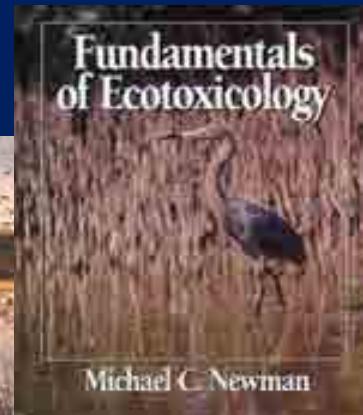
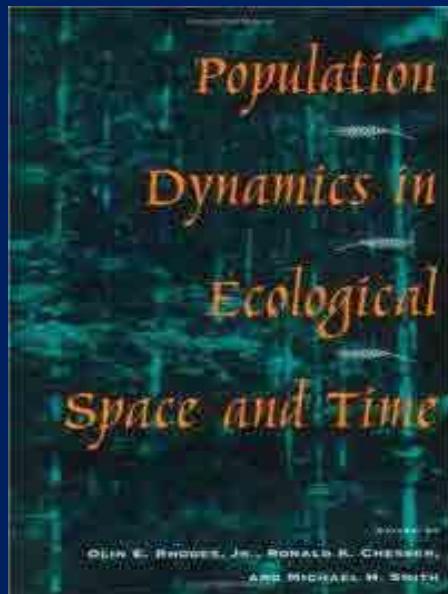


SREL Research Program's

- >3615 peer-reviewed scientific publications to date
- 64 books



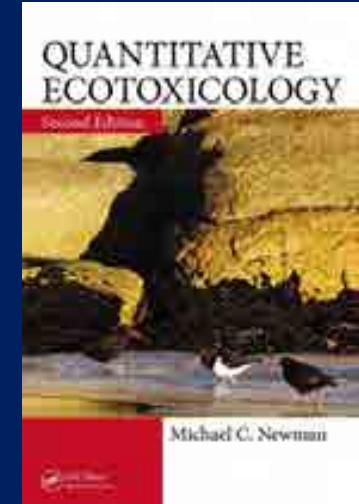
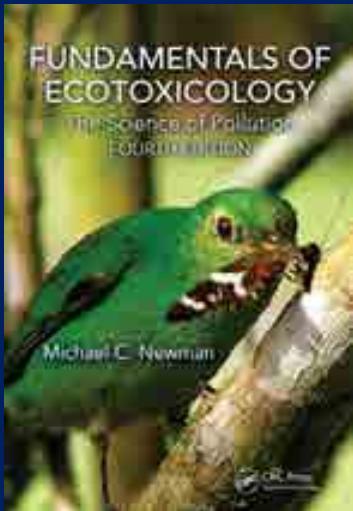
Types of Projects on SRS

- Remediation/Monitoring of Contaminants (**DOE-EM, DOE-NNSA**)
- Biogeochemistry of Metal Remediation (**DOE-NNSA**)
- Tritium Cycling (**DOE-EM, DOE-NNSA**)
- Grout Biogeochemistry (**SRR**)
- Stream Assessment and Restoration (**USFS**)
- Pollinator Habitat Enhancement/Reclamation (**DOE-EM**)
- Food Web Dynamics (**DOE-EM, DOE-NNSA**)
- Metal Toxicology (Mercury, Copper, Zinc) (**DOE-EM, DOE-NNSA**)
- Bioaccumulation of Contaminants in Fish and Wildlife (**DOE-EM**)
- Human – Wildlife Conflicts (Hogs, Deer, Coyote) (**USDA, DOE-EM**)
- Low Dose Radiation Effects (**DOE-EM, NRC**)

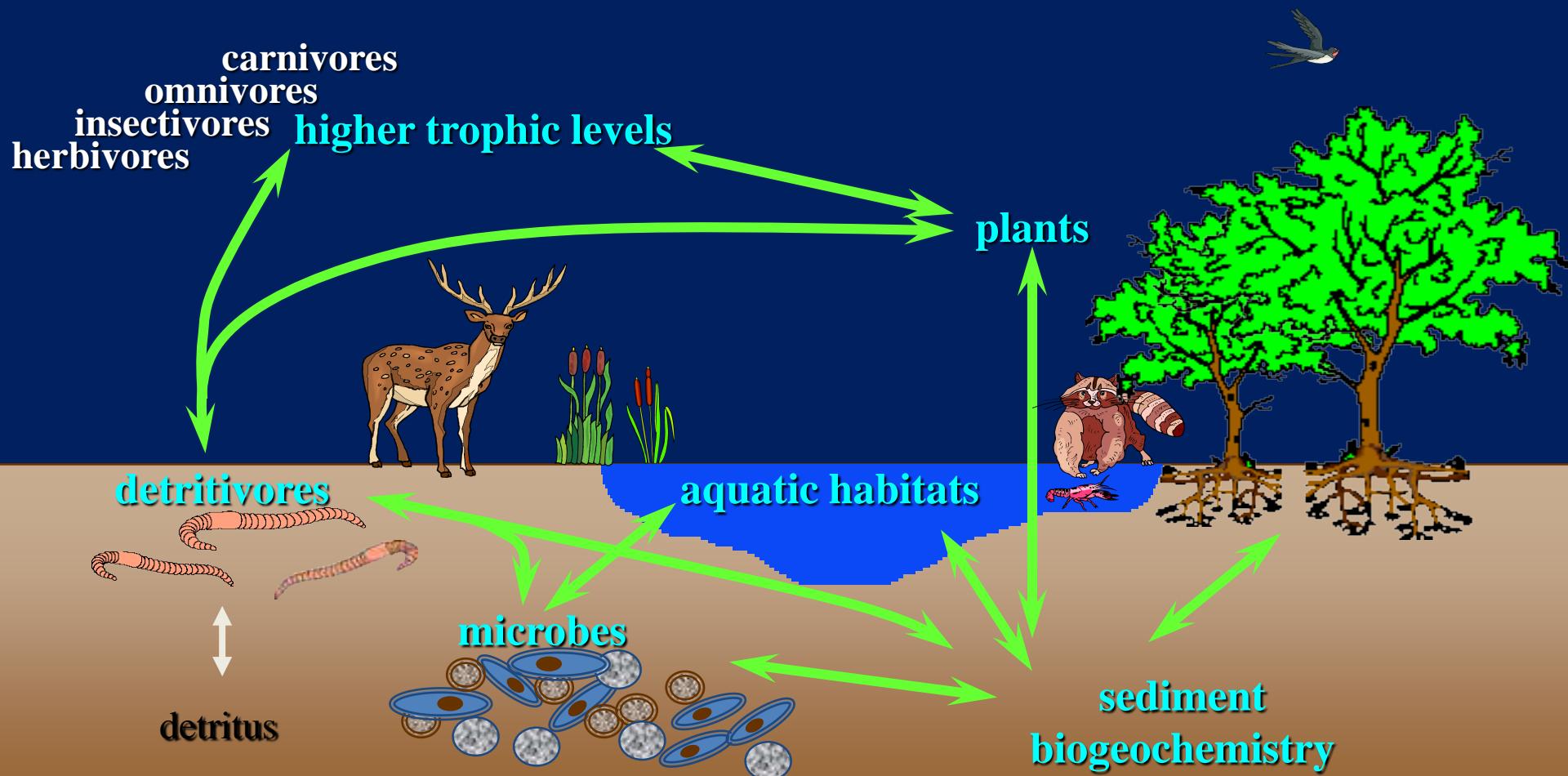
Types of Projects off SRS

- Radioecology (US, Belarus and Japan) (NSF, NRC)
- Metal Toxicology (Mercury, Copper, Cadmium) (USFWS)
- Contaminant Accumulation in Wildlife Species (DoD, COE)
- Scavenging Ecology and Food Web Dynamics (DoD, USDA)
- Reintroduction of Threatened/Endangered Species (USGS, DoD)
- Wildlife Ecology and Management (USDA, State Agencies, DoD)
- Disease Ecology (Ticks, Mosquitoes, Rabies, etc.) (USDA, EPA)
- Genomics, Proteomics, Epigenetics, and Glycomics (NSF, NIH)

Ecological Impacts of Contaminants



Ecosystems Approach to Ecotoxicology



Sediment and Biota Trace Element Distribution in Streams Disturbed by Upland Industrial Activity

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Abstract: Extensive industrial areas in headwater stream watersheds can severely impact the physical conditions of streams and biotic communities. We compared 2 streams that received different runoff and industrial effluents from industrial complexes to reference streams. Reference streams provide a baseline of comparison of geomorphic form availability in coastal plain, sandy-bottomed streams as well as concentrations of trace elements in sediment and biota in the absence of industrial disturbances. We used oxyclin (*Ceratina luteola*, *Poeciliopsis reticulata*, *Proterorhinus marmoratus*) and three fly larvae (*Hydropsyche* sp.) to measure 20 trace elements entering aquatic food webs. Streams with industrial areas were more altered, deeply incised, and less stable. Sediment organic matter content, broadly correlated to bed sediment accumulation, but fine sediments and organic matter were advected from the bottoms of disturbed streams. Trace element concentrations were higher in depositional zones than non-depositional streams. Despite contamination issues with the industrial area, trace element concentrations were generally not elevated in sediments of the undisturbed streams; however, element concentrations were frequently elevated in biota from these streams with increasing differences in accumulation amplitude. In addition, sand-bottomed coastal plain streams with undisturbed sediments, single measures of sediment trace element concentrations did not characterize well associated biota streams. It was that integrated approach over time and space within that same region better detected measurable contamination than sediment. *Environ Toxicol Chem* 2019;38:115–121. © 2018 SETAC.

Keywords: Sediment; Aquatic invertebrates; Bioaccumulation; Sediment assessment; Trace elements; Streamwater profile

INTRODUCTION

Streams and rivers draining watersheds with industrial/urban areas act as vectors for dispersal of contaminants. From these areas (Taylor and Ossen 2009), diverse trace elements in non-point-source runoff from impervious surfaces can originate from numerous sources—associated with buildings, automobile components, pavements, and land use; the source can be from the materials themselves or from atmospheric deposition that is subsequently washed off by rain (Paul and Meyer 2001; Baik et al. 2003; Wade et al. 2005; Cooley et al. 2006). Point sources such as industrial effluents or water treatment plants can further introduce a variety of nonpoint-source trace elements. For example, accumulation of total combustion waste in watersheds has impacted aquatic organisms to various degrees of a variety of elemental contam-

only at the Savannah River Site, South Carolina, USA, where the present study was conducted, but worldwide (Biles et al. 2002; Biles et al. 2012; Lewis 2014). Consequently, the broad number of contaminant sources in watersheds receiving both runoff from impervious surfaces and industrial effluents can result in contamination by a broad variety of trace elements. Surface runoff impervious surfaces associated with urban areas can result in fine sediments involving rapid and increased runoff volume and peak flows that in turn cause sediment eroded, channel incision, and subsequent deposition, reducing overall channel stability (Paul and Meyer 2001; Walsh et al. 2009). This channel instability can result in fine sediments and associated contaminants being mobilized and released during rain events (Taylor and Ossen 2009). Large-scale industrial complexes in upgradient areas may have similar effects on watersheds as urban areas—evaluating concentrations in sediment and biota will provide critical information on contaminants that are stored or have passed through a stream.

Contaminants in stream water may be low or even freely dissociable but often accumulate to higher levels in sediments

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From Farms to Forests: Landscape Carbon Balance after 50 Years of Afforestation, Harvesting, and Prescribed Fire

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Abstract: Establishing reliable carbon baselines for landscapes destined to sustain carbon sequestration and identify opportunities to mitigate land management impacts on carbon balance is important; however, national and regional assessments are not designed to support individual landscapes. Such baselines become increasingly valuable when landowners convert land use, change management, or when disturbance occurs. We used forest inventories to quantify carbon stocks, estimate annual carbon fluxes, and determine net biome production (NBP) over a 50-year period coinciding with a massive afforestation effort across ~80,000 ha of land in the South Carolina Coastal Plain. Forested land increased from 48,714 ha to 73,024 ha between 1951 and 2001. Total forest biomass increased from 17.3–20.9 Gg to 37.8–18.3 Gg, corresponding to biomass density increase from 35.6–42.2 Mg ha⁻² to 21.4–24.0 Mg ha⁻². Harvesting removed 1340.3 Gg C between 1951 and 2001, but annual removals were variable. The consumed 527.1 Gg C between 1952 and 2001. Carbon exported by streams was <0.5% of total export. Carbon stocks, roots, and other harvested material that remained in use or in landfills comprised 49.7% of total harvested carbon. Mineral soil carbon accounted for 41.6–50% of 2001 carbon stocks when considering depths of 0.0 or 1.5 m, respectively, and was disproportionately concentrated in wetlands. Moreover, we identified a soil carbon deficit of 39–20 Mg C ha⁻², suggesting opportunities for future soil carbon sequestration in post-agricultural soils. Our results provide a robust baseline for this site that can be used to understand how land conversion, forest management, and disturbance impacts carbon balance of this landscape and highlight the value of these baseline data for other sites. Our work also identifies the need to manage forests for multiple purposes, especially promotion of soil carbon accumulation in low-density pine savannas that are managed for red-cockaded woodpeckers and therefore demand low aboveground carbon stocks.

Keywords: agroforestry; climate; carbon cycle; carbon sequestration; forestry; restoration; soil carbon

1. Introduction

The southeastern USA is an important region for assessing temporal dynamics of carbon (C) stocks in response to both management and natural processes. This region contains about 10% of total US C stocks and produces over 60% of forest-based products in the USA (U.S. Net C sequestration in southeastern US is exceeded most other regions but is expected to decline in the next few decades, primarily due to forest aging and conversion to urban and non-agricultural development (U.S. Overall,

Wildlife Movement, Behavior, Diseases, and Ecotoxicology



Where Have All the Turtles Gone, and Why Does It Matter?

JEFFREY S. COVICH, JOSHUA V. ERWIN, MICHAEL RODHR, AND J. WHITFIELD GIBBONS

Of the 270 species of turtles worldwide, approximately 100 are threatened or already extinct. Turtles are among the most threatened of the major groups of vertebrates, in general, more so than birds, mammals, fishes or even the much-stressed amphibians. Reasons for the decline of turtles worldwide include the following four of impacts on other species: habitat destruction, uncontrolled consumption for pets and food, and climate change (these have environmental as dimensions). Two notable characteristics of pet/turtle species that were their major population size and corresponding high intensity, the latter among the highest values (over 200 kilograms per hectare) ever reported for animals. As a result of their numerical dominance, turtles have played important roles in significant interactions of art, cultural values of art forms, domestication, and protection interests of society, culture, and commerce. The collapse of turtle populations we observed has been greatly diminished since antiquity.

Keywords: human-wildlife interfaces, invasive species, turtle tortoise

TURTLES ARE SO INTRINSICALLY recognizable by vertebrate ecologists and age groups that it is easy to see them as merely conservation-worthy animals, even though many are far from secure. This perception makes them easy to take for granted, or even overlook, as important ecosystem components worthy of protection. The word turtle applies to all turtles with a bony shell and a backbone, whether they are locally referred to as turtles, tortoises, or terrapins (Ernst and Lovich 2009). Their remarkable and unique strength are manifested by many as evolutionary adaptations, because no vertebrate animal that has ever lived has possessed the unique combination of turtles, with their hard protective shells inside a bony shell. As previous paleontologists have noted, if they were known only from fossils, they would be easy to overlook. Turtles are an ancient group going back over 200 million years (Ernst and Lovich 2009). Their enduring success is due in no small part to a conservative morphology and slow-taxed adaptations that allowed them to survive, even the dinosaurs, which disappeared over 65 million years ago when turtles were already so long ago.

Turtles are struggling to persist in the modern world and that fact is generally acknowledged or even ignored. Scientists identify 18 living families and many extinct ones. As of 2011, 306 turtle species were recognized worldwide (Turtle Taxonomy Working Group 2011), of which approximately 40% are threatened or have become extinct in modern times. Turtles are arguably the most threatened of the major groups of vertebrates, in general, and are proportionately more so than birds, mammals, fishes or even the much-stressed am-

phibians (Hoffmann et al. 2010). The vulnerability of turtles, in part, is due to a global loss by conservation programs, poaching and illegal trade that protect birds and mammals but do not adequately consider turtle diversity (Bell et al. 2017).

Specific examples of the recent plague of turtles are exemplified by several species worldwide. For example, most turtle species are no longer found in their native habitat and exist only in captivity. One such species, the Yangtze giant softshell turtle (*Argusia gigantea*) is reduced to perhaps four surviving individuals and only one is known to be a female. For the past 10 years, she has not produced fertile eggs, despite international efforts to propagate the species, including the use of artificial insemination. Others, such as the beautiful Burmese star tortoise (*Cyclocephala berolinensis*) and the horned chameleons, western crevicing turtle (*Platemys malabaricus*), Australian rainbow tortoise, are among the 25 most endangered turtles in the world (Turtle Conservation Coalition 2018), requiring captive breeding and intensive management to keep them from extinction. The death of *Lemur catta* in 2012, the last surviving Pygmy giant tortoise (*Chelonoidis abingdonii*), in the Galapagos Islands, marked the extinction of yet another turtle species (Barbosa et al. 2013).

Reasons for the dire situation now worldwide include the double-duty of impacts to other species (Hoffmann et al. 2010), including habitat destruction, uncontrolled consumption for food and the commercial pet trade, and climate change (these factors have environmental as dimensions). Turtles has also contributed to the rapid

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Research Article

Survival and Movements of Head-Started Mojave Desert Tortoises

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ABSTRACT: Head-starting is a conservation strategy in which young animals are promoted to maturity temporarily below their native size that will at a larger size, when their survival is presumably increased. The Mojave desert tortoise (*Gopherus agassizii*) is declining, and head-starting has been identified as one of several conservation measures to assist in recovery. To evaluate the efficacy of tortoise head-starting, we released and radio-tagged 45 juvenile tortoises from a 2013 cohort in the Mojave National Preserve, California, USA. We released 20 tortoises at hatching (control) in September 2013, and radio-tagged 20 indoor and 20 outdoor in predator-proof enclosures for 7 months before releasing them in April 2016. We monitored tortoises at least weekly after release until 27 October 2016, and documented survivorship, movements, and surface activity. We estimated survivorship by account and evaluated effects of treatment, proximity to a road (*Crotalus cerastes* sp.) (predator) considerably established after release, distance moved between monitoring events, surface activity, and distance to an individual tree in a generalized linear model. Although indoor head-start tortoises reached the size of 2- to 3-year-old wild tortoises by autumn at 7 months of age, survival did not differ significantly among the 3 treatment groups. Condition annual survival was 0.44 (95% CI = 0.04–0.54). Tortoise that were close to an active rattle were significantly more likely to die, as were those more often outside their burrows and active burrows. Predicted estimates for short-term probability of survival approached 1.0 as distance from a rattle increased (approximately 1.4 km). Rearing treatment, movement distance, and body size were not significant predictors of fate over the 3-year monitoring period. Head-start tortoises released 23.4 km from areas of rattle activity will likely have higher short-term survival. Population recovery through head-starting alone is unlikely to be successful if systemic ecosystem-level issues, such as habitat degradation and conditions that prevent head-started predators, are not addressed. © 2019 The Wildlife Society.

KEY WORDS: statistics, conservation, desert tortoise, reintroduced species, burrow, Share Date, population augmentation, species recovery, desert species, scale

Population interventions are often environmental or species recovery tools because outcomes of such decisions are difficult to predict (Sokal et al. 2014) and are infrequently measured and reported. With over-increasing anthropogenic effects on wildlife populations, however, interventions may be necessary to prevent extinctions. In recent years, there has been interest in introducing exapted species (e.g., black-faced ibises [*Phoeniculus minor*] Miller et al. 1996), facilitating dispersal in response to climate change (McLachlan et al. 2009; Howitt et al. 2011; Seddon et al. 2014), and augmenting small

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From authors' perspectives

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populations (e.g., Kangaroo rat turtle (*Dipsosaurus dorsalis*) Callahan et al. 2015).

Head-startting is one approach to population augmentation that involves protecting and raising animals through early life stages when they are typically most vulnerable before releasing them into the natural environment at a more advanced state of development when survival is presumably greater (Broek 2013). Head-starting has been a useful conservation tool for several species, including California condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*; Cohn 1999), rock iguanas (*Cyclura* spp.; Penn State et al. 2009), Galapagos tortoise (*Chelonoidis nigra*; Gibbs et al. 2015), and Blending's marmot (*Urocitellus blandingii*; Bollmann et al. 2003). Cheloniids, the most diverse group of vertebrates globally (Staubach et al. 2018), may be uniquely suited to head-starting because survivorship in the wild is typically low in early life and high during adulthood under most

Research on Spatially Explicit Dosimetry

