

# Biomarkers: a strategic tool in the assessment of environmental quality of coastal waters

Ana Picado · M. J. Bebianno · M. H. Costa ·  
A. Ferreira · C. Vale

© Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2007

9 **Abstract** Ecosystems are under the pressure of  
10 complex mixtures of contaminants whose effects  
11 are not always simple to assess. Biomarkers,  
12 acting as early warning signals of the presence  
13 of potentially toxic xenobiotics, are useful tools  
14 for assessing either exposure to, or the effects of  
15 these compounds providing information about  
16 the toxicant bioavailability. In fact, it has been  
17 argued that a full understanding of ecotoxicolog-  
18 ical processes must consider an integrated multi-  
19 level approach, in which molecular impact is  
20 related with higher-order biological consequences

A1 Guest editors: M. J. Costa, H. Cabral & J. L. Costa  
A2 Towards an integrated knowledge and management of  
A3 estuarine systems

A4 A. Picado (✉)  
A5 INETI, Estrada Paço Lumiar, 1649-038 Lisbon,  
A6 Portugal  
A7 e-mail: ana.picado@ineti.pt

A8 M. J. Bebianno  
A9 CIMA, FCMA, University of Algarve, Campus de  
A10 Gambelas, 8000 Faro, Portugal

A11 M. H. Costa  
A12 IMAR, DCEA, New University of Lisbon, Quinta da  
A13 Torre, 2829-516 Caparica, Portugal

A14 A. Ferreira · C. Vale  
A15 INIAP-IPIMAR, Av. Brasilia, 1449-006 Lisbon,  
Portugal

at the individual, population and community 21  
levels. Monitoring programs should make use of 22  
this tool to link contaminants and ecological 23  
responses fulfilling strategies like those launched 24  
by OSPAR (Commissions of Oslo and Paris) 25  
Convention on the protection of the marine 26  
environment of the North-East Atlantic and the 27  
International Council for the Exploration of 28  
the Sea (ICES). An overview of the work done 29  
in the past few years using biomarkers as in situ 30  
tools for pollution assessment in Portuguese 31  
coastal waters is presented as a contribution to 32  
the set up of a biomonitoring program for the 33  
Portuguese coastal zone. Considering the data set 34  
available the biomonitoring proposal should 35  
include the analysis of biomarkers and effects at 36  
individual levels. The aim of the program will 37  
include a spatial and temporal characterization of 38  
the biomarkers acetyl-cholinesterase, metallothi- 39  
oneins, DNA damage, adenylate energy charge 40  
and scope-for-growth levels. The investigation of 41  
the spatial variation of biomarkers is crucial to 42  
define sites for long term monitoring, which will 43  
be integrated with a chemical monitoring pro- 44  
gram. This framework will be a major contribution 45  
to the implementation of a national database for 46  
the use of biomarkers along the Portuguese coast. 47

**Keywords** Biomarkers of exposure · 48  
Biomarkers of defence · Coastal waters · 49  
Monitoring · Environment quality 50

51 **Introduction**

52 An assessment of the environmental quality of  
53 coastal waters in terms of chemical analysis on  
54 specific compounds fails in its objectives knowing  
55 that ecosystems are under the pressure of complex  
56 mixtures of contaminants not always simple to  
57 analyse. With the general spread of organic con-  
58 taminants (such as herbicides, insecticides and  
59 antifouling agents) whose analytical measure-  
60 ments were difficult in water and likely to cause  
61 adverse effects in the marine environment atten-  
62 tion turned to effects on biota (Lam & Gray, 2003).

63 Marine organisms have the ability to accumu-  
64 late contaminants from the environment where  
65 they live at much higher concentrations and, at the  
66 same time, showing much less spatial and tempo-  
67 ral variability. Therefore, *Mussel Watch* programs  
68 have been used worldwide to assess pollution  
69 levels of coastal zones (Goldberg et al., 1978).  
70 However, levels of contaminants did not provide  
71 accurate information about the effects on the  
72 organisms. Therefore biological indicators have  
73 been used to provide accurate information about  
74 the health of marine ecosystems. An indicator  
75 may reflect biological, chemical or physical attri-  
76 butes of ecological condition. The primary uses of  
77 an indicator are to characterize current status and  
78 to track or predict significant changes that relay a  
79 complex message, potentially from numerous  
80 sources, in a simplified and useful manner. An  
81 ecological indicator is defined here as a measure,  
82 an index of measures, or a model that character-  
83 izes an ecosystem or one of its critical compo-  
84 nents. With a foundation of diagnostic research,  
85 an ecological indicator may also be used to  
86 identify major ecosystem stress. Other indicators  
87 called biomarkers are defined as quantitative  
88 measures of changes in the biological system that  
89 respond to either (or both) exposure to, and/or  
90 doses of substances that lead to biological effects  
91 and are potential tools for detecting either expo-  
92 sure to, or effects of, contaminants and give  
93 responses at different levels of biological organi-  
94 zation: biochemical, physiological, organism and  
95 population (Lam & Gray, 2003).

96 The assessment of biological effects reveals  
97 itself to be of great value in terms of manage-  
98 ment aiming to assess the quality of coastal

waters. Over the years, many biomarkers have  
been developed that are efficient at providing  
an early warning of deleterious effects on  
biological systems and by the mid 1980s a wide  
range of biomarkers were developed and ap-  
plied in monitoring programs. The monitoring  
of biological effects has recently become an  
integral component of environmental monitor-  
ing programs as a supplement to the commonly  
used contaminant monitoring (Lam & Gray,  
2003).

Goldberg & Bertine (2000) underlined that the  
analysis of the detoxifying enzymes, cytochrome  
P-450, metallothioneins and estrogenic substances  
can provide useful information on the potential  
effects of several contaminants in the aquatic  
environment.

Therefore, future monitoring programs should  
make use of this tool to link contaminants and  
ecological responses fulfilling the strategies  
launched by the OSPAR convention (2004) and  
the International Council for the Exploration of  
the Sea (ICES). The OSPAR Convention that  
aims to protect the marine environment of the  
Northeast Atlantic requires taking all possible  
action to prevent and eliminate pollution. Under  
the Joint Assessment and Monitoring Programme  
and concerning the quality of the marine envi-  
ronment, monitoring for contaminants in water,  
sediment and biota are required. Also the ICES  
Strategy, stating “human activities on land and  
sea have an impact on marine ecosystems,” aims  
to understand the physical and biological func-  
tioning of marine ecosystems as well as to  
evaluate the ecosystem effects of human activi-  
ties. ICES also established a working group to  
study the application of biomarkers (ICES, 1997,  
2001). The adoption of such a strategy will  
contribute to the challenge launched by the EU  
Water Framework Directive (WFD) concerning  
the objective of assessing the ecological effects of  
pollution.

Lagadic et al. (1997) underlined the impor-  
tance of measuring several biomarkers at the  
same time in the same organisms, which allows  
a pertinent approach to evaluate the effects of  
pollutants on individuals. This multiparametric  
approach using different and/or complimentary  
biomarkers will enable an assessment of the

148 effects of the different contaminants present in  
 149 the aquatic environment. Although there is the  
 150 need to develop research and validate results in  
 151 the field and to improve the knowledge of the  
 152 real physiological meaning of some of these  
 153 indices, different biomarkers are being used in  
 154 different countries as part of different marine  
 155 monitoring programs. In 1995 OSPARCOM/  
 156 ICES agreed on a joint biological monitoring  
 157 program for the North Sea (JAMP, 1998a, b).  
 158 This is an example of an international program  
 159 that has integrated the use of several biomar-  
 160 kers into a routine monitoring of coastal waters.  
 161 At the national level, several countries have  
 162 launched similar programs. The UK National  
 163 Marine Monitoring Programme (NMMP UK,  
 164 2004) includes levels of contaminants in biota,  
 165 water and sediments but also biological effect  
 166 monitoring. In this monitoring program, bio-  
 167 markers and/or bioassays are included, besides  
 168 the chemical analysis of metals or organic  
 169 compounds, such as PCBs and PAHs, namely.  
 170 In the Basque Country (Northern Spain) water  
 171 quality and contaminants in molluscs have been  
 172 monitored, since 1990, in five areas licensed  
 173 previously for shellfish production (Franco et al.,  
 174 2002). Those results were used to define the main  
 175 patterns and temporal trends of pollutants in  
 176 molluscs. Furthermore, since 1995, a monitoring  
 177 program was established (Borja et al., 2004).  
 178 The aim of this paper is to outline a biological  
 179 effect based monitoring program. These tools can  
 180 be used for screening and for diagnosis, in trend  
 181 analysis or for predictive purposes, including risk  
 182 assessment (Den Besten, 1998).

### 183 Biomarkers in the Portuguese coastal zone

184 In the past few years several biomarkers have  
 185 been used as in situ tools for the evaluation of  
 186 pollution effects in different biological species  
 187 sampled in different sites along the Portuguese  
 188 coast or in sediment bioassays, by assessing  
 189 multiple biological effects at several levels of  
 190 biological organization. The results outlined here  
 191 were not integrated under any kind of a national  
 192 monitoring program. Examples of biomarker  
 193 application are described below.

### Adenylate energy charge (AEC) 194

AEC is the energy balance for an organism at a 195  
 given instant and is calculated by the equation 196  
 (Atkinson & Walton, 1967): 197

$$\text{AEC} = \frac{[(\text{ATP}) + 1/2 (\text{ADP})]}{[(\text{ATP}) + (\text{ADP}) + (\text{AMP})]}$$

AEC theoretical values are situated between 0 199  
 and 1. This biochemical index reaches high values 200  
 (0.9) under optimal conditions but drops rapidly 201  
 in the presence of stressing agents. In vertebrates, 202  
 AEC is strongly regulated and maintained within 203  
 narrow limits. In contrast, in invertebrates, AEC 204  
 displays a wide range of values according to 205  
 the importance of the internal stress or to the 206  
 variations in the external environment of the 207  
 organisms (natural or anthropogenic). Global 208  
 indices, specifically an index based on the mea- 209  
 surement of the metabolic energy pool, do have 210  
 their place in any approach of long-term effects of 211  
 low level contaminants present in marine envi- 212  
 ronment (Howells et al., 1990). 213

Different studies were carried out in different 214  
 species sampled in different sites, namely: the 215  
 oyster *Crassostrea angulata* (Lamarck, 1819) col- 216  
 lected at two sites along the Portuguese coast, the 217  
 polychaete *Lanice conchilega* (Pallas, 1766) sam- 218  
 pled in three sites of the Sado estuary and the 219  
 clam *Ruditapes decussatus* (Linnaeus, 1758) in the 220  
 Aveiro and Ria Formosa lagoons. The appear- 221  
 ance of a signal linked to the intensity of the 222  
 stressor can indicate the limits of an active 223  
 response of an organism. The use of AEC in field 224  
 studies allowed a classification of different sites 225  
 according to environmental conditions (Picado, 226  
 1997; Thébault et al., 2000). 227

### Genotoxicity 228

Given the very important role that the DNA 229  
 molecule plays in life and reproduction of each 230  
 organism, a number of studies have concentrated 231  
 on biomarkers of DNA damage to detect 232  
 genotoxic effects of complex chemical mixtures 233  
 in natural environments (Husby & McBee, 1999; 234  
 Theodorakis et al., 2000; Neuparth, 2004; 235

236 Neuparth et al., 2005). Additionally, the detection  
237 of structural/functional disturbances to DNA  
238 enables the assessment of organismal health and  
239 can assist in the prevention of the proliferation of  
240 DNA damage in the food chain, including hu-  
241 mans (Handy et al., 2002).

242 Several methods have been used for assessing  
243 DNA strand breaks in eukaryotic cells, being the  
244 comet assay, or single-cell gel electrophoresis  
245 (SCGE), one of the most common over the last  
246 decade. Nevertheless, compared to other tech-  
247 niques used to assess DNA damage, detection of  
248 DNA strand breakage by agarose gel electropho-  
249 resis has the advantage of determining insult to  
250 DNA integrity both qualitatively (single strand-  
251 breaks versus double strand-breaks) and quanti-  
252 tatively (number of strand breaks) (Neuparth  
253 et al., 2005). In addition it can also be applied to  
254 DNA extracted from whole organisms, thus not  
255 requiring manipulation of small specimens to  
256 collect specific tissues (Costa et al., 2002). Other  
257 genotoxicity biomarkers, such as nuclear abnor-  
258 malities or nuclear DNA content variation, have  
259 also been used in several ecotoxicological studies  
260 to evaluate a different category of genotoxicity  
261 response—chromosomal damage (Gravato &  
262 Santos, 2003; Maria et al., 2003 as examples of  
263 nuclear abnormalities studies, or: Bickham, 1990;  
264 Husby & McBee, 1999; Neuparth, 2004, for  
265 nuclear DNA content variation studies). The  
266 use of multiple genotoxic biomarkers (DNA and  
267 chromosomal damage biomarkers) in the same  
268 organism showed to be very helpful in establish-  
269 ing cause-effect relationships more rigorously.

270 In Portugal these genotoxicity biomarkers have  
271 been applied mainly to fishes and crustaceans in  
272 estuarine environments and effluents receiving  
273 water bodies (Gravato & Santos, 2003; Maria  
274 et al., 2003; Neuparth, 2004; Neuparth et al., 2005;  
275 Costa et al., 2005).

## 276 Histopatology

277 Studies addressing impacts at histological and  
278 cellular levels of organization are particularly  
279 important to establish the cause and effect rela-  
280 tionships between exposure to contaminants and  
281 adverse health of organisms. Besides histopatol-

ogies, like neoplastic lesions or functional disrup-  
282 tion, detection of heavy metals can be a useful  
283 biomarker of exposure, particularly to demon-  
284 strate its bioavailability in the environment.  
285

286 These kinds of effects address different target  
287 organs and tissues and distinct environmental  
288 disturbances.

289 Some examples can be mentioned: structural  
290 changes in the midgut gland of crustaceans  
291 (digestive diverticules histology and changes in  
292 the ultra structure of the epithelial cells) (Correia  
293 et al., 2002a, b), structural damage in the liver,  
294 gonads and gills of fishes and in the digestive  
295 gland and gonads of bivalves (Del Valls et al.,  
296 2004).

## Imposex/Intersex 297

298 Organotin compounds are one of the more toxic  
299 compounds that man deliberately introduced in  
300 the aquatic environment and they have adverse  
301 effects on several species of marine organisms,  
302 which are not target of antifouling paints.

303 Effects of organotin compounds in the aquatic  
304 environment include shell malformation in oys-  
305 ters, the imposition of male sex organs on female  
306 neogastropods (imposex) reduced scope for  
307 growth and a consequent population decline in a  
308 variety of molluscs. Therefore, molluscs are the  
309 most sensitive taxa to chronic, low level exposure  
310 to organotin compounds, particularly to tributyl-  
311 tin (TBT).

312 Imposex is a well known biomarker of effect of  
313 organotin compounds in neogastro Prosobranch  
314 gastropods exhibit all types of sexuality and sexes  
315 are separated and unchanged throughout the life  
316 history of the individual. The impact of organotin  
317 compounds in these species revealed that imposex  
318 is irreversible and occurred in populations who  
319 live near the proximity of boat centres, harbours  
320 and marinas and is correlated with the concen-  
321 tration of TBT compounds accumulated in gas-  
322 tropod tissues. The masculinisation effect of TBT  
323 (initiated at a TBT concentration of around  
324 0.5 ng l<sup>-1</sup> Sn, or less, in the water) on female  
325 gastropods is well documented (Gibbs & Bryan,  
326 1986). During the past three decades, females of  
327 an increasing number of gonochoristic gastropods

328 have been found to exhibit imposex and abnormal  
329 penis-bearing females have been recorded in over  
330 200 gastropod species (Bettin et al., 1996; Schulte-  
331 Oehlmann et al., 2000) in coastal waters world-  
332 wide.

333 In European coastal waters, imposex in *Nucel-*  
334 *la lapillus* (Linnaeus, 1758) has been extensively  
335 used as a biomarker of TBT pollution because the  
336 masculinisation process occurs in a predictable  
337 manner (Bryan et al., 1986; Gibbs & Bryan, 1986).  
338 However in areas where this species is unavail-  
339 able imposex in the nassariids such as *Nassarius*  
340 (=Hinia) *reticulatus* (Linnaeus, 1758) has been  
341 used instead although in these species imposex  
342 does not seem to interfere with the female  
343 breeding activity. Along the coast of Portugal  
344 imposex levels in both species *N. lapillus* and *N.*  
345 *reticulatus* revealed that imposex was a spread  
346 phenomenon in estuarine and coastal waters.  
347 Female sterilization even occurred in the main  
348 harbours of the Portuguese Coast (Langston  
349 et al., 1998; Barroso et al., 2002, Santos et al.,  
350 2000, 2002).

### 351 **Metallothioneins (MTs)**

352 MTs are a family of peculiar proteins whose  
353 characteristics enable to differentiate them from  
354 all the other proteins. MTs are low molecular  
355 weight (6–7 kDa) heat stable cytosolic proteins of  
356 non-enzymatic nature, ubiquitous in the animal  
357 kingdom. These proteins have an unusual amino  
358 acid composition: 1/3 is cysteines in fixed positions  
359 of the molecule and with no aromatic amino acids.  
360 They are able to bind class B metal ions  
361 (Ag > Hg > Cu > Cd > Zn, 6–7 or 12 atoms per  
362 molecule) in two metal thiolate clusters linked by  
363 two lysines and metal ions are bound to the sulphur  
364 atoms of the cysteines (Dabrio et al., 2002).

365 Although the function of these proteins re-  
366 mained controversial, they are probably impor-  
367 tant in detoxification of non-essential and excess  
368 of essential metal ions (Cu and Zn) as well as in  
369 homeostasis of these essential metals. They are  
370 also induced by stress hormones and glucocortic-  
371 oids and protect the cells against oxidative stress  
372 and function as radical scavengers and in gene  
373 regulation (Nordberg, 1998; Chan et al., 2002).

The use of MTs as a biomarker of metal exposure  
was proposed and included in the monitoring  
programs established by ICES and OSPAR  
referred to above.

Along the Portuguese coast MT have been  
measured in several bioindicator species namely  
mussels *Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lamarck, 1819,  
limpets *Patella aspera* (Röding, 1798) and clam  
*Ruditapes decussatus*. MT levels in mussels and  
limpets from different sites along the Southern  
Coast of Portugal revealed that MT concentra-  
tions are directly related with the increase of  
metal levels particularly of Cd and Cu and that all  
the soft tissues and the gills, particularly of the  
mussels, could be appropriate to monitor changes  
of metal levels in the Portuguese coastal environ-  
ment (Bebiano & Machado, 1997; Bebianno  
et al., 2003). In areas where mussels were less  
common, MT levels of an important economic  
shellfish species, the clam *R. decussatus* revealed  
that MT levels in different tissues were directly  
related with changes in Cd levels in the Ria  
Formosa lagoon and in this species the gills  
seemed to be the most appropriate tissue to  
monitor for MT concentrations (Bebiano et al.,  
2003; Bebianno & Serafim, 2003).

### **Scope for growth**

Scope for growth (SFG), or the energy available  
for growth and reproduction, is a stress index  
integrating physiological responses due to envi-  
ronmental changes, either natural or derived from  
human activity. It measures the balance between  
energy acquisition (assimilation) and energy loss  
processes (respiration and excretion) and has  
been widely used in environmental monitoring  
assessment, as well as to measure bivalve re-  
sponses to several stress factors (Widdows &  
Donkin, 1992), especially in the mussel *Mytilus*  
*edulis* Linnaeus, 1758.

Scope for growth is calculated using the  
expression  $SFG = A - (R + U)$ . All rates, assim-  
ilation rates (A), respiration rates (R) and  
excretion rates (U) are weight standardized to a  
body mass close to that of the animals measured  
and converted to Joules (Widdows & Donkin,  
1992).

420 In Portugal, as elsewhere, it has been applied  
421 mainly to bivalves (Sobral & Widdows, 1997,  
422 2000) but also to other invertebrates (Fernandes  
423 et al., 2002).

#### 424 **Biomarkers and scales of classification**

425 Whether it is assumed that biomarkers are of  
426 great potential for environmental monitoring  
427 assessment it has also been stressed that caution  
428 should be given to their application. These tools  
429 can be used for screening, for diagnosis, in trend  
430 analysis or for predictive purposes (den Besten,  
431 1998). It has been recognised that the evaluation  
432 of risk assessment should also take into account  
433 the effects on the biota (Cajaraville et al., 2000).

434 Narbonne et al. (1999) proposed a scale of  
435 classification based on selected biomarkers,  
436 including enzymes indicators of oxidative stress  
437 and cholinesterase activity, among early molecu-  
438 lar events related to toxicological mechanisms of  
439 some contaminants in mussels. This global bio-  
440 marker index (BI) is calculated as the sum of the  
441 individual biomarkers measured and is based on  
442 discriminatory factors calculation. High values of  
443 the Biomarker Index stand for sites exposed to  
444 industrial or domestic water release whereas  
445 lower BI values were found in the open sea or  
446 in sites without industrial or agricultural activities.  
447 Anyhow, there is the need to go further with this  
448 issue in order to establish reliable environmental  
449 indices for the quality assessment of the coastal  
450 environment and for management purposes.

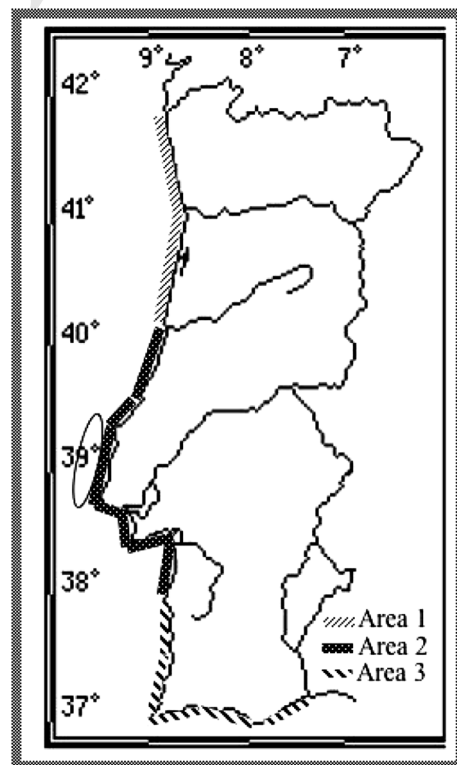
#### 451 **Proposal for monitoring program based 452 on biomarkers**

453 Besides the chemical analysis of several contami-  
454 nants in the biotic and abiotic compartments of  
455 coastal ecosystems, which vary geographically  
456 (Caetano & Vale, 2003; Quental et al., 2003),  
457 biomarkers should be incorporated in national or  
458 regional monitoring programs, to assess the  
459 biological effects of contaminants present in the  
460 coastal environment. Each program should be  
461 defined according to local specificities, namely  
462 the existing data for hydrodynamics, chemical

463 characterization and enough data for a set of  
464 biomarkers concerning ecological relevant species.

465 The aims of the Portuguese program proposal  
466 should include a spatial and temporal character-  
467 ization of the following biomarkers: adenylate  
468 energy charge and scope-for-growth, acetyl-cho-  
469 linesterase, metallothioneins and genetics bio-  
470 markers and also imposex in the hot spots of the  
471 Portuguese coastal zones already identified by the  
472 chemical analysis. In specific sites, the presence of  
473 histopatologies should be assessed, as comple-  
474 mentary information. The Portuguese coast  
475 should be divided into three areas; Area 1- From  
476 Caminha to Figueira da Foz; Area 2- from  
477 Figueira da Foz to Sines; Area 3- from Sines to  
478 Vila Real de Santo António (Fig. 1).

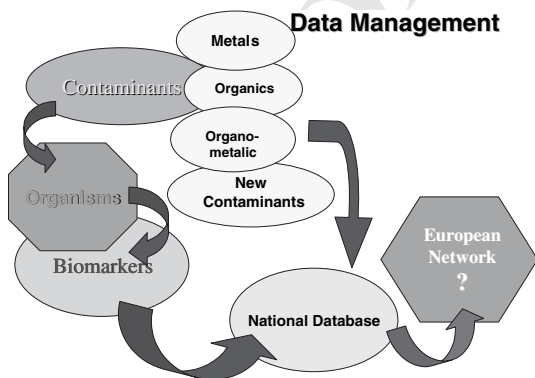
479 Several sites among traffic separation schemes  
480 should also be included between Berlengas and  
481 Cabo da Roca. The strategy should be based on  
482 coastal ecosystems that have been identified as



**Fig. 1** Monitoring areas. Area1: from Caminha to Figueira da Foz; Area 2: from Figueira da Foz to Sines (encircled the area between Berlengas and Cabo da Rocha); Area 3: from Sines to Vila Real de Santo António

483 having high contamination levels, that are directly  
 484 affected by pollution point sources and others not  
 485 directly affected by these sources (control sites).  
 486 Biomarker levels should be compared among  
 487 sites. The first step should be to investigate the  
 488 spatial variation of biomarkers in order to define  
 489 sites for long term monitoring. This framework  
 490 would be a major contribution to the implemen-  
 491 tation of a national database for the use of  
 492 biomarkers along the Portuguese coast. Apart  
 493 from biomarkers, contaminants should be analy-  
 494 sed in water and sediments to try to establish a  
 495 cause and effect relationship between contami-  
 496 nant levels and biological effects. Organisms to be  
 497 analysed for the several biomarkers should  
 498 include molluscs (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*, *Rudi-*  
 499 *tapes decussates*, *Nassarius reticulatus* and *Nucella*  
 500 *lapillus*); Polychaetes [*Nereis diversicolor* (Müller,  
 501 1776)]; Crustaceans [*Carcinus maenas* (Linnaeus,  
 502 1758)] and *Gammarus locusta* Linnaeus, 1758] and  
 503 Fishes [*Platichthys flesus* (Linnaeus, 1758)] and  
 504 *Mugil cephalus* Linnaeus, 1758]. Several methods  
 505 should be used for each of the biomarkers: AchE,  
 506 AEC, EROD, MT, Genotoxicity, Scope for  
 507 Growth, imposex. For organotin compounds  
 508 sampling should be every three to five years  
 509 while for the others sampling will be yearly.

510 Based on the results a database and data  
 511 management should be implemented in accord-  
 512 ance with Fig. 2 with the aim to use the data of  
 513 biomarkers as important tools in environmental  
 514 risk assessment.



**Fig. 2** Data management for the proposed monitoring program

## References

- Atkinson, D. E. & G. M. Walton, 1967. Adenosine triphosphate conservation in metabolic regulation. Rat liver citrate cleavage enzyme. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 242: 3239–3241. 516–519
- Barroso, C. M., M. H. Moreira & M. J. Bebianno, 2002. Imposex, female sterility and organotins in the prosobranch *Nassarius reticulatus* (L.) from the Portuguese Coast. *Marine Environmental Progress Series* 230: 127–135. 520–524
- Bebianno, M. J. & L. M. Machado, 1997. Concentrations of metals and metallothioneins in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* along the South Coast of Portugal. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 34: 666–671. 525–528
- Bebianno, M. J. & M. A. Serafim, 2003. Variation of metallothionein and metal concentrations in a natural clam population of *Ruditapes decussatus*. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 44: 53–56. 529–533
- Bebianno, M. J., A. Cravo, C. Miguel & S. Morais, 2003. Variation of metallothionein concentrations in a field population of *Patella aspera*. *The Science of the Total Environment* 301: 151–161. 534–537
- Bettin, C., J. Oehlmann & E. Stroben, 1996. TBT-induced imposex in marine neogastropods is mediated by an increasing androgen level. *Helgolander Meeresuntersuchungen* 50: 299–317. 538–541
- Bickham, J. W., 1990. Flow cytometry as a technique to monitor the effects of environmental genotoxins on wildlife populations. In Sandu, S. S. (ed.), *In situ biological hazards of environmental pollutants*. Plenum Press, New York, 94–108. 542–546
- Borja, A., J. Franco, V. Valencia, J. Bald, I. Muxika, M. J. Belzunce & O. Solaun, 2004. Implementation of the European water framework directive from the Basque country (Northern Spain): a methodological approach. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 48: 209–218. 547–551
- Bryan, G. W., P. Gibbs, L. G. Hummerstone & G. R. Burt, 1986. The decline of the gastropod *Nucella lapillus* around the South-West England: evidence for the effect of tributyltin from antifouling paints. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom* 66: 611–640. 552–557
- Caetano, M. & C. Vale, 2003. Trace-elemental composition of seston and plankton along the Portuguese coast. *Acta Oecologica* 24: 341–349. 558–560
- Cajaraville, M. P., M. J. Bebianno, J. Blasco, C. Porte, C. Sarasquete & A. Viarengo, 2000. The use of biomarkers to assess the impact of pollution in coastal environments of the Iberian Peninsula: a practical approach. *The Science of the Total Environment* 247: 295–311. 561–566
- Chan, J., Z. Huang, M. E. Merrifield, M. T. Salgado & M. J. Stillman, 2002. Studies of metal binding reactions in metallothioneins by spectroscopic, molecular biology, and molecular modeling techniques. *Coordination Chemistry Reviews* 233–234: 319–339. 567–571
- Correia, A. D., M. H. Costa, K. P. Ryan & J. A. Nott, 2002a. Studies on biomarkers of copper exposure and 572–573

- 574 toxicity in a marine amphipod *Gammarus locusta*  
 575 (Crustacea): II. Copper-containing granules within  
 576 the midgut gland. Journal of Marine Biological  
 577 Association of the United Kingdom 82: 827–834.  
 578 Correia, A. D., A. L. Pereira, M. H. Costa & F. Carrapiço,  
 579 2002b. Functional anatomy of midgut gland of  
 580 *Gammarus locusta* (L.) (Crustacea, Amphipoda).  
 581 Journal of Marine Biological Association of the  
 582 United Kingdom 82: 201–204.  
 583 Costa, F. O., T. Neuparth, M. H. Costa, C. W. Theodorakis  
 584 & L. R. Shugart, 2002. Detection of DNA strand  
 585 breakage in a marine amphipod by agarose gel  
 586 electrophoresis: exposure to X-rays and copper. Bio-  
 587 markers 7: 451–463.  
 588 Costa, F. O., T. Neuparth, A. D. Correia & M. H. Costa,  
 589 2005. Multi-level assessment of chronic toxicity of  
 590 estuarine sediments with the amphipod *Gammarus*  
 591 *locusta*: II. Individual and population endpoints.  
 592 Marine Environmental Research 60: 93–110.  
 593 Dabrio, M., A. R. Rodriguez, M. Nordberg, M. J.  
 594 Bebianno, G. Bordin, M. G. De Ley, I. Sestakova &  
 595 M. Vasak, 2002. Recent developments in quantifica-  
 596 tion methods for metallothionein. Journal of Inor-  
 597 ganic Biochemistry 88: 343–355.  
 598 Del Valls, T. A., M. C. Casado-Martínez, I. Riba & J.  
 599 Blasco, 2004. Linking sediment chemical and biolog-  
 600 ical guidelines for characterization of dredged mater-  
 601 ial. In Proceedings of the 3rd Workshop on  
 602 Monitoring sediment quality at river basin scale.  
 603 Understanding the behaviour and fate of pollutants.  
 604 European Sediment Research Network, Apeldoorn,  
 605 101–105.  
 606 Den Besten, P. J., 1998. Concepts for the implementation  
 607 of Biomarkers in environmental monitoring. Marine  
 608 Environmental Research 46: 253–256.  
 609 Fernandes, S., V. Reis, F. O. Costa, M. H. Costa & P.  
 610 Sobral, 2002. Scope-for-growth of *Gammarus locusta*  
 611 and *Hediste diversicolor* as a tool to evaluate sediment  
 612 quality in coastal systems. Part 1. Reference energy  
 613 budgets. In Duarte, P. (ed.), Proceedings of the  
 614 International Conference on sustainable management  
 615 of coastal Ecosystems. Ramsar, Gland.  
 616 Franco, J., A. Borja, O. Solaun & V. Pérez, 2002.  
 617 Heavy metals in molluscs from the Basque Coast  
 618 (Northern Spain): results from an 11-year monitoring  
 619 programme. Marine Pollution Bulletin 44: 956–976.  
 620 Gibbs, P. E. & G. W. Bryan, 1986. Reproductive failure in  
 621 populations of the dog-whelk, *Nucella lapillus*, caused  
 622 by imposex induced by tributyltin from antifouling  
 623 paints. Journal of the Marine Biological Association  
 624 of the United Kingdom 66: 767–777.  
 625 Goldberg, E. D. & K. K. Bertine, 2000. Beyond the mussel  
 626 watch – new directions for monitoring marine pollu-  
 627 tion. The Science of the Total Environment 247: 165–  
 628 174.  
 629 Goldberg, E. D., V. T. Bowen, J. W. Farrington, G.  
 630 Harvey, J. H. Martin, P. L. Parker, R. W. Risebor-  
 631 ough, W. Robertson, E. Schneider & E. Gambie,  
 632 1978. The mussel watch. Environmental Conservation  
 633 5: 101–125.
- Gravato, C. & M. A. Santos, 2003. Genotoxicity biomar-  
 634 ker' association with B(a)P biotransformation in  
 635 *Dicentrarchus labrax* L. Ecotoxicology and Environ-  
 636 mental Safety 55: 352–358.  
 637 Handy, R. D., A. N. Jha & M. H. Depledge, 2002.  
 638 Biomarker approaches for ecotoxicological biomon-  
 639 itoring at different levels of biological organisation.  
 640 In Burden, F., I. McKelvie, U. Förstner & A. Guenther  
 641 (eds), Handbook of Environmental Monitoring.  
 642 McGraw Hill, New York, 9.1–9.32.  
 643 Howells, G., D. Calamari, J. Gary & P. G. Wells, 1990. An  
 644 analytical approach to assessment of long term effects  
 645 of low level of contaminants in the marine environ-  
 646 ment. Marine Pollution Bulletin 21: 371–375.  
 647 Husby, M. P. & K. McBee, 1999. Nuclear DNA content  
 648 variation and double-strand DNA breakage in white-  
 649 footed mice (*Peromyscus leucopus*) collected from  
 650 abandoned strip mines, Oklahoma, USA. Environ-  
 651 mental Toxicology and Chemistry 18: 926–931.  
 652 ICES, 1997. ICES review of the status of biological effects  
 653 techniques relative to their potential application  
 654 programmes. ICES Cooperative Research Report  
 655 222: 12–20.  
 656 ICES, 2001. The ICES Strategic Plan. ICES, Copenhagen.  
 657 JAMP, 1998a. JAMP guidelines for general biological  
 658 effects monitoring. Joint Assessment and Monitoring  
 659 Programme. Oslo and Paris Commissions, Oslo.  
 660 JAMP, 1998b. JAMP guidelines for contaminant-specific  
 661 biological effects monitoring. Joint Assessment and  
 662 Monitoring Programme. Oslo and Paris Commissions,  
 663 Oslo.  
 664 Lagadic, L., T. Caquet & J. C. Amiard, 1997. Intérêt d'une  
 665 approche multiparamétrique pour le suivi de la  
 666 qualité de l'environnement. In Lagadic, L., T. Caquet,  
 667 J. C. Amiard & F. Ramade (eds), Biomarqueurs en  
 668 écotoxicologie. Aspects Fondamentaux. Masson,  
 669 Paris, 393–401.  
 670 Lam, P. K. S. & J. S. Gray, 2003. The use of biomarkers in  
 671 environmental monitoring programmes. Marine Pol-  
 672 lution Bulletin 46: 182–186.  
 673 Langston, W. J., M. J. Bebianno & G. R. Burt, 1998. Metal  
 674 handling strategies in molluscs. In Langston, J. & M.  
 675 J. Bebianno (eds), Metal metabolism in the aquatic  
 676 environment. Chapman and Hall, London, 219–272.  
 677 Maria, V. L., A. C. Correia & M. A. Santos, 2003.  
 678 Genotoxic and hepatic biotransformation responses  
 679 induced by the overflow of pulp mill and secondary-  
 680 treated effluents on *Anguilla anguilla* L. Ecotoxicol-  
 681 ogy and Environmental Safety 55: 126–137.  
 682 Narbonne, J. F., M. Daubèze, C. Clérandeau & P.  
 683 Garrigues, 1999. Scale of classification based on  
 684 biochemical markers in mussels: application to pollu-  
 685 tion monitoring in European coast. Biomarkers 4:  
 686 415–424.  
 687 Neuparth, T., 2004. Development of methodologies to  
 688 assess genotoxicity in crustaceans and fish. PhD thesis,  
 689 Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Lisbon.  
 690 Neuparth, T., A. D. Correia, F. O. Costa, G. Lima, & M.  
 691 H. Costa, 2005. Multi-level assessment of chronic  
 692 toxicity of estuarine sediments with the amphipod  
 693



- 694 *Gammarus locusta*: I. Biochemical endpoints. Marine  
695 Environmental Research 60: 69–91.
- 696 NMMP UK, 2004. The Centre for Environment Fisheries  
697 and Aquaculture Science. <http://www.cefas.co.uk/>  
698 monitoring.
- 699 Nordberg, M., 1998. Metallothioneins: historical review  
700 and state of knowledge. *Talanta* 46: 243–254.
- 701 OSPAR, 2004. OSPAR Commission. <http://www.ospar->  
702 [org.](http://www.ospar-)
- 703 Picado, A. M., 1997. La charge énergétique adénylique:  
704 utilisation pratique pour l'évaluation des effets sub-  
705 létaux des pollutions. PhD thesis, Ecole Pratique  
706 Hautes Etudes, Paris.
- 707 Quental, T., A. M. Ferreira & C. Vale, 2003. The  
708 distribution of PCBs and DDTs in seston and plank-  
709 ton along the Portuguese coast. *Acta Oecologica* 24:  
710 333–339.
- 711 Santos, M. M., N. Vieira & A. M. Santos, 2000. Imposex in  
712 the dogwhelk *Nucella lapillus* (L.) along the Portuguese  
713 coast. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 40: 643–646.
- 714 Santos, M. M., C. C. Ten Hallers-Tjabbes, A. M. Santos &  
715 N. Vieira, 2002. Imposex in *Nucella lapillus*, a bio-  
716 indicator for TBT contamination: re-survey along the  
717 Portuguese coast to monitor the effectiveness of EU  
718 regulation. *Journal of Sea Research* 48: 217–223.
- 719 Schulte-Oehlmann, U., M. Tillmann, B. Markert, J. Oehl-  
720 mann, B. Watermann & S. Scherf, 2000. Effects of  
721 endocrine disruptors on prosobranch snails (Mollusca:  
722 Gastropoda) in the laboratory. Part II: Triphenyltin as  
723 a xeno-androgen. *Ecotoxicology* 9: 399–412.
- Sobral, P. & J. Widdows, 1997. Effects of copper exposure  
724 on the scope for growth of the clam *Ruditapes*  
725 *decussatus*, from Southern Portugal. *Marine Pollution*  
726 *Bulletin* 34: 992–1000.
- Sobral, P. & J. Widdows, 2000. Effects of increasing  
727 current velocity, turbidity and particle size selection  
728 on the feeding activity and scope for growth of  
729 *Ruditapes decussatus* from Ria Formosa, Southern  
730 Portugal. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology*  
731 *and Ecology* 245: 111–125.
- Thébault, M. T., J. P. Raffin, A. Picado, E. Mendonça, E. F.  
732 Skorkowski & Y. Le Gal, 2000. Coordinated changes  
733 of adenylate energy charge and ATP: use in ecotox-  
734 icological studies. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental*  
735 *Safety* 46: 23–28.
- Theodorakis, C. W., C. D. Swartz, W. J. Rogers, J. W.  
736 Bickham, K. C. Donnelly & S. M. Adams, 2000.  
737 Relationship between genotoxicity, mutagenicity, and  
738 fish community structure in a contaminated stream.  
739 *Journal of Aquatic Ecosystem Stress and Recovery* 7:  
740 131–143.
- Widdows, J. & P. Donkin, 1992. Mussels and environmen-  
741 tal contaminants: bioaccumulation and environmental  
742 aspects. In Gosling, E. (ed.), *The Mussel Mytilus:*  
743 *Ecology, Physiology, Genetics and Culture.* Develop-  
744 *ments in Aquaculture and Fisheries Science.* Elsevier,  
745 London, 383–424.