

1 **Distribution and behaviour of dissolved selenium in**
2 **tropical peatland-draining rivers and estuaries of**
3 **Malaysia**

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24 Abstract

25 Selenium (Se) is an essential micronutrient for aquatic organisms. Despite
26 its importance, our current knowledge of the biogeochemical cycling of
27 dissolved Se in tropical estuaries is limited, especially in Southeast Asia. To
28 gain insights into Se cycling in tropical peat-draining rivers and estuaries,
29 samples were collected from the Rajang, Maludam, Sebuyau, Simunjan,
30 Sematan, Samunsam, and Lunda rivers and estuaries in western Sarawak,
31 Malaysia, in March and September 2017 and analysed for various forms of Se
32 (dissolved inorganic and organic). Mean total dissolved Se (TDSe), dissolved
33 inorganic Se (DISe), and dissolved organic Se concentrations (DOSe) were 2.2
34 nmol L^{-1} (range: 0.7 to 5.7 nmol L^{-1}), 0.18 nmol L^{-1} (range: less than the
35 detection limit to 0.47 nmol L^{-1}), and 2.0 nmol L^{-1} (range: 0.42 to 5.7 nmol L^{-1}),
36 respectively. In acidic, low-oxygen, organic-rich blackwater (peatland-draining)
37 rivers, the concentrations of DISe were extremely low (near or below the
38 detection limits, i.e. 0.0063 nmol L^{-1}), whereas those of DOSe were high. In
39 rivers and estuaries that drained peatland, DOSe/TDSe ratios ranged from 0.67
40 to 0.99, showing that DOSe dominated. The positive relationship between DISe
41 and salinity and the negative relationship between DOSe and salinity indicate
42 marine and terrestrial origins of DISe and DOSe, respectively. The positive
43 correlations of DOSe with the humification index and humic-like chromophoric
44 dissolved organic matter components in freshwater river reaches suggest that
45 peat soils are probably the main source of DOSe. The DOSe fractions may be
46 associated with high-molecular-weight peatland-derived aromatic and black
47 carbon compounds and may photodegrade to more bioavailable forms once
48 transported to coastal waters. The TDSe flux delivered by the peat-draining
49 rivers exceeded other small rivers reported so far, and it is quantitatively more
50 significant than previously thought.

51 1. Introduction

52 Se is an essential trace element for aquatic organisms (Bodnar et al, 2014).
53 Low levels of Se in the food chain lead to disease or death whereas high levels
54 are toxic (Lobanov et al., 2009; Winkel et al., 2015). Selenium depletion in the
55 Phanerozoic oceans may have contributed to three major mass extinction
56 scenarios (Long et al., 2016). Thus, there has been great interest in Se
57 biogeochemical cycling in aquatic systems for many decades (e.g., Cutter and
58 Bruland, 1984; Cutter and Cutter, 1995, 2001; Mason et al., 2018).

59 The bioavailability of Se is determined by its concentrations and species
60 (Fernández and Charlet, 2009). The behaviour of Se in natural waters is
61 complicated, as it exists in several oxidation states (-II, IV, VI) (Conde and Sanz
62 Alaejos 1997). A number of field and laboratory studies have found that selenite
63 [Se(IV)] and selenate [Se(VI)] can be assimilated by marine phytoplankton with
64 Se(IV) being the preferred species (Wrench and Measures, 1982; Apte et al.,
65 1986; Vandermeulen and Foda, 1988; Baines and Fisher, 2001). Direct uptake
66 of seleno-methionine and seleno-cystine has been demonstrated in diatom
67 (Doblin et al., 1999). Laboratory study showed that organic selenide released
68 by algal cell lysis of the diatom or viral of the chrysophyte were also bioavailable
69 to the marine phytoplankton (Gobler et al., 1997; Baines et al., 2001). An
70 understanding of Se speciation may therefore be important for determining the
71 bioavailability of Se that is transported from land to oceans.

72 The chemical behaviour of Se in estuarine mixing plays an important role
73 in overall geochemical cycling. From their investigation into dissolved Se
74 species in various estuaries, Chang et al. (2016) found that Se speciation was
75 controlled by biological, physical, and redox processes in the estuaries; non-
76 conservative processes resulting from phytoplankton uptake; absorption by
77 suspended particles; and generation of particulate organic selenide in the water.

78 Thus far, the behaviour of Se in estuaries has been studied mainly in the
79 temperate zone of the northern hemisphere (between 20°N and 60°N)
80 (Measures and Burton, 1978; Takayanagi and Wong, 1984; Van der Sloot et al.,
81 1985; Cutter, 1989a; Guan and Martin, 1991; Hung and Shy, 1995; Abdel-Moati,
82 1998; Yao et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2016). The behaviour of Se in tropical
83 estuaries, however, is still poorly understood.

84 In the high-latitude peatland-draining rivers, dissolved Se concentrations
85 are spatial variable, with concentrations of up to 13 nmol L⁻¹ being observed in
86 northern Minnesota, US (Clausen and Brooks, 1983), from 0.38 to 5 nmol L⁻¹
87 in the Krycklan catchment, Sweden (Lidman et al., 2011) and from 0.25 to 1.25
88 nmol L⁻¹ in the Siberian (Pokrovsky et al., 2018). Although these various studies
89 did not report different species of Se (Clausen and Brooks, 1983; Lidman et al.,
90 2011; Pokrovsky et al., 2018), the DOSe probably the dominated species in
91 peatland-draining river. In the open ocean, DOSe was assumed mainly
92 associate with soluble peptides with low molecule weight in surface waters and
93 were relatively refractory (Cutter and Cutter, 1995; 2004). Substantial amounts
94 of dissolved Se also are known to be associated humic substances, Gustafsson
95 and Johnsson (1994) assumed that Se was preferentially incorporated into low
96 molecular weight humic substances fractions by means of microbial reductive
97 incorporation, while Kamei-Ishikawa et al. (2008) found that Se associated with
98 high molecular weights humic acid fractions. The current paucity of information
99 on DOSe characteristics and its export by rivers from tropical peat-draining
100 rivers remains a major gap in our understanding of Se biogeochemical cycling.
101 Highest concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) globally were
102 reported in tropical peat-draining rivers in Borneo (Moore et al., 2013; Wit et al.,
103 2015). More works of Se in the fluvial systems of this region are therefore
104 needed to provide an improved understanding of the biogeochemical
105 processing of Se and the associations with organic matter.

106 To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first analysis of the
107 distribution and behaviour of dissolved species of Se in seven rivers and
108 estuaries in western Borneo (Sarawak, Malaysia, Southeast Asia). We
109 hypothesize that the D_OSe is the major species in those peatland-draining
110 rivers which mainly from peat soils and sizable Se from peatland is delivered to
111 the coastal areas. The main objectives of the study were to 1) evaluate the fate
112 of dissolved Se species in peatland-draining estuaries; 2) characterize the
113 D_OSe fractions; and 3) estimate the magnitude of Se fluxes delivered from to
114 coastal ocean. The results of this study should contribute to an improved
115 understanding of how Se behaves in tropical peat-draining rivers and estuaries.

116 **2. Materials and methods**

117 **2.1 Study areas and sample collection**

118 Sarawak, Malaysia's largest state, is in the northwest of the island of
119 Borneo, Malaysia (Müller et al., 2016). Sarawak has a tropical climate, with a
120 mean annual air temperature at the capital Kuching of 26.1 °C (Müller et al.,
121 2016). Rainfall is abundant throughout the year but is pronounced during the
122 northeastern monsoon, which occurs between November and February (wet
123 season). The period from May to September, before the southwestern monsoon,
124 constitutes the dry season (Sa'adi et al., 2017). About 12% of the coastal area
125 of western Sarawak is covered by peatlands, of which approximately 41% has
126 been converted to palm plantations (Müller et al., 2016).

127 Two sampling campaigns were conducted in peat-draining rivers and
128 estuaries in Sarawak in 2017. The first was at the end of the northeastern
129 monsoon (from 4 to 12 March 2017, just after the wet season), and the second
130 was shortly before the beginning of the southwestern monsoon (from 4 to 17
131 September 2017, in the dry season) (Fig. 1). Six rivers, namely, the Rajang,

132 Maludam, Simunjan, Sebuyau, Sematan, and Samunsam, were sampled in
133 March and September, and the Lundu River was sampled only in September
134 (Fig. 1). The physio-geographical parameters of sampled river basins are
135 summarized in Table 1. Four of the rivers (the Maludam, Simunjan, Sebuyau,
136 and Samunsam) drain catchments with high peatland coverages and are known
137 as blackwater rivers, whereas the Sematan and Lundu drain catchments with
138 high proportions of mineral soils (Table 1). The Rajang River drains mineral soils
139 in its upper reaches (Staub et al., 2000) but, at Sibuan, branches into multiple
140 distributary channels (the Igan, Paloh, and Rajang) that flow from north to south
141 through land covered with thick peat (Staub et al., 2000) (Fig. 1). Water samples
142 were collected from a boat. As the boat moved forward, surface water was
143 collected upstream and to the side of the boat into an acid-cleaned polyethylene
144 bottle attached to the end of a plastic pole sampler (3–4 m long). Water
145 temperature, salinity, pH, and dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations were
146 measured *in situ* using a portable multifunction water-quality meter (AP-2000,
147 Aquaread Company, Britain) at the time of sample collection. Water samples
148 were filtered within 12 h of collection through pre-cleaned 0.4 μm filters
149 (Nuclepore) at a laminar air flow cleanbench (Class 100). The filtrates were
150 placed in acid-cleaned polyethylene bottles and were frozen and stored until
151 analysis.

152 2.2 Analytical methods

153 The Se(IV), DISe, and TDSe concentrations were determined in carbon-
154 containing plasma using a hydride generation (HG) system (Hydride FAST, ESI)
155 combined with a sector field inductively coupled plasma–mass spectrometry
156 (ICP–MS) instrument, as outlined in the operationally defined hydride
157 generation-based speciation analysis methods described by Chang et al. (2014,
158 2017). Selenium was measured at $m/z^{-1} = 82$ with low resolution. By adding

159 methane (2 ml min^{-1}) to the carbon-containing plasma, Se sensitivity was
160 increased and spectral interference was suppressed, which improved the
161 detection limits. Briefly, Se(IV) at an acidity of 2 mol l^{-1} HCl was reacted with
162 NaBH_4 to produce hydrogen selenide and then quantified using HG–ICP–MS.
163 Se(VI) was quantitatively reduced to Se(IV) by heating a sample acidified with
164 3 mol l^{-1} HCl to $97 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 75 min and then quickly cooling to room temperature
165 using an ice-water bath. The steps used to determine Se(IV) were then followed
166 to obtain the concentration of DISe. The reduction recoveries ranged from 95%
167 to 103%. The Se(VI) concentration was calculated as the difference between
168 DISe and Se(IV). The total dissolved selenium (TDSe) concentrations were
169 determined using the same method as for DISe, following ultraviolet digestion
170 (Li et al., 2014). The concentration of DOSe was calculated as the difference
171 between the TDSe and DISe concentrations ($\text{DOSe} = \text{TDSe} - \text{DISe}$). Detection
172 limits for Se(IV), DISe, and TDSe were 0.0025 , 0.0063 , and $0.0097 \text{ nmol l}^{-1}$,
173 respectively. The accuracy of the methods was tested with standard solutions,
174 and Se(IV) GSBZ 50031-94, Se(VI) GBW10032, selenocysteine GBW10087,
175 and selenomethionine GBW10034 showed differences within 3.0%, 0.7%, 1.6%,
176 and 1.4%, respectively.

177 **2.3 The calculation of TDSe flux and yield**

178 TDSe fluxes (Q) transported to the ocean were estimated according the
179 following equation:

$$180 \quad Q = C \times V \quad (1)$$

181 Where C is the mean concentration of TDSe at the fresh endmember of the
182 river (salinity < 1), and V is the river water discharge. Riverine TDSe yield is the
183 ratio of TDSe flux to the drainage area.

184 2.4 Data statistics and analysis

185 The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 was used
186 to perform Student's t-tests, Mann Whitney U test and linear regression
187 analyses. The significance level for all the analyses was $p < 0.05$.

188 3. Results

189 3.1 Water chemistry

190 The water chemistry in the freshwater reach of the Maludam, Simunjan,
191 Sebuyau and Samunsam rivers are typical of blackwater rivers draining from
192 peatland with acidic pH and low DO concentrations, and the mixing with coastal
193 water increased the pH and DO (Table S1, Fig. S1). Values of pH and DO
194 concentrations in the Sematan and Lundu, which drain mostly mineral soils,
195 were higher than those in the blackwater rivers (Fig. S1). In the Rajang estuary,
196 values of pH and DO were lower in the riverine side, especially in the
197 distributaries where covered by the peat (Fig. S2).

198 3.2 Se species distributions

199 TDS_{Se} concentrations in the studied rivers and estuaries ranged from 1.0 to
200 5.7 nmol L⁻¹ in March and from 0.70 to 3.9 nmol L⁻¹ in September (Fig. 2, Table
201 S1). DO_{Se}/TDS_{Se} ratios ranged from 0.56 to 0.99, indicating that DO_{Se} was the
202 major species of Se in the peat-draining rivers and estuaries in both the dry and
203 wet seasons (Fig.2, Table S1). Considerable variation was observed in Se
204 speciation between the studied rivers. The TDS_{Se} and DO_{Se} concentrations and
205 DO_{Se}/TDS_{Se} ratios were higher in the Maludam, Simunjan, Sebuyau and
206 Samunsam that drain catchment with higher peatland coverage than those in
207 the Rajang, Sematan and Lundu estuaries, whereas the opposite trend for DISe

208 (Table 1, Fig. 2). Student's t-test results showed that the concentrations of
209 TDS_{Se}, DIS_{Se} and DOS_{Se} did not differ between the wet and dry seasons in the
210 sampled rivers and estuaries ($p > 0.05$), which may reflect the La Niña
211 conditions that caused high precipitation and high discharge rates in Malaysia
212 in 2017 (Jiang et al., 2019).

213 In the Rajang estuary, Se(IV), Se(VI) and DIS_{Se} concentrations were high
214 in the coastal areas, whereas DOS_{Se} concentrations were higher in the
215 distributaries than in the upper reach in both seasons (Fig. S3). DOS_{Se}/TDS_{Se}
216 ratios were high in the distributaries and decreased in a seaward direction to
217 around 0.7 (Fig. S3). In the Maludam estuary, DIS_{Se} concentrations were
218 extremely low (near or below the detection limits) in the freshwater reach and
219 increased towards the sea, whereas the DOS_{Se} concentrations decreased in a
220 seaward direction in both seasons (Fig. S4). DIS_{Se} and DOS_{Se} concentrations
221 followed similar patterns in the Sebuyau, Simunjan, Samunsam, Sematan and
222 Lundu estuaries (Fig. S4). Se(IV) and Se(VI) concentration are not presented
223 but were even lower than those of DIS_{Se} and commonly lay below the detection
224 limit, especially in the freshwater reaches. As TDS_{Se} is the sum of the DIS_{Se} and
225 DOS_{Se} concentrations, and DOS_{Se} generally dominated in the sampled rivers
226 and estuaries, the distributions of TDS_{Se} and DOS_{Se} were similar (Fig S4). The
227 DOS_{Se}/TDS_{Se} ratios were between 0.8 and almost 1 in the Maludam, Sebuyau,
228 Simunjan, and Samunsam estuaries as salinity < 1, indicating that DOS_{Se} was
229 the only (or dominant) species in the freshwater of the blackwater rivers. The
230 DOS_{Se}/TDS_{Se} ratios were between 0.6 and 0.9 in the Sematan and Lundu,
231 indicating that more than half of the Se was still present in the form of DOS_{Se} in
232 those rivers and estuaries with high proportions of mineral soils (Fig. S4).

233 **3.3 Se species relationship with salinity**

234 Variation in Se species concentrations along a salinity gradient in the three

235 tributaries (the Igan, Lassa, and Rajang) of the Rajang Estuary in March and
236 September are shown in Fig. 3. Theoretical mixing lines (TMLs) were
237 developed using two endmembers, namely, a freshwater endmember in the
238 freshwater reach of the Rajang River and a marine endmember with a salinity
239 of >30. DISe concentrations increased with salinity and, compared with the TML,
240 DISe removals were observed in the Rajang branches in March, and DISe
241 additions were observed in the upper reaches of the Rajang and Paloh
242 branches (Fig. 3a, 3b). DOSe concentrations decreased with salinity and were
243 much higher than the TML in the Rajang and upper Paloh branches in both
244 March and September and in the Igan Branch in September (Fig. 3e, 3f). TDSe
245 concentrations in the mixing zone of the Rajang and Igan branches were also
246 higher than the TML (Fig. 3i, 3j).

247 Plots of DISe concentration against salinity show a positive linear
248 regression between DISe and salinity in the Maludam, Sebuyau, and
249 Samunsam estuaries ($p < 0.05$) in both seasons, but not in the Sematan estuary
250 ($p > 0.05$), where DISe concentrations in the freshwater and marine water
251 endmembers were similar in both seasons (Fig. 3, Fig. S5). The salinities varied
252 little, either between the two seasons in the Simunjan and Lundu estuaries or
253 in the Sebuyau estuary in September, and therefore Se concentration–salinity
254 relationships were not examined. As shown in Fig. 3j and 3h, DOSe
255 concentrations in the freshwater parts of the Maludam and Sebuyau rivers
256 varied widely and increased downstream, so the geographical location nearest
257 to the river mouth with a salinity of <1 was selected as the freshwater
258 endmember in the linear mixing models. A negative linear correlation was
259 observed between DOSe concentration and salinity ($p < 0.05$) in the Maludam,
260 Sebuyau, and Samunsam estuaries for both seasons, but DOSe concentrations
261 did not vary significantly with salinity ($p > 0.05$) in the Sematan estuary (Fig. 3
262 and Fig. S5). TDSe concentrations were also negatively correlated with salinity

263 ($p < 0.05$) in the Maludam, Sebuyau, and Samunsam estuaries but not in the
264 Sematan Estuary (Fig.3 and Fig. S5).

265 Generally, relationships between the Se species and salinity fell into three
266 groups. In the blackwater estuaries (the Maludam, Sebuyau, and Samunsam),
267 DISe concentrations were positively correlated with salinity; DOSe and TDSe
268 concentrations were negatively correlated with salinity (Fig. 3). In the Rajang
269 estuary, DISe increased with salinity but behaved non-conservatively and was
270 removed in the brackish water; whereas DOSe and TDSe decreased with
271 salinity, behaved non-conservatively, and were added during estuarine mixing
272 (Fig. 3). In the Sematan estuary, TDSe, DOSe, and DISe behaved non-
273 conservatively and showed little change during estuarine mixing (Fig. 3).

274 **3.4 Correlation between Se species with DO, pH and DOM**

275 For the freshwaters ($S < 1$) of the studied rivers, DISe concentrations were
276 positively correlated with the DO concentrations and pH values, and the
277 DISe/DOSe ratio was negatively related to DOC concentration (data from
278 Martin et al., 2018; Fig. 4a, 4b). DOSe concentrations correlated positively with
279 the humification index (HIX) and the sum of the humic-like chromophoric
280 dissolved organic matter (CDOM components, C1, C2, C3, and C4) ($p < 0.05$)
281 (data from Zhou et al., 2019) (Fig. 4c, 4d).

282 In the Maludam Estuary, DOSe concentrations were negatively correlated
283 with the CDOM spectral slope from 275 to 295 nm ($S_{275-295}$) and were positively
284 correlated with the humic-like C3 component and specific UV absorbance at
285 254 nm ($SUVA_{254}$) during estuarine mixing in both seasons (data from Martin et
286 al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2019, Fig. 5a-c). In addition, DOSe/DOC and DOSe/DISe
287 ratios were negatively correlated with C2/C1 components ratios (Fig. 5d, 5e).

288 4. Discussion

289 4.1 Fate of Se species during estuarine mixing

290 On a global perspective, TDSe concentrations in the sampled rivers were
291 comparable with those in other reported rivers (between 0.2 and 30 nmol L⁻¹);
292 however, in contrast to our findings, DISE generally dominates in other rivers
293 (Table 2, Cutter, 1989b; Conde and Sanz Alaejos, 1997; Pilarczyk et al., 2019).
294 DOSe concentrations in rivers worldwide range from <0.02 to 0.82 nmol L⁻¹
295 (Takayanagi and Wong, 1984; Huang and Shy, 1995; Cutter and Cutter, 2001,
296 2004). In the blackwaters of the Orinoco in South America, TDSe
297 concentrations were found to range from 0.07 to 0.25 nmol L⁻¹ (Yee et al., 1987).
298 Although they did not analyse DOSe fractions directly, Yee et al. (1987)
299 assumed that DOSe was likely to constitute about 10%–15% of the total Se, a
300 much lower value than the DOSe proportions observed in peat-draining rivers
301 in Sarawak.

302 Species of Se are very sensitive to redox conditions and pH values
303 (Sharma et al., 2015). Se(IV) and the Se(VI) are soluble in water which exists
304 under mild and strong oxidizing conditions (Torres et al., 2010), thus DISE
305 concentrations be expected to increase with DO values (Fig. 4a). Sorption to
306 solid surfaces is a pH-dependent process, with substantial sorption of Se(IV)
307 and Se(VI) occurring at pH values of 4 to 6 and negligible sorption under more
308 alkaline conditions (pH > 8) (BarYosef and Meek, 1987; Balistrieri and Chao,
309 1987; Papelis et al., 1995; Sharma et al., 2015). Adsorption of Se(IV) and Se(VI)
310 by solid surfaces when pH is between 4 and 6 may help to explain the low DISE
311 concentrations in the sampled freshwater, and DISE concentrations be
312 expected to increase as pH increases (Fig. 4b). In addition almost 15% of Se(IV)
313 is removed by adsorption to peat (Kharkar et al., 1968). Se(IV) and Se(VI)

314 associated with humic and fulvic substances appear to be responsible for the
315 immobilization of inorganic Se (Kang et al., 1991; Zhang and Moore, 1996;
316 Wang and Gao, 2001). The DISe/DOS_e ratios negatively related with DOC
317 concentrations (Fig. 4c). DO, pH, and DOC concentrations of the water
318 probably contributed to the observed variations in Se species, and the acidic,
319 low-oxygen, and organic-rich blackwater rivers were not a suitable environment
320 for DISe.

321 During estuarine mixing, reversed DISe concentration–salinity
322 relationships were observed in the Rajang, Maludam, Sebuyau, and
323 Samunsam estuaries (Fig. 3, Fig S5), which were contrast with those reported
324 for other estuaries (Measures and Burton, 1978; Takayanagi and Wong, 1984;
325 Van der Sloot et al., 1985; Cutter, 1989a; Guan and Martin, 1991; Hung and
326 Shy, 1995; Abdel-Moati, 1998; Yao et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2016). The marine
327 endmember of the DISe concentrations in the sampled estuaries (salinity > 31)
328 was 0.30 nmol L⁻¹ (range: 0.12 to 0.47 nmol L⁻¹), encompassing or close to the
329 values reported for surface water in the South China Sea (around 0.38 nmol
330 L⁻¹, Nakaguchi et al., 2004) and the Pacific (mean of 0.24 nmol L⁻¹, range: 0.02
331 to 0.69 nmol L⁻¹) (Cutter and Bruland, 1984; Sherrard et al., 2004; Mason et al.,
332 2018). The salinity-related increases in DISe in a seaward direction indicate
333 that the patterns of distribution of DISe in those peat-draining estuaries are
334 controlled mainly by conservative mixing of ocean-derived DISe. In addition,
335 DISe was removed in March but was added in September in the Rajang estuary.
336 Laboratory studies have shown that Se(IV) can be adsorbed by peat and that
337 60% of the adsorbed Se(IV) can be desorbed upon exposure of the solid phase
338 to seawater (Kharkar et al., 1968). DISe may have been added to the Rajang
339 estuary in September via release of Se(IV) from peat in brackish waters. Other
340 studies have reported removal of the humic fractions of DOM, colloidal iron, and
341 phosphorus by flocculation in the river–sea mixing zones (Eckert and Sholkovitz,

342 1976; Forsgren et al., 1996; Asmala et al., 2014). Some of the DISe may exist
343 in colloidal form in natural water (Takayanagi and Wong, 1984), and DISe may
344 be removed by flocculation. In peat-draining estuaries, ocean-derived DISe
345 may be adsorbed to peat and may be associated with DOM, which is then
346 converted to DOSe and/or flocculated to particulate Se.

347 In contrast to DISe, DOSe concentrations were high in the rivers and
348 decreased in a seaward direction as salinity increased (Fig. 3, Fig S5). DOSe
349 has been shown to behave non-conservatively in other estuaries, with
350 concentrations decreasing along salinity gradients or with mid-estuarine input
351 (Cutter, 1989a; Guan and Martin, 1991; Hung and Shy, 1995; Abdel-Moati,
352 1998). DOSe concentrations in the estuaries studied in Sarawak were higher
353 than those reported in other estuaries (0.1 to 2.5 nmol L⁻¹) (Cutter, 1989a; Guan
354 and Martin, 1991; Hung and Shy, 1995; Abdel-Moati, 1998). The marine
355 endmember of the DOSe concentrations in the sampled estuaries (salinity >31)
356 ranged from 0.42 to 2.91 nmol L⁻¹ (mean: 1.32 nmol L⁻¹) and exceeded those
357 in surface water of the South China Sea (mean: 0.20 nmol L⁻¹, range: 0.33 to
358 0.14 nmol L⁻¹, Nakaguchi et al., 2004) and the Pacific (mean: 0.36 nmol L⁻¹,
359 range: 0.01 to 0.67 nmol L⁻¹ (Cutter and Bruland, 1984; Sherrard et al., 2004;
360 Mason et al., 2018). The high DOSe concentrations in coastal waters in
361 Sarawak (S > 30) suggest a significant contribution from terrigenous DOSe. In
362 the distributary channels of Rajang, there are large inputs of organic matter
363 from peat, thus higher DOSe concentrations than the TML values be expected
364 in most of the brackish waters (Fig. 3).

365 **4.2 Character of the DOSe fractions**

366 Coal deposits in Kanawha County in the USA have been interpreted as a
367 dome-shaped peat swamp, analogous to those in Malaysia. Coal Se contents
368 reached 10.7 mg/kg, and sequential extraction results showed that the

369 concentrations of the organically bound fraction were the highest (Vesper et al.,
370 2008). It is therefore expected that organic matter that is solubilized and
371 leached from peat would cause Se concentrations to increase, and therefore
372 leaching from Se-rich peat soils is inferred to be the major source of DOSe in
373 our sampled rivers. Moreover the peat-draining rivers demonstrated a linear
374 relationship between DOSe concentrations and HIX and humic-like CDOM
375 components (Fig. 4d, 4e) indicating that DOSe may be associated with
376 dissolved humic substances. In addition, DOSe correlated with $S_{275-295}$ and
377 $SUVA_{254}$ (Fig. 5a, 5c) suggesting that DOSe was associated closely with high-
378 molecular-weight and highly aromatic DOM. Also, the positive correlations
379 between DOSe and the humic-like C3 component (Fig. 5b) which derived
380 corresponded to aromatic and black carbon compounds with high molecular
381 weight, also indicates that DOSe fractions are associated with high-molecular-
382 weight aromatic DOM (Fig. 6). Pokrovsky et al. (2018) also found that Se were
383 transport in the form of high molecular weights organic aromatic-rich complexes
384 from peat to the rivers and lakes in the Arctic. Bruggeman et al. (2007) and
385 Kamei-Ishikawa et al. (2008) both found that 50% to 70% of Se(IV)-humic
386 substances associates had high molecular weights (>10 kDa), that consistent
387 with our findings.

388 During the estuarine mixing, the negatively correlation between
389 DOSe/DOC and DOSe/DISe ratios with C2/C1 ratios which is enhanced by
390 photodegradation (Wang et al., 2019; Fig. 5d, 5e), indicating that compared to
391 bulk DOM, the DOSe fractions were more susceptible to photodegradation, and
392 that DOSe was probably photodegraded to DISe. As suggested by Martin et al
393 (2018) that most photochemical transformations of DOM in Sarawak likely take
394 place after DOM reaches the sea. Thus, photodegradation plays an important
395 role in DOSe processing once transported to offshore, and DOSe might contain
396 a significant photoreactive fraction that facilitates photodegradation of DOSe

397 into lower mean molecular weights or gaseous Se or photomineralization to
398 DISE (Fig. 6). Considerable amounts of Se may be volatilized when
399 methylselenide compounds form (Lidman et al., 2011). A field study found that
400 volatile species of Se were naturally emitted from peatland at concentrations of
401 around 33 nmol L⁻¹ (Vriens et al., 2015). As a result of the method used in the
402 present study, volatile methylselenide compounds in the DOSe fractions may
403 not have been detected, so DOSe may have been underestimated. In future
404 work, particular attention should be given to methylselenide. Studies have
405 shown that photodegradation of DOM results in a range of bioavailable products
406 (Miller and Moran, 1997). Peatland-derived DOSe might be degraded to a lower
407 molecular weight or DISE in the coastal areas, both of which are bioavailable
408 for phytoplankton and may stimulate their growth, and thereby impact the
409 marine animals via food chain. The photoreactive DOSe fractions are probably
410 transported across the marginal sea and circulated globally. Given that the
411 bioavailability and biogeochemical cycling of the peatland-derived DOSe
412 fractions may differ from those of peptides produced *in situ* by phytoplankton in
413 the ocean, the impact on coastal and open ocean ecosystems should be
414 evaluated in the future.

415 **4.3 TDSe flux**

416 Information on the biogeochemistry of peat-draining rivers is scarce, and so
417 their possible quantitative significance for the oceanic TDSe budget is
418 unexplored as yet. The TDSe flux was estimated to be 16×10^3 and $0.044 \times$
419 10^3 kg yr⁻¹ for Rajang and Maludam, respectively (Table 2). On a global scale,
420 the TDSe delivered from Rajang were less than those large rivers including
421 Changjiang, Amazon, Zhujiang, Orinoco and St. Lawrence River, but exceeded
422 other small rivers reported so far (Table 2). The TDSe delivered by Rajang and
423 Maludam contributed nearly 1% of the total riverine TDSe input to the ocean

424 with only 0.3% of freshwater discharge (Nriagu, 1989; Milliman and Farnsworth,
425 2013). The TDSe yields for Rajang and Maludam were just below the second
426 largest river Changjiang and the polluted Scheldt River, but were exceed the
427 other rivers (Table 2). As for the DOSe yields for Rajang and Maludam were
428 one or even two orders of magnitude higher than other reported rivers so far
429 (Table 2). This indicates that the numerous small blackwater rivers draining from
430 peatland are very efficient TDSe and DOSe sources for the coastal waters. The
431 roughly estimated TDSe flux from tropical peatland (439,238 km², Page et al.,
432 2011) could be roughly around $120 \times 10^3 \text{ kg yr}^{-1}$, which were nearly 35% of the
433 current total riverine TDSe flux, based on average TDSe yield from Rajang and
434 the Maludam ($0.27 \text{ kg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). On a global perspective, TDSe export from
435 peat-draining rivers is quantitatively more significant than previously thought. It
436 can be expected that increasing anthropogenic disturbing of peat can release
437 a great amount of Se to rivers, and then transported to the coastal areas, the
438 impact to the ecosystem should receive more attention in future studies.

439 5. Conclusion

440 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study of seasonal variations
441 in Se speciation in peat-draining rivers and estuaries in Southeast Asia.
442 Contrary to the results from studies elsewhere, DOSe, not DISe, was the major
443 species in the peat-draining rivers and estuaries of Sarawak, Malaysia.
444 Contrary to our expectations, reversed DISe concentration–salinity
445 relationships were observed in those estuaries, indicating a marine origin, while
446 DOSe concentrations decreased with salinity, indicating terrestrial sources. The
447 DOSe fractions may be associated with high-molecular-weight peatland-
448 derived aromatic and black carbon compounds and may photodegrade to more
449 bioavailable forms once transported to oligotrophic coastal waters, where they
450 may stimulate the growth of phytoplankton. The DOSe yields in the peatland-

451 draining rivers were one or even two orders of magnitude higher than other
452 reported rivers. The TDSe flux delivered by the exceeded other small rivers,
453 and it is quantitatively more significant than previously thought. The impact of
454 the sizable Se from increasing anthropogenic disturbing of peat to the
455 ecosystem should be evaluated in the future.

456 **6. Author contribution**

457 JZ, MM, YW, SJ and YC conceptualized the research project and planned
458 the field expeditions. SJ, AM, EA, FJ and MM performed sample collection and
459 in-situ measurement for the cruises. YC, WWC, JGQ, JLR, EMR and XLW
460 completed laboratory analyses. YC, XNW, YW, JS, JZ and MM processed and
461 analysed the data. All co-authors participated in the interpretation and
462 discussion of the results. YC prepared the manuscript with suggestions from all
463 co-authors

464 **7. Competing interests**

465 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interesting.

466 **8. Acknowledgements**

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709

710

711 Table 1 The physio-geographical parameters of sampled rivers. (n.a. stands
 712 for not available.)

River Names	Total Basin ^a	Runoff (km ³ yr ⁻¹)	Coverage rate by peat (%) ^a	Degree of affection by palm plantations (%) ^a
Rajang	50000	114 ^b	7.7	9.1
Maludam	197	0.14 ^c	87	8.1
Sebuyau	538	n.a.	54	4.5
Simunjan	788	n.a.	44	30
Samusam	163	n.a.	10	0
Sematan	287	n.a.	0	0

713 ^a Modified from Bange et al., 2019

714 ^b Cited from Staub et al., 2000

715 ^c Cited Müller et al., 2016

716 Table 2 Overview of the TDS_e concentrations and DOSe/TDS_e ratios in the river and the magnitude of riverine TDS_e flux and TDS_e
 717 and DOSe yield to the ocean.

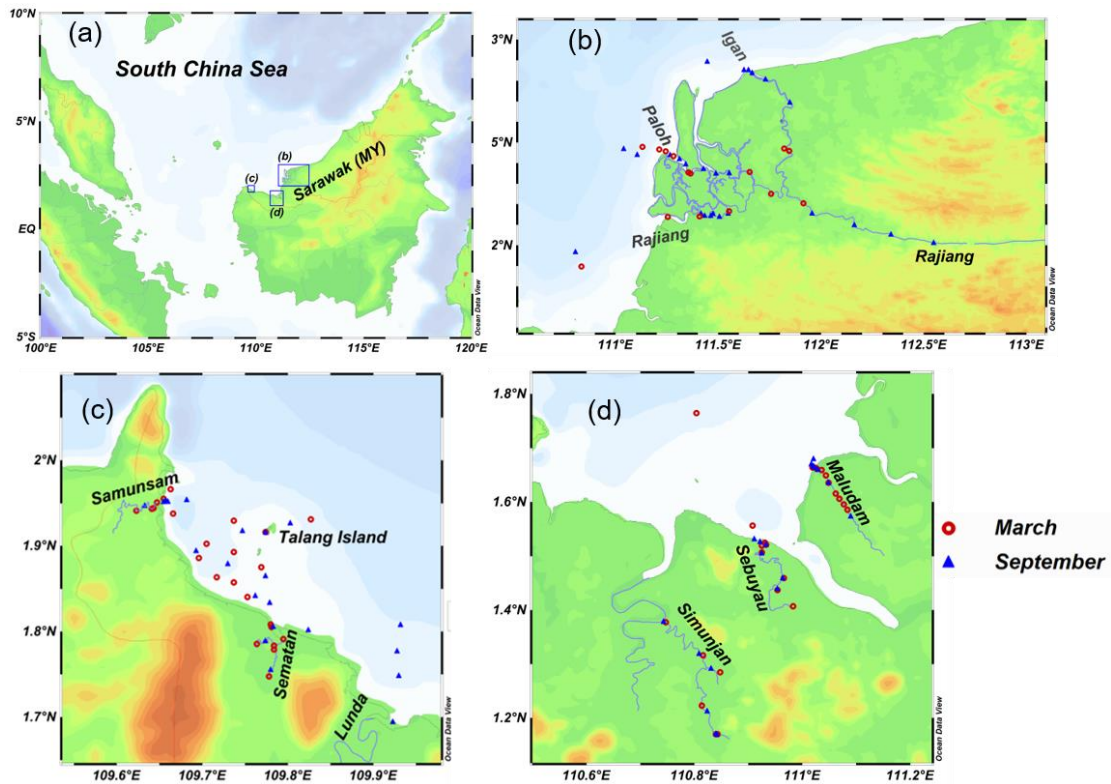
River Name	TDS _e (nmol L ⁻¹)	DOSe/TDS _e Ratio	TDS _e flux ^a (10 ³ kg yr ⁻¹)	TDS _e yield ^a (kg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	DOSe yield ^a (kg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Reference
Rajang (Malaysia)	1.76	0.90	16	0.32	0.28	This study
Maludam (Malaysia)	4.04	0.99	0.044	0.22	0.22	This study
Amazon (Brazil)	0.48	0.85	250	0.041	0.035	Cutter and Cutter, 2001
Changjiang (China)	4.59 ^b	n.a. ^c	652	0.72	n.a. ^c	Chang et al., 2016
Zhujiang (China)	4.87 ^b	n.a. ^c	100	0.20	n.a. ^c	Yao et al., 2006
Orinoco (Venezuela)	0.45	n.a. ^c	39	0.036	n.a. ^c	Yee et al., 1987
St.Lawrence (Canada)	2.12	0.11	57	0.047	0.0051	Takayanagi and Wong, 1985
Rhone (France)	2.18	0.14	9.3	0.10	0.013	Guan and Martin, 1991
James river (America)	2.08	0.40	1.4	0.020	0.008	Takayanagi and Wong, 1983; 1984
Sacramento (America)	0.91	0.38	1.2	0.023	0.009	Cutter and Cutter, 2004
San Joaquin (America)	15.8	0.23	5.0	0.060	0.014	Cutter and Cutter, 2004
Jiulongjiang (China)	2.44	0.21	1.6	0.11	0.022	Hu et al., 1995
Kaoping (China)	1.19	0.47	0.26	0.081	0.038	Hung and Shy, 1995;
Erhjen (China)	1.11	0.47	0.044	0.13	0.059	Hung and Shy, 1995;
Shinano (Japan)	0.50	<0.1	0.55	0.046	0.006	Suzuki et al., 1981
Scheldt (Belgium)	29.2 ^b	n.a. ^c	13.83	0.63	n.a. ^c	Van der Sloot et al., 1985

718 ^a The calculation used river basin areas and discharge rate were cited from Milliman and Farnsworth, 2013

719 ^b The data were DISe species.

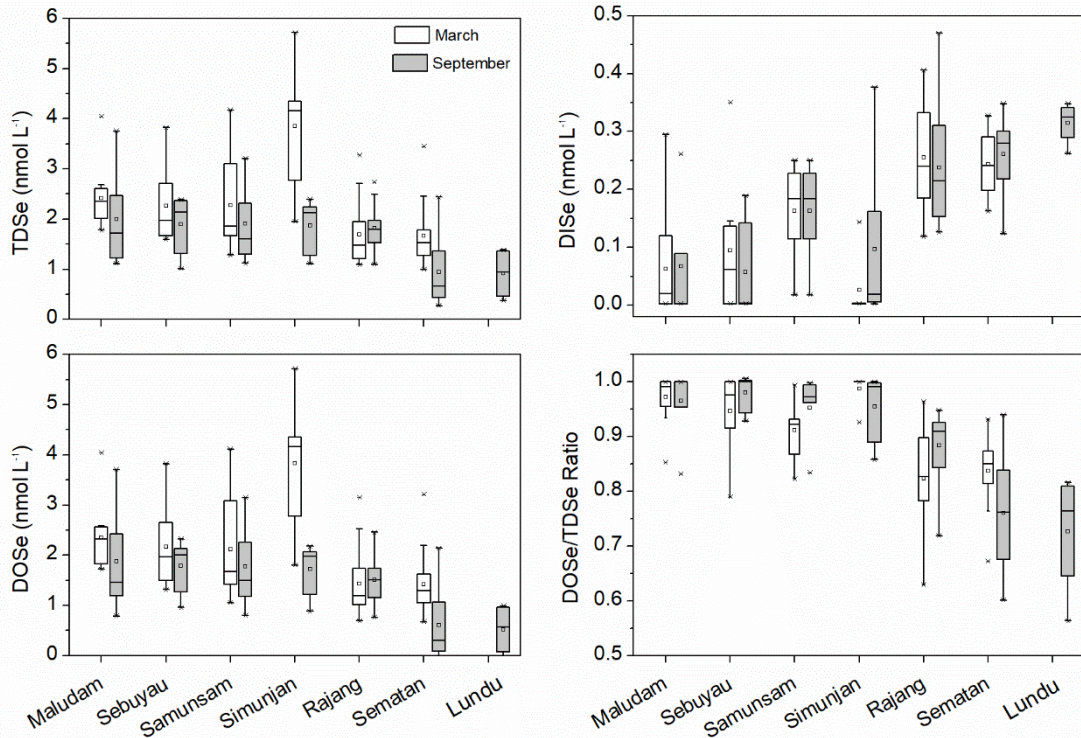
720 ^c The DOSe were not measured.

721



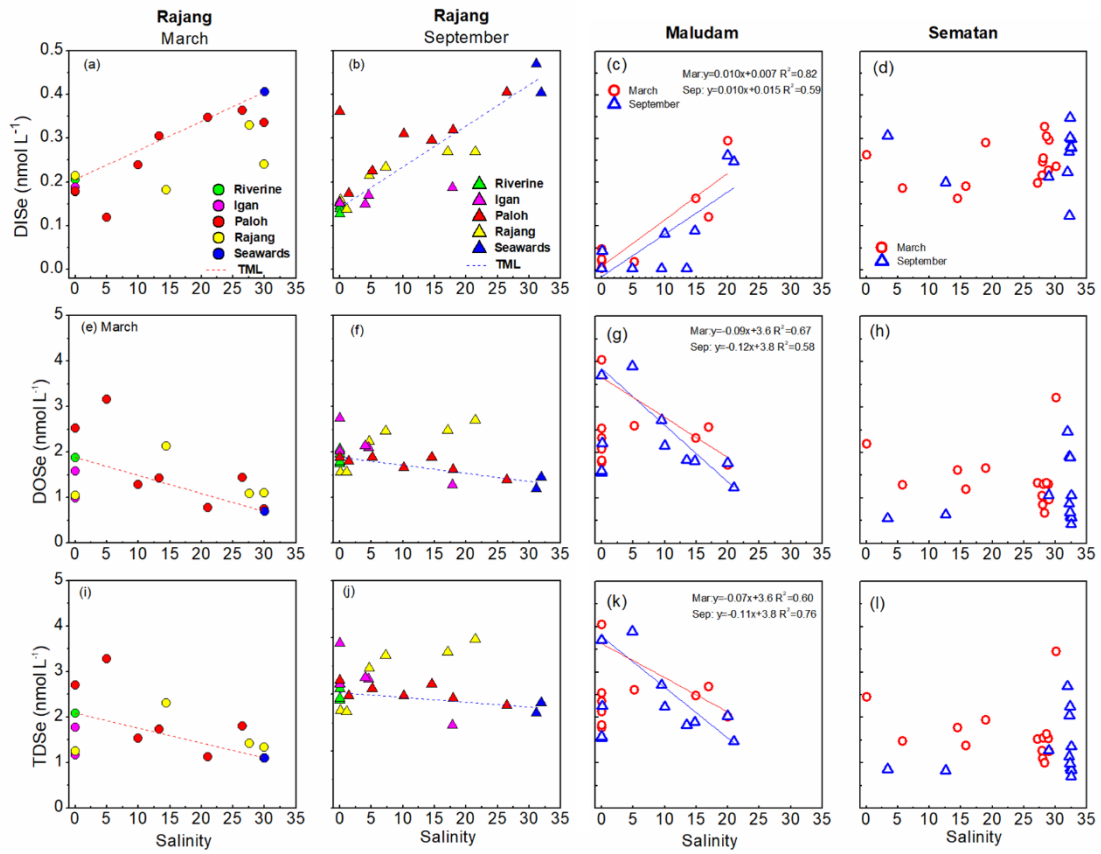
722

723 Figure 1. (a) Map of the study area showing the location of Sarawak on the
724 island of Borneo. Blue boxes with letters indicate the areas shown in panels
725 b–d. (b–d) Station locations for the Rajang River (b), the Samunsam,
726 Sematan, and Lunda rivers (c), and the Maludam, Sebuyau, and Simunjan
727 rivers (d) in March and September 2017. The maps were made with Ocean
728 Data View (2019).
729



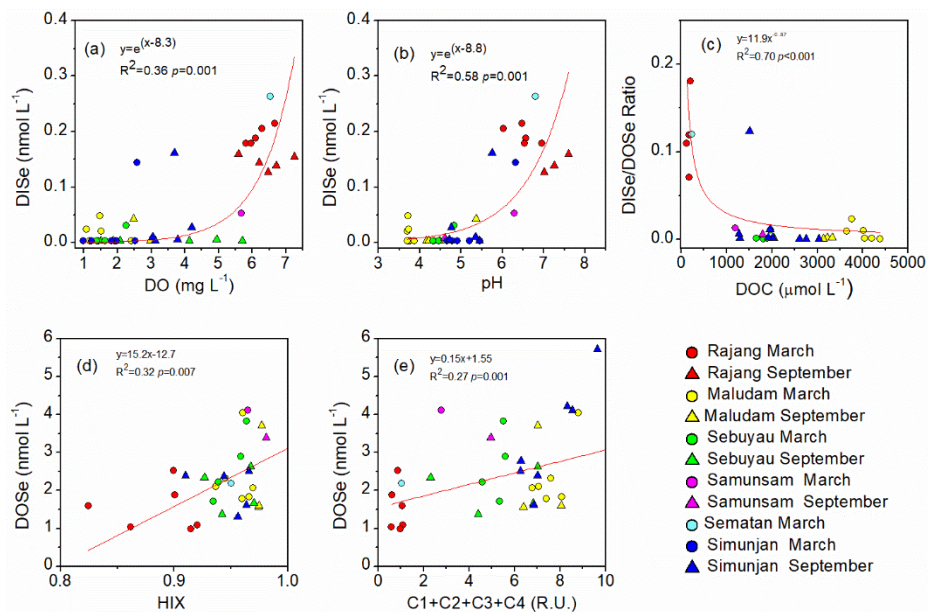
730

731 **Figure 2 The box plot of TDSe, DISe and DOSe concentration and**
 732 **DOSe/TDSe ratio in the sampled rivers and estuaries in Malaysia in March**
 733 **and September 2017, respectively. In the plot of the upper panel, the**
 734 **ends of the box and the ends of the whiskers, and the line across each box represent**
 735 **the 25th and 75th percentiles, the fifth and 99th percentiles, and the median,**
 736 **respectively; the open square indicates the mean value.**
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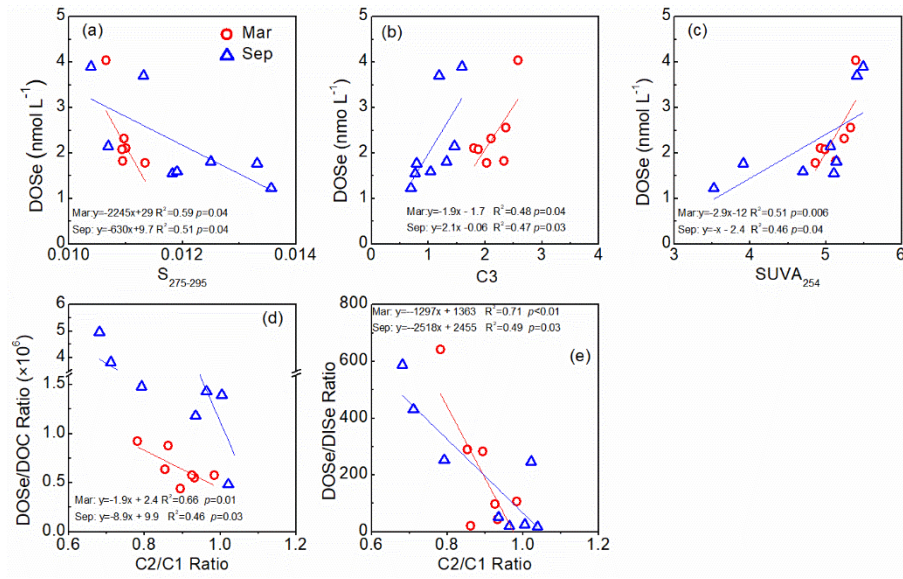
739 **Figure 3. Relationships between DISe (a - d), DOSe (e - h), and TDSe (i - l)**
 740 **concentrations with salinity in the Rajang and three Rajang tributaries (Igan,**
 741 **Lassa, and Rajang), and in the Maludam and Sematan estuaries in March and**
 742 **September 2017. TML refers to the theoretical mixing line, which was defined**
 743 **using two endmembers: freshwater in the riverine system and seawater.**
 744



745

746 Figure 4. Relationships between (a, b) DISe concentrations and DO and pH
 747 values, (c) DISe/DOSe ratios and DOC concentration values, and (d–e) DOSe
 748 concentrations with the humification index (HIX) and the sum of humic-like
 749 CDOM components (C1, C2, C3, and C4) in freshwater (Salinity < 1) for the
 750 Rajang, Sematan, Maludam, Sebuyau, Samunsam, and Simunjan rivers in
 751 March and September. The HIX and C1, C2, C3, and C4 components are
 752 from Zhou et al. (2019) from the same cruises. DO concentrations and pH
 753 values were not available for the Sematan River for September, and the HIX
 754 and CDOM components were not available for the Rajang River for
 755 September.

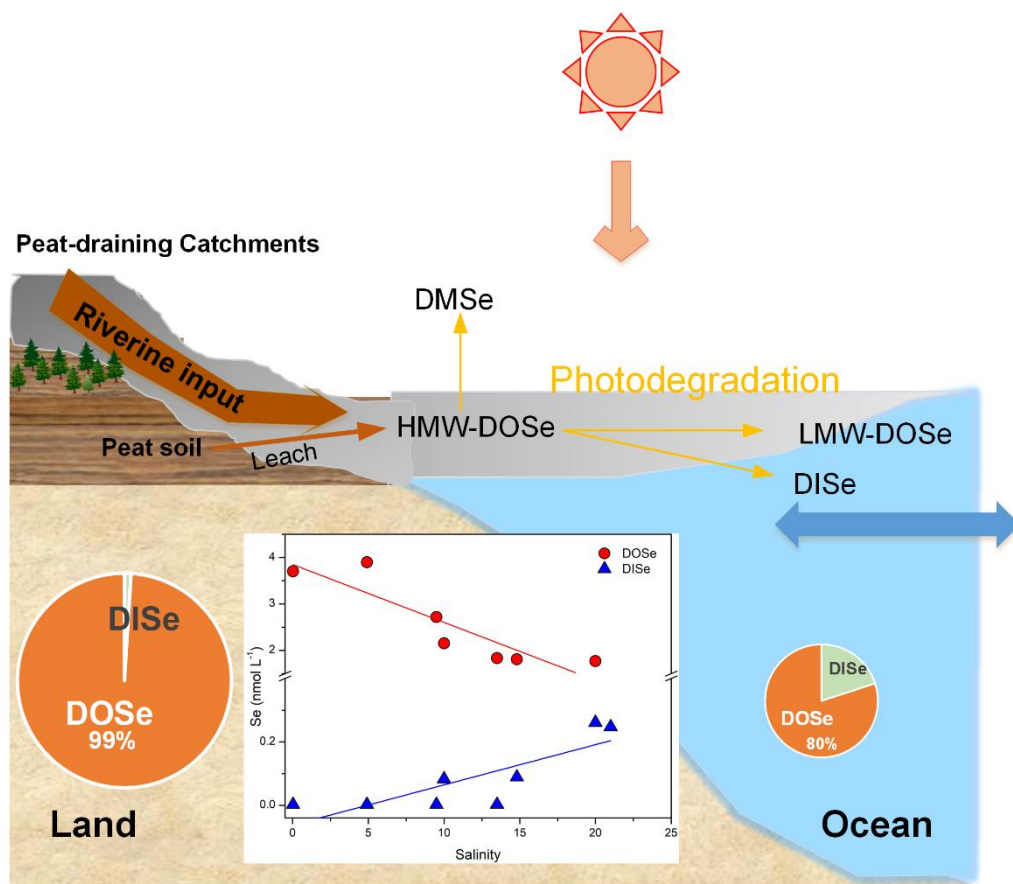
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757

758 **Figure 5. Relationships between DOSe concentrations and S₂₇₅₋₂₉₅, C3**
 759 **components and SUVA₂₅₄, DOSe/DOC ratio and C2/C1 component ratios,**
 760 **and DOSe/DISE ratios and C2/C1 component ratios in the Rajang and**
 761 **Maludam estuaries. The S₂₇₅₋₂₉₅, SUVA₂₅₄, C1, C2, and C3 components are**
 762 **from Martin et al. (2018) and Zhou et al. (2019) from the same cruises.**
 763

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765

766 Figure 6. Conceptual diagram of the behaviour of Se species in the Maludam
767 estuary. HMW, LMW, and DMSe represent high molecular weight, low
768 molecular weight, and dimethyl selenide, respectively.