



1 **Mercury mobility, colloid formation and methylation in a pol-**  
2 **luted fluvisol as affected by manure application and flooding-**  
3 **draining cycle.**

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10



11 **Abstract**

12 Floodplain soils polluted with high levels of mercury (Hg) are potential point sources to downstream eco-systems.  
13 Repeated flooding (e.g. redox cycling) and agricultural activities (e.g. organic matter addition) may influence the  
14 fate and speciation of Hg in these soil systems. The formation and aggregation of colloids and particles influences  
15 both Hg mobility and its bioavailability to methylmercury (MeHg) forming microbes. In this study, we conducted a  
16 microcosm flooding-draining experiment on Hg polluted floodplain soils originating from an agriculturally used  
17 area situated in the Rhone Valley (Valais, Switzerland). The experiment comprised two 14 days flooding periods  
18 separated by one 14 days draining period. The effect of freshly added natural organic matter on Hg dynamics was  
19 assessed by adding liquid cow manure (+MNR) to two control soils characterized by different Hg ( $47.3 \pm 0.6 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$   
20 or  $2.38 \pm 0.01 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and organic carbon (OC: 1.92 wt. % or 3.45 wt. %) contents. During the experiment, the  
21 release, colloid formation and methylation of Hg in the soil solution were monitored. Upon manure addition in the  
22 highly polluted soil (lowest OC), an accelerated release of Hg to the soil solution could be linked to a fast reductive  
23 dissolution of Mn oxides. The manure treatments showed a fast sequestration of Hg and a higher percentage of par-  
24 ticulate (0.02 – 10  $\mu\text{m}$ ) bound Hg. As well, analyses of soil solutions by asymmetrical flow field-flow fractionation  
25 coupled with inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (AF4-ICP-MS) revealed a proportional increase of  
26 colloidal DOM-Hg and inorganic colloidal Hg (+MNR: 70 - 100 %; control: 32 – 70 %) upon manure addition. Our  
27 experiment shows that net Hg methylation (MeHg/Hg) was highest after the first draining period and decreased  
28 again after the second flooding period. No significant effects on methylation upon manure addition was found. The  
29 results of this study suggest that manure addition may promote sequestration by Hg complexation on large organic  
30 matter components and the formation/aggregation of inorganic  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  colloids in Hg polluted fluvisols with low  
31 levels of natural organic matter.  
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## 34 1. Introduction

35 Mercury (Hg) is a pollutant of global concern due to its high toxicity and to its global biogeochemical cycle which  
36 spans all environmental compartments (atmosphere, oceans, soils etc.) (Beckers and Rinklebe, 2017; AMAP/UN  
37 Environment, 2019). Sediments and soils are major Hg pools with relatively long residence times (Amos et al.,  
38 2013; Driscoll et al., 2013). Legacy Hg from industrial sites (e.g. chloralkali plants or mining areas) retained in soils  
39 are a key source for present day atmospheric Hg (Amos et al., 2013). However, this retained Hg pool can also be  
40 remobilized by landscape alteration, land use (e.g. fertilization, manure addition) or climate induced changes such as  
41 drought-flood-drought cycles of soils (Singer et al., 2016). These inputs are a threat to downstream ecosystems and  
42 human health due to release of inorganic Hg and the formation and bioaccumulation of toxic monomethylmercury  
43 (MeHg) in both aquatic and terrestrial food chains (Biggam et al., 2017).

44 Mercury is redox sensitive and occurs mainly as elemental  $\text{Hg}^0$ , inorganic  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  or in the form of MeHg in soils. In  
45 general, Hg speciation in soils depends on the biogeochemical conditions. For example, in natural organic matter  
46 (NOM) rich boreal peatlands and forest soils, Hg is primarily bound to thiol-groups of NOM (NOM-Hg), or found  
47 as  $\text{FeS}_{(s)}$  or as cinnabar  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$ . These species are the thermodynamically most favored forms of Hg in these envi-  
48 ronments (Skylberg et al., 2006; Skylberg and Drott, 2010; Biester et al., 2002). However, Hg sorbed on the sur-  
49 faces of manganese (Mn), iron (Fe) and aluminum (Al) oxy-hydroxides may also represent important Hg-pools in  
50 soils with low amounts of NOM (Guedron et al., 2009).

51 The fate of Hg in soils is still not well characterized, and its mobilization and sequestration in soil depends on a  
52 variety of factors and mechanisms. The release of Hg to the soil solution and its further transport has been associated  
53 with the mobilization of NOM (Kronberg et al., 2016; Eklöf et al., 2018; Åkerblom et al., 2008), copper (Cu) nano-  
54 particles (Hofacker et al., 2013) or the reductive dissolution of Fe/Mn-oxyhydroxides (Frohne et al., 2012; Gyax et  
55 al., 2019; Poulin et al., 2016). Earlier studies reported an immediate decrease of dissolved Hg after its release upon  
56 flooding in various riparian settings (Hofacker et al., 2013; Poulin et al., 2016; Gyax et al., 2019). Possible path-  
57 ways for this decrease are  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  reduction to  $\text{Hg}^0$ , sorption to recalcitrant NOM, formation of meta-cinnabar  $\beta\text{-HgS}_{(s)}$   
58 or co-precipitation of Hg in sulfides (e.g.  $\text{FeS}_{(s)}$ ) or metallic particles.

59 Metallic colloids in soil may be formed by e.g. biomineralization during soil reduction or precipitation in the root  
60 zone and potentially incorporate toxic trace elements like Hg (Weber et al., 2009; Manceau et al., 2008). These  
61 colloids may increase the mobility and persistence of toxic trace metals in soil solution if they do not aggregate to  
62 bigger particles. During a flooding incubation experiment, Hofacker et al. 2013 observed the incorporation of Hg in  
63 Cu nano-particles formed by biomineralization (Hofacker et al., 2015). Colloidal  $\beta\text{-HgS}_{(s)}$  has been reported to form  
64 abiotically in soils under oxic conditions directly by interaction with thiol-groups of NOM (Manceau et al., 2015). In  
65 solution, Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM) has a major influence in the formation and aggregation of metallic col-  
66 loids and particles. It may promote the dissolution of  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  (Miller et al., 2007) or decelerate the aggregation and  
67 growth of Hg incorporating metal sulfide colloids by complexing Hg ions as well as altering the reaction kinetics of  
68 e.g.  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  formation. The same effect was also observed for other metal sulfide-, oxide- or carbonate colloids



69 (Aiken et al., 2011). In case of Hg, this may in turn increase its mobility and bioavailability to MeHg producing  
70 microorganisms (Deonarine and Hsu-Kim, 2009; Ravichandran et al., 1999; Aiken et al., 2011; Graham et al.,  
71 2012). Chelation of Hg with larger NOM molecules may as well inhibit the microbial availability of Hg (Bravo et  
72 al., 2017). Within Hg–NOM, the sorption on larger thiol rich NOM is thermodynamically favored. However, differ-  
73 ent ligand exchange reactions (e.g. carboxyl-groups to thiol groups) kinetically control this sorption and thus the  
74 bioavailability of dissolved Hg in aqueous systems (Miller et al., 2007; Miller et al., 2009; Liang et al., 2019). The  
75 partly contradicting statements above illustrate the complex role of NOM and DOM on the Hg cycle and Hg bioa-  
76 vailability and the need for more research in this field.

77 The formation of MeHg from inorganic  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  has been shown to be primarily microbially driven. Environments of  
78 redox oscillation (e.g. floodplains, estuaries) represent hot spots for Hg methylation (Marvin-DiPasquale et al.,  
79 2014; Biggam et al., 2017). Mercury methylators are usually anaerobe microbial species such as sulfate reducers  
80 (SRB), Fe reducers (FeRB), archaea and some firmicutes (Gilmour et al., 2013). Generally, Hg is bioavailable to  
81 methylators in the form of dissolved  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$ , Hg complexed by labile DOM, Hg bearing inorganic nanoparticles (e.g.  
82  $\text{FeS}_{(s)}$ ,  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$ ) but is less available when complexed by particulate organic matter (Hg–POM) or larger inorganic  
83 particles (Chiasson-Gould et al., 2014; Graham et al., 2013; Rivera et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2012; Jonsson et al.,  
84 2012). Further, DOM is a main driver of Hg methylation as it influences both bioavailability and microbial activity.  
85 The role of DOM as electron donor may enhance the microbial activity and thus the cellular uptake. The composi-  
86 tion and origin of DOM were reported to change Hg methylation rates (Drott et al., 2007; Bravo et al., 2017). For  
87 example, (Bravo et al., 2017) showed that in lake sediments, terrestrial derived DOM led to slower methylation rates  
88 than phytoplankton derived DOM. The addition of DOM in form of organic amendments (e.g. manure or rice straw)  
89 had been reported to have both an enhancing (Gygax et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019) or no effect  
90 (Zhu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016) on the net-methylation in soils. Further, organic amendments were reported to  
91 shift microbial communities. Both the enhancement of Hg demethylators, Hg reducers (Hu et al., 2019) as well as  
92 the enhancement Hg methylators upon organic amendments were reported (Tang et al., 2019). Methylation hotspots  
93 (redox boundaries) are also places of NOM degradation and mineralization. The degradation of large NOM to more  
94 bioavailable low molecular weight (LMW) compounds promoted by microbial Mn oxidation, especially in systems  
95 with neutral pH (Jones et al., 2018; Sunda and Kieber, 1994; Ma et al., 2020), is also hypothesized to increase bioa-  
96 vailability of Hg–NOM. However, amendments of Mn oxides were also shown to inhibit Fe,  $\text{SO}_4^-$  reducing condi-  
97 tions and thus MeHg formation in sediments (Vlassopoulos et al., 2018).

98 Hg methylation and mobilization is intensively studied in paddy field soils and peat soils due to their relevance in  
99 food production or the Hg global cycle (Wang et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2019; Wang  
100 et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2016; Kronberg et al., 2016; Skjllberg, 2008; Skjllberg et al., 2006).  
101 However, only few studies focused on Hg methylation and mobility in temperate floodplain soils (Frohne et al.,  
102 2012; Hofacker et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009; Gilli et al., 2018; Poulin et al., 2016). As well, few studies have  
103 examined the effect of flooding and/or land use (NOM addition in the form of animal manure) in polluted soils with  
104 respect to Hg release and methylation potential (Tang et al., 2018; Gygax et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018; Hofacker  
105 et al., 2013; Frohne et al., 2012). Furthermore, most of these studies were focusing on soils with rather high OC



106 levels (5 – 10 wt. %) and only few researches have addressed the decrease of Hg in soil solution of flooded soils  
107 over time, including the fate of colloidal Hg.  
108 This work focused on the effect of the agricultural practices on the Hg biogeochemistry in a contaminated fluvisol  
109 with specific emphasis on the flooding-draining cycle and manure addition. We studied the effect of these cycles  
110 and manure addition on 1.) the release and sequestration of Hg, 2.) the net-methylation of Hg and 3.) the evolution  
111 of colloidal and particulate Hg in soil solution. The latter was studied by analyzing different soil solution filter frac-  
112 tions (0.02/10  $\mu\text{m}$ ) as well as analyzing selected samples by asymmetric flow field flow fractionation coupled to a  
113 UV<sub>vis</sub> detector, a fluorescence detector and an ICP–MS (AF4–ICP–MS).

## 114 **2. Methods and Materials**

### 115 **2.1. Sample collection**

116 We sampled soil from agriculturally used fields in the alpine Rhone Valley in Wallis, Switzerland on September  
117 30<sup>th</sup>, 2019. The fields are situated in a former floodplain next to the artificial “Grossgrundkanal” canal. This canal  
118 was built in the 1900s to drain the floodplain and as a buffer for the emissions of an acetaldehyde producing chemi-  
119 cal plant upstream. The soils on the floodplain were subjected to Hg pollution from this plant between the 1930s and  
120 the 1970s, mostly through the removal and dispersion of the canal sediments onto the agricultural fields (Glenz and  
121 Escher, 2011). After heavy rain events, the fields are subjected to draining-flooding cycles (Fig. S1) and have been  
122 identified as potential hotspots for Hg methylation and release (Gygax et al., 2019). For this study, soil was sampled  
123 from a cornfield and a pasture field next to the canal. A map and the coordinates of the sampling locations is provid-  
124 ed in the supplement (Fig. S1, Table S1). At each site, a composite sample of approx. 10 kg of soil was sampled  
125 between 0 – 20 cm depth from ten points on the fields. The soil samples were named after their relative pollution  
126 and organic carbon levels (High Mercury, Low Carbon (HMLC) and Low Mercury, High Carbon (LMHC), see Part  
127 4.3 below for details on the soils. After sampling, roots were removed, and the fresh soil was sieved to < 2 mm grain  
128 size, further homogenized, split in two parts and stored on ice in airtight PE Bags for transport to the laboratory.  
129 Additionally, approx. 2 L of liquid cow manure was sampled from a close-by cattle farm. One aliquot of the samples  
130 was stored at - 20° C until further processing. The remaining part was used for the incubation experiment within 12  
131 h after sampling. A detailed description of the site and sampling procedures is given in the supplement (Sect. S1).

### 132 **2.2 Incubation experimental setup.**

133 An initial incubation was conducted in 10 L HDPE containers in the dark for seven days in an atmosphere of 22 °C  
134 and 60 % relative humidity (RH) in order to equilibrate the soils and to prevent a peak of microbial respiration in-  
135 duced by the soil sieving before the onset of the experiment (Fig. 1). After this initial incubation the soils were  
136 passed to the flooding-draining experiment. This was conducted in 1 L Borosilicate aspirator bottles. The environ-  
137 ment created though soil flooding in these bottles will be called microcosm (MC) in the following text. The experi-  
138 ments were run in triplicates and named after the relative pollution and organic carbon levels of the used soil  
139 (HMLC and LMHC) and the treatment with or without manure addition (control and +MNR). The MCs were



140 equipped with an acid washed suction cup with a pore size of  $< 10 \mu\text{m}$  (model: 4313.7/ETH, ecoTech Umwelt-  
141 Meßsysteme GmbH, Bonn, Germany). In the following sequence, 700 g of artificial rainwater ( $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  11.6 mg  
142  $\text{L}^{-1}$ /  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  7.85 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ /  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  1.11 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ /  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  1.31 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ /  $\text{CaCl}_2$  4.32 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) were added to the  
143 MCs. For the manure treatment, 0.6 % (w/w) (3 g) of liquid cow manure was added to the MCs corresponding to  
144 one application of liquid manure on a cornfield following the principles of fertilization of agricultural crops in Swit-  
145 zerland (Richner and Sinaj, 2017) and finally fresh soil was added with a  $\text{soil}_{\text{dry}}:\text{water}$  ratio of 1:1.4 (w/w) (Fig. S2).  
146 Then, the MCs were gently shaken for at least one minute to avoid any remaining air bubbles in the soil pore space.  
147 An additional mixture of fresh soil artificial rainwater (1:1.4 (w/w)) was shaken for 6 h to assess the equilibration of  
148 the solid and liquid phase during the experiment. The MCs were covered with Parafilm®, transferred to the incuba-  
149 tion chamber (APT.line™ KBWF, Binder, Tuttlingen, Germany) and incubated in the dark for 14 days in atmos-  
150 phere of 22 °C and 60 % RH. The incubation temperature was chosen to be close to the daily mean soil temperature  
151 in 10 cm depth during summer months between 2015–2019 (21.4 °C) at the closest soil temperature monitoring  
152 station (Sion, VS, provided by MeteoSwiss) situated downstream. After the first flooding period, the supernatant  
153 water was pipetted off, and remaining water was sampled through the suction cups to drain the MCs. They were  
154 weighted before and after water removal. Then, approximately 25 g of moist soil was sampled by two to three  
155 scoops though the whole soils column using a disposable lab spoon. The MCs were kept drained in an atmosphere of  
156 22 °C and 10 % RH for 14 days. For the second flooding period, the incubators were again flooded with 500 g of  
157 artificial rainwater and incubated for another 14 days in an atmosphere of 22 °C and 60 % RH (Fig. 1). After the  
158 incubation, the suction cups were removed, the soils were homogenized and then transferred from the MC to a PE  
159 bag and stored at -20 °C until further processing.

### 160 2.3 Soil and manure characterization

161 Frozen soil and manure samples were freeze dried to avoid a loss of Hg prior to analyses (Hojdová et al., 2015),  
162 ground using an automatic ball mill (MM400, Retsch, Haan, Germany) and analyzed for the following chemical  
163 parameters. Carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and sulfur (S) were measured with an elemental analyzer (vario EL cube, Ele-  
164 mentar Analysensysteme, Langensfeld, Germany). Organic Carbon (OC) was calculated by subtracting the C  
165 concentration of a loss on ignition sample (550 °C for 2 h) from the original C concentration. pH was measured in  
166 an equilibrated 0.01 M  $\text{CaCl}_2$  solution (1:5 soil:liquid ratio). Mineral composition was measured by X-ray diffrac-  
167 tion (XRD, CubiX<sup>3</sup>, Malvern Panalytical, Malvern, United Kingdom). Trace and major metals (e.g. Fe, Mn, Cu) and  
168 Hg were extracted from soils using a 15.8 M nitric acid microwave digestion and measured using an Inductively  
169 Coupled Plasma - Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS, 7700x, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, United States of America).  
170 Methylmercury was selectively extracted with HCl and dichloromethane (DCM) using an adapted method de-  
171 scribed elsewhere (Gygax et al., 2019). We modified this method to achieve high throughput (64 Samples per run)  
172 and measurements by High Pressure Liquid Chromatography (HPLC, 1200 Series, Agilent Technologies, Santa  
173 Clara, United States of America) coupled to the ICP-MS. Details on laboratory materials, extractions, analytical  
174 methods and instrumentation are provided in the supplement (Sects. S2, S3). We calculated the relative de-



175 /methylation during the incubation as the relative difference of MeHg/Hg ratios between two time points (t) using  
176 Eq. (1).

$$177 \quad De/methylation (\%) = \frac{\left( \frac{MeHg}{Hg} \Big|_{t_i} - \frac{MeHg}{Hg} \Big|_{t_{i-1}} \right)}{\frac{MeHg}{Hg} \Big|_{t_{i-1}}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

#### 178 **2.4 Soil description.**

179 Both soils were identified as *Fluvisols gleyic*. They have a silt loam texture, the same mineral composition but dif-  
180 fering Hg and organic carbon (C<sub>org</sub>) concentrations (Table 1). For elements relevant for Hg cycling, Hg molar ratios  
181 (Hg:Cu, Hg:C<sub>org</sub>, Hg:Mn) differ between samples and soils used in similar incubation experiments (Hofacker et al.,  
182 2013; Poulin et al., 2016). We note that the [C<sub>org</sub>/Mn]<sub>molar</sub> was 30 % higher in the LMHC soil compared to HMLC.  
183 X-Ray diffractograms of both soils are shown in Fig. S3. The soils diffractograms are overlapping each other and  
184 the qualitative analyses of the diffractograms show that the soils parental material is composed of the same five  
185 main mineral phases, Quartz, Albite, Orthoclase, Illite/Muskovite, Calcite.

#### 186 **2.5 Soil solution sampling and analyses**

187 Soil solution was sampled 0.25, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 11, 14 days after the onset of each flooding period respectively  
188 (Fig. 1, Fig. S4). It was sampled through the tubing connected to the suction cup (< 10 µm pre size). The first 2 ml  
189 were sampled with a syringe and discarded to prime the system and condition the tubing. After, 4 ml were drawn  
190 through an airtight flow-through system to measure the redox potential (Hg/HgCl ORP electrode) and pH. Then,  
191 approximately 35 ml of soil solution were sampled using a self-made syringe pump system allowing for a regular  
192 flow and minimal remobilization of fine particles. We left one part of the soil solution as such (filtered by suction  
193 cup to < 10 µm) while a second part was filtered to < 0.02 µm pore size (Whatman® Anodisc 0.02 µm, Sigma-  
194 Aldrich, St. Louis, United States of America). A third part was filtered to < 0.45 µm on days 2, 5 and 9 after the  
195 onset of each flooding period. Subsequently, the samples were subdivided and treated for different analyses. They  
196 were preserved in 1 % HNO<sub>3</sub> for multi elemental analysis (Al, P, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Sr, U) and in 1 %  
197 HNO<sub>3</sub> 0.5 % HCl for Hg analysis and analyzed by ICP-MS. For major anion (Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) and cation (K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>,  
198 Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>) measurements, samples were diluted 1:4 in ultra-pure water and analyzed by Ion Chromatography (Di-  
199 onex Aquion™, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, United States of America). Samples for Dissolved Organic  
200 Carbon (DOC), Particulate Organic Carbon POC and Total Nitrogen Bound (TN<sub>b</sub>) were diluted 1:5 and stabilized  
201 using 10 µl of 10 % HCl and measured using an Elemental Analyzer (vario TOC cube, Elementar Analysensysteme,  
202 Langensfeld, Germany). Incubation experiment blanks were below 0.396 mM and 1.6 µM for DOC and TN<sub>b</sub>,  
203 respectively. These relatively high blank values might originate from either the syringes or the suction cups  
204 (Siemens and Kaupenjohann, 2003). HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations were estimated based on the ionic charge balance of the  
205 soil solution using VisMinteq (<https://vminteq.lwr.kth.se/>). A detailed schedule and list of analyses is provided in  
206 Figure 1 and Table S2. Concentrations of specific filter fractions are labelled with suffix (e.g. Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub>). Particulate  
207 concentrations (0.02 µm < X < 10 µm) (PHg) and its proportion to the total (PHg<sub>rel</sub>) were determined as the differ-  
208 ence between unfiltered and filtered concentration (Table 1).



## 209 2.6 Characterization of Colloids (AF4)

210 An aliquot of the soil solution was used for characterization of colloids in one out of three replicate MCs (Rep1) of  
211 each treatment on days 2, 5, 9 days after the onset of each flooding period respectively. Right after sampling, the  
212 aliquots were transferred to a N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere in a glove box. There, the samples were filtered to < 0.45 μm and pre-  
213 served in airtight borosilicate headspace vials at 4 °C. Colloidal size fractions and elemental concentrations of the  
214 filtrates were analyzed by Asymmetrical Flow Field-Flow Fractionation (AF4, AF2000, Postnova analytic, Lands-  
215 berg am Lech, Germany) coupled to a UV<sub>254nm</sub> absorbance detector (UVD), a Fluorescence detector (FLD, RF-20A,  
216 Shimadzu, Reinach, Switzerland) and an ICP–MS (7700x, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, United States of Amer-  
217 ica) within 14 days after sampling. Colloids contained in 1 mL of samples were separated in a channel made of a  
218 trapezoidal spacer of 350 μm thickness and a regenerated cellulose membrane with a nominal cut-off of 1 kDa used  
219 as accumulation wall. The mobile phase used for AF4 elution was 10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> at pH 7 and was degassed prior  
220 entering the channel by argon flowing. A linear decrease of crossflow from 2 to 0 mL min<sup>-1</sup> over 20 min was used  
221 after injecting the samples at an initial crossflow of 2.7 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. At the end of a run, the crossflow was kept at 0  
222 mL min<sup>-1</sup> for 5 min in order to elute non-fractionated particles. Retention times were transformed into hydrodynamic  
223 diameters (d<sub>h</sub>) by an external calibration using Hemocyanin Type VIII from *Limulus polyphemus* hemolymph  
224 (monomer d<sub>h</sub> = 7 nm, Sigma-Aldrich) and ultra-uniform gold nanoparticles (Nanocomposix) of known d<sub>h</sub> (19 nm  
225 and 39 nm). Additionally, the elution of the smallest retention times (d<sub>h</sub> < 10 nm) were converted into molecular  
226 masses (Mw) using PSS standards (Postnova analytic, Landsberg am Lech, Germany) with Mw ranging from 1.1 to  
227 64 kDa (Fig. S5), using AF4-UVD<sub>254nm</sub>.

228 Fractograms obtained in Counts Per Seconds (CPS) from Time Resolved Analysis (TRA) acquisition were convert-  
229 ed to μg L<sup>-1</sup> using external calibrations made from a multi-element standard solution (ICP multi-element standard  
230 solution VI, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) diluted in 1 % HNO<sub>3</sub> or a Hg standard (ICP inorganic Hg standard solu-  
231 tion, TraceCERT®, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, United States of America) diluted in 0.5 % HCl 1 % HNO<sub>3</sub>. The dif-  
232 ferent size fractions were obtained by multiple extreme-shaped peak fitting, using OriginPro 2018 software  
233 (OriginLab Corporation). The peaks obtained were then integrated individually, after conversion of elution time to  
234 elution volume, to provide the quantity of Hg in each size fractions (Dublet et al., 2019). The analytes passing the 1  
235 kDa membrane are considered as the (< 1 kDa) truly dissolved fraction. It was calculated by subtracting the concen-  
236 trations of colloidal Hg recovered by AF4–ICP–MS (total integration of the Hg signals) to the total dissolved Hg  
237 concentrations measured separately by ICP–MS in corresponding acidified samples. The concentration of truly dis-  
238 solved Hg is displayed as Hg<sub><1kDa</sub> for the rest of the article (Table 1). AF4–ICP–MS, UV<sub>254nm</sub> and fluorescence sig-  
239 nals were used to further characterize Hg bearing colloids, after hydrodynamic size separation by AF4. The UV<sub>254nm</sub>  
240 light absorption is widely used to detect organic compounds but it should be noted that part of the UV<sub>254nm</sub> light  
241 signal can as well originate from Fe(II) or Fe hydroxides (Dublet et al., 2019). This was not the case in this study  
242 since UV<sub>254nm</sub> signals were associated with C signals recorded by ICP–MS and matched the fractograms obtained by  
243 the FLD detector tuned at the wavelengths specific for humic-like fluorophores. It is therefore assumed that UV<sub>254nm</sub>  
244 signal represents organic compounds throughout the manuscript.





### 245 3. Results

#### 246 3.1 Mercury dynamics (mobilization and sequestration).

247 In the HMLC control MCs, the pH of the soil solutions remained in a neutral to alkaline range of 8 to 8.4 throughout  
248 the whole experiment (Fig. S6). The DOC concentrations ranged between 37.5 and 106 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2h). A continu-  
249 ous soil reduction was observed with completed NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction and the onset of Mn release at day 7 of the main  
250 incubation (Figs. 2d and S7). An increase of both Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub> and Hg<sub><10µm</sub> concentrations was simultaneous to the Mn  
251 release (Figs. 2a-e). Mean Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub> concentration peaked on day 9 (17.1 ± 2.3 µg L<sup>-1</sup> Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub>) and slightly de-  
252 creased towards the end of the first flooding period on day 14 (13.7 ± 4.9 µg L<sup>-1</sup> Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub>). The proportion of par-  
253 ticulate Hg, PHg<sub>rel.</sub>, gradually decreased from a maximum of 88 % to a minimum of 25 % at the end of the first  
254 flooding (Fig. 2c). Cu<sub><0.02µm</sub> concentrations increased up to 88.2 ± 17.5 µg L<sup>-1</sup> within the first 4 days and then gradu-  
255 ally decreased to 30.6 ± 3.54 µg L<sup>-1</sup> at day 14 (Fig. 2e).

256 During the second flooding period, individual MCs behaved differently in the HMLC control treatment. The differ-  
257 ences of soil solution E<sub>h</sub> and redox sensitive trace metals (e.g. Cu, Mn, Hg, Fe, Cr) were apparent from the start of  
258 the second flooding (Figs. 2f-g, S8). Contrastingly, DOC concentrations and pH remained similar between incuba-  
259 tors (Fig. 2h). Two replicates (Rep1; Rep3) showed a pronounced increase of E<sub>h</sub> after the draining period (Fig. 2i).  
260 The Rep1 showed a depletion of Mn in soil solution indicating the formation of Mn oxide minerals but values ob-  
261 tained for Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub> and Mn<sub><0.02µm</sub> were then increased and peaked at 23.6 µg L<sup>-1</sup> and 448 µg L<sup>-1</sup> respectively during  
262 the second flooding. The PHg<sub>rel.</sub> decreased from 60 % to 30 %, and Cu<sub><0.02µm</sub> concentrations were high (88.4 µg L<sup>-1</sup>)  
263 at the onset but decreased to lower levels (11.8 µg L<sup>-1</sup>). Further, the E<sub>h</sub> of this MC remained high (150 to 300 mV) in  
264 this period. The E<sub>h</sub> of Rep2 was lower (between 28 and 120 mV), Mn remained at the same level before and after  
265 draining phase, and no second release of Hg was observed. The Rep2 showed a release of Fe indicating the onset  
266 reduction of Fe oxyhydroxides, analogous to the Mn release in Rep1. The PHg<sub>rel.</sub> remained between 60 and 75 % in  
267 this MC. In Rep3, Mn remained at the same level before and after the draining period. During the second flooding,  
268 this MC showed a slightly lower release of Hg compared to Rep1, peaking at 10.9 µg L<sup>-1</sup>, and associated to a de-  
269 crease of PHg<sub>rel.</sub> from 60 % to 30 % and showed a faster decrease in DOC compared to the two other MCs (Fig. 2h).

270 In the cornfield soil MC with manure addition (HMLC +MNR) pH remained in the range of 8 to 8.35 with minor  
271 fluctuations throughout the experiment. DOC concentrations were ranging between 72.2 and 134 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2h).  
272 This was significantly higher (3 to 43 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) than in HMLC control. Soil solution redox potential decreased rapidly  
273 from approx. E<sub>h</sub> 300 mV to 5.27 ± 14.4 mV within the first 14 days of the incubation in the HMLC +MNR treat-  
274 ment. It remained constant at 14.3 ± 8.12 mV during the second flooding period. Release of Mn and Hg started at  
275 day 2 of the main incubation once NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction was completed (Figs. 2, S6). Concentration of Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub> peaked on  
276 day 4 at 15.9 ± 1.4 µg L<sup>-1</sup>. By day 14, the Hg concentrations were close to the initial levels (1.73 ± 0.83 µg L<sup>-1</sup>  
277 Hg<sub><0.02µm</sub>) and remained low the rest of the incubation experiment. The PHg<sub>rel.</sub> decreased to approx. 40 % during the  
278 release of Hg but was > 60 % before and after. With the onset of the decrease in soil solution Hg concentration, we  
279 visually observed black precipitates in the incubators with added manure. Unlike the HMLC control, MCs triplicates  
280 of HMLC +MNR behaved similarly during both flooding periods. No Hg release was observed during the second  
281 flooding.



282 LMHC differed from HMLC in soil solution Hg dynamics. In both treatments (LMHC and LMHC +MNR), pH  
283 remained neutral but gradually decreased from 8.2 to 7.5 during the incubation (Fig. S6). Soil reduction progressed  
284 rapidly from a max of 332 mV at day 3 to -14.3 mV at day 14 (Fig. 3f). During the second flooding  $E_h$  stayed in the  
285 range of - 2.3 to 34.5 mV. Mn as well as DOC concentrations gradually increased during the first flooding period  
286 (Fig. 3d-e). Soil solution  $Hg_{<0.02\mu m}$  concentration (25 – 160 ng L<sup>-1</sup>) are two orders of magnitude lower than in the  
287 HMLC runs (Fig. 3a). Both  $Hg_{<0.02\mu m}$  and  $Hg_{<10\mu m}$  decreased gradually during the first flooding period (Figs. 3a-b).  
288 No other soil solution parameter followed the trend of Hg. In both treatments but the  $PH_{g,rel.}$  differed clearly between  
289 first flooding (> 65 %) and second flooding period (<< 50 %) (Fig. 3c).

### 290 3.2 Colloidal Hg (AF4)

291 Hg bearing colloids were detected in all soil solution samples of HMLC incubations. Due to low signal to noise  
292 ratios (< 3) we did not detect colloidal Hg in samples of the LMHC incubations. The proportion of truly dissolved  
293  $Hg_{<1kDa}$  varied between 0 % and 67 % in the HMLC control experiment and was high during the times of Hg release  
294 to soil solution (Fig. 4). In the HMLC +MNR treatment,  $Hg_{<1kDa}$  were lower and ranged between 0 % and 29 %. The  
295 colloidal Hg can be divided into 3 main fractions (Fig. 5). The first Hg colloidal fraction showed a main peak rang-  
296 ing between 1 – 40 kDa ( $d_h < 6$  nm) and was associated with UV<sub>254nm</sub>-absorbing compounds and various metals  
297 (Mn, Fe, Cu, Ni, Zn). This fraction was interpreted as humic substance type Hg-NOM. The proportion of this col-  
298 loidal Hg fraction varied with no specific trends from 11.5 to 23.3 % in HMLC and 13.6 to 38.6 % in HMLC +MNR  
299 throughout the course of the experiment. A second fraction of Hg colloids ranged between 6 nm and 20 nm. This  
300 well-defined size fraction was eluting in the tail of the first fraction for other metals (e.g. Fe, Mn, Cu) but did not  
301 overlap with UV<sub>254nm</sub> and fluorescence signals (Fig. 5). This fraction could not be chemically defined but is hypoth-  
302 esized to consist of  $HgS_{(s)}$  colloids. In the HMLC control treatment, we observed a decrease in the proportion of  
303 these inorganic colloids from 28 % at the onset to 15.3 % at the end of the incubation (Fig. 4). In the HMLC +MNR  
304 treatment, the proportion of this fraction ranged between 29.5 % and 41.9 % during the first flooding and could not  
305 be detected during the second flooding. Further, we observed a third colloidal fraction that continued to elute after  
306 the stop of the AF4 crossflow and it included colloids in the range of 30 – 450 nm (effective cut-off of the filter used  
307 for the sample preparation). In some cases, this fraction was better fitted using two overlapping populations (Fig. 5,  
308 Figs. S9-S12). In all the cases, Hg signal was associated with those of other metals and a slight bump of the UV<sub>254nm</sub>  
309 signal but more specifically an increase of fluorescence signal associated to protein-like fluorophores. This fraction  
310 decreased continuously in the HMLC control treatment during the incubation from 32.4 % at day 2, to 5.6 % at day  
311 9 and stood under 9.1 % during the rest of the incubation. By contrast, the HMLC +MNR showed an increase in the  
312 proportion of this fraction from 7.3% at day 2 to 25.3 % by the end of the incubation (Fig. 4). The deconvolution of  
313 the fractograms included an intermediate fraction of Hg bearing colloids ranging between  $d_h = 6$  nm and  $d_h = 450$  nm  
314 depending on the sample. This fraction was added to refine the fractogram fittings but could not directly be associ-  
315 ated to another measured metal. This indicates that this population overlap a more polydispersed Hg particle popula-  
316 tion although in some cases the presence of small Hg particles dominates. This broad fraction was not detected in  
317 HMLC +MRN treatments during the first flooding but made up > 30 % during the second flooding.



### 318 3.3 Net Hg methylation/demethylation

319 Soil MeHg levels fluctuated over the course of the incubation experiment, Fig. 6 and Table 2. Highest net-  
320 methylation was observed during the first flooding period for the treatments with MNR (up to + 81%) and during  
321 the draining phase for the treatments without MNR (up to + 73.1 %). We observed a significant decrease of  
322 MeHg/Hg and absolute MeHg concentrations in all incubators during the second flooding period (Fig. 6). In all  
323 MCs, MeHg/Hg increased by a factor of 1.18 to 1.36 throughout the incubation.

## 324 4. Discussion

### 325 4.1 Mercury release and sequestration.

326 Cornfield soil (HMLC) and pasture field soil (LMHC) behaved very differently in this incubation experiment and  
327 will be discussed separately. In the cornfield soil Hg and Mn releases were simultaneous and started when soil solu-  
328 tion  $E_h$  entered the field of Mn reduction below approx. 300mV (Figs. 2a, 2h), strongly suggesting that this Hg pool  
329 was adsorbed to Mn-oxyhydroxides. The simultaneous decrease of the  $PH_{g,rel.}$  and  $PMn_{rel.}$  indicates that Hg was  
330 adsorbed on both Mn-oxyhydroxides from soil and suspended particles (Figs. 2c and 2e). No other soil solution  
331 parameter (e.g. DOC) was directly related to the release of Hg. In the fluvisol of our study area, Hg mobilization is  
332 thus not driven by the mobilization of DOM unlike in peat soils, Histosols or Podsols in boreal environments  
333 (Åkerblom et al., 2008; Kronberg et al., 2016; Jiskra et al., 2017). Likewise we did not observe a mobilization of Hg  
334 together with Cu as reported earlier (Hofacker et al., 2013). This is explained by the comparably high  $Hg/Cu_{molar}$   
335 ratio in our soil matrix. After Hg release, Hg concentrations remained high and the particulate Hg fraction low  
336 throughout the experiment. This illustrates that the released pool of Hg mainly originated from Mn-oxyhydroxides  
337 and less from suspended POM nor particulate sulfide minerals in the cornfield soil. However, the pool bound to Mn-  
338 oxyhydroxides is relatively small. In neighboring soils the main Hg pool was previously reported as  $HgS_{(s)}$  and Hg  
339 complexed by recalcitrant NOM (Grigg et al., 2018). Earlier studies assumed that 0.1 to 0.6 % (w/w) of NOM was  
340 reduced sulphur with high affinity to Hg (Grigg et al., 2018; Ravichandran, 2004). Following this assumption, re-  
341 duced sulfur groups of the cornfield soil NOM could sorb between 11.9 to 71.9  $mg\ kg^{-1}$  of Hg. The soils high Hg  
342 concentration (44.8  $mg\ L^{-1}$ ) suggest, that soil NOM thiol sites are likely saturated in terms of Hg. Therefore, saturat-  
343 ed NOM sorption sites are not competing with Mn-oxyhydroxide sorption sites, resulting in a substantial Mn-  
344 oxyhydroxide bound Hg-pool. This leads to a higher mobility of Hg upon reductive dissolution of Mn-oxyhydroxide  
345 compared to fluvisols used in other incubation studies (Hofacker et al., 2013; Poulin et al., 2016).

346 During the second flooding phase, HMLC control runs showed a higher variability in redox sensitive soil solution  
347 parameters (Fig. 2). This might be explained as a.) a shift in microbial communities, b.) disturbance of the soil col-  
348 umn by invasive soil sampling in between the flooding periods or c.) uneven draining of the pore space after the first  
349 flooding. It can also reflect how redox cycle can be easily affected *in situ*. We suggest that the second release of Mn  
350 and Hg in Rep1 is due to Mn re-oxidation during the draining period and a second reductive dissolution of Mn oxy-  
351 hydroxides upon reflooding. This is supported by the elevated  $E_h$  at the onset of the second flooding. The HMLC  
352 control Rep3 showed a second release of Hg without a remobilization of Mn. Changing redox conditions have been



353 shown to enhance microbial respiration and therefore NOM degradation (Sunda and Kieber, 1994). Further, Mn  
354 oxidation was shown to enhance the degradation of larger NOM to LMW-NOM (Jones et al., 2018). Thus, we in-  
355 terpret the second Hg release in Rep 3 as a degradation/mineralization of NOM that bound Hg.

356 The addition of manure accelerated the release of Hg through reductive dissolution of Mn oxyhydroxides. Mercury  
357 was released 4 day earlier in the +MNR group compared to the control. We interpret this as an effect of additional  
358 organic carbon of the liquid manure acting as electron donor enhancing microbial activity. In the manure treatment,  
359 we observed a fast decrease of Hg concentration and a constantly high proportion of particulate  $\text{Hg}_{0.02\mu\text{m}-10\mu\text{m}}$  even  
360 after the plateau of Mn concentration in soil solution and the decrease of particulate Mn. The addition of manure  
361 represents an addition of 0.3 g of fresh NOM to the MCs. It is a source of POM (manure was sieved to  $< 500 \mu\text{m}$ )  
362 and increased DOC approximately by  $20 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . Therefore, we explain the decrease of Hg by a continuous com-  
363 plexation of mobilized Hg with the added NOM of the manure. The freshly added manure served as a source of new  
364 thiol sites. Adsorption of Hg is directed towards larger more thiol rich NOM (Liang et al., 2019) and different ligand  
365 exchange reactions (e.g. carboxyl-groups to thiol groups) happen within days (Miller et al., 2009; Chiasson-Gould et  
366 al., 2014). In addition, we visually observed black precipitated at the first day of Hg decrease in the MCs with ma-  
367 nure addition (Fig. S13) indicating the precipitation of sulfide mineral particles. Although,  $E_h$  measurements did not  
368 indicate sulphate reduction, the formation of sulfide minerals in micro- and meso-pores are possible. Furthermore,  
369 the formation of  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  from Hg-NOM was reported even under oxic-conditions (Manceau et al., 2015). In both  
370 scenarios the addition of manure would accelerate the process either by promoting soil reduction or as additional  
371 source of NOM.

372 Hofacker et al., 2013 reported a quantitatively relevant incorporation of Hg into metallic  $\text{Cu}^0$  particles. However, we  
373 do not consider this a relevant pathway, due to the relatively high Hg/ $\text{Cu}_{\text{molar}}$  ratio in our soil compared to Hofacker  
374 et al., 2013. Although the simultaneous decrease of Hg and Cu may be interpreted as the immobilization of Hg  
375 through incorporation into metallic Cu particles, i) we did not observe the formation of colloidal Cu associated with  
376 Hg (Sect. 6.2) and ii) relatively high Hg/Cu molar ratios indicate that the decrease of Hg in the soil solution cannot  
377 be solely explained by this mechanism as Hg would be marginally incorporated metallic  $\text{Cu}^0$  particles.

378 As well, Hg in soil solutions may be volatilized by reduction of  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Hg}^0$  (Hindersmann et al., 2014). Our exper-  
379 imental design did not allow for quantification of gaseous  $\text{Hg}^0$  and it may have exited the MCs since they were only  
380 sealed with parafilm. Reduction of  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  may happen both biotically and abiotically. The former process is a detoxi-  
381 cation mechanism of bacteria carrying *merA* genes in Hg polluted environments. Biotic volatilization has been ob-  
382 served in neighboring soils of our sampling site (Frossard et al., 2018). Organic amendments and high Hg levels  
383 have been shown to increase the abundance of Hg reducing bacteria (Hu et al., 2019). However, it is unlikely that  
384 Hg reduction can solely explain the decrease of Hg in the soil solution in our microcosms. We therefore interpret the  
385 decrease in Hg concentration to be due to a combination of manure NOM complexation and sequestration together  
386 with the formation  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  during flooding.

387 In the pasture field soil, soil solution Hg concentrations remained at low levels ( $< 0.16 \mu\text{g L}^{-1} \text{Hg}_{<0.02\mu\text{m}}$ ) during the  
388 whole experiment in both treatments (Fig. 3a). Unlike in the cornfield soil, we did not observe a simultaneous re-  
389 lease of Hg upon Mn reduction (Fig. 3d). We explain this with the not completely Hg saturated NOM in this soil, if



390 we assume that 0.1 – 0.6 % (w/w) of NOM was reduced S with high affinity to Hg (Grigg et al., 2018;  
391 Ravichandran, 2004; Skjellberg, 2008). Thus, the pasture field soil has a rather limited pool of labile Hg compared to  
392 the cornfield soil. Both  $Hg_{<0.02\mu m}$  and  $Hg_{<10\mu m}$  negatively correlate with the sum of sampled soil solution ( $R^2 = -$   
393  $0.841$ ,  $p = <0.001$ ) during both flooding periods. Both  $Hg_{<0.02\mu m}$  and  $Hg_{<10\mu m}$  pools decreased fast. This suggests that  
394 a concentration gradient between supernatant artificial rainwater and the soil solution contributed to the fast exhaus-  
395 tion of the small labile Hg pool in pasture field soil. The presence of this concentration gradient in our incubation  
396 setup is confirmed by the continuously decreasing concentrations of conservative ions ( $Cl^-$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ) in soil solutions  
397 of the HMLC runs (Sect. S5.2, Figs. S6, S7). The relatively high proportion of particulate Hg vastly decreased dur-  
398 ing the draining period (Fig. 3b,c) and we speculate that this change is a result of the mobilization of the POM–Hg  
399 pool by mineralization/degradation of NOM which sorbed Hg during the draining period (Jones et al., 2018). In  
400 summary, flooding of the pasture field soils did mobilize only a small pool of particulate bound Hg which was ex-  
401 hausted within the first flooding period.

#### 402 4.2 Colloidal Hg

403 In the absence of manure, AF4 results show that the Hg released from Mn-oxyhydroxides (Sect. 6.1.2) was dominat-  
404 ed by truly dissolved Hg ( $Hg^{2+}$  or LMW–NOM–Hg) (Fig. 4). The high  $Cl^-$  concentrations (up to  $800\text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , Fig.  
405 S14) likely influenced the Hg speciation in the soil solution, as chloride is a main complexant for  $Hg^{2+}$  (Li et al.,  
406 2020; Gilli et al., 2018). During Hg release, the proportions of larger Hg colloids ( $> 25\text{ nm}$ ) decreased. The stable  
407 proportion of humic substances bound Hg and inorganic Hg colloids between  $6\text{ nm}$  and  $25\text{ nm}$  indicates that once  
408 released no major adsorption or aggregation of truly dissolved Hg and larger colloidal Hg occurs. Additional com-  
409 plexation of Hg by DOM can be excluded if we assume the saturation state of thiol-sites of the NOM pool in the soil  
410 (Sect. 6.1.2). These observations illustrates the remarkably high Hg mobility and potentially increased bioavailabil-  
411 ity (proportion of truly dissolved Hg) to Hg metabolizing microorganisms compared to other studies (Hofacker et  
412 al., 2013; Poulin et al., 2016). These authors did either not observe Hg in truly dissolved form or a decreased to low  
413 levels within the first days of incubation. Overall, the released Hg from cornfield soil shows a high mobility and  
414 might represent a possible threat to downstream ecosystems and a source for Hg methylating bacteria. However, the  
415 released Hg from soil matrix represents a rather small pool of the total Hg ( $44.8\text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ). Further work would be  
416 needed to establish a Hg flux model to better understand *in situ* soil Hg mobility in these soils.

417 The manure addition had a key effect on the proportions of colloidal fractions in soil solution, and overall led to a  
418 low proportion of truly dissolved fraction (Fig. 4). The Hg colloidal distribution was dominated by the presence of  
419 large fractions ( $30 - 450\text{ nm}$ ). Larger organic acids with high aromaticity usually contain higher proportions of thiols  
420 groups than smaller molecules and selectively complex Hg (Haitzer et al., 2002). This suggests that Hg complexa-  
421 tion is kinetically driven and it can shift from LMW–DOM to larger NOM and larger aggregates of POM as sup-  
422 ported by earlier incubation experiments (Poulin et al., 2016). We therefore interpret the relative increase of Hg  
423 colloids with  $d_h = 30 - 450\text{ nm}$  (Fig. 4) as a complexation of the released dissolved  $Hg_{<1\text{kDa}}$  by thiol groups of NOM  
424 in larger clay-organo-metal complexes during the experiment.



425 The onset of sulfate reduction (Rivera et al., 2019) as well as the interaction of Hg with NOM (Manceau et al., 2015)  
426 may cause the precipitation of Hg bearing sulfide minerals and nanoparticles ( $\text{FeS}_{(s)}$ ,  $\beta\text{-HgS}_{(s)}$ ) (Sect. 6.1.1). We  
427 therefore suggest that the distinct fraction of colloids with  $d_h = 6 - 25$  nm is  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$ . The AF4 fractograms show the  
428 presence of these colloids during the first flooding period but not during the second flooding one. Moreover, the  
429 proportion of the intermediate fraction increased in the second flooding. Although the presence of e.g. humic sub-  
430 stances and larger NOM was shown to narrow the size range of  $\text{HgS}_{(s)}$  nanoparticles precipitating from solution  
431 (Aiken et al., 2011), through time, these colloids may grow, aggregate and form clusters in a wide size distribution  
432 (Deonarine and Hsu-Kim, 2009). We explain the disappearance of monodisperse colloids by their aggregation dur-  
433 ing the draining period, leading also to sequestration of Hg in the soil matrix, without remobilization during the  
434 second flooding.

#### 435 **4.3 Net-methylation during flooding-draining experiment.**

436 The studied soils show uncommonly high initial MeHg levels ( $6.4 - 26.9 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) when compared to other highly  
437 polluted mining or industrial legacy sites (Horvat et al., 2003; Neculita et al., 2005; Qiu et al., 2005; Fernández-  
438 Martínez et al., 2015). Still, we observed significant MeHg production during the first 28 days of the incubation  
439 resulting in even higher MeHg concentrations of up to (Table 3; Fig. 6). Soils treated with manure showed a faster  
440 methylation with highest net methylation during the first flooding period. Controls showed highest net methylation  
441 during the draining period and reached similar levels of MeHg at the start of the second flooding on day 28 (Fig. 6).  
442 For cornfield soil (HMLC), both treatments show a high concentration of highly bioavailable Hg ( $\text{Hg}_{<0.02\mu\text{m}}$  and  
443  $\text{Hg}_{<1\text{kDa}}$ ) in soil solution during the first flooding. Methylation is therefore rather limited by cellular uptake of Hg or  
444 the microbial activity of methylating microorganisms than bioavailability. Thus, we interpreted the higher methyl-  
445 ation rate of the manure treatments as a result of higher microbial activity. However, we did neither assess the activity  
446 nor the abundance of Hg methylating bacteria. In the control run, a substantial part of Hg was methylated during the  
447 draining period. This indicates that even if low concentrations of Hg is released (LMHC MCs day 14:  $\text{Hg}_{<0.02\mu\text{m}} < 50$   
448  $\text{ng L}^{-1}$ ) a substantial amount of Hg can be methylated. Micro- and meso pore spaces with steep redox gradients act as  
449 ideal environments for microbial methylation even in drained and generally aerobic system (e.g. HMLC control  
450 during the draining period).

451 Further, we observed a net demethylation in all MCs during the second flooding period. Oscillating net  
452 de/methylation in environments characterized by flood-drought-flood cycles have been reported earlier (Marvin-  
453 DiPasquale et al., 2014). Degradation of MeHg was reported to happen either abiotically by photodegradation or  
454 biotically by chemotrophic reductive or oxidative demethylation by microorganisms carrying the *mer*-operon  
455 (Grégoire and Poulain, 2018). A photodegradation of MeHg can be excluded as the experiment was conducted in the  
456 dark. However, demethylation could have happened as biotic reductive demethylation. A possible explanation is a  
457 MeHg detoxification reaction by microorganisms carrying the *mer*-operon (*merB*) (Hu et al., 2019; Frossard et al.,  
458 2018; Dash and Das, 2012). However, we can only hypothesize about demethylation mechanisms, as neither com-  
459 munities (DNA) nor gene expression (mRNA)s dynamic in the soils were analyzed during the experiment.



#### 460 4.4 Experimental Limitations

461 Incubation experiments on a laboratory scale are a common way to study the changes in mobility of trace elements  
462 in floodplain soils (Gilli et al., 2018; Frohne et al., 2011; Poulin et al., 2016; Abgottspon et al., 2015). These study  
463 designs allow for controlled conditions and replicable results. However, controlled experiments usually fail to cover  
464 the complexity of a real floodplain soil system (Ponting et al., 2020). Our study design did not involve temperature  
465 gradients, realistic hydrological flow conditions or intact soil structure. In this study, the artificial rainwater and the  
466 soil were equilibrated by shaking for a few minutes. However, the equilibration appeared to be incomplete with  
467 respect to highly soluble chloride bearing minerals for the experiment with cornfield soil (Fig. S14). This is support-  
468 ed by the temporal patterns of conservative ions ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{K}^+$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ ) in soil solution (Figs. S6, S7) and the difference in  
469  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration between the soil solutions at  $t = 6$  h and the same water-soil mixture shaken for 6 h (Fig. S14).  
470 These patterns were only visible due to high levels of these elements to start with, which most likely stem from a  
471 fertilisation event that must have taken place just prior to sampling the soil. Nonetheless, they show that soil solution  
472 sampling removed a considerable amount of dissolved elements and the decrease in soil solution concentration of  
473 some elements can be linked to the sampling, making their interpretation difficult. The infiltration of surface water  
474 further led to a dilution of the soil solution. However, the release of soil bound elements (e.g. As, Hg, Mn, Fe) by  
475 e.g. reductive dissolution, do not seem to be directly affected by this mechanism. It should also be noted that high  
476 initial  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations in the soil solution, may influence Hg solubility since  $\text{Cl}^-$  is a complexant for  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$  (Li et  
477 al., 2020) and this warrants further studies on the role of inorganic fertilisation on Hg mobility.

#### 478 5. Conclusions

479 We studied the effect of manure addition on the mobility of Hg in soil during a flooding-draining experiment. Fur-  
480 ther, we observed the formation and size distribution changes of Hg colloids in soil solution by AF4-ICP-MS. The  
481 results of this study show that manure addition has a distinct effect on 1.) temporal Hg release and sequestration, 2.)  
482 Hg complexation with fresh NOM and colloid formation and 3.) net methylation dynamics in polluted and periodi-  
483 cally flooded soils.

484 In the cornfield soil (HMLC), Hg was mobilized upon reductive dissolution of Mn hydroxides. The application of  
485 manure accelerated the release of Hg, facilitated the formation of colloidal Hg and exhausted the mobile Hg pool  
486 within the first 7 days of flooding. This prevented Hg remobilization during the second flooding period. In pasture  
487 field (LMHC) soil Hg was mainly released as particulate bound Hg presumably due to the higher soil organic carbon  
488 content. This relatively small pool of particulate Hg was exhausted within the first flooding period. In both soils,  
489 MeHg formation upon flooding-draining cycles suggest that the changes of redox conditions enhance methylation of  
490 a substantial part of the Hg pool. However, MeHg declines from the soil by either advective transport of dissolved  
491 MeHg in the soil column or by reductive demethylation. Due to the wide differences in bioavailable Hg between  
492 treatments and soils we suggest that the temporal changes net-methylation are limited by microbial activity of Hg  
493 methylators. Their activity appears to be facilitated by fresh manure addition.



494 The release of Hg from polluted soils to downstream ecosystems does depend on both biogeochemical conditions as  
495 well as on hydrological transport. Our experiment shows that redox oscillations (flooding-draining-flooding cycles)  
496 of a polluted floodplain soil are likely to induce pulses of both Hg and MeHg to the downstream ecosystems. This is  
497 supported with earlier studies (Poulin et al., 2016; Frohne et al., 2012; Hofacker et al., 2013). In NOM poor agricul-  
498 tural soils, the application of additional NOM in form of manure may reduce the mobilization and contribute to the  
499 transformation of Hg towards less mobile species, especially during low flow conditions. Overall, more work is  
500 needed to understand the mobilization of Hg in polluted areas. More precisely, field trials integrating biogeochemi-  
501 cal processes, hydrological transport and Hg soil-air exchange are needed in order to establish Hg flux models to  
502 better understand *in situ* soil Hg mobility.

503

#### 504 **Data availability.**

505 Details of analytical methods, AF4–ICP–MS fractograms are given in the Supplement. A complete dataset of the  
506 data used in this study is accessible at <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4058676>

507

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#### 515 **Author contribution.**

516 AM and LG designed the study. LG and AW preformed the incubation experiments. LG and IW performed labora-  
517 tory analyses. LG and IW performed the data analysis. AM and VS supervised and financed the study. LG prepared  
518 the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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522

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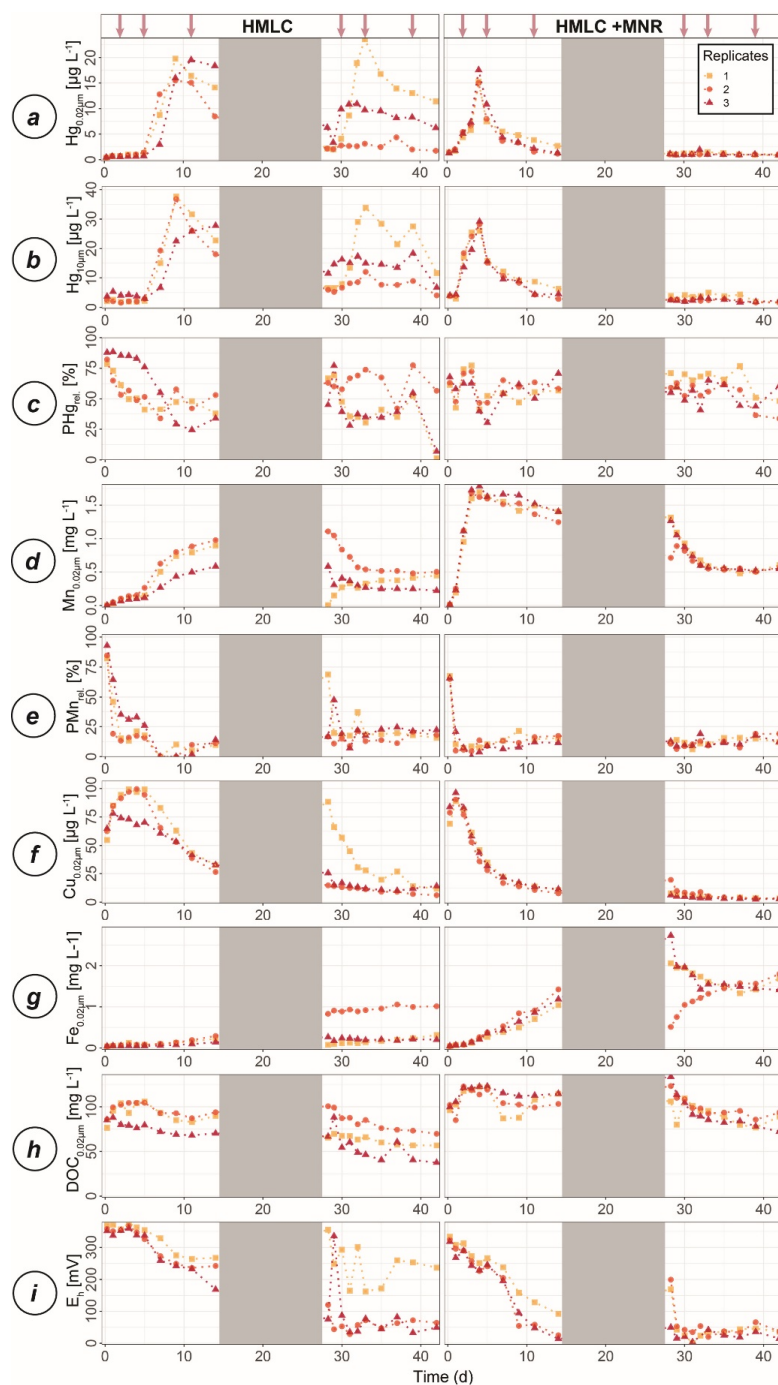


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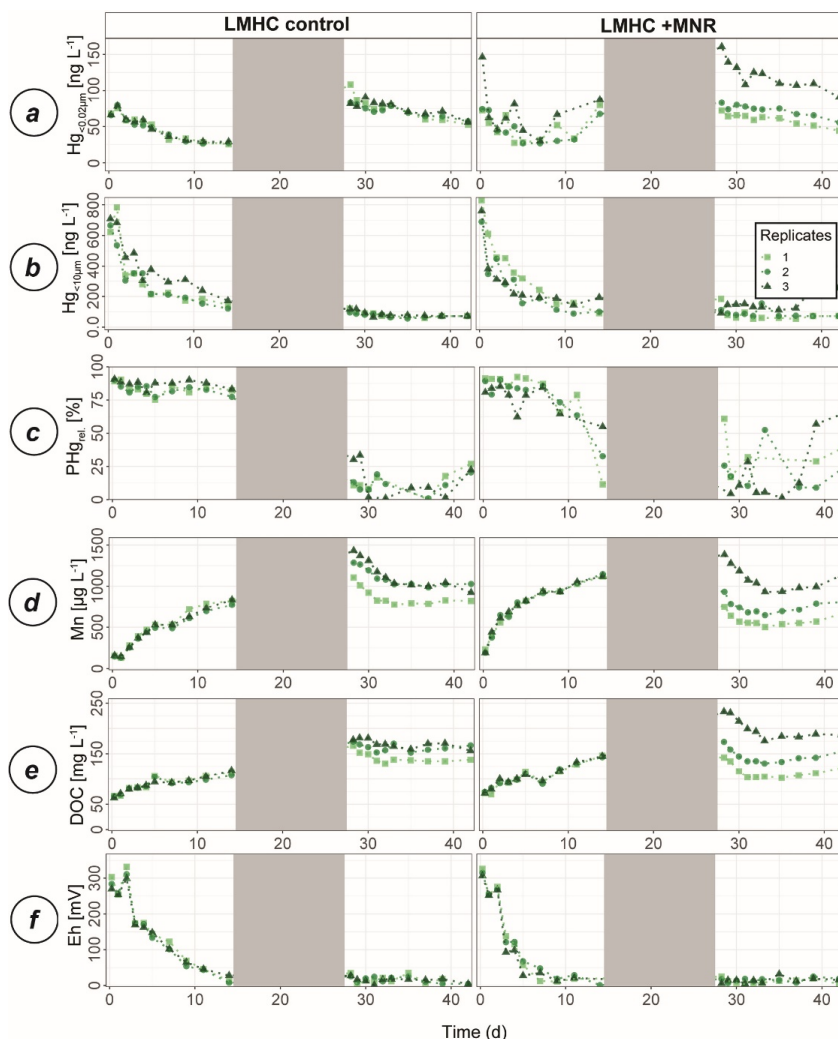


**Figure 2:** Concentrations of Hg (a-c) and relevant parameters (Mn, PMn, Fe, DOC, Cu, Eh) (d-i) in the soil solution of the cornfield soil (HMLC) incubations. Lines between points were plotted to improve readability. The grey area indicates the drained period. Red arrows indicate sampling days for AF4-ICP-MS analyses.





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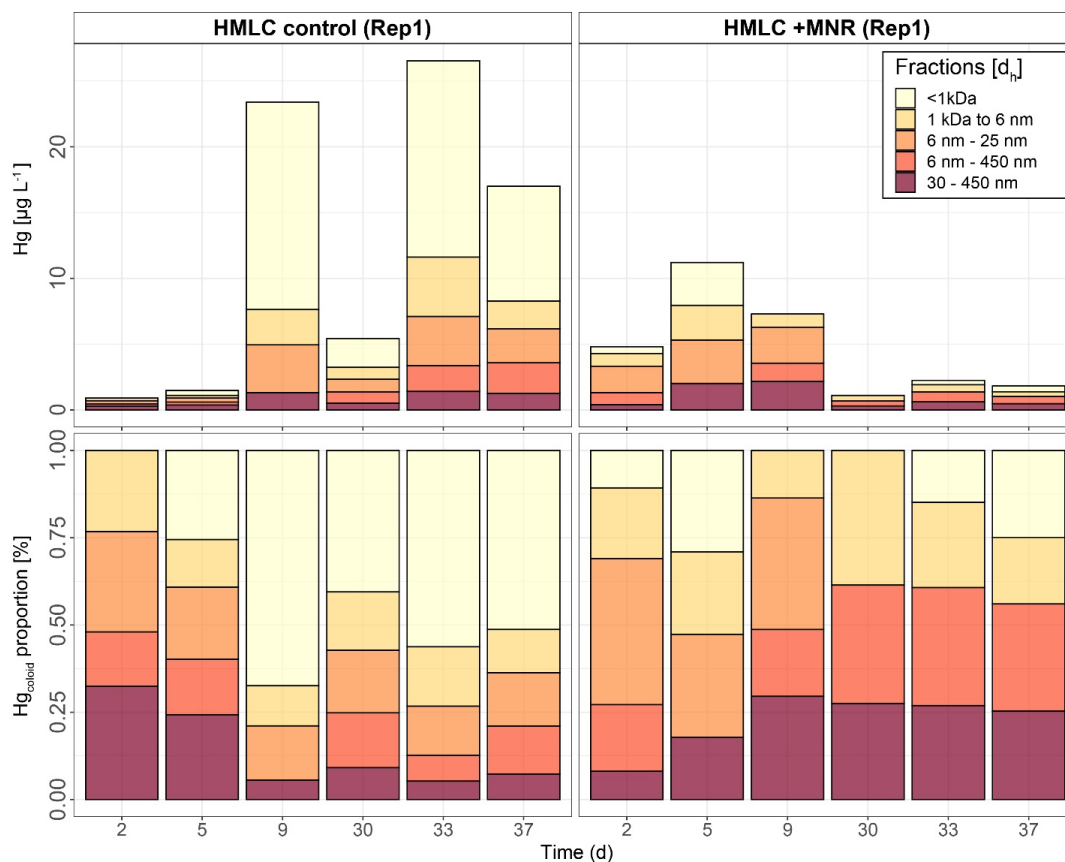


**Figure 3:** Concentrations of Hg (a-c) and relevant parameters (Mn, DOC, Eh) (d-f) in the soil solution of the pasture field soil (LMHC) incubations. Lines between points were plotted to improve readability. The gray area indicates the drained period. The three shades of green distinguish the 3 replicate incubators.

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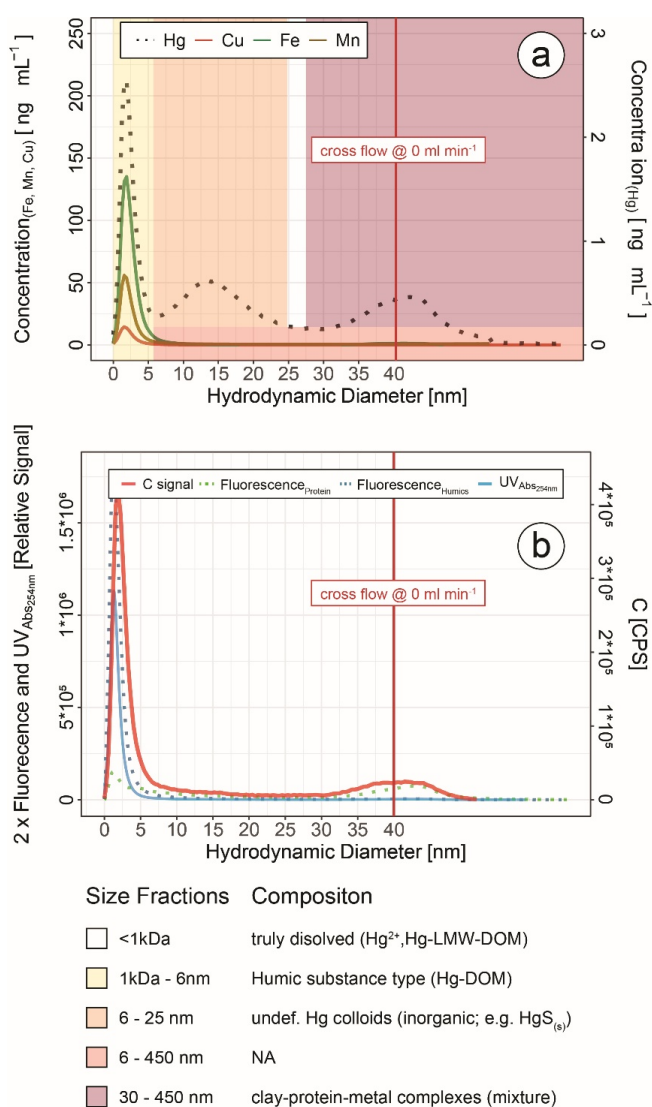


**Figure 4:** Size distribution of Hg estimated after AF4 fractogram deconvolution for Rep1 of cornfield soil incubation (HMLC and HMLC +MNR). Details on the deconvolution procedure are provided in the supplement. The concentration of Hg in size fractions was calculated using an external calibration of the ICP-MS directly after the AF4 run. The concentration of Hg in “< 1kDa” was calculated by subtracting the sum of the fractions from the total Hg concentration in the sample measured separately by ICP-MS.

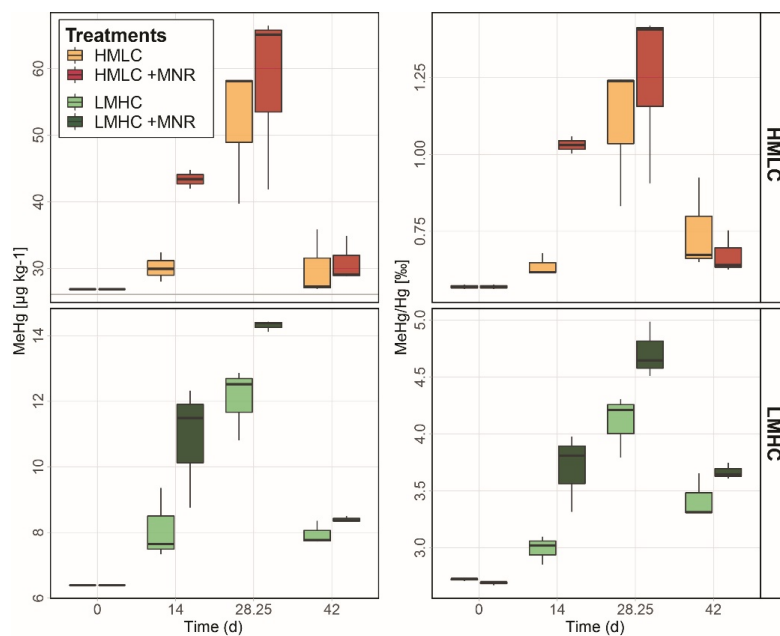
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**Figure 5:** Hg, Cu, Mn and Fe concentrations (a) and C signals (ICP-MS), UV<sub>254nm</sub> absorbance and fluorescence signals (b) in colloids as a function of hydrodynamic diameter (related to retention times on AF4) in a sample from HMLC at day 9 after flooding. These fractograms were obtained at linearly decreasing crossflow from 2 to 0 mL min<sup>-1</sup> over 20 min. The red line indicates the time point where the crossflow reached 0 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Areas (yellow to red color) indicate size fraction ranges assigned during deconvolution.



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**Figure 6: Soil MeHg concentrations and MeHg/Hg ratios over the course of the experiment for corn field soils (HMLC, red) and pasture field soils (LMHC, green). Highest net methylation was observed during first flooding (for +MNR treatments) and during the draining period (control). A significant decrease of MeHg/Hg was observed during the second flooding for all treatments.**

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751 **Table 1: Description of the symbols and terms used for different filter fractions in the publication. The particulate frac-**  
 752 **tion is calculated as the difference of the 20 nm and the 10µm filtrate concentrations.**

Filter Type	Filter size	Symbol (e.g. Hg <sub>x</sub> )	Description
<b>Suction Cup</b>	10 µm	Hg <sub>&lt;10µm</sub>	Soil solution sampled directly from the suction cup contains a variety of particles (clay minerals, bacteria, Mn-/Fe-hydroxides, POM aggregates etc.). We refer to this fraction by adding the suffix <10µm to the analyte symbol.
<b>Syringe Filter</b>	0.02 µm	Hg <sub>&lt;0.02µm</sub>	Soil solution <0.02µm is a cutoff size that may still carry colloids. We refer to this fraction by adding the suffix <0.02µm to the analyte symbol.
-	-	PHg	Particulate Hg is calculated as: $PHg = Hg_{<10\mu m} - Hg_{<0.02\mu m}$
-	-	PHg <sub>rel.</sub>	Particulate Hg is calculated as: $PHg_{rel.} = (Hg_{<10\mu m} - Hg_{<0.02\mu m})/Hg_{<10\mu m}$
<b>AF4 membrane</b>	1 kDa	Hg <sub>&lt;1kDa</sub>	Molecules in solution under this cutoff size are not expected to have colloidal properties. Therefore, this range is referred to as “truly dissolved” in the text.

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754 **Table 2: List of soil parameters for the two incubated soils (HMLC and LMHC) and manure (MNR)**

Parameter		Cornfield (HMLC)		Pasture field (LMHC)		Cow Manure (MNR)	
Land use		Corn field		Pasture		-	
Depth		0 - 20 cm		0 - 20 cm		-	
Soil Type (WRB)		Fluvisol Gleyic		Fluvisol Gleyic		-	
pH <sub>CaCl2</sub>		8.16		7.84		-	
Water content	(wt. %)	13.8		8.5		90.3	
	Unit (dry.wt.)	Concentration	SD	Concentration	SD	Concentration	SD
C <sub>org</sub>	wt. %	1.92	0.01	3.45	0.01	45.22	0.09
N <sub>tot</sub>	wt. %	0.181	0.001	0.372	0.002	3.68	0.08
C <sub>org</sub> /N <sub>tot</sub>	-	10.61	-	9.29	-	-	-
S	g kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.63	0.05	0.77	0.05	3.7	0.1
Hg	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	47.3	0.5	2.4	0.3	0.045	0.001
MeHg	µg/kg	26.9	0.2	6.4	0.2	<0.02	-
MeHg/Hg	%	0.06	-	0.28	-	-	-
Al	wt. %	0.91	0.05	1.05	0.04	0.0106	0.0003
Fe		1.95	0.07	2.38	0.05	0.0336	0.0009
Mg		1.25	0.07	1.39	0.05	0.49	0.03
Mn	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	493	21	672	38	53	1
P		1169	80	1044	85	8245	232
Cr		56	4	64	5	0.68	0.01
Co		10.75	0.06	11.22	0.43	0.4	0.2
Ni		81.7	0.8	78.3	2.9	2.3	0.1
Cu		40.1	1.2	28.0	0.7	13.1	0.6
Zn		61.8	0.5	47.3	2.0	81	3
As		11.74	0.07	16.04	0.72	0.8	0.4
Cd		0.21	0.04	0.17	0.01	0.042	0.004
Pb		20.8	0.5	18.34	0.5	-	-
V		17.2	0.4	20.99	1.1	0.31	0.01
Sr		137	2	202	6	45.9	1.6
Cs		1.99	0.02	1.52	0.04	-	-
Ba		60.2	1.1	76.9	1.6	9.1	0.5
Ce		7.0	0.4	8.6	0.6	-	-
Gd		0.94	0.03	1.00	0.05	0.021	0.001
U		1.74	0.08	1.29	0.01	0.19	0.01
Hg/Cu molar	‰	366.3	-	25.73	-	-	-
Hg/Mn molar		25.758	-	0.926	-	-	-
Hg/C <sub>org</sub> molar		0.147	-	0.004	-	-	-
Mn/C <sub>org</sub> molar		0.0056	-	0.0042	-	-	-

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759 **Table 3: Soil MeHg concentrations and net-methylation (MeHg/Hg) over the time of the experiment.**

Treatment	day	n	Mean MeHg ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	SD MeHg ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	Range MeHg ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	MeHg/Hg (%)	de-/methylation (%)
HMLC	0	1	26.9	-	26.9 - 26.9	0.57	-
	14	3	30.14	2.19	28.04 - 32.42	0.64	12.0
	28	3	52.04	10.65	39.74 - 58.25	1.1	73.1
	42	3	30.03	5.05	26.93 - 35.86	0.75	-32.4
HMLC +MNR	0	1	26.9	-	26.9 - 26.9	0.57	-
	14	3	43.41	1.99	42 - 44.81	1.03	81.1
	28	3	57.79	13.79	41.88 - 66.41	1.24	20.7
	42	3	30.94	3.43	28.85 - 34.9	0.67	-45.9
LMHC	0	1	6.4	-	6.4 - 6.4	2.72	-
	14	3	8.11	1.09	7.33 - 9.36	2.99	10.0
	28	3	12.07	1.1	10.81 - 12.87	4.11	37.2
	42	3	7.95	0.35	7.73 - 8.36	3.42	-16.7
LMHC +MNR	0	1	6.4	-	6.4 - 6.4	2.69	-
	14	3	10.86	1.86	8.76 - 12.32	3.72	38.1
	28	3	14.31	0.17	14.12 - 14.43	4.7	26.6
	42	3	8.4	0.09	8.33 - 8.5	3.67	-22.0

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