

1 Article

2 **Vertical distribution of total mercury and mercury methylation in**  
3 **a landfill site in Japan**4 **Jing Yang**<sup>1</sup>, **Masaki Takaoka**<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, **Akira Sano**<sup>2</sup>, **Akito Matsuyama**<sup>3</sup>, and **Ryuji Yanase**<sup>4</sup>5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Environmental Engineering, Graduate School of Engineering, Kyoto University, Japan;  
6 [yang.jing.53s@st.kyoto-u.ac.jp](mailto:yang.jing.53s@st.kyoto-u.ac.jp)7 <sup>2</sup> Graduate School of Global Environmental Studies, Kyoto University, Japan;  
8 [takaoka.masaki.4w@kyoto-u.ac.jp](mailto:takaoka.masaki.4w@kyoto-u.ac.jp); [sano.akira.2a@kyoto-u.ac.jp](mailto:sano.akira.2a@kyoto-u.ac.jp)9 <sup>3</sup> National Institute for Minamata Disease, Japan; [matsuyam@nimd.go.jp](mailto:matsuyam@nimd.go.jp)10 <sup>4</sup> Environmental Protection Center, Fukuoka University, Japan; [ryanase@fukuoka-u.ac.jp](mailto:ryanase@fukuoka-u.ac.jp)11 \* Correspondence: [takaoka.masaki.4w@kyoto-u.ac.jp](mailto:takaoka.masaki.4w@kyoto-u.ac.jp); Tel.: +81-075-383-3335

12

13 **Abstract:** Mercury is a neurotoxin, with certain organic forms of the element being particularly  
14 harmful to humans. The Minamata Convention was adopted to reduce the intentional use and  
15 emission of mercury. Because mercury is an element, it cannot be decomposed.  
16 Mercury-containing products and mercury used for various processes will eventually enter the  
17 waste stream, and landfill sites will become a mercury sink. While landfill sites can be a source of  
18 mercury pollution, the behavior of mercury in solid waste within a landfill site is still not fully  
19 understood. The purpose of this study was to determine the depth profile of mercury, the levels of  
20 methyl mercury (MeHg), and the factors controlling methylation in an old landfill site that received  
21 waste for over 30 years. Three sampling cores were selected, and boring sampling was conducted  
22 to a maximum depth of 18 m, which reached the bottom layer of the landfill. Total mercury (THg)  
23 and MeHg were measured in the samples to determine the characteristics of mercury at different  
24 depths. Bacterial species were identified by 16S rRNA amplification and sequencing, because the  
25 methylation process is promoted by a series of genes. It was found that the THg concentration was  
26 19–975 ng/g, with a geometric mean of 298 ng/g, which was slightly less than the 400 ng/g  
27 concentration recorded 30 years previously. In some samples, MeHg accounted for up to 15–20% of  
28 THg, which is far greater than the general level in soils and sediments, although the source of  
29 MeHg was unclear. The genetic data indicated that *hgcA* was present mostly in the upper and  
30 lower layers of the three cores, *merA* was almost as much as *hgcA*, while the level of *merB* was  
31 hundreds of times less than those of the other two genes. A significant correlation was found  
32 between THg and MeHg as well as between MeHg and MeHg/THg. In addition a negative  
33 correlation was found between THg and *merA*. The coexistence of the three genes indicated that  
34 both methylation and demethylation processes could occur, but the lack of *merB* was a barrier for  
35 demethylation.

36 **Keywords:** mercury; landfill; core sampling; *hgcA*; *merA*; *merB*

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Mercury, as one of the most toxic pollutants in the earth's biogeochemical system and the  
40 human ecosystem, has become a global environmental concern. Due to its persistent and  
41 bio-accumulative properties, mercury, especially in its organic form, is a potent neurotoxin that can  
42 affect the health of wildlife and humans. One of the most remarkable physical properties of mercury  
43 and some of its compounds is their high volatility, which leads to the potential for long-range  
44 transport [1]. Mercury occurs naturally in the environment, but the levels of mercury in the  
45 atmosphere and oceans have increased due to human activities, such as mining [2,3], fossil fuel

46 combustion [4], and the chlorine alkali industry [5]. Landfill sites are complex systems, with layers of  
47 various depths under aerobic or anaerobic conditions. The methylation process is greater under  
48 anaerobic than aerobic conditions [6], and landfill sites are a significant emission source of total  
49 gaseous mercury as well as methyl mercury (MeHg) [7]. Hence, the behavior of mercury in landfills  
50 needs to be investigated.

51 In response to the Minamata Convention, which considered the problem of global mercury  
52 transport and the human health impacts of mercury pollution [8], the control of mercury emissions  
53 will likely be difficult because of the lag time in natural systems, meaning that a reduction in  
54 emissions will not have an immediate impact on exposure [9]. The influence of previously emitted  
55 anthropogenic mercury will last for a long time, and mercury products currently in existence will  
56 eventually accumulate in landfill sites following their disposal.

57 As a pervasive global pollutant, mercury especially in the form of MeHg bioaccumulates in the  
58 food chain and is highly toxic to human beings. The organic forms of mercury differ substantially  
59 from the inorganic forms, which are derived from anthropogenic emissions and subsequent  
60 atmosphere deposition, while organic forms of mercury are produced in the environment following  
61 the transport of inorganic mercury. It has been reported that in anaerobic environments  
62 micro-organisms predominantly generate MeHg from inorganic forms of mercury [10]. Mercury  
63 methylation is promoted by enzyme catalysis, during which a methyl group is transferred to  
64 inorganic mercury from the methylated *hgcA* protein [11]. Sulfate-reducing bacteria have been  
65 identified as primary producers of MeHg in the environment, with iron-reducing bacteria and  
66 methanogens also involved in this process [12].

67 In general, the mercury pollution potential of a landfill is dependent on two factors: gaseous  
68 emissions and leachate. The airborne emission of mercury from landfills has been widely reported.  
69 As a mercury sink, landfills act as a source of mercury from both landfill gas [13–17] and leachate  
70 [18]. Therefore, if the landfill acts as a methylation and demethylation reactor, the behavior of  
71 mercury in the landfill will have a strong influence on the generation of both MeHg and elemental  
72 mercury. A study in China reported on the mercury distribution within the top layer of soil (0–15  
73 cm) in the largest active landfill in Asia [19], while another study surveyed mercury in a municipal  
74 solid-waste landfill in Florida [20]. Samples were collected from cores at depths of approximately  
75 3–12 m, but no information was provided regarding the vertical distribution of methylation.  
76 Generally only the top layer of soil has been considered in assessments of mercury-contaminated  
77 sites [21–23]. As an artificial contaminated site, a landfill is a complex environment, and its  
78 assessment requires a tridimensional analysis. There have been no published studies regarding the  
79 methylation and demethylation processes in landfills.

80 To provide a better understanding of the processes affecting mercury in landfills, we conducted  
81 vertical boring sampling in three locations at a landfill site in Japan. We analyzed the levels of total  
82 mercury (THg), MeHg, and three bacterial genes (*hgcA*, *merA*, and *merB*), which play key roles in  
83 controlling bacterial methylation and demethylation processes in a closed landfill site. The aim was  
84 to further determine the changes in mercury speciation in landfill sites and the bacterial genes that  
85 control methylation and demethylation, which would ultimately provide a better explanation of  
86 mercury release and emission from landfill sites.

## 87 2. Materials and Methods

### 88 2.1. Sample collection

89 The study was conducted in January 2015 at a landfill site in Japan. Samples were collected  
90 from closed areas in the landfill site, which was constructed in 1965 and began operating in 1973.  
91 The site accepts approximately  $2.4\text{--}2.7 \times 10^4$  tons municipal solid waste per year, and the total  
92 amount of waste on-site at the time of the study was approximately  $4.48 \times 10^5$  tons.

93 A boring machine was used for the core sampling, and cylindrical samples (8 cm diameter)  
94 were collected from three locations designated as Cores 1, 2, and 3 (16, 18, and 12 m deep,  
95 respectively). The waste samples collected from each borehole were placed in four rows inside 1 m

96 long wooden cases. One cylindrical sample (length × diameter: 10 × 8 cm) was selected as a  
97 representative of each 1 m core sample and was stored in a vacuum bag inside an anaerobic pouch to  
98 prevent contact with oxygen. It was placed in a refrigerator at 5°C until it was processed on site. All  
99 operations referred to above were conducted on site. Sample pretreatment in the laboratory  
100 involved the separation and characterization of waste components. Non-degradable and slowly  
101 degrading materials such as stones, plastic bags, and ceramics in the samples, which occupied  
102 15–30% of the total weight, were removed, and the remaining materials were passed through a 5 mm  
103 sieve. Any changes in soil characteristics, such as color and texture, were monitored. After  
104 transporting back to the laboratory, the central portion of the cylindrical samples was separated into  
105 culture dishes for gene analysis and small vacuum bags for mercury analysis.

## 106 2.2. Analysis of THg and MeHg concentrations

107 The THg concentration of each core sample was determined by a mercury analyzer (MA-2000,  
108 Nippon Instruments, Tokyo, Japan), which enabled the mercury content to be measured at different  
109 depths based on Japanese industrial standard M8801. The samples used were sieved and ground  
110 manually. Approximately 50 mg of samples were used in each measurement, with the addition of  
111 two different chemical additives, and each analysis was performed in triplicate. Mercury in the  
112 samples was vaporized in the heater to free the mercury vapor in the gas generated, which was  
113 collected by a mercury collection agent (a gold-coated diatomite particle support) in the form of gold  
114 amalgam. The mercury collection agent was then heated to 850°C to release the atomic mercury,  
115 which was detected using the cold atomic absorption method at a wavelength of 253.7 nm in an  
116 absorption cell.

117 In the case of MeHg, two samples with a high THg content in each sampling core were chosen  
118 as representative samples. The analysis of MeHg was conducted using dithizone extraction and  
119 electron capture detector (ECD) gas chromatography, following the method of Akagi [24] as  
120 modified by Matsuyama [25]. Briefly, approximately 0.2 g of the sieved sample was placed into a 50  
121 ml centrifuge tube, and 10 ml 1 N KOH/ethanol was added. Then, the sample was ground using a  
122 glass stick, followed by shaking to dissolve the MeHg. MeHg in the mixture was then extracted by  
123 addition of purified 0.01% dithizone–toluene solution (5 ml). After cleanup of the dithizone–toluene  
124 extract, the sample solution was analyzed by ECD gas chromatography.

## 125 2.3. Gene analysis

126 Using an Extrap Soil DNA Kit Plus ver. 2 (Nittetsu Sumikin Kankyo Inc., Japan), total microbial  
127 DNA was extracted from a 0.5 g sub-sample of approximately half the total number of samples. The  
128 diluted DNA in each sample was subjected to reverse-transcription quantitative polymerase chain  
129 reaction (RT-qPCR) to determine the abundance of three particular genes: *hgcA* (mercury  
130 methylation), *merA* (mercury reduction), and *merB* (mercury demethylation). *HgcA* has previously  
131 been identified as involved in mercury methylation (Parks et al., 2013). *MerB* catalyzes protonolysis  
132 of the carbon–mercury bond, resulting in a reduced carbon compound and inorganic ionic mercury.  
133 *MerA* reduces ionic mercury to elemental mercury (Benison et al., 2004), which is the final step in the  
134 production of Hg<sup>0</sup>. The *hgcA*, *merA*, and *merB* genes were quantified using primer pairs reported  
135 previously [26–28]. RT-qPCR was performed using SYBR green I on the Rotor-Gene Q (QIAGEN,  
136 Holland). RT-qPCR for *hgcA*, *merA*, and *merB* was performed. The levels of 16S ribosomal RNA  
137 (*rRNA*) gene, which is a highly abundant bacterial gene, were quantified for comparison with the  
138 levels of the genes evaluated for each sample using the same PCR machine.

## 139 3. Results and Discussion

### 140 3.1. THg

141 Perforation sampling was started from the top soil layer of the landfill surface, ending at the  
142 bottom of the landfill. Depending on the stratification of the cover soil at the top of the landfill,

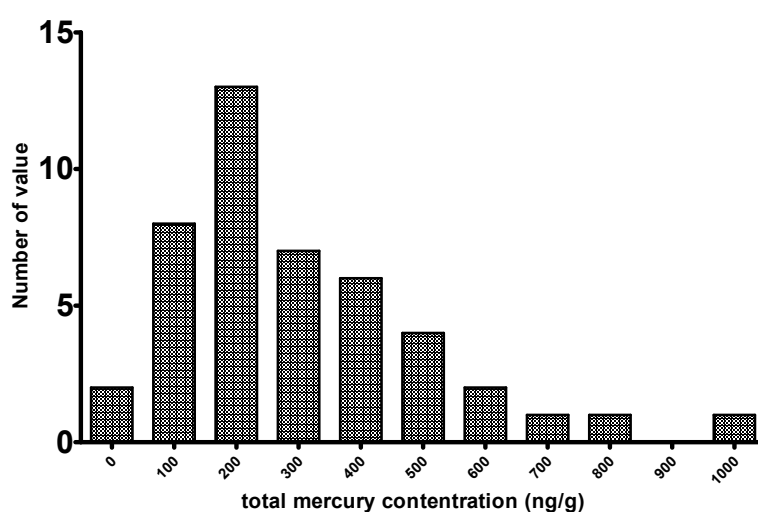
143 waste, the bottom clay layer, and other layers, the properties of the samples were very diverse. The  
 144 waste is located between the soil cover and the clay and is mixed in with soil.

145 THg was measured in 45 core samples, and the mercury concentrations ranged from 19 to 975  
 146 ng/g, with a geometric mean of 299 ng/g (sd: 203). As listed in Table 1, the mean THg concentrations  
 147 in Cores 1, 2, and 3 were similar and ranged from 200 to 400 ng/g. Figure 1 shows the skewed  
 148 frequency distribution of the THg concentrations of these 45 samples; most samples had a  
 149 concentration less than 500 ng/g, with only one sample having a concentration around 1000 ng/g  
 150 level.

151

Table 1. THg concentration of core samples in each core

Core	Depth (m)	Mean(ng/g)	Maximum(ng/g)	Minimum(ng/g)	sd	Cv%
1	16	226	975	19	224	99.11
2	18	353	774	82	196	55.52
3	11	316	552	58	164	51.90



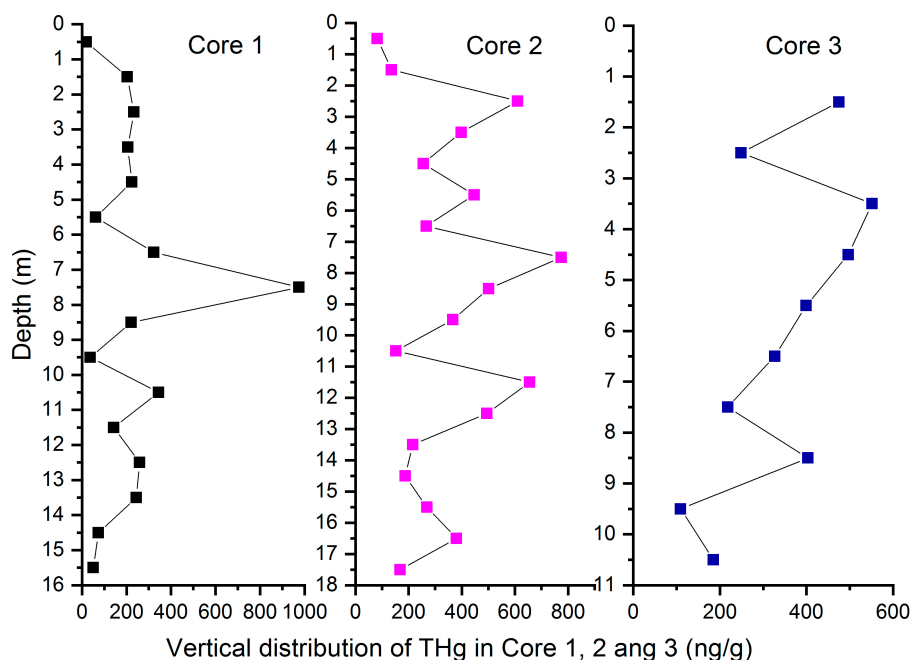
152

153 Figure 1. Frequency distribution of THg concentrations in core samples

154

155 The mean THg concentrations at the three cores were 226, 353, and 316 ng/g, respectively.  
 156 Figure 2 shows the vertical distribution of the THg concentrations in cores 1, 2 and 3; the  
 157 concentrations were spatially uneven in the three cores, and the highest concentrations were found  
 158 in the 8-m-depth layer of Cores 1 and 2. The minimum concentration was 19 ng/g in a sample  
 159 obtained close to the surface layer in Core 1, while the lowest concentrations in Cores 2 and 3 were  
 160 also in the top layer, indicating that little mercury in the waste was transported to the upper cover  
 161 soil layers. The THg concentrations were comparable to those measured in other studies in landfills,  
 162 which range from 32.8 to 16,800 ng/g, with a geometric mean of 178 ng/g, in U.S. sites [20]. Usually,  
 163 the THg concentration in the top layers of soil from contaminated sites has a higher content, as  
 164 reported previously, for example, 0.5–3000 × 10<sup>3</sup> ng/g [21], 2 × 10<sup>3</sup> ng/g [22], and 6.3–8600 × 10<sup>3</sup> ng/g  
 165 [23]. However, in this case, the top soil layer had a THg content of less than 100 ng/g, while higher  
 166 levels were detected in deeper samples. It can be seen from Figure 2 that the core samples were  
 167 separated into several sections depending on the THg content. The top layer and bottom cover had  
 168 the lowest Hg contents in all three cores, with higher levels of THg measured in the waste layer  
 169 between them. THg distribution in a landfill depends on the characteristics of the original waste, and  
 170 the results obtained in this study indicated that most of the THg remained in the landfill rather than  
 171 being emitted in leachate. The separation of THg among the different sections of the landfill also  
 172 suggested that Hg remained in the location where it was initially disposed. If a large amount of  
 173 mercury is lost from a landfill, the THg content should display a tendency to decrease or increase  
 174 vertically. However, the THg distribution in each sampling core displayed a clear peak, as shown in

175 Figure 2. Studies of the behavior of Hg released from used batteries in model landfills over a 20-year  
 176 period reached a similar conclusion, with Hg found to remain mostly in the same landfill layer [29].  
 177 Many plants and fibers were found in these raw samples with a high Hg content, resulting in a high  
 178 organic matter content and thereby providing sites for mercury binding.



179

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Figure 2. Vertical distribution of total mercury in solid samples in core 1, 2 and 3 (ng/g)

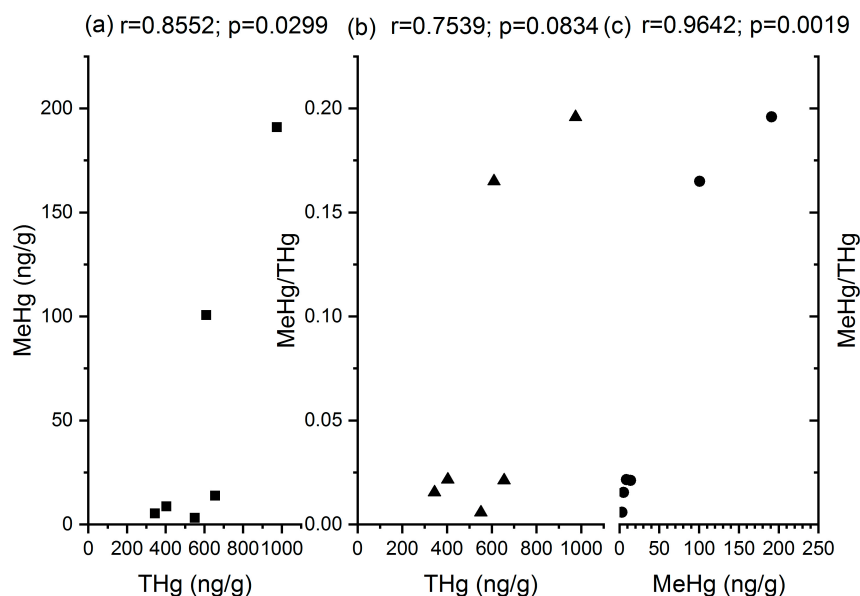
### 181 3.2. MeHg

182 Two samples from each core were selected for MeHg measurements, and the results are  
 183 presented in Table 2. In the 8-m-layer sample from Core 1 and the 3-m-layer sample from Core 2,  
 184 MeHg accounted for 19.6% and 16.5% of the THg content, respectively. In the other samples MeHg  
 185 accounted for less than 3% of the THg content. Van Faassen [30] reported that the accumulation rate  
 186 of MeHg in sludge and sediment was in most cases 1%, and only in one sample did it reach 5%.  
 187 Another study reported that MeHg accounted for an average of 0.77% of the THg in sediments [31].  
 188 Extremely high proportions of MeHg in soil or waste samples have rarely been reported; in contrast,  
 189 MeHg has been shown to account for 3–12% of THg in marine mammals [32]. A significant  
 190 correlation between THg and MeHg was observed ( $r=0.8553$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) showing in Figure 3 (a), with  
 191 similar relationships of waste samples rarely reported, however, a positive correlation was reported  
 192 of surface water and soils [33]. In addition, ratio of MeHg/THg was in a positive correlation with  
 193 MeHg as shown in Figure3 (c).

194

Table 2. MeHg and its accumulation percentage of THg

No.	MeHg (ng/g)	THg (ng/g)					MeHg %
		n=1	n=2	n=3	mean	sd	
1-8	191	959	853	1113	975	131	19.6%
1-11	5.3	327	350	354	344	15	1.5%
2-3	100.7	880	533	418	610	241	16.5%
2-12	13.9	793	617	556	655	123	2.1%
3-4	3.2	541	789	324	551	233	0.6%
3-9	8.7	226	689	295	403	250	2.2%



195

196 Figure 3. Correlationship between THg and MeHg: (a) Relation between THg and MeHg; (b) Relation between  
 197 THg and MeHg/THg; (c) Relation between MeHg and MeHg/THg

198 Despite the high accumulation rate and significant correlation, no clear evidence was found that  
 199 methylation occurred in the landfill, or that the stability of the Hg disposed of in the landfill was  
 200 altered over time, because the source of the MeHg was not determined. While cysteine, a  
 201 normally-used food additive, is proved to be essential for Hg methylation [34] which possibly might  
 202 lead to a promotion of Hg methylation in the landfill that contains food residuals. As shown in  
 203 Figure 3(b), THg positively correlation with the ratio of MeHg to THg ( $r=0.7539$ ;  $p>0.05$ ) although it  
 204 is not significant. However, an opposite correlation was found in sediment samples [31].

### 205 3.3. Analysis of the *hgcA*, *merA*, and *merB* genes with regard to Hg speciation

206 The common 16S rRNA gene and the *hgcA*, *merA*, and *merB* genes were amplified by  
 207 RT-qPCR. As an indicator of the abundance of bacteria, 16S rRNA gene sequences have  
 208 demonstrated a huge diversity in bacterial communities [35]. The 16S rRNA gene copy number in  
 209 dry soil is in the magnitude of 108 to 109 [36], while in this case, the 16S rRNA copy number ranged  
 210 from 106 to 109, as shown in Table 3. In the top and bottom soil layers, the 16S rRNA copy number  
 211 was in the magnitude of 108, which is similar to that of normal soil.

212 Table 3. 16S rRNA copy number in three cores

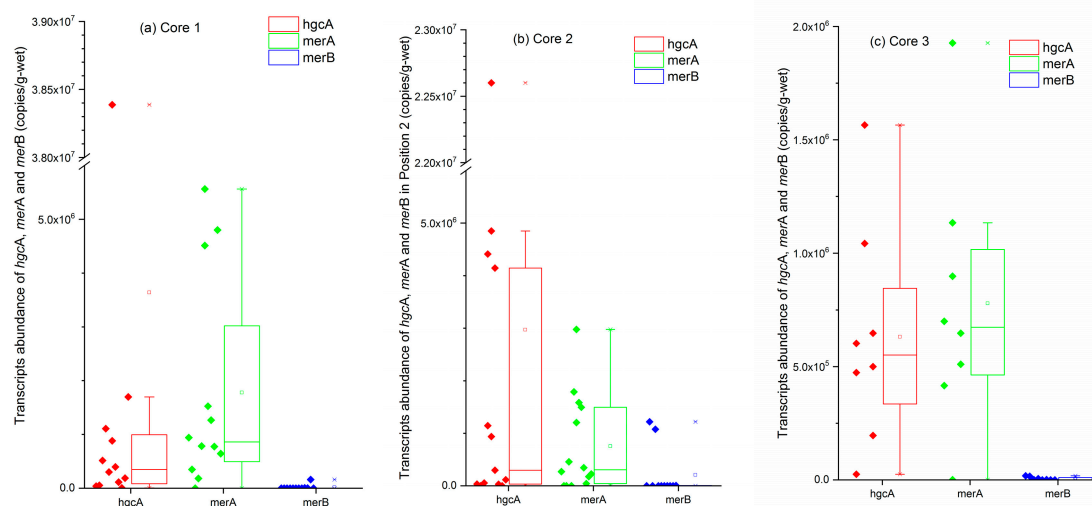
Core	Number of samples	Mean(copies/g)	Maximum(copies/g)	Minimum(copies/g)
1	12	2.9E+08	7.1E+08	1.5E+07
2	13	5.4E+08	2.1E+09	5.0E+06
3	9	7.8E+07	1.5E+08	8.1E+06

213

214 The fate of mercury in a landfill site is a dynamic process that includes formation (methylation)  
 215 and degradation (demethylation), which is the opposite of oxidizing inorganic mercury to organic  
 216 forms. The methylation process occurs via the activity of *hgcA* [34,37], while demethylation, which  
 217 generally refers to the cleavage of the  $H_3C-Hg$  bond as well as the reduction of ionic mercury to  
 218 elemental mercury [38]. The demethylation process is controlled by bacterial enzymes, which are  
 219 encoded by mercury resistance operons. Roles of the mercuric reductase enzyme encoded by *merA*  
 220 and organomercurial lyase enzyme encoded by *merB* in this process have been identified [39]. The  
 221 *merA* and *merB* enzymes play critical roles in the transportation and transformation of mercury in

222 the environment [40]. This process has been well examined in aerobic environments, but merA  
223 activity in anaerobic environments remains unclear.

224 The hgcA gene plays an essential role in mercury methylation and has been found in  
225 abundance in wetland soils [41,42], paddy soils [26], inundated and non-inundated soil [43], and the  
226 aquatic environment downstream of a chlor-alkali plant [38]. In this study, we detected hgcA in the  
227 core samples from a landfill site, as shown in Figure 4. The copy numbers of each gene, as well as the  
228 expression levels relative to those of 16S rRNA, as determined by RT-qPCR, showed a distinct  
229 distribution in expression among the three cores.



230

231 Figure 4. Whisker and box plot representation of the hgcA, merA and merB genes in three sampling cores

232

233 The transcript of hgcA was the most abundant functional transcript among the measured ones  
234 in Core 1 and 2 (Figure 4). The higher mean level of hgcA in each core indicates the landfill offered a  
235 better living condition for it than merA and merB. An outlier detection appeared in both Core 1 and  
236 2 that the two samples (No. 1-1 and No. 2-12) showed the highest ratio of hgcA to 16S rRNA and  
237 relative high ratio of merA and merB (Table S1 in supplement material). HgcA performed more  
238 active in the upper layers, which indicates the waste inhibited the growth of bacteria with hgcA. No  
239 correlation was found between the activity of the hgcA gene and THg, MeHg content in samples as  
240 well as the ratio between MeHg and THg (Table 4). The bacterial ability to methylate Hg has been  
241 demonstrated to depend on the presence of the hgcAB gene cluster in the laboratory [37,44],  
242 however, the concentration of MeHg in environmental samples is the multiple result of the balance  
243 of Hg methylation, MeHg demethylation and Hg<sup>2+</sup> reduction to Hg. Specially, samples in landfills  
244 has another possibility to gain MeHg, for instance, from the original waste which might contain  
245 some food residual. It could explain the noncommittal correlation between the gene expression level  
246 and the MeHg concentration. Similar poor correlation was also observed in sediment samples [38]  
247 and even in lab study [45]. This indicates that environmental factors had more influence than did  
248 gene expression levels. Hg methylation cannot only be explained by the abundance of hgcA gene  
249 simply, but also the bioavailability of Hg to the bacteria [46].

250

Table 4 Correlationship between THg, MeHg, MeHg/THg, hgcA, merA and merB

Items	THg	MeHg	MeHg/THg	hgcA	merA	merB
THg	1					
MeHg	0.8553*	1				
MeHg/THg	0.7539	0.9641**	1			
hgcA	-0.0666	-0.2478	-0.2695	1		
merA	-0.3745*	-1.734E-5	0.1911	0.3036	1	

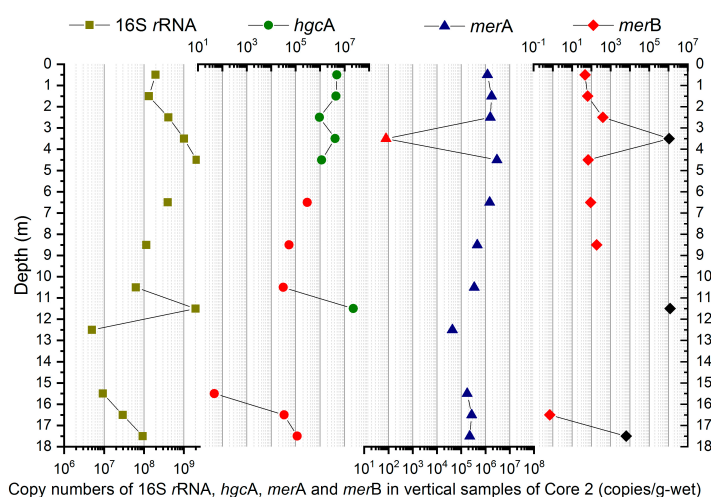
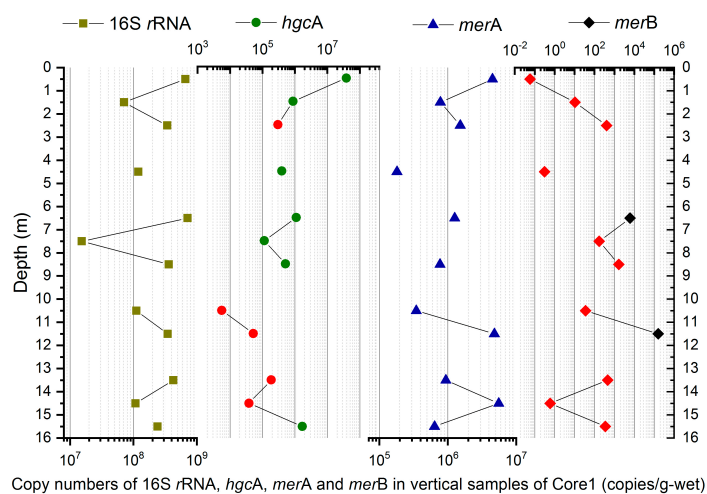
merB	0.2832	-0.2600	0.2897	0.3760*	-0.1735	1
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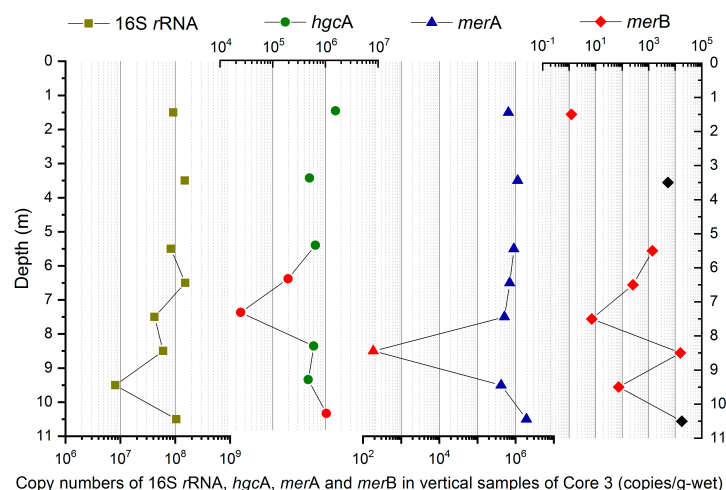
251 \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$

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253 The bacterial resistance of MeHg is determined by the *merA* and *merB* genes. These enzymes  
 254 act sequentially such that *merB* cleaves the C-Hg bond of MeHg to CH<sub>4</sub> and mercuric ion, while  
 255 *merA* reduces mercuric ion to metal mercury [47]. As shown in Figure 4, *merA* appeared as the same  
 256 average level with *hgcA* and existed extensively in most samples. In contrast, *merB* gene was  
 257 detected far less frequently than *hgcA* and *merA* in most samples. Thus, the lack of *merB* to cleave  
 258 the C-Hg bond suggests that demethylation was less likely to occur.

259 The vertical distribution of *merA* and *merB* showed opposite features in Figure 5. High  
 260 frequency of *MerA* detection suggested a high potential for Hg<sup>0</sup> generation, while *merB* only  
 261 presented in the various points in the middle and bottom layers with the orders of magnitude at 5-6.  
 262 In anoxic sediments, a high Hg methylation potential is accompanied by a high demethylation  
 263 potential in the same sediment [48]. However, in this case expression of both *hgcA* and *merA* was  
 264 abundantly detected only in the upper layers. The demethylation potential in the middle and lower  
 265 layers was not equivalent to the methylation potential because of the lack of *merB*. In Core 3, *hgcA*  
 266 was detected more frequently in the middle and lower layers, but the MeHg content was much  
 267 lower than those at Core 1 and 2, also suggesting that the high levels of MeHg in Cores 1 and 2 may  
 268 not be generated by the methylation process in the landfill. A significant correlation was found  
 269 between THg and *merA* genes ( $r = -0.3745$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), which indicated *merA* led to more generation of  
 270 Hg<sup>0</sup> as well as gaseous Hg release, so that it caused THg loss in the samples. In addition, an alkaline  
 271 pH of the soil (Figure S1) can hardly offer an appropriate condition for the bacterial to survive.





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Figure 5. Transcripts abundance of 16S rRNA, hgcA, merA and merB in Core 1, 2 and 3, the red symbol means the data which is below the detection limit and the results shown here is for reference.

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#### 4. Conclusions

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The THg concentration ranged from 19 to 975 ng/g, with a mean value of 298 ng/g. In two samples, the ratio of the MeHg concentration to THg was between 15% and 20%, which was far higher than the normal level in soils or sediments. A significant correlation was observed between THg and MeHg, as well as between MeHg and MeHg/THg. HgcA expression was abundant in the top and bottom layers, which indicates waste inhibited the growth of bacteria. The merA gene was frequently detected as the same abundance with hgcA and THg correlated with merA negatively. MerB was far less detected in most samples, and only existed in middle or bottom layers of each core, which suggested demethylation process can hardly take place in the landfill. More research is in need to understand the behavior of inorganic and organic mercury in landfill sites.

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**Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at [www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1](http://www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1), Figure S1: Figure S1. pH value of samples in three cores, Table S1: Table S1. Ratio of hgcA, merA and merB to 16S rRNA in three cores.

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