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3 Mercury bioaccumulation and *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in two syntopic watersnakes in South
4 Carolina

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Mercury (Hg) is a ubiquitous environmental contaminant known to bioaccumulate in biota and
17 biomagnify in food webs. Parasites occur in nearly every ecosystem and often interact in
18 complex ways with other stressors that their hosts experience. *Hepatozoon* spp. are
19 intraerythrocytic parasites common in snakes. The Florida green watersnake (*Nerodia floridana*)
20 and the banded watersnake (*Nerodia fasciata*) occur syntopically in certain aquatic habitats
21 wetlands in the Southeastern United States. The purpose of this study was to investigate
22 relationships among total mercury (THg) concentrations, body size, species, habitat type and
23 prevalence and parasitemia of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in snakes. In the present study, we
24 sampled *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* from former nuclear cooling reservoirs and isolated
25 wetlands of the Savannah River Site in South Carolina. We used snake tail clips to quantify THg
26 and collected blood samples for hemoparasite counts. Our results indicate a significant, positive
27 relationship between THg and snake body size in *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* in both habitats.
28 Average THg was significantly higher for *N. fasciata* compared to *N. floridana* in bays ($0.22 \pm$
29 0.02 and 0.08 ± 0.006 mg/kg, respectively; $p < 0.01$), but not in reservoirs (0.17 ± 0.02 and 0.17
30 ± 0.03 mg/kg, respectively; $p = 0.29$). Sex did not appear to be related to THg concentration or
31 *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in either species. We found no association between Hg and
32 *Hepatozoon* spp. prevalence or parasitemia; however, our results suggest that species and habitat
33 type play a role in susceptibility to *Hepatozoon* spp. infection.
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36 Keywords: trace elements; snake; diet; hemoparasite; habitat; reptile

37
38 **Introduction**

40 Mercury (Hg) is a ubiquitous environmental contaminant of particular concern for human and
41 wildlife health because of its toxicity and persistence in the environment (Rice et al. 2014; Eagles-Smith
42 et al. 2018). Although Hg occurs naturally (i.e., volcanic emission, forest fires, volatilization),
43 anthropogenic activities such as mining, fossil fuel combustion, waste incineration, gold processing
44 facilities, cement production, and caustic soda production through chlor-alkali processes have increased
45 its mobilization and bioavailability to biota (Wang et al. 2004; Pacyna et al. 2006; Schneider et al. 2013).
46 Methylmercury, the most toxic form of Hg, can persist in an environment for long periods of time, and is
47 easily transferred through diet, especially in aquatic food webs (Burger et al. 2001; Hogan et al. 2007;
48 Chumchal et al. 2011; Haskins et al. 2021a). Methylmercury uptake in wildlife occurs primarily through
49 diet and can become widely distributed in body tissues such as liver and muscle (Green et al. 2010;
50 Azevedo et al 2012; Drewett et al. 2013; Moore et al. 2022).

51 Bioaccumulation of Hg has been documented in a wide range of taxa (Wolfe et al. 1998; Nilsen
52 et al. 2017; Rodriguez-Jorquera et al. 2017) and biomagnification has been observed in numerous
53 aquatic and terrestrial systems, with the highest concentrations of Hg often occurring in top
54 predators (Burger et al. 2001; Rimmer et al. 2010; Carrasco et al. 2011; Chumchal et al. 2011).
55 The harmful effects of Hg include reduced reproductive success (Heinz 1979; Hopkins et al.
56 2013; Thompson et al. 2018), endocrine impairment (Dieter and Ludke 1975; Wolfe et al. 1998;
57 Lemaire et al. 2021), overt neurotoxicity, and death (Wren et al. 1987; Heinz 1996;
58 Scheuhammer et al. 2007). Furthermore, even if concentrations of Hg are low or exposure is
59 chronic, less obvious sublethal effects can occur. Mercury exposure may compromise an
60 organism's immune function, leaving them more susceptible to disease and parasite infection
61 (Lafferty and Kuris 1999; Sures 2004; Martin et al. 2010; Marcogliese and Pietrock 2011). For
62 example, a study investigating associations between Hg and parasite infection in common loons
63 (*Gavia immer*) found prevalence and intensity of *Leucytozoon* parasites increased with blood Hg

64 concentrations (Weinandt 2006). More recently, Borchert et al. (2019) found positive
65 associations between Hg concentrations and endoparasite abundance in raccoons (*Procyon lotor*)
66 from South Carolina and Georgia. However, a contrasting effect is also possible; parasites or
67 their vectors may be more sensitive to contaminants than the primary hosts (Sures 2004, Martin
68 et al. 2010, Brown et al. 2022), leading to lower parasite occurrence within a polluted system.

69 Despite a growing interest in the use of herpetofauna as ecological receptors, reptiles are
70 included less often in environmental monitoring and risk assessment compared to other
71 vertebrate taxa (i.e., birds, mammals, fish, amphibians; Hopkins 2000; Campbell and Campbell
72 2001; Sparling et al. 2010; Burger et al. 2017; Haskins et al. 2019a,b). Snakes in particular are
73 well-suited for studying the accumulation and effects of contaminants, as they are relatively long-
74 lived and exclusively carnivorous, often serving as mid-level to top predators in the ecosystems
75 they inhabit (Gibbons and Dorcas 2004; Burger et al. 2017; Haskins et al. 2019a). Snakes also
76 have relatively small home ranges and are likely to remain in a contaminated area throughout
77 their lifespan (Bauerle et al. 1975; Beaupre and Douglas 2009; Drewett et al. 2013), subjecting
78 them to chronic contaminant exposure. Collectively, these life history traits combine to make
79 snakes a reliable bioindicator of environmental health (Campbell and Campbell 2001; Burger et
80 al. 2017; Haskins et al. 2019a). In particular, snakes that feed primarily on aquatic prey appear to
81 be more susceptible to accumulating contaminants compared to those that feed on terrestrial prey
82 (Burger et al. 2006; Chumchal et al. 2011; Drewett et al. 2013).

83 Differences in habitat association and feeding ecology are likely to influence patterns of
84 Hg accumulation in wildlife (Weiner et al. 2003; Lemaire et al. 2018). The bioavailability of Hg
85 can depend on many biogeochemical processes that occur within a particular aquatic habitat

86 (Gilmour et al. 1992). Isolated Carolina bays found throughout the Coastal Plain of the
87 southeastern United States have been found to exhibit high concentrations of Hg despite a lack of
88 proximity to a point-source (Snodgrass et al. 2000a). This is likely due to several characteristics
89 found in Carolina bays that are associated with increased Hg biomethylation rates, such as
90 fluctuating water levels, high dissolved organic carbon, and low pH (Snodgrass et al. 2000a;
91 Unrine et al. 2005). Aquatic habitats may also vary in prey sources available to aquatic snakes
92 (Durso et al. 2013), which may in turn impact the bioavailability of Hg (Lemaire et al. 2018).
93 Snakes living in aquatic habitats with shorter hydroperiods may rely more on amphibian prey
94 sources, while diets of snakes living in larger more permanent bodies of water may include both
95 fish and amphibians (Durso et al. 2013). Closely related syntopic species occupying habitats with
96 broader prey resources may also partition into various trophic niches, which may in turn lead to
97 differences in Hg bioaccumulation between species.

98 Habitat type and feeding ecology may also play a role in exposure to parasites.
99 Hemogregarines of the genus *Hepatozoon* spp. are a common intraerythrocytic parasite of snakes
100 (Smith 1996; Telford et al. 2001). Infections with *Hepatozoon* spp. parasites in aquatic snakes
101 usually occur as a result of the ingestion of an infected intermediate host (e.g., frog or lizard) but
102 may also be transmitted through a bite from an invertebrate vector (i.e., mosquito, leech) (Smith
103 1996; Telford et al. 2001). Interestingly, fish—a common staple of some watersnake diets—do
104 not appear to be a major intermediate host of *Hepatozoon* spp. parasites (Smith 1996). Thus, the
105 prey assemblage within a habitat is likely to affect a snake's susceptibility to *Hepatozoon* spp.
106 infection—with infections more common in snakes that often feed on anuran prey items. Snakes
107 inhabiting wetlands with fewer fish will be reliant on more available amphibian prey sources,
108 potentially influencing exposure to hemoparasites and prevalence of parasitic infections (Tomé et

109 al. 2012). Bioaccumulation of a contaminant such as Hg can directly impact a host's ability to
110 fight off parasitic infections leading to increased prevalence and intensity of infections
111 (Weinandt 2006). Furthermore, exposure to Hg can affect host-parasite dynamics by altering
112 behavior and reproductive patterns of vectors and hosts, indirectly influencing transmission of
113 parasites (Borchert et al. 2019).

114 In the present study, we evaluated how Hg accumulation varies with habitat type and
115 between two species of aquatic snakes. We were also interested in elucidating how species, body
116 size, habitat and Hg concentrations impact prevalence and parasitemia of *Hepatozoon* spp. in
117 syntopic species. Our specific objectives were to (1) examine the relationship between tail total
118 Hg (tail THg) and snake body size, (2) compare tail THg between species and aquatic habitat
119 types, (3) compare *Hepatozoon* spp. infections between watersnake species and aquatic habitat
120 types, and (4) determine associations between tail THg and *Hepatozoon* spp. infections. To meet
121 our objectives, we sampled two syntopic species of watersnakes—the Florida green water snake
122 (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnake (*Nerodia fasciata*)—from isolated Carolina bays and
123 a former nuclear cooling reservoir of the Savannah River Site in South Carolina. We used snake
124 tail clips as a non-lethal sampling method to quantify THg and examined blood smears to
125 determine *Hepatozoon* spp. prevalence and parasitemia. We predicted tail THg would increase
126 with body size in both *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata*. Based on their suspected differences in diet,
127 we predicted that in the reservoirs, *N. floridana* adults, which prey on fish when available, would
128 accumulate higher concentrations of THg compared to *N. fasciata*. In contrast, we predicted THg
129 concentrations would be similar in the two species in Carolina bays, where diet may be more
130 likely to rely on amphibians and overlap between snake species. We hypothesized that
131 *Hepatozoon* spp. infections would be more common in *N. fasciata* based on a higher reliance of 5

132 amphibian prey items in their diet. We expected that *Hepatozoon* spp. infections would be more
133 common for both species in isolated wetlands, where amphibian prey sources are more plentiful
134 compared to fish. Finally, we predicted that snakes with higher tail THg would be more likely to
135 be infected with *Hepatozoon* spp.

136 **Methods**

137 *Study sites*

138
139 The Savannah River Site (SRS) is a 780 km² United States Department of Energy
140 property in west-central South Carolina. Due to past activities associated with production of
141 nuclear weapons on the SRS, legacy heavy metals and radionuclides remain in some aquatic
142 habitats, particularly in former nuclear cooling reservoirs. The SRS is home to a diversity of
143 aquatic habitat types including multiple cooling reservoirs totaling 2000 hectares (ha) and more
144 than 300 relatively unimpacted isolated wetlands and ponds (Schalles et al. 1989; White and
145 Gaines 2000). Most of the isolated wetlands have no history of direct Hg inputs but may receive
146 the contaminant through atmospheric deposition and runoff (Snodgrass et al. 2000a; Unrine et al.
147 2005). In the present study, we sampled snakes from two aquatic habitat types: a former nuclear
148 cooling reservoir and two Carolina bays.

149 We collected snakes from Pond B (Fig. 1; 33°17'37.5"N 81°32'50.7"W), an 87 ha
150 cooling reservoir with a maximum depth of 12 m constructed in 1961 to serve as a secondary
151 cooling system for nuclear production reactors (Parker et al. 1973). The Savannah River borders
152 the western edge of the SRS and was used as a water source for filling the constructed reservoirs
153 and to cool nuclear reactors during operation. However, the Savannah River was contaminated
154 with mercury by an upstream chloro-alkali plant and introduced Hg into the cooling reservoirs on

155 the SRS (Kvartek et al. 1994; Sugg et al. 1995). Pond B received thermal effluent from one of the
156 nuclear reactors (R Reactor) until it was shut down in 1964. Pond B water levels are now
157 maintained exclusively by precipitation and groundwater seepage (Kennamer et al. 2005).
158 Contaminant levels in Pond B fish have been monitored by numerous studies since the reservoir
159 was created, with at least 11 species of fish documented (Parker et al. 1973; Whicker et al. 1990;
160 Fulghum et al. 2019). Several studies have reported concentrations of Hg in wildlife inhabiting
161 Pond B (Sugg et al. 1995; Gaines et al. 2002; Kennamer et al. 2005; Haskins et al. 2019), which
162 along with radio cesium (^{137}Cs), is the primary contaminant of concern in the reservoir.

163 We also collected snakes from two isolated Carolina bays, Craig's Pond and Sarracenia
164 Bay (Fig. 1; $33^{\circ}17'06.2''\text{N}$ $81^{\circ}28'39.3''\text{W}$ and $33^{\circ}17'05.0''\text{N}$ $81^{\circ}28'22.4''\text{W}$, respectively), which
165 have no history of Hg inputs resulting from SRS operations. Craig's Pond is the largest Carolina
166 bay (78.2 ha) on the SRS and is semi-permanent, only drying during extended droughts (Davis
167 and Janacek 1997). Craig's Pond also has one external and two internal ditches which allow fish
168 to invade it during high water levels. Due to its long hydroperiod, Craig's Pond has
169 comparatively high diversity of amphibians and smaller fish species compared to other SRS bays
170 (Snodgrass et al. 2000). Despite being much smaller, Sarracenia Bay (4.0 ha) also has an
171 extended hydroperiod (Janacek and Davis 1997). Because of their close proximity (approximately
172 200 m apart), the two bays can become connected. Prior studies have documented Hg
173 concentrations in wildlife inhabiting these two sites as well as other Carolina Bays on the SRS
174 (Snodgrass et al. 2000; Unrine et al. 2005; Borchert et al. 2019). Since animals can easily move
175 between the two wetlands, we chose not to examine these two sites independently, and hereafter
176 refer to them collectively as "bays."

177 *Study species*

178 The Florida green watersnake (*N. floridana*) and the banded watersnake (*N. fasciata*)
179 are two of the nine species of *Nerodia* found in North America. Both species occur sympatrically
180 in some parts of Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina, and they can occur syntopically in some
181 wetlands, but relative abundance of each species varies with habitat type. *Nerodia floridana*
182 prefer permanent lentic habitats such as reservoirs, lakes, and some isolated wetlands with
183 extended hydroperiods (Gibbons and Dorcas 2004). In contrast, *N. fasciata* is a habitat generalist
184 occupying wetlands with a wide range of hydrological conditions. Among aquatic habitats of the
185 SRS in South Carolina, where the two species co-occur, *N. fasciata* is one of the most abundant
186 snake species except in the large reservoirs, where *N. floridana* is more common. Factors that
187 likely contribute to this pattern include interspecific differences in drought response (Willson et
188 al. 2006; Vogrinc et al. 2018) and diet (Durso et al. 2011).

189 The diets of *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* may overlap, especially as juveniles when both
190 rely heavily on amphibians and small fish (Gibbons and Dorcas 2004; Willson et al. 2006).
191 However, as adults, the diet of *N. floridana* consists more heavily of fish (when fish are
192 available), while *N. fasciata* diet has a wider range of aquatic prey (Gibbons and Dorcas 2004;
193 Durso et al. 2013). The feeding ecology of *N. fasciata* has been studied more extensively, with
194 several studies reporting an ontogenetic shift from smaller prey (e.g., mosquitofish, tadpoles) as
195 juveniles to large anurans (e.g., ranid frogs and toads) as adults (Mushinsky et al. 1982; Vincent
196 et al. 2007). At the SRS, *N. floridana* are more likely to be detected in permanent wetlands
197 containing fish, while *N. fasciata* are more common in less permanent wetlands (Durso et al.
198 2011). However, in wetlands without fish but where *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* co-occur, both
199 snake species may rely heavily on the same prey, including larval or paedomorphic mole
200 salamanders (*Ambystoma talpoideum*; Durso et al. 2013).

201 *Data and sample collection*

202 We used a combination of plastic minnow traps and funnel traps to capture snakes from
203 bays (16 May - 11 June 2017) and Pond B reservoir (11 June - 1 August 2018). We arranged 20
204 trap arrays around the water's edge of each aquatic habitat and checked traps daily (Seigel et al.
205 1995, Willson et al. 2006). Each array consisted of one funnel trap and four minnow traps, which
206 we positioned 2-3 m apart in shallow water, with 3-5 cm of the trap remaining above the water
207 level. We transported all captured snakes to the Savannah River Ecology Laboratory for
208 processing, which included measuring mass (to nearest 1 g), snout-vent length (SVL; to the
209 nearest 1 mm) and permanently marked each individual by injection of a passive integrated
210 transponder (PIT) tag into the coelomic cavity (AVID, Norco, CA, USA; Gibbons and Andrews
211 2004). We determined sex by examining tail morphology and/or probing the cloaca (Fitch 1960).

212 We removed approximately 1.0 cm of tail tip from each snake for the quantification of
213 total Hg (THg, using tail Hg as a proxy for whole-body Hg; Hopkins et al. 2001). We recorded
214 the wet weight of each tail clip to the nearest 0.001 g (Sartorius Research Analytical Balance
215 R160D, Goettingen, Germany) and stored tail clips at -70°C until subsequent analysis. We
216 collected blood from the caudal vein with a 25 G needle and syringe and created blood smears on
217 microscope slides to be used for *Hepatozoon* spp. hemoparasite counts. We fixed slides with
218 100% methanol and stained with modified Wright-Giemsa (Diff-Quik, PolySciences Inc.,
219 Warrington, PA, USA) to facilitate visualization of erythrocytes and hemoparasites. We released
220 snakes at their location of capture within 24-48 hours of sample collection. We released any
221 recaptured snakes immediately after capture.

223 *Mercury quantification*

224 We dried tail clips in an oven for a minimum of 24 hours at 50°C and recorded dry
225 weight (d.w.) of each tail clip to the nearest 0.001 g (Mettler-Toledo AX504 Delta Range,
226 Columbus, OH, USA). We quantified tail THg using thermal decomposition, catalytic
227 conversion, amalgamation, and cold vapor atomic absorption spectrophotometry by a DMA-80
228 Tri-cell Direct Mercury Analyzer (Milestone, Shelton, CT, USA). Our THg analysis used a
229 modified version of the USEPA method 7473 (USEPA 1998). We ran two blanks and two
230 standard reference material checks, TORT-3 lobster hepatopancreas and PACS-2 marine
231 sediment (National Research Council of Canada, Ottawa, ON), before sampling began and after
232 every 10 samples. The detection limit for THg in tail tissue was 4.36×10^{-4} mg/kg dry mass.
233 Average percent recoveries (\pm SE) for TORT-3 and PACS-2 (both n = 12) reference materials
234 were $98.8\% \pm 4.76\%$ and $101.9\% \pm 1.39\%$, respectively. We present all THg concentrations as
235 mg/kg on a dry weight basis (Table 1; see Supplementary Table 1 for average wet weight, percent
236 moisture, and wet/dry factor).

237

238 *Hemoparasite counts*

239 We scanned blood smears in a zig-zag manner using a standard light microscope (Zeiss
240 Axioscope 50, Jena, Germany) at 1000x magnification using oil immersion. We counted a total
241 of 8000 erythrocytes and recorded the number of cells infected with *Hepatozoon* spp. for each
242 slide (Davis and Sterrett 2011). Although several species of *Hepatozoon* may infect a single
243 species of *Nerodia*, we did not identify hepatozoa beyond the genus nor did we assess

244 developmental stage. We determined prevalence as the proportion of individual snakes infected
245 with at least one *Hepatozoon* spp. We calculated parasitemia (i.e., the percentage of erythrocytes
246 infected with *Hepatozoon* spp.) using the following equation: Parasitemia= (Number of
247 *Hepatozoon* spp. infected erythrocytes/8000 erythrocytes) *100.

248

249 *Statistical analyses*

250 We conducted all statistical analyses using program R (R Core Team 2022). We tested
251 data for normality and homogeneity of variances using Shapiro-Wilks test of normality and
252 Bartlett's test, respectively. We log-transformed any data that did not meet the assumptions of
253 normality. If data transformations did not result in meeting model assumptions, the data were
254 evaluated for outliers using the interquartile range rule. We compared THg concentrations and
255 average *Hepatozoon* spp. parasitemia in *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* from bays and Pond B
256 reservoir using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), with species and habitat as the
257 independent variables and SVL as the covariate. We used logistic regression to determine the
258 importance of species, habitat, and individual-level factors (SVL, sex) in predicting the
259 probability of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata*. We used Akaike
260 information criterion (AIC) values to select the most supported among candidate models using an
261 information-theoretic approach (Burnham and Anderson 1998, Burnham and Anderson 2004).

262

263 **Results**

264 During the summers of 2017 and 2018, we captured a total of 112 snakes. However, we
265 were unable to obtain tail clips to test for Hg from seven of the captured snakes. A further five
266 snakes were determined to be outliers due to size or THg concentration and were removed from
267 further analyses in models. The remaining snakes sampled consisted of 34 *N. fasciata* and 10 *N.*
268 *floridana* in bays and 18 *N. fasciata* and 38 *N. floridana* from Pond B reservoir (for summary
269 information see Table 1). Overall mass for *N. fasciata* ranged from 14.0 to 266.0 g (mean =
270 89.12 ± 9.7 g), while mass of *N. floridana* ranged from 36.0 to 278.0 g (mean = 102.2 ± 8.0 g).
271 Overall SVL for *N. fasciata* ranged from to 255 – 695 mm (mean = 425 ± 15.8 mm), while SVL
272 of *N. floridana* ranged from 346 to 696 mm (mean= 474 ± 11.5 mm). An analysis of variance
273 (ANOVA) comparing average SVL between sites indicated no significant difference in size
274 between sites. However, a two sample t- test comparing average size between species indicated a
275 significant difference in SVL between *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata*, with *N. floridana* averaging
276 slightly larger ($t_{98}=-2.48$, $p < 0.01$).

277

278 *Tail Total Mercury Concentrations*

279 Average tail THg for all 100 snakes captured was 0.17 ± 0.008 mg/kg dry weight
280 (range: 0.02-0.38 mg/kg d.w.; Table 1). There was a significant, positive trend of increasing tail
281 THg with body size (SVL) for *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* from both the bays and the former
282 nuclear cooling reservoir (Fig. 2). Average tail THg was highest in *N. fasciata* from Carolina
283 bays (0.25 ± 0.02), followed by *N. floridana* (0.17 ± 0.007) and *N. fasciata* (0.17 ± 0.005) from
284 the reservoir, with the lowest occurring in *N. floridana* from Carolina bays (0.08 ± 0.007) (Fig.
285 3). The effect of sex on average tail THg was evaluated but did not differ significantly for either

286 species and was excluded from further models. There were significant differences in average tail
287 THg among groupings (species + habitat type) after controlling for the effect of SVL (ANCOVA:
288 $F_{3,98} = 19.16$, $p < 0.001$). When comparing within habitat type, average tail THg was significantly
289 higher in *N. fasciata* than *N. floridana* from bays ($t = -7.43$, $p < 0.001$) but differences between
290 the species were not significant in snakes collected from the reservoir ($t = -1.56$, $p = 0.39$; Fig. 3).
291 Within species, there was no significant difference in average tail THg between reservoir and bay
292 for *N. fasciata* ($t = -0.86$, $p = 0.82$); however, average tail THg was significantly higher in *N.*
293 *floridana* collected from reservoirs than those collected from bays ($t = 5.39$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3).

294

295 *Hepatozoon spp. Prevalence and Parasitemia*

296 We obtained blood smears from 100 snakes, in which overall prevalence of *Hepatozoon*
297 *spp.* infections was 43% (43/100). Infections by *Hepatozoon* spp. were more prevalent in snakes
298 of both species when captured in bays compared to when captured from the reservoir and were
299 more common in *N. fasciata* than *N. floridana* in both habitats (Table 1). Overall average
300 parasitemia was 4.32 ± 0.97 and was higher in both species from the bays compared to those
301 from the reservoir. After controlling for body size, parasitemia varied significantly between
302 habitats and species (ANCOVA: $F_{3,96} = 1.36$, $p < 0.001$). Posthoc comparisons of means revealed
303 average parasitemia for *N. fasciata* from the bays was significantly higher than *N. fasciata* from
304 the reservoir ($t = -3.79$, $p < 0.001$) and from *N. floridana* from both the bays ($t = -4.08$, $p <$
305 0.001) and the reservoir ($t = -6.43$, $p < .001$). Average parasitemia for *N. floridana* from the
306 reservoir was not significantly different from *N. fasciata* from reservoir ($t = -0.90$, $p = 0.53$) or *N.*
307 *floridana* from bays ($t = -0.09$, $p = 0.99$) (Table 1). The most parsimonious models predicting 13

308 probability of *Hepatozoon* spp. infection in watersnakes included habitat, species, and SVL
309 (Table 2), all of which were significant predictors of infection (Table 3). Based on the best
310 supported model, *N. fasciata* were more likely to be infected by *Hepatozoon* spp. compared to *N.*
311 *floridana*, there was a weakly positive effect of size on infection probability and infections are
312 more common in bays compared to the reservoir (Table 3).

313

314 **Discussion**

315 As expected based on known habitat affinities for the two species (Gibbons and Dorcas
316 2004), including from prior research on the SRS (Durso et al. 2011, 2013), we captured more *N.*
317 *floridana* in the former nuclear cooling reservoir and more *N. fasciata* in the Carolina bays. As
318 has been previously reported for THg in snakes, we found higher tail THg concentrations in
319 larger individuals of each species, and this pattern was observed in both habitat types. A positive
320 relationship between body size and Hg levels has been consistently documented across taxa
321 (Bergeron et al. 2007; Loseto et al. 2008; Staudinger 2011), including several species of snakes
322 (Rainwater et al. 2005; Lemaire et al. 2018; Rumbold and Bartoszek 2019) and specifically in
323 watersnakes (Drewett et al. 2013; Haskins et al. 2019a; Haskins et al. 2021a; Haskins et al.
324 2021b, Brown et al. 2022). Within species, the relationship between body size and tail THg was
325 stronger for *N. fasciata* from the reservoir and *N. floridana* from the bays, where fewer of each
326 species were captured. However, body size explained only a moderate amount of the variation in
327 tail THg for both *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana* in each habitat. Thus, additional factors are likely
328 impacting the bioaccumulation of THg in *Nerodia* within our systems.

329 The observed patterns of interspecific variation between *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana*
330 were in contrast to our expectations. We expected concentrations of tail THg to be similar
331 between species in Carolina bays, where dietary resources between the two species would be
332 more likely to overlap (Durso et al. 2013) and more distinct in the former nuclear cooling
333 reservoir, with *N. floridana* accumulating more THg due to a diet expected to consist more
334 heavily of fish. In contrasts, tail THg concentrations were similar between *N. floridana* and *N.*
335 *fasciata* in the reservoir but differed significantly in Carolina bays. Our results likely reflect both
336 ontogenetic shifts in diet as well as the size distribution of snakes sampled from each habitat
337 type. The diet of *N. fasciata* has been more thoroughly documented than that of *N. floridana*.
338 However, Mushinsky et al. (1982) studied the diet of both *N. fasciata* and Mississippi green
339 watersnake (*N. cyclopion*)—a sister taxa to *N. floridana*. After reaching 500 mm SVL, *N.*
340 *fasciata* exhibited a distinct shift in diet from small fish prey (*Gambusia* spp. and *Fundulus* spp.)
341 to larger anuran prey items (*Rana* [*Lithobates*] spp. and *Bufo* [*Anaxyrus*] spp.). In contrast, *N.*
342 *cyclopion* continued to contain high proportions of small fish even after reaching larger size
343 classes (>500 mm SVL) (Mushinsky et al. 1982). We caught very few individuals of either
344 species over 500 mm within the former nuclear cooling reservoir; thus, it is possible that both
345 species in Pond B are often feeding on small fish prey items, which are abundant in the reservoir.
346 We did observe multiple regurgitations of fish by *N. floridana*, and fish and frogs by *N. fasciata*;
347 however, we did not force regurgitations for each snake captured. Thus, it is possible the diets of
348 *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana* in Pond B overlap much more than expected over the size of the
349 snakes we were able to sample, which could potentially contribute to the similar tail THg
350 concentrations in both species in the reservoir.

351 Furthermore, our method of trapping may have limited our ability to observe

352 interspecific differences in tail THg in snakes from the reservoir. We only sampled in the shallow
353 edges of the littoral zone and were not able to sample deep water habitat where larger snakes
354 from both species could be feeding (Aresco and James 2005). Pond B is larger and deeper in
355 comparison to the Carolina bays; thus, there is an increased possibility for inter- and intraspecific
356 spatial partitioning of foraging locations. While the use of funnel and minnow traps is generally
357 accepted as the best method for capturing aquatic snakes (Seigel et al. 1995, Willson et al. 2006,
358 Vogrinc et al. 2018), trap size may have also hindered our ability to capture individuals of both
359 species in larger size classes. For example, Willson et al. (2008) found that conventional aquatic
360 traps may not be useful for capturing *Nerodia* over 800 mm SVL. Modifying trapping efforts to
361 gather samples from a broader range of snake sizes, particularly those from larger size classes,
362 may help elucidate patterns of THg accumulation in both *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana*.

363 Unexpectedly, *N. fasciata* exhibited significantly higher average tail THg compared to
364 *N. floridana* in Carolina bays. Again, this is likely related to the abundance of certain prey items
365 and the differences in body size of species captured. In the Carolina bays we captured more *N.*
366 *fasciata* over 500 mm, which have likely shifted to a diet consisting of more large anuran prey
367 items (Mushinsky et al. 1982). We caught few *N. floridana* over 500 mm in the bays, and those
368 individuals may be feeding on lower trophic prey items (e.g., salamander larvae, small fish, and
369 tadpoles). Anecdotally, we observed several *N. floridana* and *N. fasciata* captured in bays
370 regurgitate larval mole salamanders (*Ambystoma talpoideum*) after capture, while several large
371 *N. fasciata* regurgitated adult and larval southern leopard frogs (*Rana [Lithobates]*
372 *sphenocephala*). Previous research in SRS Carolina bays has documented significantly higher
373 levels of whole-body THg in *R. sphenocephala* tadpoles (mean= 2.5 mg/kg) compared to larval
374 *A. talpoideum* (mean= 1.0 mg/kg: Lance et al., unpublished data). Thus, if *N. floridana* are

375 relying more often on *A. talpoideum* and *N. fasciata* are consuming more *R. sphenocephala*, it is
376 reasonable to suspect tail THg concentrations would be higher in *N. fasciata* as a result. Further
377 research into dietary partitioning of sympatric watersnake species and its relationship to Hg
378 bioaccumulation is needed to further support this hypothesis.

379 Differences in factors affecting the bioavailability of Hg between habitat types
380 potentially played a role in the pattern of tail THg concentrations we observed. Biota, including
381 fish and anurans, from Carolina bays on the SRS have been documented to have elevated levels
382 of Hg despite having no inputs of the contaminant beyond atmospheric deposition and run-off
383 (Snodgrass et al. 2000a; Unrine et al. 2005). As noted in those previous studies, increased water
384 fluctuation, higher dissolved organic carbon, lower pH, and anoxic conditions associated with
385 Carolina bays likely lead to an increased bioavailability of Hg. The relative stability of water
386 levels in Pond B and the decades that have passed since Hg-contaminated Savannah River water
387 was introduced into Pond B have likely decreased bioavailability in the reservoir (Sugg et al.
388 1995; Kennamer et al. 2005). Increased bioavailability could explain higher concentrations of
389 THg in *N. fasciata* living in bays compared to those from the reservoir. However, THg was
390 higher in *N. floridana* from the reservoir compared to those from the bay. A potential explanation
391 for this could be related to the higher trophic prey that are available in the reservoir compared to
392 the bay. The larger *N. floridana* living in the reservoir have the ability to prey upon centrarchid
393 fish (bass, sunfish) which are not found as commonly in the bays and have generally been shown
394 to have higher THg relative to lower trophic prey items (Eagles-Smith et al. 2008; Chumchal et
395 al. 2011). Additionally, Hg concentrations in wetlands can show variation among years (Morris et
396 al. 2022). Due to logistical constraints, our sites were sampled in different years and we were not
397 able to assess potential temporal variation in Hg dynamics in our study systems.

398 Overall, the THg concentrations in snakes from both the former nuclear cooling
399 reservoir and Carolina bays on the SRS we sampled were relatively low compared to levels
400 documented in other regions globally (see Drewett et al. 2013; Haskins et al. 2019a). One of the
401 highest documented concentrations of THg in snake tail tips was observed in *N. sipedon* from
402 Hg-contaminated parts of the South River in Virginia (13.84 mg/kg d.w.; Drewett et al. 2013)
403 and was well above the highest concentration documented in our study (0.62 mg/kg, d.w.). In
404 fact, the average tail THg observed in *N. fasciata* from Carolina bays was less than the average
405 tail THg of *N. sipedon* from uncontaminated reference sites in the South River study (Drewett et
406 al. 2013). While levels of THg observed in our study appear to be relatively low, little is known
407 of thresholds for toxic effects of Hg on snakes (Haskins et al. 2019a).

408 Species, habitat type, and size (SVL) were the most important factors contributing to
409 probability of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in the snakes sampled in this study. Tail THg did not
410 appear to be an important factor contributing to *Hepatozoon* spp. infections. A similar result of
411 no association between Hg concentrations and hematozoa infections has been observed in
412 nestling wading birds (Bryan et al. 2015). The importance of species and habitat type in
413 probability of *Hepatozoon* spp. are likely reflective of dietary differences between species and
414 prey resources between sites. Infections by *Hepatozoon* spp. in snakes generally occur through
415 the ingestion of an initial vertebrate host, which for *Nerodia* spp., is often an anuran (Smith et al.
416 1994; Smith 1996). The overall high prevalence (32/37 individuals infected) and parasitemia in
417 *N. fasciata* from Carolina bays could speak to their reliance on anuran prey items in comparison
418 to their conspecific *N. floridana* – even at sites where they co-occur. Moreover, we observed
419 higher prevalence and parasitemia for both species living in Carolina bays, where anurans are a
420 more common prey source (Durso et al. 2013). Thus, it is not surprising that *Hepatozoon* spp. 18

421 infections are more common in snakes captured in Carolina bays. Interestingly, body size
422 appeared to have a weak effect on probability of infection, with larger snakes being more likely
423 to have *Hepatozoon* spp. detected. However, snakes of larger size classes (>500mm SVL) were
424 underrepresented in our study. We must keep in mind that there were unmeasured factors that
425 could impact *Hepatozoon* spp. infection prevalence and parasitemia. For example, additional
426 contaminants with the potential to affect infection rates may be found in our study sites but
427 were not measured during this study (Brown et al. 2022). Furthermore, several invertebrates
428 may serve as initial vectors for *Hepatozoon* spp., including mosquitoes, arthropods, and
429 annelids (Telford et al. 2001) and their presence within study sites and relationship to study
430 species was not measured. Our analyses were limited in that we only considered one
431 representative site for each habitat type. Even similar aquatic habitat types can differ
432 considerably in size, biota, water chemistry and hydrology, among other factors (Schalles et al.
433 1989, Snodgrass et al. 2000b). Thus, a comparison across a broader array of wetlands is merited
434 to better elucidate patterns of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in aquatic snakes.

435

436 *Conclusions*

437 The limited research on the effects of Hg accumulation in snakes has yielded varying
438 results in terms of potential health consequences. Some studies indicate that snakes are relatively
439 tolerant to Hg (Wolfe et al. 1998; Chin et al. 2013a, Haskins et al. 2022), while others suggest the
440 possibility of detrimental effects (Bazar et al. 2002; Chin et al. 2013b). We documented the
441 bioaccumulation of THg and *Hepatozoon* spp infections in *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana*
442 inhabiting both a former nuclear cooling reservoir and two Carolina bays on the Savannah River

443 Site in west-central South Carolina. Concentrations of THg in snake tail tips were relatively low
444 and did not appear to be related to *Hepatozoon* spp infections in *N. fasciata* and *N. floridana* in
445 this study. The monitoring of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections was perhaps the most informative in
446 terms of revealing the potential dietary differences between species and habitat types due to the
447 primary route of infection occurring through the consumption of amphibians rather than fish.

448 Our findings suggest that habitat and associated prey availability can be important
449 factors influencing bioaccumulation of environmental contaminants and exposure to infections
450 by hemoparasites, such as *Hepatozoon* spp. in snakes. Our results also suggest snakes feeding
451 more often on anurans may be more susceptible to *Hepatozoon* spp. infections. Future studies
452 examining the relationships between habitat, diet, and *Hepatozoon* spp. infections are warranted
453 and should include a wider array of aquatic habitats and more species of aquatic snakes. The
454 isolated Carolina bays and former nuclear cooling reservoirs of the SRS offer an excellent
455 opportunity to study environmentally relevant concentrations of contaminants and subsequent
456 effects in snakes and other taxa. Future studies could benefit by determining diet of captured
457 snakes, measuring additional factors that could influence endpoints, and incorporating stable
458 isotopes analysis to further investigate the effect of trophic dynamics on Hg accumulation and
459 *Hepatozoon* spp. susceptibility in watersnakes.

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468

469 **Declarations**

470 *Ethical approval*

471 Snakes were collected under South Carolina Department of Natural Resources
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474 ***Competing interests***

475
476 The authors declare no competing interests.

477

478 ***Authors' contributions (CRediT format)***

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481 Methodology, Visualization, Writing - Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing

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483 **David L. Haskins:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation,
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499 **Availability of data**
500 Data are available upon request from the corresponding author.
501
502
503
504 **References**
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Table 1 Average (± 1 SE) snout vent length (SVL), mass, total mercury concentration (THg) in tail tips and prevalence (number of individuals infected / number of individuals sampled) and parasitemia (per 8000 erythrocytes) of *Hepatozoon* spp. infections in *Nerodia fasciata* and *N. floridana* from a former nuclear cooling reservoir and two Carolina bays of the Savannah River Site in Aiken, South Carolina. Sex ratios are reported below sample size (n). Ranges of all values are reported in parentheses below respective means.

Species and Site	n	SVL (mm)	Mass (g)	Tail THg (mg/kg)	<i>Hepatozoon</i> Prevalence	<i>Hepatozoon</i> Parasitemia
Reservoir						
<i>N. floridana</i>	38 (23F:15M)	475 \pm 14 (346-696)	100 \pm 9 (36-278)	0.17 \pm 0.03 (0.09-0.32)	0.05 (2/38)	0.001 \pm 0.001 (0.00-0.04)
<i>N. fasciata</i>	18 (10F:8M)	371 \pm 19 (262-551)	55 \pm 12 (16-200)	0.17 \pm 0.02 (0.10-0.38)	0.42 (8/18)	0.98 \pm 0.56 (0.00-9.90)
Bays						
<i>N. floridana</i>	10 (6F:4M)	469 \pm 19 (366-560)	107 \pm 14 (58-194)	0.08 \pm 0.006 (0.05-0.10)	0.50 (5/10)	0.12 \pm 0.07 (0.00-0.11)
<i>N. fasciata</i>	34 (13F:21M)	453 \pm 21 (255-695)	107 \pm 13 (18-266)	0.22 \pm 0.02 (0.02-0.38)	0.85 (29/34)	12.06 \pm 2.47 (0.00-47.30)

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867 **Table 2** Twelve candidate logistic regression models to predict the probability of *Hepatozoon*
 868 spp. infection in Florida green watersnakes (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnakes
 869 (*Nerodia fasciata*) captured from a former nuclear cooling reservoir (Pond B) and Carolina
 870 bay system (Craig's Pond and Sarracenia Bay) on the Savannah River Site, South Carolina.
 871 The most parsimonious model is indicated in bold. Parameters included: snout-vent length
 872 (SVL), Habitat (Reservoir vs. Bay), log-transformed tail THg, and species (*N. floridana* vs. *N.*
 873 *fasciata*). Model values presented include log-likelihood, model degrees of freedom (K),
 874 Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), delta AIC (Δ AIC), and the weight of each model
 875 (AIC_{Wt}). * $p < 0.05$

Model	Log-likelihood	K	AIC	Δ AIC C	AIC_{Wt}
Species + Habitat + SVL	-37.82	4	83.65	0.00	0.67
Species + Habitat + SVL + log(THg)	-37.74	5	85.48	1.83	0.27
Habitat + Species + log(THg)	-40.73	4	89.46	5.81	0.04
Species + Habitat	-42.54	3	91.08	7.44	0.02
Habitat + log(THg)	-45.43	3	96.85	13.20	0.00
Habitat + log(THg) + SVL	-45.32	4	98.64	14.99	0.00
Species + SVL	-47.56	3	101.12	17.47	0.00
Habitat + SVL	-49.26	2	104.52	20.87	0.00
Habitat	-50.80	2	105.60	21.95	0.00
Species	-53.44	2	110.89	27.24	0.00
log(THg)	-67.66	2	139.32	55.68	0.00
SVL	-69.95	2	143.90	60.26	0.00

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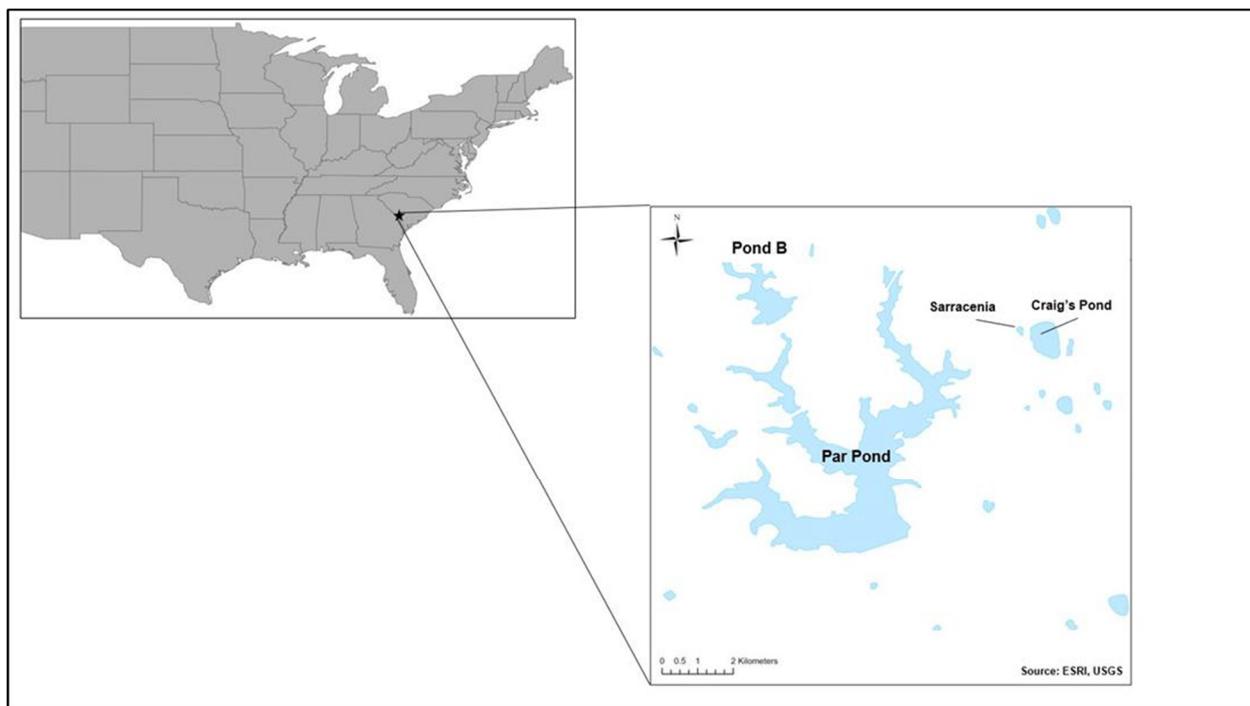
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882 **Table 3** Summary of the most parsimonious model predicting the probability of *Hepatozoon*
883 spp. infection for Florida green watersnakes (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnakes
884 (*Nerodia fasciata*) captured from a former nuclear cooling reservoir and Carolina bay system of
885 the Savannah River Site, SC. Model parameters, estimates, and associated *p*-values are
886 displayed

887	888	Parameter(s)	Estimates	z-value	p-value
		Model intercept	-1.54	-1.225	0.22
		Species: <i>N. floridana</i>	-2.99	-4.11	<0.001
		Habitat: Reservoir	-2.45	-4.11	<0.001
		SVL	0.01	2.72	0.006



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Fig. 1 Map of study sites sampled on the Savannah River Site near Aiken, South Carolina. Florida green watersnakes (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnakes (*N. fasciata*) were collected from two Carolina bays (Craig's Pond and Sarracenia Bay) and a former nuclear cooling reservoir (Pond B) in the summers of 2017 and 2018 (Basemap: Esri, USGS)

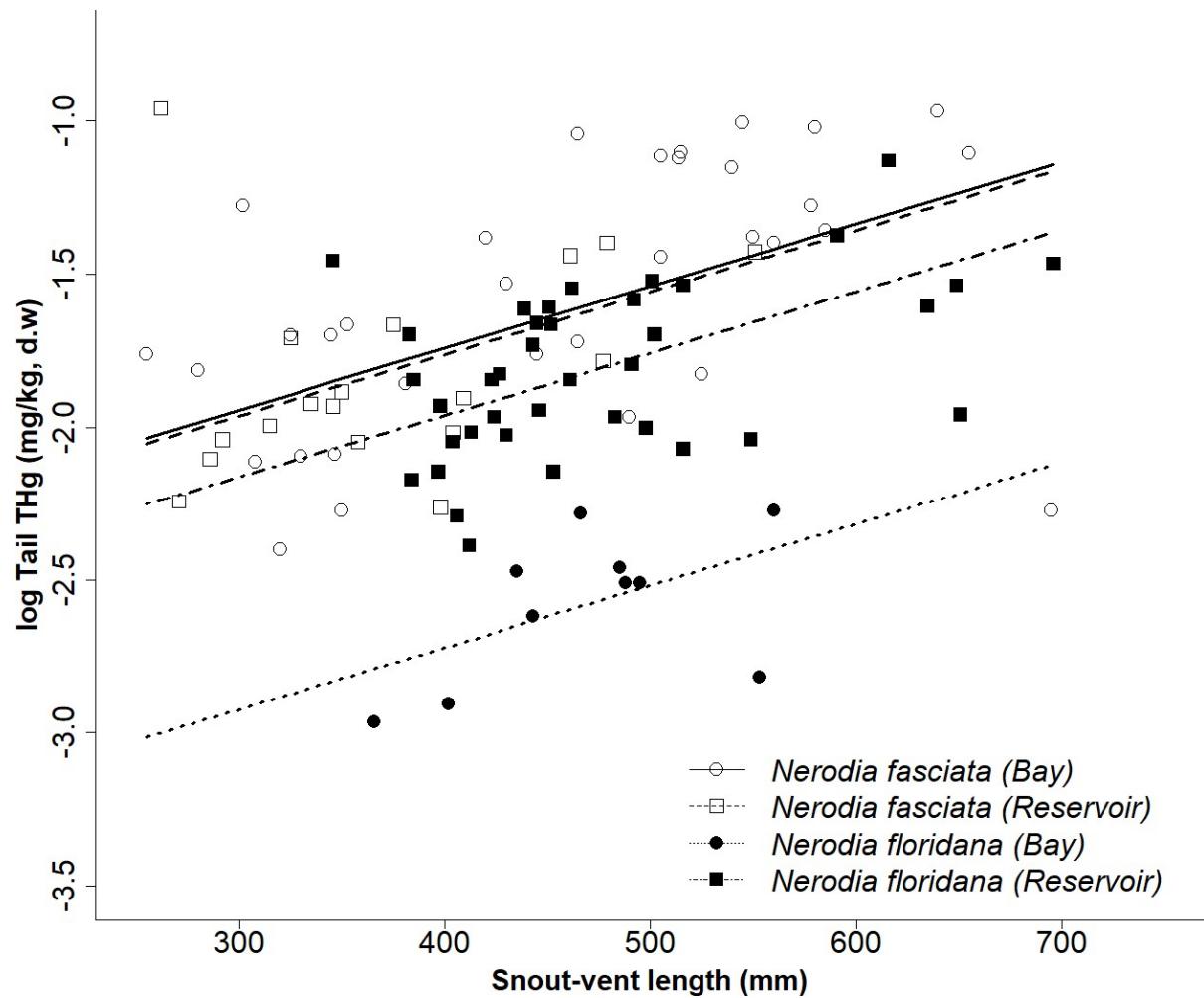


Fig. 2 The relationship between snout-vent length and tail total mercury (mg/kg, dry weight) for Florida green watersnakes (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnakes (*N. fasciata*) from two Carolina bays (open shapes; Craig's Pond and Sarracenia Bay) a former cooling reservoir (filled shapes; Pond B) on the Savannah River Site near Aiken, SC. All groupings of snakes exhibited significant and positive associations ($r^2 = 0.15-0.53$, all $p < 0.05$) between snout-vent length and tail total mercury.

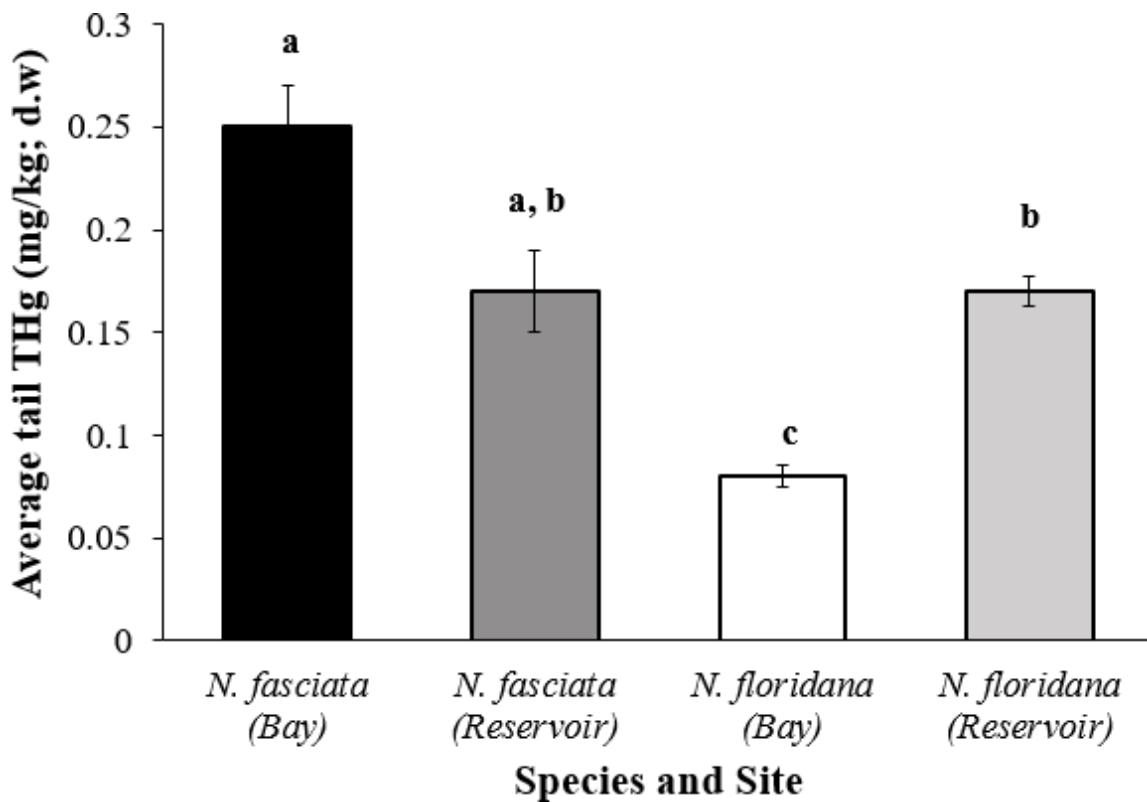


Fig. 3 Average ($\pm 1\text{SE}$) tail total mercury for Florida green watersnakes (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded watersnakes (*N. fasciata*) living in a former nuclear cooling reservoir and isolated Carolina bays of the Savannah River Site, Aiken, SC. Letters indicate statistical significance based on posthoc Tukey HSD test from Analysis of Covariance

970 **Supplemental Table 1:** Average (\pm 1 SE) percent moisture content, wet:dry factor values, and
971 total mercury (THg, mg/kg wet weight) for tail tissues (n=100) from Florida green watersnakes
972 (*Nerodia floridana*) and banded water snakes (*Nerodia fasciata*) collected from a former nuclear
973 cooling reservoir and two Carolina bays on the Savannah River Site, South Carolina. Ranges of
974 all values are reported in parentheses below respective means.
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Percent moisture	Tail THg (mg/kg; dry weight)	Wet:Dry ratio	Tail THg (mg/kg; wet weight)
62.07 ± 0.31 (56.32 – 80.30)	0.17 ± 0.008 (0.02 – 0.38)	2.66 ± 0.03 (2.28 – 5.08)	0.06 ± 0.003 (0.003 – 0.16)

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