Abstract

The emission of air pollutants mainly from anthropogenic sources has led to the degradation of air quality. These pollutants determine the occurrence or worsening of respiratory disorders. Biomonitoring provides information on the quality of the environment or its modifications, having been used as an alternative to monitoring of chemical pollutants. The variation of the biodiversity of lichens can be used as a warning to check if other biological systems are being affected by atmospheric pollution. Lichens have been used as bioindicators, since they have differential sensitivity to air pollution. The purpose of this study was to assess the diversity and abundance of lichens in different zones of the Porto (North Portugal) with respect to the rates of atmospheric pollutants. Three zones were selected for sampling, represented by urban, suburban and rural zones. LDV was calculated for each zone. The average concentrations of CO, CO₂, SO₂, NO₂, O₃ and PM10 were also measured. The most sensitive lichens were present in the area with the highest LDV. In places where there were higher concentrations of pollutants, namely NO₂ and SO₂ a lower LDV. This study suggests that lichens can be used as prevention systems to protect public health, in particular diseases related to air pollution and as a potential alternative or complement to expensive chemical monitoring equipment.

Key-words: lichens, bio indicators, atmospheric pollution, environmental health.

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Introduction

Atmospheric pollutants have attracted great environmental concern over the last few decades because of evidence that they are associated with respiratory and cardiovascular diseases in human (Godinho et al., 2008). Emissions from traffic today are the main cause of poor air quality in cities. NO was the main polluting gas emitted, oxidized by ozone to yield NO₂. However, vehicles emit a cocktail of other pollutants including CO, CO₂, volatile organic compounds, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, particulates and metals (Larsen et al., 2007). Secondary pollutants include ozone and aerosols (Larsen et al., 2007). The Porto District is characterized by urban, suburban and rural zones. The urban zone has heavy vehicle traffic and industrial activities, but in the peripheral suburban and rural zones, these factors decrease by descending order, respectively. From an ecotoxicological perspective, contaminants are all chemical compounds that are fundamentally released into the environment as a result of anthropogenic activities, which cause harms to living organisms (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Lichen are recognized as being very sensitive to atmospheric pollution (Gombert et al., 2004). Lichens respond to factors that influence human and environmental health (Larsen et al., 2007). Lichen provides a sample of a complex mixture that humans and biota have been exposed to in quite a long time. This will be of critical importance for health studies, since one of the most difficult tasks is to relate the low pollution levels with long-term chronic effects on health. However, Cislaghi and Nimis (1997) report a high degree of correlation between lung cancer and the biodiversity of lichens as a result of atmospheric pollution. These high correlation levels have been found for the more common atmospheric pollutants, such as SO₂, NO₂, dusts and SO₄²⁻. Lichens are considered the result of a symbiotic association of a fungus and an algae. The fungus is usually Ascomycetes, although on rare occasions it may be either a Basidiomycetes or a Phycomycetes (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). The algae is a Cyanobacteria or a Chlorophyceae (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). First studies with bioindicators date back to the 1960s. As far back as 1866, a study was published on epiphyte lichens used as bioindicators (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Today, epiphytic lichens have been widely used as bioindicators of the effects of atmospheric pollutants. Bioindicators are organisms which can be used for identification and quantification of environmental damages (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Biomonitors are organisms often used for the quantification of contaminants (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Lichens may be used as bioindicators by mapping all species present
in a specific area, based on the number, frequency and tolerance of the lichens present in the area under study, and, these are good predictor, to a good level of approximation, the degrees of eight atmospheric pollutants measured using automatic control stations (Conti and Cochiti, 2001). Lichens are an excellent bio indicator of air quality because they: (i) have a wide geographical distribution (except in marine zones); (ii) are abundant, sessile, as well being representative of the collection area; (iii) are available all year round, [are perennial]; (iv) have uniform morphology over time; (v) lack waxy cuticle and stomata and readily absorb gases and dissolved substances in the air through their surface (Loppi et al., 2002). It is also a quick and inexpensive method that provides results on which predictions for human health can be based (Loppi et al., 2002).

The Lichen Diversity Value (LDV) method proved to be applicable for assessing lichen diversity. This technique is based on the fact that epiphytic lichen diversity is greatly and steadily diminished with the increase of air pollution and environmental stress (Svoboda et al., 2010). LDV and Index atmospheric purity (IAP) has been mainly applied to assess and monitor environmental alteration especially in relation to the effect of atmospheric pollution in several European countries, such as Italy (Gombert et al., 2003), Portugal (Pinho et al., 2008), France (Gombert et al., 2004), London (Larsen et al., 2007) and Slovenia (Jeran et al., 2002). LDV method, with peculiar high degree of objectiveness and repeatability, represents a fundamental statistical approach for routine investigations of lichen diversity in environmental monitoring.

This study aims to find out and understand how lichens (abundance and diversity) could be affected by atmospheric pollution in Porto, emphasizing the importance for their reliable utilization to environmental conservation and public health protection.

**Material and Methods**

**Study area**

The Porto District is part of the Northern Region of Portugal (figure 1), spreading their municipalities by the subregion of Grande Porto, Ave and Tâmega. It represents the core of the traditional province of Douro Litoral and has one of the largest metropolitan areas in Europe with a total population of about 1,7 million inhabitants, being the largest in Portugal.

Three areas in subregion of Grande Porto were selected and studies: urban zone (Pavilhão Rosa Mota in Porto city), characterized by intense surrounding vehicle traffic; suburban zone (Parque da Cidade da Maia at 10 Km to Porto city) and rural zone (Village Valinhas Sto Tirso at 30 Km to Porto city).
Sampling procedure of lichens (abundance and diversity)

Then a reconnaissance of the study area, was carried out in order to verify the frequency/distribution of suitable trees on which it was possible to observe lichens. The trees with: (i) damaged or decorticated parts; (ii) knots; (iii) seepage tracks and (iv) parts where the bryophyte cover was higher than 25% weren’t sampled. Trees with similar size, free-standing, circumference larger than 70 cm and conservation state were used. The sampling were made in three trees *Quercus robur* in each local sample, with one grid of five quadrat segments 10 x 10 cm squares each, being attached vertically to the trunk so that the lower edge of each segment is 1 m above the highest point of the ground (Asta *et al.*, 2002). Sampling was conducted sequentially in four cardinal points of the tree trunk (North, South, East, West) (figure 2).

All lichen species present within each quadrat segment are recorded and the frequency of occurrence of each species in the 5 squares of each quadrat segment noted.

**Calculation of the LDV**

For the calculation of LDV the frequencies of all lichen species found on each tree. Were summed For each tree there are four Sums of Frequencies (SFN, SFE, SFS, SFW). Next, for each cardinal point, the arithmetic Mean of the Sums of Frequencies (MSF) (Asta *et al.*, 2002):

\[
MSF_N = \frac{SF_{1N} + SF_{2N} + SF_{3N} + SF_{4N} + \ldots + SF_{nN}}{n}
\]

Where:
- MSF – Mean of the sums of frequencies of all the sampled trees
- SF – Sum of frequencies of all lichen species found at one cardinal point
- N, E, S, W – North, East, South, West
- n - Number of trees sampled.

The LDV is the sum of the MSFs of each cardinal point (Asta *et al.*, 2002):

\[
LDV = (MSF_N + MSF_E + MSF_S + MSF_W)
\]

**Sampling procedure of atmospheric air pollutants**

The determination of atmospheric air pollutants was made by direct-reading equipment, namely: IAQ - CALC 8760 (CO and CO₂); Gasman- Crowcon (O₃ and NO₂); Tetra - Crowcon (SO₂) and Aerosol Monitor - 8520 Model DustTrak (PM10). The equipment was placed at a height of approximately 1.5 m above the ground. The equipments were subject to 10 minutes stabilization process and measurements were performed in 10 minutes (monitors at 1- min intervals). All samplings were made at the same time the sampling of lichens were carried out.

**Results and Discussion**

(16) lichen specieswere found. The most frequent species were *Favoparmelia caperata*, *Parmotrema chinense* e *Punctelia subrudecta* (table 1).

*Favoparmelia caperata* and *Parmotrema chinense* were to be found in all zones. *Flavoparmelia caperata* is the one
most abundant species found in Portugal (Godinho et al., 2008). Punctelia subrudecta was only found in urban and suburban zones and it may be due to the fact that it was strongly associated to atmospheric pollution and also humidity (González and Pignata, 1997). In Loppi et al. (2002) study, the genus with highest number of species in “natural zone” was Parmelia. In another study, a great impact was observed during unusual atmospheric conditions in west of London in two of the most abundant lichen species in Europe Parmelia sulcata and Hypogymnia physodes (Purvis et al., 2008). In our study both lichen species were found, however Parmelia sulcata seems to be more sensitive, because it was just found in rural and suburban zones. In order of sensitivity to air pollutants, lichens are classified by the following descending order: fruticulose, foliaceous and crustose, respectively. Most lichens found in our study was foliaceous, and only two lichens fruticulose, namely Cladonia spp. and Evernia brunasti. Apparently the area sampled less polluted was the suburban zone, followed by the rural zone, where the presence of Cladonia spp was just observed. The urban zone is the potentially more polluted zone, where only foliaceous lichens.

LDV can be taken as estimates of environmental quality: high values correspond to good situations while low values indicate poor quality (Loppi et al., 2002). The LDV for each zone is shown in table 2.

In table 3, where the LDV interpretation scale is shown, all zones were classified with Low LDV. Nevertheless the urban zone had still the least LDV (25). The highest LDV in suburban zone (39), very close to rural zone (36). However on sublevel index LDV, suburban and rural zone were classified with Low to moderate LDV, while just rural zone was classified with Low. When compared to other studies, LDV of District of Porto, on different zones were similar. LDV among forested areas in Italy are high (75) compared to urban areas (19) (Giordani, 2007). In London gradient of lichens diversity increase with the distance from the city centre, suggesting traffic influence (Larsen et al., 2007).

Pollutants discharged to the atmosphere are not constant in space and time. Low LDV in suburban and rural areas may also be influenced by winds, which may bring urban pollution from the city center.

High concentrations of atmospheric pollutants seems to show to limit epiphytic lichen abundance. Table 4 shows the average concentration of atmospheric pollutants in each zone, and it’s apparent influence on LDV.

Lichens have been used to biomonitor several pollutant levels of air quality, particularly sulphur, nitrogen, fluoride, oxygen, metals, radionuclide, dioxins and...
other organic compounds. However, information on the pollutants involved and their working mechanisms is scarce, (Dobben et al., 2001). Regarding CO and CO₂, the results in all zones were similar. The NO₂ was very high in urban zone. In Urban zone low LDV could be associated with high NO₂ concentrations, probably due to the dust from traffic vehicle intensity or emitted from industrial origin. NO₂ derived from traffic emissions, limited lichen diversity (Larsen et al., 2007). An impact on the health of Parmelia sulcata and Hypogymnia physodes was recorded in west London following a period of high exhaust emissions coupled with unusual weather conditions, suggesting that nitrogen and particles were responsible (Larsen et al., 2007). In our study most lichen species were absent in areas with highest peak NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations. As concentrations of SO₂ decreased in urban areas, nitrogen played an increasing role in changing lichen communities (Pinho et al., 2008). Because of their structure, lichens depend mainly on atmospheric deposition for their nutrition, especially for their nitrogen supply (Gombert et al., 2003). The different forms of nitrogen can be supplied for by major sources: mainly ammonia in rural environments and mainly nitrogen oxides in urban environments (Gombert et al., 2003). Nitrophytic lichens seem to increase in more industrial and urban areas, potentially because dust is considered one of the main causes for the rise in bark pH of Quercus trees (Pinho et al., 2008), that is known to influence sulphur speciation, which determines toxicity and may influence speciation and bioavailability of other potentially toxic elements (Larsen et al., 2007). In our study, nitrophytic lichens genus, such as Physcia was just found in rural zone, where NO₂ concentration was zero. However, Gombert et al., (2003) found a significant positive correlation between traffic index and the total nitrogen concentration of Physcia adscendens. Results of study of Gombert et al., (2003) showed that nitrogen concentrations of P. adscendens depend on road traffic and road vicinity. In Gombert et al., (2003) study, a relationship between nitrogen oxides emitted by traffic and lichen nitrogen concentrations was assumed. High diversity in the neighborhood of the pollution sources seems to be mainly due to the occurrence of a high number of nitrophytic species, e.g genus Physcia (table 1). In rural areas, the main effects of nitrogen deposition on lichens can result in changes of the communities, such as a great occurrence of nitrophytic species, often associated with a rise of bark pH and a decrease in biodiversity (Gombert et al., 2003).

Troposphere ozone (O₃) is not directly emitted in significant quantities by human activities, resulting mainly from the interaction between solar radiation, oxygen
and precursor pollutants, particularly NOx, but also CO. O₃ concentration was similar in urban and rural zones. Long-term influences of gaseous pollutants (particularly globally rising background ozone concentrations) on lichen communities and succession under changing climatic conditions are unknown. In urban areas or close to roads, studies have shown the positive correlation between traffic density and levels of different primary pollutants (Gombert et al., 2003). In recent decades, urban pollution has been modified with decreasing sulfur dioxide and increased NOₓ mainly emitted by road traffic or emerging with secondary process (O₃) (Gombert et al., 2003).

Sensitivity to SO₂ and other atmospheric pollutants in general varies according to species (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). However, during the last decades, SO₂ has been the main pollutant affecting the distribution of epiphytic lichens in urban and industrial areas (Giordani, 2007). Several works have reported good correlations between atmospheric SO₂ deposition and total S concentration in lichens (Pinho et al., 2008). Hypogymnia physodes is particularly resistant to SO₂, it has been used in the area surrounding a fertilizer plant, where sulphur levels of 3000 ppm had been found (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Physcia aipolia is sensitive to SO₂ (Gombert et al., 2004). Is this study Hypogymnia physodes in zones with high SO₂ concentration. To the contrary, the genus Physcia was only found in rural zone, where SO₂ concentration is low. SO₂ can be transported far away from this emission (Jeran et al., 2002) it can explain the value obtained in suburban zone. Laboratory exposure lichens to SO₂ cause relevant membrane damage to lichen cells, which may cause a reduction in protein biosynthesis, or there may be negative effects on the nutritional interchange between symbionts (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001). Sulphur accumulation in lichens seems to come from vehicle traffic when compared with the influence of SO₂ from industry (Conti and Cecchetti, 2001).

Particulate matter may be important in affecting lichen distribution in and around urban areas, because most atmospheric pollutants can be deposited there. In rural zone the PM10 concentration is the highest. Low LDV in our results could be associated with this. There could also be a relationship with higher LDV in suburban zone and PM10 concentration, where more low.

Giordani (2007) affirms that the relationship between LDV and environmental variable changes under different ecological conditions: atmospheric pollutants are the main limiting factor, but synergistic effects could be happen. In urban environments, in addition to SO₂, the simultaneous occurrence of the phytotoxic gaseous pollutants can expected be to result in combined effects. Loppi et al. (2002) reported that synergistic
effects are observed when concentrations are below or at the threshold for individual injury response. This effects can explain the absence or scarcity of certain sensitive lichen species. Other factors, including humidity, light, and temperature may also play a role. Besides, bark and soil chemistry can also influence lichen quantity and community composition (Purvis et al., 2008). In this study this parameter was not evaluated.

**Conclusion**

This study showed a relationship between the diversity of lichens and the concentration of chemical pollutants found in Porto District. In places where there were higher concentrations of pollutants, namely NO\(_2\) and SO\(_2\) a lower LDV. Lichens can be used to provide a warning signal before severe damages occur on ecosystem and health. This study suggests that lichens can be used as prevention systems to protect public health, and diseases specifically related to air pollution, and as a potential alternative or complement to expensive chemical monitoring equipments.

**Reference**


### Table 1. Lichen species found in each zone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Porto (Urban zone)</th>
<th>Maia (Suburban zone)</th>
<th>Sto Tirso (Rural zone)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punctelia subrudecta</td>
<td>Punctelia subrudecta</td>
<td>Parmotrema chinense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypogymnia physodes</td>
<td>Hypogynnia physodes</td>
<td>Flavoparmelia caperata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parmotrema chinense</td>
<td>Parmotrema chinense</td>
<td>Parmelia sulcata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flavoparmelia caperata</td>
<td>Flavoparmelia caperata</td>
<td>Usnea spp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leprocaulon microscopium</td>
<td>Parmelia tiliacea</td>
<td>Physcia spp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parmelia sulcata</td>
<td>Lepraria incana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pertusaria amara</td>
<td>Pertusaria amara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evernia brunastri</td>
<td>Parmélia Castanha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cladonia spp.</td>
<td>Cladonia spp.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. LDV in each zone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Porto (Urban zone)</th>
<th>Maia (Suburban zone)</th>
<th>Sto Tirso (Rural zone)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. LDV interpretation scale (Brodeková et al., 2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index LDV</th>
<th>Sublevel index LDV</th>
<th>LD Values</th>
<th>Zones</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>&gt;81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>High to very high</td>
<td>71-80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>61-70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate to high</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>Suburban and Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low to moderate</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>Very low to low</td>
<td>11-20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>0-10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. Average concentrations of atmospheric pollutants in each zone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>CO (ppm)</th>
<th>CO₂ (ppm)</th>
<th>NO₂ (ppm)</th>
<th>O₃ (ppm)</th>
<th>SO₂ (ppm)</th>
<th>PM₁₀ (µg/m³)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Porto (Urban)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maia (Suburban)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sto Tirso (Rural)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig 1. Location of the district of Porto

Fig 2. Tree sampling exemplification (Asta et al., 2002)