



Mercury Methylation in paddy soil: Source and distribution of 1 mercury species at a Hg mining area, Guizhou Province, China

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13 Abstract.

14 Rice paddy plantation for human consumption is dominant land uses throughout Asia. Rice paddy fields 15 have been identified as important sites for methylmerucry (MeHg) production in the terrestrial 16 ecosystem, and a primary pathway of MeHg exposure to human in mercury (Hg) mining areas. We 17 compared the source and distribution of Hg species in different compartments of the rice paddy during a 18 complete rice-growing season at two different typical Hg-contaminated mining sites: an abandoned site with high Hg concentration in soil but low concentration in atmosphere, and a current-day artisanal 19 20 with low concentration in soil but high concentration in atmosphere. The contribution of new Hg to the 21 ecosystem from irrigation and atmospheric deposition was insignificant relative to the pool of old Hg; 22 the dominant source of MeHg to paddy soil is in situ methylation of inorganic Hg. Elevated MeHg





concentrations jointly with the high proportion of Hg as MeHg in paddy water and the surface soil layer 1 2 at the artisanal site demonstrated active Hg methylation at this site only. We propose that the in situ production of MeHg is dependent on elevated IHg the atmosphere, and the deposition of new Hg into 3 4 a low pH anoxic geochemical system. In contrast, the absence of depth-dependent variability in the 5 MeHg concentration in soil cores collected from abandoned Hg mining site, consistent with the low 6 concentration of Hg in atmospheric deposition and high pH of the paddy water/irrigation water, 7 suggested that the net production of MeHg was limited. We also propose that the concentration of Hg in 8 ambient air is an indicator for the risk of MeHg accumulation in paddy rice.

9 1 Introduction

10 Reports that rice (Oryza sativa) is a bioaccumulator species of MeHg have recently focussed scientific 11 attention on this important agricultural crop (Qiu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010a; Meng et al., 2010, 12 2011, 2014). Numerous studies have reported high MeHg concentrations in rice grain collected from Indonesia (Krisnayanti et al., 2012) and different parts of China (Qiu et al., 2008; H=at et al., 2003; 13 14 Meng et al., 2014) and the MeHg concentrations in rice grain can be enhanced even in cases where soil 15 is not significantly elevated in Hg (Zhang et al., 2010a; Horvat et al., 2003). A common theme to these 16 studies is a high flux of Hg into the environment through mining or other industrial contamination that 17 discharges into the atmosphere.

18 Rice paddy plantation is one of the most prevalent land uses in South and East Asia where rice is the 19 dominant foodstuff (FAO, 2002). Rice throughout Asia is generally cultivated in paddy soil and this land use represents an ephemeral wetland, which is known to be a significant environment for Hg 20 21 methylation. MeHg accumulated throughout a rice plant during the growing season can be readily 22 translocated to grain during rice-seed ripening (Meng et al., 2011). Rice paddy fields have therefore 23 been identified as important sources of MeHg in the terrestrial ecosystem (Meng et al., 2010, 2011), and 24 a primary vector for human exposure to MeHg in Hg mining areas (Feng et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010b). 25

The general consensus among Hg researchers is that soil is the principle source of MeHg in rice plants, whereas Hg from the ambient air is the principal source of Π_{ke} n rice grain (Meng et $\equiv 2010, 2011,$





1 2012, 2014). Recently, Meng et al. (2010, 2011) suggested that newly deposited Hg is more readily 2 transformed to MeHg and accumulated in rice plants than Hg forms with an extended residence time in 3 mining-contaminated soil. Meng et al. (2010) focused on the Wanshan area of China, a region of both historical large s and current small-scale mercury mining. The concentration of MeHg in rice grain 4 collected from artisanal Hg mining areas was shown to be significantly higher than that in rice grain 5 6 collected from abandoned Hg mining areas (Meng et al., 2010). Despite these reported observations, the 7 biochemical processes that control the cycling of Hg in paddy soils impacted by Hg mining are poorly 8 understood.

9 All reports on MeHg and rice emphasize that the concentration and distribution of Hg in ambient air, 10 wet/dry deposition, irrigation water, and solid and liquid phases of soil are important factors that control 11 the biochemical cycling of Hg within rice paddy ecosystems impacting by mining activities. These 12 factors in turn impact the absorption, transportation, and accumulation of Hg in rice plants (Meng et al., 13 2010, 2011, 2012, 2014; Rothenberg and Feng, 2012; Liu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Peng et al., 14 2012). Past studies have focused on the source, distribution, and accumulation of IHg and MeHg in rice 15 plant, but, no study has presented results from a systemic survey of the concentration of Hg fractions in 16 the rice paddy ecosystem. Such a study is necessary to mitigate against the risk for MeHg formation in 17 paddy soil where a rice crop is being grown in a Hg contaminated area. Better understanding of the 18 distribution of Hg species in paddy soils within a Hg mining area is necessary to underpin more reliable 19 risk assessment and appropriate strategies to remediate contaminated soil.

20 To expand our knowledge of the biochemical processes that affect Hg we assessed the status of Hg 21 species in different compartments of the rice paddy ecosystem. We measured the concentration of Hg 22 species in ambient air, atmospheric deposition, irrigation water, paddy water, and soil cores at two 23 contrasting Hg mining sites during a complete rice-growing season to quantify the distribution and 24 origin of Hg species in the rice paddy. The relative contribution of different Hg vectors to the surface 25 pool of soil Hg was subsequently estimated. The primary objectives of our study were to 1)-investigate 26 the speciation and distribution of Hg in the paddy soil, and 2) to assess the primary source and 27 mechanism for transformation of Hg species within paddy soil at a Hg mining area. Documenting Hg 28 cycling in rice paddy ecosystems within Hg mining areas is an important step towards better assessing





1 potential health threats that may be associated with the cultivation of rice in a Hg-contaminated 2 environment.

3 2 Materials and methods

4 2.1 Site description

5 This study was conducted in the Wanshan Hg mining district, Guizhou province, Sourthwest China, 6 where historical large-scale Hg smelting combined with current artisanal Hg smelting activities have 7 resulted in Hg contamination of ambient air, water, soil, sediment, and biota (Qiu et al., 2005; Li et al., 8 2008, 2009). Two Hg contaminated sites within the Wanshan Hg mining district were selected for this 9 study: an artisanal Hg mining site (Gouxi); and an abandoned Hg mining site (Wukeng) (Fig. 1). The 10 sampling sites of Gouxi and Wukeng are situated within the Wanshan district which experiences 11 subtropical monsoon-type weather with an average annual rainfall of 1200-1400 mm and a perennial 12 mean temperature of 17 °C. Historical Hg mining activities in the Wanshan area can be dated back to 13 the Qin Dynasty (221 B.C.) but large-scale mining activities officially ceased in 2001. Mining activity across Wanshan generated an estimated cumulative 1.0×10^8 tons of calcine and waste rock between 14 15 1949 and the 1990s. Recently, illegal artisanal Hg and small-scale mining activities have been revived 16 due to an increase in the global Hg price and domestic demand.

The Gouxi artisanal Hg mining site is located to the north of Wanshan town (Fig. 1). Small-scale artisanal smelting was ongoing during the rice growing seasons of 2012 when the samples for the current study were collected. Mercury is released into the atmosphere during artisanal smelting and is subsequently deposited onto nearby rice paddy fields through wet and dry deposition. The Wukeng sampling site is located north east of Wanshan town at an abandoned Hg mining area where large quantities of calcines were deposited along the river.

Paddy field rice is the primary agricultural land use at both Gouxi and Wukeng. Field sampling for the current research focused on two 10×10 m plots (one at each site) within rice paddies that were established according to the following methodology: The rice paddies were flooded on 10^{th} May; rice seedlings (hybrid rice) widely grown throughout Guizhou province were transplanted into the





submerged soil 20 days after flooding (1 plant each 25×25 cm area on 1st June, defined as Day 0). 1 Thereafter, the two experimental plots were cultivated during the period 1st June through 10th September 2 (100 days) 2012. Standing water (2-8 cm) was maintained above the soil surface (flooded condition) 3 throughout the growing period, from Day 0 to Day 80. The paddy fields were thereafter drained from 4 Day 80, prior to harvest between Days 90 to 100. During the 10 days draining period, approximately 2-5 6 4 cm depth of water was maintained above the soil surface. The paddy plots received water through 7 precipitation and stream water irrigation, while evaporation and seepage were the primary vectors for 8 water loss. There was no outflow from either paddy.

9 **2.2** Sample collection and preparation

Five consecutive sampling campaigns were conducted during the rice growing season (1st June-10th September, 2012). The first sampling was initiated 20 days after the plants were planted out (20th June, 2012; Day 20), and thereafter samples were collected on Days 40, 60, 80, and 100 (Day 100 was 10th September, 2012; final harvest). The Hg concentration in ambient air was measured at each sampling time, and a sample of cumulative precipitation, irrigation water, paddy water, and soil cores were collected at each time. The paddy fields were dry from Day 90, and therefore irrigation water, paddy water, and soil pore water samples were not collected on Day 100.

17 2.2.1 Mercury in ambient air and wet/dry deposition

The concentration of total gaseous mercury (TGM, Hg⁰) in ambient air at both Gouxi and Wukeng was measured in the field at each sampling time using an automated Hg vapor analyzer (LUMEX, RA-915⁺, Ohio Lumex Co., Twinsburg, OH) with detection limit of 2 ng m³. The average Hg⁰ concentration during a 10 s interval was quantified and stored in a portable computer. At each sampling time, measurements were carried out continuously for at least one hour period; therefore, <u>3</u>60 data points (10 s reading) were collected at each location at each sampling time.

An integrated bulk precipitation sampler based on the design of Guo et al. (2008) was used in the field to quantify the concentration of Hg in cumulative precipitation (Oslo and Paris, 1998). Both dry and wet atmospheric deposition were collected concurrently with the TGM measurement once every 20 days





using this sampling method. Samples collected at each site were poured into two 100 mL pre-cleaned
 borosilicate glass bottles for direct and unfiltered total Hg (HgT_{unf}) and total MeHg (MeHg_{unf}) analysis.

3 2.2.2 Irrigation water and paddy water

4 Samples of irrigation water at both Gouxi and Wukeng were collected at rice paddy inlets on Days 20, 5 40, 60, and 80. All water samples were collected by hand using ultra-clean handling protocols and 6 stored in acid-cleaned borosilicate glass bottles. Each bottle was rinsed three times with irrigation water 7 on site before sample collection. Filtered samples were collected on site using a 0.45 µm disposable 8 polycarbonate filter unit (Millipore), and subsequently analyzed for dissolved total Hg concentrations 9 (HgT_f) and dissolved MeHg concentration (MeHg_f). In addition, unfiltered irrigation water samples 10 were siphoned into pre-cleaned borosilicate glass bottles using a disposable syringe and analyzed for 11 total Hg (HgT_{unf}) and MeHg (MeHg_{unf}).

12 Paddy water (overlying water) and corresponding soil pore water samples at both Wukeng and Gouxi 13 were collected at the centre of the two plots on Days 20, 40, 60, and 80, simultaneously with the irrigation water collection. Firstly, an undisturbed soil core was collected at each sampling site by 14 15 pushing a pre-cleaned 6-cm diameter polycarbonate core tube into the soil to approximately 20 cm 16 depth. The paddy water (0-8 cm above the soil surface) in the core tube was siphoned into a 200 ml pre-17 cleaned borosilicate glass bottles. One aliquot of the paddy water was then filtered into a 100 ml precleaned borosilicate glass bottle using a 0.45 µm disposable polycarbonate filter unit (Millipore), and 18 19 subsequently analyzed for HgT_f and MeHg_f. A second aliquot of paddy water for HgT_{unf} and MeHg_{unf} analysis was immediately transferred into another 100 ml pre-cleaned borosilicate glass bottle. 20

General Water Quality Characteristics of irrigation water and paddy water including pH, dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration, and temperature (T) were measured *in situ* using a portable analyzer. All water samples were promptly acidified on site to 0.5% (v/v) using adequate volumes of ultra-pure concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl). The sample bottles were then capped, sealed with Parafilm[®], double-bagged, transported to the laboratory in an ice-cooled container to the lab within 24 h. Prior to Hg analysis, samples were stored in a refrigerator at +4 °C in the dark.





1 2.2.3 Soil pore water (liquid phase) and soil core (liquid phase+solid phase)

The soil cores were immediately sliced on site into 2 cm intervals using a plastic cutter in an oxygen-2 3 free glove box under argon. The soil samples were placed in acid-cleaned 50-ml plastic centrifuge tubes, capped and sealed with Parafilm[®]. All samples were transported in an ice-cooled container to the lab 4 within 24 h and stored at 3-4 °C for further laboratory processes. Following centrifugation (30 min, 5 3000 r min⁻¹, and 5 °C), the samples were returned to the glove box where the pore water was then 6 7 filtered through 0.45 µm disposable nitrocellulose filter unit. The filtrate was stored in borosilicate glass bottles and divided for HgT_f and MeHg_f analysis. The water content of soil cores was estimated by 8 9 weight loss.

10 At each sampling site and at each sampling time a second soil core was collected, and immediately 11 placed into liquid nitrogen. This second set of soil cores was transported in a liquid nitrogen-iced container to the lab within 24 h and then sliced at 2 cm intervals. The sliced soil cores were then freeze-12 13 dried, prior to homogenisation to 200 mesh with a mortar and pestle for analysis of total Hg (THg) and 14 MeHg. The concentration of each Hg species in this second set of soil cores is therefore the sum of both 15 liquid and solid phase. Precautions were taken to avoid cross-contamination during sample processing; 16 the mortar and pestle were thoroughly cleaned after each sample with drinking water followed by 17 deionized water rinses. The powdered samples were subsequently packed into plastic dishes, sealed in 18 polyethylene bags and stored in a refrigerator within desiccators for subsequent laboratory analysis.

19 **2.3 Sample analysis**

All reagents used in this study were of guaranteed quality purchased from Shanghai Chemicals Co.(Shanghai, China).

22 2.3.1 Total Hg and MeHg in soil samples

For THg analysis, a soil sample (0.1-0.2 g) was digested using a fresh mixture of HCl and HNO₃ (1:3, v/v). THg was determined by cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectrometry (CVAFS, Tekran 2500,





1 Tekran Instruments) preceded by BrCl oxidation, $SnCl_2$ reduction, pre-concentration, and thermo-2 reduction to Hg⁰ (U.S. EPA, 2002).

For MeHg analysis, a soil sample (0.3-0.4 g) was prepared using the CuSO₄-methanol/solvent 3 extraction (Liang et al., 1996). MeHg in samples was extracted with methylene chloride, then back-4 5 extracted from the solvent phase into an aqueous ethyl phase. The ethyl analog of MeHg, 6 methylethylHg (CH₃CH₃CH₂Hg), was separated from solution by purging with N₂ onto a Tenax trap. 7 The trapped CH₃CH₃CH₂Hg was then thermally desorbed, separated from other Hg species by an isothermal gas chromatography (GC) column, decomposed to Hg⁰ in a pyrolytic decomposition column 8 (800°C), and analyzed by CVAFS (Brooks Rand Model III, Brooks Rand Labs, U.S.A.) following 9 10 method 1630 (U.S. EPA, 2001).

11 **2.3.2** Total Hg and MeHg in water samples

12 The analysis of Hg species in water samples was conducted within three weeks of sampling. The HgT_{unf} 13 and HgT_f concentration in water samples was quantified using dual amalgamation CVAFS (Tekran 14 2500, Tekran Inc., Toronto, Ontario, Canada) following approved methodology (U.S. EPA, 2002). 15 Samples for HgT_{unf} and HgT_f analysis were oxidized with 0.5% (ν/ν) BrCl (bromine chloride). Excess BrCl was reduced with hydroxyl-ammonium chloride before adding SnCl₂ (stannous chloride) to 16 convert Hg²⁺ to volatile Hg⁰. The Hg⁰ was trapped by gold amalgamation (U.S. EPA, 2002). Water 17 samples were analyzed for MeHg using CVAFS (Brooks Rand Model III, Brooks Rand Labs, Seattle, 18 19 WA, USA) following distillation, aqueous phase ethylation, and isothermal GC separation (U.S. EPA, 20 2001).

21 2.4 Quality control

Quantification for THg and MeHg in soil and water samples was conducted using daily calibration curves with the coefficient of variation $(r^2) \ge 0.99$. Quality control and assurance measurements for all analytes were performed using triplicates, method detection limits, field blanks, matrix spike recoveries, and certified reference materials. Field blanks of water samples were 0.12 ng L⁻¹ and 0.011 ng L⁻¹ for THg and MeHg. The method detection limits (3× σ) were 0.02 µg kg⁻¹ for THg and 0.002 µg kg⁻¹ for





MeHg in soil samples; 0.02 ng L⁻¹ for THg and 0.01 ng L⁻¹ for MeHg in water samples. The precision 1 and bias for triplicate samples were less than 7.5% for THg and MeHg analysis for both water and soil 2 samples. Recoveries for matrix spikes in water samples ranged from 88 to 108 % for THg analysis, and 3 4 from 86 to 113% for MeHg. The following certified reference materials were employed: Montana soil 5 (SRM-2710, National Institute of Standards and Technology), Loamy Sand 1 (CRM024-050, Resource Technology Corporation), Sandy Loam 3 (CRM021-100, Resource Technology Corporation), and 6 Sediment (BCR-580, Institute for Reference Materials and Measurements). The results of the certified 7 8 reference material analysis are shown in Table 1.

9 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 13.0 software (SPSS). Mercury concentrations in 10 samples are described by the analysed mean \pm standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise stated. 11 Relationships between covariant sets of data were subjected to regression analysis. Correlation 12 coefficients (*r*) and significance probabilities (*p*) were computed for the linear regression fits. 13 Differences are declared as significant for *p*< 0.05. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S) and Kruskal-Wallis 14 test (K-W) were processed for comparing the significant difference between the two or more 15 independent datasets.

16 **3** Results and Discussion

17 **3.1** Mercury in ambient air and precipitation

The average TGM concentration in ambient air over the 100 days rice season at Gouxi (403 ± 399 ng m⁻³) was significantly higher than that at Wukeng (28 ± 13 ng m⁻³) and the regional background (6.2 ± 3.0 ng m⁻³) (Table 2). Serious Hg contamination of air was therefore observed at Gouxi during the monitoring period. The elevated TGM concentration in ambient air at Gouxi compared to Wukeng and the regional background area (Huaxi) is attributed to the emission of TGM₂ from nearby artisanal Hg smelters (Meng et al., 2010; Li et al., 2008, 2009).

24 During the rice growing season, the HgT_{unf} concentration in precipitation at Gouxi was highly elevated

25 (mean=2599±1874 ng L⁻¹), and 1-3 orders of magnitude higher than that recorded for Wukeng

26 (mean=445±296 ng L⁻¹) and the regional background concentration at Huaxi (mean=27±17 ng L⁻¹)

27 (Table 2). The relative concentration of Hg in precipitation between the three sites was comparable to





the concentration of Hg in the ambient air suggesting that elevated Hg in precipitation at Gouxi can be
 linked to the ongoing Hg smelting activities. Mercury in precipitation is therefore a function of the
 enhanced flux of both dry and wet deposition of Hg from the atmosphere.

4 The MeHg_{unf} concentration in precipitation collected from the two sites (Gouxi; 0.48 ± 0.20 ng L⁻¹;

5 Wukeng: 0.30 ± 0.15 ng L⁻¹) was similar to the regional background concentration of MeHg (0.28 ± 0.14 6 ng L⁻¹) in these compartments (Table 2). Furthermore, there was no difference in MeHg_{unf} concentration 7 between the two sampling sites during the rice growing season (*K-S*, test, *p*>0.05). These results 8 confirm previous suggestions that atmospheric deposition is responsible for the flux of inorganic Hg but 9 not MeHg to mining areas where artisanal Hg mining is ongoing (Meng et al., 2011).

10 **3.2** Mercury in irrigation water and paddy water

The concentration of Hg in irrigation water and paddy water across the two sampling sites is presented in Table 2. Paddy fields selected in this study were irrigated with local stream water with a high concentration of Hg due to the contaminated of the streams with calcines and tailings. During the rice growing season, irrigation water at Wukeng had a significantly higher HgT_{unf} (mean=513±215 ng L⁻¹) and MeHg_{unf} (1.1±1.7 ng L⁻¹) concentration than at Gouxi (mean-HgT_{unf}=159±67 ng L⁻¹; mean MeHg_{unf}=0.75±0.65 ng L⁻¹). Mercury concentrations in irrigation water at both sites were significantly higher than the regional background (p<0.05).

18 Clear differences were observed between the two sites with regard to MeHg concentration and the ratio 19 of MeHgunf/HgTunf in paddy water. The highest values of MeHgunf in paddy water were all observed at Gouxi (mean=5.9±4.4), whereas sampling at Wukeng (mean=0.48±0.63) maintained a relatively low 20 21 MeHg concentration in paddy water throughout the rice growing season when compared with the 22 eorresponding data from Gouxi. The ratio of MeHg to total Hg is recognized as a measure of Hg 23 methylation efficiency (Sunderland et al., 2006). In our study, the MeHg_{unf}/HgT_{unf} ratio was up to 11 % 24 (MeHgunf/HgTunf) for paddy water at Gouxi and the mean-MeHgunf/HgTunf ratio for this water 25 compartment was significantly higher than the corresponding data for irrigation water (mean= 0.71 ± 0.93) 26 and precipitation (mean= 0.031 ± 0.028) (Table 2). However, there was no significant difference between 27 the MeHg_{unf}/HgT_{unf} ratios for the various water compartments at Wukeng (K-W test, p>0.05). These





1 results imply active net Hg methylation paddy fields at Gouxi but not at Wukeng.

2 **3.3 Mercury in soil profiles**

3 3.3.1 Hg in soil pore water

4 The vertical distribution of HgT_f and MeHg_f in pore water was monitored over four successive time 5 intervals during the rice growing season (Fig. 2). The distribution of pore water HgT_f as a function of depth was different to pore water MeHgf at both sampling sites. The mean concentration of HgTf in 6 pore water samples over the 100 days rice growing season was 142 ± 111 ng L⁻¹ (range: 15-460 ng L⁻¹) at 7 Gouxi and $180\pm160 \text{ ng } \text{L}^{-1}$ (range: 38-916 ng L^{-1}) at Wukeng. The highest concentration of HgT_f in pore 8 9 water was observed at the soil surface layer (top 2cm), and decreased with depth at both sampling sites. The HgT_f concentration in pore water at Gouxi was consistent with respect to time; and showed no 10 significant difference between the different sampling dates (K-W test, p>0.05). However, the 11 12 concentration of HgT_f in pore water at Wukeng was time-dependent, with the highest concentration in surface layer recorded $\frac{1}{100}$ Day 20, and the lowest $\frac{1}{100}$ Day 80 13

The maximum concentration of MeHg_f in soil pore water (15 ng L^{-1}) was observed at sampling site of 14 Gouxi, which was approximately 2.3 times highen than the corresponding data (6.6 ng L⁻¹) at Wukeng. 15 16 The MeHg concentration in soil pore water collected from Gouxi was significantly higher than that for 17 Wukeng throughout the 100 days-monitoring (K-S test, p < 0.01) suggesting different rates of net Hg 18 methylation between the Gouxi and Wukeng sites. The concentration of MeHg_f in pore water was general highest in the surface soil at Gouxi, and then sharply declined from a depth of 4 cm. However, 19 20 the vertical distributions of $MeHgT_f$ in soil pore water of Wukeng showed little variation, with the 21 exception of small (unexplained) peaks at 10 cm for ay 20 and at 6 cm for Day 60. The proportion of 22 pore water HgT_f that was MeHg_f (MeHg_f/HgT_f) ranged from 0.50 to 8.7 % (mean value of $2.6\pm1.7\%$) 23 and from 0.089 to 4.8 % (mean value of 1.6±1.1%) at Gouxi and Wukeng respectively. Regression 24 analysis revealed a significant and positive correlation between HgT_f and $MeHg_f$ at Gouxi (r=0.75, 25 p < 0.001, n=40) but not for Wukeng (r=0.22, p=0.17, n=40) (Fig. 3), suggesting a mechanistic 26 relationship between these two Hg species at the artisanal mining site only.





1 3.3.2 Mercury in soil cores

2 The concentration and distribution of THg as a function of depth in soil cores at Gouxi and Wukeng is 3 shown in Fig. 4. Over the rice growing season, the mean concentrations of THg in soil was 3.2±0.75 mg kg^{-1} (0.88-4.4 mg kg⁻¹) and 38±4.8 mg kg⁻¹ (27-48 mg kg⁻¹) at Gouxi and Wukeng, respectively. The 4 THg concentration in paddy soil collected from both Wukeng and Gouxi was higher than the domestic 5 environmental quality standard for paddy fields in China (0.5 mg kg⁻¹) (GB15618-2008), and 6 7 considered non-suitable for agricultural or residential use according to the level III criterion (1.5 mg kg⁻ ¹) in the Chinese national standard for soil environmental quality. The THg concentration in soil cores 8 9 showed no significant difference with depth although there was a nominal trend towards decreasing 10 concentration at Gouxi. For all depths the THg concentration in soil was elevated at Wukeng relative to Gouxi, indicating a greater degree of historic contamination at Wukeng as a function of a long period of 11 12 commercial mining activities.

13 In contrast, the MeHg concentration in soil cores showed significant variation with depth and time (Fig. 14 4). The MeHg concentration in soil cores at Gouxi showed a maximum value at the water-soil interface 15 and decreased with depth for sampling from Day 20 to Day 80. For Day 100, however, there was no 16 recorded increase in surface MeHg concentration. We believe this observation reflects active net Hg 17 methylation in the soil surface layer at Gouxi throughout the flooded period (from Day 20 to Day 80). 18 The MeHg concentration in Wukeng soil cores showed very little variation with depth, and the MeHg 19 concentration at this site, for all depths, was significantly lower than at Gouxi (K-S test, p < 0.001). Recorded MeHg concentrations at the top of the Gouxi soil profile varied from 0.76 ng g^{-1} to 6.2 ng g^{-1} , 20 but remained relatively stable at Wukeng (range: 0.80-3.8 ng g⁻¹). Comparison of the MeHg 21 22 concentration and distribution patterns between the two sites supports the hypothesis of active Hg 23 methylation in the Gouxi soil only.

Changing redox parameters over the rice growing season may affect the process of Hg methylation.
Previous studies have observed that in artificially Hg-polluted soil, the bioavailability of Hg to
methylation can be significantly affected by the level of water saturation (Rothenberg and Feng, 2012;
Wang et al., 2014; Peng et al., 2012). Peng et al. (2012) specified that intermittent flooding, as opposed





to continuous flooding, could reduce soluble Hg concentrations and inhibit Hg methylation in the rice 1 rhizosphere, subsequently decreasing the accumulation of MeHg in rice grain. Flooded conditions 2 3 enhance anaerobic microbial activities and increase MeHg yields. Drying of a paddy field is an 4 important cultivation step to control rice plant tillering and increase yield. Therefore, one possible reason for the considerably elevated MeHg concentrations in soil at Gouxi between Day 20 and Day 80 5 6 relative to Day 100 is an enhancement of Hg bioavailability under flooded conditions that stimulated 7 Hg methylation, and increased the soil MeHg concentration (Wang et al., 2014). As the paddy field dried from Day 80, some degree of net MeHg degradation may have occurred. This likely contributed to 8 9 a decreasing trend in soil MeHg concentration during the harvest period.

10 The profile of MeHg concentration with depth for the Wukeng site indicates limited MeHg production 11 in this soil despite a significantly higher THg concentration when compared with Gouxi. The average 12 concentration of THg in soil cores collected from Gouxi was 1 order of magnitude lower that at 13 Wukeng, whereas the MeHg concentration in soil cores at Gouxi was significantly higher than at 14 Wukeng (K-S test, p < 0.001) during the rice growing season. Further comparison reveals that the 15 average MeHg concentration in the surface soil layer (2 cm) at Gouxi was approximately 3 times higher 16 than that at Wukeng. To explain this apparent anomaly, differences in the source and pool of Hg at each 17 site need to be considered.

18 **3.4** The relative contribution of different vectors to the surface pool of soil Hg

Using enriched stable isotopes, Hintelmann et al. (2002) examined the fate and relative importance of newly deposited Hg in a forest ecosystem. They showed that newly deposited Hg was mainly stored in the uppermost soil layer (<3 cm) after three months of simulative deposition, suggesting that a large fraction of newly deposited Hg is not immediately mobile. Munthe et al. (2001) observed that Hg deposited in the dissolved form is incorporated into the uppermost soil layer and is retained there. Citing this evidence we propose that Hg derived from atmospheric deposition and irrigation water (with a greater flux for Gouxi) was restricted to the surface soil layer throughout the rice growing season.





In order to access the proportional input of the various sources of Hg to paddy fields, we estimated the relative contribution of different Hg vectors (atmospheric- and irrigation-derived Hg, and native Hg) to the surface soil. We chose to select the uppermost 2 cm as the principle sink for new soil Hg (Hintelmann et al., 2002; Munthe et al., 2001). To avoid confusion in the naming of the various Hg pools, we refer to deposited Hg as 'new Hg'. Mercury already present in the soil is termed 'old Hg', which can be either of geogenic and anthropogenic origin. The current study did not attempt to distinguish between these two sources of old Hg.

8 We assume 1) that during the flooded period of the rice growing season, the depth of overlying water 9 remained the same, i.e. that an equilibrium existed between irrigation and water loss; and 2) that all Hg 10 species derived from deposition or irrigation entered into the surface layer of paddy soil and there was 11 no loss. Using these assumptions we derived the following equations to quantify the relative 12 contribution of different sources of Hg to the surface soil layer based on the measured Hg concentration 13 in atmospheric deposition, irrigation water, and soil:

$$14 \qquad R_p = \frac{M_p \times A \times C_p \times 10^{-3}}{C_S \times W} \tag{1}$$

15
$$R_{w} = \frac{M_{W} \times A \times C_{w} \times 10^{-3}}{C_{s} \times W}$$
(2)

16
$$R_n = 1 - R_p + R_w$$
 (3)

where, R_p , R_w , and R_n are the relative contribution of deposition, irrigation, and native sources to the Hg content of the surface soil layer, respectively; M_p is cumulative rainfall during the rice growing season (17.76 cm); M_w is the amount of irrigation water during the rice growing season (cm); C_p and C_w are the concentration of Hg (e.g. HgT_{unf} and MeHg_{unf}) in deposition and irrigation water (ng L⁻¹); C_s is the concentration of Hg species (e.g. THg and MeHg) in the surface soil layer (ng g⁻¹); W is the mass of the specific surface soil layer (g); and A is the cross-sectional area of the soil core (cm²).

The amount of the irrigation water during the rice growing season can be calculated using the following
equation (Lan et al., 2010):

25
$$M_w + M_p = M_d + M_e + M_i + M_t + M_o$$
 (4)





1 where, M_d is water demand by rice during the rice growing season; M_e is amount of water lost by 2 evaporation; M_i is amount of water lost by infiltration; M_t is amount of water lost water by transpiration; 3 M_o is amount of water lost by other pathways. According to published literature, values for M_d , M_e , M_i , 4 M_t , and M_o specific to the study area are 34 cm, 40 cm, 0.45 cm, 1.4 cm, and 0.38 cm, respectively (Lan 5 et al., 2010).

6 Using equations 1-3, the relative contribution of the different sources of Hg in the soil surface layer 7 were calculated and are presented in Table 3. The MeHg content of the surface soil attributable to atmospheric deposition (Gouxi=3.32 mg ha⁻¹; Wukeng=2.07 mg ha⁻¹) and irrigation (Gouxi=1.33 mg 8 ha⁻¹; Wukeng=3.02 mg ha⁻¹) was orders of magnitude smaller than the amount of native MeHg already 9 present in the paddy soil (Gouxi=508 mg ha⁻¹, Wukeng=382 mg ha⁻¹). Only 0.65% of total MeHg in the 10 surface soil layer at Gouxi and 0.54% at Wukeng was assessed as being from atmospheric deposition, 11 while 0.79 % of total MeHg at Wukeng and 0.26 % at Gouxi was attributed to irrigation. A similar low 12 13 contribution of atmospheric deposition at irrigation water was apparent for THg. Our calculations 14 therefore show that despite the highly elevated Hg concentration in atmospheric deposition and irrigation water, the contribution of new Hg (MeHg and THg) from external sources was small because 15 of the relatively large pool of old Hg in (Dai et al., 2013). Therefore, we propose that the dominant 16 17 source of MeHg to the surface soil layer is *in situ* methylation of inorganic Hg.

18 **3.5** Source and mechanism for Hg transformation in paddy field soils

19 The mean concentration of HgT_{unf} in paddy water at Wukeng was 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than 20 that at Gouxi, whereas the MeHg_{unf} concentration in paddy water at Gouxi was approximately 12 times 21 higher than that at Wukeng. Furthermore, the concentration of MeHg in paddy water at Wukeng was 22 significantly higher than that in precipitation, but slightly lower than in irrigation water. The sampling 23 site for the Wukeng paddy was located next to calcine piles and the proximity of this waste had a major 24 impact on water chemistry. Both the irrigation water ($pH=11\pm0.45$) and paddy water ($pH=8.6\pm1.3$) 25 were alkaline during the rice growing season (Table 4). We propose that the alkaline conditions of the 26 irrigation and paddy water at Wukeng could restrain Hg methylation and/or stimulate MeHg 27 demethylation (Rothenberg and Feng, 2012; Ullrich et al., 2001). The eoncentration of MeHg_{unf} in



paddy water at Gouxi was significantly higher than the concentration in either the precipitation or the
irrigation water and this implies active Hg methylation within the Gouxi rice paddy. Both paddy water
and irrigation water at Gouxi exhibit a pH that can be considered optimal for Hg methylation (Table 4),
favouring net methylation in the paddy fields (Ullrich et al., 2001).

5 During the rice growing season, HgT_{unf} in paddy water exceeded the EPA water-quality criterion of 50 ng L⁻¹ (U.S. EPA, 2000). No regulatory criterion for MeHg exists, but Rudd (1995) suggested that 6 MeHg above a concentration of 0.1 ng L^{-1} is elevated and is likely to lead to significant MeHg 7 bioaccumulation. During the rice growing season, photo demethylation can reduce paddy water MeHg. 8 However, the MeHg concentration in both filtered and unfiltered paddy water samples at both sites 9 exceeded 0.1 ng L⁻¹ (Table 2), confirming that rice paddies across the Hg mining area are an exposure 10 pathway for MeHg and may have direct implications for human and wildlife health. Previous studies 11 12 have indicated that vertebrates and fish cultivated in flooded rice paddies will accumulate MeHg to 13 critical threshold levels within 30 days (Ackerman et al., 2010a, 2010b). In rice paddy fields that 14 combine rice and fish cultivation, potential co-exposure of MeHg through rice and fish consumption 15 should receive more attention (Qiu et al., 2008; Feng et al., 2008; Lansing and Kremer, 2011).

16 Our finding that MeHg concentrations in surface soil at Gouxi were much higher than those at Wukeng 17 indicate that newly deposited mercury can be expected to rapidly methylate after deposition. The peak 18 concentration of MeHg in paddy soil at Gouxi, was at the soil-water interface and decreased with depth. 19 We believe that restricted supply of newly deposited Hg to depths below the soil-water interface is a 20 plausible explanation for the sharply reducing concentration of MeHg with depth at Gouxi; newly 21 deposited Hg is constrained to surface soil and cannot be transferred to lower depth. However, 22 stimulated MeHg production due to favorable geochemical conditions (pH) at Gouxi, while likely of 23 lesser importance, cannot be excluded.

The Wukeng site has received significant historic Hg deposition as a function of large scale mining, but is not currently receiving significant inputs of fresh Hg. Atmosphere-derived mercury is physically unstable and bioavailable when it first enters the rice paddy (Hintelmann et al., 2002; Schuster, 2011). Immediate reactions of this new Hg with soil constituents are governed by adsorption-desorption interactions with soil surfaces (Schuster, 1991) which favour the retention of Hg in the surface layers of





the soil profile. Over time this newly deposited Hg will be transformed into more stable, less available forms (Schuster, 1991), and the net methylation potential of this Hg will consequently decrease. The relatively low MeHg concentration in soil at Wukeng is indicative of old Hg which has become tightly bound to soil complexes over time, and is unavailable for methylation (Hintelmann et al., 2002). Our data indicates that the concentration of THg in soil is not a reliable indicator of Hg methylation potential in soil. Instead the concentration of bioavailable or new Hg must be considered, in agreement with the findings of Meng et al. (2010, 2011)

8 **3.6** Implications of this work to environmental risk assessment

9 Elevated MeHg concentrations combined with an elevated MeHg% in surface soil in this work infer 10 active Hg methylation processes are occurring in Gouxi rice paddy soil. The rate of Hg methylation is a 11 function of an elevated concentration of Hg in atmosphere and the low pH of irrigation water/paddy 12 water. The absence of depth-dependent variability in the MeHg concentration in soil cores at Wukeng is 13 consistent with the low concentration of Hg in ambient air and corresponding atmospheric deposition, 14 and high pH of the paddy water/irrigation water. The in situ production of MeHg in Wukeng soil, 15 despite the elevated concentration of THg blow. Our results demonstrate that soil is the primary source of MeHg for paddy rice, and elevated MeHg in rice pose a potential threat to wildlife and local 16 17 residents. Mercury in surface soil that has been derived from atmospheric deposition is susceptible to 18 methylation in the rice paddy ecosystem immediately after deposition. Consequently, net MeHg 19 production is principally governed by the supply of fresh deposited Hg to soil and the pH conditions 20 therein. The relationship between MeHg and fresh deposited Hg implies that the concentration of Hg in 21 ambient air could be used as a monitoring tool to assess the relative risk of MeHg production in the rice 22 paddy environment, and the possible risk to human health that may be associated with the accumulation 23 of this MeHg in rice grain.

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- 11





- 1 Table 1. List of certified reference materials used in the present study and corresponding analytical
- 2 result.

Producer	CRM	n	Hg speciation	Obtained value	Certified value
NIST	SRM-2710	10	THg (mg kg ⁻¹)	32.4±0.7	32.6±1.8
RTC	CRM024-050	10	THg (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.70±0.02	0.71
RTC	CRM021-100	10	THg (mg kg ⁻¹)	4.73±0.15	4.7
IRMM*	BCR-580	20	MeHg (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.070 ± 0.007	0.075±0.004

3 IRMM: Institute for Reference Materials and Measurements

4 NIST: National Institute of Standards and Technology.

5 RTC: Resource Technology Corporation





1

- Table 2. Hg in ambient air, precipitation, irrigation water, and overlying water at artisanal Hg mining
- 2 site, abandoned Hg mining site, and regional background of Huaxi (mean±SD)

Sample matrix	Hg species	Artisanal Hg mining site (Gouxi)	Abandonded Hg mining Site (Wukeng)	Regional background area of Huaxi ²
Ambient air ¹	$\mathrm{Hg}^{0}(\mathrm{ng}\;\mathrm{m}^{-3})$	403±388	28±13	6.2±3.0
Precipitation ¹	HgT _{unf} (ng L ⁻¹) ³ MeHg _{unf} (ng L ⁻¹) ³ MeHg _{unf} /HgT _{unf} (%)	2599±1874 0.48±0.20 0.031±0.028	445±296 0.30±0.15 0.16±0.20	27±17 0.28±0.14 0.76±0.41
Irrigation ¹ water	HgT _{unf} (ng L ⁻¹) HgT _f (ng L ⁻¹) ³ MeHg _{unf} (ng L ⁻¹) MeHg _f (ng L ⁻¹) ³ MeHg _{unf} /HgT _{unf} (%)	159 ± 67 39 ± 9.4 0.75 ± 0.65 0.31 ± 0.30 0.71 ± 0.93	513±215 195±45 1.7±1.1 0.96±0.50 0.45±0.53	7.1±4.0 0.14±0.044 2.2±0.98
Paddy water ¹	HgT _{unf} (ng L^{-1}) HgT _f (ng L^{-1}) MeHg _{unf} (ng L^{-1}) MeHg _f (ng L^{-1}) MeHg _f (ng L^{-1})	$189\pm117 \\105\pm58 \\13\pm16 \\4.7\pm4.2 \\5.9\pm4.4$	430±279 196±78 1.1±0.52 0.62±0.29 0.48±0.63	7.5±4.3 0.71±0.66 10±7.9

3 ¹ Hg species concentrations in ambient air and precipitation were averaged with data sets of five

4 sampling campaigns at Days 20, 40, 60, 80 100; Hg species concentrations in irrigation water and

5 paddy water were averaged with data sets of four sampling campaigns at Days 20, 40, 60, 80.

6 ² data were obtained from Zheng, (207), Meng et al. (2010) and Meng (2011).

³HgT₁ unfiltered total mercury; HgT_f, filtered total mercury; MeHg_{unf}, unfiltered methylmercury; MeHg_f,
 filtered methylmercury;





Table 3. Contribution of Hg species derived from deposition and irrigation water to the surface soil
 layer at an artisanal Hg mining site and abandoned Hg mining site.

Sampling sites	Hg species in surface soil layer (0-2 cm)	Irrigation water (%)	Atmospheric deposition (%)	Native soil pool (%)
Couvi	THg	0.06	3.7	96.24
Gouxi	MeHg	0.26	0.65	99.1
337.1	THg	0.014	0.049	99.9
Wukeng	MeHg	0.79	0.54	98.67

3



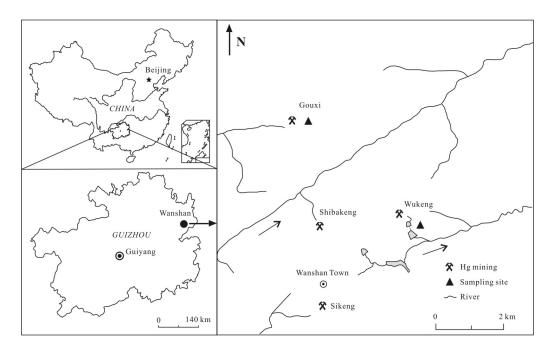


- 1 Table 4. General Water Quality Characteristics of irrigation water and overlying water at the artisanal
- 2 Hg mining site and abandoned Hg mining site (mean±SD, range)

Sample matrix	Parameters	Artisanal Hg mining site (Gouxi)	Abandonded Hg mining Site (Wukeng)
Interview Institution water (ng L ⁻¹)	T (°C)	24±1.7 (23-26)	25±2.1 (23-27)
	рН	8.3±0.24 (8.1-8.6)	11±0.45 (11-12)
	DO (mg L^{-1})	7.4±0.43 (6.9-8.0)	7.4±0.56 (6.8-8.1)
	T (°C)	28±4.4 (24-33)	25±2.7 (23-29)
Paddy water	рН	7.2±0.24 (6.9-7.4)	8.6±1.3 (7.3-9.8)
	DO (mg L^{-1})	3.0±0.95 (1.8-3.9)	4.4±0.73 (3.6-5.2)







1

Figure 1. Map of the study area and sampling sites including abandoned Hg mining site (Wukeng) and
artisanal Hg mining site (Gouxi).





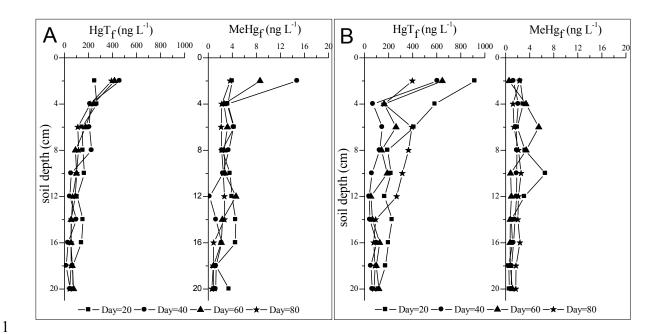
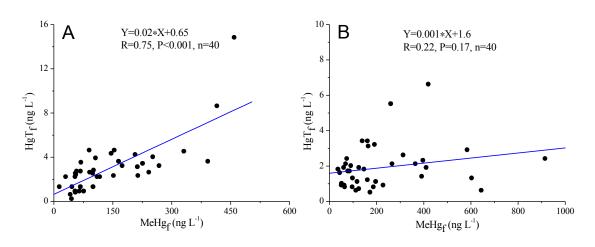


Fig 2. Concentration of HgT_f and MeHg_f in pore water during the rice growing season on Days 20, 40, 60, and 80 (A: artisanal Hg mining site of Gouxi; B: abandoned Hg mining site of Wukeng).







1

Figure 3. Correlation between HgT_f and MeHg_f concentrations in soil pore water during the rice
growing season on Days 20, 40, 60, and 80 (A: artisanal Hg mining site of Gouxi; B: abandoned Hg
mining site of Wukeng).





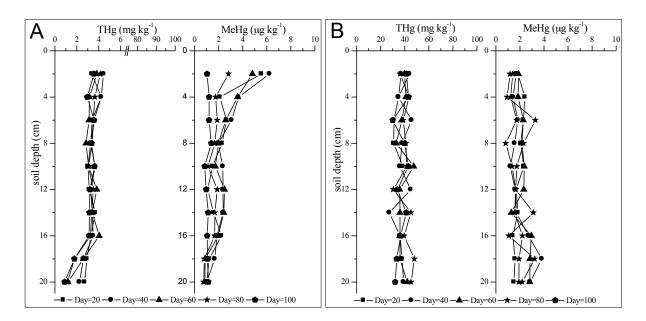


Figure 4. Concentration of THg and MeHg in soil cores during the rice growing season on Days 20, 40,
60, 80, and 100 (A: artisanal Hg mining site of Gouxi; B: abandoned Hg mining site of Wukeng).