Hunn, J. B., and J. L. Allen, 1974. Movement of drugs across the gills of fishes. Ann. Rev. Pharmacol. 14:1-27.

Klontz, G. W., and L. S. Smith. 1968. Methods of using fish as biological research subjects. Pages 323-385 in W. I. Gay, ed. Methods of animal experimentation, Vol. 3. The Academic Press, Inc., New York.

Kobayashi, K., and N. Nakamura. 1979. Isolation and identification of a conjugated PCP excreted in the urine of goldfish. Bull. Jpn. Soc. Sci. Fish. 45(8):1001–1003.

McKim, J. M., and H. M. Goeden. In press. A direct measure of the uptake efficiency of a xenobiotic chemical across the gills of brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. J. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. (Part C).

Meyerhoff, R. D. 1980. Exercise and acid-base balance in rainbow trout. Ph.D. thesis, Oregon State University, Corvallis.

Randall, D. J., and W. S. Hoar, 1971. Special techniques.

Pages 511-528 in W. S. Hoar and D. J. Randall, eds. Fish physiology, Vol. VI. The Academic Press, Inc., New York

Schmidt, D. C., and L. J. Weber. 1973. Metabolism and biliary excretion of sulfobromophthalein by rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*). J. Fish. Res. Board Can. 30(9):1301-1308.

Schmidt, E. J., and R. A. Kimerle. 1981. New design and use of a fish metabolism chamber. Pages 436-448 in D. R. Branson and K. L. Dickson, eds. Proc. 4th Conf. Aquatic Toxicology and Hazard Assessment, ASTM STP 737.

Smith, L. S., and G. R. Bell. 1967. Anesthetic and surgical techniques for Pacific salmon. J. Fish. Res. Board Can. 24(7):1579–1587.

Accepted 14 December 1981

Toxicity of Rotenone to Selected Aquatic Invertebrates and Frog Larvae

More than 60 species of plants containing rotenone have been used for centuries by natives of the tropics for stunning and killing fish. Rotenone is relatively harmless to plants and mammals at normal use pattern concentrations, but is extremely toxic to many insects and other invertebrates. It appears to act through respiratory enzyme inhibition, and kills by oxygen deprivation (Metcalf and Flint 1962). Binns (1967) reported that nearly all phyla of aquatic invertebrates present in the Green River, Wyoming, were adversely affected by an application of rotenone that ranged from 2.5 to 10.0 mg/L. Almquist (1959) stated that most zooplankters and many benthic animals were killed by exposure to the 0.5- to 0.6-mg/L concentration normally used to eradicate fish in water reclamation projects. Chironomid larvae were killed by this concentration after 23 h of exposure; 1.0 mg/L killed some species of trichopteran larvae in 5 h. Bottom-dwelling organisms and periphytic cladocerans were more resistant to rotenone, and higher concentrations and longer exposures were required to produce mortalities equivalent to those in other aquatic forms. Schnick (1974) reviewed the piscicidal uses of rotenone and included invertebrate toxicity data.

Although much information exists relating to the effects of rotenone exposure on aquatic invertebrates, many of the data used to support the original registration must be updated to conform to present labeling requirements (Lennon 1967). Marking (1975) proposed

a guide or protocol for this type of registration research. The present study is part of a series of investigations designed to determine the toxicity of Noxfish to aquatic nontarget organisms in support of its continued registration as a piscicidal chemical.

Noxfish, an emulsifiable concentrate containing 5% rotenone, was used for all of the toxicity tests. Stock solutions were prepared in acetone daily as needed. The volume of stock needed to yield a particular concentration was added volumetrically to each of the test vessels.

Static tests were performed in a manner similar to that outlined by Lennon and Walker (1964) and the Committee on Methods for Toxicity Tests with Aquatic Organisms (1975). Most of the test organisms were collected from the wild, but Daphnia, Catenula, Physa, Helisoma, and Palaemonetes came from laboratory or pond cultures. All organisms were held under laboratory conditions for periods of 5 to 14 days before being used for exposures. Ten organisms were added to each of a series of 3.7-L (1-gal) glass jars (test vessels) containing 3 L of limed water (20 mg/L total hardness; pH 6.6). Test organisms were acclimated to their new surroundings for 16 h. As the toxicant was added, the test solutions were stirred gently to ensure homogeneity. Two controls, one with acetone and another with untreated water, were included for each of the tests. Temperature of the test solutions was controlled at 16 ± 1°C by immersing the jars in a

chilled water bath. The absolute determination of death for mollusks was difficult. They were considered dead when a gentle probing of the foot or other appendage with a sharp instrument elicited no response. Dead organisms were removed daily and discarded.

The method of Litchfield and Wilcoxon (1949) was used to derive LC50's (the calculated concentration in water that produced 50% mortality of test organisms) and 95% confidence intervals.

Of the invertebrates in our study the most sensitive species was an ostracod (Cypridopsis sp.), with a 96-h LC50 of only 0.34 mg/L (Table I). The other invertebrates were more tolerant of rotenone than most fish. The most resistant organisms exposed were a snail (Helisoma sp.) and the Asiatic clam (Corbicula manilensis), for which the respective 96-h LC50's were

7.95 and 7.50 mg/L. Marking and Bills (1976), who reported LC50 values for rotenone for more than 20 species of freshwater fish, showed that common carp (Cyprinus carpio) was one of the most sensitive, with a 96-h LC50 of only 0.05 mg/L; the black bullhead (Ictalurus melas) was much more resistant (LC50 = 0.39 mg/L). Values for channel catfish (I. punctatus), bluegill (Lepomis macrochirus), and largemouth bass (Micropterus salmoides) were intermediate (0.164, 0.141, and 0.142 mg/L, respectively).

The values for the Asiatic clam and the helisomid snail were more than 150 times that of the carp and about 50 times that of the other three fish species. The remaining invertebrates were 2 to 20 times as tolerant as fish. Larvae of the southern leopard frog (*Rana sphenocephala*) were 3 to 10 times more tolerant than the fish used by Marking and Bills (1976).

Table 1. Acute toxicity of Noxfish to aquatic invertebrates and frog larvae in limed water in static tests at 16 \pm 1° C.

Organism	LC50 and 95% confidence interval (mg/L) at				
	I h	3 h	6 h	24 h	96 h
Flatworm		8.95	6.40	5.10	1.72
<i>Catenula</i> sp.		8.27-9.68	4.72-8.68	3.70-7.03	1.15-2.57
Daphnid	0.118	0.0960	0.0360	0.0275	1 <u>—1</u>
<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	0.102-0.137	0.0807-0.114	0.0317-0.0409	0.0239-0.0316	
Ostracod	·2.80	2.55	2.15	0.490	0.340
<i>Cypridopsis</i> sp.	2.35–3.34	2.11–3.08	1.80-2.56	0.299-0.803	0.280-0.557
Freshwater prawn Palaemonetes kadiakensis	28.3	24.0	6.35	5.15	1.12
	22.8–35.0	19.9- 28.9	5.43-7.43	4,44-6,00	0.760-1.65
Dragonfly naiad		275	34.0	4.70	1.00
<i>Macromia</i> sp.		230–329	19.6-58.9	1.45–15.2	0.730-1.59
Backswimmer Notonecta sp.	105	21.0	9.00	3.42	1.58
	86.5-128	17.7–25.0	6.79–11.9	2.27-5.15	0.727-3.44
Caddisfly larva	10.7	8.00	3.55		0.605
<i>Hydropsyche</i> sp.	7.98–14.5	6.69-9.56	2.88-4.38		0.329-1,17
Whirligig beetle, adult Gyrinus sp.	47.5	8.30	8.00	3.55	0.700
	32.6-69.2	5.42-12.7	5.51-11.6	2.05–6.15	0.400-1.21
Snail <i>Physa pomilia</i>			Name of Street	6.35 5.61-7.19	4.00 3.45-4.63
Snail Oxytrema catenaria	_ :		-	-	1.75 1.00-3.06
Snail		33.5	33.5	30.0	7.95
<i>Helisoma</i> sp.		28.0–40.1	28.0–40.1	24.1–37.3	4.63–13.7
Buckley's filter clam Elliptio buckleyi	-				2.95 2.23-3.90
Flattened filter clam Elliptio complanata					2.00 1.53-2.61
Asiatic clam Corbicula manilensis					7.50 5.74–9.81
Southern leopard frog larva Rana sphenocephala	0.830	0.775	0.635	0,580	0.500
	0.795-0.867	0.740-0.812	0.596-0.677	0.494–0.680	0.423-0.591

On the basis of these laboratory toxicity tests we conclude that most invertebrates should be safe during applications of rotenone. We suspect that the benthic forms are even more resistant when they reside in a natural substrate. However, fish and invertebrates are more sensitive to chemicals in laboratory tests than in the natural environment, and the ultimate safety should be evaluated under field conditions.

References

Almquist, E. 1959. Observations on the effect of rotenone emulsives on fish food organisms. Inst. Freshw. Res. Drottningholm Rep. 40:146–160.

Binns, N. A. 1967. Effects of rotenone treatment on the fauna of the Green River, Wyoming. Wyo. Game Fish Comm., Fish. Res. Bull. 1, 114 pp.

Committee on Methods for Toxicity Tests with Aquatic Organisms. 1975. Methods for acute toxicity tests with fish, macroinvertebrates, and amphibians. Ecol. Res. Ser. EPA [Environ. Prot. Agency] - 60/3-75-009. 61 pp.

Lennon, R. E. 1967. Clearance and registration of chemical tools for fisheries. Prog. Fish-Cult. 29(4):187-193.

methods for screening fish-control chemicals. U. S. Fish Wildl. Serv., Invest. Fish Control 1 (Circ. 185). 15 pp. Litchfield, J. T., Jr., and F. Wilcoxon. 1949. A simplified

method of evaluating dose-effect experiments. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 96(2):99-113.

Marking, L. L. 1975. Toxicological protocol for the development of piscicides. Pages 26-31 in P. H. Eschmeyer, ed. Rehabilitation of fish populations with toxicants: A symposium. Am. Fish. Soc., North Central Div., Spec. Publ. 4.

fish in standardized laboratory tests. U. S. Fish Wildl. Serv., Invest. Fish Control 72. 11 pp.

Metcalf, C. L., and W. P. Flint. 1962. Destructive and useful insects, their habits and control. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1087 pp.

Schnick, R. A. 1974. A review of the literature on use of rotenone in fisheries. U. S. Fish Wildl. Serv., Lit. Rev. 74-15. NTIS [Natl. Tech. Info. Serv.] No. PB-235 454/AS. 130 pp.

 Jack H. Chandler, Jr., Southeastern Fish Control Laboratory, Warm Springs, Ga. 31830, and Leif L. Marking, National Fishery Research Laboratory, La Crosse, Wis. 54601.

Accepted 12 November 1981

Simple, Versatile Microscope Stage for the Identification of Pinned Adult Insects

Species determination of pinned adult aquatic insects often requires detailed examinations at high magnification. Many of the key morphological characters (such as palpal, antennal, or tarsal segments) are found on the ventral side and are often difficult to view. Specimens must be examined at various angles or oriented at peculiar angles to the source of illumination to provide suitable contrast for examination of these minute parts.

Several commercial models of insect microscope stages, based on the types depicted by Oldroyd (1958), are available for use in holding and orienting specimens on the stage plate. The simpler models often consist of corks, lumps of clay, or plasticine on small, angled

supports. The more expensive models, which sometimes have cork mounting stages, may incorporate complex pivoting beams ("universal holders") or ball-and-socket components to provide flexibility. The simpler models necessitate frequent repinning and reorientation, which often result in specimen breakage. Although the pivoting beam mechanism is the most versatile of conventional holders, the beams and their supports often interrupt the light path and make it difficult to manipulate the specimen. Specimens mounted on stages are often elevated near the upper limit of the "working range" of the microscope, and some structures may be outside the focusing range of the microscope. The eye pieces may have to be raised