

Environmental Factors Affecting Mercury Methylation in Estuarine Sediments

S.-C. Choi, R. Bartha

Department of Biochemistry and Microbiology, Cook College, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903-0231, USA

Received: 25 December 1993/Accepted: 15 April 1994

Sulfate-reducing bacteria were found to be the principal mercury methylators in anoxic aquatic sediments (Compeau and Bartha 1985). Nevertheless, a puzzling aspect of the process remained the observed inverse correlation between mercury methylation and sulfate levels (Compeau and Bartha 1987). One would normally expect a positive rather than an inverse correlation, because sulfate reducers require sulfate as an electron acceptor and they compete poorly with the methanogens in its absence (Lovley 1985). As a likely explanation of the paradox, it was pointed out that the H₂S formed in reducing sulfate-rich environments precipitates mercuric ions, rendering them unavailable for methylation (Compeau and Bartha 1983; Berman and Bartha 1986).

In an additional attempt to elucidate the relation of mercury methylation in saltmarsh sediments to sulfate levels and other environmental conditions, we attempted to simplify the situation by removing the effect of H_2S on mercuric ion availability. Prior to the addition of mercuric ions, anaerobic saltmarsh sediments were treated by excess $FeCl_2$, precipitating H_2S as FeS. After this pretreatment, we measured mercury methylation rates and correlated them with the sulfate levels and other parameters of anoxic saltmarsh sediment samples, collected along a land-to-sea transsect.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

During October 1991, duplicate sediment cores were collected along a transsect from the landward to the seaward border of Cheesequake estuary (Fig. 1). The four collection sites were dictated by the prevailing salinities from 7.0 to $20.0^{\circ}/\infty$. A hand corer (Wildco Instruments, Saginaw, MI) equipped with plastic liners was used for taking cores from mudflats exposed at low tide in a manner that preserved their *in situ* state. After retrieval of 5 by 25 cm cores, the two ends of the liner were immediately capped with butyl rubber stoppers. To measure the *in situ* salinity, a salinity probe (Yellow Springs Instrument Co., Yellow Springs, OH) was placed into the hole which was left behind after taking the cores.

Within 2 hr of collection, samples were placed into an anaerobic chamber (PACE 6500; Labline Instruments, Melrose Park, Ill.) in which an atmosphere consisting of 5% H_2 , 5% CO_2 , 90% N_2 was maintained. For biological analyses, all subsequent manipulations were performed within the anaerobic chamber. Field and laboratory measurements of redox potential (E_h) demonstrated that this

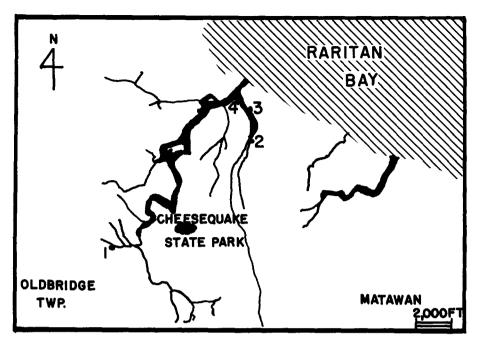


Figure 1. Map of the Cheesequake State Park study area with sampling points (•). Salinities at the each sampling locations were 1 (7 %), 2 (12 %), 3 (15 %), and 4 (20 %).

sampling procedure did not change the in situ E_h of the sediment.

Total sulfide (free H_2S plus acid-labile sulfides) levels were determined by precipitation with zinc acetate. After placing ~1 g (wet weight) of sediment into a serum vial, sediment sulfide was volatilized by a combination of heat (90°C) and acid (20 mL of $6N\ H_2SO_4$) treatment. The volatilized H_2S was flushed out by a gas stream of oxygen-free nitrogen and trapped in two successive vials containing 10 mL of 1N zinc acetate each. Subsequently, the ZnS precipitate was collected with a membrane filter (pore size of 0.45 μ m, diameter of 25 mm; Whatman Inc., Clifton, N.J.) and iodometric titration was performed according to Howarth (1979). With known concentrations of Na_2S , this method detected sulfide with recovery efficiencies over 92%. The dry weight of the sediment utilized for sulfide determination was subsequently measured and served to calculate mg sulfide per g of dry sediment. The effectiveness of the FeS-precipitation of free H_2S was confirmed by substituting FeCl₂ for zinc acetate under the conditions described above. The recovery efficiencies were similar (over 90%) using either a FeCl₂ or a zinc acetate trap.

Sulfate concentration in sediment pore water was measured by the gravimetric method described in Standard Methods (1989). Sediment pore water from a known amount of wet sediment was diluted with distilled water and separated by centrifugation. The diluted pore water was then clarified via a membrane filtration (pore size of 0.45 µm, diameter of 47 mm; Whatman Inc.). Subsequently, sulfate was precipitated as BaSO₄ by the addition of BaCl₂ while boiling the sample at an acidic pH. The solution was kept at 90°C overnight, and the precipitate was collected on an ash-free membrane filter. After an ignition at

 800° C for 1 h, the weight of the precipitate was determined, and the sulfate concentration in the pore water was calculated. Data are presented as g sulfate per L of pore water. A recovery efficiency of $95.5 \pm 1.4\%$ was obtained with known concentrations of Na_2SO_4 .

Sediment organic matter content was measured gravimetrically as weight loss after overnight ignition at 600°C as described in Standard Methods (1989). Units are given as g of organic matter per g of dry sediment.

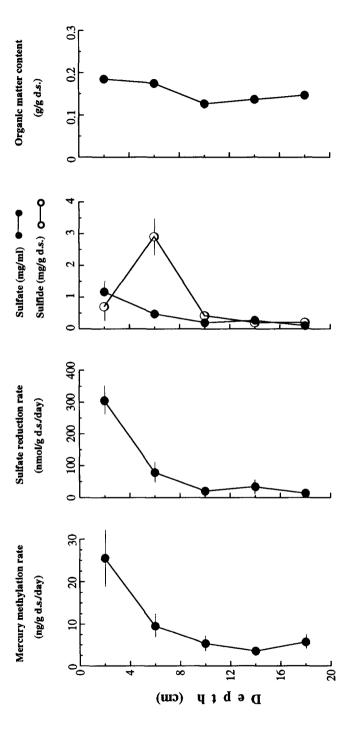
Mercury methylation and sulfate reduction rates were measured in slurried sediment samples. The water used in making the slurry was deoxygenated artificial seawater prepared with a chemically defined commercial sea salt mix (Seven Seas Marine Mix, Utility Chemical Co., Paterson, N.J.) and diluted to the in situ salinity of the sediment. For determination of methylmercury production, 20 mL of slurried sediments received 20 mg of FeCl₂ to eliminate free H₂S prior to the addition of 0.5 mg of HgCl₂. After incubation at 27°C for 2 days, the slurried sediments were extracted for methylmercury by the method of Longbottom et al. (1973). Methylation was stopped by injecting 2.0 ml of a 1.0 M CuSO₄ solution into the serum vial containing the sediment slurry. Monomethylmercury levels were measured using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph equipped with a "macrobore" capillary column (0.53-mm id, 10 m long; Alltech AT-35, Deerfield, Ill.). Operating conditions were as follows: 95:5 Ar-CH₄ (vol/vol) carrier gas (Matheson Gas Products, East Rutherford, N.J.) at 40 ml/min, injector at 210°C, oven at 100°C, and electron capture detector at 250°C. Monomethylmercury peak (retention time of 1.25 min) areas were recorded by a Hewlett-Packard 3392A integrator, calibrated using monomethylmercury standards (American Tokyo Kasei, Inc., Portland, OR) in benzene solution.

Sulfate reduction rates were measured by the conversion of Na₂³⁵SO₄ (sp act of 794.28 mCi/mmol, Amersham Inc., Arlington Heights, Ill.) to H₂³⁵S. The produced H₂³⁵S was trapped in zinc acetate solution, and collected by membrane filtration as described above. The radioactivity of Zn³⁵S precipitate was counted with a liquid-scintillation counter (BetaTrac 6895; T. M. Analytic, Elk Grove Village, Ill). Counting efficiency was determined by the external standard ratio method.

Correlation analyses were based on simple linear regression, and the calculated correlation coefficients were utilized to assess the relative importance of environmental factors affecting mercury methylation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mercury methylation rates, sulfate reduction rates, and various chemical parameters were compared in two sediment depth profiles. In low salinity sediment (7 %), both mercury methylation and sulfate reduction rates had their maximum values in the 0 to 4 cm section of the sediment core (Fig. 2). Similarly, sulfate and organic matter content showed maxima near the surface. The same trends were also observed in high-salinity (20 %) sediment (data not shown). When these parameters were subjected to correlation analysis, the mercury methylation rate had strong correlations with sulfate reduction rate (r = 0.99), sulfate (r = 0.97), and organic matter content (r = 0.83). A high rate of methylmercury production in the top sediment layer was also observed by other investigators (Jernelov 1970; Berman 1988). In a separate study, it was also



in low salinity (7^{∞}) sediment. The high salinity sediment (20^{∞}) had a very similar depth profile (data not shown). The "d.s." abbreviation refers to "dry sediment". The points are the average of triplicate determinations. Bars Figure 2. Vertical distribution of mercury methylation rate, sulfate reduction rate, and certain environmental factors indicate standard deviation.

found that sulfate reduction occurs most actively within the top layer of the sediment (Jorgensen and Bak 1991). Having compared mercury methylation and sulfate reduction rates in a single sediment core, our results not only confirm these previous findings, but are also consistent with the finding that sulfate reducers are the principal methylators of mercury (Compeau and Bartha 1985).

Sulfide concentrations were not maximal in the uppermost section sediment layer, although sulfate reduction was most active at this depth (Fig. 2). This was probably due to H₂S losses by periodic flushing and aeration with tidal water movement. The surface of the sediment was continuously exposed to air during low tide and, therefore, volatility losses and oxidation could occur. In fact, when the intact sediment core was extruded from the plastic liner, blackening of the sediment by sulfide precipitates was observed only 1 to 2 cm below the surface.

The observed maxima near the sediment surface suggests that the availability of nutrients (organic matter), electron acceptor (sulfate), and the consequent activity of sulfate reducing bacteria are the major controlling factors for methylmercury production within the depth profile of a sediment.

The parameters compared in sediment layers of different depth were also measured in sediments from four locations with different salinities of 7, 12, 15, and $20^{\circ}/_{\circ\circ}$ (Fig. 3). In this case, the most active 0 to 4 cm layers were compared with each other. For sulfate reduction rates, sulfate, and sulfide concentrations, the sites which had salinities of 7 and $20^{\circ}/_{\circ\circ}$ showed higher values than the sites of 12 and $15^{\circ}/_{\circ\circ}$ salinity. The sediment of $15^{\circ}/_{\circ\circ}$ salinity showed particularly low values for all parameters.

The mercury methylation rates, when subjected to correlation analysis, correlated best with sediment organic matter content (Table 1). This is consistent with the often observed increase of methylmercury production with increased levels of organic carbon (Olson and Cooper 1976; Furutani and Rudd 1980; Wright and Hamilton 1982; Lee and Hultberg 1990). However, the previously reported inverse correlation between mercury methylation and salinity (Compeau and Bartha 1987) or sulfide (Craig 1986) was not statistically significant in this study, because any free H₂S was removed in these experiments by precipitating it as FeS. By including this pretreatment, we could measure potential mercury methylation rates which were not limited by the precipitation mercuric ions as HgS.

The mercury methylation rates did not correlate well with sulfate or sulfate reduction rates (Table 1). The likely reason for this is that the range of sulfate concentrations encountered in this transsect were not limiting. It has been generally accepted that 10 mg/l is the sulfate concentration that starts to be limiting for the activities of sulfate reducers (Ingvorsen et al. 1981; Lovley and Klug 1983). Even at the low concentrations of sulfate (~ 3 mg/l) encountered in freshwater, sulfate reducing bacteria could remain active by synergistic interspecies H₂ transfer between methanogens and sulfate reducers (Bryant et al. 1977; Phelps et al. 1985). Among the four samples analyzed in this study, the lowest concentration of sulfate was approximately 500 mg/l which was 50 times higher than the limiting concentration that other investigators have suggested.

Without the H₂S effect on mercuric ion availability and without true sulfatelimitation, sediment organic matter content appears to be the major factor that controls mercury methylation rates in estuarine sediments. This finding adds new

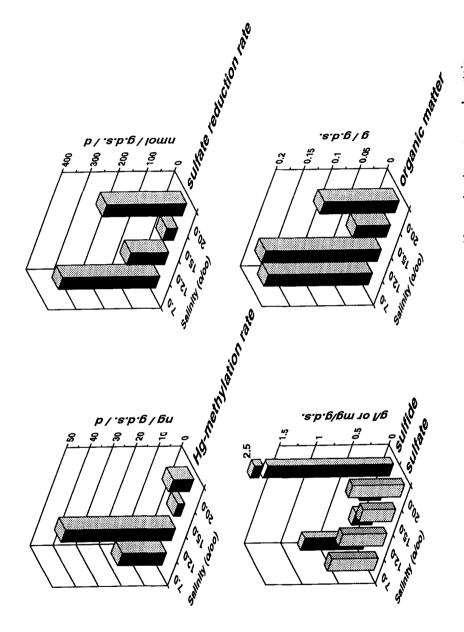


Figure 3. Regional distribution of mercury methylation rates, sulfate reduction rates, and certain environmental factors along a land to sea transsect of Cheesequake estuary.

Table 1. Coefficients of correlation (r) of the factors affecting mercury methylation in locations with different salinities.

Factors	Coefficients of correlation (r)
Sediment organic matter content	0.835
Sulfate concentration	0.234
Sulfate-reduction rate	-0.017
Sulfide concentration	-0.390
Salinity	-0.412

information to previously reported patterns of mercury methylation in anoxic aquatic sediments, but does not contradict the previous publications (Berman and Bartha 1986; Compeau and Bartha 1987)

Acknowledgments. During this work, the senior author was supported by the Interdisciplinary Core Curriculum Fellowship of the Graduate School, Rutgers University. This NJ Agricultural Experiment Station Publication D-0408-02-92 was supported by the State Funds.

REFERENCES

Berman M (1988) Biochemical and environmental factors involved in the control of the microbial methylation of mercury. Ph.D. Thesis. Rutgers University, New Brunswick. NJ.

Berman M, Bartha R (1986) Control of the methylation process in a mercury-polluted aquatic sediment. Environ Pollut 11:41-53

Bryant MP, Campbell LL, Reddy CA, Crabill MR (1977) Growth of *Desulfovibrio* in lactate or ethanol media low in sulfate in association with H₂-utilizing methanogenic bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 33:1162-1169

Compeau GC, Bartha R (1983) Effects of sea salt anions on the formation and stability of methylmercury. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol 31:486-493

Compeau GC, Bartha R (1985) Sulfate-reducing bacteria: principal methylators of mercury in anoxic estuarine sediment. Appl Environ Microbiol 50:498-502

Compeau GC, Bartha R (1987) Effect of salinity on mercury-methylating activity of sulfate-reducing bacteria in estuarine sediments. Appl Environ Microbiol 53:261-265

Craig PJ (1986) Organomercury compounds in the environment. In: Craig PJ (ed)
Organometallic Compounds in the Environment, John Wiley & Sons, New
York, p 65-110

Furutani A, Rudd JWM (1980) Measurement of mercury methylation in lake water and sediment samples. Appl Environ Microbiol 40:770-776

Howarth RW (1979) Pyrite: its rapid formation in saltmarsh and its importance to ecosystem metabolism. Science 203:49-51

Ingvorsen K, Zeikus JG, Brock TD (1981) Dynamics of bacterial sulfate reduction in a eutrophic lake. Appl Environ Microbiol 42:1029-1036

Jernelov A (1970) Release of methylmercury from sediments with layers containing inorganic mercury at different depths. Limnol Oceanogr 15:958-960

- Jorgensen BB, Bak F (1991) Pathways and microbiology of thiosulfate transformations and sulfate reduction in a marine sediment (Kattegat, Denmark). Appl Environ Microbiol 57:846-856
- LeeYH, Hultberg H (1990) Methylmercury in some Swedish surface waters. Environ Toxicol Chem 9:833-841
- Longbottom JE, Dressman RC, Lichtenberg JJ (1973) Metals and other elements: gas chromatographic determination of methylmercury in fish, sediment, and water. J Assoc Off Anal Chem 56:1297-1303
- Lovley DR (1985) Minimum threshold for hydrogen metabolism in methanogenic bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 49:1530-1531
- Lovley DR, Klug MJ (1983) Sulfate reducers can outcompete methanogens at freshwater sulfate concentrations. Appl Environ Microbiol 45:187-192
- Olson BH, Cooper RC (1976) Comparison of aerobic and anaerobic methylation of mercuric chloride by San Francisco Bay sediments. Water Res 10:113-116
- Phelps TJ, Conrad R, Zeikus JG (1985) Sulfate-dependent interspecies H₂ transfer between *Methanosarcina barkeri* and *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* during coculture metabolism of acetate or methanol. Appl Environ Microbiol 50:589-594
- Standard Methods (1989) Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater. 16th ed. American Public Health Association. Washington, DC.
- Wright DR, Hamilton RD (1982) Release of methylmercury from sediments: effects of mercury concentration, low temperature, and nutrient addition. Can J Fish Aquat Sci 39:1459-1466