

Pollution biomarkers in the spiny lizard (*Sceloporus* spp.) from two suburban populations of Monterrey, Mexico

Carlos Aguilera · Pamela González del Pliego ·
Roberto Mendoza Alfaro · David Lazcano ·
Julio Cruz

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Abstract Environmental pollution may severely impact reptile species in urbanized areas. The magnitude of the impact is analyzed in the present study using lizard tail tips for the quantitative evaluation of enzymatic biomarkers of pollution. Spiny lizards (*Sceloporus serrifer* and *S. torquatus*) were collected from two suburban localities in the Monterrey metropolitan area, Mexico: Chipinque Ecological Park, a natural protected area, and El Carmen Industrial Park (IP), a highly polluted site. Different enzymes were used as biomarkers including: acetylcholinesterase (AChE), butyrylcholinesterase (BChE), carboxylesterase (CaE), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), acid phosphatase (ACP), superoxide dismutase (SOD) and glutathione S-transferase (GST). The levels of AChE, BChE and ACP activity were not significantly different between localities. AChE and BChE, commonly used as biomarkers of neurotoxic polluting agents (e.g. organophosphate pesticides) do not appear to be affecting the populations from the study locations. In contrast, the levels of CaE, GST, ALP and SOD were significantly different between the localities. These biomarkers are regularly associated with oxidative stress and processes of detoxification, and generally indicate pollution caused by heavy metals or hydrocarbons, which are common in industrial sites. The data resulting from the analysis of these biomarkers indicate that these polluting agents are affecting the populations of *Sceloporus* in IP. The present work

validates the possibility of conducting additional ecotoxicological studies using biomarkers in combination with a nondestructive sampling technique in species of spiny lizards that are abundant in many North America areas.

Keywords Reptiles · Lizards · Biomarkers · Pollution · *Sceloporus*

Introduction

There is a generalized consensus concerning the ecological importance of herpetofauna and its high sensitivity to the environmental pollution, (Campbell and Campbell 2002). However, reptiles continue to be under-utilized as sentinel species in ecotoxicological studies, in spite of recommendations for their use (Schmidt 2003). Among reptiles, lizards are particularly suitable as pollution biomonitors, as a result of their presence in a variety of habitats, wide geographic distribution, longevity, and in many cases site fidelity (Lambert 2005). Furthermore, lizards are especially useful during dry seasons or in arid regions (Sciarrillo et al. 2008). Lizards proposed as sentinel species include: *Gallotia galloti* (Fossi et al. 1995; Sanchez-Hernandez and Moreno 2002), *Acanthodactylus dumerili* (Peveling and Demba 2003) and *Agama* sp. (Adeyemi and Adedeji 2006) in Africa; *Calotes versicolor* (Khan and Fatima 2002; Khan 2003) in Asia; and *Podarcis sicula* in Europe (Trinchella et al. 2006; Marsili et al. 2009; Favorito et al. 2010). While recently in North America, different species of spiny lizards (*Sceloporus* sp.) have been proposed as models to be used in ecotoxicological studies and environmental risk assessments, because they are small, reach maturation in a short time, and are able to reproduce under laboratory conditions (Talent et al. 2002; Unrine et al. 2006; Holem et al. 2006,

C. Aguilera · R. M. Alfaro (✉) · J. Cruz
Laboratorio de Ecofisiología, Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas,
Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, UANL, Apartado Postal
F-96, 66450 San Nicolás de los Garza, NL, Mexico
e-mail: mendozar787@yahoo.com

P. G. del Pliego · D. Lazcano
Laboratorio de Herpetología, FCB, Universidad Autónoma de
Nuevo León, UANL, San Nicolás de los Garza, Mexico

2008; DuRant et al. 2007; Salice et al. 2009; McFarland et al. 2011).

Recently, it has been documented that the exposure of lizards and snakes to neurotoxins provokes damages with repercussions on their locomotive or swimming performance and general fitness (Hopkins et al. 2005; Hopkins and Winne 2006; Holem et al. 2006, 2008; DuRant et al. 2007). It has also been confirmed that the processes of accumulation of pesticides, metal and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons is related to reproduction alterations and other effects on lizards (Márquez-Ferrando et al. 2009; Favorito et al. 2010). However, the studies based on the use of biochemical biomarkers to evaluate the effect of polluting agents in lizards are scarce, even though these have shown to have a great sensitivity and utility in other organisms (Van der Oost et al. 2003). Cholinesterases enzymes (ChE) used to monitor their inhibiting compounds, chiefly organophosphates pesticides, are among the most broadly employed biomarkers in lizards (Sanchez-Hernandez and Walker 2000; Sanchez-Hernandez and Moreno 2002; Schmidt 2003). Glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase and glutamate pyruvate transaminase activities have been shown to decrease by the exposure to pyrethroid and organophosphate pesticides in the lizard *Calotes versicolor* (Khan and Fatima 2002). Enzymatic activities of cytochrome P450 and acetylcholinesterase (AChE) were used to assess the toxicological impact of oil extraction activity in *Podarcis sicula* (Marsili et al. 2009). Alterations in alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity, albumin, total protein, and, calcium blood levels were shown in *S. occidentalis* after exposure to TNT (McFarland et al. 2011).

An advantage to use reptiles as sentinel organisms is the availability of several nondestructive techniques, particularly, blood, skin and tail analyses, which have a great potential for use in the field as well as in the laboratory (Hopkins et al. 2001; Jones et al. 2005; Burger et al. 2005; Hare et al. 2005). Within this context, the present work was aimed at determining the levels of enzymatic activities in wild populations of the spiny lizards (*Sceloporus serrifer* and *S. torquatus*) (Stebbins 2003) from two different locations near the metropolitan area of Monterrey, Mexico. The research was based on the use of tail tips, which easily regenerate, as a nondestructive technique.

Method

Study area and animal sampling

The study areas are located in the Monterrey city limits. The Chipinque Ecological Park (EP) is a natural protected area, located in the southwest of the metropolitan area. This ecological park has an area of 1,825 hectares and an altitude of 800–2,200 masl (Fig. 1). The second site is the El

Carmen Industrial Park, which is a suburban highly polluted area, with established metallurgical smelting industries located to the northwest of the metropolitan area, with an area of 120 hectares and an average altitude of 500 masl. The climate in this zone is semiarid, with annual temperatures averaging 18–22 °C, winter minimum temperatures of 0–4 °C, and summer maximum temperatures of 22–35 °C. The annual average precipitation oscillates between 300 and 500 mm.

Lizards were collected during the months of May and June of 2009. In EP established pathways were selected to search for lizards between the vegetation and the substrate and these were used as transects with lengths between 0.2 and 2.7 km. In IP transects were established randomly between the streets of the park, where the lizards were located in peripheral walls of existing industries or factories. The lizards were captured manually or by means of nylon lizard noose and the following data were recorded for each captured lizard: species, gender, weight, snout-vent length (SVL), tail length (TL), tail length of regenerated tails (TL-RT) and tail width at base (TW). Main physical characteristics were recorded for the site (hour, coordinates, altitude, vegetation, substrate, environmental and substrate temperatures, and relative humidity). After the lizards were captured, 3–5 cm of the distal portion of the tail were removed with surgical scissors. The tail samples were labeled and individually stored in ice at 0 °C for their transport to the laboratory that same day, where they were frozen at –70 °C until they were processed. The tail cut was disinfected with iodopovidone and the organisms were released in situ.

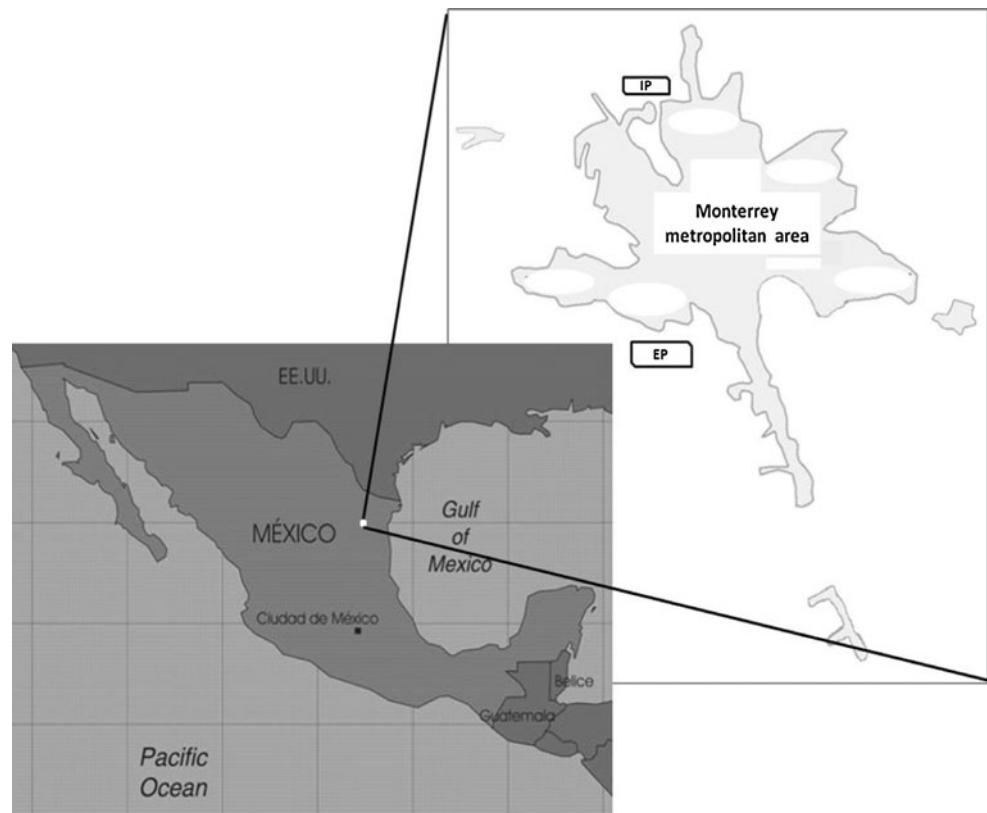
Sample preparation

The tail samples were individually weighed in a digital analytical balance with 0.01 mg precision, the tail was finely cut in pieces using scissors and a bistoury in a petri dish sitting on ice. The prepared tissues were homogenized at 4 °C using a Wheaton-glass homogenizer (Glas-Col™) at 333 rpm during 4 min in tris-HCl 50 mM (pH 7.1) buffer to a proportion of 1:10 (w/v). The homogenized material was centrifuged at 15,300×g at 4 °C for 30 min. The supernatant was separated from the superior lipidic layer and from the precipitate. The supernatant was stored in 0.1 mL aliquots at –70 °C to be later used as an enzymatic extract. Total soluble protein concentrations in the extracts were determined by the Bradford (1976) method with bovine albumin serum (BSA) as a standard.

Esterases assays

The methodology described by Ellman et al. (1961), was followed for esterases determination. The technique modified

Fig. 1 Sampling sites where individuals of spiny lizards (*Sceloporus* spp.) were collected. The map shows the surroundings of the metropolitan area of Monterrey, Nuevo León, Mexico. *EP* Chipinque Ecological Park, *IP* El Carmen Industrial Park



by Huang et al. (1997) for its application in microplates was used. For AChE and butyrylcholinesterase (BChE) the reaction mixture consisted of 280 μL of 5,5'-dithiobis-2-nitrobenzoic acid (DTNB) in buffer PBS 0.1 M (pH 7.8) and 10 μL of enzymatic extract. The reaction was initiated adding 10 μL of acetylthiocholine chloride (0.015 M) for the AChE activity or butyrylthiocholine chloride (0.015 M) for the BChE activity. For carboxylesterases (CaE) 200 μL of buffer Tris-HCl 50 mM (pH 7.1), 10 μL of enzymatic extract and 100 μL of *p*-nitrophenyl acetate (2 mM) like substrate were added to initiate the reaction. Absorbance was immediately registered at 405 nm in intervals of 120 s up to 10 min in a microplate reader (TECAN, SunriseTM). For each sample three analytical replications were conducted. In the case of the control the sample was replaced with buffer. The linearity of the reaction was verified and the enzymatic activity was expressed as the increase of absorbance per minute by milligram of protein in the extracts ($\Delta\text{Abs}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ protein).

Phosphatases assays

Alkaline and acid phosphatase (ALP and ACP) activities were measured using *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate as substrate (Mazorra et al. 2002). The reaction was performed using 200 μL of buffer diethanolamine (1.0 M) with 50 mM MgCl_2 (pH 9.8) for ALP or buffer 0.1 M sodium acetate-HCl (pH 4.8) for ACP, then 10 μL of the enzymatic extract

and 10 μL of the substrate were added at a final concentration of 0.4 mM. Absorbance was immediately registered at 405 nm in the same conditions as the esterases measurement and enzymatic activity was expressed as $\Delta\text{Abs}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ protein.

Glutathione S-transferase (GST) assay

The GST activity was analyzed according to Wilce and Parker (1994). The reaction mixture was carried out in 1.0 mL quartz cells and consisted in 970 μL of Dulbecco's buffer (pH 7.2), 10 μL of reduced L-glutathione (200 mM) and 10 μL of the enzymatic extract. The reaction was initiated by adding 10 μL of 1-chlorine-2,4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) 100 mM. Absorbance was immediately registered at 340 nm every 30 s during a period of 5 min in SPECTRONIC spectrophotometer, Genesys 2. GST activity was expressed as $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mL}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ protein using for CDNB a molar extinction coefficient of 9.6/Mmol/cm.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) assay

A kit (CAYMAN 706002) was used to determine the SOD activity. The reaction mixture was carried out in microplates, and consisted of 200 μL of radicals detector (tetrazolium salt), a 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0) with diethylene-triaminepentaacetic acid (0.1 mM) and hypoxanthine

(0.1 mM), and 10 μ L of enzymatic extract or a SOD standard. The reaction was initiated by adding 20 μ L of xanthine oxidase in 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer (pH 8.0), catalyzing the liberation of superoxide radicals, which were caught by the tetrazolium salt and quantified at 450 nm. The concentration of the radicals was inversely proportional to the SOD activity in the samples. In order to quantify the activity, a SOD standard curve was used and the concentration in the samples was expressed in U/mL, defined as the amount of SOD necessary to exhibit 50 % of dismutation of the superoxide radicals.

Statistical analysis

The data were grouped in blocks considering factors such as: locality (EP or IP); species [*S. serrifer* (S) or *S. torquatus* (T)]; and gender [female (F) or male (M)]. The groups were identified by combining two or three of these factors, for example EPSF refers to a female of *S. serrifer* from the Ecological Park. In the case of the data corresponding to the morphometric and enzymatic activities, statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 13.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago IL USA). Differences between blocks were determined by means of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Data were tested using the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances and a post hoc analysis of Tukey (Levene $p > 0.05$) or Games-Howell (Levene $p < 0.05$) for multiple range test.

Results

Environmental parameters

Twenty individuals of *S. serrifer* were captured at the EP, nine females (EPSF), ten males (EPSM) and one undetermined juvenile. In contrast, only seven individuals of *S. torquatus* were collected, two females (EPTF) and five males (EPTM). From IP 27 individuals of *S. serrifer* were collected, 17 females (IPSF) and ten males (IPSM) and no *S. torquatus* were found at this locality. Overall, the gender of the individuals was equal with a slight majority of females (54 %). The temperature at both sites varied between 20 and 45 °C. Individuals were found most commonly between 26 and 29.9 °C, and this range was also the most usual for the micro-substrate where individuals were located. An important proportion (50 %) was captured at an altitude ranging from 520 to 550 masl and the rest between 550 and 1,300 masl. In EP the oak forest was the preferred vegetation type for both species (75 %), whereas at IP the individuals were found mostly at the submontano scrub. More than 50 % of the individuals were captured in habitats where the relative humidity prevailed between 25 and 40 % and the time when the individuals were most abundant was between 14:00 and 15:00 h on sunny days.

The substrate most commonly used by *S. serrifer* individuals was construction walls (68 %) followed by rocks (30 %). Whereas *S. torquatus* were found most commonly on trees (43 %) and rocks (43 %).

Morphometric features

Regarding the morphometric variables considered, since few differences ($p < 0.05$) were obtained when the gender was considered in blocks, with the exception of SVL between EPSF and EPSM, males and females were pooled to increase the sample size and have a more robust statistical analysis. Significant differences ($F = 3.851$, $df = 50$, $p = 0.028$) were found for body weight of *S. serrifer* between localities (EPS and IPS), with higher values for those individuals inhabiting the Industrial Park (Fig. 2). Also significant differences were found concerning the snout-ventral length ($F = 5.242$, $df = 49$, $p = 0.009$) and tail length ($F = 7.549$, $df = 25$, $p = 0.003$) between individuals of *S. torquatus* from the Ecological Park (EPT) and those of *S. serrifer* from the Industrial Park (IPS). No significant differences were registered for TL-RT and TW.

Enzymatic biomarkers

In the same way as in the case of morphological variables, few differences ($p < 0.05$) were obtained when the gender was considered in blocks (ACP between EPSF and EPSM; GST between EPTF and EPTM), so genders were pooled to have a more robust statistical analysis. No significant differences were found for the AChE activity in any of the groups (Fig. 3). For the BChE activity significant differences ($F = 4.091$, $df = 149$, $p = 0.19$) were determined as a result of the lower activity in EPS compared to IPS. Whereas for the CaE significant differences ($F = 186.759$, $df = 152$, $p < 0.001$) were determined by the higher activity levels found in individuals from Industrial Park (IPS) compared to both groups from the Ecological Park (EPS and EPT).

Significant differences were also found for the ALP activity ($F = 33.674$, $df = 152$, $p < 0.001$), as a consequence of the lower activity displayed by the individuals from the Industrial Park (IPS) compared to individuals from the Ecological Park, and also between species of the former due to the lower activity in *S. serrifer* (EPS) compared to that of *S. torquatus* (EPT). No significant differences were found for the ACP activity. Significant differences were found for the SOD activity ($F = 14.273$, $df = 101$, $p < 0.001$). These differences could be attributed to a higher activity in *S. serrifer* from the Industrial Park (IPS) compared to the activity displayed by individuals of the same species from the Ecological Park (EPS).

Significant differences were found for the GST activity ($F = 26.78$, $df = 99$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 100$). In this case a

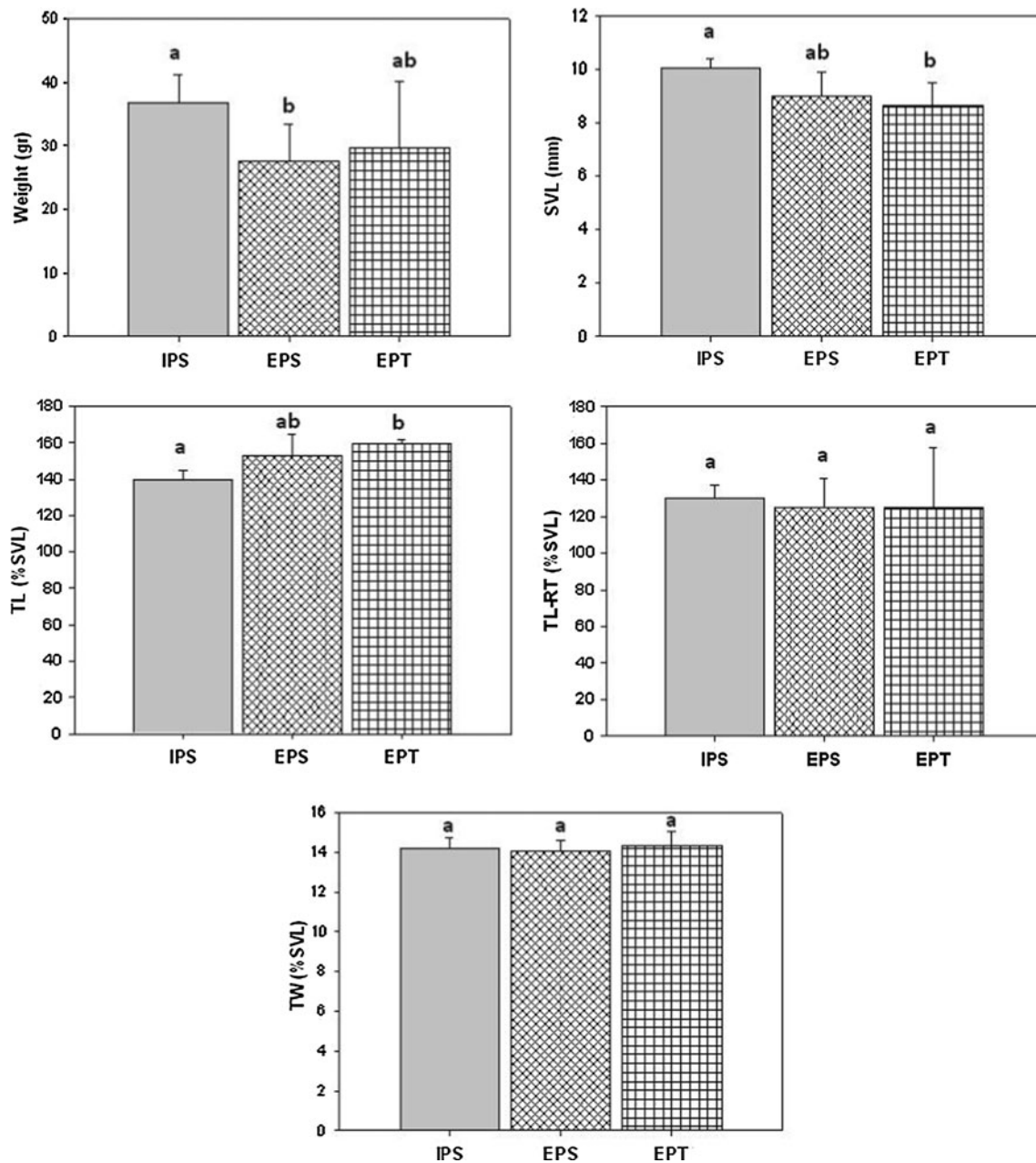


Fig. 2 Morphological variables determined in individuals of spiny lizards near the metropolitan area of Monterrey, Mexico. *IPS* *S. serrifer* from the Industrial Park, *EPS* *S. serrifer* from the Ecological Park, *EPT* *S. torquatus* from the Ecological Park, *BW* body

weight (gr), *SVL* snout vent length (mm), *TL* tail length, *TL-RT* tail length of regenerated tails, *TW* tail width. Values are mean \pm standard deviation. Bars with the same superscript are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$)

marked difference in activity between localities was registered, independently of the species and gender. The organisms from Industrial Park displayed a higher GST activity, compared with individuals from Ecological Park.

Discussion

In the present study the species were found to be diurnally active and a higher number of individuals were captured

between 26 and 30 °C. This corresponds to the reported preferred temperature for *S. serrifer* (24–38 °C), and that of *S. torquatus* which has been reported to be active on sunny winter days (Contreras-Lozano et al. 2007). The range of temperature registered in this study may be considered narrow and therefore nondetermining in the enzyme activity analysis. This is supported by the absence of statistical correlation between the environmental temperature and the enzymatic activity (Table 1). In relation to this, some studies indicate that reptiles show a combination of

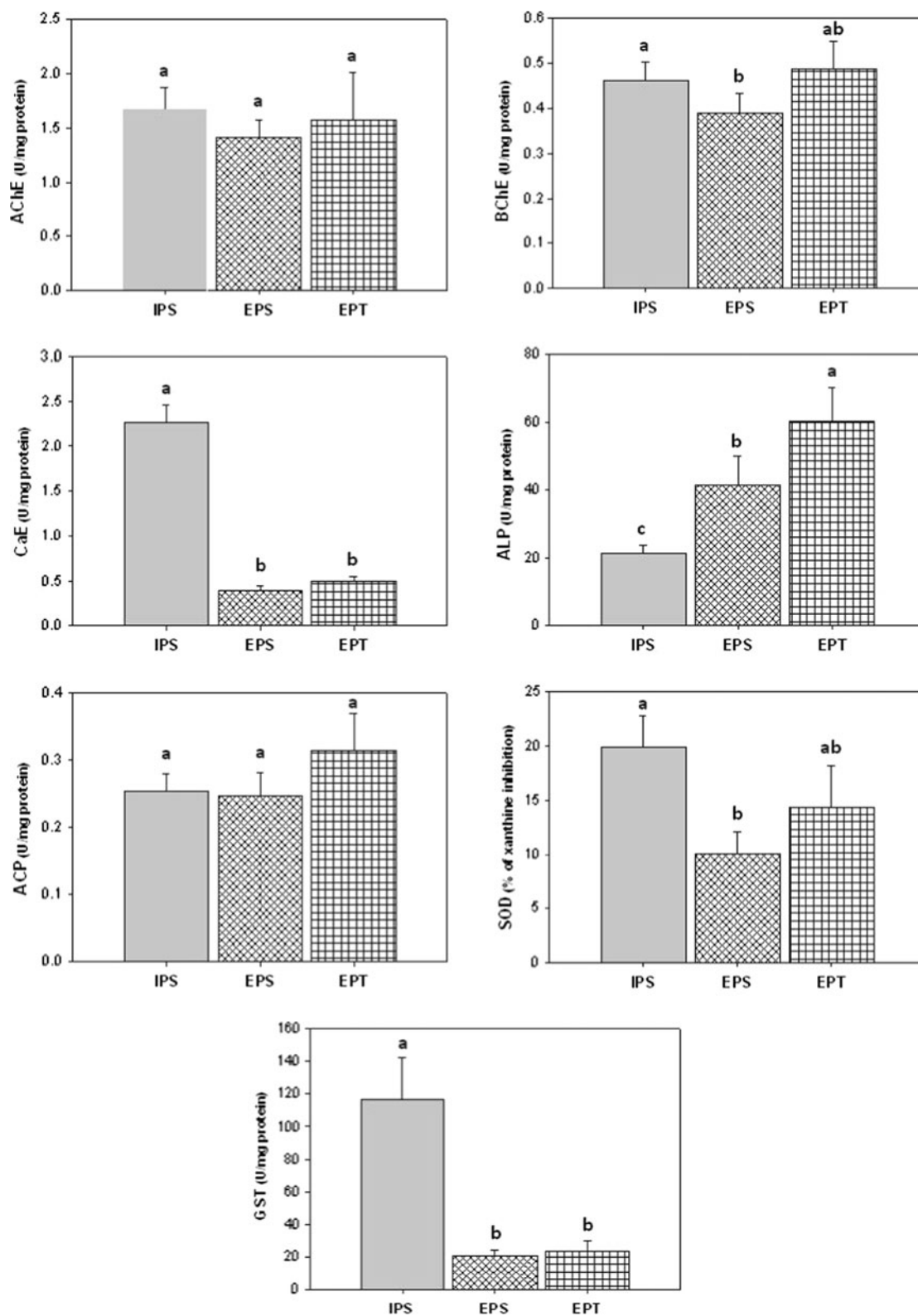


Fig. 3 Enzymatic activity (U/mg protein) of enzymatic biomarkers in tail samples of individuals of spiny lizard collected in the surroundings of the metropolitan area of Monterrey, Mexico. *IPS* *S. serrifer* from the Industrial Park, *EPS* *S. serrifer* from the Ecological Park, *EPT* *S. torquatus* from the Ecological Park, *AChE* acetylcholinesterase,

BChE butyrylcholinesterase, *CaE* carboxylesterase, *ALP* alkaline phosphatase, *ACP* acid phosphatase, *SOD* superoxide dismutase, *GST* glutathione S-transferase. Values are mean \pm standard deviation. Bars with the same superscript are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$)

Table 1 Correlation coefficient (r^2) between the environmental temperature and the enzymatic activity of the biomarkers analysed in individual of spiny lizard collected in the surroundings of the metropolitan area of Monterrey, Mexico

	EP	IP
AChE	0.173	0.027
BChE	0.26	0.016
CaE	0.32	0.048
ACP	0.005	0.002
ALP	0.007	0.004
SOD	0.049	0.003
GST	0.011	0.002

EP Chipinque Ecological Park, IP El Carmen Industrial Park

thermoregulatory-behavior and biochemical acclimatization in response to changes in environmental conditions. For example the citrate synthase activity in *Chelodina longicollis* did not respond to seasonal changes (Seebacher et al. 2004), in the same sense neonates of *Chrysemys picta* exposed at different temperatures did not show differences in the antioxidative capacity of the plasma (Baker et al. 2007). Also when *Lacerta vivipara* was submitted to temperatures below the freezing point (-2.5 °C), it did not show any changes in SOD and glutathione peroxidase enzymatic activity (Voituron et al. 2005). Finally, in a study where lizards adapted to low nocturnal temperatures (5 °C) were compared to those adapted to high diurnal temperatures (35 °C), no differences in the lactate dehydrogenase enzymatic activity were found (Hare et al. 2005).

Most of the individuals were collected in a narrow margin of altitude (525–530 msnm), considering the broad range of altitude covered in this study (520–1,310 msnm). The reported altitudinal distribution gradient for *Sceloporus* species is quite large, starting below sea level and extending up to 4,110 masl (Stebbins 2003). Also in the northeast of Mexico *S. serrifer* and *S. torquatus* has been reported to exist between 270 and 2,800 masl (Contreras-Lozano et al. 2007). Therefore, the distributional altitudinal gradient of these individuals does not seem to be crucial in determining the enzymatic activity of the biomarkers. As an example, Hofer et al. (2005) did not find any alterations of the oxidative stress among populations of tadpoles of *Rana temporaria* in an altitude gradient range between 1,465 and 2,150 masl.

Concerning the relative humidity, 69 % of the animals were collected in habitats within a humidity range between 30 and 49.9 %. In this case, it does not seem to exist a physiological impact of this factor, due to the fact that these organisms are able to regulate their activity and water loss, and thus can withstand long periods of drought (Nicholson et al. 2005).

Similar results of AChE and BChE activity between individuals of both sites in this present research allowed us to

assume that there is no differential exposition to organophosphate pesticides, carbamates or other neurotoxic polluting agents. The inhibition of ChEs is widely used as biomarker in instances of exposure to organophosphate and/or carbamates pesticides in mammals, birds, fish and invertebrates (Thompson and Walker 1994; Thompson 1999). It has been observed that the sensitivity of ChEs to organophosphates in reptiles is similar to that reported in fish, birds and mammals (Schmidt 2003). In the case of the lizards, *Gallotia galloti* has been proposed as a sentry species for pesticides based on the activity levels of ChEs (Fossi et al. 1995; Sanchez-Hernandez and Moreno 2002), in the same way the inhibition of ChEs activity has been reported in the liver tissue of *Calotes versicolor* under the effect of pyrethroid, organophosphate and phytopesticide (Khan 2003). This clearly indicates that the inhibition of ChEs activity in lizards can be a biomarker of these compounds, bringing support to the fact that the studied *Sceloporus* populations were not impacted by this sort of polluting agents.

The effects caused by these polluting agents on *Sceloporus* species was previously reported by (Holem et al. 2006, 2008), however the information provided was limited to the alterations of the locomotor performance, growth and general fitness. In tail samples, the AChE activity registered was greater than the activity of BChE. In contrast, the plasma AChE activity levels detected in *Gallotia galloti* were lower than the activity of BChE (Sanchez-Hernandez and Moreno 2002). Despite the scarcity of data on the physiological role of BChE, it has been pointed out that it can have a synergistic and physiological role involved in the protection of the AChE activity against neurotoxic compounds, which would contribute to explain the higher BChE activity found in the plasma when compared to other tissues (Thompson and Walker 1994).

Unlike the previous biomarkers, a noticeable difference between localities was found in the case of the CaE activity, where a higher activity was registered for the organisms of the Industrial Park. This difference was evident in spite of the interspecific variation of the CaE activity, which is generally greater than that of ChEs (Thompson and Walker 1994; Sánchez et al. 1997). A plausible explanation would be the intermittent exposure to pesticides of individuals from the Ecological Park, which could have provoked the reactivation of ChEs, once the CaE have been phosphorylated, thus generating differences which were not found in the case of ChEs (Sánchez et al. 1997; Maxwell and Brecht 2001). However, due to the lack of background information of the basal levels of these enzymes in the studied species, it is not possible to conclude that the CaE activity was inhibited in individuals from the Ecological Park. In this sense, considering that the Ecological Park is a protected pristine site where no pesticides are used to control forest pests, the biomarkers

values found in this locality could be considered as a reference and would be near the normal values. It would be expected that the variation in activity levels could be a consequence of the presence of pollutants in the Industrial Park. This contention is supported by other studies that have reported the effect of heavy metals on increasing CaE activity in spiders (Wilczek et al. 1997) and ants (Migula and Glowacka 1996). Additionally, it has been shown that the exposure to hydrocarbons increases the enzyme detoxification activity, including the CaE (Potter and Wadkins 2006; Zhang et al. 2008). This could also be the case at the Industrial Park. However, the specific factors that may have an influence on the activity of CaE in organisms of the Industrial Park cannot be determined with accuracy, since there are many isoenzymes whose physiological role in the metabolism of xenobiotics is still unknown (Wheelock et al. 2008).

Similarly to CaE, the ALP activity was different according to the location. Lower levels of ALP activity were observed in individuals from the Industrial Park, adding credence to the hypothesis that these organisms are constantly exposed to polluting agents. In fish, low levels of ALP activity has been associated to several causes such as: lead (Singh et al. 1994), toxins from vegetables (Singh and Singh 2005) and when physiological alterations are present as a result of reproductive (Trivedi et al. 2001) or renal damage (Trof et al. 2006). In contrast, the ACP activity levels did not contribute to establish differences associated to the study locations. Nevertheless, variations associated to the genders in *S. serrifer* from the Ecological Park could be the result of the reproductive condition, as reported for snakes and lizards which show ACP activity variations associated to changes in the androgen levels during the reproductive period (Deb and Sarkar 1963).

The results of GST activity was also different when considering the localities. Those organisms from the Industrial Park showed a higher activity. The GST is involved in the detoxification of xenobiotics and byproducts from lipid peroxidation and has been widely associated with exposure to metals and organic xenobiotics in insects and fish (Wilczek et al. 1997; Huang et al. 2007). Similar results have been reported in herpetofauna, in turtles (*Chrysemys picta*, *Caretta caretta*, *Chelonia mydas* and *Lepidochelys olivacea*) and in the toad *Chaunus schneideri*, the GST activity has been shown to be significantly higher in individuals in polluted sites in comparison to control sites (Attademo et al. 2007; Richardson et al. 2010). Within this context, a higher GST activity in organisms of the Industrial Park could be a consequence of industrial pollution (heavy metals and/or hydrocarbons).

The results obtained for the SOD activity also allow identifying differences in the organisms from both localities. The SOD activity is generally used as a biomarker of

oxidative stress induced by xenobiotics, particularly heavy metals (Zhang et al. 2008; Costa et al. 2008). Under normal conditions the SOD, catalase and glutathione peroxidase eliminate the reactive oxygen species during the bioactivation by xenobiotics (Sk and Bhattacharya 2006). Nevertheless, the variations in the SOD activity may depend on the characteristics of each study, as inhibition, activation or even both changes have been reported in tissues from different organisms. For example, when tadpoles of *Lithobates catesbeianus* were exposed to an herbicide, the liver SOD activity increased, whereas in the muscle the activity decreased (Costa et al. 2008). Despite these considerations previous studies in fish have shown similar results. The SOD activity in liver, kidney and intestine of carps (*Cyprinus carpio*) in the Amarillo River was higher in sites affected by mixed polluting agents, including phenols, oils and ammonia (Huang et al. 2007). Also tilapias (*Oreochromis mossambicus*) exposed to cadmium displayed a significant increase in liver and kidney SOD activity (Basha and Rani 2003).

Despite the tail regeneration capability of lizards, it has been argued that the loss of the tail may have functional and physiological costs (Hare and Miller 2010). However, it has been demonstrated that the parcial loss of the tail does not have profound effects on the energetic reserves, nor in their locomotive capability (Lin and Ji 2005). In the same sense, it has also been reported that tail regeneration does not have an energetic priority over reproduction or growth, so these processes would not be affected (Dial and Fitzpatrick 1981; Althoff and Thompson 1994). As a consequence, the use of tail clips has been favored as a non-invasive alternative tissue sampling method over the conventional sampling methods, such as blood extraction or post mortem tissue sampling, particularly for small size species or for endangered species that can not be sacrificed (Ezaz et al. 2008). The uses of nondestructive sampling techniques have been developed recently in determining organic and inorganic contaminant concentrations in lizards and snakes (Campbell and Campbell 2002). Tail muscle, tail clips, skin, shed skins and blood have been used for reporting residue concentrations in lizards and snakes (Hopkins et al. 2001; Burger et al. 2005; Jones et al. 2005; Márquez-Ferrando et al. 2009). In this sense, the biochemical biomarkers can be determined with simpler and/or more economic equipment (spectrophotometer or microplates reader) that those necessary for residue analysis (e.g. atomic absorption; gas chromatography; mass spectroscopy), which can facilitate a wider use of these biomarkers as they occur in many of the aquatic ecosystems (Van der Oost et al. 2003). Overall, after analyzing the different biomarkers used in this study a clear physiological effect can be appreciated in the population of spiny lizards of the Industrial Park undoubtedly due to polluting agents such as heavy metals and/or hydrocarbons. In this

way, the present research shows the possibility of simplifying the ecotoxicology studies in lizards, by means of the use of biomarkers.

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