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\[ OM_{(s)} \rightarrow DOC + OA + HCO_3^- \]
\[ 4Fe(OH) + CH_2O + 7H^+ = 4Fe^{2+} + HCO_3^- + 6H_2O \]
\[ SO_4^{2-} + 2CH_2O = HS^- + 2HCO_3^- + H^+ \]
\[ Hg^{2+} + HS^- = HgS_{(s)} + H^+ \]
\[ CH_3^- + Hg^{2+} = CH_3Hg^+ \]
Control of mercury and methylmercury in contaminated sediments using biochars: a long-term microcosm study

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Abstract
The effectiveness of activated carbon and four types of biochar, switchgrass (300 °C and 600 °C), poultry manure (600 °C), and oak (~700 °C) with respect to mercury (Hg) and methylmercury (MeHg) control was assessed in microcosm experiments carried out for 524 d. Early in the study (<30 d), minimal differences in concentrations of <0.45-µm filtered total Hg (THg) in control and 5% biochar-amended systems were observed. At later stages, THg concentrations in the amended systems decreased to 8-80% of concentrations in the sediment controls. Aqueous concentrations of MeHg were generally lower in the amended systems than in the controls, with an initial peak in MeHg concentration corresponding to the onset of iron and sulfate reduction (~40 d) and a second peak to methanogenic conditions (~400 d). Pyrosequencing analyses indicate the microbial communities initially associated with fermenters and later shifted to iron-reducing bacteria (FeRB), sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB), and methanogens. These analyses also indicated the existence of 12 organisms associated with Hg methylation in all systems. Community shifts were correlated with changes in the concentrations of carbon sources (dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and organic acids) and electron acceptors (NO$_3^-$, Fe, and SO$_4^{2-}$). Co-blending of biochars with Hg-contaminated sediment is an alternative remediation method for controlling the release of Hg and MeHg.

Key words: Mercury; Methylmercury; Biochar; Sediment; Remediation; Geochemistry

1 Introduction
A number of industrial activities, including coal combustion (Yudovich and Ketris, 2005), refuse incineration (Cheng and Hu, 2012), and Au and Hg mining (Mendes et al., 2016), have resulted in release of Hg and widespread contamination of receiving watersheds. In
such watersheds, Hg is often unevenly distributed within sediments, soils, and groundwater and readily cycled among different phases (Jackson, 2016).

Methylmercury (MeHg), an organic form of Hg, is much more bioaccumulative and toxic than Hg in inorganic forms (Clarkson and Magos, 2006; Tchounwou et al., 2003). Methods such as sediment dredging (Han et al., 2006) and in situ amendment (Ahmad et al., 2014; Gilmour et al., 2013; Hilber and Bucheli, 2010; Liu et al., 2017; Patmont et al., 2015; Serrano et al., 2012) are available for the remediation of Hg-contaminated sites (Mulligan et al., 2001; Randall and Chattopadhyay, 2013).

MeHg is primarily produced through biotic processes under reducing conditions. The organisms, which can methylate Hg, mainly include sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) (Gilmour et al., 1992), iron reducing bacteria (FeRB) (Kerin et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2011), and methanogens (Hamelin et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2013). These organisms utilize various carbon sources and electron acceptors (Fe(III) and SO$_4^{2-}$) to methylate bioavailable Hg.

Adsorbents can be applied to remove MeHg and Hg directly from the aqueous phase to minimize mass transport (Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013). Another method to control MeHg is the diminution of Hg bioavailability through its conversion to chemically stable forms (Wang et al., 2012).

Different reactive materials are available for stabilizing Hg, including activated carbon (AC) (Gilmour et al., 2013; Hilber and Bucheli, 2010; Patmont et al., 2015), zero-valent Fe (Weisener et al., 2005), sulfurized clay (Gibson et al., 2011), sulfate-type cements (Serrano et al., 2012; Serrano et al., 2016), sulfur and iron (Zhong et al., 2018), and biochars (Ahmad et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2016). However, most of the reactive materials are expensive and not practical for large contaminated sites, resulting
in the need to identify cost-effective materials to control Hg for remediation of large
areas.

Pyrolyzed carbon, including AC and biochars derived from a range of plant
materials, has been applied to reduce Hg or MeHg bioaccumulation or concentrations in
pore water in sediment (Bundschuh et al., 2015; Gilmour et al., 2013; Gomez-Eyles et al.,
2013; Huntington et al., 2015). In Gilmour et al. (2013) and Gomez-Eyles et al. (2013),
pore water concentrations and bioaccumulation of Hg and MeHg were effectively
reduced in freshwater sediment amended with AC; biochar was effective for MeHg
sorption but less effective for control of inorganic Hg. These two studies were conducted
for 15 d and focused on bioaccumulation and distribution of Hg and MeHg between the
aqueous and solid phase (Gilmour et al., 2013; Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013). Bundschuh et
al. (2015) report Hg bioaccumulation decreased after amending sediments with pyrolyzed
carbon for up to 175 d. Huntington et al. (2015) report the application of AC decreases
pore water MeHg concentration, but not MeHg content, in sediments in field mesocosms
operated for 91 d. The decrease of MeHg concentration in pore water was attributed to
adsorption by AC.

The studies that used pyrolyzed carbon to treat Hg-contaminated sediment
focused on the bioaccumulation of Hg or MeHg; most concentration decreases were
attributed to adsorption, and the experimental period was relatively short (15 or up to 175
d). Sediments are often rich in organic matter and can contain various Fe- and sulfate-
containing minerals. DOC, labile organic carbon, alkalinity (carbon source for
methanogens), and SO$_4^{2-}$ are released from various biochars and AC (Liu et al., 2015; Liu
et al., 2016; Riedel et al., 2014; Uchimiya et al., 2013). All of these components might
affect Hg speciation and MeHg evolution upon application of pyrolyzed carbon to the sediment. For example, potential Hg methylators can methylate Hg by utilizing labile carbon as an energy source (electron donor) and Fe and SO$_4^{2-}$ as electron acceptors, biogenic S$_2^-$ and Hg combine to form Hg-S precipitates, Fe(II) formed from the reduction of Fe(III) and dissolved Hg compete for S$_2^-$, and dissolved organic matter (DOM) and Hg form Hg-DOM complexes.

This study evaluated the stabilization of Hg and MeHg using AC and four distinct biochars over an extended period of time (>500 d). Microcosm experiments were conducted in an anaerobic chamber by mixing sediment, biochars, and water. Liu et al. (2017) report the stabilization of Hg using two of the four biochars (switchgrass biochars pyrolyzed at 300 and 600 °C). The present study complements this previous work by evaluating the control of Hg and MeHg using more biochar samples and discussing in depth the factors that affect control of Hg and MeHg. Geochemical measurements and pyrosequencing analyses were conducted to track shifts in the microbial community with time and provide insights into mechanisms controlling Hg and MeHg evolution after amending with biochars.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

Sediment was collected from an Hg-contaminated site on the South River near Waynesboro, VA, USA, 5.6 km downstream from a historic point of Hg release (Fig. 1). River water was collected upstream (~0.3 km) of the historic release point. Four biochar samples were employed in the study. Feedstocks of the biochars were air-dried and pyrolyzed using a kiln at either 300 or 600 °C for 2-3 h under O$_2$-deficit conditions. The biochars include switchgrass biochars (300 °C, GRASS300 and 600 °C, GRASS600) and
poultry manure biochar (600 °C, MANURE600) prepared using methods provided in detail by Liu et al. (2015), and commercial oak biochar (rejects of product from Cowboy Charcoal, ~700 °C, OAK700). Commercial AC (Sigma-Aldrich Corp.) was used as a benchmark for comparison.

2.2 Anaerobic Microcosm Experiments

Microcosm experiments were conducted by mixing biochar, sediment, and river water at a ratio of 1:20:160 (mass: 5, 100, and 800 g) in amber glass bottles. Controls included ultra-pure water, river water, sediment mixed with river water, and biochar mixed with river water. The sediment control and OAK700- and MANURE600-amended systems were duplicated to facilitate statistical analysis. The experiments were conducted in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratory Products Inc.) with a gas mixture of 3.5% H₂ balanced N₂. Argon was used to replace the volume removed during sampling events. The amber bottles were shaken thoroughly to remix the solid and aqueous phases after each sampling event.

Aqueous samples were collected throughout the experiment using Norm-Ject syringes (Henke Sass Wolf). Aliquots of 0.45-µm filtered (Pall Corp.) sample were collected for alkalinity, anion, total Hg (THg), MeHg, cation, DOC, and nutrient (NH₃-N and PO₄-P) analyses as well as ultraviolet (UV) absorbance at 254 nm. Because Hg is known to bind to colloids of different sizes (Poissant and Pilote, 1998; Stordal et al., 1996), unfiltered and 0.2-µm filtered samples were also collected for THg analysis. Duplicate sampling events were regularly executed for quality assurance and quality control. Samples for THg, MeHg, and DOC were stored in 15-mL amber vials (VWR International). Samples for anion, cation, and UV analyses were stored in 15-mL high-
density polypropylene (HDPE) bottles (Thermo Scientific). Samples for anion analyses were maintained at 4 °C and analyzed within 48 h. Samples for cation and THg analyses were acidified using 15.6N HNO$_3$ and stored at 4 °C. Samples for the determination of MeHg (acidified with 12.1N HCl), DOC, nutrients (acidified using 8N H$_2$SO$_4$), and UV absorbance (unacidified) were stored at -20 °C. Acidified samples had pH values <2. Solid samples were collected periodically for MeHg and pyrosequencing analyses using a spatula and stored at -20 °C before analysis. The sampling time and methods were the same as presented in Liu et al. (2017).

2.3 Water Analyses

Values of pH, Eh, and alkalinity were determined inside the anaerobic chamber immediately after sample collection. Value of pH was determined on unfiltered samples using a Ross combination pH electrode (Orion 815600, Thermo Scientific), calibrated against pH 4, 7, and 10 buffers. Redox potential (Eh) was determined on unfiltered samples using an electrode (Orion 9678, Thermo Scientific), the performance of which was checked against ZoBell’s (Nordstrom, 1977) and Light’s (Light, 1972) solutions. The reported value was corrected with the standard hydrogen electrode. Alkalinity was determined by adding bromocresol green-methyl red indicator and titrating to the end point using 0.16 mol L$^{-1}$ H$_2$SO$_4$ and a digital titrator (HACH, Loveland).

Concentrations of anions (including short-chain organic acids (OA)) were determined using ion chromatography (ICS-5000, Dionex Corp.) with an IonPac AS11 4×250 mm column. NH$_3$-N concentrations were determined using the salicylate spectrophotometric method (Hach Test Method 8155). DOC was determined using an automated wet chemical oxidation method (Aurora 1030, OI Analytical). UV absorbance
was measured at 254 nm (UV$_{254}$) using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (Evolution 260, Thermo Scientific). Specific UV absorbance (SUVA$_{254}$) was expressed as the ratio of absorbance at 254 nm per meter to DOC concentrations.

Cation concentrations were determined by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES; Thermo Scientific iCAP 6500) and inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Thermo Scientific XSeries II). NH$_3$-N concentrations were determined using the salicylate spectrophotometric method (Hach Test Method 8155). PO$_4$-P concentrations were measured using the ascorbic acid spectrophotometric method (Hach Test Method 8048).

THg was determined using a cold vapor atomic fluorescence spectroscopy technique (CVAFS, Tekran 2600) following EPA method 1631 (US EPA, 2002). The method detection limit (MDL) for THg was 0.2 ng L$^{-1}$ (EPA 0.2 ng L$^{-1}$; Tekran 0.02 ng L$^{-1}$) determined following the EPA procedure (40 CFR, Part 136). MeHg was analyzed through distillation (Tekran 2750), aqueous ethylation, and purge and trap with the CVAFS technique (Tekran 2700) following EPA method 1630 (US EPA, 2002).

Determination of the MDL for MeHg was performed for each run and an averaged MDL of 0.02 ng L$^{-1}$ was calculated (EPA 0.02 ng L$^{-1}$; Tekran 0.004 ng L$^{-1}$). The quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) of MeHg analysis were presented in Table S1-S3, including method blanks, distillation standard recovery, and detection limit.

### 2.4 Solid Phase Analysis

Wet solid samples for MeHg analysis were mixed with 20% KCl, 8M H$_2$SO$_4$, and CuSO$_4$ for distillation to improve recovery following the method described by Horvat et al.
(1993). The distilled aqueous phase was then ethylated and analyzed by CVAFS as described previously for the aqueous MeHg samples.

Genomic DNA was isolated and purified from wet solid phase using commercial extraction kits (UltraClean Soil DNA Kit; MO BIO Laboratories) following the supplier’s instructions. Purified DNA was stored at -20 °C up to one week and shipped on ice to MR DNA Laboratory (Shallowater, TX) for pyrosequencing analyses. Detailed information on the primers used, the processes and conditions of polymerase chain reaction and sequencing, and data processing procedures is provided in Liu et al. (2017). Databases of fermenters, FeRB, SRB, and methanogens were assembled based on published sources (Table S4-S7). A database of potential Hg methylators was also assembled by Liu et al. (2017) based on the methylators identified by Oak Ridge National Laboratory (2015). A MATLAB® code was written to extract fermenters, FeRB, SRB, methanogens, and methylators from the pyrosequencing data file using the assembled databases.

Samples were oven-dried at 105 °C for 24 h, and then homogenized and ground using an agate mortar and pestle before analysis for C/S content, elemental composition, and total organic carbon. Each sample was analyzed three times with mean values reported herein. Solid-phase C/S content of the sediment and biochar samples was measured using a resistance furnace (Eltra CS-2000). The elemental compositions of the sediment and biochars were obtained by digestion following EPA Method 3052 (multi-acid digest with microwave assist) and analyzed by ICP-OES and ICP-MS. Total organic carbon (TOC) analysis of the sediment followed these steps: 1) 0.5 g sediment was digested with 40 mL of 10% H₂SO₄ for 30 min; 2) the extract was passed through a glass
fibre filter; 3) the filtrate was analyzed by a Skalar segmented flow analyzer using Standard Method 5310C to derive the value for TOC of the sediment.

2.5 Statistical Analysis

The correlation between the measured parameters was evaluated by calculation of Pearson product moment correlation coefficients ($r$). The significance of a correlation, $r$, was tested using a $t$ test with a 95% confidence level ($P<0.05$). The similarity of each parameter between the duplicated sediment controls, OAK700-amended, and MANURE600-amended systems was tested by conducting a $t$-test with a 95% confidence level ($P<0.05$). A $t$-test was conducted to evaluate whether THg and MeHg concentrations in the amended systems were significantly different from sediment controls.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Overview of Sediment, River Water, and Biochar Samples

Microcosm experiments were conducted for 524 d under anaerobic conditions using sediment with a Hg concentration of 187 µg g$^{-1}$. Total elemental concentrations in the sediment were 300 µg g$^{-1}$ S, 16 000 µg g$^{-1}$ Fe, 150 µg g$^{-1}$ Cu, and 230 µg g$^{-1}$ Mn. The concentration of total organic carbon in the sediment was 17 600 µg g$^{-1}$. The river water contained <5 ng L$^{-1}$ THg, <0.02 ng L$^{-1}$ MeHg, and low concentrations of other elements.

The selection of these biochars was based on the pyrolysis temperature and their properties, including potential to release organic acids (OA), DOC, SO$_4^{2-}$, and heavy metals, content of C and S, and specific surface area. These parameters are known to influence Hg stabilization and MeHg production in natural systems, and biochars with a range of properties were selected to evaluate the influence of these properties during amendment. GRASS300 and GRASS600 were selected to compare the effect of pyrolysis
temperature on Hg stabilization and MeHg production. Low concentration of OA and DOC, and medium concentration of SO$_4^{2-}$ are released by AC and GRASS600 (Table 1); low and medium concentrations of these components are released by OAK700 and GRASS300, respectively; low concentration of OA and DOC, and high concentration of SO$_4^{2-}$ are released by MANURE600 (Liu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016). The reactive materials were rich in carbon (Table 1), e.g., 70.2% for GRASS300 and 94-99.9% for AC, OAK700, and GRASS600, with the exception of MANURE600 (18.5%). S content ranged from <0.1% for OAK700 to as high as 0.55% for GRASS600. The reactive materials except MANURE600 were low in other elements, including major and minor elements. The MANURE600 was rich in Al, Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Na, and P. The surface area of AC, OAK700, GRASS300, GRASS600 and MANURE600 was 600, 65, 2.6, 230, and 5.2 m$^2$ g$^{-1}$.

3.2 Aqueous Chemistry

The pH of the sediment in the control and amended systems gradually increased from ~7.5 to ~9.0 over the first 150 d and then decreased slightly to ~8.5 by 445 d (Fig. 2). The pH values in the biochar controls increased rapidly from ~8.5 to ~9.2, then decreased gradually to ~8.5. The pH of the AC, GRASS600, and MANURE600 controls were greater than for other controls, which is consistent with previous observations from a batch study (Liu et al., 2015). Eh values for the controls and amended systems were similar and decreased from ~50 to ~420 mV in the first 126 d, then decreased slightly to ~440 mV until the experiments were terminated at 524 d. These Eh values indicate an anaerobic environment was maintained over the course of the experiment. No significant
differences were observed in the values of pH and Eh among sediment controls, biochar controls, and amended systems ($P<0.05$).

### 3.3 THg in Aqueous Phase

The 0.2-µm filtered THg concentrations ranged from 0.8 to 32 µg L$^{-1}$ for the sediment controls and amended systems (Fig. 3). A gradual increase in concentrations of 0.2-µm filtered THg was observed over the course of the experiment in the sediment controls and MANURE600-amended systems; other amended systems showed a pattern featuring an initial increase then slow decrease. The 0.2-µm THg concentrations for the amended systems were less than for the sediment controls, except for the final samples collected in the MANURE600-amended systems. THg concentrations in the duplicate systems amended with OAK700 and MANURE600 were in good agreement. THg concentrations for the AC- and GRASS300-amended systems were significantly lower than those for sediment controls.

Concentrations of 0.45-µm filtered THg ranged from 1.0 to 50 µg L$^{-1}$ for the sediment controls and amended systems (Fig. 3). Compared with concentrations of 0.2-µm THg, 0.45-µm THg concentrations were highly variable during the first 100 d, with a spike in concentration observed at 30 d for the controls and amended systems. A gradual increase in THg concentrations was observed in the sediment controls after the initial 23 d, then THg concentrations stabilized at ~30 and 50 µg L$^{-1}$. THg concentrations in duplicate systems were not significantly different. THg concentrations for AC-, GRASS300-, GRASS600-, and duplicated MANURE600-amended systems were significantly lower than those for sediment controls after 100 days. The decrease of THg
from the microcosm experiment was not correlated with the specific surface area of the
biochars.

Ratios of 0.2- and 0.45-µm filtered THg concentrations were between 0.1 and 1.0
for sediment controls and AC, OAK700, GRASS300, and GRASS600 amended systems,
which was expected. However, ratios were between 1.2 and 3.9 for six sampling events
from MANURE600 amended systems, which indicates concentrations of 0.2-µm filtered
THg were higher than 0.45-µm filtered THg. The reason for ratios greater than 1.0 may
be due to the greater blockage of pore spaces in 0.45-µm filters than those in 0.2-µm
filters by organic matter or colloids in the aqueous phase.

The effectiveness of co-blending with respect to reducing aqueous 0.45-µm THg
concentrations was not obvious at early stages. THg concentrations decreased by 60 to 90%
(mean 75%) compared with the sediment control for the AC-amended system after 30 d,
by 20 to 60% (mean 46%) for the OAK700-amended system after 250 d, by 30 to 90%
(mean 69%) for the GRASS300-amended system after 100 d, by 20 to 70% (mean 39%)
for the GRASS600-amended system after 100 d, and by 40 to 92% (mean 70%) for the
MANURE600-amended systems after 30 d. An increase in THg concentrations was
observed in the MANURE600-amended systems after 126 d. THg concentrations were
<5 ng L⁻¹ in the ultrapure water control and <50 ng L⁻¹ in river water and biochar controls.

Concentrations of unfiltered THg in the sediment controls and amended systems
decreased from 400-700 µg L⁻¹ at the beginning of the experiment to 20-80 µg L⁻¹ at its
termination. Unfiltered concentrations were significantly greater than concentrations of
0.2- and 0.4-µm filtered THg (P<0.05). Spikes of unfiltered THg concentrations were
observed with values as high as 1670 µg L⁻¹ at day 37 for a sediment control, 900 µg L⁻¹
at day 100 for the AC-amended system, and 1180 µg L\(^{-1}\) at day 37 for one MANURE600-amended system. THg concentrations for the GRASS300-amended system were all lower than those for the sediment controls and other amended systems. No significant differences of unfiltered THg concentrations were observed among the sediment controls and amended systems.

A previous batch experiment to evaluate Hg removal by the same biochars used in this study showed removal rates greater than 90% from Hg-spiked river water (~10 µg L\(^{-1}\)) within 2 d (Liu et al., 2016). The reasons for the lower removals observed in this study are likely multi-faceted but might include the fact that DOC can retain Hg in the aqueous phase (Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013), blockage of adsorption sites by sediment particles (Mayer, 1994), competing effects for adsorption sites from other cations (Herrero et al., 2005), continuous release of Hg from the sediment (Pereira et al., 1998), and the relatively high ratio of total Hg to biochar (18.7 mg THg to 5 g biochar).

In the GRASS300-amended system, the concentrations of 0.2-µm, 0.45-µm, and unfiltered THg were less than the corresponding concentrations of sediment controls and other amended systems. These results indicate GRASS300 is the most promising reactive material to stabilize Hg in contaminated sediment under anaerobic conditions. This observation is different from the previous batch-style experiment with respect to the addition of biochar to Hg-spiked river water (Liu et al., 2016), which showed the least amount of THg removed by GRASS300 compared with AC, OAK700, GRASS600, and MANURE600.
3.4 MeHg in aqueous phase

Two peak MeHg concentrations were observed in the sediment controls and amended systems (Fig. 3). Early peaks in concentrations were observed at day 37 (48 ng L\(^{-1}\)) and day 47 (130 ng L\(^{-1}\)) in the duplicate sediment controls. MeHg concentration peaks in the amended systems were lower than those in sediment controls for most concurrent data points, with the exception that the peak in the AC-amended system was greater than one of the sediment controls. The concentrations at this first peak were <13 ng L\(^{-1}\) for the OAK700-, GRASS300-, and GRASS600-amended systems, and 38 ng L\(^{-1}\) for the MANURE600-amended system. A second peak was observed in the duplicate sediment controls with concentrations as high as 64 and 28 ng L\(^{-1}\). The second peaks in the AC-, GRASS300-, and MANURE600-amended systems were much lower than those in the sediment controls, while the second peaks in the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems were much greater with MeHg concentrations of 220 and 260 ng L\(^{-1}\), respectively. However, due to sampling events, the water level decreased over time in the systems, and the calculated mass of MeHg at the second peak in the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems was less than that at the first peak of the sediment controls (Fig. 3). MeHg concentrations of river water and biochar controls were below the MDL. MeHg concentrations in AC-, GRASS300-, and GRASS600-amended systems were significantly lower than those in sediment controls for the first 200 d. Ratios of MeHg to 0.45 µm-filtered THg concentrations ranged from 0.01 to 2.6% (most < 0.1%) for sediment controls and amended systems, and no significant correlation were observed between MeHg and THg concentrations (Fig. S1; \(P<0.05\)). Ratios in estuarine waters (Al - Madfa et al., 1994; Kannan et al., 1998) and freshwaters (Gill and Bruland, 1990;
Lee and Hultberg, 1990) range from 5 to 80%, which is much higher than those measured in the current study. The lower ratios in the present study were likely due to the elevated THg concentrations in the solutions.

A number of parameters affect the rates of MeHg production, including the availability of substrates for Hg methylators and competing organisms, temperature, pH, organic material, redox conditions, and bioavailable Hg species (Ullrich et al., 2001). Correlation analyses were performed between MeHg concentrations and other parameters measured during the experiment, including pH, Eh, alkalinity, THg, cations, anions, DOC, UV_{254}, SUVA_{254}, and nutrients. Aqueous MeHg concentrations were negatively correlated with SO_{4}^{2-} concentrations in all systems. MeHg concentrations were consistently positively correlated with unfiltered THg (Fig. 3) in sediment controls. For most amended systems, MeHg concentrations were positively correlated with concentrations of unfiltered THg, alkalinity, DOC, Mn, and Fe. Alkalinity and DOC are carbon energy sources for microbes, including Hg methylators. Fe, Mn, and SO_{4}^{2-} are electron acceptors for FeRB and SRB, which are potential Hg methylators (Benoit et al., 2001; Gilmour et al., 1992; Kerin et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2011). Additionally, aqueous MeHg concentrations can also be influenced by partitioning to the solid phase, demethylation reactions, and other parameters (Benoit et al., 2003; Ortiz et al., 2015).

3.5 MeHg in solid phase

The solid-phase MeHg content ranged from 8 to 35 ng g^{-1} in the sediment controls and AC-amended systems, one of the OAK700 duplicates, and a MANURE600 duplicate (Fig. 4). The MeHg contents in the amended systems were not significantly different from sediment controls, and contents in the OAK700-, GRASS300-, and GRASS600-
amended systems were even greater than the sediment controls at later sampling events. A sharp increase of MeHg content was observed for the last two sampling events in an OAK700 duplicate, the GRASS300-amended system, and the GRASS600-amended system to values of up to 260 ng g\textsuperscript{-1}. The elevated MeHg content of the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems corresponds to the elevated aqueous MeHg concentrations (Fig. 3).

These results indicate the application of AC and biochar does not result in an obvious decrease in MeHg content in the solid phase, unlike the aqueous MeHg concentration. This observation is consistent with previous studies (Huntington et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2016), that suggest the application of AC results in the sorption of MeHg to AC thereby decreasing aqueous MeHg concentrations. Shu et al. (2016) and Zhang et al. (2018) also report an increase of MeHg content in paddy soils after the addition of biochars. Gomez-Eyles et al. (2013) observed a decrease in aqueous MeHg concentrations in AC and biochar amended systems and attributed this decrease to sorption rather than inhibition of MeHg production. However, Bussan et al. (2016) report a decrease in MeHg content in sediment after the addition of biochar or AC, and attribute this decrease to a decrease in Hg bioavailability after the addition of biochar or AC. This inconsistency is likely due to differences in experimental conditions, including soil or sediment type, biochar composition and other parameters such as pH, Eh, organic matter content and availabilities of electron acceptors such as Fe\textsuperscript{3+} and SO\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{2-}.

Distribution coefficients ($K_d$) were calculated using measured concentrations of MeHg in the solid and aqueous phases at different times during the experiment (Fig. 5). $K_d$ values ranged from 200 to 18000 L kg\textsuperscript{-1} and no clear patterns were observed versus
time. This result indicates that $K_d$ is not likely a proper parameter to describe the distribution of MeHg between the solid and aqueous phases in this study, which is inconsistent with a previous study (Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013). Therefore, the distribution of MeHg between the solid and aqueous phases in the present study was likely controlled by other processes.

### 3.6 Carbon Sources for Microbes

Acetate, formate, propionate, DOC, and alkalinity are potential carbon sources for microorganisms. Concentrations of acetate, formate, propionate, and alkalinity increased and then decreased in sediment controls and amended systems over the course of the experiment (Fig. 6). The DOC concentrations in most systems continued to increase, with the exception of a spike in the AC-amended system. A peak in acetate concentration was observed in each system, with concentrations of up to 41 mg L$^{-1}$ for sediment controls and ranging from 21 mg L$^{-1}$ for the OAK700-amended system to 226 mg L$^{-1}$ for the AC-amended system. The peak occurred at day 168 for the sediment controls and ranged from day 112 to 387 for the amended systems. No great difference in acetate concentrations was evident between the sediment controls and amended systems, with the exception of the spike in the AC-amended system. Acetate concentrations were $<1$ mg L$^{-1}$ for most biochar control data points; the exception was the spike in concentrations for AC- and GRASS300-amended systems (5.0-89 mg L$^{-1}$). Elevated formate and propionate concentrations were also observed in the sediment controls and amended systems. Similar trends were observed for concentrations of acetate, formate, and propionate, except peak concentrations of formate and propionate were much lower than those of acetate.
DOC concentrations increased from 2 to 80 mg L\(^{-1}\) for the sediment controls and amended systems, except for a spike (340 mg L\(^{-1}\)) in the AC-amended system that corresponded to peak acetate and alkalinity concentrations. The increasing trend with time was observed in both the sediment controls and amended systems, while the concentrations of DOC in the AC- and MANURE600-amended systems were lower than those of sediment controls. The DOC concentrations in biochar controls were less than 2 mg L\(^{-1}\) before day 154 and increased to as high as 400 mg L\(^{-1}\).

Concentrations of organic acids and DOC in the microcosm experiments were much greater than in a previous batch experiment using the same biochars (Table 1; Liu et al. (2015)). The results indicate the organic acids and DOC released by biochars have limited contributions to concentrations in the microcosm experiment. The increase in organic acids and DOC concentrations in the microcosm experiments is likely related to the organic matter in the sediment (17 600 µg g\(^{-1}\)).

Alkalinity increased from ~50 to ~200 mg L\(^{-1}\) before day 100 and then decreased to ~50 mg L\(^{-1}\) at day 445 in both the sediment controls and amended systems. The alkalinity concentrations of biochar controls varied slightly between 50 and 100 mg L\(^{-1}\). The increase in alkalinity in sediment controls and amended systems is likely a result of microbial activity by utilizing the organic matter (17 600 µg g\(^{-1}\)) from the sediment. The decrease in alkalinity is likely due to consumption by methanogens or the formation of carbonate minerals.

The absorption of UV\(_{254}\) is generally greatest for aromatic molecules (Silverstein et al., 1974; Weishaar et al., 2003). SUVA\(_{254}\) is defined as the UV\(_{254}\) measured in m\(^{-1}\) divided by the concentration of DOC in mg L\(^{-1}\) (Weishaar et al., 2003) and is a surrogate
measure for the aromaticity of DOC. The absorbance of UV$_{254}$ increased from 0 to ~2.8 cm$^{-1}$ in the sediment controls and OAK700-, GRASS300-, GRASS600-, and MANURE600-amended systems, and the increasing trend in absorbance was consistent with the increasing trend of DOC concentrations (Fig. 6). The absorbance in the AC-amended system (up to 0.5 cm$^{-1}$) was significantly lower than for the sediment controls and other amended systems. SUVA$_{254}$ values varied by only ~3 L mg$^{-1}$ m$^{-1}$ in the sediment controls and OAK700-, GRASS300-, GRASS600-, and MANURE600-amended systems over the course of the experiment; these consistent SUVA$_{254}$ values indicate the aromaticity of the DOM did not greatly change over the course of the experiment. SUVA$_{254}$ values in the AC-amended system decreased from 4.5 to as low as 0.1 L mg$^{-1}$ m$^{-1}$. The results indicate the aromaticity of the DOM in the AC-amended system was significantly lower than in the sediment controls and other amended systems.

No significant correlations were observed between SUVA$_{254}$ and Hg species, including 0.2- and 0.45-µm filtered THg and 0.45-µm filtered MeHg.

DOC plays an important role in Hg speciation in the aqueous phase. Lower DOC concentrations were observed in the AC- and MANURE600-amended systems than in the sediment controls, which corresponded to lower aqueous THg concentrations in the AC- and MANURE600-amended systems compared with sediment controls at early stages (Fig. 3). For the OAK700-, GRASS300-, and GRASS600-amended systems, DOC concentrations were similar or higher than those in the sediment controls at early stages and THg concentrations were less than the sediment controls after extended periods. These observations are consistent with previous studies (Gilmour et al., 2013; Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013) in which aqueous inorganic Hg was controlled in sediments and
reactive media (AC and biochar) co-blending experiments when DOC concentrations remained low. Hg-DOC complexes readily form in solution. These complexes are stable and can maintain elevated concentrations of Hg in the aqueous phase (Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013). The presence of DOC can also prevent the precipitation of HgS nanoparticles (Aiken et al., 2011). DOC can also be utilized as a carbon source by potential Hg methylators and can enhance the bioavailability of Hg by facilitating Hg uptake for potential methylators (Chiasson-Gould et al., 2014).

3.7 Electron Acceptors for Microbes

Concentrations of NO$_3^-$, Mn, Fe, and SO$_4^{2-}$ are plotted in Fig. 7 in decreasing order of energetically favourable electron-accepting reactions for microbial respiration. NO$_3^-$ concentrations decreased from ~45 mg L$^{-1}$ to <MDL (0.05 mg L$^{-1}$) within 9 d for the sediment controls and amended systems. Dissolved Mn concentrations increased from <0.005 to ~1.2 mg L$^{-1}$ within 65 d and decreased to <0.2 mg L$^{-1}$ after 154 d in the sediment controls and amended systems. A lag stage of dissolved Fe concentrations (<0.2 mg L$^{-1}$) was observed for the first 23 d in the sediment controls and amended systems; Fe concentrations then increased to peak concentrations ranging from 0.47 to 3.5 mg L$^{-1}$ at day 100 and then decreased to <0.2 mg L$^{-1}$ after 154 d. Dissolved Fe concentrations in the AC-amended system were lower than in the sediment controls and other amended systems. SO$_4^{2-}$ concentrations increased slightly at the first 37 d and then decreased to <MDL (0.05 mg L$^{-1}$) after 79 d for the sediment controls, 65 d for the GRASS300-amended system, 89 d for the OAK700-amended system, 100 d for the AC- and GRASS600-amended systems, and 126 d for the MANURE600-amended system. Due to
the rapid shift to anaerobic conditions (Fig. 2), the reduction of Fe and SO$_4^{2-}$ occurred simultaneously.

Concentrations of NO$_3^-$, Mn, and Fe in the aqueous solution of the amended systems were derived from the sediment, because they were elevated in the sediment solids and generally less than the analytical detection limits in the aqueous phase of biochar controls (Fig. 7), the river water, and the solid phase biochars (Table 1). For biochar and river water controls, NO$_3^-$ concentrations decreased from ~2 mg L$^{-1}$ to <MDL; Mn concentrations were <0.05 mg L$^{-1}$, except one data point from the GRASS300 control; and Fe concentrations were <0.02 mg L$^{-1}$. A fraction of the SO$_4^{2-}$ in the aqueous solution of the amended systems was released from the biochars. The initial SO$_4^{2-}$ concentrations of the biochar controls, which occur in the order MANURE600 > AC > GRASS600 > GRASS300 > OAK700, is consistent with a previous batch-style experiment (Liu et al., 2016). The SO$_4^{2-}$ concentrations of biochar controls decreased slightly over 445 d, which indicates suitable substrates for the growth of SRB were not likely provided by the biochar. The elevated SO$_4^{2-}$ concentration in the MANURE600-amended system is likely due to the elevated S content and inorganic sulfate fraction in this system (Liu et al., 2016). The concentrations of NO$_3^-$, Mn, Fe, and SO$_4^{2-}$ in aqueous phase were affected by their contents in sediment and biochar and also the partitioning among phases.

Concentrations of SO$_4^{2-}$ in the GRASS300-amended system decreased fastest among all the amended systems. This decrease may be a result of the greater fraction of labile organic carbon in GRASS300. Previous studies have shown that low-temperature biochars have organic carbon that is more labile compared to high-temperature biochar
These elevated concentrations of labile organic carbon can promote SRB activity. The rapid decrease in SO$_4^{2-}$ for GRASS300 is associated with an early decrease in THg. This removal could be due to the formation of Hg-S minerals, causing a decrease in Hg bioavailability, possibly explaining the lower aqueous MeHg concentrations observed in the GRASS300-amended system.

The increase in 0.45-µm filtered THg concentrations after 23 d corresponds to the increase in dissolved total Fe concentrations, which indicates Fe(II) is likely released due to the reduction of Fe(III) minerals together with adsorbed Hg. The decrease in 0.45-µm filtered THg in the amended systems was likely due to the formation of Hg-sulfide precipitates as a result of SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction. The maximum decreases in Fe and SO$_4^{2-}$ concentrations corresponded to the first peak in MeHg in the sediment controls and amended systems; Fe concentrations were positively correlated with MeHg concentrations ($P<0.05$) in the AC- and MANURE600-amended systems.

Previous batch experiments indicate elevated concentrations of organic acids, DOC (Liu et al., 2015), and SO$_4^{2-}$ (Liu et al., 2016) are released by AC, GRASS300, and MANURE600, suggesting the addition of biochars might stimulate MeHg production. However, the microcosm experiments indicate that MeHg concentrations minimally increased in the presence of these biochars at early stages.

### 3.8 Nutrients in the aqueous phase

Nutrients are essential for the growth and activity of microbes. Similar trends were observed for NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P in sediment controls and amended systems (Fig. 8). The concentrations of NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P in sediment controls increased from <MDL to ~6 and 4.5 mg L$^{-1}$, respectively. Concentrations of NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P were lower in AC-,
OAK700-, GRASS300-, and GRASS600-amended systems than in sediment controls. NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P concentrations in MANURE600-amended systems were higher than in sediment controls, likely due to the elevated nutrient content in the manure (Table 1). Nutrient concentrations were typically lower in biochar controls than sediment controls and amended systems, which indicates the nutrients originated from the sediment.

Concentrations of NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P were positively correlated with DOC concentrations in sediment controls and each amended system. This observation indicates the increase of nutrient concentrations is likely due to the degradation of N- and P-containing organic matter in the sediment. Nutrient concentrations were typically lower in biochar controls than sediment controls and amended systems, which indicates the nutrients originated from the sediment.

3.9 Pyrosequencing

The percentages of fermenters, FeRB, SRB, and methanogens at the genus level were extracted from the pyrosequencing data and plotted in Fig. 9. The sum of the percentages for all categories increased with time. Similar increasing and then decreasing patterns were observed over time for fermenters, FeRB, and SRB, but abundances ranged from 4.9 to 25%, 4.8 to 20%, and 0.8 to 3.5%, respectively. Fermenters were present in moderate numbers over the course of the experiment. SRB were consistently in low abundance during the experiment, likely due to the low initial concentration of sulfate. The percentage of methanogens consistently increased over time from 0% to as high as 70%. Percentages of extracted 16s rRNA in the duplicated OAK700- and MANURE600-amended systems were in good agreement. The similar patterns between sediment controls and amended systems suggest the addition of biochars had little impact on the
microbial community. This observation is consistent with previous studies (Kelly et al., 2014; Noyce et al., 2015) in which the microbial communities were not affected after the addition of biochar.

Under sufficiently reducing conditions, fermenters and other microorganisms can degrade organic matter (OM) in sediment to form DOC and short-chain OA, as indicated by Eq. 1. Oxidation of organic carbon (17 600 µg g⁻¹) in the South River sediment might explain the changes in DOC and short-chain organic acid concentrations in solution (Fig. 6). The labile organic carbon forms within DOC are key carbon and energy sources for nitrate-reducing bacteria (Hagman et al., 2008), FeRB (Lovley, 1991), SRB (Muyzer and Stams, 2008), and methanogens (Deppenmeier, 2002), and many of FeRB, SRB, and methanogens are potential Hg methylators. The increase in alkalinity during early stages of the experiments might be due to the respiration of fermenters, nitrate-reducing bacteria, FeRB, and SRB (Eqs. 1-4). Nitrate-reducing bacteria can reduce nitrate to other forms of N (complete process indicated by Eq. 2). Because NO₃⁻ concentrations were <MDL at 7 d and the first sample for pyrosequencing analysis was collected at 65 d, nitrate-reducing bacteria were not extracted from the pyrosequencing results. The FeRB can reduce oxidized solid-phase forms of Mn and Fe and release reduced aqueous forms (Fig. 7; Equ. 3) (Ribet et al. (1995)). The SRB can reduce SO₄²⁻ to S²⁻ (Equ. 4) (Moncur et al. (2015) Lindsay et al. (2011)); the production of S²⁻ can then be consumed by the formation of Fe⁻ (Equ. 5) (Benner et al. (2002) and Hg-sulfide minerals (Equ. 6). The formation of these minerals explains the decrease in dissolved Hg and Fe over time (Figs. 3, 7). Methanogens can utilize carbon sources, including inorganic carbon, formate, and
acetate (Deppenmeier, 2002), as energy sources (Equ. 7), and the increase in methanogen abundance corresponds to the decrease in alkalinity (Fig. 6).

\[
OM_{(s)} \rightarrow DOC + O_A + HCO_3^{-} \quad \text{Eq. 1}
\]

\[
4NO_3^{-} + 5CH_2O = 2N_2 + 5HCO_3^{-} + 2H_2O + H^+ \quad \text{Eq. 2}
\]

\[
4Fe(OOH) + CH_2O + 7H^+ = 4Fe^{2+} + HCO_3^{-} + 6H_2O
\quad \text{Eq. 3}
\]

\[
SO_4^{2-} + 2CH_2O = HS^- + 2HCO_3^{-} + H^+ \quad \text{Eq. 4}
\]

\[
Fe^{2+} + HS^- = FeS_{(s)} + H^+ \quad \text{Eq. 5}
\]

\[
Hg^{2+} + HS^- = HgS_{(s)} + H^+ \quad \text{Eq. 6}
\]

\[
CO_2 + 4H_2 = CH_4 + 2H_2O \quad \text{Eq. 7}
\]

12 potential methylators at the species level were obtained from the pyrosequencing results, including fermenters, FeRB, SRB, and methanogens (Fig. 10). Their total abundance was <0.7%. A general increasing and decreasing pattern of the total abundance of potential methylators is evident (Fig. 10). The abundance of the potential methylators is not well correlated with concentrations of MeHg in the aqueous and solid phases, which indicates that quantification of known potential methylator abundances might not be a good indicator for net MeHg concentration in aqueous and solid phases. The late MeHg spikes in the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems do not correspond with a spike in the known potential methylators at day 387, which suggests unknown methylators likely existed in these two systems. This discrepancy might also be a result of the limitation of the database used for pyrosequencing data analysis. A large fraction of the microorganisms in the environment is not represented in the database (Rondon et al., 1999).

Column experiments conducted by Desrochers et al. (2015) and Paulson et al. (2016) show that MeHg production in the South River sediment could be stimulated by increasing the concentrations of electron donors and acceptors at a proper ratio. Here, less
MeHg was observed in the aqueous phase in the amended systems using AC, GRASS300, and MANURE600 than for sediment controls even with slightly elevated carbon sources, electron acceptor (SO$_4^{2-}$), and percentages of methylators in the amended systems.

The following processes are proposed to describe the decrease of Hg and MeHg in the aqueous phase after addition of the amendments. First, a rapid release of dissolved Hg from the sediment and rapid adsorption by biochars occurs. Hg concentrations do not decrease due to continuous dissolution of soluble Hg phases and because binding between Hg and biochar is generally weak; rapid nitrate reduction also happens in this stage. The second stage is a Fe-reducing period. Hg retained in Fe-oxide minerals is released into solution after reductive dissolution of Fe-oxide minerals. Hg is weakly adsorbed by biochars and MeHg is produced by FeRB (Kerin et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2011). The third stage is a sulfate reducing period. Sulfate is reduced to sulfide, and Hg binds with sulfide and forms Hg-S precipitates on the surface or inside the pores of biochar particles (Liu et al., 2017). The formerly adsorbed Hg might also be converted to Hg-S minerals (Liu et al., 2017). The binding between Hg and the biochar particles is strong, and less MeHg is produced by SRB (Benoit et al., 2001; Gilmour et al., 1992) due to the low bioavailability of Hg after stabilization by the biochars. The fourth stage is a methanogenic period. MeHg is produced by methanogens (Hamelin et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2013). The early MeHg concentration peaks in the aqueous phase are attributed to the activity of fermenters, FeRB, and SRB and the late peaks are attributed to the activity of methanogens. Methanogens capable of methylation likely existed in the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems.
4 Conclusion

These microcosm experiments indicate that biochar-amended systems can be effective in reducing Hg concentrations in the aqueous phase. The presence of biochar appears to have a limited impact on microbial community structure. The removal of Hg using biochars is comparable to that achieved by the application of AC. A late MeHg concentration spike occurred in the OAK700- and GRASS600-amended systems. But, for the majority of the biochar types evaluated, Hg and MeHg concentrations in the aqueous phase (and potentially the bioavailability) tend to decrease after biochar amendment. The stabilization of Hg is attributed to the formation of Hg-sulfide minerals and precipitation on or within biochar particles.

The results indicate GRASS300 is the most promising reactive material for Hg stabilization of contaminated sediment. If GRASS300 is applied in the field, special attention should be paid to its physical breakdown (Spokas et al., 2014). During the experiment, GRASS300 was observed to be more fragile than wood-derived biochars.

For the application of most types of biochar in water bodies, another challenge is how to maintain the biochar in the desired locations due to its low density and settling rate (Gomez-Eyles et al., 2013). During sampling events, many biochar particles were observed at the interface between the aqueous and solid phase and biochar particles could be easily relocated by the movement of the water. This problem could be addressed by encasing the biochar particles using geotextile (Shackley et al., 2016) before field applications.

This study indicates that the physical and chemical properties affect the potential for biochar to control Hg concentrations and induce methylation when used as a sediment amendment. Other properties that may also influence the effectiveness of biochar as an
amendment include the volatile (labile) versus fixed carbon content, ash content, mineral
content, calcium carbon equivalent, pore size distribution, and S speciation and
distribution. Measurement of these parameters could assist in further interpretation of the
results.

At the termination of the experiment, biochar particles were easily distinguished
from the sediment, which indicates the biochar remained stable over the course of the
experiment. This observation is consistent with previous studies that indicate biochar can
be stable in the environment (Mann, 2002; Spokas, 2010). The Hg that accumulated in
the biochar through this process is expected to remain stable for a prolonged period.
Further, this process can also be extended to the accumulation of other hazardous metal
elements.

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Table 1. Properties, elemental composition, and released component from activated carbon (AC), Cowboy Charcoal (OAK700), low-T (GRASS300) and high-T (GRASS600) switchgrass, and high-T poultry manure (MANURE600) biochars

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>OAK700</th>
<th>GRASS300</th>
<th>GRASS600</th>
<th>MANURE600</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific surface area, m$^2$ g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C, %</td>
<td>98.0±0.8</td>
<td>99.9±0.6</td>
<td>70.2±1.7</td>
<td>94.5±1.4</td>
<td>18.5±1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S, %</td>
<td>0.18±0.01</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>0.10±0.01</td>
<td>0.55±0.02</td>
<td>0.48±0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>14000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ar, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ba, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
<td>&lt; 0.02</td>
<td>&lt; 0.02</td>
<td>0.60</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.09</td>
<td>&lt; 0.09</td>
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<td>Mn, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>2900</td>
<td>9200</td>
<td>14000</td>
<td>44000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cd, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>&lt; 0.02</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cr, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>1.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<td>Cu, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>Fe, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>2100</td>
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<td>K, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>2600</td>
<td>9300</td>
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<td>28000</td>
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<td>Li, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>&lt; 2</td>
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<td>Mg, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>110</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>14000</td>
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<td>1.2</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
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<td>18</td>
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<td>180</td>
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<td>Ti, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.012</td>
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<td>V, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Y, µg g$^{-1}$</td>
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<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.39</td>
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<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alkalinity$^b$, mg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OA$^b$, mg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC$^b$, mg g$^{-1}$</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>&lt;0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Data from Liu et al. (2017)

$^b$ pH value measured in river water reacted with biochar for 48 hr using a 1:75 biochar to water mass ratio as reported in Liu et al. (2015); other values obtained similarly but expressed per g biochar
Figure 1. Sampling locations for sediment (orange star) and river water (orange circle) used in this study.
Figure 2. pH and Eh values of control and amended systems vs. time.
Figure 3. Concentrations of 0.2- and 0.45-μm filtered THg and 0.45-μm filtered MeHg in aqueous solutions of control and amended systems vs. time. Sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017).
Figure 4. MeHg content in sediment control and amended systems (activated carbon, OAK700, low-T and high-T switchgrass, and poultry manure) vs. time. Sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017). Note: change in y-axis scale for different subplots.
Figure 5. Aqueous phase MeHg concentrations vs. solid phase MeHg content of sediment control and amended systems.
Figure 6. Concentrations of carbon sources (acetate, formate, propionate, DOC, and alkalinity), UV absorbance at 254 nm, and calculated SUVA in aqueous solutions of control and amended systems vs. time. Sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017).
Figure 7. Concentrations of electron acceptors (NO$_3^-$, Mn, Fe, and SO$_4^{2-}$ in redox sequence) in aqueous solutions of control and amended systems vs. time. Fe and SO$_4^{2-}$ concentrations of sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017).
Figure 8. Concentrations of nutrients (NH$_3$-N and PO$_4$-P) in aqueous solutions of control and amended systems vs. time.
Figure 9. Pyrosequencing results as percentages in genus level, including fermenters, FeRB, SRB, and methanogens of sediment control and activated carbon, OAK700 (duplicate), low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar, and poultry manure biochar (duplicate) amended systems. For each sample, columns from left to right represent days 0, 65, 100, 154, 235, and 387, respectively. Sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017).
Figure 10. Percentages of species identified as known Hg methylators, including SRB, FeRB, methanogen, and fermentative bacteria, for different days from sediment control and amended systems. For each sample, columns from left to right represent day 0, 65, 100, 154, 235, and 387, respectively. Sediment control and low-T and high-T switchgrass biochar data are from Liu et al. (2017).
• Total Hg is under control using biochar after certain period
• MeHg concentration in amended systems is generally lower than in sediment control
• MeHg change corresponds to onset of Fe and SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction and methanogenic stages
• Switchgrass biochar pyrolyzed at 300°C is the most promising reactive medium