

A Laboratory Study on the Isotopic Composition of Hg(0) Emitted From Hg-Enriched Soils in Wanshan Hg Mining Area

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Key Points:

- Soil emitted Hg(0) in all the controlled experiments were characterized by significant negative $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ values (-4.48 to -1.68%)
- Photoreduction of Hg in agricultural soil had a larger $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}}$ (mean of 0.72%) than that (mean of 0.18%) in temperature controls
- Mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}}$ of forest soil in temperature control (0.23%) were higher than that (-0.03 – 0.18%) in light and light-moisture controls

Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

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Abstract Soil Hg(0) emissions are an important source of atmospheric mercury (Hg), but the Hg isotopic signatures of this source remain poorly characterized. In this study, the fractionation of Hg isotopes during Hg (0) emissions from Hg-enriched agricultural and forest soils in Wanshan Hg mining area were investigated through laboratory experiments. Significant mass-dependent fractionation (MDF) of Hg isotopes and mass independent fractionation of odd Hg isotopes (odd-MIF) were observed. Mean MDF enrichment factors ($\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}}$) of agricultural soil were in the range of -2.03% to -1.34% for agricultural soil in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments, which were higher than those of forest soil in similar controls (means = -3.38% to -1.98%). Temperature-controlled experiments exhibited a larger MDF compared to light- and light moisture-controlled experiments. Photoreduction of Hg in agricultural soil in the presence and absence of soil water generated a larger positive odd-MIF (mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}} = 0.67\%$ to 0.76% , $n = 2$) than the temperature-controlled experiments (mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}} = 0.18 \pm 0.04\%$, 1 SD), whereas the $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg}(0)\text{-soil}}$ of forest soil in temperature controls (mean = $0.23 \pm 0.03\%$, 1 SD) were higher than that in light (mean = $0.18 \pm 0.06\%$, 1 SD) and light moisture-controlled experiments (mean = $-0.03 \pm 0.06\%$, 1 SD). It is speculated that photoreducible Hg (II) likely dominantly bound to S-containing ligands in agricultural soil but to both S-containing and sulfurless ligands in forest soil, resulting in significant positive odd-MIF in Hg(0) product during photoreduction in the former case and a small magnitude of positive to some negative odd-MIF in the latter case.

1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg) is a toxic trace metal pollutant affecting humans and wildlife. Gaseous elemental mercury (Hg(0)) is the dominant form of Hg in the atmosphere (Holmes et al., 2010). Hg(0) has an atmospheric residence time of approximately 0.5–1.0 years and can disperse in the global atmosphere before being deposited to Earth's surfaces or transformed to other atmospheric Hg species (Holmes et al., 2010; Lindberg et al., 2007). Global Hg(0) emissions from primary anthropogenic sources were estimated to be in the range of 1,500 to 1,650 tons annually (AMAP/UNEP, 2013; Streets et al., 2019), and those from natural surfaces were 1.1–4.2 times higher (1,800 to 7,800 tons annually) (Selin, 2009). Naturally Hg-enriched soils, mainly located in the global mercuriferous belts, generally have highly elevated Hg concentrations compared to the background soils (Feng et al., 2013; Gustin et al., 1999). Previous studies reported that emission intensities of Hg(0) were 1–3 orders of magnitude higher from Hg-enriched soils than other natural surfaces (Agnan et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016) and total Hg(0) emissions from naturally and anthropogenic contaminated Hg-enriched soils (Hg concentrations $> 0.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) accounted for 36% of the global terrestrial Hg(0) emissions (Agnan et al., 2016). Thus, naturally Hg-enriched soils are important sources of Hg(0) and play critical roles in atmospheric Hg budgets, especially at local to regional scales.

Hg has seven stable isotopes in the environment (Hg^{196} , Hg^{198} , Hg^{199} , Hg^{200} , Hg^{201} , Hg^{202} , and Hg^{204}). Significant advances have been made in measuring the Hg isotopic compositions in geological and environmental samples during the past decade (Blum et al., 2014; Sonke & Blum, 2013). Significant mass-dependent fractionation (MDF, $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ signature) and mass-independent fractionation (MIF, $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$, and $\Delta^{200}\text{Hg}$ signatures) of Hg isotopes were observed in geological and environmental samples (Blum et al., 2014). MDF of

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Hg isotopes could be caused by many natural processes including aqueous reduction and oxidation, gaseous-phase oxidation, soil adsorption, photoreduction of particulate bound mercury, and foliar/air exchange of Hg (Demers et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2019; Jiskra et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2016; Wiederhold et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2018), whereas MIF of Hg isotopes is mainly induced by photochemical reactions (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Chen et al., 2012; Fu et al., 2019; Gratz et al., 2010; Motta et al., 2020; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009). MIF of Hg isotopes is considered as related to the magnetic isotope effect (MIE) and the nuclear volume effect (NVE) (Buchachenko et al., 2004; Schauble, 2007). Despite our incomplete understanding of the mechanisms associated with MDF and MIF of Hg isotopes in various geological and environmental processes, isotope fractionation of Hg, especially MIF, is a powerful tool in tracking Hg transformation and reaction mechanisms.

Exchange of Hg between soil and atmosphere plays an important role in the biogeochemical cycling of Hg; however, fractionation of Hg isotopes during this process has not been well characterized. Processes involved in the fractionation of Hg isotopes associated with soil-atmosphere exchange of Hg likely include photochemical/biotic/abiotic reduction and oxidation, adsorption, and desorption (Zhang & Lindberg, 1999). Demers et al. (2013) observed that Hg(0) emitted from forest soil to the atmospheric pool had very positive $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ (0.60‰ to 1.60‰) and moderate negative $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ (−0.25‰ to −0.12‰), which were likely related to the adsorption and/or oxidation of Hg(0) in the surface soil ecosystem. However, studies on the isotopic composition of Hg in forest soil depth profiles observed a consistent increase of $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ value with increasing soil depth that was partly attributed to the preferential loss of lighter Hg isotopes during abiotic dark reduction (Jiskra et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2016). In addition, recent studies reported an enrichment of lighter Hg isotopes in reactant Hg(0) in soil pore air and natural water during abiotic dark oxidation (negative MDF of Hg isotopes) (Jiskra et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018). These latter studies indicated that nonphotochemical abiotic reduction and oxidation tend to enrich in lighter Hg isotopes in soil air Hg(0) pool. It should be noted that the biological/physicochemical nature and Hg contents of soils vary significantly at local, regional, and global scales, which would affect the biogeochemical cycling of Hg at the soil-atmosphere interface and would likely further induce different fractionation patterns during soil-atmosphere exchange of Hg. Therefore, there is a need to more widely study the Hg isotope fractionation between soil and atmosphere in different environmental settings in order to better understand the biogeochemical cycling of Hg within various soil ecosystems and evaluate the effects of soil emissions on the isotopic signatures of atmospheric Hg(0) pool.

The Wanshan Hg mining area in Guizhou province of Southwest China had a long history of Hg mining until the complete prohibition of large-scale Hg mining in 2004. Historical Hg mining has already resulted in severe Hg pollution in this region (Wang et al., 2007). Soil Hg concentrations in this area are highly elevated (up to 2–4 orders of magnitude) compared to national background levels. Emission fluxes of Hg(0) in Wanshan Hg mining area (means: 160–27,800 ng m^{−2} hr^{−1}) were also much higher than those observed in background areas, enabling this area to be a strong source of atmospheric Hg(0) at local and regional scales (Wang et al., 2007). In this study, the isotopic compositions of Hg(0) emitted from agricultural rice paddy soil (Hg concentration = 218 ± 19.2 μg g^{−1}, 1 SD) and forest soil (Hg concentration = 15.4 ± 0.4 μg g^{−1}, 1 SD) collected from the Wanshan Hg mining area were measured in the laboratory. The objectives of this study were to (1) characterize the isotopic compositions of Hg(0) emitted from Hg-enriched soils in Hg mining area and (2) evaluate the factors influencing the fractionation of Hg isotopes during Hg(0) emission from soil.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Soil Sample Collection and Processing

Soil samples were collected from surface soil layer (0–5 cm) at two different sites: a rice paddy field (also referred to as agricultural soil below) and a forest field in the Wanshan Hg mining area, Guizhou, southwest China. The rice paddy field was located in a river valley and frequently impacted by contaminated river water and runoff that leached Hg from mine-waste calcines and/or unroasted cinnabar ore waste (Qiu et al., 2005). The forest field was located in a mountainous slope where there was no impact of mining waste, and the sources of Hg should be mainly related to atmospheric deposition and parent rock. All samples were immediately sealed with three successive polyethylene bags. In the laboratory, soil samples were freeze-dried, milled (~100 mesh), and sealed in two successive polyethylene bags and kept in a refrigerator at 2–4°C

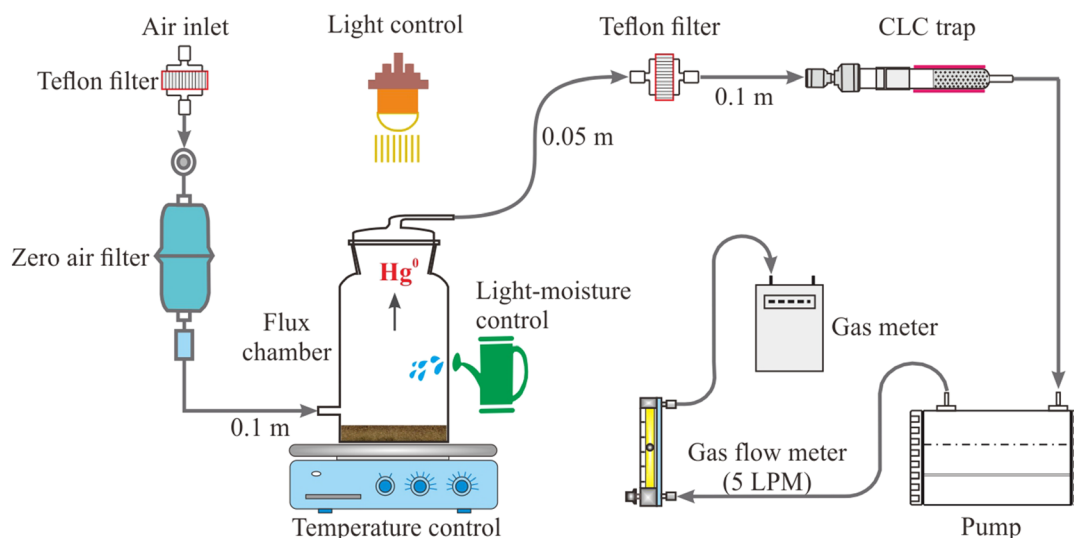


Figure 1. Collection of Hg(0) emitted from soil for Hg isotope analysis.

until flux measurements and isotope analysis. Microscopic analysis with the Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM, FEI Inc.) and Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy (EDX, EDAX Inc.) indicates that Hg compounds in the agricultural soil may partly include Nano HgS, microscopic balls of liquid or colloidal Hg(0), and Hg-Al-Au-Ni amalgams or HgO adsorbed on clay minerals (Figure S1 in the supporting information). A previous study suggested that the microscopic balls of liquid and colloidal Hg(0) and gaseous Hg(0) in sediments impacted by mine waste drainages represent a small fraction of the total Hg (<0.1%) (Bloom et al., 2003; Dreyfr, 1939; Gray et al., 2000; Jew et al., 2011). The native gaseous Hg(0) in soil samples might be lost during soil processing, but the bulk of the microscopic balls of liquid and colloidal Hg(0), which were coated with gas-impervious layer (Bloom et al., 2003), should be preserved.

2.2. Hg(0) Flux Emitted From Soils

Hg(0) emitted from soils was collected at the outlet of a dynamic flux chamber (DFC) using a 600 mg chlorine-impregnated activated carbon (CLC) trap at a flow rate of 5 L min^{-1} (Figure 1) (Fu et al., 2014). A Teflon filter (pore size $0.2 \mu\text{m}$) and a Tekran zero air filter were connected in sequence to the DFC to remove air particles and Hg from inlet air, allowing us to collect Hg(0) emitted from soil and isolate the deposition of Hg(0) to soil. Therefore, the measurements conducted in this study are primarily representative of the Hg isotope fractionation during soil Hg(0) emissions rather than the bidirectional exchange between soil and atmosphere. The chamber is made of quartz glass with a thickness of 1 mm and a size of 10 cm in diameter and 15 cm in height. For each agricultural soil experiment, 10 g agricultural soil was added into the chamber, while 2.5 g forest soil was used for each forest soil experiment because forest soil had a much lower density than agricultural soil. The amount of soils used in this study enabled sufficient collection of Hg(0) for Hg isotope analysis and avoided resuspension of soil particle within the chamber. The use of different amount of soils yielded uncertainties in intercomparison of emission flux of Hg(0) between the forest soil and agricultural soil but would not affect the intercomparison of Hg(0) isotope compositions because they were independent on the fractions of Hg lost from soil when they were lower than <1.1% (Tables S1 and S2). During the experiment, Hg(0) emitted from soil was carried off by the Hg-free air and subsequently collected by the CLC trap at a flow rate of 5 L min^{-1} (5 LPM). No visible resuspension of soil particle within the chamber and condensation of soil water on the wall of the chamber were observed during the experiment. A Teflon filter (pore size of $0.2 \mu\text{m}$) was utilized immediately at the outlet of the chamber, which was used, just in case, to remove air particles that might be generated during the experiment. During the sampling period, the CLC trap was kept warm ($\sim 70^\circ\text{C}$) using silicone rubber heating pads to prevent water condensation. Hg(0) concentrations at the chamber outlet were continuously measured using an automated Tekran 2537B Hg vapor analyzer at 5 min interval, which was used to collect known amounts of Hg(0) emitted from soils (Tables S1 and S2). After the completion of collection, the CLC trap was sealed with silicone

stoppers and three successive polyethylene bags and stored in a clean lab for 1–3 weeks until preconcentration into trap solutions for Hg isotope analysis.

Blank values of CLC determined by a DMA-80 automatic mercury analyzer were $0.27 \pm 0.06 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ (mean \pm 1 SD, $n = 8$). A CLC trap that contains 600 mg of CLC therefore had a mean Hg blank of 0.16 ng, which is negligible ($<1.2\%$) compared to the typical quantity ($>15 \text{ ng}$) of Hg collected in the trap. Breakthrough of the CLC traps were investigated in the laboratory at the flow rate of 5 L min^{-1} over 24 hr following the method by Fu et al. (2014), which ranged from 0.07% to 0.83% (mean = $0.35 \pm 0.29\%$, 1 SD, $n = 6$). The recoveries of the collected Hg(0) using the experimental setting were investigated by injections of known amounts of Hg(0) vapor (8.6–49.0 ng) at the inlet of the chamber at room temperature. The recoveries ranged from 88% to 112% (mean = $93.4 \pm 7.7\%$, 1 SD, $n = 8$), which would not likely result in significant bias in measurements of Hg(0) isotopic compositions (Fu et al., 2014).

In the laboratory, the isotopic composition of Hg(0) emitted from soil was investigated under three categories of controlled experiments: (1) light control-light exposure at room temperature and zero soil moisture; (2) temperature control-soil temperature at approximately 40°C, 100°C, and 130°C in the absence of light and soil moisture; and (3) light moisture control-soil moisture at 5%, 10%, 20%, and 30% in the presence of light and at room temperature. Note that temperature control experiment at room temperature (e.g., $\leq 30^\circ\text{C}$) was not conducted because soil emitted Hg(0) under this condition in 1-week time was not sufficient for Hg isotope analysis. Light exposure control was accomplished by using a Mercury Light Source (Newport, USA) equipped with a 350 W mercury arc lamp and fused silica lenses. The Mercury Light Source generated mainly UVA and UVB light and visible light (290 to 850 nm with the peak of 366 nm; Figure S2). The quartz glass flux chamber allowed to transmit 85% UVA and UVB and 89% visible light (Figure S2). Soil temperature was controlled by a Teflon coated digital hotplate. The surface temperatures of the hotplate were routinely measured using a calibrated digital thermometers and were close to the settings (within $\pm 4^\circ\text{C}$). Soil moisture control was accomplished by adding Milli-Q water (18.2 M Ω cm) into soil at designated mass ratio (g/g) of water to soil at the beginning of each experiment. We caution that, due to facts that soils was processed (e.g., freeze-dried and milled), soil moisture contents might be decreased from the initially designated settings during light moisture control experiment, and temperatures utilized during temperature control (e.g., 100°C and 130°C) were much higher than the soil temperatures under natural conditions, the isotopic composition of Hg(0) emitted from soils in this study should be more likely regarded as a qualitative indication.

2.3. Sample Processing for Hg Concentration and Isotope Analysis

Before Hg concentration and isotope analysis, Hg(0) collected on CLC traps and Hg in soils were preconcentrated into 5–10 ml of 40% mix acid solution (v/v, 2HNO₃/1HCl) using a double-stage combustion protocol described in literature (Fu et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2013). Briefly, CLC and soil were combusted in a Hg-free oxygen flow (25 ml min^{-1}), and then the combustion products were further decomposed in a hot quartz tube ($1,000^\circ\text{C}$). Hg(0) collected on CLC traps and Hg in soils were released in the form of Hg(0), which was subsequently trapped by the mixed acid solution. After combustion, Milli-Q water was used to rinse the trapping bottles and impingers three times and added the rinse water to the final trapping solutions to yield an acid concentration of $\sim 20\%$. The final trapping solution was kept in a refrigerator at $2\text{--}4^\circ\text{C}$ until the Hg concentration and isotope analysis. Blanks of the combustion system were determined by combustion of 600 mg of CLC and showed a mean value of $0.03 \pm 0.004 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ($n = 3$), which was negligible compared to the trap solutions ($>1 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$). Combustion of certified reference materials BCR 482 (Lichen, 480 ng g^{-1}) and NIST-2711 (Montana soil, 7 ug g^{-1}) showed mean recoveries of $95.7 \pm 3.2\%$ and (1 SD, $n = 6$) and $98.7 \pm 4.6\%$ (1 SD, $n = 10$), respectively.

2.4. Hg Concentrations, Total Organic Matter, and Total Sulfur in Soil and Soil Hg(0) Emission Flux

Soil Hg concentration was determined using a DMA-80 automatic mercury analyzer. Duplicate measurements were conducted in each case and mean values are shown in this study. Hg concentration in trapping solution was determined using a cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectrometry (CVAFS, Model 2500, Tekran Instruments, Canada) following the US-EPA Method 1631 (USEPA, 2002). Hg(0) concentration in outflow of the DFC was calculated by dividing the total mass of Hg(0) collected by the total sampling air volume

measured by gas meter (Figure 1). The measured total sampling volumes showed negligible bias (<5%) with that calculated from the designated flow rate setting (5 L min⁻¹) and sampling duration. Contents of natural organic matter (NOM) in the soils were analyzed using KCr₂O₇ (potassium dichromate) oxidation coupled with volumetric analysis (Meng et al., 2016). Contents of total sulfur (S) in the soils were determined using ICP-AES following *aqua regia* digestion (Salminen et al., 2005).

Hg(0) emission flux from soil was calculated using Equation 1:

$$F = C_o \times Q \div A, \quad (1)$$

where F is the Hg(0) flux in ng m⁻² hr⁻¹; C_o is the Hg(0) concentration of DFC outlet air in ng m⁻³; Q is the flow rate through the DFC in m³ hr⁻¹; and A is the surface area of soil in DFC in m².

2.5. Mercury Isotope Analysis

Hg isotope ratios were measured using cold vapor multicollector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (CV-MC-ICPMS, Nu Plasma, Nu Instruments, UK) following the method described in previous studies (Yin et al., 2010). Before Hg isotope analysis, each trapping solution sample was diluted to Hg concentration of ~1 ng ml⁻¹. Diluted trapping solution and SnCl₂ (3%) were mixed online and introduced into a custom-made continuous flow cold-vapor generation and liquid-gas separation system (Lin et al., 2015), and then the isotope ratios of the reduced Hg(0) were measured by the MC-ICPMS. Instrumental mass bias was corrected by standard-sample-standard bracketing using NIST SRM 3133 Hg (NIST, USA) at matching concentrations (<10%) and an internal Tl standard (NIST 997, NIST, USA). Diluted NIST SRM 3133 and 3177 (Mercuric Chloride Standard Solution) standard solutions were prepared using 20% mix acid solution (v/v, 2HNO₃/1HCl). Delta notation (δ) was used to report MDF values, which is the per mil deviations in Hg isotope ratios of sample relative to the NIST 3133 Hg standard (Blum & Bergquist, 2007):

$$\delta^{xxx}\text{Hg}(\text{‰}) = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{^{xxx}\text{Hg}}{^{198}\text{Hg}} \right)_{\text{sample}}}{\left(\frac{^{xxx}\text{Hg}}{^{198}\text{Hg}} \right)_{\text{NIST SRM 3133}}} - 1 \right] \times 1,000, \quad (2)$$

where xxx refers to the mass of each Hg isotope between 199 and 202 (Hg²⁰⁴ was not measured because of the limitations of instrumental collector designs). MIF values are expressed by “capital delta (Δ)” notation (‰) (Bergquist & Blum, 2007):

$$\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}(\text{‰}) = \delta^{199}\text{Hg} - (0.252 \times \delta^{202}\text{Hg}), \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta^{200}\text{Hg}(\text{‰}) = \delta^{200}\text{Hg} - (0.502 \times \delta^{202}\text{Hg}), \quad (4)$$

$$\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}(\text{‰}) = \delta^{201}\text{Hg} - (0.752 \times \delta^{202}\text{Hg}). \quad (5)$$

A standard reference NIST SRM 3177 was analyzed repeatedly to obtain the analytical uncertainty of isotopic compositions during instrumental procedures. The mean values of $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$, $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$, $\Delta^{200}\text{Hg}$, and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$ for all NIST SRM 3177 standard were $-0.51 \pm 0.13\text{‰}$, $-0.01 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$, $0.01 \pm 0.05\text{‰}$, and $-0.01 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$ (2 SD, $n = 30$), respectively, which are in agreement with previously reported values (Fu, Zhang, Feng, et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2016). In addition, isotopic compositions of standard references of BCR 482 ($\delta^{202}\text{Hg} = -1.63 \pm 0.19\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = -0.58 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{200}\text{Hg} = 0.07 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$; and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg} = -0.60 \pm 0.12\text{‰}$, 2 SD; $n = 6$) and NIST 2711 ($\delta^{202}\text{Hg} = -0.18 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = -0.24 \pm 0.05\text{‰}$; $\Delta^{200}\text{Hg} = 0.00 \pm 0.05\text{‰}$; and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg} = -0.18 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$, 2 SD, $n = 10$) were also measured and agreed with previously published results (Biswas et al., 2008; Blum & Johnson, 2017; Estrade et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2015; Wiederhold et al., 2013). Such an agreement together with the nearly complete recovery of Hg in standard references mentioned above indicate the preconcentration method used in this study would not induce significant bias in measurements of Hg isotope compositions. The analytical uncertainty (2 SD) of Hg isotopic compositions in the study is the larger 2 SD value of either the repeated analysis of the sample or the procedural NIST 3177.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Soil Hg Concentration and Emission Flux

Concentrations of Hg in the agricultural and forest soils were $218 \pm 19.2 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ and $15.4 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ (1 SD), respectively, which are significantly higher than those of the background soils (e.g., $<0.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) (Agnan et al., 2016). NOM contents were 4.2% and 6.9% of soil mass, and Hg/NOM ratios were $5.2 \times 10^5 \text{ ng/mg}$ and $2.2 \times 10^3 \text{ ng/mg}$ for the agricultural soil and forest soil, respectively. Average total sulfur contents of the agricultural soil and forest soil were $341 \pm 14 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ and $472 \pm 11 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ (1 SD), respectively.

Soil Hg(0) emission fluxes varied significantly under different laboratory-controlled conditions (Tables S1 and S2). Hg(0) emission fluxes from the agricultural soil increased by more than 2 orders of magnitude (from 23.5 to $5,648 \pm 2,606$ or $14,675 \pm 4,202 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, 1 SD) when soil temperature increased from 40°C to 100°C or 130°C. The phenomenon of increasing Hg(0) emission flux with increasing temperature has also been reported in previous studies (Choi & Holsen, 2009; Gustin et al., 1997), which is likely due to the increasing vapor pressure of volatile Hg(0) and a decreasing sorption by soil, but also an acceleration of abiotic reduction processes at higher temperatures (Gustin et al., 2004; Schluter, 2000). No significant difference in Hg(0) emission flux from the agricultural soil was observed between the light moisture (10%) control experiments (mean = $580 \pm 160 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) and light control experiments (mean = $804 \pm 533 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) when the fractions of released Hg(0) ranged from 0.09‰ to 0.46‰ (two-independent sample *t* test, $p = 0.92$; Table S1). On the other hand, Hg(0) emission fluxes from the agricultural soil in the light moisture (5% to 30%) control experiments ($1,413$ to $2,405 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) were 1.7 to 2.9 times higher than in the light control experiments ($829 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) when a smaller fraction of Hg was released from soil (i.e., 0.007‰; Table S1). These results suggest that soil Hg(0) emission could be enhanced immediately after water addition (e.g., $<1.4 \text{ hr}$), but such an enhancement would be significantly suppressed with increasing sampling durations (e.g., $>15 \text{ hr}$) due to decreasing soil moisture content with time (Gustin & Stamenkovic, 2005; Lindberg et al., 1999). Soil Hg(0) emissions in the light control experiments were mainly controlled by photochemical reduction, as can be seen from the much higher fluxes (35 to 102 times; Table S1) from the experiments with light (light control and light moisture control at room temperature) than without light (temperature control at 40°C), which is consistent with previous studies (Fantozzi et al., 2013; Moore & Carpi, 2005).

Soil moisture seemed to play little role in modulating Hg(0) emission from the forest soil, as can be seen from the insignificant difference in emission flux between the light control ($41.0 \pm 14.5 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, 1 SD) and light moisture (10%) control ($40.9 \pm 14.3 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, 1 SD) experiments (two-independent sample *t* test, $p = 1.00$; Table S2). High soil temperature substantially enhanced Hg(0) emission from the forest soil, for example, Hg(0) emission flux of $25,928 \pm 11,470 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ (1 SD) at 130°C, which was approximately 3 orders of magnitude higher than those in the light control and light moisture control experiments (Table S2). Hg(0) emission flux from the forest soil was under the detection limit in the absence of light and at room temperature, indicating photochemical reduction controlled emissions of Hg(0) in the light control and light moisture control experiments.

A significant variation in Hg(0) emission fluxes from agricultural and forest soils was observed for each category of controlled experiments (chi-square test, p values for all <0.01 ; Tables S1 and S2). As shown in Tables S1 and S2, Hg(0) emission fluxes from agricultural soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments and from forest soil in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments decreased with the fraction of Hg(0) emitted from soils. It is speculated that some reducible Hg species in agricultural and forest soils were preferentially lost at the beginning of the progressing experiments, causing initially rapid emissions observed in our experiments. These reducible Hg species should be coordinated with both sulfurless and S-containing ligands (characterized by negative and positive MIF in Hg(0) product, respectively; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010a), as evidenced by the small variations in MIF signatures of emitted Hg(0) during each progressing experiment, with the exception of agricultural soil in light moisture-controlled experiments (characterized by initially higher positive MIF in Hg(0) product). The small variations in MIF signatures of emitted Hg(0) also indicates a small effect of evaporation of elemental Hg on the variations of Hg(0) emission flux from the agricultural soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiment, which generally generates much smaller magnitude of positive MIF in Hg(0) product than photochemical processes (Estrade et al., 2009). However, the effect of elemental Hg evaporation could not be excluded for the temperature-controlled experiments, since the magnitude of MIF caused by

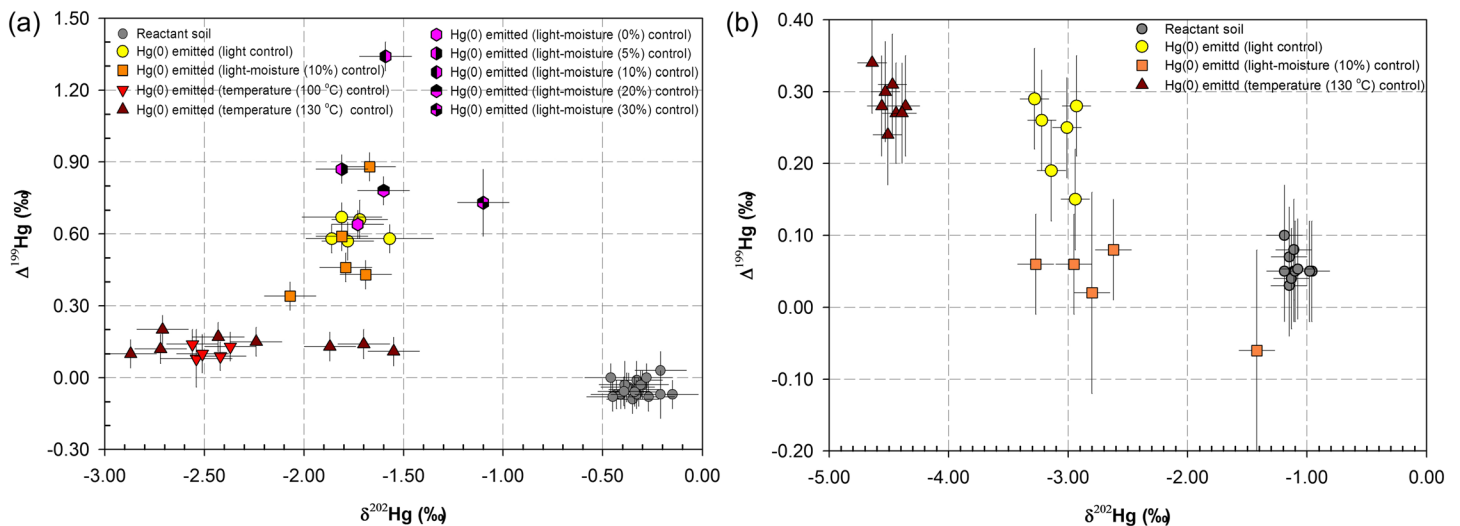


Figure 2. $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values of emitted Hg(0) and reactant soils for agricultural soil (a) and forest soil (b) in this study. Error bars are 2σ analytical uncertainty isotopic composition.

liquid-vapor Hg(0) evaporation is more or less similar to that caused by nonphotochemical processes (Estrade et al., 2009; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010b).

3.2. Isotopic Compositions of Reactant Soil

During all progressing experiments, Hg lost from reactant agricultural and forest soils account for a small fraction of Hg in the initial soils ($<1.1\%$; Tables S1 and S2). The isotopic compositions of reactant agricultural ($\delta^{202}\text{Hg} = -0.56\text{‰}$ to -0.15‰ , $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = -0.09\text{‰}$ to 0.02‰ , $n = 23$) and forest soils ($\delta^{202}\text{Hg} = -1.19\text{‰}$ to -0.96‰ , $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = 0.03$ to 0.10 , $n = 10$), were statistically consistent with that of the initial soils (one-sample t test, $p = 0.10$ to 0.31 ; Figure 2 and Tables S1 and S2). The mean (± 1 SD) $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values of the initial and reactant agricultural soil were $-0.34 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$ and $-0.05 \pm 0.03\text{‰}$ ($n = 24$). A previous study by Feng et al. (2013) proposed that Hg in agricultural soils in Wanshan Hg mining area were likely derived from a mixing of Hg ores and Hg waste calcines, based on their analogous Hg MDF signatures. However, $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ of agricultural soil in the present study was slightly but significantly lower than that of Hg cinnabar ores and Hg waste calcines (mean $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = 0.01 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$, 1 SD, $n = 24$) (two-independent sample t test, $p < 0.01$; Yin et al., 2013), which could be partially caused by photoreduction of S-bound Hg (II) in agricultural soils that depletes odd Hg isotopes (more details below).

The forest soil investigated here had mean (± 1 SD) $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values of $-1.10 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$ and $0.06 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$ ($n = 11$), respectively. $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values of the forest soil were approximately 0.30‰ to 0.95‰ and 0.23‰ to 0.41‰ higher than those of the global background forest surface soils (mean $\delta^{202}\text{Hg} = -2.05\text{‰}$ to -1.40‰ , mean $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg} = -0.36\text{‰}$ to -0.18‰) (Demers et al., 2013; Jiskra et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2016), respectively. Given that Hg in forest soils are mainly derived from deposition of litter that uptakes Hg(0) from the atmosphere (66% to 90%) (Enrico et al., 2016; Jiskra et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2016), the above results may indicate a positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ signature of atmospheric Hg(0) in the study area, which agrees with the positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ signatures of Hg(0) emitted from the agricultural and forest soils observed in this study (more details below). However, contributions of parent rock and atmospheric Hg (II) deposition (characterized by significant positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ (Fu, Zhang, Feng, et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019) to forest soil in the study area cannot be ruled out.

3.3. MDF of Hg(0) Isotope

Soil emitted Hg(0) in both the agricultural and forest soil experiments were characterized by significant negative $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ values, although with higher values from agricultural soil (means = -2.37‰ to -1.68‰ , $n = 3$) than forest soil (means = -4.49‰ to -2.61‰ , $n = 3$) in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments (Figure 2 and Tables S1 and S2). This could be partially attributed to the less negative

Table 1

Summary of Soil Hg(0) Emission Flux, Fraction of Hg Emitted From Reactant Soil, and Hg Isotope Enrichment Factors for MDF (i.e., $\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$) and MIF ($E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$, $E^{200}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$, and $E^{201}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$) During Hg(0) Emissions From Agricultural and Forest Soils in the Light-, Light Moisture-, and Temperature-Controlled Experiments

Soil type	Environmental condition	n	Fraction of Hg emitted (%)	Hg(0) flux ($\text{ng m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$)			$\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ (‰)			$E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ (‰)			$E^{200}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ (‰)			$E^{201}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ (‰)		
				Range	Mean	1 SD	Range	Mean	1 SD	Range	Mean	1 SD	Range	Mean	1 SD	Range	Mean	1 SD
Agricultural soil	Light control	6	0.0007 to 0.046	499 to 1,739	808	477	-1.52 to -1.23	-1.40	0.10	0.62 to 0.72	0.67	0.05	-0.02 to 0.03	0.02	0.02	0.61 to 0.74	0.67	0.06
	Light moisture (5%, 10%, 20%, and 30%) control	9	0.0007 to 0.046	341 to 2,405	1,139	719	-1.73 to -0.76	-1.34	0.26	0.39 to 1.39	0.76	0.31	-0.03 to 0.03	0.01	0.02	0.38 to 1.30	0.75	0.29
	Temperature (40°C, 100°C, and 130°C) control	16	0.0007 to 0.184	23.5 to 20,216	9,841	6,088	-2.53 to -1.21	-2.03	0.38	0.13 to 0.26	0.18	0.04	-0.01 to 0.09	0.02	0.02	0.02 to 0.25	0.11	0.05
Forest soil	Light control	6	0.065 to 0.390	23.3 to 67.0	41.0	14.5	-2.17 to -1.82	-1.98	0.15	0.09 to 0.23	0.18	0.06	-0.02 to 0.09	0.02	0.04	0.15 to 0.25	0.21	0.04
	Light moisture (10%) control	5	0.065 to 0.325	26.5 to 62.6	40.9	14.3	-2.16 to -0.31	-1.51	0.71	-0.12 to 0.02	-0.03	0.06	-0.02 to 0.07	0.02	0.04	-0.03 to 0.15	0.10	0.07
	Temperature (130°C) control	8	0.130 to 1.04	12,784 to 41,610	25,928	11,470	-3.53 to -3.25	-3.38	0.09	0.18 to 0.28	0.23	0.03	0 to 0.06	0.03	0.02	0.10 to 0.19	0.14	0.04

Note. MDF and MIF enrichment factors are defined as the difference between the isotopic composition of Hg(0) production and the isotopic composition of Hg in reactant soil. The MDF and MIF signatures of Hg in reactant soils during our progressing experiments are identical to that in initial soils because of the small fraction (<1.1%) of Hg lost from soils. Therefore, Hg isotope enrichment factors for MDF and MIF could not be calculated using the Rayleigh model.

$\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ signatures of agricultural soil. However, the average MDF enrichment factors ($\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}} = \delta^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)}} - \delta^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{soil}}$) of agricultural soil (-2.03‰ to -1.34‰ , $n = 3$) in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments were higher than those of the forest soil (-3.38‰ to -1.51‰ , $n = 3$) (Table 1), indicating that the magnitude of Hg MDF during its emissions from soils was likely affected by soil matrix, with a higher magnitude of negative MDF associated with emissions of Hg(0) from the forest soil as compared to the agricultural soil.

The direction of MDF in this study is overall similar to those found in previous studies on evaporation of Hg(0) from liquid mercury and solutions as well as photochemical and nonphotochemical reduction of Hg in solutions, foliage, and building surface (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Estrade et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2013; Jiskra et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2007; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009, 2010a, 2010b). This is overall consistent with the kinetically process-induced isotope fractionation that enriches the lighter isotopes in Hg(0) product. Mean $\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ values of agricultural (-1.40‰ and -1.34‰) and forest soils (-1.98‰ and -1.51‰) in light and light moisture experiments were similar to those of photochemical reductions of Hg (II) in solution (-2.00‰ to -0.40‰) (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Kritee et al., 2008; Yang & Sturgeon, 2009; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009), but lower than those of Hg(0) evaporation from solution (-0.74‰ to -0.65‰) and from liquid mercury under equilibrium conditions (-1.21‰ to -0.86‰) (Estrade et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2007) and much higher than those of dynamic evaporation of Hg(0) from liquid mercury (mean = -6.7‰) (Estrade et al., 2009). As discussed earlier, Hg(0) emission driven by nonphotochemical reduction and evaporation processes at room temperature (e.g., $\leq 40^\circ\text{C}$) contributed insignificantly (e.g., <3%) to the total emission flux in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments, it is therefore proposed that the MDF of Hg(0) isotopes was mainly affected by photochemical reduction of Hg (II). The linear correlations between $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ and $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ values in Hg(0) product and reactant soils in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments yielded $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}/\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ ratios of -0.48 to -0.35 and -0.09 to -0.01 for agricultural and forest soils, respectively. These values were higher than that observed in photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to S-containing ligands (-0.77 ; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010a) and lower than in photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to sulfurless ligands (1.2; Bergquist & Blum, 2007), indicative of a combined result of photoreception of Hg (II) bound to various NOM (e.g., S-containing and sulfurless ligands).

Temperature-controlled experiments displayed a larger negative Hg MDF than light- and light moisture-controlled experiments. For example, mean $\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of agricultural soil in temperature-controlled experiments was $-2.03 \pm 0.38\text{‰}$ (1 SD, $n = 16$), which is 0.63‰ and 0.69‰ lower than the means in light or light moisture-controlled experiments, respectively (Table 1). For the forest soil, the mean $\epsilon^{202}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ in temperature-controlled experiments was $-3.38 \pm 0.09\text{‰}$ (1 SD, $n = 8$), which is 1.40‰ and 1.87‰ lower than the means in light or light moisture-controlled experiments, respectively (Table 1). $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}/\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ ratios in temperature-controlled experiments were -0.08 ± 0.01 and -0.07 ± 0.01 (1 SD) for the agricultural and forest soils, respectively, similar to those determined from abiotic dark reductions of Hg (II) (-0.13 to 0) (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010b), equilibrium (-0.14 to -0.12) and dynamic (-0.01) evaporation of Hg(0) from liquid mercury (Estrade et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2013). Since nonphotochemical reductions of Hg (II) generally generate similar magnitude of Hg MDF as photochemical reductions of Hg (II) (Sun et al., 2019, and references therein), it is speculated that the larger magnitude of negative MDF in temperature-controlled experiments might be attributed to dynamic emission of liquid and colloidal elemental Hg in soils (characterized by large magnitude of negative

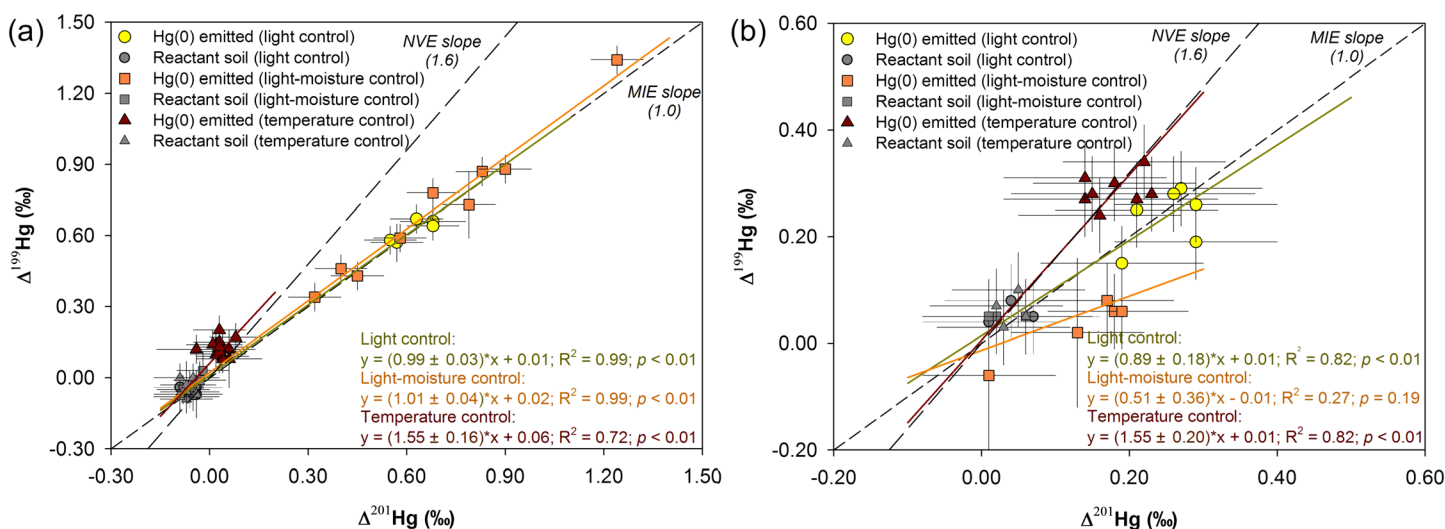


Figure 3. $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ versus $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$ during emission of Hg(0) from agricultural (a) and forest soils (b) in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments. Error bars are 2 SD analytical uncertainty of $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$. The linear regression between $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$ was calculated using Williamson-York iterative bivariate regression with analytical uncertainty (York et al., 2004). MIE and NVE slopes are adopted from literature (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Ghosh et al., 2013; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010b).

MDF; Estrade et al., 2009). The understanding of the fraction of elemental Hg in the total Hg in soils in mining areas currently remains unknown. It is speculated that elemental Hg may represent a very small fraction of total Hg in soils in this study, similar to that (<0.1%) observed in sediments in abandoned mercury mines in southwestern Alaska (Gray et al., 2000). These liquid and colloidal elemental Hg could be emitted directly under relatively higher temperature conditions (e.g., 100°C and 130°C), which in turn affect the MDF of Hg(0) isotope in temperature controlled experiments.

3.4. MIF of Hg(0) Isotope

All the experiments showed negligible MIF of the even Hg isotopes, with the even-MIF enrichment factors ($E^{200}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}} = \Delta^{200}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)}} - \Delta^{200}\text{Hg}_{\text{soil}}$) in the range of -0.03‰ to 0.09‰ (mean = $0.02 \pm 0.03\text{‰}$, 1 SD, $n = 50$) (Table 1). This is consistent with previous studies that anomalies of $\Delta^{200}\text{Hg}$ should be exclusively related to photochemical oxidation of Hg(0) in the atmosphere (Blum & Johnson, 2017; Chen et al., 2012; Gratz et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2016).

Significant MIF of the odd Hg isotope was observed in the emitted Hg(0) for most experiments. For the temperature-controlled experiments, Hg(0) emitted from agricultural and forest soils were all characterized by small positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values (0.08 to 0.34‰ , $n = 22$) (Tables S1 and S2). The mean odd-MIF enrichment factor ($E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}} = \Delta^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)}} - \Delta^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{soil}}$) of agricultural soil in temperature-controlled experiments was $0.18 \pm 0.04\text{‰}$ (1 SD), which is comparable with that of the forest soil ($0.23 \pm 0.03\text{‰}$, 1 SD) (Table 1), and both agree with the abiotic nonphotochemical reduction of Hg(II) in solutions and Hg liquid-vapor evaporation (0.1‰ to 0.3‰) (Estrade et al., 2009; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009, 2010b). In addition, the slopes of the York linear regression between $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ and $\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$ of emitted Hg(0) and reactant soil for agricultural (1.55 ± 0.16 , 1 SD) and forest soils (1.55 ± 0.20 , 1 SD) in the temperature-controlled experiments (Figure 3) were consistent with those (1.53 to 1.63) determined or expected from abiotic nonphotochemical reduction and liquid-vapor Hg(0) evaporation (Estrade et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2013; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009, 2010b), indicating the MIF of Hg isotope in temperature controls was mainly controlled by NVE.

In light- and light moisture-controlled experiments, significant positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ (means = 0.62‰ to 0.71‰ , $n = 2$) and slight positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ (means = 0.03‰ to 0.24‰ , $n = 2$) were observed in Hg(0) emitted from agricultural and forest soils, respectively (Figure 2; Tables S1 and S2). Consequently, photo-reduction of Hg in agricultural and forest soils generated positive odd-MIF enrichment factors (mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-agricultural soil}} = 0.67\text{‰}$ to 0.76‰ ; mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-forest soil}} = 0.18\text{‰}$), with the exception of forest soil in the light moisture-controlled experiments (mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-forest soil}} = -0.03\text{‰}$) (Table 1). The positive enrichment of odd Hg isotopes in the emitted Hg(0) from agricultural and forest

soils is consistent with the results of snow Hg photoreduction and S-bound Hg (II) photoreduction in solutions ($\epsilon_{\text{MIF(II-0)}}^{199/198} = -1.0\%$) (Sherman et al., 2010; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010a) but is opposite to the direction of MIF during the photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to sulfurless ligands (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009). Abiotic nonphotochemical reduction of Hg (II) and/or Hg(0) evaporation was not likely the cause for the positive $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ because of its much lower emission flux in the absence of light at room temperature (Table S1). In addition, $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}/\Delta^{201}\text{Hg}$ slopes were 0.99 ± 0.03 (1 SD) to 1.01 ± 0.04 (1 SD) for agricultural soil and 0.51 ± 0.36 (1 SD) to 0.89 ± 0.18 (1 SD) for forest soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments (Figure 3). These slopes are much lower than the slope (~ 1.6) for NVE fractionation but consistent with MIE fractionation (1.0 to 1.3) in photochemical reduction (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009, 2010a). Therefore, the odd-MIF in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments was likely controlled by MIE fractionation in photoreduction. Zheng and Hintelmann (2010a) proposed that the net MIF of odd Hg isotopes during photoreduction is likely a combination of reduction of Hg coordinated to both sulfurless and S-containing ligands, with the former characterized by (–)MIF in Hg(0) product because photolysis is from triplet excited states, whereas the later characterized by (+)MIF in Hg(0) product because photolysis is directly from singlet excited states. Therefore, the significant positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ indicates Hg(0) released from the agricultural soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments was mainly originated from species bound to S-containing ligands. This conclusion is in agreement with a speciation study that shows most of Hg in soils contaminated by drainages of mine waste in mercury mining area is in the phase of nano β -HgS (Manceau et al., 2018).

Interestingly, Hg(0) emitted from forest soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments showed small positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values (Figure 2 and Table S2). Mean $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil were $0.18 \pm 0.06\%$ (1 SD) and $-0.03 \pm 0.06\%$ (1 SD) in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments, respectively, which are much lower than those of agricultural soil (means = 0.67 to 0.76%) in similar controls and slightly lower than that of forest soil in temperature control (mean = $0.23 \pm 0.03\%$, 1 SD) (Table 1). The small positive or negative $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments were not likely attributed to the abiotic nonphotochemical reduction of Hg (II) or Hg(0) evaporation as discussed earlier. We propose that the small positive $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil in light-controlled experiments overall reflects a prevailing control of photoreduction of S-bound Hg (II) but the fraction of photoreduction of sulfurless ligands bound Hg (II) relative to the total Hg (II) should be higher than that in the case of the agricultural soil, yielding negative odd-MIF in Hg(0) product and reduce the magnitude of $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil. The mechanisms associated with negative $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil in light moisture-controlled experiments are unclear. It is speculated that the addition of water to forest soil might leach some soluble sulfurless ligands bound Hg (II) (e.g., Hg0, HgCl₂, and HgSO₄) into soil water (Bloom et al., 2003), making the magnitude of photoreduction of sulfurless ligands bound Hg (II) slightly higher than or similar to that of S-bound Hg (II), which may contribute to the small negative $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of forest soil in light moisture control. Based on the $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}/\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ ratios determined from forest soil in this study and reported values observed in photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to sulfurless (1.2) and S-containing ligands (–0.77) (Bergquist & Blum, 2007; Zheng & Hintelmann, 2010a), we roughly estimate that photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to S-containing ligands contributed 61–65% for the total Hg(0) emissions from the forest soil in light- and light moisture-controlled experiments, which were lower than those estimated for the agricultural soil (79–85%).

Previous studies demonstrated that the MIF of odd Hg isotopes is affected by Hg/DOC concentration ratios (Zheng & Hintelmann, 2009, 2010a). These studies suggested that photoreduction of Hg (II) at low Hg/DOC ratios tended to increase the $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ values of Hg(0) product because of the dominant bonds of Hg (II) to S-containing ligands. In this study, however, lower $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ were observed in forest soil, which had a lower Hg/NOM ratio (2.2×10^3 ng/mg) compared to the agricultural soil (5.2×10^5 ng/mg). We postulate that the inorganic- and organic-reduced sulfur groups are abundant in agricultural rice paddy soils (Li et al., 2019; Rothenberg & Feng, 2012), which could be derived from cinnabar ores and waste and lead to a major complexation of Hg (II) with S-containing ligands (Manceau et al., 2018). In the forest soil, sulfurless (O/N) groups are much more abundant than reduced sulfur groups (O'Donnell et al., 2016). Therefore, there is likely more bonding of Hg (II) with sulfurless ligands in the forest soil than the agricultural soil, which generates (–)MIF of Hg(0) product and subsequently results in lower or slightly negative $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ in the forest soil in light and light moisture controlled experiments.

4. Conclusions and Implications

In this study, fractionation of Hg isotopes during emission of Hg(0) from Hg-enriched agricultural and forest soils in Wanshan Hg mining area was investigated under a variety of laboratory-controlled conditions. Soil emitted Hg(0) was all characterized by significant negative $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ values (means = -4.48‰ to -1.68‰ , $n = 6$) in light-, light moisture-, and temperature-controlled experiments and generated negative shift in $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ (means = -3.38‰ to -1.34‰ , $n = 6$) in emitted Hg(0) relative to reactant soils. A large variation in odd-MIF during emission of Hg(0) was observed. $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ of agricultural and forest soils showed slightly positive values (means = 0.18‰ to 0.23‰ , $n = 2$) in temperature controls, which were likely controlled by abiotic nonphotochemical reduction and/or Hg(0) evaporation processes. Emission of Hg(0) from agricultural soil in light and light moisture controls generated larger positive $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ (means = 0.67 and 0.76 , respectively), suggesting Hg(0) was mainly derived from the photoreduction of Hg (II) bound to S-containing ligands. However, the $E^{199}\text{Hg}_{\text{Hg(0)-soil}}$ during Hg(0) emissions from forest soil were much smaller in light control (mean = $0.18 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$, 1 SD) and slightly negative in light moisture control (mean = $-0.03 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$, 1 SD), which may have been attributed to the increasing photoreduction of sulfurless ligands bound Hg (II).

Hg isotope fractionation during Hg(0) emission from soil plays an important role in the isotopic signatures of Hg in global reservoirs (Sonke, 2011). Since Hg mining and retorting activities have been completely prohibited in many Hg mining areas, soil emissions could then represent an important source of atmospheric Hg(0) in Hg mining areas. Given the measured isotopic compositions of Hg(0) emitted from agricultural and forest soils in this study, negative $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and positive $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ signatures of atmospheric Hg(0) could be expected in Hg mining areas, which agrees well the hypothesis based on leaf Hg isotope composition in the New Idria Hg mine (Wiederhold et al., 2013). Our data also indicate that Hg(0) emissions from soils in Hg mining areas would potentially lead a negative shift of $\delta^{202}\text{Hg}$ and a positive shift of $\Delta^{199}\text{Hg}$ in regional and atmospheric Hg(0) pool, given that soil Hg(0) emissions in naturally enriched and mining areas are an important source of atmospheric Hg (Agnan et al., 2016). However, we admittedly acknowledge that, due to the reverse odd-MIF induced by different types of NOM, the isotopic composition of emitted Hg(0) should be site specific. Our results therefore cannot fully represent the isotopic signatures of Hg(0) emitted from the global soils. In addition, it should be noted that our observations are primarily representative of Hg isotope fractionation associated with Hg(0) emission, whereas soil-atmosphere Hg exchange is a bidirectional process. The isotope fractionation of Hg during the its soil-atmosphere exchange could also be affected by many other processes including adsorption and oxidation of Hg(0) as well as other abiotic and biotic transformations. Therefore, the “realistic” fractionation of Hg isotope during the soil-atmosphere Hg exchange is a combination of specific isotope fractionations related to different environmental processes, which might be different from the present study. Hence, there is a need to better constrain the specific and net Hg isotope fractionation during the exchange of Hg between atmosphere and different types of soil. This would help to understand the role of soil-atmosphere exchange in the distribution of Hg stable isotope in atmospheric and continental reservoirs. In addition, such progresses could also be used to identify the processes and factors controlling the soil-atmosphere Hg exchange.

Conflict of Interest

The authors state that there is no conflict of interests.

Data Availability Statement

Data sets for this research can be found in a public domain repository (<http://www.dx.doi.org/10.11922/sciencedb.00144>).

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