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2019. Mercury–Organic Matter Interactions in Soils and Sediments: Angel or Devil?
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Mercury-organic matter interactions in soils and sediments: angel or devil?

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Abstract

Many studies have suggested that organic matter (OM) substantially reduces the bioavailability and risks of mercury (Hg) exposure in soils and sediments; however, recent reports have also found that OM could greatly accelerates Hg methylation and increases the risks of Hg exposure. This study aims to summarize the interactions between Hg and OM in soils and sediments and improve our understanding of the effects of OM on Hg methylation. The results show that component alteration, promotion of the activity of Hg-methylating microbial communities, and the microbial availability of Hg accounted for the acceleration of Hg methylation which increases the risk of Hg exposure. These three key aspects were driven by multiple factors, including the types and content of OM, Hg speciation, desorption and dissolution kinetics and environmental conditions.

Keywords: Organic matter; methyl-mercury; Hg; bioavailability; microbial methylation

1 Introduction

Mercury (Hg) contamination in aquatic and terrestrial environments is a global concern. Soils and sediments may serve as major sinks for Hg in ecosystems present in these environments, and their importance in the biogeochemical cycling of Hg has received recent attention (Eklof et al. 2018; Rajaei et al. 2015; Shu et al. 2016a; Zhang et al. 2018a; Zhu et al. 2018). The constituents and levels of microbial activity in soils and sediments are known as crucial factors in the biogeochemical cycling of Hg (Hang et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2015; Skjellberg 2010). Organic forms of Hg, particularly methyl-mercury (MeHg), are bioaccumulated in food webs (Bloom 1992) and can potentially serve to enhance the risk to ecosystems (Yu et al. 2012; Zhu and Zhong 2015). Among the components of soil, organic matter (OM) is considered to be the most important factor for Hg biogeochemistry, Hg bioavailability, and Hg risks due to its interactions with Hg (Klapstein and O'Driscoll 2018; Liu et al. 2016; Windham-Myers et al. 2014c).

Many studies have suggested that OM substantially decreases the bioavailability and bioaccumulation of Hg and thus significantly reduces the risks associated with Hg in soils or sediments (supplemental file Table S1). The reduced risk of Hg in soils and sediments following interactions with OM stems from three different mechanisms (Ndungu et al 2016). First, OM has a high affinity to Hg and thus strongly affects the partitioning and bioavailability of Hg in soils and sediments. The abundant reduced sulfur sites on OM molecules provide strong binding sites for Hg, resulting in immobilization of Hg and reduced Hg bioavailability in highly Hg-contaminated sediments and soils (Hammerschmidt et al. 2008; Shu et al. 2016b). Second, OM enhances the photodemethylation rates of MeHg and reduces mercury bioavailability (Klapstein and O'Driscoll 2018; Tossell 1998). Even low concentrations of dissolved OM (DOM) are beneficial for the photodemethylation of MeHg (Jeremiason et al. 2015; Qian et al. 2014; Tai et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2017), which results from the release of radicals from DOM that form an excited triplet state (3DOM*) under UV-radiation and the subsequent breakage of the carbon-Hg bond by the intramolecular charge transfer (Qian et al. 2014). The photodemethylation of Hg has been shown to accelerate in the presence of iron (Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald 2010; Zhang et al. 2017) and thiolate and aromatic functional groups in DOM (Qian et al. 2014). Hg photodemethylation occurs more easily because the carbon-Hg bond is weakened when Hg binds with reduced thiol functional

52 groups (Zhang et al. 2017), facilitating the absorption of specific radiation wavelengths by aromatic
53 functional groups in DOM (Baker and Spencer 2004). Third, OM can potentially reduce MeHg
54 production in soils and sediments. Enrichment of nitrate, iron, sulfate, cysteine and selenite in OM
55 has been shown to effectively decrease MeHg production and accumulation in rice grown on
56 Hg-contaminated paddy fields, which might be attributed to inhibition of the activity of related
57 bacteria by these additives (Zhang et al. 2018b; Zhong et al. 2018).

58 Recently, however, several studies have suggested that additions of OM to soils and sediments
59 significantly accelerate Hg methylation rates through increased microbial activity, subsequently
60 increasing the risk of Hg to the environment. In this paper, a review of the available literature was
61 conducted to summarize the interactions between OM and Hg species in soils and sediments. The
62 objective of the present review is to discuss the effects of these interactions on Hg methylation in
63 soils and sediments, which would improve our understanding of the mechanisms on how OM
64 increases or decreases the environmental risks associated with Hg. This review will also provide
65 guidance on how to manage Hg-contaminated soils and sediments through soil amendments
66 application.

67 **2 Anthropogenic processes where OM can enhance environmental Hg risks**

68 Recently, several studies have demonstrated that OM greatly increases the environmental risks
69 associated with Hg in soils and sediments (a summary of studies is provided in Table S2). The
70 increased risks are mainly from an accelerated methylation processes, which turns available IHg to
71 MeHg in the presence of OM in soils and sediments. An example of an important process that was
72 recently discovered is the production of MeHg in paddy soils during rice cultivation. During this
73 process, MeHg can be translocated to rice grains in the presence of bulk root-derived organic
74 residues during the period from field preparation to post-harvest (Liu et al. 2014; Rothenberg et al.
75 2014; Windham-Myers et al. 2014a). Seasonal wetting and drying of rice-field sediments leads to a
76 promotion of MeHg production by providing abundant water and nutrients and relatively labile
77 plant-derived carbon (Windham-Myers et al. 2014a; Zhao et al. 2018; Zhu et al. 2015b).

78 Another process which has recently gained many attentions for its effect on biogeochemical Hg
79 cycling is forestry operations. Such operations accelerate the decomposition of organic residues from
80 logging and other OM in forest soils and creates wetland-like environments with a high abundance of
81 bacterial communities (including sulfur-reducing bacteria (SRB), iron-reducing bacteria (IRB) and
82 Firmicutes families) and increased MeHg production (Eklof et al. 2018). Forestry also increases Hg
83 concentrations in runoff water due to the hydrological connection between methylation hotspots and
84 surface waters (Kronberg et al. 2016). IHg complexed with DOM was usually more available for
85 methylation than dissolved IHg (Mazrui et al. 2016). Relatively high production of MeHg was
86 associated with high OM content in a hydroelectric reservoir sediment (Meng et al. 2016).
87 Anthropogenic processes where OM can enhance environmental Hg risks were also frequently
88 observed in marine sediments (Correia and Guimaraes 2017; Liang et al. 2016), lake and estuarine
89 sediments (Bravo et al. 2017; Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016) and wetlands sediments (Marvin-DiPasquale
90 et al. 2014; Windham-Myers et al. 2014b).

91 The formation and enhancement of MeHg in soils and sediments following methylation of IHg is
92 a key factor for evaluating Hg risks. The Hg risk is driven by a balance between biotic IHg
93 methylation and biotic and abiotic MeHg demethylation (Zhu et al. 2018). Hg methylation rates in
94 the environment often vary more than demethylation rates (Kronberg et al. 2016). For example,
95 demethylation rates did not differ between an area of clear-cutting and a reference area, although
96 there were quite distinct methylation levels (Kronberg et al. 2016). Therefore, the conversion of IHg
97 to MeHg is usually recognized as the most important factor in this balance, which is predominantly
98 mediated and regulated by microbial methylators under anaerobic conditions (Marvin-DiPasquale
99 et al. 2014; Windham-Myers et al. 2014b; Zhu et al. 2018).

100 **3 Mechanisms whereby OM affects Hg methylation**

101 OM has a direct or indirect link with the conversion of Hg in soil and sediment ecosystems

102 (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016). Factors and conditions affecting soil and sediment OM and the
103 subsequent effects on Hg methylation processes and Hg risks must be clarified. In this paper, three
104 aspects that relates to the effects of OM on IHg methylation in soils and sediments are summarized
105 and discussed, including the following: (1) The activity of microbial Hg methylators; and (2) the
106 microbial availability of IHg.

107 **3.1 Effects from OM on the microbial activity of Hg methylators**

108 The Hg-methylating microbial community are restricted to specific anaerobic methylators
109 carrying the gene *hgcA* and *hgcB*, which encode a corrinoid protein and a ferredoxin required in the
110 corrinoid cofactor reduction (Parks et al. 2013). SRB, IRB, syntrophic and acetogenic bacteria, and
111 methanogens are important Hg methylators in soils and sediments (Eklof et al. 2018; Kronberg et al.
112 2016; Marvin-DiPasquale et al. 2014; Mazrui et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2018).

113 Stimulated microbial activity of Hg methylators appears to be the main control of OM on
114 accelerating Hg methylation in soils and sediments. Substantial and variable types of OM were
115 widely distributed in natural soils and sediments. The activity of Hg methylating microbes was
116 significantly higher as a result of the existence of OM in soils and sediments. The OM usually acted
117 as a source of energy, available nutrition and an electron donor, which furnished plentiful substrate,
118 and mediated microbial activity, for Hg methylators in the biotic Hg methylation process (Eklof et al.
119 2018; Frohne et al. 2012; Kronberg et al. 2016; Marvin-DiPasquale et al. 2014; Windham-Myers et
120 al. 2014a). However, the effects of OM on the microbial activity of Hg methylators depend on the
121 characteristic and availability of OM and the environmental conditions (temperature, redox
122 conditions, water saturation, nutrients, light, etc.). These issues are discussed in detail below.

123 **3.1.1 The characteristic and availability of OM**

124 Microbial Hg transformation and microbial activity of Hg methylators are controlled by the
125 sources and characteristics of OM (Kronberg et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2018). Labile OM including
126 organic carbon, rice straw decay products, logging residue, natural OM (NOM), DOC, which are
127 easily decomposed and utilized by microorganisms, play an important role in limiting and mediating
128 the activity of Hg-methylating microbes (e.g., IRB, SRB, Firmicutes and methanogens) in different
129 types of soils and sediments (Table S3) (Meng et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2015a; Zhu et al. 2016).
130 Autochthonous NOM was more prone to be utilized as an electron donor by methylating bacteria
131 than allochthonous NOM, which might be an important factor affecting the microbial activity of Hg
132 methylators (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016). Organic compounds originating from fresh chlorophyll,
133 proteins and phyto-derived cell wall lipids were important labile NOM for enhancing microbial
134 activity in lake sediments and rice paddy soils for methylation of inorganic mercury (Bravo et al.
135 2017; Zhao et al. 2018). Root exudation of labile organic carbon appeared to be the primary factor
136 that enhanced microbial activity and methylation in the presence of vegetated soils and sediments
137 (Windham-Myers et al. 2014b; Windham-Myers et al. 2014c; Zhao et al. 2018). For example,
138 pore-water acetate supplied abundant labile carbon as a key electron donor for improving the activity
139 of microbial methylators in soils and sediments (Windham-Myers et al. 2014b; Zhao et al. 2018).

140 The availability of OM is believed to be an important driver regulating microbial MeHg
141 formation in soils and sediments. A significant positive correlation between OM content and the
142 microbial abundance of Hg methylators was observed in rice paddy soils due to the contribution of
143 OM to microbial growth and reproduction (Liu et al. 2014; Zhao et al. 2018). Microbial activity and
144 Hg methylation rates were the highest in locations with more organic content in estuarine sediment
145 (Schartup et al. 2013). Organic matter favoured microbial methylators and subsequently enhanced
146 their activity for Hg methylation (Zhao et al. 2018). An abundant amount of labile organic carbon
147 was a significant variable in directly stimulating the activity of Hg methylators, which contributed to
148 methylation differences in marine sediments and rice paddies, especially during the post-harvest
149 period (Mazrui et al. 2016; Windham-Myers et al. 2014b; Zhao et al. 2018). The stimulating effect of
150 high labile organic carbon concentrations on the microbial activity of Hg methylators is exemplified
151 by rice paddy soils. In the practice of rice cultivation, a large amount of structural and exuded labile

152 organic carbon from root tissue enters into the rice paddy soils after decay and would be readily
153 consumed by secondary microorganisms (Rothenberg et al. 2014; Zhao et al. 2018). This
154 root-derived organic carbon, including acetate, aliphatic hydrocarbons and simple aromatic
155 compounds, provides plentiful energy and carbon as well as electron donors for Hg methylators that
156 facilitate microbial activity (Rothenberg et al. 2014; Windham-Myers et al. 2014b; Windham-Myers
157 et al. 2014c; Zhao et al. 2018). If the content of OM was lower than the threshold for utilization, the
158 microbial activity of Hg methylators would be limited. Primary methylators would compete for
159 electron donors (e.g., acetate and hydrogen) with each other and with other microbes in soils and
160 sediments (Rothenberg and Feng 2012). The lack of electron donors led to a decrease in the activity
161 of microbial methylators. These results suggested that differences in the availability of OM might
162 hold the key to explaining the large variability in the activity of microbial methylators.

163 **3.1.2 Effects of environmental factors on OM related methylation**

164 The effects of OM on microbial activity pertaining to Hg methylation are dependent on selected
165 environmental variables (water saturation, redox condition, temperature, nutrients, light, et al.)
166 resulting from anthropogenic activities or natural biogeochemical environmental changes (Eklof et al.
167 2018; Kronberg et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2016; Windham-Myers et al. 2014a). The effects of water
168 saturation, redox state, temperature, and nutrient and light availability could be illustrated as
169 examples of forest and rice cultivation practices.

170 Forest practices can enhance microbial Hg-methylation activity in the presence of logging
171 residue by influencing water saturation, redox conditions, temperature, nutrition and light conditions
172 in soils (Eklof et al. 2018; Eklöf et al. 2016; Kronberg et al. 2016). The increased microbial activity
173 from logging activity is reflected by the overall bacterial diversity and relative abundance of
174 microbial methylator families (e.g., SRB *Desulfovibrio*, *Desulfobacteraceae*; IRB *Geobacteraceae*;
175 Firmicutes *Peptococcaceae*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Veillonellaceae*) in soils (Eklof et al. 2018). The
176 decomposition of organic residue and microbial methylating activity is closely associated with the
177 amount of water, the saturation time, temperature and light conditions in soils and sediments (Eklof
178 et al. 2018; Kronberg et al. 2016). Wet, low-oxygen, and high-temperature conditions are more likely
179 to result from stump and stem logging practices, which create favourable environments for anaerobic
180 Hg methylators (Eklof et al. 2018; Rothenberg et al. 2014). Solar radiation exposure to OM in soils
181 quickly increased after plant-cutting (Kronberg et al. 2016). Organic residue from logging and soil
182 OM were prone to decompose and degrade under these environments, resulting in bulk production of
183 fresh organic carbon sources, which provides abundant and excellent substrate (as electron donors)
184 for enhancing the microbial activity of Hg methylators (Eklöf et al. 2016; Kronberg et al. 2016).

185 Rice cultivation practices can affect the activity of Hg methylators in the presence of rice straw
186 decay by altering water saturation, nutrients, and redox conditions (Zhu et al. 2016; Windham-Myers
187 et al. 2014a). Aerenchyma tissue for enhancing gas transport between soil and plants was more likely
188 to alter the surrounding environment in the plant rhizosphere under anaerobic conditions, which
189 might be a good habitat for anaerobic microbial communities capable of methylating Hg (Rothenberg
190 et al. 2014). Periodic flooding and drying produced high water saturation resulting from more
191 frequent water movement and relatively oxic to suboxic conditions due to long-time cultivation in
192 standing water (Windham-Myers et al. 2014a). The activity of native Hg-methylating microbes was
193 triggered by enhancing the proliferation of microorganisms living at the oxic-anoxic boundaries
194 (Eklof et al. 2018; Windham-Myers et al. 2014a). The decomposition of post-harvest rice straw
195 residue was accelerated under these environments, resulting in a large pool of labile OM that
196 provided microbial electron acceptors (sulfate and ferric iron) and electron donors (e.g., acetate) for
197 the Hg-methylating microbial community (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016; Marvin-DiPasquale et al. 2014;
198 Windham-Myers et al. 2014a; Zhao et al. 2018). Moreover, the release of a large amount of labile
199 OM also led to the alteration of the ambient redox potential in rice fields (Zhu et al. 2018).

200 **3.2 Effects of OM on the microbial availability of IHg**

201 The microbial availability of IHg was demonstrated to be responsible for the effects of OM on

202 enhancing the risk of Hg from soils and sediments. However, compared with the spatial-temporal
203 variation of the activity of Hg methylators, Hg methylation was less affected by variations in the
204 microbial availability of IHg in some cases (Marvin-DiPasquale et al. 2014). For example, the effects
205 of the former on Hg methylation were 100 times larger than the latter in wetland sediments, whereas
206 the latter appeared to be the main limiting factor in permanently flooded wetlands
207 (Marvin-DiPasquale et al. 2014). The pool of IHg available to methylating microbes was controlled
208 by the speciation of IHg and the desorption and dissolution kinetics of IHg from much more
209 abundant sediment and soil pools (Jonsson et al. 2012; Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016). The corresponding
210 speciation or the desorption and dissolution of IHg were summarized and discussed to understand the
211 effects of OM on the microbial availability of IHg.

212 **3.2.1 The speciation of IHg**

213 The chemical speciation of Hg in solid/absorbed phases potentially limited Hg availability for
214 microbial uptake because of the control on aqueous concentrations of IHg (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016).
215 Some aqueous Hg forms, such as Hg-sulfide complexes and low-molecular-mass Hg-thiol complexes,
216 were more bioavailable to microbial methylators (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016).

217 The effects of OM on the microbial availability of IHg varied according to Hg species. Hg-S
218 complexes affected the interactions between OM and Hg due to the high aqueous solubility and the
219 presence of sulfur (Gerbig et al. 2011; Graham et al. 2013; Liem-Nguyen et al. 2016). Recent studies
220 suggested that bioavailable neutral Hg-S species may be nanoparticulate β -HgS(s) or polynuclear
221 Hg-S clusters, rather than aqueous HgS⁰ monomers. DOM can strongly react with β -HgS(s) (Miller
222 Carrie et al. 2009) and inhibit the aggregation of β -HgS(s) particles (Gerbig et al. 2011; Graham et al.
223 2013). HgS-DOM polynuclear clusters and Hg nanoparticles were more bioavailable for Hg
224 methylators, and transformation was enhanced (Graham et al. 2012). Low-molecular-weight Hg-thiol
225 complexes (LMMC) were another aqueous Hg species that could readily become bioavailable to Hg
226 methylators in soils and sediments. It was demonstrated that NOM was important for the
227 complexation of LMMC due to the formation of NOM and thiol ligand complexes and thus
228 subsequently influenced the microbial availability of IHg (Liem-Nguyen et al. 2017).

229 **3.2.2. The desorption and dissolution kinetics of IHg**

230 The desorption and dissolution kinetics of IHg affects the role of OM on the microbial
231 availability of IHg in soils and sediments. In this paper, the effects of the desorption and dissolution
232 kinetics of IHg are illustrated as the interactions between IHg and DOM. Two theories were
233 suggested and supported to explain enhanced Hg availability by DOM. One view held that IHg
234 complexed with DOM was part of the dissolved Hg pool, which could directly facilitate the bacterial
235 uptake of Hg and act as a shuttle molecule to transport Hg from the environment to metal
236 transporters (Jonsson et al. 2012; Mazrui et al. 2016). Another view suggested that Hg was first
237 bound with DOM and subsequently transported into bacterial cells with DOM as a nutrition source
238 (Mazrui et al. 2016). To the contrary, dissolved IHg complexes were readily absorbed by the
239 sediment matrix and unavailable (Mazrui et al. 2016). Recent studies showed that IHg complexed
240 with DOM was more readily dissolved and more available for microbial methylation in sediments
241 (Frohne et al. 2012; Mazrui et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2018). Hg complexes with DOM facilitated rapid
242 Hg bio-uptake and methylation by Hg methylators, which might be attributed to the presence of the
243 thiol ligand in DOM (Graham et al. 2017; Kronberg et al. 2016).

244 DOM with low-molecular-weight organic acids (LMWOAs) and low-molecular-weight thiols
245 (LMWTs) enhance microbial Hg methylation in soils and sediments. LMWOAs led to a lower pH
246 and thus facilitated desorption of Hg from soil solid phases and increased Hg availability to
247 microbial methylators (Zhao et al. 2018). At the same time, LMWOAs provided a carbon source for
248 utilization by Hg methylators (You et al. 2016), which promoted microbial methylation. Increased
249 numbers of carboxylic groups in LMWOAs led to increased Hg desorption from soils and sediments,
250 which can be beneficial to the net production of MeHg (Yin et al. 2018). Two types of LMWOAs,
251 Suwannee River humic acid and Williams Lake hydrophobic acid, increased the bioavailability of Hg

252 (2 to 38-fold) to sulfate-reducing bacteria under sulfidic conditions and subsequently enhanced the
253 methylation of Hg. MeHg production by sulfate-reducing bacteria showed a linear relationship with
254 DOM concentration (Zhao et al. 2017). LMWTs can enhance Hg bioavailability via Hg-S-DOM
255 complexation and provide a source of energy for Hg methylators, contributing to an indirect uptake
256 of Hg (Chiasson-Gould et al. 2014; French et al. 2014; Graham et al. 2012; Moreau et al. 2015).
257 However, complexation of IHg with NOM provided less available Hg for methylation in an organic
258 forest soil due to the effect of the thiol groups in NOM on IHg speciation (Kronberg et al. 2016).

259 **4 Conclusions and implications**

260 The interactions between Hg and OM are illustrated on Figure S1. Component alteration and the
261 stimulated activity of the Hg-methylating microbial community, as well as the microbial availability
262 of IHg, account for the impact of OM on Hg risks associated with soils and sediments. The
263 characteristic and availability of OM, the speciation, desorption and dissolution kinetics of Hg, as
264 well as environmental conditions, are important factors controlling the three key processes. Firstly,
265 OM with Fe, thiolate, S, cysteine, selenite and aromatic functional groups and some strong Hg
266 binding sites greatly reduced the risks associated with Hg in soils and sediments, which resulted from
267 the decrease in the bioavailability of IHg and MeHg. However, labile OM (acetate, hydrogen, etc.)
268 promotes the activity of microbial Hg methylators and accelerate Hg methylation, which contributed
269 to the enhanced risks of Hg from soils and sediments. Secondly, a large amount of labile OM led to
270 the bulk production of energy, nutrition and electron donors, which regulated the microbial activity
271 of Hg methylators. If the content of OM was lower than a threshold for utilization, the microbial
272 activity of Hg methylators would be limited. Third, mercury methylation was prone to be triggered in
273 environments with a low oxygen supply, sufficient water saturation, and high temperatures and solar
274 radiation. Lastly, OM, which is beneficial for the desorption of Hg from soils and sediments and the
275 formation of aqueous Hg complexes, will increase the risk of Hg from soils and sediments.

276 This study showed that enhanced Hg related risks from soils and sediments are controlled by
277 multiple factors, which should be fully considered in applying organic amendments to
278 Hg-contaminated soils or sediments. Background mercury concentrations cannot be ignored in the
279 amendments.

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