THE ROLE OF ESTER SULFATE AND ORGANIC DISULFIDE IN MERCURY METHYLATION IN PEATLAND SOILS

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5 Caroline E. Pierce^{*a*}, Olha S. Furman^{*ab*}, Sarah L. Nicholas^{*ac*}, Jill Coleman Wasik^{*d*}, Caitlin M.

6 Gionfriddo ^{ef}, Ann M. Wymore ^e, Stephen D. Sebestyen ^g, Randall K. Kolka ^g, Carl P.J. Mitchell ^h,

7 Natalie A. Griffiths^{*i*}, Dwayne A. Elias^{*e*}, Edward A. Nater^{*a*}, and Brandy M. Toner^{*a**}

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⁹ ^a Department of Soil, Water, and Climate, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108 USA

10 ^b Current affiliation: Department of Agriculture, Water, and the Environment, Australian

11 Government, Canberra, Australia

12 ^c Current affiliation: Brookhaven National Laboratory - National Synchrotron Light Source II,

13 Upton, NY 11973 USA

^d Plant and Earth Science Department, University of Wisconsin River Falls, River Falls, WI 54022
 USA

^e Biosciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN, 37831 USA

¹⁷ ^f Current affiliation: Smithsonian Environmental Research Center, Edgewater, MD 21037 USA

^g USDA Forest Service, Northern Research Station, Grand Rapids, MN 55744 USA

^h Department of Physical and Environmental Sciences, University of Toronto Scarborough,
 Scarborough, ON Canada

ⁱ Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831 USA

23	SYNOPSIS
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Organic sulfur species in peat are important reactants (ester sulfate) and products (organic disulfide) in mercury methylation. Organic sulfur species also have the potential to limit the bioavailability of mercury for methylation (organic monosulfides).

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28 *Corresponding author email: toner@umn.edu

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38 ABSTRACT

39 We examined the composition and spatial correlation of sulfur and mercury pools in peatland soil profiles by measuring sulfur 1s X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and mercury 40 41 concentrations by cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectroscopy. Also investigated were the 42 methylation/demethylation rate constants and the presence of hgcAB genes with depth. 43 Methylmercury (MeHg) concentration and organic disulfide were spatially correlated and had a 44 significant positive correlation (p < 0.05). This finding is consistent with these species being 45 products of dissimilatory sulfate reduction. Conversely, a significant negative correlation between 46 organic monosulfides and MeHg was observed, which is consistent with a reduction in Hg(II) 47 bioavailability via complexation reactions. Finally, a significant positive correlation between ester 48 sulfate and instantaneous methylation rate constants was observed, which is consistent with ester 49 sulfate being a substrate for mercury methylation via dissimilatory sulfate reduction. Our findings 50 point to the importance of organic sulfur species in mercury methylation processes, as substrates 51 and products, as well as potential inhibitors of Hg(II) bioavailability. For a peatland system with sub-µmol L⁻¹ porewater concentrations of sulfate and hydrogen sulfide, our findings indicate that 52 53 the solid-phase sulfur pools, which have a much larger sulfur concentration range, may be 54 accessible to microbial activity or exchanging with the porewater.

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61 Abstract Art



64 KEYWORDS: SULFUR XANES, METHYLMERCURY, PEATLAND

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66 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Globally, boreal peatlands cover a land area of 4 million km², primarily in Russia, Canada, and the 67 USA¹. Within Minnesota, boreal peatlands cover a land area of 24,000 km²². Boreal peatlands 68 are hot spots for the production of methylmercury (MeHg) that lead to toxic and environmentally 69 detrimental levels ³⁻⁵. Methylmercury released from peatlands to aquatic systems can be 70 71 biomagnified in the food web to top predatory fish that humans and wildlife consume ⁶. While 72 sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) are considered to be important producers of MeHg not all SRB 73 methylate mercury ⁷. Cause and effect studies in peatlands demonstrate that enhanced availability 74 of sulfate leads to increased MeHg concentrations but the detailed information of how sulfur is transformed in organic soils remains unknown^{8,9}. Methanogens and some iron-reducing bacteria 75 (IRB) also produce MeHg within boreal peatlands ^{10–12}. However, the role of methanogens and 76 77 IRB in mercury methylation is outside the scope of this article. We explore the interactions of 78 sulfur and mercury via microbial sulfate reduction within a boreal peatland. It is unknown why

microbes methylate mercury though there are hypotheses such as detoxification of the cell, carbon
 metabolism, and metal homeostasis ^{13,14}.

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82 Biogeochemically linked elements, sulfur and mercury, enter ombrotrophic bogs (see section 2.1) 83 through atmospheric deposition and are cycled in the soil profile by physical, chemical, and 84 biological processes. Cycling is especially active at depths where distinct contrasts in physical and chemical properties, such as water content and oxidation-reduction conditions occur $^{15-18}$. As an 85 example of a chemical process, mercury has a high binding affinity for reduced organic sulfur 86 (e.g., thiols)¹⁹⁻²¹. As an example of a biological process, dissimilatory SRB populations catalyze 87 the reduction of sulfur and mercury methylation in peatland soils ^{8,9,22,23}. Although porewater 88 89 sulfate pools are small, oxidation reactions during periods of lowered water tables may recycle 90 oxidized organic sulfur that can sustain sulfate reduction rates and net MeHg production following wetting events ^{17,24,25}. Studies in low-sulfate environments demonstrate that organic sulfur 91 compounds can be an important component of dissimilatory sulfate reduction ²⁶. Genomic studies 92 93 have shown that some SRB are capable of utilizing ester sulfate ²⁷. However, this pathway has not 94 been co-demonstrated in SRB that also methylate mercury. The functional genes that encode for mercury methylation in anaerobic microorganisms have been identified as $hgcAB^{10,28}$. We are not 95 96 aware of literature about the depth distribution of hgcAB genes within boreal peat.

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In this study we measured the abundance and speciation of mercury and sulfur, rates of methylation and demethylation, and the presence of hgcAB genes in peat profiles. Most lab and field studies to date have focused on inorganic sulfate as a driver for mercury methylation ^{8,18,21,29} but bogs have little inorganic sulfur ^{30,31}. Our objective was to investigate the role of organic sulfur species, as opposed to inorganic sulfur species, in peatland soil as important reactants and products in mercury
methylation. In a climate with an increasingly variable water table (i.e., longer drought with deeper
water table position) a greater volume of peat may be exposed to biogeochemical processes that
are able to generate ester sulfate and MeHg ^{15,32–37}.

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2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

108 **2.1 Site Description**

109 The field site, the S1 bog, is an ombrotrophic bog with a black spruce (*Picea mariana*) and 110 tamarack (Larix laricina) overstory, located at the United States Department of Agriculture 111 (USDA) Forest Service Marcell Experimental Forest (MEF) in northern Minnesota (47°30.476' 112 N; 93°27.1620'W and 412 m a.m.s.l., Figure S1: Map of the Marcell Experimental Forest). Bogs 113 do not have inflow from groundwater and receive inputs only from the atmosphere creating a mineral-poor ombrotrophic peatland ^{38,39}. Mean annual air temperature at the MEF from 1961 to 114 2019 was 3.5 °C and average annual precipitation was 770 mm⁴⁰. Much of the peat is 2 - 4 m deep 115 116 and the peatland water table fluctuates seasonally within the upper 30 cm of peat during most years 41,42 117

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Water flows laterally through a shallow acrotelm and mesotelm to the peatland margin, and an outlet stream when the water table is high ⁴³. The acrotelm is a surficial layer of low density and comparatively high hydraulic conductivity, is mostly oxic above the water table and includes living plants and the majority of roots ⁴⁴. The catotelm is a deeper zone of permanently saturated and higher density peat with lower hydraulic conductivity and permanently anoxic conditions ^{45,46}. Between the acrotelm and catotelm is the mesotelm (approximately 30 – 50 cm below the surface),

a transitional area characterized by a fluctuating water table ^{36,41,46,47}. The mesotelm is periodically
oxic, corresponding to low water tables, or anoxic, corresponding to high water tables.

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128 The S1 bog surface consists of raised hummocks alternating with microtopographical lows called 129 hollows. Typical relief is 20 - 30 cm from hummock tops to adjacent hollows and the lateral extent of hummocks can be up to several meters wide 48,49 . The bryophytes in hummocks consist mainly 130 131 of Sphagnum divinum (previously S. magellanicum⁵⁰), while hollows are mainly colonized by S. 132 angustifolium and S. fallax. Sphagnum angustifolium and S. fallax have few, readily 133 distinguishable features so we refer to them as S. angustifolium/fallax. The S1 bog is the site of 134 the long-term and large-scale Spruce and Peatland Responses Under Changing Environments (SPRUCE) experiment where air and peat temperatures (0 to +9 °C above ambient) and 135 136 atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) levels (ambient and +500 ppm) are being manipulated to study climate effects on ecological, hydrological, and biogeochemical processes in peatlands ⁵¹. All data 137 138 presented in this paper were collected prior to the onset of the experimental warming and elevated 139 CO₂ treatments.

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141 **2.2 Sampling Methods**

Peat cores were collected to a depth of -200 cm from six locations in triplicate for a total of 18 cores in August 2012 ⁴⁸. See the Supplemental Information for detailed coring, sampling intervals, and sampling methods. Samples for mercury were frozen and samples for sulfur were stored in argon and frozen. Living *Sphagnum divinum* and *S. angustifolium/fallax* were sampled in June 2014 and stored frozen before further analyses. Porewaters were collected from piezometers in 2013 ⁵². 148

149 The different sample types were collected at different times but all were collected from the same 150 peat bog. Peat soil was collected in August 2012, porewaters were collected in September 2013, 151 and peat for the rate study was collected in 2016. It is possible that environmental conditions (water 152 table height, temperature) were different between sampling time points. Over the monitoring 153 history of the Marcell Experimental Forest (since 1967) these factors are generally stable and all 154 samples were collected in the same season although different years. 155 156 2.3 Sulfur Concentration and Speciation in Peatland Soil 157 Peat and Sphagnum samples were dried in a N_2 (g) filled flow-through desiccator. The samples 158 were then homogenized in a N_2 (g) filled glove bag using a ceramic mortar and pestle and liquid 159 nitrogen. Homogenized samples were stored in N_2 (g) filled packs until analysis. 160 161 Total sulfur concentrations of dried and ground subsamples were measured by combustion using 162 a carbon, nitrogen, sulfur Elementar Vario EL analyzer (Elementar Instruments). 163 164 Sulfur XANES data were acquired on beamlines 06B1-1 Soft X-ray Microcharacterization 165 Beamline (SXRMB) at the Canadian Light Source (CLS, Saskatoon, SK, Canada) and 9-BM X-166 ray beamline at the Advanced Photon Source (APS, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL, 167 USA). See the Supplemental Information for detailed methods. Sulfur XANES spectra were processed using Athena ⁵³. Linear combination fitting of the sample spectra with reference spectra 168 was performed using mrfitty ⁵⁴. We used a subset of a published sulfur reference database ^{55–59} 169 170 (Table S1: List of sulfur reference compounds).

172	2.4 Acid Volatile Sulfur and Sulfate in Porewaters
173	Porewaters were analyzed for sulfide concentration by protonating all acid-extractable sulfides to
174	H_2S (g) and using the methylene blue colorimetric method 60 . The working range for this method
175	was $0.01 - 2.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.
176	Porewaters were analyzed for sulfate on a Thermo Dionex ICS-2100 ion chromatograph according
177	to Standard Method 4110 C 52,61 . The limit of detection was 0.02 mg L ⁻¹ SO ₄ ²⁻ .
178	
179	2.5 Total Mercury and MeHg Concentration in Peatland Soil
180	Total mercury (THg) was measured by cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectroscopy (CVAFS) on
181	a Tekran 2600 according to US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) method 1631 ⁶² .
182	Methylmercury concentrations were measured by EPA Method 1630 ⁶³ by distillation, ethylation,
183	capillary gas chromatography, and CVAFS on a Tekran 2700. The detection limit was 0.03 ng g ⁻¹
184	for THg analyses and 0.006 ng g ⁻¹ for MeHg analyses.
185	
186	2.6 Instantaneous mercury methylation and demethylation rate constants
187	Rates were determined by incubating peat with simultaneous additions of enriched-abundance
188	200 Hg ²⁺ (94.3%) and Me ²⁰¹ Hg ⁺ (84.7%) as outlined in Mitchell and Gilmour (2008) ²⁹ .
189	See Supplemental Information for detailed methods.
190	
191	Analytical quality control and assurance measures can be found in Table S2: Potential rate
192	constant quality control and assurance measures. Potential rate constants for Hg ²⁺ methylation
193	(k_{m}) were calculated using the excess concentration of enriched $^{200}\mathrm{Hg}^{2+}$ that was methylated over

194 the course of the incubation period with respect to the concentration of excess T^{200} Hg in the

sample ^{64,65}. Potential MeHg demethylation rate constants (k_d) were determined assuming first-

196 order reaction kinetics according to Lehnherr et al. (2012) ⁶⁶.

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198 2.7 hgcAB Primer Sequencing

199 Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from the peat samples, quantified using QubitTM (Thermo 200 Fisher Scientific), and assessed for quality with NanoDropTM One (Thermo Fisher Scientific). 201 See Supplemental Information for detailed methods. The gene sequence hgcAB was amplified by 202 the method described by Gionfriddo et al. (2020) ⁶⁷ and clone libraries were created. The 203 environmental clone hgcA sequences from this study were previously published as part of a study 204 testing methods for identifying Hg-methylation genes from environmental samples, and are 205 publicly available under the NCBI GenBank accession numbers MT122211 – MT122438 ⁶⁷.

206 There could be bias in these methods (amplifying, cloning, and sequencing hgcA) introduced by 207 the choice of primer sequence. Primer sequences are based on reference hgcA from known 208 methylators, and therefore may prefer certain microbial guilds, such as deltas and methanogens 209 over firmicutes and acetogens. The interpretation of the phylogenetic analysis of this data is limited 210 as metabolic groupings of the results were based on taxonomic prefixes and suffixes as opposed 211 to identifying functional genes for sulfate reduction, iron reduction, and methanogenesis. We 212 inferred sulfate reducing mercury methylators based on the phylogenetic placement of the cloned 213 sequence compared to reference sequences of known/predicted mercury methylators. Since the 214 mercury methylation genes have been classified as Deltaproteobacteria, we inferred that the 215 mercury methylators are capable of sulfate reduction. These data are not quantitative and do not 216 tell us whether any of the hgc genes were active, if some groups have higher rates of activity than

others (e.g., small number of sulfur reducers but high activity), or whether the organisms were
alive when the DNA was extracted. Our data simply identified the presence or absence of *hgcAB*genes.

220

221 2.8 Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in R 3.6.3⁶⁸ using package agricolae (v1.3.2; function: 222 223 LSD.test)⁶⁹. Statistical differences of linear models were determined using Multiple Comparison Least Significant Difference ⁷⁰, p-adjustment of "none", and a significance level of p < 0.05. The 224 225 Shapiro-Wilks test was used to determine the normality of THg, MeHg, and percent MeHg. No 226 averaging was performed and the data set was comprised of composited cores and all depths. The 227 data were not normal, so we examined relationships between mercury and sulfur species in peat 228 by using Spearman's rank correlation for non-linear and non-parametric data with a significance 229 level of p < 0.05.

230

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

232 **3.1 Depth Profiles in Peatland Soil - Mercury, Sulfur, and** *hgc***AB genes**

233 Spectra from 58 samples were fit to reference spectra using linear combination fitting (Table S3:

- 234 <u>Proportions of sulfur species for hummocks</u> and S4: Proportions of sulfur species for hollows).
- 235 Representative sulfur XANES spectra are shown in Figure 1.



237 Almost all sulfur detected in the S1 bog peat with sulfur XANES spectroscopy was in an organic 238 form (Table S5: Mean sulfur speciation by depth). Reduced organic sulfur species (having valence 239 states of $\leq +1$, Table 1) comprised 42 – 72 % of total sulfur over the full depth profile (+ 20 cm to 240 -200 cm, Table S5: Mean sulfur speciation by depth) which is consistent with past studies of boreal peatlands ⁷¹. The oxidized sulfur species (valence states $\geq +2$) decreased with depth (p < 0.05), 241 242 while reduced sulfur species (valence states $\leq +1$) increased with depth (p < 0.05). The lowest percentages of reduced sulfur species were observed in surface samples from both hollows (- 5 243 244 cm, 48 % on average) and hummocks (+15 cm, 42 % on average; Figure 2 and Table S5: Mean 245 sulfur speciation by depth).



Figure 1 Sulfur 1s X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra from a hollow (a), hummock (b), and references that were detected in the samples (c). References are color coded according to bin type – thiophenes, organic monosulfides, and thiols are binned together.

Reference compound	Functional group	Structure	Electronic oxidation state	Group	Peak Maxima (eV)	Source
L-Cystine	Organic disulfide	R-S-S-R'	-0.4 ^a		2472.8 / 2474.5	d.
L-Cysteine	Thiol	R-S-H	+0.2 Reduced S		2473.6	d.
L-Methionine	Organic monosulfide	R-S-R'	+0.3	Keuuceu 5	2473.6	d.
Benzothiophene and Bithiophene	Thiophene	s	+1.0		2473.7 / 2474.6	e., f.
Methionine Sulfoxide	Sulfoxide	R-S(O)-R'	+2		2476.3	d.
Sulfite	Sulfite	R-SO ₃	+3.68		2478.5 / 2482.1	g., h.
DL-Homocysteic acid ^b and ANSA ^c	Sulfonate	R-SO ₃ -H	+5	0-:3:36	2481.2	d., h.
Saccharin	Sulfone	R-SO ₂ -R'	+6	Oxidized S	2480.0	f.
Gypsum	Inorganic sulfate	CaSO ₄	+6		2482.7	f.
Sodium dodecyl sulfate	Ester sulfate	R-O-SO ₃ -H	+6		2482.8	d.

246 *Table 1 Sulfur species in the reference database.*

a. Oxidation state calculated and published in Cron et al. 2020

b. DL-Homocysteic acid

c. 1-Amino-2-naphthol-4-sulfonic acid

d. Cron et al. 2020

e. Behyan et al. 2013

f. Pierce et al. 2021

g. Manceau and Nagy 2012

h. Zeng et al. 2013



Figure 2 Depth profiles of sulfur concentration and speciation. Top Panel: Inorganic sulfate (orange), ester sulfate (teal), sulfone and sulfonate (pink), sulfoxide (green), thiol and thiophene and organic monosulfide (yellow), and organic disulfide (purple) as measured by XANES spectroscopy. Bottom Panel: Total oxidized sulfur (teal) is the sum of inorganic sulfate, ester sulfate, sulfone, sulfonate, and sulfoxide. Total reduced sulfur (orange) is the sum of thiol, organic monosulfide, thiophene, and organic disulfide. Blue shaded area is a histogram showing the range of daily water table positions (minimum: -35 cm, maximum: +6 cm) in 2012. Blue dashed line is the water table height on the day of sampling.

Various organic sulfur species with different electronic states (- 0.4 to + 6) were measured in living *Sphagnum* (Table S5: Mean sulfur speciation by depth). Sulfur speciation in *Sphagnum* tissues was similar between *S*. *divinum* and *S*. *angustifolium/fallax*. The main difference between the two was that *S*. *divinum* accumulated more inorganic sulfate, whereas *S*. *angustifolium/fallax*, accumulated more ester sulfate. However, only one sample per *Sphagnum* type was measured, so the potential variability in sulfur speciation was not addressed.

Within the acrotelm and mesotelm, concentrations of sulfur species were variable and in the catotelm, the concentrations were constant. In this study, our observations are consistent with published literature ^{31,35} that show that the depth interval from -5 cm to -

35 cm is a biogeochemically active zone,

which overlaps the range of water table depth fluctuations (Figure 2). Maxima in total sulfur,
organic disulfide, THg, MeHg, percent MeHg, and major changes in the composition of the sulfur

271 organic compounds all occurred in this zone 272 (Figures 2, 3, and S2: Depth profiles of mean 273 THg and percent MeHg). Subsurface 274 maximum in organic sulfur concentration in 275 peatlands may result from sulfate reduction 276 processes occurring where perennial 277 saturation most often occurs ⁷². Our findings are consistent with previous reports of 278 279 subsurface maxima in total sulfur and MeHg that correspond to the mesotelm ^{31,35,47,72,73}. It 280 281 has been proposed that this maximum in 282 MeHg in the zone of water table fluctuation is 283 due to sulfur cycling between reduced and



Figure 3 Depth profile of mean MeHg concentrations in peat for cores collected from hummocks and hollows. Blue shaded area is a histogram of the range of water table positions in 2012. Blue dashed line is the water table height on the day of sampling. Total mercury and percent MeHg depth profiles are provided in the Supplemental Information (Figure S2).

oxidized forms as the redox conditions change with the water table ^{15,32,34,74,75}. This internal cycling

285 of sulfur can drive MeHg production with minimal atmospheric deposition of new sulfate.

286

Both THg and MeHg concentrations were relatively low in surficial peat and peaked at depths between -25 cm and -35 cm in the hollows and at -5 cm in the hummocks (Figures 2 and S2<u>: Depth</u> profiles of mean THg and percent MeHg, Table S6<u>: Mean mercury concentrations by depth</u>). The shape of the MeHg profile is directly influenced by microbial activity. In contrast, the shape of the THg profile is determined primarily by atmospheric deposition and indirectly influenced by microbial activity. Mercury emissions greatly increased during the industrial revolution (~1850) through the 1970s ⁷⁶ which corresponds to increased atmospheric deposition in depths -25 cm to - 294 100 cm (hollows, Figure S2: Depth profiles of mean THg and percent MeHg). Microbial 295 decomposition of the peat increases the concentration of THg by decreasing the mass of carbon and the volume of peat ⁷⁷. In the surface depths one cm of peat may correlate to one year of 296 deposition whereas in the deeper peat, one cm may correlate to several hundred years ⁷⁷. Total 297 298 mercury and MeHg concentrations decreased below -35 cm depth (Figures 3 and S2: Depth 299 profiles of mean THg and percent MeHg, Table S6: Mean mercury concentrations by depth). Our hummock, near-surface, THg concentrations were approximately 50 ng g^{-1} which is consistent 300 301 with a hummock depth profile measured at a similar bog in northern Minnesota by Benoit et al. (1998) as well as having similar depths for concentration maxima 76 . These same similarities, but 302 303 for hollows, were found with the THg depth profiles in Givelet et al. (2003) located in southern 304 Ontario, Canada ⁷⁸. Average percent MeHg levels (i.e., MeHg concentrations expressed as a 305 percentage of THg concentrations) were less than 2.6 % throughout peat cores and peaked at depths 306 -35 cm and -5 cm for hollows and hummocks, respectively.

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308 No relationship was found between the presence of hgcAB genes and the MeHg profile because 309 the hgcAB genes are detected at all depths even where MeHg concentrations are low. The data 310 do not provide quantitative information so the overall abundance of hgcAB in the mesotelm is 311 unknown. Many factors may impact MeHg distribution besides the presence of mercury 312 methylators, including their activity and abundance, which were not measured. A recent study 313 showed no significant correlation between the gene abundance of hgcAB (qPCR or 314 metagenomic-based methods) and THg or MeHg concentrations across diverse environments such as riverine areas, tidal marshes, and arctic permafrost ⁷⁹. Generally, the potential for 315 316 microbial methylation of mercury appears to be present throughout the peat profile. There are

several caveats to these data. First, the methods do not give a quantitative assessment of hgcABgenes across depth. Second, no overall measure of biomass was collected to assess microbial abundance. Third, sequencing was not deep enough (i.e., only 5 or so clones per depth) to capture the full diversity in hgcA genes that were present in the clone libraries. However, the collation of clones from each depth and sample site gives us a glimpse of mercury methylator diversity at this site. An area for future investigation is to perform metagenomic sequencing techniques or higher throughput sequencing of hgcAB amplicons to overcome these caveats.

325 **3.2 Organic Disulfide is a Product of Mercury Methylation**

326 The depth profiles of mercury concentrations and sulfur species were consistent among cores for 327 soils having similar microtopography (e.g., all hummock profiles are similar). The most 328 distinguishing feature of all sulfur speciation profiles was a maximum concentration of organic 329 disulfide in near-surface peat (within ~ 30 cm of the surface for both hummocks and hollows; 330 Figure 2). Within the zone of water table fluctuation, concentration maxima of MeHg and organic 331 disulfide co-occur for both hollows and hummocks. Methylmercury and percent MeHg were both 332 positively correlated with organic disulfide throughout the depth profile in hummocks but not 333 hollows (R_{Spearman} = 0.62, Table S7: Spearman's correlations between sulfur species and mercury). 334 We performed a statistical correlation analysis and interpret these results based on well-established 335 chemical and biological processes.

336

Hummocks are elevated approximately 30 cm above the hollows (Figure 2) but the absolute water table occurs at the same absolute elevation in both, with the result that the surface layers of hummocks are more oxic than in hollows ^{44,80}. The maxim in MeHg, total sulfur, and organic disulfide concentrations in hummocks and hollows occur at the same depths from the microtopographic surface (-35 cm, Figures 2 and 3). This indicates that the biogeochemical environment (e.g., soil moisture, redox potential, and biophysical properties) in the mesotelm varies with surface microtopography ⁸¹. There may well be a biogeochemical reason for the significant correlation between MeHg and organic disulfide in hummocks, but not hollows. It is also possible that our sampling scheme did not allow us to resolve that relationship in hollows because the sampling interval increased from 10 cm to 60 cm at -35 cm below the hollow surface.

348 Microbial sulfate reduction produces chemically reduced forms of sulfur, such as hydrogen sulfide 349 ^{17,82}. Hydrogen sulfide and other forms of sulfur are known to be reactive with organic matter in a 350 variety of natural settings through processes referred to as sulfurization or sulfidization reactions ^{26,83–85}. Organic disulfide is a possible end-product of microbial sulfate reduction processes in 351 peatlands and may be a co-product with MeHg ^{31,72,86}. There is evidence SRB are present at our 352 study site at depths -30 cm to -50 cm ^{87,88}. The 2014 studies by Lin et al. ^{87,88} were performed at 353 354 our research site and was generic to all microorganisms in the peat, meaning it differs from ours 355 in that we selected a subset of microorganisms that had the *hgcAB* gene. Microbes containing the 356 hgcAB gene comprise less than 5% of the general microbial community across various environment types ⁷⁹. Based on interpreting the hgcA phylogenetic classification as sulfate 357 358 reducers, we saw SRB that contain the genes for mercury methylation, hgcAB, at depths +5 cm 359 through -10 cm for the hummock locations only (Figure S3: Depth profile of the presence of 360 hgcAB and binned microbiological taxa). Not surprisingly, the majority of the genes detected were 361 binned in the "uncultured" and "other" group and so little information can be gleaned as to what

362 geochemical or physico-chemical conditions would allow the organisms possessing these genes to363 thrive and be biochemically active.

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367 **3.3 Thiols, Monosulfides, Thiophenes and Mercury Bioavailability**

368 Unlike organic disulfides, the organic monosulfides (thiols, monosulfides, and thiophenes) were 369 negatively correlated with MeHg ($R_{spearman} = -0.60$ and -0.51, hollows and hummocks respectively) 370 and displayed a maximum in the catotelm where THg and MeHg are low (Figures 2, 3, S2: Depth 371 profiles of mean THg and percent MeHg, and Table S7: Spearman's correlations between sulfur 372 species and mercury). Thiol functional groups in dissolved and particulate organic pools are known to bind to mercury strongly ^{20,29,89,90}. Studies using extended X-ray absorption fine structure 373 374 (EXAFS) spectroscopy show that thiol moieties in organic matter form ligand complexes with Hg(II) and CH₃Hg⁺ which increases THg and MeHg storage in peatland soil ^{20,91–93}. In the aqueous 375 376 phase, thiols introduced as soluble cysteine desorb Hg(II) from the solid phase into the porewaters 377 ⁹⁴. While the chemical affinity between mercury and thiols is well demonstrated, the effect of thiols 378 on MeHg production by microorganisms appears to be species and compound specific. Mercury 379 methylating microorganisms such as *Pseudodesulfovibrio mercurii* ND132 (previously *D*. 380 desulfuricans ND132) exhibit enhanced methylation in the presence of all thiols whereas G. 381 sulfurreducens PCA's methylating ability is enhanced by small molecular thiols (e.g., cysteine and 382 mercaptopropionate) and inhibited by larger molecular thiols (e.g., glutathione and penicillamine) ^{94–97}. The observed negative correlation between thiols and MeHg in peat is consistent with a 383 384 reduction in methylation activity in the porewaters in the presence of solid-state thiols. This finding

385 is further supported by the observed negative correlation in the peat between thiols and the ratio 386 of methylation rate constants (k_m) to demethylation rate constants (k_d) ($R_{spearman} = -0.37$, Table S8: 387 Spearman's correlations between sulfur species and potential methylation rate constants). To our 388 knowledge, this is the first finding of this kind outside of a laboratory setting. For MeHg, it is 389 possible that the strong binding affinity between thiols in peat and Hg(II) causes a reduction in 390 bioavailability for methylation in the porewaters. As opposed to peatland soil, studies of porewater 391 have found a positive relationship between k_m and small molecular thiols ⁹⁸. It should be noted that 392 in the deep peat, organic monosulfides are not causing a decrease in MeHg. Methylmercury is low 393 in the catotelm because THg concentrations are low. The deep peat is also characterized by lower 394 microbial activity at depth due to environmental conditions. Organic monosulfides in the peatland 395 soil affecting the bioavailability of mercury in the porewater is likely restricted to the acrotelm and 396 mesotelm.

397

398 **3.4 Ester Sulfate as a Potential Substrate for Sulfur Reducing Mercury Methylators**

399 The depths at which the greatest average methylation rate constant, k_m, occurred was -10 cm to -400 20 cm and corresponded with the depth of the MeHg concentration maximum (Figures 3 and 4). 401 Within the mesotelm, there was high variability in k_m. The demethylation rate constant is variable 402 among replicates and has no significant differences with depth, so the depth profile can be 403 considered flat (Figure 4). The greatest net methylation potential, based on the ratio of k_m to k_d , 404 would occur at -10 to -20 cm depth whereas the greatest net demethylation potential would occur 405 above and below those depths (Figure 4). Between 2002 and 2012, the water table at the S1 bog is most often located between 0 cm and -30 cm 99 . 406

407	Total mercury concentration and methylation rate
408	constant values are strongly and positively
409	correlated $R_{Spearman} = 0.86$, p-value < 0.05 (Figure
410	S4: THg comparison plots with rate data) and this
411	correlation is consistent with previous findings
412	^{100,101} . Total mercury concentration and
413	demethylation rate constant values are moderately
414	and negatively correlated $(R_{Spearman} = -0.41, p-$
415	value < 0.05, Figure S4: THg comparison plots
416	with rate data). Methylmercury concentration and
417	the methylation rate constant values are strongly
418	and positively correlated ($R_{Spearman} = 0.67$, p-value
419	< 0.05, Figure S5: <u>MeHg comparison plots with</u>
420	rate data). This positive correlation is consistent
421	with a past study based in saltwater marshes where
422	the correlation between percent MeHg of THg and
423	the methylation rate constant was $R_{pearson} = 0.80^{29}$.
424	Methylmercury concentration and the
425	demethylation rate constant values are weakly and
426	negatively correlated ($R_{Spearman} = -0.39$, p-value <
427	0.05, Figure S5: MeHg comparison plots with rate
428	data).
429	



August 2016. Rate constant profiles from the S1 bog, August 2016. Rate constant (k_m) is the potential methylation constant (a), k_d is the potential demethylation constant (b), and k_{ratio} is calculated as $k_m \div k_d \times 100$ (c). Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Means with the same letter are not statistically different from each other ($p \ge 0.05$). Blue dashed line is the water table height on the day of sampling.

430 A unique finding in this study is that k_m was positively correlated to total oxidized organic sulfur 431 species and ester sulfate in peat ($R_{spearman} = 0.38$ and 0.56, respectively). The positive correlation 432 between ester sulfate and k_m provides evidence for ester sulfate being the reactant in the 433 microbially mediated methylation process via sulfate reduction. Inorganic sulfate was present in a 434 few of the samples but was not common (Tables S3: Proportions of sulfur species for hummocks 435 and S4: Proportions of sulfur species for hollows). This finding is consistent with past studies that 436 showed ester sulfate can be utilized by SRB as a terminal electron acceptor in the absence of inorganic sulfate ^{17,102–104}. Porewater sulfate pools are low (sub-µmol L⁻¹, Figure S6: Depth profiles 437 438 of mean porewater chemistry) so the positive correlation between k_m and solid phase ester sulfate 439 may indicate that the solid-phase sulfur pools, which have a much larger sulfur concentration 440 range, may be available to microbial activity or exchanging with the porewaters. Congruently, k_m 441 was negatively correlated with total reduced sulfur species ($R_{spearman} = -0.38$) indicating that as 442 sulfur is reduced, along with producing MeHg, potential methylation rates decrease.

443

444 A variety of biogeochemical pools and processes contribute to the abundance and speciation of 445 sulfur and mercury in an ombrotrophic peatland. Microorganisms and plants immobilize 446 atmospherically deposited sulfate as organic sulfur species through assimilatory and dissimilatory 447 sulfate reduction ^{105–108}. Sulfate reducing microbes are known to link sulfate reduction to formation of reactive hydrogen sulfide (H_2S_{aq}) and mercury methylation ^{24,83,109,110}. Several lines of evidence 448 449 in our findings suggest that dissimilatory sulfate reduction processes were important in the 450 subsurface peat. Porewater sulfate concentrations in hollows revealed a substantial decrease from 451 0 to -50 cm and high variability at -30 cm (Figure S6: Depth profiles of mean porewater chemistry). 452 At the same time, porewater profiles of total dissolved sulfide (H_2S_{aq} and HS_{aq}) showed maxima

at -30 cm suggesting the occurrence of sulfate reduction processes at this depth (Figure S6: Depth
profiles of mean porewater chemistry). As MeHg is produced as a co-product with hydrogen
sulfide, similar depths of maximum MeHg concentrations and maximum reduced sulfur species
are expected and substantiated by our data (Figures 2 and 3). Drying of peatland soils during low
water table events may oxidize these organic sulfur compounds and provide sulfate to fuel net
MeHg production following subsequent wetting events ¹⁵. Thus, dry-to-wet cycles can liberate
sulfate and create the potential for increased MeHg fluxes to surface waters ^{15,32,111,112}.

460

461 Our findings will serve as a time zero characterization of the SPRUCE project, a large-scale 462 temperature and elevated CO₂ manipulation experiment, which was fully initiated in 2016. We 463 anticipate that projected climate changes in the northern hemispheric boreal ecotone will change 464 mercury release from peatlands to downstream aquatic ecosystems and the atmosphere. For 465 instance, climate change and its associated effects on water table fluctuations may drive the 466 subsurface maxima in reduced organic sulfur concentrations, MeHg concentrations, and microbial 467 activity deeper into the peat. The net effect of these changes on mercury fluxes from peatlands 468 under climate warming is currently under investigation.

469

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495

496 Supporting Information

497 Detailed methods and supporting figures/tables are provided in the SI. This material is
498 available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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