

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.54203/scil.2024.wvj53

How to Design a Biomonitoring Study – A Practical Guide for Veterinary Professionals under a One Health Approach

Catarina Jota Baptista^{1,2}, Fernanda Seixas³, José M. Gonzalo-Orde, and Paula A. Oliveira

ABSTRACT

Currently, veterinarians can see their daily practice and medical tasks as constant opportunities for passive surveillance of One Health threats, such as infectious zoonotic diseases and chemical pollution effects on living beings. The present study aimed to provide a practical guide to designing a biomonitoring study during veterinary clinical practice without time-consuming procedures or significant costs. The constant access to several species' specimens provides the necessary samples to perform a biomonitoring study of environmental pollutants at the regional or national level. Generally, most health professionals know what to do (or where to find information) to report a disease outbreak. However, a summarized background to perform a biomonitoring study of a chemical hazard is missing. The authors of the current study provided a flow chart with the main steps to conduct a biomonitoring study in different fields of veterinary medicine. Thus, a biomonitoring study might give veterinarians (as other health professionals) a positive contribution to the clinical cases' resolution, while improving the general knowledge about the impact of environmental contamination on animals and human health.

Keywords: Contamination, Guideline, Monitoring, One Health, Pollution

Received: July 23, 2024
Revised: August 27, 2024
Accepted: September 09, 2024
Published: September 25, 2007

INTRODUCTION

The One Health concept assumes that human health is deeply connected with animal and environmental health, as three main branches. Although it is not a new term, One Health principles have become more and more relevant and justified during the past few years due to several factors. These include the human population growth, the global movement of people, animals, and resources, the emergence and reemergence of new infectious diseases, natural habitat loss, and climate change, all affecting the three mentioned branches of One Health (Sleeman et al., 2019; Wilcox and Steele, 2021; CDC, 2022).

The One Health approach has continuously grown. Veterinarians can see their daily tasks as constant opportunities for passive surveillance of One Health threats, such as infectious diseases, antibiotic resistance, or environmental pollution. For instance, the practitioners have been detecting and reporting new disease outbreaks or pathogens in various hosts (companion animals, livestock, and wildlife). In the same way, they may verify the resistance of an isolated agent to antimicrobial treatment or chronic exposure to an environmental pollutant by pets and their owners (Kelly et al., 2017; Collignon and McEwen, 2019; Mackenzie and Jeggo, 2019; Sleeman et al., 2019).

The application of the One Health principles by veterinary professionals can provide information of considerable importance in pollution surveillance and ecotoxicology. Animals and humans often depend on the same environment and ecosystem, sharing potential chemical and physical hazards, such as organic and inorganic pollutants or radiation. Patterns of bioaccumulation and health effects of several xenobiotics (pesticides, drugs, inorganic compounds) are frequently shared by species from different taxa (including humans), just like other aspects of comparative medicine (Buttke, 2011). A substance's carcinogenic, hepatotoxic, or nephrotoxic potentials are often known and expected in several host species. The constant access to several species' specimens allows each veterinarian to perform a biomonitoring study of environmental pollutants in their operating region. Generally, veterinarians are trained to report a new outbreak or perform a study of disease prevalence, or at least they can find standardized procedures for these purposes (Buttke, 2011; Hryhorczuk et al., 2018). Notwithstanding, they may not have the autonomy to perform a biomonitoring study of a chemical hazard.

Therefore, the current study aimed to provide a practical guide to veterinary professionals from different fields, including wildlife) to design a biomonitoring study during their clinical practice without specific material or time-consuming procedures.

¹Egas Moniz Center for Interdisciplinary Research (CiiEM), Egas Moniz School of Health & Science, Almada, Portugal

²Centro de Investigação das Tecnologias Agroambientais e Biológicas (CITAB/Inov4Agro), Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro (UTAD), Vila Real, Portugal

³Departamento de Ciências Veterinárias, Escola de Ciências Agrárias e Veterinárias (ECAV), UTAD, Vila Real, Portugal

⁴Animal and Veterinary Research Center (CECAV/Al4Animals), UTAD, Vila Real, Portugal

⁵Instituto de Biomedicina (IBIOMED), Universidad de León, León, España

^{*}Corresponding author's Email: catabap@hotmail.com

DEVELOPING A BIOMONITORING STUDY

Step 1 – Defining a problem/xenobiotic

At first, as in many other research studies, veterinarians must define priorities for biomonitoring contaminants considering their location and the animal species they usually work with them. For instance, if veterinarians have been diagnosing and monitoring respiratory clinical cases in companion animals, this group of cases may represent an opportunity to assess the effects of indoor air pollution, a problem with repercussions for humans and companion animals' health (Lin et al., 2018). Moreover, food-producing animal veterinarians can perform biomonitoring studies to evaluate the composition of the pasture in terms of toxic plants (Green et al., 2023), heavy metals (Afzal and Mahreen, 2024) or mycotoxins (Gallo et al., 2015; Muñoz-Solano and González-Peñas, 2023), if a considerable number of cases in a short-time period, and with a compatible clinical presentation, has been registered. These are just some examples.

Step 2 – Choosing a bioindicator

Some veterinarians may work with more than one species or animal population daily. Before starting to implement their research project and data collection, researchers should do some literature review regarding the pathophysiology, exposure effects, and metabolism of the chosen xenobiotic because species-specific enzymes or metabolic pathways can influence the obtained results and prevent the authors from developing correct and practical conclusions. As an illustration, dogs (and other canines) can adequately metabolize and eliminate some persistent organic pollutants (POPs), such as organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyls, which humans (and other mammals) accumulate throughout life (Shore et al. 2001; Ruiz-Suárez et al., 2015). In this case, despite sharing the same environment as the owners, dogs are not suitable sentinels of pollution. In contrast, in indoor environments, cats have been pointed out as better bioindicators of some POPs, such as polychlorinated biphenyls or polybrominated diphenyl ethers (Ma et al., 2022). Therefore, a companion animal veterinarian who intends to measure and study the chronic effects of POPs, must choose cats as sentinels instead of dogs.

Some aspects of the species or population may represent advantages for its use as a bioindicator (Talmage and Walton, 1991), as what happens in hedgehogs or shrews (Sánchez-Chardi, et al., 2009; Jota Baptista et al., 2023). For instance, living in a restricted region, representing local pollution, living long enough to show effects from the exposure, and for a comparison between periods or age groups, or presenting an adequate dose-effect relationship (Jota Baptista et al. 2022). On the other hand, some xenobiotics (as some POPs or metals) are frequently accumulated through food chains, which usually makes carnivores better bioindicators than the herbivores they prey, considering the same ecosystem. However, there is no total consensus or a fixed list of species that can or cannot be used as bioindicators. For instance, wild boars have been widely used, mainly because they are a game species (and, therefore, a possible source of contaminants to consumers). Nevertheless, their broad distribution and frequent migrations in most countries lead to a poor definition of the pollution source (Tataruch and Kierdoft, 2003).

Step 3 – Choosing samples

This step highly depends on what xenobiotic will be analyzed (Step 1), the species involved (Step 2), and also on the study's goals. All these aspects should be decided first, before choosing a sample type.

Furthermore, at this stage, vets may decide if the study will involve the use of invasive samples (such as blood, liver, or kidney biopsies, and other internal tissues) or non-invasive samples (such as hair, feathers, feces, or parasites). If the study is designed to include only alive individuals (instead of including dead animals), aspects of welfare and restraint may conditionate the use of invasive samples (Jota Baptista et al., 2022). Nevertheless, invasive samples are crucial to understanding some toxicological aspects, such as tissue bioaccumulation and distribution in the organism. One practical use of this information is to evaluate which internal tissues of game species and livestock usually accumulate toxic substances or drugs, and which are more frequently consumed, as some muscles compared to bones or offal (Jukna et al., 2006; Jota Baptista et al., 2024). Some POPs are often searched in the adipose tissue of marine mammals through skin biopsies (Baini et al. 2020); and lead is frequently measured in bones from recently-died animals or even specimens preserved in museums (Martiniaková et al., 2011; Lanocha et al., 2013; Baini et al., 2020).

Moreover, it is necessary to think about the objectives of the study. If the goal is to evaluate long-term exposure to a substance, some tissues may be better accumulators than others, such as bones for cadmium or lead (González-Reimers et al., 2023), or hair for mercury (Treu et al., 2018). On the other hand, blood is a good option if it is intended to clinically monitor patients through recovery time and evaluate their response (Jota Baptista et al., 2022). Finally, authors may intend to use biomarkers of effect (evaluate or measure the cellular and molecular consequences of exposure to a particular substance). In that case, the liver and kidney are organs that usually suffer changes due to chronic or acute exposure to toxic compounds and are usually used for measure catalase, superoxide dismutase, and lipid peroxidation, among other biochemical biomarkers of effect (García-Niño and Pedraza-Chaverri, 2014; Hampel et al., 2016). Nevertheless, it is crucial to highlight that this depends significantly on the xenobiotic and host, and it is always advised to review the literature before starting the work.

Step 4 – Sending the samples to the laboratory

Since the primary goal of this article is to provide brief guidelines to veterinary professionals to perform a biomonitoring study, a detailed explanation of the various methods available for the detection and quantification of xenobiotics goes far beyond the scope. It is, however, essential to select a good and experienced laboratory that is familiar with preparing the samples and dealing with different organic matrices. Deciding whether you want to detect or

quantify a substance is also essential. For instance, detecting the substance may provide enough evidence to make practical conclusions if the goal is to study fecal antibiotic residues (Li et al., 2013). In contrast, measuring zinc or other elements in cattle to evaluate their actual bioavailability in a pasture may require a quantitative toxicological analysis (Rigueiro-Rodríguez et al., 2012).

Most toxicological analyses do not need special requirements and materials to collect and preserve the samples. Dinis-Oliveira et al. (2016) have published detailed guidelines for collecting each biological sample for toxicological analysis. In most cases, it is recommended to send frozen samples, collected without external contamination to proper sterile containers (such as dry tubes or plastic bags; without preservatives) and correctly identified. Notwithstanding, sampling guidelines should be checked for each xenobiotic and biological sample.

Whatever the method is used (gas chromatography, liquid chromatography, atomic absorption spectrophotometry, or induced-coupled plasma mass spectrophotometry), the laboratory must ensure suitable quality-control methods (the use of duplicates, blanks, and suitable reference matrices, Caballero-Casero et al. (2021), and enough sample must be provided by the clinician.

Step 5 – Results' interpretation

Interpreting results might be the most challenging part of a biomonitoring study, especially if the authors intend to compare exposure levels with effects. There is a lack of scientific literature on the effects of each relevant hazardous

substance in each animal taxa and what to define as gold standard biomarkers for most relevant xenobiotics (Varea et al. 2020; Desforges et al., 2022). This may implicate extensive literature search (references of similar studies in humans) and an exercise of presenting a hypothesis for further research (Jota Baptista et al., 2023). Authors should be aware that most lesions or biomarkers that may be associated with hepatotoxic, nephrotoxic, carcinogenic, and neurotoxic, among others, substances are not pathognomonic of a specific compound. Age, chronic diseases. food habits, or environmental conditions may strongly influence the effect of xenobiotics in animals and provoke distinct individual populational effects or 2022). (Ortiz et al. Notwithstanding, each local study will represent scientific evidence and help build detailed and long-term surveys and metanalysis by the research institutions. A small and practical guideline for implementing biomonitoring studies for veterinarians is provided as a summary of this article (Figure 1).

1. What xenobiotic is important to study? Define your goals. . Search for potentially relevant sources of pollution nearby. Examples: industrial activity; mining areas, or intensive agriculture. . Consider the animals and cases you work with or regional health problems in humans and animals identified in your área. Examples: high prevalence of certain compatible presentations, infertility, or the presence of toxic plants. 2. In which species? . Do some literature review on the physiology of the species you work with. . Consider the physiology of this species that may influence the concentration of the substance found or the effects of it. . If you work with more than one species, compare then before choosing. 3. What samples should you collect? From alive animals From carcasses Remember the goals of your study . Remember the goals of your study once again. once again. Consider the use non-invasive samples . Evaluate the quality of each samples (e.g hair, feathers, faeces...) depending on the patterns of . Consider animal wellfare, especially accumulation or possible cellular when choosing invasive sampling lesions. procedures. Do good necropsy reports. 4. How should you send your samples? . Send a good quantity of recently collected or frozen samples. Avoid external contamination and a proper transportation of the samples. Revise in the litterature the sampling methods for each sample type. Normally, samples should be frozen, collected without external contamination and transported in sterile containers (as dry tubes or plastic bags; without preservatives) and correctly identified 5. How should you interpret your results? . Critically interpret your results by comparing with other studies, in other regions, species, samples etc. Avoid taking unecessarily alarming conclusions (specially with few data, or without references to compare your results. Do not forget to interpret them under the One Health principles.

Figure 1. Guidelines for a quick implementation of a biomonitoring study by veterinarians

CONCLUSIONS

Veterinarians should never forget their crucial part in One Health. Therefore, each biomonitoring study should provide a concise interpretation of the results under a One Health approach. After all, as mentioned above, environmental contamination *sensu lato* is a global problem with remarkable One Health repercussions. Thus, veterinarians could analyse their daily practice, considering the species they work with and the xenobiotics of interest in their geographic region, and try to implement a biomonitoring study that might give a positive comprehension of their clinical cases, as well as improve the general knowledge about the impact of environmental contamination in animals and humans' health. The authors of the present study certainly believe these guidelines may also be applied to environmental researchers, biologists, or other health professionals (rather than veterinarians).

DECLARATIONS

Funding

This study was supported by National Funds by FCT—Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology, under the PhD scholarship 202104520.BD, and also under the projects 10.54499/UIDB/04033/2020 (CITAB researchers, CJB and PAO), 10.54499/UIDB/04585/2020 (CiiEM research, CJB); and UIDB/CVT/00772/2020 and LA/P/0059/2020 (CECAV/Al4 Animals researcher, FS)

Availability of data and materials

The data of the current study are available by reasonable request.

Ethical considerations

The authors declare that this manuscript is original and is not being considered elsewhere for publication. Other ethical issues have been checked by the authors before submission.

Authors' contributions

The authors responsible for the conceptualization of the article were, Catarina Jota Baptista, Fernanda Seixas, José M. Gonzalo-Orden, and Paula A. Oliveira. Catarina Jota Baptista conducted the data collection and provided the original draft of the manuscript, while Fernanda Seixas, José M. Gonzalo-Orden, and Paula A. Oliveira revised it. All authors agreed with the final version of the manuscript.

Competing of interests

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

- Afzal A and Mahreen N (2024). Emerging insights into the impacts of heavy metals exposure on health, reproductive and productive performance of livestock. Frontiers in Pharmacology, 15: 1375137. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2024.1375137
- Baini M, Panti C, Fossi MC, Tepsich P, Jiménez B, Coomber F, Bartalini A, Muñoz-Arnanz J, Moulins A, and Rosso M (2020). First assessment of POPs and cytochrome P450 expression in Cuvier's beaked whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*) skin biopsies from the Mediterranean Sea. Scientific Reports, 10: 21891. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-78962-3
- Buttke DE (2011). Toxicology, environmental health, and the One Health concept. Journal of Medical Toxicology, 7(4): 329-332. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s13181-011-0172-4
- Caballero-Casero N, Belova L, Vervliet P, Antignac JP, Casta A, Debrauwe L, Esteban López ML, Huber C, Klanova J, Krauss M et al. (2021). Towards harmonized criteria in quality assurance and quality control of suspect and non-target LC-HRMS analytical workflows for screening of emerging contaminants in human biomonitoring. TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry, 136: 116201. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.trac.2021.116201
- Centers of disease control and prevention (CDC) (2022). One Health basics. One Health, CDC. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/onehealth/basics/index.html
- Collignon PJ and McEwen SA (2019). One health— Its importance in helping to better control antimicrobial resistance. Tropical Medicine and Infectious Disease, 4(1): 22. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/tropicalmed4010022
- Desforges JP, Weijs L, Hickie B, and Gergs A (2022). Models as much-needed tools in ecotoxicology: Integrative approaches to cross barriers. Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 83: 295-298. Available at: https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00244-022-00964-1
- Dinis-Oliveira RJ, Vieira DN, and Magalhães T (2016). Guidelines for collection of biological samples for clinical and forensic toxicological analysis. Forensic Science Research, 1(1): 42-51. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1080/20961790.2016.1271098

- Gallo A, Giuberti G, Frisvad JC, Bertuzzi T, and Nielsen KF (2015). Review on mycotoxin issues in ruminants: Occurrence in forages, effects of mycotoxin ingestion on health status and animal performance and practical strategies to counteract their negative effects. Toxins, 7: 3057-3111. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/toxins7083057
- García-Niño WR and Pedraza-Chaverrí J (2014). Protective effect of curcumin against heavy metals-induced liver damage. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 69: 182-201. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2014.04.016
- González-Reimers E, Velasco-Vázquez J, Arnay-de-la-Rosa M, Alberto-Barroso V, Galindo-Martín L, and Santolaria-Fernández F (2003). Bone cadmium and lead in prehistoric inhabitants and domestic animals from Gran Canaria. Science of the Total Environment, 301: 97-103. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697(02)00299-1
- Green BT, Welch KD, Lee ST, Stonecipher CA, Gardner DR, Stegelmeier BL, Davis TZ, and Cook D (2023). Biomarkers and their potential for detecting livestock plant poisonings in Western North America. Frontiers in Veterinary Science, 10: 1104702. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3389/FVETS.2023.1104702
- Hampel M, Blasco J, and Martín Díaz ML (2016). Biomarkers and effects. Marine Ecotoxicology. Chapter 5, pp. 121-165. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-803371-5.00005-9
- Hryhorczuk D, Beasley VR, Poppenga RH, and Durrani T (2018). One toxicology, One Health, one planet. In: J. A. Herrmann, Y. J. Johnson-Walker, (Editors). Beyond One Health: From recognition to results, pp. 117-154. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1002/9781119194521.CH5
- Jota Baptista C, Seixas F, Gonzalo-Orden JM, and Oliveira PA (2022). Biomonitoring metals and metalloids in wild mammals: Invasive versus non-invasive sampling. Environmental Science and Pollution Research International, 29: 18398-18407. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/S11356-022-18658-5
- Jota Baptista C, Seixas F, Gonzalo-Orden JM, Patinha C, Pato P, Ferreira da Silva E, Casero M, Brazio E, Brandão R, Costa D et al. (2023). High levels of heavy metal(loid)s related to biliary hyperplasia in hedgehogs (*Erinaceus europaeus*). Animals, 13: 1359. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/ANI13081359
- Jota Baptista C, Seixas F, Gonzalo-Orden JM, Patinha C, Pato P, da Silva EF, Merino-Goyenechea LJ, and Oliveira PA (2024). Heavy metals and metalloids in wild boars (*Sus scrofa*) A silent but serious public health hazard. Veterinary Research Communications, 48: 1015-1023. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s11259-023-10272-1
- Jukna Č, Jukna V, and Šiugždaitė J (2006). Determination of heavy metals in viscera and muscle of cattle. Bulgarian Journal of Veterinary Medicine, 9(1): 35-41. Available at: https://lsmu.lt/cris/entities/publication/1b6d0fe1-16e6-42db-b2e0-514701f4844b
- Kelly TR, Karesh WB, Johnson CK, Gilardi KVK, Anthony SJ, Goldstein T, Olson SH, Machalaba C, Mazet JAK, Aguirre A et al. (2017). One health proof of concept: Bringing a transdisciplinary approach to surveillance for zoonotic viruses at the human-wild animal interface. Preventive Veterinary Medicine, 137: 112-118. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.prevetmed.2016.11.023
- Lanocha N, Kalisinska E, Kosik-Bogacka DI, Budis H, Sokolowski S, and Bohatyrewicz A (2013). Comparison of metal concentrations in bones of long-living mammals. Biological Trace Element Research, 152: 195-203. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s12011-013-9615-x
- Li YX, Zhang XL, Li W, Lu XF, Liu B, and Wang J (2013). The residues and environmental risks of multiple veterinary antibiotics in animal faeces. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 185: 2211-2220. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/S10661-012-2702-1
- Lin CH, Lo PY, Wu HD, Chang C, and Wang LC (2018). Association between indoor air pollution and respiratory disease in companion dogs and cats. Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine, 32: 1259-1267. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1111/JVIM.15143
- Ma T, Wu P, Ding Z, Wang T, and Luo Y (2022). Pet cats, the better sentinels for indoor organic pollutants. Frontiers in Environmental Science, 10: 1023818. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3389/FENVS.2022.1023818
- Mackenzie JS and Jeggo M (2019). The One health approach-Why is it so important? Tropical Medicine and Infectious Disease, 4(2): 88. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/TROPICALMED4020088
- Martiniaková M, Omelka R, Jančová A, Stawarz R, and G Formicki (2011). Concentrations of Selected heavy metals in bones and femoral bone structure of bank (*Myodes glareolus*) and common (*Microtus arvalis*) voles from different polluted biotopes in Slovakia. Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 60: 524-532. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s00244-010-9545-y
- Muñoz-Solano B and González-Peñas E (2023). Mycotoxins and seafood: Occurrence and legislation. Marine Drugs, 21: 253. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/md21040253
- Ortiz P, Torres-Sánchez A, López-Moreno A, Cerk K, Ruiz-Moreno Á, Monteoliva-Sánchez M, Ampatzoglou A, Aguilera M, and Gruszecka-Kosowska A (2022). Impact of cumulative environmental and dietary xenobiotics on human microbiota: Risk assessment for One Health. Journal of Xenobiotics, 12: 56-63. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.3390/JOX12010006
- Rigueiro-Rodríguez A, Mosquera-Losada MR, and Ferreiro-Domínguez N (2012). Pasture and soil zinc evolution in forest and agriculture soils of Northwest Spain three years after fertilization with sewage sludge. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 150: 111-120. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2012.01.018
- Ruiz-Suárez N, Rial C, Boada LD, Henríquez-Hernández LA, Valeron PF, Camacho M, Zumbado M, Almeida González M, Lara P, and Luzardo OP (2015). Are pet dogs good sentinels of human exposure to environmental polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, organochlorine pesticides, and polychlorinated biphenyls?. Journal of Applied Animal Research, 44: 135-145. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1080/09712119.2015.1021808
- Sánchez-Chardi A, Ribeiro CAO, and Nadal J (2009). Metals in liver and kidneys and the effects of chronic exposure to pyrite mine pollution in the shrew Crocidura russula inhabiting the protected wetland of Doñana. Chemosphere, 76(3): 387-394. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2009.03.036

- Shore RF, Casulli A, Bologov V, Wienburg CL, Afsar A, and Toyne P (2001). Organochlorine pesticide, polychlorinated biphenyl and heavy metal concentrations in wolves (Canis lupus L. 1758) from north-west Russia. Science of The Total Environment, 280: 45-54. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697(01)00802-6
- Sleeman JM, Richgels KLD, White CL, and Stephen C (2019). One Health: A perspective from wildlife and environmental health sectors. Scientific and Technical Review, 38: 91-98. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.20506/RST.38.1.2944
- Talmage SS and Walton BT (1991). Small mammals as monitors of environmental contaminants. In: G. W. Ware (Editor), Reviews of environmental contamination and toxicology. Reviews of environmental contamination and toxicology. Springer., New York, NY, pp. 47-145. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3078-6_2
- Tataruch F and Kierdorf H (2003). Mammals as biomonitors. In: B. A. Markert, A. M. Breure, H. G. Zechmeister (Editors), Trace metals and other contaminants in the environment. Elsevier., Oxford, UK, pp. 737-772. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/S0927-5215(03)80150-9
- Treu G, Krone O, Unnsteinsdóttir ER, Greenwood AD, and Czirják GÁ (2018). Correlations between hair and tissue mercury concentrations in Icelandic arctic foxes (*Vulpes lagopus*). Science of the Total Environment, 619-620: 1589-1598. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.143
- Varea R, Piovano S, and Ferreira M (2020). Knowledge gaps in ecotoxicology studies of marine environments in Pacific Island countries and territories- A systematic review. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 156: 111264. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2020.111264
- Wilcox BA and Steele JA (2021). One Health and emerging zoonotic diseases. In: S. R. Quah, W. C. Cockerham (Editors), Handbook of global health. Springer., Cham, pp. 2099-2147. DOI: https://www.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-45009-0_88

Publisher's note: Scienceline Publication Ltd. remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access: This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2024