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1	Effects of disturbance and vegetation type on total and methylmercury in boreal peatland and
2	forest soils
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4	Hans Fredrik Veiteberg BRAATEN ^A *
5	Heleen A. DE WIT ^A
6	
7	^A Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Gaustadalléen 21, N-0349 Oslo, Norway
8	* Corresponding author: hbr@niva.no
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28 Highlights

- [Hg] in boreal peatland and forest soils was related to atmospheric deposition
- [MeHg] and MeHg-to-THg ratios testifies to increased peatland methylation
- Soil disturbance increases production of MeHg
- 32

33 Abstract

34 Mercury (Hg) concentrations in freshwater fish relates to aquatic Hg concentrations, which largely derives from soil stores of accumulated atmospheric deposition. Hg in catchment soils as a source for 35 36 aquatic Hg is poorly studied. Here we test if i) peatland soils produce more methylmercury (MeHg) 37 than forest soils; ii) total Hg (THg) concentrations in top soils are determined by atmospheric inputs, 38 while MeHg is produced in the soils; and iii) soil disturbance promotes MeHg production. In two 39 small boreal catchments, previously used in a paired-catchment forest harvest manipulation study, 40 forest soils and peatlands were sampled and analysed for Hg species and additional soil chemistry. In 41 the undisturbed reference catchment, soils were sampled in different vegetation types, of varying 42 productivity as reflected in tree density, where historical data on precipitation and throughfall Hg and MeHg fluxes were available. Upper soil THg contents were significantly correlated to throughfall 43 44 inputs of Hg, i.e. lowest in the tree-less peatland and highest in the dense spruce forest. For MeHg, 45 top layer concentrations were similar in forest soils and peatlands, likely related to atmospheric input 46 and local production, respectively. The local peatland MeHg production was documented through 47 significantly higher MeHg-to-THg ratios in the deeper soil layer samples. In the disturbed catchment, 48 soils were sampled in and just outside wheeltracks in an area impacted by forest machinery. Here, 49 MeHg concentrations and the MeHg-to-THg ratios in the upper 5 cm were weakly significantly (p =(0.07) and significantly (p = 0.04) different in and outside of the wheeltracks, respectively, suggesting 50 51 that soil disturbance promotes methylation. Differences in catchment Hg and MeHg streamwater 52 concentrations were not explained by soil Hg and MeHg information, perhaps because hydrological pathways are a stronger determinant of streamwater chemistry than small variations in soil
chemistry driven by disturbance and atmospheric inputs of Hg.

55

56 Keywords

57 Mercury, methylmercury, soil disturbance, forest harvest, methylation, boreal

58

59 Capsule

60 Influences of atmospheric Hg input, peatland soil chemistry and harvesting operations on

total Hg and methyl Hg concentrations in different peatland and forest soils were tested.

62

63 Introduction

64 Elevated concentrations of toxic and bioaccumulative methylmercury (MeHg; Bloom, 1992) in fish 65 have potential harmful effects on humans and animals with fish as part of their diet (WHO, 1991). 66 The main source of mercury (Hg) in pristine Scandinavian environments is deposition of long-range 67 transported atmospheric Hg released in other countries (Berg et al., 2006; Pacyna et al., 2010). Most 68 of deposited Hg is stored in the soil, and a minor part is leached to surface waters as inorganic Hg or MeHg (Fitzgerald et al., 1998), where transport of Hg and production and transport of MeHg is driven 69 70 by catchment processes (Ravichandran, 2004). The biogeochemical cycling of Hg in catchments is one 71 of the keys to improve understanding of concentrations and bioaccumulation of Hg species in the 72 aquatic environment.

For boreal catchment export of MeHg, wetlands appear to be an important methylation source, as reported both in Scandinavia (e.g. Tjerngren et al., 2012a) and North America (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2008; St. Louis et al., 1996). It is well established that production of MeHg is occurring primarily through methylation of inorganic Hg by sulphur reducing bacteria (SRB) under anoxic conditions (Morel et al., 1998), but other pathways are also evident (e.g. iron reducing bacteria; Gilmour et al., 2013). In addition to wetlands, forested catchments dominated by upland soils can

79 also export large amounts of MeHg (Eklof et al., 2012; Eklof et al., 2013). Forest soils receive more Hg 80 and MeHg from the atmosphere than wetlands, because Hg is absorbed by forest canopies and 81 subsequently deposited to soils by throughfall and litterfall (Mowat et al., 2011; Munthe et al., 1995b). Hence, forest soils can contain similar or higher concentrations of Hg and MeHg compared 82 83 with wetlands (Graydon et al., 2008). Forest management (Bishop et al., 2009) and catchment 84 disturbance (Munthe and Hultberg, 2004) has been shown to be a factor that promotes leaching of MeHg, although the mechanisms behind remain poorly understood (Eklof et al., 2016). For instance, 85 86 where natural wetlands have been identified as principal sources of MeHg in northern boreal 87 regions, a recent study shows how wetlands also can act as MeHg sinks (Tjerngren et al., 2012b) 88 under certain conditions, e.g. continuous standing water exposed to sunlight (Kronberg et al., 2012).

89 Many studies demonstrate strong relationships between aquatic concentrations of Hg 90 species and Hg in the aquatic food web (e.g. Braaten et al., 2014c; Chasar et al., 2009; de Wit et al., 91 2012). In areas where atmospheric inputs are the dominating source of Hg, it can be expected that 92 Hg concentrations in streamwaters are co-determined by Hg contents in soils, and by conditions that 93 promote the production of MeHg in catchment soils, such as presence of peatlands (Mitchell et al., 94 2008; Porvari and Verta, 2003) and disturbance (Porvari et al., 2003). While concentrations of Hg in 95 fish (Fjeld, 2010), lake sediments (Fjeld et al., 1994; Rognerud and Fjeld, 2001), mosses (Berg et al., 96 2006) and surface waters (Braaten et al., 2014a) have been documented in many regions in Norway, 97 data on Hg in soils in remote areas are scarce. More data on Hg in soils and wetlands are potentially 98 valuable for a larger understanding of catchment MeHg production and transport of Hg and MeHg to 99 surface waters.

100 In this study, our main goal was to document the local variation in total Hg (THg) and MeHg 101 concentrations in different soils and explain this variation in relation to vegetation type, soil 102 characteristics and catchment disturbance, in two boreal catchment previously included in a paired-103 catchment forest harvest manipulation (De Wit et al., 2014). We tested the following hypotheses: *i*) 104 peatland soils have lower THg and higher MeHg concentrations than forest soils; *ii*) THg

105 concentrations in top soils are determined by atmospheric inputs, while MeHg is produced in the106 soils; and *iii*) soil disturbance promotes production of MeHg.

107

108 Materials and methods

109 Site description

The Langtjern lake catchment area (4.8 km², 510-750 m.a.s.l.) is located in south east Norway (Figure 1; outlet of lake at 60.37 N, 9.73 E). No direct human disturbance has taken place in the catchment since the 1930s, but the catchment was severely acidified during the 20th century with the loss of its trout population and damage to invertebrate populations. The catchment has been part of the Norwegian acid rain monitoring programme since 1972, which includes weekly monitoring of lake outlet chemistry (LAE01, Figure 1, Garmo et al., 2013).

116 Vegetation in the lake catchment was mapped in 1974. Dominating vegetation types are, in 117 declining order of % area cover, Scots pine forest (Pinus sylvestris L., heather (Calluna vulgaris)), 118 northern bilberry (Vaccinium uliginosum), 63%), Norway spruce forest (Picea abies L., Karst., bilberry, 119 6%), swamp forest (5%), peatlands (poor fens and ombrotrophic bogs, 16%). Water (5%) and bare 120 rock (2%) made up the remainder of the catchment. The vegetation types differ in productivity, 121 which is reflected in tree density, where Scots pine has the lowest density (open forest, no closed 122 canopy), and spruce forest has the highest density (dense forest, closed canopy). Swamp forest has 123 an intermediate tree density. Scots pine is a lower productivity class forest than Norway spruce 124 (Larsson et al., 2000).

The eastern lake inlet is from the LAE03 sub-catchment (0.8 km², Larssen et al., 2008), used as a reference catchment in an experimental paired catchment study where 30% of a small, nearby catchment (outside the main catchment, LAE11, 0.3 km²) was harvested in 2009 (Figure 1, de Wit et al., 2014). Water chemistry in both LAE03 and LAE11 streams has been monitored in monthly intervals since 2008. Mean annual temperature and precipitation for the Langtjern catchment between 2008 and 2011 were 4.5 °C and 914 mm, respectively (de Wit et al., 2014).

132 Throughfall

133 In the summer season of 2009, six locations in the LAE03 catchment were selected for sampling of 134 throughfall, i.e. the peatland near to the lake (P1), three locations in the most common vegetation 135 type Scots pine forest (F1), one in the swamp forest (F2) and one in the Norway spruce forest (F3). At 136 each location, three throughfall samplers were placed at randomly chosen places with 10 to 20 m 137 distance of each other. Each sampler consisted of a slightly tilted 0.1 m² (0.8x0.125 m) Teflon-coated 138 gutter, firmly attached to two wooden sticks driven into the ground, at an approximately height of 40 139 cm. The gutters led to a glass funnel on a 10-L acid cleaned (50 ml of 1 M hydrochloric acid, HCl) glass 140 bottle which was packed in aluminium foil. The Teflon-coated gutters were washed with rain water 141 prior to sampling. The sampling period covered May 30 2009 until October 20 2009. Four samplings 142 took place (June 30, July 28, August 30 and October 20). At each sampling, the water volume in each 143 bottle was noted, also when the bottle was full. At each site, a composite throughfall sample was 144 taken by pouring ca 80 ml of each bottle (sampler) into a 250 ml Teflon bottle for analysis of MeHg 145 and THg, in addition to taking a composite sample for chemical analysis of TOC (see below for a 146 description of chemical water analysis). The 10-L bottles were emptied after removing the sample.

147 Throughfall element fluxes were calculated by averaging the sample volume in the three 148 sample bottles in each site, multiplying with species concentration, and dividing by number of days in 149 the sampling period. On August 30, all sample bottles were full and we estimated the expected 150 volume by taking the ratio of measured precipitation at a nearby meteorological station in the 151 sampling periods, to the measured throughfall volume in the other sampling periods. The THg/TOC 152 and MeHg/TOC ratios were used to evaluate the quality of the concentration data, and the first 153 sampling had significantly higher ratios than the other three. Although environmental explanations 154 for this are possible (e.g. high pollen levels), it was thought to be related to insufficient cleaning of 155 the Teflon coating after installation of the samplers. The first sampling was therefore not used in the 156 flux calculations. Throughfall fluxes in the three Scots pine sites were averaged to give one flux for157 the Scots pine forest.

158

159 Soil sampling and sample preparation

160 All soils were sampled during a field campaign in September 2013 (sampling description and 161 summary in Table 1). In the reference, undisturbed catchment (LAE03), soils were sampled at the 162 same locations where throughfall was collected (sites P, F1 (pine forest), F2 (swamp forest), F3 163 (spruce forest), see Figure 1). In LAE11, undisturbed open peatland (P) was sampled. In the disturbed 164 catchment area, impacted by forest machinery (i.e. harvester and forwarder) and where the canopy was removed, three wheeltracks (WT1, WT2, WT3) were sampled, paired with sampling points less 165 166 than 5 m distance outside the wheeltracks with no signs of damage from forest machinery (WT1a, 167 WT2a, WT3a). For sampling points WT1a-3a we use the notation "non-wheeltrack samples" 168 throughout the manuscript.

The soils were sampled by digging a hole of ca. 20 cm depth with a spade, visually characterising the different soil layers, and separating these with a knife. Following this, ca. 5x5 cm² samples of each soil layer were cut at three sides in the soil pit, thus giving triplicate soil samples. Each soil sample was put into a double zip-lock plastic bag, sealed and marked. Air was forced manually out of the bag upon sampling and all samples were kept dark and cool until sample preparation (< 48 h after sampling).

Prior to sampling the top soil layer, fresh plant material was removed. In the forest, L and F layer of the organic horizon were lumped, while the H layer and the 0-5 and 5-10 cm of the mineral soil were sampled separately (The Canadian System of Soil Classification, SCWG, 1998). According to SCWG (1998) the L, F and H layer are characterised by accumulation of organic matter where the original structure is easily discernible; by accumulation of partly decomposed organic matter where some of the original structures are difficult to recognise; and by accumulation of decomposed organic matter where the original structures are indiscernible, respectively. Where soil depth was

insufficient (i.e. not all the abovementioned layers were present), fewer samples were collected. In
the peatlands, the L and F layer were sampled separately based on a visual evaluation, and below the
F two more layers of 5 cm were sampled. The wheeltracks were all located in highly organic soils but
lacking differentiation according to soil depth, and here 0-5 and 5-10 cm soil layers were sampled.
The paired sampling points in the disturbed area were sampled similarly with 0-5 and 5-10 cm soil
depth.

188

189 Chemical analysis – soil

For soil THg determination, subsamples were freeze dried prior to analysis. THg was determined by thermal decomposition and direct atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS, Milestone Direct Mercury Analyser DMA-80). For every 10 soil samples of Hg analysis (20 – 200 mg) quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) measures included method blanks sample duplicates (n = 2) and certified reference material (CRM, MESS-3 marine sediment; n = 2). The certified Hg concentration of the CRM used was 91 ± 9 µg/kg. The relative percent difference (RPD) of sample duplicates was always < 10 % and recovery of CRM within 90 – 110 %.

197 MeHg was extracted from a wet subsample of soil by methods described in detail by (Bloom 198 et al., 1997). In short, the method include leaching of the Hg with potassium bromide (KBr; 18 %), 199 sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄; 5 %) and copper sulphate (CuSO₄; 1M) before extraction of the Hg in the 200 leachates into dichloromethane (DCM). The Hg was then back extracted into DI water (by use of 201 Whatman 1PS silicone treated filter paper) before heating (approximately 70 °C for 5 hours). 202 Determination follows the USEPA Method 1630 for determining MeHg by aqueous ethylation, purge 203 and trap, and cold vapor atomic flurorescence spectrometry as described in (Braaten et al., 2014a). 204 Analysis of a MeHg CRM (ERM-CC580; estuarine sediment) was within the reported range (75 \pm 4 205 ng/g). Method Detection Limit (MDL) is 20 pg/g (3 standard deviations of blank extractions) based on 206 a sample weight of 0.05 g.

Total nitrogen (Tot-N) and total carbon (Tot-C) in the soil samples were determined using a
Flash 2000 Dynamic Combustion Automatic Element Analyser (Norwegian standard NS16168:2012).
Analysis was done on freeze dried sample material and MDL is 1.0 µg/mg for both Tot-N and Tot-C.
Phosphorous was determined by inductively coupled plasma – atomic emission spectrometry (ICPAES).

All soil analyses were performed at the Norwegian Institute for Water research (NIVA).

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214 Streamwater sampling and chemical water analysis

Streamwater grab samples for general water chemistry is collected on a monthly basis in the Langtjern catchments. Procedures for sample collection, preservation and analysis (including QC/QA) is documented by Braaten et al. (2014b), with results from 2008 – 2012 being recently published by de Wit et al. (2014).

219

220 Statistics

221 Properties of the datasets were reported using arithmetic means and one standard deviation (mean 222 \pm one standard deviation, Table 2). The pools of Hg in the soil and other measured soil parameters 223 were compared across study sites (sample locations; vegetation and soil type) by use of nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test. To test for all possible individual comparisons between study sites, we 224 225 used student's t-tests. Multivariate correlations between selected variables (soil characteristics) and 226 Hg speciation were explored by Pearson's correlation coefficient, r. The wheeltrack and non-227 wheeltrack samples from catchment LAE11 were compared using t-tests on paired samples, i.e. one 228 sample parallel was directly compared to another (i.e. WT1-WT1a, WT2-WT2a and WT3-WT3a).

229 All statistical analysis and calculations were done in JMP 9.0 (SAS) with a significance level α = 230 0.05, unless otherwise mentioned.

231

232 Results

233 Soil chemistry – carbon and nutrients

234 The forest soils from the undisturbed catchment LAE03 had thick organic layers (> 15 cm) on top of a 235 mineral soil, except for the soil under Scots pine where the O layer was only 9 cm deep (Table 2). The 236 L and F layer in the peatlands was thicker in LAE03 (15 and 10 cm, respectively) than in LAE11 (7 and 237 5 cm, respectively). In the disturbed soils from catchment LAE11, it was not possible to distinguish 238 between L and F layers and here we sampled by soil depth. All organic layers had a C-content around 239 45-53 % (Table 2, Figure 2a), whereas mineral soil layers had lower C (< 10 %). In the disturbed 240 catchment LAE11, the wheeltracks had more variable and on average slightly lower C-contents than 241 the non-wheeltracks (Table 2, Figure 2b).

242 All soils were low in N and P content (< 2 % and < 0.8 %, respectively, Table 2). The top layers 243 of the peatlands had lower N% and P% (< 1 % and < 0.4 %, respectively) than the disturbed soils 244 (wheeltracks 1.6 % and 0.7 %, respectively and non-wheeltracks 1.6 % and 0.6 %, respectively), 245 possibly because of release of nutrients in the disturbed catchments where the forest had been 246 harvested. The highest C/N ratios were found in the top layer of the peatlands (on average 68 and 59 247 for LAE03 and LAE11, respectively), which suggests a different litter quality from fresh sphagnum 248 than from forest vegetation. The decline of C/N ratio with peatland depth (Table 2) might indicate 249 preferential loss of C compared to N, or by microbial immobilisation of N. Peatlands are known to be 250 sinks for nitrogen (Wang et al., 2014).

251

252 Soil chemistry – mercury

Concentrations of MeHg and THg in the peatlands varied remarkably little with depth, in contrast to the forest soils (Figure 2a). Top soil concentrations of MeHg in forest soils and peatland samples were similar, i.e. on average 0.6 ± 0.6 ng/g. THg concentrations in the top layer of the forest soils (143.8 ± 45.3 ng/g) were significantly higher than in the peatlands (40.6 ± 7.2 ng/g, *p* < 0.001). THg increased going downwards in the organic layers, both for peatlands and forest soils, possibly as a result of downward transport of dissolved organic matter (DOM), to which Hg is associated. Hence, the low concentration of Hg measured in the mineral forest soil (< 50 ng/g) was likely due to its low organic matter content (< 10 %). MeHg concentrations in the top soil from the wheeltracks (0.9 ± 0.7 ng/g) were higher than in the non-wheeltracks (0.1 ± 0.1 ng/g, p = 0.05), in the area disturbed by forest harvest (catchment LAE11), while THg showed the opposite pattern (89 ± 19 ng/g and 147 ± 25 ng/g, respectively, p = 0.02).

The MeHg-to-THg ratio (shown as %MeHg, used as an estimate of the long-term net production of MeHg in the soils) in top soil layer samples, was highest in the peatlands (on average 1.5 ± 1.4 %), and weakly significantly higher than in the forest soils (0.4 ± 0.5 %, p = 0.06). %MeHg did not show a significant change with depth in peatlands or forest soils (Figure 2a), but maximum ratios were observed in the deepest sample for both peatlands (3.1 ± 2.3 % and 1.1 ± 0.5 % for LAE03 and LAE11, respectively). In the wheeltracks in the disturbed catchment area, %MeHg was comparable with the peatlands while the non-wheeltracks had values more similar to the forest soils (Figure 2b).

Our first hypothesis – that peatland soils have lower THg and higher MeHg concentrations than forest soils – was only supported for THg. The peatlands in our study had similar MeHg concentrations as the forest soils in the top layer, whereas MeHg in the deeper soil layers was highest in the peatlands.

275

276 Soil mercury in relation to vegetation type and throughfall

277 THg concentrations in the upper soil layers in the four vegetation types of the undisturbed LAE03 278 catchment were significantly related to throughfall fluxes of THg at each location respectively (Figure 279 3; linear regression, $r^2 = 0.97$, p = 0.02). Throughfall fluxes of THg were measured in the summer of 280 2009 and we assume that the pattern of different throughfall fluxes between vegetation types are 281 representative for the year of soil sampling (2013). In the peatland, no canopy was present and the throughfall flux represents wet atmospheric THg deposition (1.3 μ g/m²). The difference between the 282 283 throughfall in the peatland and the forest types illustrates that the presence of canopy increases 284 input of Hg to the soil. The throughfall fluxes increase from the open pine forest (2.6 μ g/m²), to

285 denser swamp forest (3.5 μ g/m²) to the densest of the vegetation type, the spruce forest (3.9 μ g/m²), 286 suggesting that canopy density increases Hg deposition.

287 The pattern of MeHg fluxes in the different vegetation types was similar to that of THg fluxes (Figure 3), and they were significantly related ($r^2 = 0.96$, p = 0.02). MeHg throughfall in the forest 288 289 vegetation types (from 72 to 104 ng/m^2) were from 3.8 to 5.5 times higher than MeHg inputs to the 290 peatland (19 ng/m²), which suggests that the high soil MeHg contents found in the top layer of the 291 forest soils are at least co-determined by atmospheric inputs. The decrease in MeHg in the forest 292 soils with depth suggests that in-soil net production of MeHg is likely to be low in the forest soils, 293 opposite to the peatland soils where MeHg did not decline with depth (Figure 2a). The weakly 294 significantly higher %MeHg (p = 0.06), an indirect estimate for MeHg production, in the top soil layers 295 of peatlands versus forest soils also indicates that peatland soils produce more MeHg than forest 296 soils.

Our second hypothesis – that MeHg in soils is produced in soils, while THg is determined by atmospheric inputs – was partially supported. MeHg in the top soil layer in the forest appeared to be determined by atmospheric inputs, and strongly declined with soil depth. In peatlands, MeHg was also found in the deeper layers suggestion local production, as indicated by the significantly higher %MeHg. THg in the upper soil layers was strongly related to atmospheric inputs in all vegetation types.

303

304 The effect of soil disturbance

The LAE11 catchment was harvested in January 2009, resulting in soil disturbance visibly evident as deep wheeltracks. Soil was sampled in three wheeltracks, paired with soil samples in not visibly disturbed yet harvested area within 5m distance ("non-wheeltracks"; Figure 1, Table1). In the top soil layer from the wheeltrack locations, %MeHg was significantly higher (t-test on paired samples, p =0.04) than in the non-wheeltrack locations while MeHg concentrations were weakly significantly higher (t-test on paired samples, p = 0.07). THg concentrations was weakly significantly different (t-

test on paired samples, p = 0.06). Neither C/N ratios (p = 0.23) nor levels of C% (p = 0.48) in the wheeltracks were significantly different from the non-wheeltracks, indicating similar organic matter content and quality.

Our third hypothesis – that soil disturbance promotes methylation of inorganic Hg – was supported by the significantly higher MeHg and MeHg-to-THg ratios in the wheeltracks as compared to the non-wheeltracks.

317

318 Discussion

319 Spatial variation of Hg in soils

320 The range of soil THg concentrations in the present study (from 16 ± 2 to 300 ± 36 ng/g, Table 2) are 321 similar to what is previously documented for the Langtjern catchment (Larssen et al., 2008); 37 – 268 322 ng/g, and lower than proposed critical limits for Hg in soil organic matter (500 ng/g) (Meili et al., 323 2003). Our observed concentrations are, however, low compared with a range reported in a study of 324 a peatland swamp in southern Sweden (Kronberg et al., 2012), i.e. 177 to 640 ng/g, but similar to 325 studies from further north in Sweden (Tjerngren et al., 2012a), i.e. 113 – 287 ng/g. The higher concentrations in southern Sweden are also documented elsewhere (~250 - 400 ng/g in De Wit et 326 327 al., 2015) and are related to its location further south with possibly more influence from atmospheric deposition of long range transported Hg. The differences fit the patterns of declines in environmental 328 329 Hg along a north-south gradient in Scandinavia, substantiated by studies of Hg in top sediments 330 (Munthe et al., 2007) and mosses (Berg et al., 2006; Steinnes et al., 2003).

There are not many studies available devoted to analysing environmental MeHg concentrations in soils and peatlands from the boreal region based on non-manipulated soil data. The few that exists from Scandinavia show higher concentrations than what is found in the present study: 1.9 - 39 ng/g (Kronberg et al., 2012), 3.5 - 21 ng/g (Tjerngren et al., 2012a) and 0.11 - 13.4ng/g (Skyllberg et al., 2003), but studies from boreal sites elsewhere show similar concentration ranges (e.g. North America: 0.3 - 0.5 ng/g (St Louis et al., 2001). Variations in soil MeHg may be

driven partly by differences in atmospheric inputs from the canopy and partly by soil disturbance, asdiscussed in the following.

339 We have not estimated the total soil pool of Hg in the present study as this is already 340 calculated for the Langtjern catchment by Larssen et al. (2008), demonstrating that the catchment 341 contains 17.4 mg Hg/m². This is less or similar to what is documented in other forested catchments, examples including Gårdsjön, Sweden (28 mg Hg/m², Munthe et al., 1998), Lehstenbach (89.1 mg 342 343 Hg/m²) and Steinkreuz (19.3 mg Hg/m²), Germany (Schwesig and Matzner, 2000), Cedar River 344 watershed, Washington, US (25.8 – 29.2 mg Hg/m², Obrist et al., 2012) and northeastern US (mean of 345 n = 139 sites: 21.3 mg Hg/m², Yu et al., 2014). The soil pools are often several orders of magnitude 346 larger than the atmospheric input (including throughfall, litterfall and open precipitation), indicating 347 the significance of soil processes and soil pools of Hg on the biogeochemical cycling of Hg in remote 348 catchments.

349

350 Catchment soil THg and MeHg concentrations in relation to throughfall

351 Our data demonstrates a clear relationship between THg concentrations in throughfall and top soil in 352 the undisturbed catchment LAE03 (Figure 3). This pattern is previously documented by studies in 353 North America (e.g. Mowat et al., 2011; Witt et al., 2009) and Sweden (Lee et al., 2000; Munthe et 354 al., 1995a), where the great efficiency of conifers at scavenging THg and MeHg from the atmosphere 355 is highlighted. The importance of canopy scavenging is illustrated by the low concentrations of THg in 356 the peatland samples in our study (Table 2). Depending on forest type, Hg input to the forest floor is 357 shown to be typically 3-6 times greater than into open peatland sites (Demers et al., 2007; Demers et 358 al., 2013). This is a higher ratio than what is documented in the present study, probably related to 359 different forest types between the North American site (Demers et al., 2013) and Langtjern (de Wit 360 et al., 2014).

361 Our depth profiles of THg demonstrated increasing concentrations going downwards in the 362 organic layers for both peatlands and forest soils (Table 2). As mentioned, this testifies to the strong

Hg-OM relationship in soils (Richardson et al., 2013), but could also indicate evasion of Hg from the 363 top soil layers to the atmosphere (Fu et al., 2010; Pannu et al., 2014). Graydon et al. (2012) 364 estimates, through spike studies in the experimental lake area (Ontario, Canada), that as much as 365 45% and 71 % of the added Hg is lost to the atmosphere from the upland forest soils and wetlands, 366 367 respectively. Although processes and factors affecting the evasion of Hg from soils, including 368 temperature, moisture and sterilization (Pannu et al., 2014), could lead to increased Hg loss from 369 peatlands compared to forest soils (Graydon et al., 2012), it cannot explain the large difference 370 between top layer Hg concentrations in our peatland and soil samples (Table 2, Figure).

371 For MeHg, the correlation between throughfall and top soil concentrations was not 372 significant (Figure 3), which agrees with the commonly accepted view that MeHg is produced in the 373 soil (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2008b) and not only transported via wet or dry atmospheric deposition. This 374 is also evident through the not significant relationship between top soil horizon concentrations of THg with MeHg ($r^2 = 0.04$, p = 0.67) and MeHg-to-THg ratios ($r^2 = 0.37$, p = 0.15). But similar to the 375 376 findings by Mowat et al. (2011) and Lee et al. (2000) our data shows that loading of MeHg with 377 throughfall and litterfall is higher than open area atmospheric deposition. Hence, the similar MeHg 378 concentrations in the upper layer of peatland and forest soil are consistent with inputs of MeHg from 379 the forest canopy to the forest floor.

380

381 MeHg production in soils and peatlands

We found that THg concentrations in the top layer of the forest soils (143.8 \pm 45.3 ng/g) were significantly higher than in the peatlands (40.6 \pm 7.2 ng/g, p < 0.001), indicating the patterns of atmospheric input of Hg that we discuss below. For MeHg in top soils this pattern is different, with similar concentrations observed for forest soils and peatland (both 0.6 \pm 0.6 ng/g on average). As a conclusion, our first hypothesis is only partly confirmed, as peatland MeHg concentrations are not significantly higher than those of forest soils (Figure 2a).

The variation of MeHg-to-THg ratio in the present study (as %MeHg, < 0.1 - 2.6 %, Table 3), 388 389 indicates a heterogenic environment where methylation hotspots (as defined in McClain et al., 2003; 390 Mitchell et al., 2008) are likely present. If the %MeHg is viewed as an estimate of the long-term net 391 production of MeHg in the soils (as in Tjerngren et al., 2012a), our data suggest that peatland soils 392 are more effective areas for net methylation than forest soils, which is most clearly shown in the soil 393 layers below the top layer (Figure 2a). Although %MeHg did not show a significant change with depth 394 in peatlands or forest soils, MeHg-to-THg ratio maximums were observed in the deepest sample for 395 both peatlands, while the ratio in the deeper layers in the forest soils were markedly lower than for 396 the deeper peatland layers (Table 2, Figure 2a). We found that, on average, top layer peatland 397 samples had weakly significantly (p = 0.06) higher %MeHg (1.5 ± 1.4 %) than top layer forest soil 398 samples (0.4 \pm 0.5 %). Together these patterns are consistent with both significant atmospheric 399 inputs of MeHg from throughfall in forest soils (Mowat et al., 2011, see further below) and 400 methylation in deeper peatland layers (Mitchell et al., 2008).

401 Literature suggests that top soil layers (0-10 cm) are home to the bacterial activity 402 responsible for methylation and de-methylation processes, indicating that most of the soil MeHg 403 pool is present there (Kronberg et al., 2012; Mitchell and Gilmour, 2008). Our data reveal no 404 significant difference in MeHg concentrations or MeHg-to-THg ratios in the top 10 cm compared to 405 the deeper layers (Figure 2a, Table 2), possibly indicating that de-methylation processes are 406 important in our top soil layers. Photo de-methylation is documented as a process significantly 407 affecting the lake MeHg budget in the Langtjern catchment by Poste et al. (2015) and could very well 408 be of significance in top layer soil as well. However, given that we interpret MeHg-to-THg ratios as 409 the long-term net production of MeHg in our samples, the de-methylation or degradation pathways 410 are beyond the scope of our study.

It should be mentioned that in previous studies from Sweden, variations of MeHg-to-THg
ratios were much larger than at Langtjern: 0.5 – 18.7 % (Kronberg et al., 2012) and 2.3 – 16 %
(Tjerngren et al., 2012a). In addition, streamwater concentrations of THg (13 – 18 ng/L) and MeHg

(1.4 - 5.9 ng/L) in southern Sweden (Kronberg et al., 2012) were higher than what is documented for 414 415 Langtjern (de Wit et al., 2014). Streamwater MeHg concentrations in LAE11 were significantly higher 416 than in LAE03 (0.15 \pm 0.09 ng/L and 0.06 \pm 0.03 ng/L, respectively; De Wit et al., 2014, monthly data 417 from 2010 - 2012). However, these differences were not consistent with catchment soil differences in 418 MeHg concentrations (Table 2). In fact we see the opposite pattern for MeHg in top layer peatland 419 samples, with concentrations (p = 0.01) and MeHg-to-THg ratios (p = 0.02) being significantly higher 420 in LAE03 (P, 1.0 ± 0.4 ng/g and 2.5 ± 2.3 %) than in LAE11 (P, 0.2 ± 0.1 ng/g and 0.7 ± 0.4 %, Figure 421 2a). We see no significant difference (p > 0.05) in THg concentrations (42 ± 6 ng/g and 40 ± 9 ng/g for 422 LAE03 and LAE11, respectively).

Demers et al. (2013) states that mobilisation of Hg from forest soils and wetlands are dependent upon hydrological flow paths (in addition to decomposition dynamics). In the present study our data show a lack of consistency between MeHg and THg concentrations in streamwater and top layer peatland samples, which may be explained by soil heterogeneity or by lack of hydrological connectivity between soil sampling points and streams.

428

429 Net MeHg production in relation to soil disturbance

A range of studies have previously aimed to document the effects of forest harvesting operations on 430 431 MeHg runoff and concentrations of MeHg in the aquatic biota (recently reviewed in Eklof et al., 432 2016). In the other Scandinavian countries, Porvari et al. (2003, Finland) and Munthe and Hultberg 433 (2004, Sweden) have shown that soil disturbance following forest harvesting leads to increased 434 MeHg runoff. While catchment hydrology and changes in nutrient cycling are thought to play a role for increases in MeHg runoff (Kreutzweiser et al., 2008; Lofgren et al., 2009), the detailed 435 436 mechanisms controlling the export of MeHg are not well known. In fact, the paired-catchment study 437 from the Langtjern area, our study location, revealed that harvest operations did not significantly 438 change THg or MeHg concentrations in runoff (de Wit et al., 2014). However, we observed a weakly 439 significant (p = 0.07) and significant (p = 0.04) difference between MeHg concentrations and MeHg-

to-THg ratios between the wheeltrack and non-wheeltrack samples, respectively (Table 2, Figure 2b).
Thus, we find an effect of soil disturbance on MeHg production, although this effect was not
reflected in MeHg concentrations in streamwaters in the disturbed and harvested catchment.

443 The support for disturbance effects on MeHg found in our soil samples, but not in the 444 streamwater chemistry, may relate to lack of hydrological connection between methylation hotspots 445 and the stream in the harvested LAE11 catchment. However, it is important to note that support for 446 harvest effects on MeHg in water remains ambiguous (Eklof et al., 2016), reflecting that factors 447 controlling MeHg production and leaching are still poorly understood. Possibly, a more extensive soil 448 sampling campaign would have been necessary to find relationships between soil and streamwater 449 chemistry. According to Tjerngren et al. (2012a), peatlands soils with a C/N ratio of approximately 20 450 produce significantly more MeHg (%MeHg of 16; MeHg yield 0.48 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) than soils with lower or higher C/N ratios (%MeHg < 7; MeHg yield 0.1 - 0.3 g m⁻² yr⁻¹). The soils in our study had generally 451 452 considerably higher C/N ratios than 20 while MeHg-to-THg ratios were < 3% and the catchment MeHg yields were 0.04 and 0.1 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (De Wit et al., 2014). According to the patterns found by 453 454 Tjerngren et al. (2012a), Langtjern fits in as a low nutrient site with relatively low MeHg production. 455 However, we did not find any support for effects of soil nutrient status on MeHg concentrations or 456 MeHg-to-THg ratios in peatland or forest samples: no significant correlations were found between 457 indicators of soil nutrient status (Tot-N, C/N ratio, Tot-P) and MeHg-to-THg ratios, perhaps due to the 458 relatively small range in nutrient concentrations present at Langtjern.

459

460 Conclusion

Based on measurements of Hg in soil samples from two small boreal catchments, we conclude that the lower THg concentrations in peatland soils as compared to forest soils are likely to be related to higher inputs of THg from the forest canopy. The most important source of streamwater MeHg was peatland soils, which had highest MeHg concentrations. However, we also found similar MeHg concentrations in forest soils, as a result of canopy inputs of MeHg, suggesting that forest soils are

466 potentially significant contributors to MeHg in surface waters. The local production in peatlands was 467 documented through significantly higher MeHg-to-THg ratios in the deeper soil layer samples. Finally, 468 our finding support earlier hypotheses of soil disturbance promoting methylation of inorganic Hg, 469 suggesting that soil disturbance from forest harvest machinery may promote leaching of MeHg from 470 soils to streamwaters.

471

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Figures



Figure 1 Location of the study sites; the forest harvest impacted catchment (experimental catchment LAE11) and the gradient study catchment (undisturbed catchment LAE03). Sample ID's refer to the ID's used throughout the study and defined in Table 1. Shown are also sampling points LAE01 (lake outlet) and LAE02 and LAE03 (south and east lake inlets, respectively).

Peatland



Forest soil



Figure 2a Depth profiles of (from left to right) THg concentrations (ng/g), Tot-C levels (%), MeHg concentrations (ng/g) and MeHg-to-THg ratios (as %MeHg) in peatland (top panels) and forest soil (bottom panels) samples. Shown are mean concentrations with error bars (\pm one standard deviation) for peatland samples LAE03-P and LAE11-P (n = 6 for each soil layer) and forest soil samples F1, F2 and F3 (n = 6 for each soil layer: O-F (F2 and F3), O-H (F2 and F3), Mineral (F1 and F3)). Soil layers follow the notation from Table 1.



Figure 2b Depth profiles of (from top left and clockwise) THg concentrations (ng/g), Tot-C levels (%), MeHg concentrations (ng/g) and MeHg-to-THg ratios (as %MeHg) in wheeltrack (grey bars with pattern fill) and non-wheeltrack (grey bars without pattern) samples. Shown are mean concentrations with error bars (\pm one standard deviation) for wheeltrack samples WT1, WT2 and WT3 (n = 3 for each soil layer) and non-wheeltrack samples WT1a, WT2a and WT3a (n = 3 for each soil layer). Soil layers follow the notation from Table 1.



Figure 3 THg (left panel) and MeHg (right panel) concentrations in throughfall (left y-axes, grey bars) and the top soil layer (right y-axes, black circles, ng/g) from sample locations with different canopy density. Sampling location ID refers to canopy densities as described in Table 1. Throughfall concentrations are in $\mu g/m^2$ and ng/m^2 for THg and MeHg, respectively, while top soil concentrations are in ng/g for both THg and MeHg. Concentrations of THg and MeHg in top soil horizon are shown as mean \pm one standard deviation.

Tables

Table 1 Sample ID's (used throughout the paper) with description of the samples collected; each sample ID was collected in triplicates giving 3 times the amount of samples

Catchment		Sample ID (sample location)	Location description	Soil/peatland layer sampled	Throughfall collectors
LAE03 Undisturbed		Р	Open peatland (sphagnum)	L, F, H (0-5 cm and 5-10 cm)	n = 3
catchinent		F1	Pine forest (open forest: > 20 m between individual trees)	O, mineral (0-5 cm)	n = 3
		F2	Swamp forest (intermediate dense forest:5-10 m between individual trees)	О-F, О-Н	n = 3
		F3	Spruce forest (dense forest: < 5 m between individual trees)	O-F, O-H, mineral (0-5 cm)	n = 3
LAE11 Experimental	Undisturbed area	Р	Open peatland (sphagnum)	L, F, H (0-5 cm and 5-10 cm)	n.a.
catchment	Disturbed area, harvested, impacted by	WT1, WT2, WT3	Wheeltracks from forest machinery	0-5 cm, 5-10 cm	n.a.
	iorest machinery	WT1a, WT2a, WT3a	<5 m away from wheeltracks, no sign of disturbance from forest machinery ("non-wheeltracks")	0-5 cm, 5-10 cm	n.a.

indicated in the table. Indicated in the table is also where throughfall sample collectors were placed.

Table 2 Concentrations of selected environmental parameters determined in the soil samples: total carbon (Tot-C), total mercury (THg), methylmercury (MeHg), % methylmercury (%MeHg), total mercury to carbon ratio (THg/C), methylmercury to carbon ratio (MeHg/C), total nitrogen (Tot-N), total phosphorous (Tot-P) and carbon-to-nitrogen ratio (C/N ratio). Shown are mean concentrations \pm one standard deviation (n = 3) for composite samples in each soil or peatland layer. Sample location corresponds to ID's presented in Figure 1 and Table 1.

Catchment	Sample location	Soil/ wetland layer	Layer thickness (cm)	Tot-C (%)	THg (ng/g)	MeHg (ng/g)	%MeHg	THg/C (ng/mg)	MeHg/C (ng/µg)	Tot-N (%)	Tot-P (%)	C/N (g/g)
	Р	L	15	46.1 ± 0.6	42 ± 6	1.0 ± 0.4	2.6 ± 1.2	0.09 ± 0.01	2.2 ± 0.9	0.73 ± 0.25	0.30 ± 0.10	68 ± 20
LAE03		F	10	46.1 ± 0.8	47 ± 5	1.1 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 2.3	0.10 ± 0.01	2.4 ± 1.9	0.90 ± 0.07	0.37 ± 0.03	51 ± 3
		H (0-5 cm)	5	50.8 ± 0.8	51 ± 18	0.8 ± 0.3	1.9 ± 1.4	0.10 ± 0.04	1.6 ± 0.6	1.90 ± 0.25	0.54 ± 0.07	27 ± 4
		H (5-10 cm)	5	52.1 ± 0.6	35 ± 14	1.2 ± 0.9	3.1 ± 2.3	0.07 ± 0.03	2.2 ± 1.7	1.59 ± 0.37	0.46 ± 0.08	34 ± 7
		0	9	53.2 ± 0.4	124 ± 25	0.3 ± 0.4	0.3 ± 0.5	0.23 ± 0.05	0.6 ± 0.8	1.11 ± 0.02	0.50 ± 0.05	48 ± 1
	F1	Mineral	5	4.4 ± 0.3	68 ± 55	0.1 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.2	0.89 ± 0.69	1.4 ± 0.4	0.42 ± 0.52	0.27 ± 0.19	39 ± 5
		O-F	8	50.8 ± 2.2	125 ± 57	0.2 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.4	0.24 ± 0.10	0.5 ± 0.6	1.44 ± 0.12	0.63 ± 0.10	35 ± 2
	F2	O-H	8	50.0 ± 1.0	198 ± 57	0.1 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	0.40 ± 0.12	0.2 ± 0.2	1.75 ± 0.12	0.91 ± 0.08	29 ± 2
	-	O-F	5	50.8 ± 0.8	163 ± 29	0.9 ± 0.8	0.6 ± 0.6	0.12 ± 0.11	1.7 ± 1.5	1.31 ± 0.09	0.66 ± 0.06	39 ± 3
	F3	О-Н	5	50.9 ± 0.2	300 ± 36	0.1 ± 0.1	0.0 ± 0.0	0.32 ± 0.06	0.1 ± 0.0	1.12 ± 0.15	0.49 ± 0.07	46 ± 6
		Mineral	5	6.0 ± 2.2	16 ± 2	0.1 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.3	0.59 ± 0.07	0.8 ± 0.6	0.13 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.02	50 ± 15
T A T 11		0-5 cm	5	44.8 ± 15.4	89 ± 19	0.9 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.5	0.23 ± 0.15	2.7 ± 2.8	1.55 ± 0.51	0.68 ± 0.21	29 ± 1
LAEII	WT1-3	5-10 cm	5	45.4 ± 12.1	91 ± 18	0.4 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.5	0.21 ± 0.05	1.1 ± 1.3	1.63 ± 0.50	0.72 ± 0.20	28 ± 2
	WT1a-3a	0-5 cm	5	52.3 ± 0.5	147 ± 25	0.1 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	0.28 ± 0.05	0.2 ± 0.1	1.64 ± 0.13	0.64 ± 0.02	32 ± 3
		5-10 cm	5	51.6 ± 0.8	162 ± 12	0.4 ± 0.4	0.2 ± 0.2	0.31 ± 0.02	0.8 ± 0.8	1.59 ± 0.17	0.61 ± 0.11	33 ± 4
	Р	L	7	46.1 ± 0.2	40 ± 9	0.2 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.1	0.09 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.2	0.80 ± 0.19	0.28 ± 0.10	59 ± 13
		F	5	46.3 ± 0.4	68 ± 22	0.5 ± 0.4	0.7 ± 0.4	0.15 ± 0.05	1.1 ± 0.9	1.00 ± 0.10	0.35 ± 0.03	46 ± 5
		H (0-5 cm)	5	47.8 ± 0.9	71 ± 18	0.4 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.15 ± 0.04	0.8 ± 0.2	1.30 ± 0.07	0.40 ± 0.02	37 ± 2
		H (5-10 cm)	5	$48.5 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm} 1.0$	85 ± 18	1.0 ± 0.5	1.1 ± 0.5	0.17 ± 0.04	2.0 ± 1.2	1.37 ± 0.09	0.43 ± 0.05	36 ± 2