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Evidence and patterns of maternal transfer of metals and trace elements in Western tiger snakes (*Notechis scutatus occidentalis*) – a pilot study

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3 Abstract:

4 Urban wildlife are regularly exposed to a variety of anthropogenic contaminants that have the potential
5 to bioaccumulate in body tissues. As a consequence, developing embryos and offspring can be at risk
6 from exposure to maternally-accumulated contaminants, yet this has rarely been reported in reptiles.
7 We opportunistically collected one pregnant Western tiger snake (*Notechis scutatus occidentalis*) from
8 each of three wetlands with differing sediment metal contamination around Perth, and analysed
9 maternal snake livers and three fetuses per litter for a suite of 17 elements representing either alkaline
10 earth metals, transition metals or metalloids. We detected 14 elements, and compared their
11 concentrations in maternal livers to foetus whole-bodies to determine preliminary patterns of maternal
12 transfer. Our results suggest antimony, arsenic, manganese, mercury, molybdenum and zinc are
13 maternally transferred in Western tiger snakes. We urge further research to further quantify patterns of
14 contaminant maternal transfer in viviparous snakes, and determine their impacts on the development
15 and health of contaminated offspring.

16 Keywords:

17 ecotoxicology, bioaccumulation, embryonic development, urbanisation, pollution

18 Introduction:

19 Urban wildlife are often chronically exposed to anthropogenic contaminants, such as metals and
20 pesticides (Murray et al. 2019). For terrestrial vertebrates, diet is usually the most significant route of
21 contaminant exposure; however, developing embryos can be exposed to maternally transferred

22 contaminants. Currently, research on maternal transfer of contaminants in reptiles is mostly limited to
23 the oviparous taxa: turtles (Ehsanpour et al. 2014) and crocodylians (Rauschenberger et al. 2004);
24 whereas squamates, particularly viviparous species, have received little attention. In addition, most of
25 this research has focused on organic contaminants due to their lipophilic properties (Rowe 2008),
26 despite many metals being shown to transfer to offspring during development (Ehsanpour et al. 2014).
27 The knowledge of maternal transfer of elements in snakes specifically, is limited to mercury in the
28 viviparous wetland species *Nerodia sipedon* (Chin et al. 2013a; Cusaac et al. 2016) and selenium in the
29 oviparous terrestrial species *Lamprophis fuliginosus* (Hopkins et al. 2004).

30 During an ecotoxicological study in Perth, Western Australia (Lettoof et al. 2020), Western tiger snakes
31 (*Notechis scutatus occidentalis*) were collected and euthanised to analyse element concentration and
32 potential bioaccumulation in their livers. Of these snakes, one pregnant female from each of three
33 wetlands was collected. We took this opportunity to screen three foetuses from each litter to compare
34 concentrations of 14 elements (five non-essential metals and nine trace elements) to element
35 concentrations in their mothers' livers and explore patterns of maternal transfer. Herein we present a
36 preliminary study on the first evidence of maternal transfer in a viviparous snake. Our results justify
37 further research on this system and enrich the global knowledge of maternal transfer of metals and trace
38 elements in snakes.

39 Methods:

40 Between March and April 2019, one pregnant tiger snake was hand collected from each of three
41 wetlands (Herdsman Lake and Bibra Lake within urban Perth, and Loch McNess within Yanchep
42 National Park) that differed in their degree of urbanisation and contamination with metals and other
43 trace elements (Lettoof et al. 2020). Specifically, Herdsman Lake generally had the highest sediment
44 concentration of all screened elements including arsenic, copper, lead and zinc concentrations
45 exceeding Australian government guidelines. Bibra Lake and Loch McNess differed in element
46 concentrations; however, selenium exceeded Australian government guidelines in both wetlands (Loch
47 McNess four times higher than Bibra Lake). Snakes were humanely euthanised by blunt force trauma,
48 and we removed their livers, foetuses, and infertile ova. After removing the foetuses and ova, we

49 measured the snout-vent length (SVL) and body mass of females and foetuses. We randomly selected
50 three foetuses per litter to analyse for whole-body concentrations of metals. Maternal livers and foetuses
51 were screened for 17 elements (i.e. metals and trace elements) by ChemCentre (Perth, Western
52 Australia); these elements were chosen based on the lack of historical data from these wetlands and
53 regular screening of this suite for environmental monitoring (Leif Cooper, ChemCenter, personal
54 communication). We screened livers only as an index of the snakes' accumulation of the elements that
55 could be compared across sites. Whole livers and foetuses were homogenised, extracted with nitric and
56 hydrochloric acid, and analysed for metals using a combination of inductively coupled plasma-atomic
57 emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) and inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). For
58 more detailed descriptions on sites and chemical analysis see Lettoof et al. (2020). For statistical
59 analyses, samples that were recorded below detectable limits were entered as half the detection limit
60 (Zeghnoun et al. 2007). We compared the relationships between maternal liver concentrations
61 (independent variable) and foetus total body concentrations (dependent variable) using a separate
62 mixed-effects regression model for each metal with maternal ID as a random effect, which grouped
63 foetuses by litter to avoid pseudoreplication. All data were log-transformed. Due to small sample sizes
64 we also assessed the relationships visually using scatter plots. Snakes were collected under Western
65 Australia's Department of Biodiversity, Conservation and Attractions Permit No. 08-002624-1. Curtin
66 University's Animal Research Ethics Committee approved the use and handling of snakes for this
67 research under Approval No. ARE2018-23.

68 Results:

69 Sixteen elements were detected in foetuses (Table 1; see supplementary material for limits of detection
70 (LODs)). Beryllium was not found above detection limits in any maternal liver or foetus, tin and lead
71 were not detected in most samples hence these metals are excluded from further discussion. Foetuses
72 from the Bibra Lake and Yanchep snakes were smaller, and had less pigmentation, indicating they were
73 a slightly earlier stage of development. Due to small tissue samples, elements could only be quantified
74 as wet weight.

75 There were significant positive relationships between Western tiger snake maternal liver and foetus
76 concentrations of manganese ($r^2 = 0.61$, $F_{1,6} = 14.19$, $p = 0.009$) and molybdenum ($r^2 = 0.57$, $F_{1,6} = 9.28$,
77 $p = 0.023$), while barium showed a near-significant negative correlation ($r^2 = 0.75$, $F_{1,6} = 4.78$, $p = 0.07$).
78 Relative to maternal liver concentrations, foetus concentrations of antimony, arsenic, mercury, and zinc
79 appeared to increase, while foetus concentrations of cadmium and silver appeared to decrease, but all
80 of these relationships were non-significant, possibly due to small sample sizes (Fig. 1). Foetus
81 concentrations of cobalt, copper, chromium, nickel and selenium remained relatively constant as
82 maternal liver concentrations increased.

83 Discussion:

84 Our data indicate statistical evidence of maternal transfer of manganese and molybdenum between
85 contaminated female Western tiger snakes and their foetuses, and potential maternal transfer of
86 antimony, arsenic, mercury and zinc. Evidence for maternal transfer of arsenic, mercury and zinc exists
87 in other reptiles, however this is limited to turtles and one snake (Chin et al. 2013a; Ehsanpour et al.
88 2014; Van Dyke et al. 2014). We could not find any published literature on maternal transfer of
89 antimony, manganese or molybdenum in reptiles. Although these elements have been shown to
90 maternally transfer in humans (Krachler et al. 1999), we present here the first evidence of maternal
91 transfer in a reptile. We acknowledge that the element concentrations lacking statistical relationships or
92 correlative patterns are not indicative of a lack of maternal transfer, and may suggest partial maternal
93 elimination. We also acknowledge that these patterns could change or be clarified with more data; and
94 thus, our preliminary results indicate that further studies exploring maternal transfer of metals and trace
95 elements in snake populations likely to be exposed to pollution are warranted.

96 Interpreting patterns of maternal transfer from small data sets and single points in time is difficult in
97 viviparous squamates, as they potentially rely on two periods of nutritional allocation: vitellogenesis
98 prior to ovulation and placental transport during pregnancy (Van Dyke and Griffith 2018). These two
99 potential periods of reproductive allocation could transfer the same maternal metals to developing
100 foetuses differently, depending on the stage of development when the mother is exposed to the elements.
101 For example, if a mother accumulates a contaminant during or before vitellogenesis, it should be

102 incorporated in the yolk during vitellogenesis (Van Dyke et al. 2012), from where it would expose
103 developing embryos. As vitellogenesis takes place in the liver, the element concentrations of foetuses
104 should reflect that of their mother's liver if they were incorporated into yolk during vitellogenesis. A
105 similar pattern would be present if the same mother was exposed to the element post-ovulation and it
106 was transported via the placenta. However, most viviparous squamates are not highly placentotrophic
107 (Van Dyke and Griffith 2018), so the placenta may be incapable of transporting metals that were
108 accumulated post-ovulation. Alternatively, the placenta may exclude elements bound to metallothionein
109 as is shown in placental mammals (Yoshida et al. 2002). If no placental transport occurred, the data
110 would show higher maternal liver concentration and lower foetus body concentration for elements the
111 mother accumulated during gestation. This would suggest maternal transfer does not occur for said
112 element across a placenta, which could be reflected by the absent or negative correlations that our data
113 show for barium, cadmium and silver (Fig. 1). Our small sample size and single-point in time testing
114 (during late development) do not allow us to confidently deduce whether these elements are transferred
115 during vitellogenesis or placentation, but provide some indication that either or both mechanisms might
116 be possible in viviparous squamates like tiger snakes.

117 Regardless of the mechanism, manganese and molybdenum's significant positive correlations between
118 maternal livers and foetuses suggest these metals were maternally transferred to the developing
119 foetuses, while antimony, arsenic, mercury, and zinc all exhibit patterns supporting the potential for
120 maternal transfer. Arsenic, manganese, molybdenum and zinc are trace elements essential for biological
121 functions, and therefore some degree of maternal transfer of these is expected. Maternal liver and foetus
122 manganese concentrations are similar and potentially reflect essential developmental requirements,
123 whereas molybdenum concentrations are much lower in foetuses and therefore this element may not be
124 as important during this stage of tiger snakes lifecycle. The non-essential metals, i.e. antimony,
125 cadmium, mercury etc. are known to maternally transfer due to their lipophilic properties and affinity
126 for metalloproteins (Guirlet et al. 2008).

127 Although trace elements are usually regulated by the body, over exposure can lead to accumulation and
128 toxicity, and non-essential metals usually bioaccumulate more easily and are toxic at much lower

129 concentrations. Some of the sampled wetlands have sediment contaminated with arsenic, zinc and
130 mercury concentrations exceeding Australian and New Zealand Environment and Conservation Council
131 (ANZECC) sediment quality guidelines; and antimony, arsenic, mercury, molybdenum and zinc
132 bioaccumulate in tiger snakes at these wetlands (Lettoof et al. 2020). The potential for these elements
133 to maternally transfer in tiger snakes suggests they are not only cycling throughout the food-web of
134 these wetlands, but have potential to impact vertebrates during embryogenesis, when they may be most
135 at risk of biological effects of contamination (Wolfe et al. 1998).

136 Exposure to contaminants via maternal transfer may be more harmful to the foetus than exposure from
137 diet in adults, as the organism is exposed during sensitive stages of development (Russell et al. 1999).
138 The developmental consequences of maternally transferred contaminants in snakes are virtually
139 unknown, as previous research is limited to three studies of a single non-essential metal and snake
140 species. Maternally acquired mercury was shown to not have any effect on *Nerodia sipedon*
141 reproductive output or offspring survival (Chin et al. 2013b), nor stress levels (Cusaac et al. 2016);
142 however, it did reduce offspring strike efficiency and motivation to feed (Chin et al. 2013a). In other
143 taxa, maternal transfer of selenium and strontium resulted in lower hatchling success, developmental
144 abnormalities and abnormal swimming in *Gastrophryne carolinensis* toad larvae (Hopkins et al. 2006),
145 while *Esox lucis* fry suffer higher frequency of deformities and edema when maternally exposed to
146 selenium (Muscatello et al. 2006). Offspring starting life with such handicaps may experience lower
147 survival, higher predation and ultimately reduce population replenishment. Eventually, exposure to
148 contaminants during embryonic and foetal development can have detrimental impacts on both the
149 individual organism and population.

150 Data from this study, although limited, offer preliminary patterns of maternal transfer of a suite of
151 metals and trace elements in Western tiger snakes. Tiger snakes in Perth may be particularly sensitive
152 to population impacts from maternal transfer as they are restricted to wetlands both enclosed and
153 chronically contaminated with various metals, metalloids and other organic compounds from
154 urbanisation. We suspect tiger snakes maternally transfer antimony and mercury that they have
155 accumulated in urban Perth wetlands, and arsenic, manganese, molybdenum and zinc as part of natural

156 offspring development but may be susceptible to higher loads from over exposure and bioaccumulation.
157 Thus, we urge further research into the mechanism of transfer and impacts on the development and
158 health of offspring.

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218 detected and non-quantified data. The example of the serum dioxin data in the French dioxin and
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220

221 Table 1. Morphometrics and metal concentrations (wet weight) of wild-caught pregnant *Notechis*
222 *scutatus occidentalis* livers and whole body concentrations of three randomly chosen foetuses (mean
223 \pm SD) per litter. Mothers mass was measured after extraction of foetuses and infertile ova. SVL =
224 snout-vent length, N = no. of foetus/infertile ova, < = below detection limit, # likely process acting
225 between mother and foetus, * indicates statistical positive relationship between maternal liver and
226 foetuses concentrations.

227 Figure 1. Relationships between Western tiger snake (*Notechis scutatus occidentalis*) maternal liver
228 and foetus whole-body concentrations (wet weight) of a) non-essential metals, and b) trace elements.
229 Regression line indicate a statistical significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship. Concentration units are
230 $\mu\text{g/Kg}$ for non-essential metals (a), and mg/Kg for trace elements (b). Axis ranges are unique for each
231 metal.