
Buffer experiments	19
Temperature tolerance experiments	20
Phenol tolerance experiments	21

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Chapter	Page
Semi-Continuous Flow Culture Experiments	22
General	22
Linear regression analysis	22
Nonlinear regression analysis	24
Continuous Flow Culture Experiments	24
General	24
Phase I: Luxury uptake	25
Phase II: Kinetic growth constants	27
Phase III: Continuous flow phenol inhibition	34
Phase IV: Oil refinery waste toxicity	42
VI EVALUATION	47
Phenol and Temperature Tolerance of <i>Selenastrum Capricornutum</i>	47
Temperature tolerance	47
Phenol tolerance	47
Luxury Uptake	47
Kinetic Constants, $\hat{\mu}$ and K_s	48
Half saturation constants, K_s	48
Maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$	48
Inhibition	49
Phenol inhibition	49
Competitive inhibition	49
VII SUMMARY	51
VIII CONCLUSIONS	53
IX RECOMMENDATIONS	55
LITERATURE CITED	57
APPENDIXES	61
Appendix A: Symbols and Notation	63
Appendix B: Preliminary Studies	64
Appendix C: Luxury Uptake Data	68
Appendix D: Continuous Flow Kinetic Data Without Toxicant	79
Appendix E: Continuous Flow Kinetic Data with Toxicant	95
Appendix F: Figures of Continuous Flow Kinetic Data	101
Appendix G: Computer Program for Linear Regression Analysis Fortran IV Program for Linear Regression Analysis for Burroughs 6700 Computer	110

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1 Linear plot of cell concentration, X_I , vs. inhibitor, I , for competitive inhibition	9
2 The two step nutrient utilization process postulated by Toerien et al. (83)	10
3 Definition sketch for a specific nutrient supply, uptake and utilization for growth in a chemostat at steady state (Toerien et al. (83))	11
4 Flow diagram of oil refinery waste system and location of sample point from which oil refinery waste was obtained (56)	18
5 Variation in pH of semi-continuous cultures with various glycylglycine buffer concentrations ($N = 1.05 \text{ mg/l}$)	19
6 Optical density of semi-continuous cultures with various glycylglycine buffer concentrations ($N = 1.05 \text{ mg/l}$)	20
7 Variation in pH of semi-continuous cultures with various phosphate buffer concentrations ($N = 1.05 \text{ mg/l}$)	20
8 Optical density of semi-continuous cultures with various phosphate buffer concentrations ($N = 1.05 \text{ mg/l}$)	21
9 Cell concentration vs. phenol concentration for semi-continuous cultures at 20°C for the competitive inhibition model, using linear regression and nonlinear regression analysis	22
10 Cell concentration vs. phenol concentration for semi-continuous cultures at 24°C for the competitive inhibition model, using linear regression and nonlinear regression analysis	23
11 Cell concentration vs. phenol concentration for semi-continuous cultures at 28°C for the competitive inhibition model, using linear regression and nonlinear regression analysis	23
12 Net cell yield coefficient as a function of mean cell age, θ , at 20°C	27
13 Net cell yield coefficient as a function of mean cell age, θ , at 24°C	27
14 Net cell yield coefficient as a function of mean cell age, θ , at 27°C	28
15 Net cell yield coefficient as a function of mean cell age, θ , at 28°C	28
16 Net cell yield coefficient as a function of mean cell age, θ , at 33°C	30
17 Comparison of nutrient removal velocity, q , and specific growth rate, μ , at 24°C	30
18 Fraction of "excess" ammonium-nitrogen uptake as a function of hydraulic residence time, θ , at 24°C	31

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

Figure	Page
19 Michaelis-Menten (Monod) kinetic model variation with temperature	32
20 Comparison of linear transformation of Michaelis-Menten (Monod) equation, $S_1 = (S_1/\mu) \hat{\mu} K_s$	34
21 Steady state cell concentration, X_1 , as a function of residence time, θ , with a varying yield coefficient at 20°C	35
22 Steady state cell concentration, X_1 , as a function of residence time, θ , with a varying yield coefficient at 24°C	35
23 Steady state cell concentration, X_1 , as a function of residence time, θ , with a varying yield coefficient at 27°C	36
24 Steady state cell concentration, X_1 , as a function of residence time, θ , with a varying coefficient at 28°C	36
25 Steady state cell concentration, X_1 , as a function of residence time, θ , with a varying yield coefficient at 33°C	36
26 Nonlinear 'A Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 20°C (Equation 36)	38
27 Nonlinear 'A Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 24°C (Equation 37)	40
28 Nonlinear 'A Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 28°C (Equation 36)	40
29 Nonlinear 'B Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 20°C (Equation 37)	41
30 Nonlinear 'B Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 24°C (Equation 37)	41
31 Nonlinear 'B Form' of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 28°C (Equation 37)	42
32 Linear form of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 20°C (Equation 17)	42
33 Linear form of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) for continuous flow data at 24°C (Equation 17)	44
34 Linear form of competitive inhibition equation (X_1 vs. I) of continuous flow data at 28°C (Equation 17)	44

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Summary of oil refinery waste characteristics	4
2 Toxicants commonly found in oil refinery waste	4
3 A summary of luxury uptake equations developed by Toerien et al. (83)	12
4 Macronutrient composition of modified PAAP medium	16
5 Micronutrient composition of modified PAAP medium	16
6 Analysis of oil refinery waste used in this study	17
7 Batch culture optical density at 36°C, 37°C, 38°C, and 40°C	21
8 Steady state optical density and pH of semi-continuous cultures at various temperatures with a 3 day residence time	21
9 Cell concentration for semi-continuous experiments	22
10 Semi-continuous culture linear regression analysis for the competitive (X_1 vs. I) model using K_s and μ determined from continuous culture experiment	23
11 Competitive inhibition constants, K_I , obtained from linear regression analyses, and nonlinear regression analysis of the semi-continuous flow data using kinetic constants developed from continuous flow data	24
12 Results of nonlinear regression analysis of semi-continuous data using the competitive inhibition model and kinetic constants, μ , and K_s , obtained from continuous flow data	24
13 Variation in maximum yield coefficient with temperature and a comparison of nonlinear regression analyses of Equation 27, $Y_n = Y_{\max} (1 - e^{-\theta/K_A})$, with Equation 28 $Y_n = Y_{\max} (\theta / (\theta + K_B))$ for the continuous flow data	26
14 Comparison of nonlinear fit of Equations 31 and 32 to nutrient removal velocity, q , and fraction of excess uptake, F_e , with continuous flow data	26
15 Values for maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, and half saturation constants, K_s , developed from linear and nonlinear analysis of Michaelis-Menten (Monod) equation for ammonium-nitrogen limitation of continuous cultures	29
16 Comparison of kinetic constants obtained from various linear transformation of the Michaelis-Menten (Monod) equation	33
17 Correlation coefficients developed from luxury uptake kinetic growth equation with maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, and half saturation constant, K_s , developed from nonluxury uptake form of Michaelis-Menten (Monod) equation	34
18 Continuous flow steady state data with toxicant at 20°C	35

LIST OF TABLES (Continued)

Table	Page
19 Continuous flow steady state data with toxicant at 24°C	37
20 Continuous flow steady state dat with toxicant at 28°C	37
21 Linear regression equations developed to convert cell number to cell mass for <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i>	38
22 Comparison of nonlinear correlation coefficients for competitive, uncompetitive, and noncompetitive inhibition models for continuous flow culture data using luxury uptake inhibition equations	39
23 Comparison of competitive inhibition and bacteria utilization constants developed from nonlinear regression analysis of continuous flow culture data using Equations 36 and 37	39
24 Linear regression analysis of continuous flow data using the linear competitive inhibition equation (Equation 17)	43
25 Comparison of continuous flow culture competitive inhibition constants, K_I , from linear regression (Equation 17) and nonlinear regression analysis (Equations 38 and 39)	43
26 Results of continuous flow experiment with oil-refinery waste	45
27 Summary of competitive inhibition constants, K_I , from semi-continuous and continuous cultures	50
28 Summary of the competitive inhibition constants, K_I , and bacteria utilization constant, K_e , associated with phenol and oil refinery waste toxicity of <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i> in Equation 36	51
29 Most probable maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, ammonium-nitrogen half saturation constants, K_s , and the nutrient utilization constants, K_A for <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i>	52

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Nature of the Problem

The combination of thermal enrichment and toxic waste discharges is a problem affecting many sections of the environment. Thermal enrichment is the discharge of waste heat to a natural water system. It is often referred to as thermal pollution. Toxic wastes are generated and discharged by all phases of industrial, municipal, and agricultural life. Frequently, toxic wastes are discharged in combination with or adjacent to thermal discharges. In addition, toxic wastes may be discharged at elevated temperatures.

Toxic wastes have been discharged for many decades; however, thermal pollution or discharge of waste heat is of a more recent era (29, 49, 68, 69). Industrial effluents, municipal discharges, electrical power generating facility effluents, and even agricultural runoff, tend to increase the temperature of natural water systems; and all of these wastes may contain toxic substances. Electrical power generating facilities, the major source of thermal pollution (29, 49, 51), are expected to increase, their present level of production six times by the year 2000 (87). This unprecedented increase in electrical power production will undoubtedly increase the present level of thermal pollution and will place an additional burden on natural water systems presently receiving toxic wastes.

In addition, many industries such as pulp and paper mills, tanneries, and oil refineries, discharge toxic wastes at extremely high temperatures (30, 58, 63). In essence, they combine toxic wastes and thermal pollution into one waste stream. For instance, a typical oil refinery waste (58) may be discharged at temperatures ranging from 20°C (68°F) to 41°C (106°F). These high temperatures may have a significant effect on the toxicity of a particular waste. The interaction between temperature and toxicity could substantially affect biological treatment efficiency and the assimilative capacity of a receiving stream.

The relationship between temperature and toxicity has not been extensively investigated. Therefore, it is essential that the effects of temperature on the toxicity of various wastes be evaluated, and that mathematical relationships be developed which will describe and predict these effects.

Scope of the Study

In this study a continuous flow kinetic model to describe and predict the effects of temperature on the toxicity of a specific oil refinery waste to a green alga, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, was developed. The model was based on enzyme inhibition kinetics and was developed using semi-continuous and continuous flow algal cultures grown between 20°C (68°F) and 33°C (91°F). Phenol was employed as the controlling inhibitor or toxicant. The model was applied to continuous flow algal cultures exposed to an actual oil refinery waste. In addition, the maximum specific growth rates, $\hat{\mu}$, the half saturation constants, K_s , and the nutrient utilization constants, K_A and K_B , for the luxury uptake functions developed by Toerien et al. (83) were determined for *Selenastrum capricornutum* growing in an ammonium-nitrogen limited environment over the temperature range studied.

Algae were selected as the test organism because: 1) they are the basis for the aquatic food chain and thus are the principal food source for larger aquatic organisms, and 2) they are the primary organism involved in the lagoon treatment of toxic wastes. Thus, interactions between temperature and toxicity which affect algae will affect the total aquatic food chain and also will interfere with certain waste treatment unit operations. In addition, this particular algal species, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, was selected as the test organism, because it has been specified by the Environmental Protection Agency for use in bioassays (26).

Objectives

The general objective of this study was to develop a mathematical model to predict the effects of temperature on the toxicity of oil refinery waste to algae.

To satisfy the above general objective the following specific objectives were undertaken:

- To determine an acceptable temperature range for conducting the experiment.
- To determine an acceptable toxicant concentration range for conducting the experiment.
- To determine the maximum specific growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, and the half saturation constant, K_s , for *Selenastrum capricornutum* in an

ammonium-nitrogen limited environment over the temperature range studied.

- d) To apply the luxury uptake function developed by Toerien et al. (83) to an ammonium-nitrogen limited environment and determine the luxury uptake constants over the temperature range studied.
- e) To develop an enzyme inhibition model to describe phenol toxicity to *Selenastrum capricornutum* over the temperature range studied.
- f) To apply the enzyme inhibition model developed to an actual oil refinery waste.

Significance

Many lakes, rivers, streams, and estuaries receive both toxic wastes and heated effluents. In addition, as the number of power generating facilities increase, more and

more natural water systems will be receiving both heated and toxic wastes. Also, society's demands for more and better products will increase the amount of heated, toxic wastes discharged to the environment. Thus, the effects of temperature on the toxicity of wastes must be defined.

Many studies have been conducted to determine the effects of elevated temperatures on various organisms (10, 13, 21, 25, 68, 90), and several investigators have determined the toxicity of many compounds to various organisms (23, 25, 32, 33, 60). However, very few studies have been made to determine and understand the effects of elevated temperature on the toxicity of compounds to various organisms. This study was designed to provide basic information about the complex relationship between temperature and toxicity of oil refinery wastes to algae. It also provides a basic mathematical model for describing the overall temperature-toxicity relationship.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Temperature and Toxicity

The effects of temperature on microorganisms were investigated as early as 1890 (69). Since that time many studies and reviews of the literature related to the effects of temperature on living organisms have been conducted (10, 13, 23, 25, 62, 68, 90). Unfortunately the lack of a standard bioassay procedure, nomenclature for reporting results and the sheer mass of detailed information have made comparison of these various studies virtually impossible (62, 69). In addition, most of these studies were carried out to determine temperature effects alone and do not provide information concerning the relationship between temperature and toxicity.

Recent investigators have indicated that the effect of temperature on the growth of microorganisms may be represented by the traditional Arrhenius equation. Verma and Nepal (86) used the Arrhenius equation to explain the change in growth rate of a bacteria population developed from raw sewage. Their experiments were conducted with batch cultures grown between 20°C (68°F) and 37°C (99°F). Goldman (39) gathered data from the literature on the growth rates of several green algal species and developed an Arrhenius type equation to explain the variation of algal growth rate with temperature. However, his equation does not account for the decline in growth rate of several algal species as the increase in temperature approaches their maximum specific temperature limit. Rye and Mateles (76) have reported that the use of the Arrhenius equation in connection with microorganisms is only valid within a narrow specific temperature range.

As with the effects of temperature on microorganisms, many excellent reviews and papers have been published to describe the toxicity of various compounds to microorganisms (16, 23, 25, 32, 33, 60, 62, 69). The most noteworthy of these is the monumental work of McKee and Wolf (60) which contains over 3800 references. However, the literature is lacking in specific studies that relate to toxicity and temperature.

De Silva (21) has attempted to summarize the available data on the combined effects of temperature and toxic materials to fish. He indicated that, in general, toxicity is increased with increasing temperature. Angelovic, Sigler, and Neuhold (5) have reported that the lethal

concentration (LC₅₀) of fluorides decreases with an increase in temperature. A decrease in the LC₅₀ indicates an increase in the level of toxicity. Pickering and Henderson (70) have reported that the toxicity of zinc to fathead minnows increases with increases in temperature.

Brown, Jordan, and Tiller (12) reported that the resistance of rainbow trout to phenol poisoning increased with increases in temperature; thus, indicating a decrease in toxicity with increasing temperatures. McClean (61) reported that the toxicity of chlorine to a barnacle larvae and a copepod was unaffected by increases in temperature.

More recently, a review of over 1200 references on temperature and toxicity published by Middlebrooks et al. (62) indicated that the effects of temperature on the toxicity of various compounds varies in accordance with the specific toxic substance and the species tested. They also suggested that future toxicity bioassays be designed to identify the temperature-toxicity relationship and that a standard bioassay procedure be utilized to allow comparison of results.

Oil Refinery Wastes

General characteristics

Oil refinery wastes are heterogenous toxicants and their composition is extremely variable. Therefore, it is impossible to completely and accurately describe or characterize a typical effluent. The characteristics of specific waste discharges for a particular refinery have often appeared in the literature (2, 20, 24, 25, 30, 34, 38, 40, 51, 57, 58, 85). The most common characteristics of oil refinery wastes have been summarized in Table 1. However, the values in Table 1 should not be considered as representing a typical oil refinery waste; rather, they should be viewed as a range of values often encountered with oil refinery discharges. The character of a specific oil refinery waste will depend on the nature of the crude oil being processed, the type of product produced, the type of refinery process employed, and the efficiency of the refinery operation.

Many of the toxic components in an oil refinery waste, even if present in sublethal concentrations, may damage aquatic organisms because of toxicity due to

synergistic effects of several interacting components (16). Similarly, the presence of multiple toxicants, even if present at lethal concentrations, may not exhibit the expected toxic effect because of antagonistic non-toxic effects between interacting compounds. The concentration ranges of several toxicants often found in oil refinery wastes are shown in Table 2. It should be pointed out that Table 2 is not inclusive and that a specific oil refinery waste may contain other toxicants and other concentrations of toxicants; but these are the most typical.

Oil refinery waste toxicity

Investigations of oil refinery waste toxicity are not widely publicized. Case studies which are available deal with a specific oil refinery waste and location; therefore, it is difficult to extrapolate results into generalizations. For instance, Douglas and Irwin (25) have evaluated the relative resistance of 16 species of fish to a specific petroleum refinery waste. Their results do not reveal the relative toxicity of the waste; but rather, they suggest the

Table 1: Summary of oil refinery waste characteristics.

Parameter	Range		Reference No.
	Min	Max	
Temperature °C	22	41	58
pH	6.2	10.6	1,40,58
BOD ₅ mg/l	17.0	280	1,40,85
COD mg/l	140	3,340	1,34,38,40,58,85
Sulfides mg/l	0.0	38	1,40,58,85
Phenol mg/l	0.3	154	1,40,56,58,85
Hardness as CaCO ₃ mg/l	139	510	58,85
Alkalinity as CaCO ₃ mg/l	77	356	1,40,58,85
Oil mg/l	23	200	1,85
Phosphorus mg/l	0.0	97	1,58,85
NH ₃ mg/l as N	0.0	120	1,38,40,58,85
Chlorides mg/l	19	1,080	1,38,58,85
Sulfates mg/l	0.0	182	85

Table 2. Toxicants commonly found in oil refinery waste.

Toxicant	Ave. Conc. mg/l	Threshold	Ref.
		Toxicity (mg/l) <u>Scenedesmus</u> (60)	
Cadmium	0.04	0.10	65
Chromium	0.28	0.70	65
Copper	0.07	0.15	65
Lead	0.23	2.50	65
Nickel	0.11	1.50	65
Phenol	154.00	40.00	56
Sulfides	24.00	4.0 ^a	56
Zinc	0.17	1.0	65

^aFor H₂S.

type of test organism to be utilized in toxicity bioassays. Turnbull et al. (85) reported the 24-hour TL_m (medium tolerance level) of the bluegill sunfish, *Lepomis macrochirus*, to a composite oil refinery waste in terms of a dilution ratio, rather than by the concentration of specific toxicants present in the waste. They reported the 24-hour TL_m to be a 20 percent dilution by volume at 24°C. Graham and Dorris (40) have reported that a 4 to 1 dilution of a particular oil refinery waste in Oklahoma caused chronic toxicity of fathead minnows, *Pimephales promelas*. Again no specific relationship between toxic substances and toxicity was determined. Clemens and Clough (18) attempted to correlate the sulfide concentration and the phenolic concentration of a specific oil refinery waste to the medium lethal dosage (LD_{50}) for fish. No correlation was found between the LD_{50} and the sulfide concentration of the oil refinery waste. However, correlations were found between the LD_{50} and the phenolic concentration in the oil refinery wastes. The phenolic LD_{50} 's reported in terms of dilution volume for *Carassius sp.*, *Notropis sp.*, and *Daphnia sp.* were: 33.1 percent, 18.8 percent, and 15.5 percent respectively.

Specific studies to determine the toxicity of oil refinery wastes to algae could not be found in the literature. However, the threshold toxicity levels for some of the common toxicants in oil refinery were found. The threshold level for *Scenedesmus* for some of these common toxicants is shown in Table 2. It is apparent that for the toxicants listed in Table 2 phenol and sulfides are most often present in toxic concentrations. Thus, phenol and sulfides often control the toxicity of oil refinery wastes.

Sulfides are often present in oil refinery wastes as hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), and are therefore often lost from the waste stream during transport and discharge. Also sulfides are readily removed by various treatment methods, e.g. aeration. Phenol, however, is seldom removed during transport or discharge and is somewhat difficult to treat biologically or chemically. Often it remains in solution and is discharged to a natural water system. Therefore it is likely that phenol is the controlling toxicant in a significant number of oil refinery waste discharges.

Phenol Toxicity

Toxicity to algae

A phenol concentration of 40 mg/l has been reported by McKee and Wolf (60) and Bringmann and Kuhn (11) to cause threshold toxic effects on the alga *Scenedesmus sp.* Kostyaev (48) reported that phenol concentrations from 10 to 40 mg/l stimulated the growth of *Scenedesmus acuminatus*, but concentrations of phenol greater than 50 mg/l retarded the growth rate. He also found that phenol concentrations greater than 500 mg/l prevented growth altogether.

Phenol concentrations less than 40 mg/l have also stimulated the photosynthesis of *Chlorella sp.*, while phenol concentrations greater than 750 mg/l have prevented photosynthesis (50), and concentrations greater than 500 mg/l have only retarded the photosynthetic activity (52). Huang and Gloyna (45) have shown that phenol destroys the chlorophyll in *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*. Also, lethal protoplasmic changes in the alga *Ulothrix tenerrima* have been caused by a 5 percent (50 g/l) phenol solution (17).

Biochemical mechanism

The exact mechanism of phenol toxicity is not clearly understood. It has been suggested by Berry and Parkinson (7) that phenol toxicity in bacteria is influenced by variations in temperature. Tibor (82) reported that phenol may not inhibit a single biochemical process, but that it exerts a nonspecific denaturing action on the cell wall. Tomcsik (84) reported that phenol denatures the cytoplasmic membrane in *Bacillus megatherium*. Experiments with phenol and *Escherichia coli* reported by Commager and Judis (19) indicated that the lethal action of phenol is due to effects on cell permeability.

Phenol has been shown to be a competitive inhibitor in experiments with pure enzymes. Kaplan and Laidler (47) and Martinek, Levashov, and Berezin (59) reported that phenol exhibits competitive inhibition with α -chymotrypsin. Stockdale and Selwyn (80) showed that phenol inhibition of lactate dehydrogenase and hexokinase was the competitive type. Wedding, Hansch, and Fukuto (88) reported that phenol was a competitive inhibitor with NAD in the forward direction of the malate dehydrogenase reaction.

In studies with *Staphylococcus bacteria*, phenol has been shown to inhibit the enzymes concerned with oxidation-reduction reactions (37). Phenol has also been shown to inhibit the biosynthesis of catalase in *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli* (37, 44). Enzymatic activity in the bowel of rainbow trout is also reduced by phenol (7, 74).

The effects of phenol on pure enzyme systems have been reported often in the literature; however, the kinetics of phenol toxicity or inhibition of living organisms is quite rare. Very little work has been reported concerning the kinetics of phenol toxicity in algae. However, it is possible that enzyme inhibition kinetics may be applied to algal systems.

Luxury Uptake

Luxury uptake or "excess uptake" of nutrients is a phenomenon which occurs when the rate of nutrient uptake from solution by the organism exceeds the rate at which the nutrient is utilized by the organism for growth or production of cell mass. This phenomenon has been

reported in the literature by several investigators in connection with several algal species (8, 14, 15, 27, 36, 42, 72, 83). In most cases, these algal species were cultured in either a nitrogen or phosphorus limited environment. Caperon and Meyer (14) investigated the steady state growth kinetics of four species of marine phytoplankton in both nitrate and ammonium limited cultures. Luxury uptake occurred in the nitrate limited cultures, but ammonium limited cultures did not exhibit luxury uptake. The luxury uptake of nitrate by marine diatoms has been reported by Epply and Thomas (27).

Porcella et al. (72) reported that the green alga, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, exhibited excess uptake of phosphorus and nitrogen under various initial ratios of nitrate-nitrogen to phosphorus in the culture media. Also,

Toerien et al. (83) have reported luxury uptake of phosphorus by *Selenastrum capricornutum*.

Several mathematical models have been developed which incorporate the phenomenon of luxury uptake (8, 36, 42, 83). Grenney, Bella, and Curl (42) have developed a three-compartment model which describes phytoplankton growth in a nitrogen limited environment. Their model is based on the intracellular nitrogen concentration. Bierman, Verhoff, Poulson, and Tenney (8), have developed a multi-nutrient dynamic model which describes the luxury uptake of phosphorus in eutrophic environments. Toerien et al. (83) investigated the luxury uptake of phosphorus by the green alga, *Selenastrum capricornutum*, and they developed a mathematical model, based on Michaelis-Menten (Monod) kinetics, which describes the luxury uptake process. This model will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter III: Theory.

CHAPTER III

THEORY

Inhibition Models

General

The toxic mechanisms which inhibit the growth of microorganisms are not fully understood. Most previous investigators have adopted Michaelis-Menten enzyme inhibition kinetics to describe the inhibition of microorganisms. Although this approach is lacking in theory, it should be pointed out that the Monod relationship (64), which describes the growth of microorganisms in a nutrient limited environment, is similar in form to the Michaelis-Menten equation, which describes the kinetics of enzymatic reactions (22, 89).

Andrews (3, 4) has employed inhibition kinetics to describe the dynamic behavior in anaerobic digestion of sewage sludge. Zines and Rogers (91) described product inhibition of *Klebsiella (Aerobacter) aerogenes* in continuous culture with ethanol being used as the toxicant. Hartman and Laubenberger (43) employed Michaelis-Menten enzyme inhibition kinetics to describe the toxicity of copper and hexavalent chrome to a population of activated sludge bacteria. More recently, Poon and Bhayahi (71) have used Michaelis-Menten enzyme inhibition kinetics to describe the toxicity of silver and nickel to an activated sludge bacteria population and to the bacterium *Geotrichum candidum*.

Because phenol (a toxicant in oil refinery waste) has been shown to inhibit both pure enzymes and enzymes in living organisms, and also, because Michaelis-Menten enzyme inhibition kinetics have been successfully applied by previous investigators to the inhibition of microorganism growth, Michaelis-Menten enzyme inhibition kinetics will be employed in this study to describe the inhibition of growth by algae which have been exposed to oil refinery waste. Phenol does not control the toxicity in all oil refinery wastes; however, it is felt that phenol does control toxicity in a sufficient number of cases to make this study significant.

Chemostat kinetics

The continuous flow system used in this study is defined as a continuous flow stirred tank reactor or chemostat. The functional relationships which define a

chemostat have been presented in detail by previous authors (39, 74, 83) and will not be emphasized here. The following basic equations describing chemostat performance will be modified to include the effects of toxicants. The nomenclature of the equations is based on the "Unified Fundamental Symbols for Continuous Cultivation of Microorganisms" developed at the Second Symposium on Continuous Cultivation of Microorganisms held in Prague in 1962 (55). The expressions presented below for the cell concentrations in the chemostat (X_1), the limiting nutrient or substrate concentration (S_1) in the effluent, and the specific growth rate (μ) were developed from material balances for the chemostat.

$$X_1 = \frac{Y}{\mu \theta} (S_0 - S_1) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$S_1 = \frac{K_s \left(\frac{1}{\theta} + k_d \right)}{\hat{\mu} - \left(\frac{1}{\theta} + k_d \right)} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{\theta} + k_d \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

in which

- Y = net cell yield coefficient, or mass of organisms formed per mass of substrate used
- μ = specific growth rate, time⁻¹
- θ = mean residence time = V/F
- V = volume of chemostat
- F = flow rate, volume/time
- S_0 = initial substrate concentration, mass/volume
- S_1 = steady state substrate concentration, mass/volume
- K_s = half saturation constant, concentration of substrate at which the growth rate is 1/2 of the maximum growth rate, $\hat{\mu}$, mass/volume
- $\hat{\mu}$ = maximum specific growth rate, time⁻¹
- k_d = specific cellular decay rate, time⁻¹
- X_1 = steady state cell concentration, mass/volume