MARINE ADVISORY PROGRAM
UNIVERSITY OF ALASKA

ALASKA'S MARINE RESOURCES

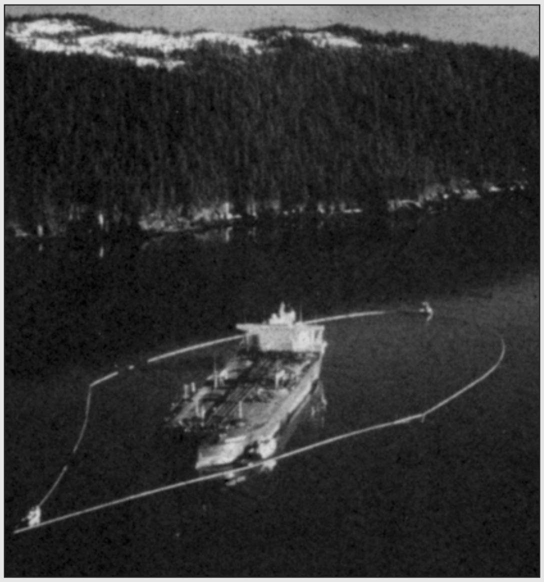
Vol. VII No. 3 October 1992

In This Issue: After the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill

MARINE ADVISORY PROGRAM, ALASKA SEA GRANT COLLEGE PROGRAM, SCHOOL OF FISHERIES AND OCEAN SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF ALASKA FAIRBANKS

The Exxon Valdez Oil Spill, though not the largest in terms of volume spilled, was arguably the most devastating oil spill in hu-man history. The 11 million gallon slick spread over some 17,000 square miles of Alaska's coastal ocean, an area about 15 times the size of the State of Rhode Island. It oiled over 1200 miles of some of the most magnificent shoreline in the world, including 3 national parks, 3 national wildlife refuges, and a national forest. More seabirds and marine mammals were killed by this spill than any other ever recorded. Coastal communities were thrown into a social and economic tailspin from which few have recovered.



Responding to the enormity of the spill, the State and Federal governments conducted a Natural Resource Damage Assessment (NRDA) program of unprecedented magnitude. Over $100 million has been spent to date making this the best studied oil spill in history. In this issue of Alaska's Marine Resources we have included the summary of the results of this massive scientific investigation, compiled by the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill Trustees. There is also a summary of the out-of-court settlement between Exxon and the governments, followed by two brief side-by-side pro and con columns about the settlement. Unfortunatly not included due to space, but equally important are the studies documenting the extraordinary social, psychological, and economic damage caused by the spill.

Writer John Keeble has called the Exxon-Valdez "a parable for our times." Webster dictionary defines a parable as "a short, simple story from which a moral or religious lesson may be drawn". As one reads the lines below, it might be helpful to keep in mind the question of what moral lesson can be drawn from all this.

SUMMARY OF INJURY

Restoration Framework
Volume 1, Chapter 4
Prepared by: Exxon Valdez Oil Spill Trustees

Introduction

The Exxon Valdez oil spill occurred just prior to the most biologically active season of the year in southcentral Alaska. During the four-month period after the spill, seaward migrations of salmon fry, major migrations of birds, and the primary reproductive period of most species of birds, mammals, fish, and marine invertebrate species took place. The organisms involved in these critical periods of their life cycles encountered the most concentrated, volatile, and potentially damaging forms of spilled oil. Oil affected different species differently. Resources continue to be exposed to oil remaining in the intertidal zone, as well as to oil transported to the subtidal zone. The following general account summarizes the main results from the Natural Resource Damage Assessment studies carried out after the spill.

Oil spill injuries can be estimated in several ways: Dead animals, such as birds and sea otters, can be counted and used to estimate the total number of each species lost. Where carcasses are not found and counted, injuries to populations can be based either on comparisons before and after a spill, or between oiled and unoiled environments. Measurements of physiological and biochemical changes due to oil exposure provide further evidence that may support changes observed in populations. Because populations fluctuate from year to year and there are natural differences from place to place, the most accurate estimates of injury are those in which the exact population is known just before the spill and then after the injury occurred. Although scientists studying the effects of oil spills may carry out excellent studies under difficult conditions, there are always uncertainties, especially where good pre-spill population data are lacking.

The injuries summarized here may change as the results of additional sampling and data analysis become available. It is also possible that injuries to populations of long-lived species may not be manifested for some time.

Marine Mammals

Introduction

Following the spill, humpback whales, Steller sea lions, sea otters, harbor seals, and killer whales were studied. Field work on Steller sea lions and humpback whales was completed in 1990. Humpback whale studies included photoidentification of individual whales, estimation of reproductive success, and documentation of possible displacement of whales from their preferred habitat within Prince William Sound. Exposure of this species to oil was not observed, nor were tissues sampled and analyzed for hydrocarbons. The data do not indicate an effect of the spill on mortality or reproduction of humpback whales in Prince William Sound. However, in 1989 humpback whales were not seen in Lower Knight Island Passage, a preferred habitat.

Results from the sea lion study were inconclusive. Several sea lions were observed with oiled pelts, and petroleum hydrocarbons were found in some tissues. Determining if there was an effect of the spill on the sea lion populations was complicated by seasonal movements of sea lions in and out of the spill and an ongoing population decline and a pre-existing problem with premature pupping.

Based on several photo-identification censuses a significant number of killer whales are missing from at least one and possible two pods in Prince William Sound. Changes also have been observed in killer whale distribution and social structure. Some male whales have drooping dorsal fins. The cause of the mortalities and fin problems is uncertain.

Injuries to harbor seals and sea otters, described below, have been more evident. Studies of these species are continuing.

Sea Otters

The population of sea otters in Prince William Sound before the spill was estimated to have been as high as 10,000. The total sea otter population of the Gulf of Alaska was estimated to have been at least 20,000. Statewide, the sea otter population is estimated at 150,000. As the oil moved through Prince William Sound and the Gulf of Alaska, it covered large areas inhabited by otters. Sea otters were particularly vulnerable to the spill. When sea otters become contaminated by oil, their fur loses its insulating capabilities, leading to death from hypothermia. Sea otters also may have died as a result of oil ingestion and perhaps inhalation of toxic aromatic compounds that evaporated from the slick shortly after the spill. The effects of oil were documented by repeated surveys of populations in the spill area, recovery of beach-cast carcasses, analysis of tissues for petroleum hydrocarbons and indicators of reduced health, tracking sea otters outfitted with radio transmitters (including those released from rehabilitation centers), and estimating total mortality from the number of sea otter carcasses recovered following the oil spill. These studies concentrated on developing an estimate of sea otter mortality in Prince William Sound and along the Kenai Peninsula, the populations believed to have been most affected by the spill. During 1989, 1,011 sea otter carcasses were recovered in the spill area, cataloged and stored in freezers. Of these, 876 otters were recovered dead from the field and 135 died in rehabilitation centers of other facilities. It is estimated that 3,500 to 5,500 sea otters died from acute exposure to the oil in the entire affected area.

Heavy initial and continuing long-term exposure to petroleum hydrocarbons may be resulting in a chronic effect on sea otters. Significantly elevated concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbons have been detected in intertidal and subtidal sediment samples with the spill zone in western Prince William Sound and in intertidal mussels and benthic marine invertebrates and staples of the sea otter diet. Analyses of blood from sea otters in 1990 and 1991 indicated slight but significant differences in several blood measures in exposed animals. For example, higher eosi-

nophil counts, total hemocrits and hemoglobin concentrations occurred in males in western Prince William Sound, the area that was oiled, compared to males in eastern Prince William Sound, the unoiled area, suggesting systemic hypersensitivity reactions. These changes are not sufficient to indicate that the individuals that were sampled had health problems likely to result in death.

Abnormal patterns of mortality are continuing in sea otters. Based on pre-spill data from Prince William Sound, very few prime-age sea otters (animals between 2 and 8 years old) die each year and most mortality occurs among otters less than two years old. In 1990 and 1991 a high proportion of carcasses of prime-age sea otters were found on beaches, suggesting a chronic effect of the spill on sea otters.

Results of boat surveys indicate continued declines in sea otter abundance within oiled areas in Prince William Sound. Pre-spill estimates of sea otter abundance in Prince William Sound were carried out in 1984 and 1985 using similar survey techniques. Comparisons of pre- and post-spill estimates of sea otter abundance show that sea otter populations in unoiled areas experienced a 13.5 percent increase in abundance, while sea otter populations in oiled areas underwent a 34.6 percent decrease. In addition, the post-spill population in the oiled area is significantly lower than the pre-spill estimate, indicating a real decline of 1,600 sea otters in Prince William Sound in the first year after the spill, and up to 2,200 in the first three years after the spill.

Pupping rates and survival of pups through weaning in 1990 and 1991 were similar in eastern and western Prince William Sound sea otter populations. Weaned sea otter pups with radiotags died at a faster rate in western than in eastern Prince William Sound In contrast, survival of tagged adult female sea otters was significantly higher in western Prince William Sound than in eastern Prince William Sound.

Sea otters released from rehabilitation centers had higher mortality and significantly lower pupping rates than those measured in the wild population before the spill. Of the 193 sea otters released from rehabilitation centers, 45 were fitted with radio transmitters. As of July 31, 1991, 14 of these animals were still alive, 14 were known to be dead, and 16 were missing. One radio transmitter is known to have failed.

The observed changes in the age distributions of dying sea otters, continued declines in abundance, higher juvenile mortality, and higher mortality and lower pupping rates suggest a prolonged, spill-related effect on the western Prince William Sound sea otter population.

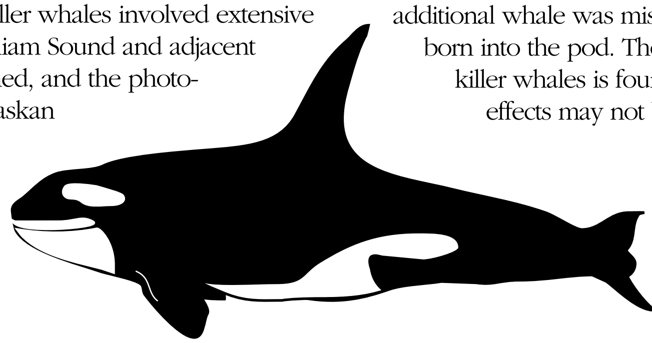
Harbor Seals

Two hundred harbor seals are estimated to have been killed by the spill in Prince William Sound. Only 19 seal carcasses were recovered following the spill, since seals sink when they die. Population changes were documented by summer and fall aerial surveys of known haul-out areas. Toxicological and histopathological analyses were conducted to assess petroleum hydrocarbon accumulation and persistence and to determine toxic injuries to tissues. Severe and potentially debilitating lesions were found in the thalamus of the brain of a heavily oiled seal collected in Herring Bay, Prince William Sound, 36 days after the spill. Similar but milder lesions were found in five other seals collected three or more months after the spill. During 1989, oiled harbor seals were abnormally lethargic and unwary. Petroleum hydrocarbon concentrations in bile were 5 to 6 times higher in seals from oiled areas than inseals from unoiled areas one year after the spill. This indicates that seals were still encountering oil in the environment, were mobilizing fat reserves containing petroleum hydrocarbons, or both.

A complete census of harbor seals in Prince William Sound had not been conducted before the spill. However, trend index locations have been intermittently surveyed since the 1970s. Counts at the trend index sites declined by 40 percent between 1984 and 1988, with similar declines in what were subsequently oiled and unoiled areas. From 1988 to 1990, however, the decline at oiled sites, 35 percent, was significantly greater than at unoiled sites (13 percent). Trend surveys conducted in 1991 continue to indicate similar differences between oiled and unoiled areas, although mean numbers of seals in trend counts have increased since the spill. The increases in seals at unoiled sites have been significant, while those at oiled sites have risen only slightly. The first complete survey of Prince William Sound was completed during August 1991, resulting in a count of 2,875 harbor seals.

Killer Whales

Approximately 182 killer whales, forming nine distinct family units or "pods", used Prince William Sound before the spill. These whales were studied intensively before the spill, and their social structure and population dynamics are well known. Damage assessment studies of killer whales involved extensive boat-based surveys in Prince William Sound and adjacent waters. Whales were photographed, and the photographs were compared to the Alaskan killer whale photographic database for the years 1977 to 1989 to determine changes in whale abundance, seasonal distribution, pod integrity and mortality and natality rates.



The AB pod had 36 whales when last sighted before the spill in September 1988. When sighted on March 31, 1989, seven days after the spill, seven individuals were missing. Six additional whales were missing from the AB pod in 1990. Assuming that whales missing for two consecutive years are dead, the mortality rates for the AB pod were 19.4 percent in 1988-1989 and 20.7 percent in 1990-1991. The average annual mortality in AB pod from 1984 to 1988 was 6.1 percent. An additional whale was missing in 1991, but a calf also was born into the pod. The approximate calving interval of killer whales is four years. Accordingly, some long-term effects may not be obvious for many years.

Several of the missing whales from AB pod were females that left behind calves; such abandonment of calves is unprecedented in killer whales. As a consequence the social structure of AB pod has changed. Calves normally spend time with their mothers, but AB pod calves have been observed swimming with adult bulls. The occurrence of collapsed dorsal fins on two adult bulls after the spill is an indication of possible physiological injury. Very little is understood about the likely mechanisms of death from the spill. Various explanations, including oil exposure and other causes, continue to be explored. During the mid-1980s photographic evidence was obtained of bullet wounds in individuals in the AB pod, though there is no recent evidence of such shootings.

Another Prince William Sound pod, AT pod is missing 11 whales. A subgroup of four AT pod members was photographed behind the Exxon Valdez three days after the grounding on Bligh Reef and three of these animals are among the missing AT pod whales. This is a transient pod and it is possible that the missing whales left the pod.

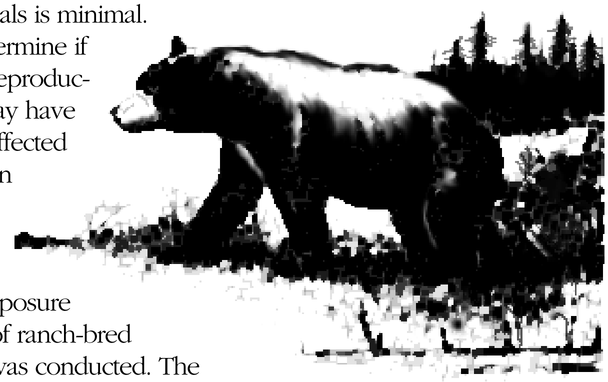
Terrestrial Mammals

Terrestrial mammals that may have been exposed to oil through foraging in intertidal habitats were studied. These species included brown bear, mink, black bear, Sitka black-tailed deer and river otters.

Brown bears forage seasonally in the intertidal and supratidal areas of the Alaska Peninsula and the Kodiak Archipelago. Preliminary analysis of fecal samples from brown bears in the spill area showed that some bears were exposed to petroleum hydrocarbons. High concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbon metabolites were found in bile from a yearling brown bear found dead in 1989. The normal rate of mortality in yearling cubs is close to 50 percent for the first two years, so it is uncertain if this death was due to oil or other causes.

Black bears also forage in the intertidal zone in the spill area and therefore could have been affected by the spill. No field studies were carried out, however, due to the difficulty of finding, collaring or otherwise investigating these animals in the dense underbrush that is their habitat.

Mink and other small mammals living in coastal areas may feed in and spend part or all of their time in the intertidal zone. When mink are sick or injured, they are known to crawl into inaccessible burrows or the brush. For this reason the effect of the spill on mink populations could not be determined. Also, information on pre-spill populations of mink and other small mammals is minimal.



To determine if mink reproduction may have been affected by oil in their diet, a laboratory exposure study of ranch-bred mink was conducted. The mink were fed food mixed with small, non-lethal amounts of weathered oil. No changes in reproductive rates or success resulted from this exposure. It was found, however, that oil-contaminated food moved through the intestines of the animals at a more rapid rate than did clean food, possibly providing less nutrition to the animals.

Intensive searches of beaches revealed no Sitka black-tailed deer whose deaths could be attributed to the spill. However, deer taken for purposes of testing for human consumption (not part of the damage assessment) were found to have had slightly elevated concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbons in tissues of some individuals that fed on kelp in intertidal areas. It was determined that the deer were safe to eat.

River Otters

A few river otter carcasses were found by clean-up workers. River otters forage in streams and shallow coastal habitats that were contaminated by the spill. Analysis of river otter bile and blood samples indicated that petroleum hydrocarbons were being accumulated by this species. Moderately elevated concentrations of haptoglobin and activities of amino transferase enzymes in the blood of river otters from oiled areas in 1991 indicated a lingering toxic effect of oil on this species. Studies of radio-tagged animals in Prince William Sound showed that home ranges in oiled areas were twice that of unoiled areas, suggesting that in oiled areas otters must forage over a larger area to obtain sufficient food. In 1991, body lengths, body weights and dietary diversity were lower in oiled areas. River otters often feed on mussels, which continue to be contaminated with oil in many areas of Prince William Sound.

Birds

Introduction

Birds were among the most conspicuous victims of the oil spill. Seabirds are particularly vulnerable to oil, as they spend much of their time on the sea surface while foraging. Oiled plumage insulates poorly and loses its buoyancy, and oiled birds often die from hypothermia or drowning. Birds surviving initial acute exposure to oil may ingest oil by preening. About 36,000 dead birds were recovered after the spill; at least 31,000 of these deaths were attributable to oil. In addition to the large number of murres, sea ducks and bald eagles recovered after the spill, carcasses of loons, cormorants, pigeon guillemots, grebes, murrelets and other species were also recovered. The recovered birds represent only a small proportion of the total number of birds killed by the spill. Many oiled birds undoubtedly floated out to sea and sank. Many oiled birds that were washed onto beaches may have been scavenged, hidden in masses of oil buried under sand and gravel by wave actions, decomposed or simply washed onto a beach that was not searched. In a number of cases carcasses found shortly after the spill were not turned in to receiving stations. The results of analyses using computer models that account for some of these variables suggest that the total number of birds killed by the spill ranged from 300,000 to 645,000, with the best approximation that between 375,000 and 435,000 birds. These estimates reflect only direct morality occurring in the months immediately following the spill, and do not address chronic effects or loss of reproductive output.

Common and Thick-Billed Murres

Approximately 1,400,000 murres reside in the Gulf of Alaska region, which stretches from Unimak Pass at the tip of the Alaskan Peninsula to the Canadian border in southeastern Alaska. The total population of murres in Alaska is approximately 12,000,000. The murre colonies on the Chiswell Islands are the colonies most visited by tourists in Alaska. Most of the pre-spill data on murre abundance in the Gulf of Alaska colonies affected by the spill were gathered in the mid-1970s to the early 1980s. In 1989 and 1990 murres were the most heavily affected bird species. As oil moved out of Prince William Sound and along the Kenai Peninsula and the Alaska Peninsula, it encountered major seabird nesting areas, such as the Chiswell and Barren islands, as well as numerous smaller colonies. The oil contaminated these areas in the Gulf of Alaska at the same time that adult murres were congregating on the water near their colonies in anticipation of the nesting season.Approximately 22,000 murre carcasses were recovered following the spill. At the major colonies in the spill area, surveys indicated that an estimated minimum of 120,000 to 140,000 breeding adult murres were killed by the spill. Extrapolating this information to other known murre colonies affected by the spill, but not specifically studied, the mortality of murres is estimated to be about 300,000. Numbers of breeding murres declined in 1989 from pre-spill counts or estimates at Alaska Peninsula sites (50-60 percent), the Barren Islands (60-70 percent) and the Triplet Islands (35 percent). These decreases persisted in 1990 and 1991. No significant changes in murre numbers were noted for the Semidi Islands and Middleton Island, colonies which are in the Gulf of Alaska, but outside the spill zone. Murres exhibit strong fidelity to traditional breeding sites and infrequently immigrate to new colonies.

Normally, murres breed on cliff faces in densely packed colonies. Each murre colony initiates egg laying almost simultaneously. Synchronized breeding helps repel predators such as gulls and ravens. In oiled areas, murre colonies have fewer breeding individuals than before the spill, breeding is later than normal and breeding synchrony has been disrupted.

These changes in numbers of birds and their behavior have caused complete reproductive failure in several of the large colonies during 1989, 1990 and 1991, and thus lost production of at least 300,000 chicks. There are some indications that normal breeding occurred in isolated areas of the Barren Island colonies in 1991, but it is uncertain when the whole colony will start to produce significant numbers of viable chicks. Murre colonies in unoiled areas displayed none of these injuries and had normal productivity in the years since the spill.

Bald Eagles

Of the estimated Alaskan bald eagle population of 39,000 birds (27,000 adults and 12,000 fledglings), an estimated 4,000 reside in Prince William Sound, and an estimated 8,000 to 10,000 reside along the northern Gulf of Alaska coast. One hundred fifty-one (151) dead bald eagles were found following the spill. Although there is considerable uncertainty regarding the total mortality of bald eagles, several times this number may have been killed initially by the spill. Seventy-four percent of radio-tagged bald eagles that died of natural causes during subsequent studies ended up in the forest or in other places away from the beaches where they would likely not have been found had they not been tagged. If this pattern of carcass deposition is representative of what happened following the oil spill, then as many as 580 bald eagles may have been killed dir-ectly by the spill. However, since eagles dying of acute ex-posure to oil probably behave differently than those dying naturally and the population trend counts did not indicate a significant decline following the spill, the number of eagles killed is certainly less than this number.

To assess injuries to bald eagles, helicopter and fixed-wing surveys were flown to estimate populations and productivity. Radio transmitters were attached to bald eagles to estimate survival, distribution and exposure to oiled areas. Bald eagles in Prince William Sound were most intensively studied. Productivity surveys in 1989 indicate a failure rate of approximately 85 percent for nests adjacent to moderately or heavily oiled beaches compared to 55 percent on unoiled or lightly oiled beaches. This resulted in a lost production of at least 133 chicks in Prince William Sound in 1989. Nest success and productivity on the Alaska Peninsula were also lower in 1989 than in 1990, but differences between these years for eagles residing in other coastal areas affected by the spill were less apparent. Nest occupancy was lower in oiled areas than in unoiled areas in both 1989 and 1990. Reproduction returned to normal in 1990 and population indices from surveys in 1982, 1989, 1990 and 1991 suggest that the spill has not measurably affected the bald eagle population in Prince William Sound.

Sea Ducks

More than 2,000 sea duck carcasses were recovered after the spill, including more than 200 harlequin ducks. Studies concentrated on harlequins, goldeneyes, and scoters—species that use the intertidal and shallow subtidal habitats most heavily affected by the spill. All of these species feed on invertebrates, such as mussels, which in 1991 continued to show evidence of petroleum hydrocarbon contamination. Harlequin ducks, which feed in the shallowest water of all

these species, were most affected. In 1989 and 1990 about 40 percent of the harlequin ducks sampled had tissues contaminated with petroleum hydrocarbons, and about 33 percent of the harlequins collected in the spill area had poor body condition and reduced body fat. The 1991 survey indicates harlequin population declines and a near total reproductive failure in oiled areas of Prince William Sound. Oil-contaminated mussel beds may be the source of this apparent continuing problem.

Other Birds

Changes in populations of waterbirds in the spill area were asses-sed with boat surveys, the same technique used in surveys car-ried out in 1972 and 1973, and then, again in 1984. Changes were assessed on the basis of both the earlier and later pre-spill data. Declines occurred in 16 of the 39 species or groups examined for the entire Prince William Sound area between 1972-1973 and post-spill. Declining species or groups of species include: grebes, cormorants, northern pintail, harlequin duck, old squaw, scoters, goldeneyes, bufflehead, black oystercatcher, Bonaparte's gull, black-legged kittiwake, Arctic tern, pigeon guillemot, Brachyramphus (marbled and Kittlitz's) murrelets, and northwestern crow. The following species or group of species declined more in oiled areas than in unoiled areas since the early 1970s: harlequin duck, black oystercatcher, pigeon guillemot, northwest crow, and cormorants. Comparisons of post-spill survey data with 1984 pre-spill data indicate that harlequin duck,black oyster-catcher, murres, pigeon guillemot, cormorants, Arctic tern, and tufted puffin populations declined more in oiled areas than in unoiled areas.

Marbled and Kittlitz's murrelet populations declined greatly in Prince William Sound since 1972 and 1973. In 1973, the estimated murrelet population in the Sound was 304,000 birds, while murrelet populations were estimated to be 107,000 in 1989, 81,000 in 1990, and 106,000 in 1991. The length of time between pre-spill and post-spill surveys makes it difficult to determine the relative contribution of the spill to this decline. However, a high proportion of murrelets present in Prince William Sound were killed by the spill. Also, internal contamination of apparently healthy murrelets by petroleum hydrocarbons in the spill area opens the possibility that there were significant effects on murrelets beyond the initial mortality. Disturbance associated with clean-up activities may have influenced the number of murrelets observed in the spill area in 1989.

Nine black oystercatcher carcasses were found after the spill. This species feeds intertidally and breeds on rocky shores throughout the spill zone. In addition to mortality caused directly by the spill, oiling affected their reproductive success. Egg volume and weight gained by chicks raised on oiled sites were substantially lower than chicks raised on unoiled sites. The difference in weight gain by chicks may have resulted from differences in food supply, as the amount of food delivered to chicks raised on oiled sites was significantly less than that delivered to chicks at unoiled sites. Hatching success, fledging success, and productivity of young birds were not significantly different between oiled and unoiled sites. Direct disturbance by clean-up activities significantly reduced oystercatcher productivity on Green Island during 1990.

Pigeon guillemots are nearshore diving seabirds that gather daily on intertidal rocks near their colonies during the breeding season and forage by probing into intertidal and subtidal recesses and kelp. Five hundred sixteen (516) guillemot carcasses were recovered following the spill. Between 1,500 and 3,000 guillemots were estimated to have been killed by the spill, representing as much as 10 percent of the known pigeon guillemot population in the Gulf of Alaska. Boat surveys indicate that in 1973 the Prince William Sound guillemot population was approximately 14,600; while in 1989, 1990 and 1991, the estimated populations were, respectively, 4,000, 3,000 and 6,600. These data indicate that the Prince William Sound guillemot population was declining prior to the spill. The declines were significantly greater, however, in oiled areas. For the four islands of the Naked Island group, post-spill surveys showed a 40 percent decline in guillemots present during peak colony attendance hours compared to pre-spill surveys. Declines corresponded to the degree of shoreline oiling.

The extent of injury to certain species, including loons, cormorants and gulls, will never be known because pre-spill population estimates for these species in the spill area are not available. Although Peale's peregrine falcons did not appear to be directly affected by the oil spill, disturbance from nearshore activities appears to have affected rates of nest occupancy and reduced clutch and brood sizes in 1989. Studies of song birds did not document an injury from the spill.

Fish and Shellfish

Introduction

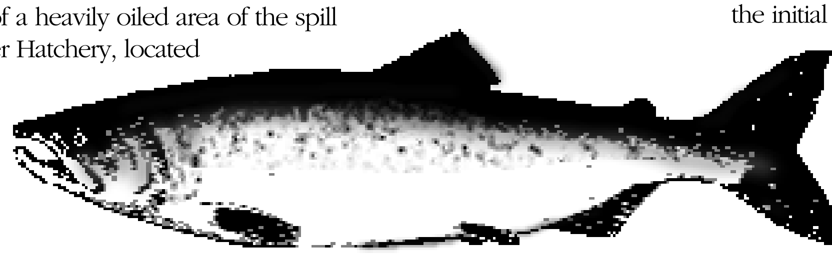
No massive kills of adult open-water fish were observed following the spill. Adult salmon, for example, were able to migrate as expected to spawning areas after the spill. The early life stages of some fish species and adults of others depend on the intertidal and shallow subtidal areas and the upper layers of the sea where the greatest concentrations of oil occurred. In addition the eggs and larvae of fishes are more sensitive to oil contamination than are adults.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the available evidence from this spill indicates that the greatest damage was to the eggs and larvae of some species of fish, especially those that inhabit and spawn in the intertidal zone (salmon) and shallow subtidal zone (herring) or that forage in shallow water (Dolly Varden and cutthroat trout). Many species of fish produce large numbers of eggs and only a relatively small number reach adulthood. Since natural factors affecting such survival change from year to year, it is difficult to estimate or measure the effects of oil on adult fish populations whose early stages were injured. Nevertheless, during 1991, data were gathered that would potentially help clarify the effects on adult fish exposed to oil as eggs or larvae. These data are still being analyzed.

The deaths of some rockfish, a deepwater species, also were attributed to oil. Several species of coastal and offshore fish, including pollock, halibut, sablefish, cod, yellowfin and flathead sole and rockfish, showed evidence of continuing exposure to petroleum hydrocarbons over a large geographic area, but significant injury has not been documented. Because salmon and other fish species can metabolize petroleum hydrocarbons, these contaminants are unlikely to concentrate in fish tissues. Indicators of exposure in fish include increased concentrations of hydrocarbon metabolites in bile and activities of mono-oxygenates in liver tissue.

Pink Salmon

The full extent of short-term injury to pink salmon cannot be assessed until after the 1991 run returns have been analyzed. As predicted before the spill, the catch of pink salmon in Prince William Sound during 1990 was an all-time record high and the 1991 run was also quite high. These catches were primarily due to strong runs of hatchery-produced salmon. Survival to adulthood of salmon fry released from the Armin F. Koerning hatchery, located in the middle of a heavily oiled area of the spill zone, was half that of Esther Hatchery, located outside the spill area. Wild production of pink salmon did not mirror the record production of hatchery fish.



Seventy-five percent of wild pink salmon in Prince William Sound spawn in the intertidal portion of streams. Wild salmon did not shift spawning habitat following the spill and many salmon deposited their eggs in intertidal areas of oiled streams. In the autumn of 1989 egg mortality in oiled streams averaged about 15 percent, compared to about 9 percent in unoiled streams. Subsequently, egg mortality has generally increased. In 1991 there was a 40 to 50 percent egg mortality in oiled steams, and about an 18 percent mortality in unoiled steams. The relative roles of the spill and other factors, including natural variability, in causing the increased 1991 egg mortality are being analyzed. In general the number of spawning fish in streams of Prince William Sound indicates that the more viable spawn that is produced, the more adults will return to spawn from that year class. If this is true, then it is likely that mortality at the egg stage is additive with other sources of mortality in later stages and that the increased egg mortality observed since the spill is a threat to wild pink salmon in Prince William Sound. Eggs and larvae of wild populations continue to be exposed to oil in intertidal gravel in some areas.

Pink salmon juveniles were exposed to petroleum hydrocarbons from the spill in nearshore marine habitats in oiled portions of Prince William Sound in 1989. The survival of pink salmon to adulthood is directly related to growth rates during the initial marine residency. Growth rates of juvenile pink salmon were lower in oiled locations in 1989, but there was no evidence of continued reduced growth of juvenile salmon in nearshore waters in 1990. Laboratory experiments in 1991 confirmed that ingestion of food contaminated with oil can cause reduced growth and increased mortality of juvenile pink salmon.

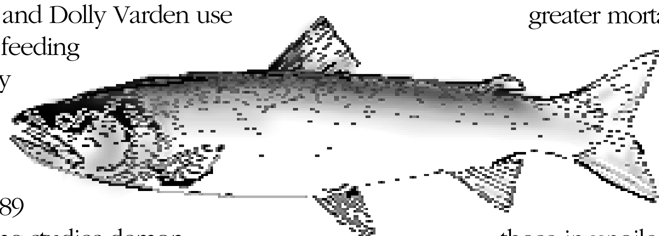
Fry growth was decreased in oiled streams as compared to unoiled streams over the winter of 1989-1990 and larvae from some heavily oiled streams showed gross morphological abnormalities, including club fins and curved vertebral columns. The pink salmon that returned to Prince William Sound in the summer of 1990 were hatched prior to the spill and were exposed to oil as larvae. Although there is great uncertainly, some analyses suggest that the 1990 return of both wild and hatchery pink salmon was 20 to 25 percent lower than expected without the spill, resulting in a return of 15 to 25 million fewer fish. Fish that returned in 1991 were the first that were exposed to oil as eggs. The returns of wild salmon to oiled and unoiled streams in 1991 are still being analyzed.

Sockeye Salmon

Commercial harvest of sockeye salmon was curtailed in portions of Cook Inlet, Chignik, and Kodiak in 1989 because of the spill, resulting in an unusually high number of adults returning to spawn in certain lake systems—for example, Kenai and Skilak lakes, Red and Akalura lakes. The number of adults returning to the spawning areas is referred to as the "escapement." Commercial salmon fisheries are actively managed to maintain high production, and large overescapements resulting in low smolt production are a threat to the maintenance of sustained good production. In this case overescapement has resulted in poor survival to the smolt stage in the Kenai and Skilak lakes system. This overescapement is expected to result in a return of adults in 1993 and 1994 that is less than needed for adequate production. Total closure or severe reduction of the commercial and sport sockeye fisheries may be necessary in those years to enable recovery of this species in the Kenai and Red lakes systems. These fisheries account for up to half the commercial sockeye harvest in the Kodiak and Cook Inlet areas.

Dolly Varden and Cutthroat Trout

Prince William Sound is the northern extent of the range of cutthroat trout. Both cutthroat trout and Dolly Varden use nearshore and estuarine habitat for feeding throughout their lives, although they overwinter and spawn in freshwater. The highest concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbon metabolites in bile of all fish sampled in 1989 were found in Dolly Varden. Tagging studies demonstrated that the annual mortality of adult Dolly Varden in oiled areas was 32 percent greater than in unoiled areas. The larger cutthroat trout also showed higher levels of mortality in oiled than in unoiled areas. In 1989-1990, there was 57 percent greater mortality, and in 1990-1991, a 65 percent greater mortality, in oiled streams versus unoiled streams. Additionally, cutthroat trout growth rates in oiled areas were 68 percent in 1989-1990 and 71 percent in 1990-1991 of those in unoiled areas. Although concentrations of bile hydrocarbons were greatly reduced in 1990 and 1991, indicating less exposure to oil, it is unclear why differences persist in survival rates between oiled and unoiled streams.



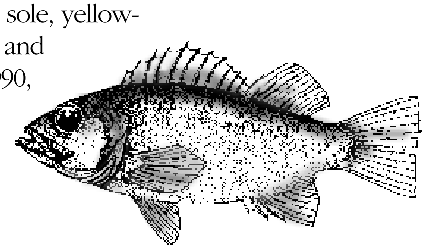
Pacific Herring

Populations of Pacific herring were spawning in shallow eelgrass and algal beds at the time of the spill. The effects of oil on egg survival, hatching success, and larval development and recruitment to the spawning population were studied. A large percentage of abnormal embryos and larvae were found in samples from oiled areas of Prince William Sound collected during the 1989 reproductive season. Larvae in oiled areas also had a greater incidence of eye tumors. Analysis of histopathological abnormalities in tissues of adult herring reveal the occurrence of some lesions whose presence would be consistent with exposure to oil. Whether the adult population has been affected by these larval injuries and lesions will not be determined until the 1989 and 1990 cohorts return to spawn in 1992 and 1993. It will be difficult, however, to measure a change in the adult population, beyond the bounds of the natural variability.

Evidence of oil contamination in adult herring was found in 1989 and 1990. In 1989, hydrocarbon metabolites occurred in the bile of adult fish. There were significant changes in the incidence of histopathological lesions and in the parasite burden of adults found in oiled as compared to unoiled sites. The parasite burden of adult herring returned to pre-spill incidence in 1991.

Rockfish and Other Fish

A small number of dead rockfish were found after the spill; this was the only type of fish observed dying after the spill. Five rockfish were recovered soon enough after death to establish oil exposure as the probably cause of death. Analyses of rockfish bile indicated exposure to oil in a significant portion of the samples collected from oiled areas in 1989, only one individual in 1990, and none in 1991. Histopathological liver lesions were evaluated in 1990 and two types of lesions (liver lipidosis and liver sinusoidal fibrosis) were found to be significantly elevated in oiled areas. Other species that had measurable amount of petroleum hydrocarbon metabolites in the bile in 1989 included halibut, pollock, rock sole, yellowfin sole, flathead sole and Pacific cod, and in 1990, Dover sole and sablefish.



Coastal Habitat

Introduction

The coastal tidal zone, commonly known as the "intertidal zone," was the most severely contaminated habitat. Intertidal habitats are highly productive and biologically rich. The intertidal zone is particularly vulnerable to the grounding of oil, its persistence and effects of associated clean-up activities.

Supratidal

The supratidal zone is above the high tide but still within the influence of the ocean from storm surges and wave spray. Results of studies from the Kodiak Island and Alaska Peninsula areas suggest that oil in the supratidal habitat and beach clean-up disturbance decreased the productivity of grasses and other vegetation, including beach rye, a grass that helps stabilize beach berms. In one instance, clean-up activities completely removed the supratidal vegetation.

Increased production of supratidal vegetation was found in Prince William Sound in 1989. Increased production as a result of decreased browsing by terrestrial mammals or a fertilizing effect of the oil are possible causes.

Intertidal

Populations of intertidal organisms were significantly reduced along oiled shorelines in Prince William Sound, on Kodiak Island and Cook Inlet, and along the Alaskan Peninsula. Densities of intertidal algae (Fucus), barnacles, limpets, amphipods, isopods, and marine worms were decreased. Although there were increased densities of mussels in oiled areas, they were significantly smaller than mussels in the unoiled areas, and the total biomass of mussels was significantly lower. Sediment traps collected significant concentrations of petroleum hydrocarbons during the winter of 1990-1991, indicating that oil is continuing to be removed from the beaches by cleaning and natural processes and is being transported subtidally. Intertidal organisms continue to be exposed to petroleum hydrocarbons from subsurface oil in beaches.

In 1991 relatively high concentrations of oil were found in mussels and in the dense underlying mat (byssal substrate) of certain oiled mussel beds. These beds were not cleaned or removed after the spill and are potential sources of fresh oil for harlequin ducks, black oystercatchers, river otters and juvenile sea otters—all of which feed on mussels and show signs of continuing biological injury. The extent and magnitude of oiled mussel beds are unknown and continue to be investigated.

Intertidal fishes were less abundant in oiled areas than in unoiled areas in 1990. No such differences were documented in 1991.

Fucus, the dominant intertidal plant, was severely affected by the oil and subsequent clean-up activities. The percentage of intertidal areas covered by Fucus was reduced following the spill, but the coverage of opportunistic plant species that characteristically flourish in disturbed areas was increased. The average size of Fucus plants was reduced, the number of reproductive-sized plants greatly decreased, and the remaining plants of reproductive size decreased in reproductive potential due to fewer fertile receptacles per plant. Recruitment of Fucus at oiled sites was also reduced.

Subtidal Habitat

Between 1989 and 1991, oil concentrations declined in intertidal sediments sampled at most oiled locations, while the concentration in shallow subtidal sediments at depths of 3-20 meters remained about the same or in some cases, rose slightly. Petroleum hydrocarbon accumulation in filter-feeding mussels experimentally placed in the water column in various oiled areas was significant during the summer of 1989, but decreased in 1990. Patterns of sediment toxicity to marine amphipods and larval bivalve mollusks, used as test organisms, reflected similar patterns. In 1990 significant toxicity to these organisms was associated only with intertidal sediment samples from heavily oiled sites, but in 1991 toxicity was associated primarily with sediment samples from the shallow subtidal zone. The current evidence from analyses of petroleum hydrocarbons in the bile of bottom-dwelling fishes suggests that animals living on or near the sea floor continue to be exposed to petroleum hydrocarbons. In this connection the analysis of samples of bottom-dwelling organisms at the 100 m depth is continuing to see if there was a detectable effect of oil deep communities.

Clams exposed to oil actively take up hydrocarbons, but metabolize them very slowly. Hydrocarbons are consequently accumulated in high concentrations in clams. Studies of clam growth rates were initiated after the spill and analyses are still being conducted. Contaminated clams and other invertebrates are a potential continuing source of petroleum hydrocarbons for harlequin ducks, river otters, sea otters and other species that forage in the shallow subtidal zone. Samples from pollock,

continued on page 13, ***Coastal Habitat***

Other Resources and Services

The spill directly impacted archaeological resources, subsistence, recreation, wilderness qualities and aesthetic and other indirect uses. Clean-up activities and the associated significant increase in human activity throughout the spill zone resulted in additional injuries to these resources and services.

Archaeological Resources

Archaeological resources along the shoreline were injured by the spill. Review of spill response data revealed injuries occurred at a minimum of 35 archaeological sites, including burial and home sites. These injured sites are distributed on both Federal and State lands. While injury to these 35 sites was documented during cleanup, a spill-wide assessment of injuries to archaeological resources has yet to be completed. In addition to oil contamination, increased knowledge of the location of archaeological sites puts them at greater risk from looting. Additional injury due to erosion caused by oil-spill response activities was documented.

A study was conducted to determine impacts caused by oil contamination on radiocarbondating of archaeological resources and to investigate the potential for cleaning artifacts and materials to allow such dating. Results indicate significant injury to the ability to date artifacts and materials by Carbon 14 analysis.

Subsistence

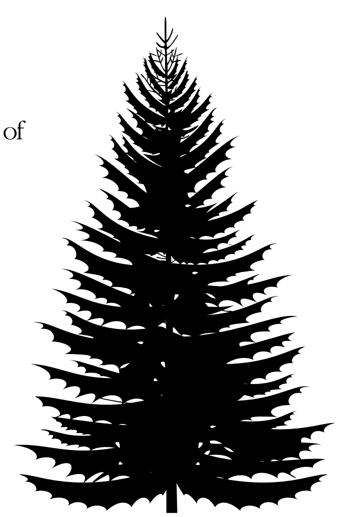
Surveys undertaken by State researchers before the spill and in 1990 indicated that subsistence users in the oil-spill area significantly reduced their use of subsistence resources after the spill, primarily because of concern about contamination of these resources. The oil spill disrupted the subsistence lifestyle of some communities that have historically relied upon these resources for a significant portion of their diet. Some communities virtually or entirely ceased subsistence harvests in 1989 and have only gradually begun to resume harvests, while other communities continued some reduced level of subsistence harvest in 1989 and thereafter. Warnings were issued by the State in 1989 for people to avoid consumption of intertidal invertebrates (such as mussels and clams, which accumulate petroleum hydrocarbons) found along shorelines contaminated by oil. After the spill, an oil-spill health task force was formed, including representatives of the State and Federal governments, subsistence users, and Exxon. This group helped oversee studies conducted by the State and others in conjunction with the Food and Drug Administration and National Oceanic Atmospheric Administration in 1989, 1990 and 1991, on subsistence foods, such as seals, deer, salmon, ducks, clams and bottomfish. Based upon the test results these resources, with the exception of clams and mussels in certain oiled areas, such as Windy Bay, were determined to be safe for human consumption.

Recreation

Following the oil spill, recreational use of public lands and waters declined. Recreationists (e.g., sport fishermen, hunters, campers and sea kayakers) avoided oiled areas and many adjacent areas that were affected by clean-up activity. Many users canceled their plans or pursued their activities in other areas within the state. For example, visitor use in the coastal area of the Kenai Fjords National Park dropped by about 50 percent in 1989, compared to 1988. This disruption continued in 1990, because oil remained present in many areas and some clean-up activity continued. In 1991 oil remained in many areas used by recreationists.

Wilderness and Intrinsic Values

There are designated "wilderness areas" in Kachemak Bay State Wilderness Park, Katmai National Park, and Becharof National Wildlife Refuge. In addition Federal "wilderness study" areas are located in Kenai Fjords National Park and the Chugach National Forest. Portions of these areas were oiled by the Exxon Valdez spill. The Wilderness Act of 1964 requires that Federal wilderness areas be "administered for the use and enjoyment of the American people in such a manner as will leave them unimpaired..." Thus, the presence of oil, which was most recently documented by the 1991 May Shoreline Assessment, may be perceived as an injury to these areas. In addition to the injury from the oil, hundreds of workers, motorized machinery and support equipment were used in the wilderness areas during the cleanup. These cleanup activities disrupted uses of the wilderness, such as camping and fishing. These lands and resources may have intrinsic or nonuse values, as well as uses, which also were affected by the oil spill.



SUMMARY OF THE SETTLEMENT

Restoration Framework

Prepared by: Exxon Valdez Oil Spill Trustees

On October 8, 1991 an agreement was approved by the United States District Court that settled the claims of the United States and the State of Alaska against Exxon Corporation and Exxon Shipping Company for various criminal violations and for recovery of civil damages resulting from the oil spill.

Exxon and Exxon Shipping entered guilty pleas to criminal charges filed in the United States District Court. The companies admitted violating provisions of the Federal Water Pollution Control Act (Clean Water Act), the Migratory Bird Treaty Act and the Rivers and Harbors Act (Refuse Act). The sentences entered by United States District Judge H. Russel Holland included the largest fine ever imposed for an environmental crime—$150 million.

Exxon Corporation and its subsidiary companies also entered into a civil settlement agreement with the United States and the State of Alaska. The governments had filed lawsuits against the Exxon companies, seeking to recover damages for injuries to natural resources and the restoration and replacement of natural resources. The Exxon companies agreed to pay up to $900 million to the State and Federal governments. This was the largest sum ever recovered in the United States in an environmental enforcement civil action.

Thousands of private individuals and other litigants are still pursuing claims in Federal and State courts against the Exxon companies and others, seeking to collect billions of dollars in damages. The litigation in the Alaska Superior Court has been tentatively set for trial during April 1993. No trial date has been set for the litigation in the United States District Court.

Criminal Plea Agreement

Exxon and Exxon Shipping were fined $150 million. Of this amount, the sum of $125 million was remitted (i.e. forgiven) due to their cooperation with the governments during the cleanup, timely payment of many private claims, and environmental precautions taken since the spill. The remaining $25 million was paid as follows:

- $12 million deposited into the North American Wetlands Conservation Fund; and
- $13 million deposited into the Victims of Crime Act Account

The Exxon companies also agreed to pay $100 million as restitution. Fifty million dollars was paid to the United States and $50 million to the State of Alaska. The State and Federal governments will separately manage the $50 million payment that each has received. These criminal restitution funds must, by order of the United States District Court, be used "exclusively for restoration projects, within the State of Alaska, relating to the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill." The court order states that "restoration includes: restoration, replacement, and enhancement of affected resources, acquisition of equivalent resources and services; and long-term environmental monitoring and research program directed to the prevention, containment, cleanup and amelioration of oil spills."

The Civil Settlement and Restoration Fund

The terms of the civil settlement can be found in the Agreement and Consent Decree. This document details the agreement among the United States, the State of Alaska, Exxon Corporation, Exxon Shipping Company, Exxon Pipeline Company, and the T/V Ex*xon Valdez* that settled the civil claims asserted by the governments. The document was approved in civil actions A91-082 (United States v. Exxon Corp.) and A91-083 (State of Alaska v. Exxon Corp.) by United Sates District Judge H. Russel Holland on October 8, 1991. The period for consideration of appeals ended on December 9, 1991.

The Exxon Companies agreed to pay the United States and the State of Alaska up to $900 million over a period of 10 years, according to the following schedule:

Scheduled Date	Amount
December 1991	$90 Million
December 1992	$150 Million[1]
September 1993	$100 Million
September 1994	$70 Million
September 1995	$70 Million
September 1996	$70 Million
September 1997	$70 Million
September 1998	$70 Million
September 1999	$70 Million
September 2000	$70 Million
September 2001	$70 Million

[1]Exxon's cleanup costs for the 1991 and 1992 field season may be deducted from this payment.

Out of this money, the governments plan to reimburse themselves about $215 million, and Exxon about $50 million for their 1991 and 1992 cleanup costs.

The settlement with Exxon also has a reopener provision, that allows the governments to claim up to and additional $100 million between September 1, 2002 and September 1, 2006 to restore one or more populations, habitats or species that suffered a substantial loss or decline as a result of the spill.

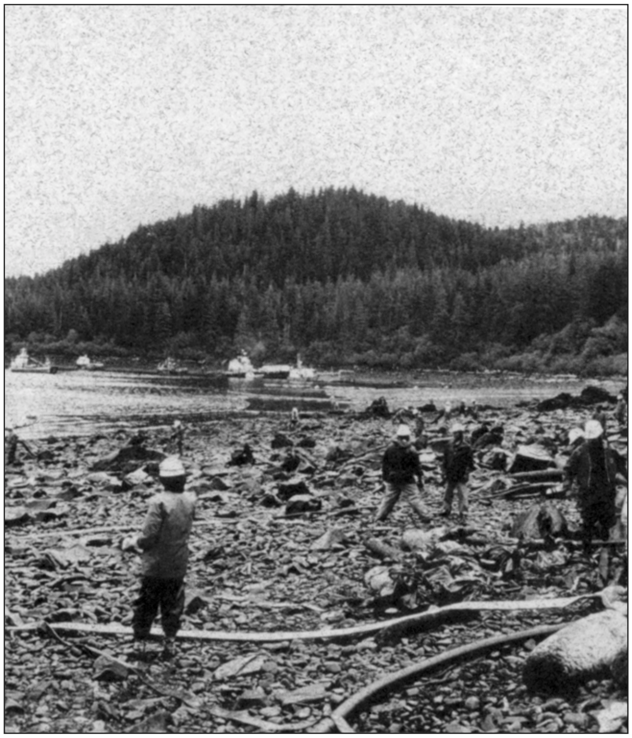
Restoration projects funded with this money must have costs that are not grossly disproportionate to the magnitude of the benefits anticipated, and the injury could not reasonably have been known or anticipated from information available at the time of settlement.

The spending guidelines for the civil settlement monies (up to $900 million) are set forth in the Memorandum of Agreement and Consent Decree (hereafter referred to as Memorandum of Agreement), which was filed in the United States District Court for the District of Alaska in civil action A91-081 (United States v. State of Alaska) and approved and entered by United States District Judge H. Russel Holland on August 28, 1991. Through this document the United States and the State of Alaska resolved their claims against each other and agreed to act as co-trustees in the collection and joint use of all natural resource damage recoveries resulting from the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill.

The Memorandum of Agreement provides that the governments shall jointly use such monies for purposes of "restoring, replacing, enhancing, rehabilitating or acquiring the equivalent of natural resources injured as a result of the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill and the reduced or lost services provided by such resources." The Trustees also may use the money to reimburse expenses the governments have incurred due to the oil spill, including costs of litigation, response and damage assessment. The following table summarizes the major points of the Memorandum of Agreement:

Memorandom of Agreement Guidelines

- all decisions shall be made by the unanimous agreement of the six Trustees;
- a joint trust fund will be established;
- within 90 days after the receipt of funds, the Trustees shall agree to an organizational structure for decision making;
- within 90 days after the receipt of funds, the Trustees shall establish procedures for meaningful public participation, which shall include a public advisory group;
- the Trustees "...shall jointly use all natural resource damage recoveries for purposes of restoring, replacing, enhancing, rehabilitating, or acquiring the equivalent of natural resources injured as a result of the Oil Spill and the reduced or lost services provided by such resources..." (except for the reimbursement of certain expenses to the govern ments); and
- all natural resource damage recoveries will be expended on restoration of natural resources in Alaska unless the Trustees unanimously agree that spending funds outside of the state is necessary for effective restoration.



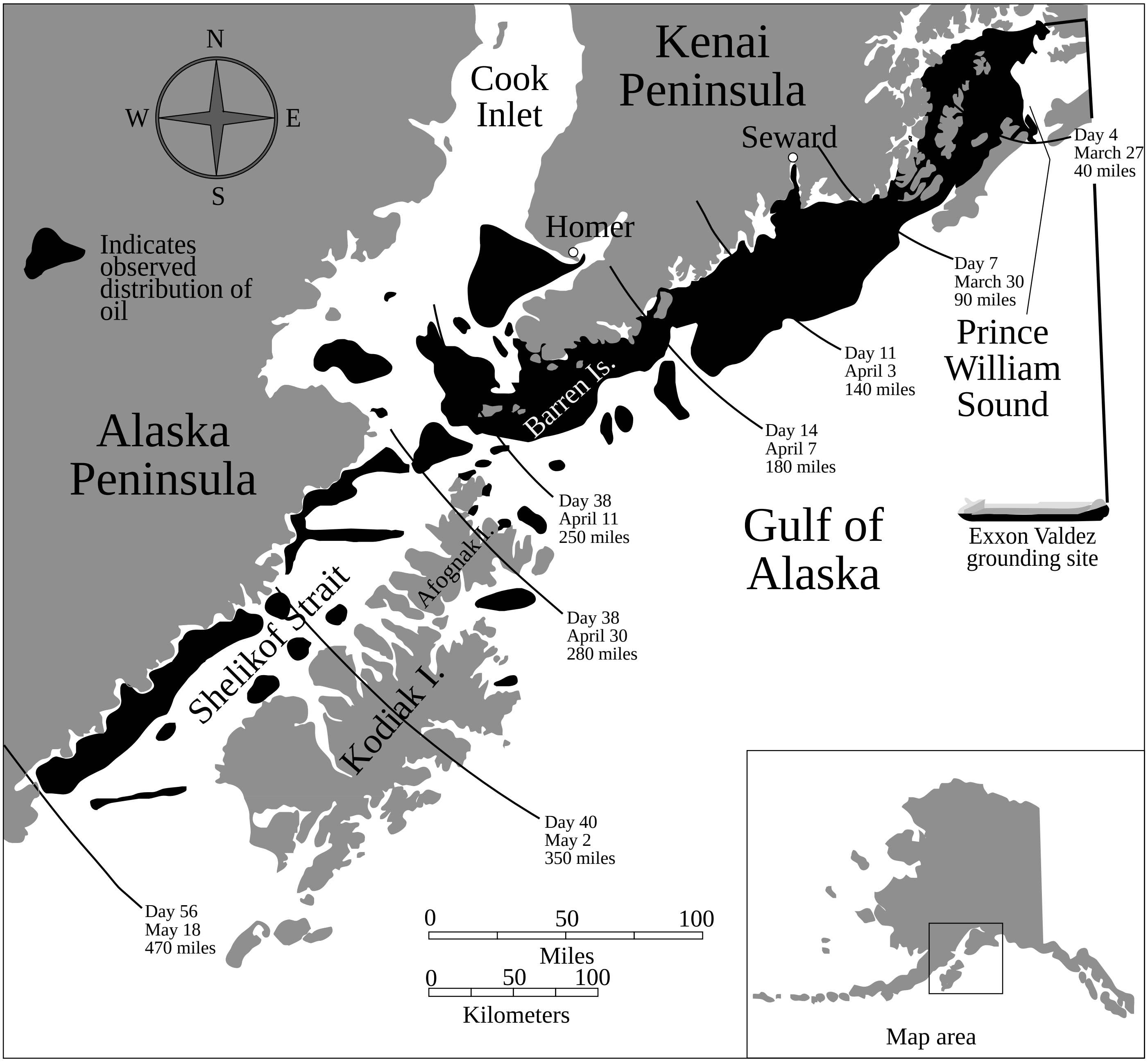
Coastal Habitat *continued from page 10*

which feed in the water column, taken 500 miles from the T/V Exxon Valdez grounding site on Bligh Reef, showed elevated petroleum hydrocarbon metabolite concentrations in their bile. These data indicate that surface oil affected the water column or food supply at great distances from the spill.

No pre-spill data were available to directly determine if the oil spill had altered shallow subtidal communities, so the effects of hydrocarbons were investigated by comparison of oiled and unoiled areas. Data are available for 1990. The greatest differences between oiled and unoiled areas have been observed in the shallow-water eelgrass beds and their associated habitat. Within the oiled eelgrass beds there were lower densities of eelgrass, few Telmessus crabs and fewer amphipods, but more small mussels and juvenile cod. Even greater differences were observed, however, in the abundance of fauna at depths from 6-20 meters below the oiled eelgrass beds, where there were far fewer individuals in oiled areas. In the shallow subtidal rocky areas (less than 20 m) Laminaria communities were studied, both in bays and around points on the open coast. In the Laminaria habitat fewer differences were noted between oiled and unoiled areas. The most noticeable difference was the greater abundance of young Laminaria plants, but fewer large older plants in oiled areas. In shallow-water sandy areas, eelgrass beds and areas around them were studied.

Post-spill populations of spot shrimp were studied in oiled and unoiled areas of Prince William Sound. Some differences were found between populations in these areas. The results of these studies are still being evaluated.

Overview of the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill



This map is a composite overview of oil spill tracking from March 24, 1989 to June 20, 1989. All categories of oil are represented. The map covers approximately an area of 28,500 square kilometers. This map is based on a map produced by the State of Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation.

Habitat Acquisition Key to Successful Settlement

by Alan Phipps
Alaska Center for the Environment

Of the $900 million to be received from Exxon under the "civil" portion of the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill Settlement, it appears that only somewhere in the neighborhood of $650 million will actually be available for restoration after the state and federal governments, and Exxon, receive reimbursement for spill clean-up costs and other expenses. Adjusting for inflation, since these funds will be received over the next ten years, only approximately $500 million (in 1991 dollars) will actually be available for restoration – a pitifully inadequate sum in compensation for this environmental catastrophe.

The Settlement also does not provide for adequate accountability of the Trustees to the public. Although the Settlement requires "meaningful" public participation, the Trustees are appointed, not elected, and the role of the Public Advisory Group (PAG) is limited to just that – "advising" the Trustees. Unfortunately, the Trustees have ensured that they will hear the "right" advice by appointing to various seats, including the five "public-at-large" seats, people who will represent the views of the Hickel and Bush administrations.

But, despite such shortcomings, good things can be done with these monies if the Spill Settlement Trustees move quickly to acquire privately owned upland fish and wildlife habitat and recreation parcels. The importance of habitat acquisition is clear. There is very little that we can do directly to "restore" the spill impacted ecosystem. Dr. Robert Spies, Chief Scientist for the Trustees, has publicly suggested that nature is doing the primary job of restoration. What we must do to facilitate the recovery of the environment, therefore, is protect the ecosystem from further negative impacts from activities such as logging and road building. A comprehensive acquisition program, by keeping the coastal forest ecosystem largely intact, will also help ensure a sustainable future for the commercial fishing, sport fishing and hunting, tourism, recreation, subsistence, and other economic and cultural activities which provide livelihoods for residents of spill-impacted communities.

This can be done by first initiating preliminary discussions with all private landowners to identify potential willing sellers of lands or development rights. This will send a clear signal that habitat acquisition is a reality, and enable landowners to consider acquisition as an alternative to logging. The Trustees should then initiate good faith negotiations, especially focused on those areas subject to logging, road building, and other activities with the potential to negatively impact the ecosystem.

The Trustees so far have not done this, instead only funding studies (some of which are needed and funded at appropriate levels, some of which are not) and considering only acquisition of "imminently threatened" parcels on a limited basis. This forces landowners to initiate logging activities if they want their lands considered for acquisition, and leaves open the question of how seriously restoration through acquisition will be pursued.

While the Trustees have tried to suggest that they are serious about acquisition, other actions by the Hickel and Bush administrations indicate just the opposite. For instance, Governor Hickel recently vetoed in its entirety a bill passed by the Alaska Legislature which included the authorization of the expenditure of nearly $40 million of the state's $50 million criminal settlement funds for acquisition of habitat.

Unless the Trustees embark immediately on an aggressive campaign to use the $500 million primarily for acquisition of habitat on private parcels in Prince William Sound, Kenai Fjords National Park, Kachemak Bay State Park, Afognak Island, and elsewhere, the opportunity to leave a grand and lasting legacy in the wake of this environmental tragedy will be lost, and the Settlement will be a failure.

To understand the outcome of the oil spill settlement we asked a representative from both the State of Alaska and the Center for the Environment to write their thoughts. Both originally agreed, but later the State declined. They thought it would not be appropriate to write a viewpoint due to litigation still pending. This is unfortunate, because through the eyes of those involved in the day to day buisness of the oil spill, it helps those of us who aren't to understand what is happening. So while one perspective is missing we have chosen to include the other perspective, with the thought that one view is still better than nothing.

Oiled Loon

*For current information, visit our website at www.uaf.edu/map/People.html

Office and Staff Directory*

Contact any of the following offices for information on:

- **Fisheries Business Management**
- **Seafood Technology**
- **Quality Control**
- **Gear Technology**
- **Processing**
- **Legislation**
- **Workshops**
- **Tax Preparation**
- **Marine Safety**
- **Marketing**
- **Packing and Shipping**
- **Regulations**
- **Publications**
- **Research**
- **Aquaculture**

- **Anchorage**
  Marine Advisory Program
  Carlton Trust Building, #110
  2221 E. Northern Lights Blvd.
  Anchorage, Alaska 99508-4140
  Voice 907-274-9691
  Fax 907-277-5242
  John Doyle
  Donald Kramer
  Deborah Mercy
  Ray RaLonde
  Craig Wiese

- **Cordova**
  Marine Advisory Program
  P.O. Box 830
  Cordova, Alaska 99574
  Voice 907-424-3446
  Fax 907-424-5246
  Rick Steiner

- **Kotzebue**
  Marine Advisory Program
  P.O. Box 297
  Kotzebue, Alaska 99752
  Position vacant

- **Bethel**
  Marine Advisory Program
  UAF Kuskokwim Campus
  P.O. Box 368
  Bethel, Alaska 99559
  Voice 907-543-4515
  Fax 907-543-4527
  Geri Hoffman-Sumpter

- **Dillingham**
  Marine Advisory Program
  P.O. Box 1549
  Dillingham, Alaska 99576
  Voice 907-842-1265
  Fax 907-842-5692
  Terry Johnson

- **Homer**
  Marine Advisory Program
  4014 Lake Street, #201B
  Homer, Alaska 99603
  Voice 907-235-5643
  Fax 907-235-6048
  Douglas Coughenower

- **Petersburg**
  Marine Advisory Program
  P.O. Box 1329
  Petersburg, Alaska 99833
  Voice 907-772-3381
  Fax 907-772-4431
  Brian Paust

- **Sitka**
  Marine Advisory Program
  1297 Seward Avenue
  Sitka, Alaska 99835
  Voice 907-747-3988
  Fax 907-747-3552
  Dolly Garza

- **Kodiak**
  Marine Advisory Program
  900 Trident Way
  Kodiak, Alaska 99615
  Voice 907-486-1514
  Fax 907-486-1540
  Charles Crapo
  Hank Pennington

Publication of Alaska Marine Resources is made possible through funding from the Alaska Sea Grant Program which is cooperatively supported by the U.S. Department of Commerce, NOAA Office of Sea Grant and Extramural Programs, under grant Number NA82AA-D-00044F, project number A/71-01; and by the University of Alaska with funds appropriated by the state.

Publisher: University of Alaska
Marine Advisory Program
Donald Kramer, Chairman
Donald E. Kramer
Managing Editor: Deborah Mercy
Technical Editor: Rick Steiner
Photography: John Hyde, Douglas Schneider

Subscription: To receive this publication send your name and address to the Anchorage office. There is no charge.

ALASKA'S MARINE RESOURCES

University of Alaska
Marine Advisory Program
2221 E. Northern Lights Blvd., Suite 110
Anchorage, Alaska 99508-4140