

Marine mercury-methylating microbial communities from coastal to Capbreton Canyon sediments (North Atlantic Ocean)

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1	Submitted to Environmental Pollution
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3	Marine mercury-methylating microbial communities from coastal to Capbreton Canyon
4	sediments (North Atlantic Ocean)
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25 Abstract

26 Microbial mercury (Hg) methylation transforms inorganic mercury to neurotoxic 27 methylmercury (MeHg) mainly in aquatic anoxic environments. Sampling challenges in marine ecosystems, particularly in submarine canyons, leads to a lack of knowledge about 28 the Hg methylating microbia in marine sediments. A previous study showed an enrichment of 29 mercury species in sediments from the Capbreton Canyon where both geochemical 30 parameters and microbial activities constrained the net MeHg production. In order to 31 characterize Hg-methylating microbial communities from coastal to deeper sediments, we 32 analysed the diversity of microorganisms' (16S rDNA-based sequencing) and Hg methylators 33 (hgcA based cloning and sequencing). Both, 16S rDNA and hgcA gene analysis 34 demonstrated that the putative Hg-methylating prokaryotes were likely within the 35 Deltaproteobacteria, dominated by sulfur-compounds based reducing bacteria (mainly sulfate 36 reducers). Additionally, others clades were also identified as carrying HgcA gene, such as, 37 Chloroflexi, Elusimicrobia, PVC 38 Spirochaetes, superphylum (Plantomycetes. Verrucomicrobia and Chlamydiae) and Euryarchaea. Nevertheless, 61% of the hgcA 39 sequences were not assigned to specific clade, indicating that further studies are needed to 40 understand the implication of new microorganisms carrying hgcA in the Hg methylation in 41 marine environments. These first results suggest that sulfur cycle drives the Hg-methylation 42 in marine ecosystem. 43

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Keywords: Mercury-methylation, Hg-methylating prokaryotes, 16S rDNA diversity, HgcA
diversity, marine sediments

50 Introduction

Methylmercury (MeHg) is a neurotoxin that is biomagnified in aquatic food webs, with fish 51 consumption as a primary route for human MeHg exposure (Mason et al., 2012; Sunderland, 52 2007). In aquatic ecosystems, methylation of mercury (Hg) to MeHg is carried out by some 53 54 anaerobic microorganisms. Studies have identified the sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) as the main contributors to Hg methylation (Compeau and Bartha, 1985). MeHg production has 55 also been associated with the activity of sulfur-reducing bacteria, iron-reducing bacteria 56 (FeRB) and methanogenic archaea (Fleming et al., 2006; Hamelin et al., 2011; Ranchou-57 Peyruse et al., 2009). The recent identification of some genes required for Hg methylation, 58 hgcA and hgcB (Parks et al., 2013), expanded our knowledge on the diversity of potential Hg 59 methylators (Gilmour et al., 2013; Podar et al., 2015). hgcAB genes are present in the 60 61 genome of diverse sulfate, sulfur and iron reducing *Deltaproteobacteria*, in methanogens, but also in *Clostridia* (firmicutes), fermentative and acetogenic microorganisms (Gilmour et al., 62 2018, 2013; Jones et al., 2019; Parks et al., 2013; Podar et al., 2015). Metagenomic data 63 suggested the presence of hgcAB in members of others microbial phyla including the 64 Chrysiogenetes, Nitrospina, the PVC superphylum (Planctomycetes, 65 Chloroflexi, Verrucomicrobia, Chlamydia) and Spirochaetes (Gionfriddo et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2019; 66 McDaniel et al., 2020; Podar et al., 2015). Microbial Hg-methylating communities that have 67 recently been described in wetlands, paddy soils, lakes, dam reservoir and sewage treatment 68 plant effluent included methanogens, SRB, FeRB, syntrophs and also unaffiliated 69 microorganisms (Bravo et al., 2018; Du et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2014; Podar et al., 2015; 70 Schaefer et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2019). Hg-methylating microbial communities in marine 71 environment remain largely un-investigated with regards to their importance for methylation 72 73 and the specific types of microorganisms involved.

The biogeochemical cycling of Hg remains understudied in the open ocean, particularly on continental margins and associated slopes (Mason et al., 2012). Submarine canyons are large incisions into the continental margin which contribute to the enrichment of

the sediments with organic matter (OM) and various trace metals (Azaroff et al., 2019; 77 Oliveira et al., 2011; Palanques et al., 2008). Indeed, a previous study on the Capbreton 78 79 Canyon (North Atlantic Ocean) has shown that the MeHg formation is driven by the OM and the sulfur content (Azaroff et al., 2019). Comparatively to offshore canyon sediment, coastal 80 sediment had the highest biological Hg methylation rates whereas ambient mercury 81 compounds concentrations were lower (Azaroff et al., 2019). Currently, no data exist about 82 the microbial populations carrying hgcA in submarine canyons or even in marine sediments. 83 84 Knowledge of the relationship between community composition and MeHg production may help to elucidate the origins of the large variability in MeHg/Hg ratios in oceanic ecosystem. 85

Building on these earlier discoveries and recognizing the implication of microbial communities on Hg methylation in Capbreton submarine canyon sediments, this study aimed to provide a mechanistic understanding of MeHg formation in sediments along the canyon transect. For this purpose, we linked sediment geochemistry and Hg speciation with parallel analysis of the global prokaryotic diversity (16S rDNA) and microorganisms carrying *hgcA*. This is the first study in marine sediments, from coastal to canyon samples exploring the diversity of microorganisms involved in Hg methylation.

93 Materials and methods

94 Study area and sampling strategy

95 The present study was undertaken in one of the longest canyons in the world, located in the North Atlantic Ocean: the Capbreton submarine canyon. It deeply incises the Aquitaine 96 continental slope and shelf, and runs along the Spanish coast for 300 km and sinks into the 97 abyssal plain at 3500 meters depth. Its head is at only 200 meters from the coast, where the 98 population and human activities, are constantly increasing. Like many coastal ecosystems, it 99 is a highly productive and ecologically rich zone due to large and continuous continental 100 101 inputs of nutrients and organic matter coming from a rich network of effluents and the Adour 102 estuary. Surface sediments were collected with a grab sampler and a core sampler along the

canyon transect starting at 1.2 km from the coast to 23.5 km. Samples were located in slopes 103 and terraces into the canyon (n=13) and in the adjacent continental shelf (n=9; Fig. 1). G03 is 104 105 considered a canyon location because it is located in a gully connected to the mouth of this canyon (Mazières et al., 2014). For each sediment sample, Hg compounds analysis (Hg(II) 106 and MeHg) geochemical parameters as well as 16S rDNA diversity were analysed. hgcA 107 diversity has been determined along the canyon transect at locations G03, G10, G14 and 108 109 G24. On board, samples for DNA were collected in triplicate with sterile cryotubes then 110 immediately frozen at -80 °C until analysis.

111 Chemical analysis

Sample processing, geochemical parameters (organic carbon (POC), total sulfur (TS)) and speciation of mercury (Hg(II) and MeHg) as well as the Hg transformation potential are detailed in a previous study (Azaroff et al., 2019).

115 DNA extraction and bacterial community composition: 16S rDNA gene

116 DNA was extracted from frozen sediments with the Power Soil DNA extraction kit (Mo-Bio 117 Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Diversity of the 16S rDNA were determined by sequencing the V4-V5 hypervariable regions of the 16S 118 119 rDNA with universal primers V4-515F (5' GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTA 3') and V5-928R (5'-ACTYAAAKGAATTGRCGGGG 3') (Parada et al., 2016; Walters et al., 2015; Wang and 120 Qian, 2009). PCR was performed using ampliTaq Gold® 360 master mix (Applied 121 Biosystems, CA, USA), 0.5 µM of each primer and 3 ng of extracted DNA. PCR cycling was 122 as following: after 10 min of initial denaturation at 95 °C, 30 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 95 123 °C, 30 s annealing at 60 °C and 40 s elongation at 72 °C with 7 min final elongation at 72 °C. 124 Amplicons were sequenced by the Get-PlaGe sequencing service (INRA, Toulouse, France) 125 using MiSeq 250 pb paired-end technology and reagent kit V3. Data were preprocessed 126 127 using the Galaxy FROGS pipeline (Escudié et al., 2018). Chimeraic and PhiX reads were removed, Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) clustering, after a de-noising step allows 128

building fine clusters with minimal differences, with an aggregation distance equal or above
3. Data were normalized to the minimum number of reads. Taxonomic assignments were
performed using the Silva database v.128 (Pruesse et al., 2007). Sequences data have been
deposited in GenBank under the accession number PRJNA608532.

133 Hg methylation community composition: *hgcA* gene cloning and sequencing

hgcA gene diversity was studied in four surface sediments along the canyon gradient from 134 135 the coast to the offshore (G03, G10, G14 and G24). Primers targeting hgcAB sequences 136 were adopted from Christensen et al., 2016 (Christensen et al., 2016) and hgcAB genes were amplified with the primer set ORNL-HgcAB-uni 268F (5'-AAYGTCTGGTGYGCNGVCGG-3') 137 and ORNL-HgcAB-uni 167R (5'-CABGCNCCRCAYTCCATRCA-3'). PCR was performed 138 using ampliTag Gold® 360 master mix (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) and 1 µM of each 139 140 primer, with 2 min initial denaturation at 95 °C, 5 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 96 °C, 30 s annealing at 68 °C and 30 s elongation at 72 °C, then 30 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 96 141 °C, 30 s annealing at 63 °C and 1 min elongation at 72 °C with 7 min final elongation at 72 142 °C. PCR products were purified using GE Healthcare illustra[™] GFX[™] PCR DNA and Gel 143 144 Band Purification Kit (GE Healthcare, Chicago, Illinois, US) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified products were ligated into a pCR[™] 2.1-TOPO®, with TOPO[™] TA 145 Cloning[™] Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, US), which was used to transform One Shot[™] 146 Mach1[™] T1 Phage-Resistant Chemically Competent E. coli. Transformed E. coli were grown 147 148 on lysogeny broth (LB) agar plates with 100 µg mL⁻¹ ampicillin, 64 µg ml⁻¹ X-gal and 160 mM IPTG. Successful transformants picked and screened by colony PCR with M13 primers 149 (M13F; 5'GTAAAACGACGGCCAG-3' and M13R; 5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGAC-3'). PCR 150 was performed using ampliTaq Gold® 360 master mix (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) and 151 152 0.2 µM of each primer, with 10 min initial denaturation at 95 °C, 30 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 95 °C, 30 s annealing at 54 °C and 40 s elongation at 72 °C with 10 min final 153 elongation at 72 °C. Clones of the correct sized inserts were sequenced by SANGER 154 sequencing at Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany). Forward sequences were only 155

used and converted to protein with ExPaSy tool (Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, Lausanne, 156 Switzerland) then, trimmed with Chromas Pro (Technelysium software). The obtained protein 157 158 sequences were aligned with MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004). The alignment was trimmed to the amplicon, and a tree was generated using MEGAX (Kumar et al., 2018), with the Maximum 159 Likelihood method based on the Poisson correction model (Zuckerkandl and Pauling, 1965) 160 (with n replication bootstraps = 500). Phylogenetic analyses were processed using HgcA 161 proteins homemade database including HgcA sequences from isolated strains' genomes and 162 from metagenomes obtained from NCBI (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) and Integrated 163 Microbial Genomes and Microbiomes platform (IMG/M, developed by the Joint Genome 164 Institute, CA, USA, http://img.jgi.doe.gov/) (Markowitz et al., 2012) and previous studies 165 (Supporting information, Table S3). HgcA sequences were also collected from Pfam 166 database (Finn et al., 2016) using custom Pfam models (corrinoid-iron sulfur proteins 167 (CFesP) classified under Pfam3599) according to Podar et al. (Podar et al., 2015). From 168 these references, we selected only sequences with the conservative cysteine in HgcA (Smith 169 170 et al., 2015) within the CWA motif. All reference sequences are compiled in Supporting information, Table S3. Sequences are archived in GenBank under submission number 171 .2316824 172

173 Statistical analysis

174 Pearson correlations were calculated between chemical parameters using the R software 175 environment version (http://www.r-prorject.org/). To remove redundancy of the chemical parameters data in order to avoid collinearity, we used the variance inflation factor (VIF) with 176 the mctest package (Imdadullah et al., n.d.) in R using the Farrar-Glauber test. Multivariate 177 analysis (Principal Component Analysis (PCA) were performed with FactomineR and Vegan 178 179 package in R (Lê et al., 2008; Oksanen, 2007). PCA for 16S rDNA diversity analysis was performed at the phylum level because of PCA constrains, with relative abundance above > 180 0.05%. We used the factoextra package (Kassambara and Mundt, 2017) for extracting and 181 visualizing the results. Hierarchical Clustering on Principal Components (HCPC) were 182

performed using FactomineR package in R. Distances were calculated with the Canberra
method and classification was applied to draw the trends of the dataset.

185 **Results**

186 Characterization of habitats and microbial community assemblies

187 In this study, we used previous chemical parameters in order to discriminate different habitats in the Capbreton canyon (Azaroff et al., 2019). The variance in the relationship 188 between depth, TS content, POC content, Hg(II) concentrations and MeHg proportion 189 (selected among 10 parameters with the variance inflation factor, VIF, Supporting 190 191 information, Table S1) was explained by two principal components contributing to 82.1% of the total variance contribution (Fig. 2). Surface sediments were separated into four distinct 192 193 clusters corresponding to different areas in the Capbreton Canyon, with sediments from the mouth of the canyon, intermediate canyon, deep canyon and continental shelf (Fig. 2). 194 195 Overall, the geochemical composition of sediments was dependent on the location (i.e. Canyon vs Continental Shelf), with an enrichment of TS, POC and Hg(II) levels in 196 intermediate and offshore canyon locations (Fig. 2). Continental shelf sediments were 197 characterized by a lower fine fraction content (<63µm), highlighting that Capbreton canyon 198 199 enhances the transport and the accumulation of particles in the sediments (Azaroff et al., 2019). In contrast, higher MeHg proportions of total Hg were found in coastal locations 200 suggesting higher methylation activity close to the coast. 201

The composition of sediment microbial communities was investigated based on 16S rDNA gene sequences, normalized at 5024 reads per sample allowing assignment of 2600 OTUs for the whole set of data. Overall, the global diversity was quiet close across samples (Chao1 ranging from 1208 to 1685) and replicates (low standard deviation) and no particular trends in alpha diversity could be observed (Supporting information, Table S2). *Proteobacteria* was the dominant phylum in terms of richness and relative abundance; they represented 921 OTUs and an average of 49.6 \pm 3.6% of the total relative abundance, followed by

209 Bacteroidetes and Planctomycetes representing 12.6 ± 5.7% and 8.6 ± 1.9%, respectively. A PCA analysis was performed on the relative abundance of phyla, in order to discriminate 210 211 assemblies of microbial communities. The variance of the relationship between the relative abundance of phyla, was explained by the two first principal components contributing with 212 62.5% of the total variance (Fig. 3). Although the global pattern composition was uniform 213 accross all locations, relative abundance variations led to three separate microbial 214 215 community clusters along the canyon axis, distinguishing communities from mouth, 216 intermediate and offshore locations (Fig. 3). Here, the distance to the coast seems to drive 217 the microbial composition. Those multivariate analyses discriminated four different habitats colonized by three distinct microbial communities, themselves allocated along the canyon 218 axis gradient. 219

220 Microorganisms involved in the Hg methylation: 16S rDNA versus hgcA gene

A previous study showed that the methylmercury proportion of total Hg decreased along the canyon axis, associated with a decrease of Hg methylation likely of biotic origin (Azaroff et al., 2019). *hgcA* diversity was investigated in one sediment of each of previously defined habitat (three sediments into the canyon along the canyon axis (G03, G10 and G24) and one from the continental shelf (G14)) in order to observe the diversity of Hg-methylating microbial communities. In addition, known groups containing Hg-methylators were assessed using the 16S rDNA marker.

The alpha diversity in the different Capbreton canyon sediments was similar (Supporting 228 information, table S2). Deltaproteobacteria, which includes most of the known Hg-229 methylating bacteria, were the most abundant and accounted for 50% of the Proteobacteria 230 and 25% of the total reads (Fig. 4). Among phyla known to contain Hg-methylators members, 231 232 *Planctomycetes* were observed at 8.6 \pm 1.9% of total reads and *Chloroflexi* at 3.0 \pm 1.9% of 233 total reads. The relative abundance of the operational taxonomic units (OTUs) from 16S rDNA within the Deltaproteobacteria group, showed the dominance of Desulfobacterales 234 235 over Desulfuromonadales, NB1-J, Sva0485, Desulfarculales and Syntrophobacterales (Fig.

5), with maximum total relative abundance of 20.8%, 5.4%, 4.9%, 1.8%, 2.2% and 3.3%, 236 within the Deltaproteobacteria known to 237 respectively. Genera methylate Hg 238 (Desulfobacteraceae, Desulfobulbaceae and Desulfuromonodaceae) were dominated by Desulfobulbus and other uncultivated or unaffiliated genera. The relative abundance of 239 Desulfuromonadales decreased along the canyon transect like the unknown genus of 240 Desulfobacterales. SEEP, SRB1, Desulfobulbus follow the trend of the Desulfobacterales 241 242 order trend and SVA0081 increased along this transect. Although Geobacter sp. were found 243 as a crucial Hg-methylator in continental aquatic ecosystems (Bravo et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2019), here, abundance of Geobacteraceae members peaked to only 244 0.17 ± 0.10% in the G03 location. Those results based on 16S rDNA may indicate that the 245 bacterial sulfur-reduction, i.e sulfate and sulfur reduction, is the dominant metabolic guild in 246 247 these marine sediments.

248 A total of 84 HgcA clones were obtained from locations G03, G10, G14 and G24 (n= 19, 22, 21, 22, respectively). They were mainly related to the Deltaproteobacteria (21% of the total 249 HgcA clones), dominated by the SRB (10 HgcA clones) followed by ferrireducers 250 (Desulfuromodales) and syntrophs (Syntrophobacterales) (Fig. 6 and Fig.7). HgcA clones 251 were also related to recent new clades like Chloroflexi, Atribacteria, Archae, PVC 252 superphylum, Spirochaetes, Elusimicrobia and Bacteriodetes (Fig. 6). Nevertheless, 61 % of 253 254 the HgcA clones were unaffiliated (unaffiliated 1 to unafilliated 7 groups). While 18 clones of these unafilliated HgcA clones were unkown, 22 and 11 HgcA clones were likely related to 255 Deltaproteobacteria (BSR like) and PVC superfphylum / Aminicenantes, respectively (Fig. 6 256 and Fig. 7) All together, almost half of HgcA clones (43 out of 84) obtained from the 257 Capbreton submarine canyon sediments are likely related to Deltaproteobacteria with 258 259 dominance of sulfate reducers. While HgcA clones cannot be representative of the Hgmethylators diversity due to the low number of clones per location and the selective 260 approach used (cloning sequencing), those results follow the trend observed with the 16S 261 rDNA approach, suggesting that microbial methylation is dominated by sulfate reduction. 262

263 Discussion

264 Geochemical conditions along Submarine canyons offer a diversity of ecological 265 niches

266 We identified four distinct habitats along the canyon transect (Fig. 2) where Hg species, OM and TS contents were enriched. OM composition and TS play important roles in Hg 267 biogeochemistry like MeHg formation and accumulation, as seen elsewhere (Azaroff et al., 268 269 2019; Bravo et al., 2017; Choi and Bartha, 1994; Cossa et al., 2014). Higher biotic 270 methylation in coastal samples as compared to the offshore sediments as determined in a previous work, may be explained by a higher OM lability (Wakeham and Lee, 2019) and a 271 differential sequestration of particulate matter along the canyon (i.e. gravitational 272 sedimentation, hemipelagic sedimentation, remobilization). Otherwise, Cyanobacteria that 273 274 might have come from the water released by the nearby Adour estuary (Goñi-Urriza et al., 2007), decrease along the canyon axis. As a primary producer, Cyanobacteria may 275 contribute to the local OM, with higher production in coastal sediments than offshore 276 sediments, and thus might control the MeHg production (Lázaro et al., 2019; Müller et al., 277 2018). Moreover, Capbreton Canyon is still active, meaning it is still filled with particulate 278 279 matter (Gaudin et al., 2006), where fine particulate matter is transported along the canyon transect (gravitational sedimentation), confirmed by the higher fine fraction measured in 280 offshore sediment relative to the coastal sediments (Azaroff et al., 2019). According to 281 282 Mestre et al. (Mestre et al., 2017) microbial community composition varied with particle size where, Bacteria were more diverse in larger size-fractions, whereas Archaea were more 283 diverse in smaller particles determining diverse ecotypes with distinct size-fraction 284 285 preferences. Considering colonization of the four habitats by three distinct bacterial 286 communities (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3), different abundances of known groups containing Hgmethylators (Fig. 4) were correlated with the diverse metabolisms of Hg methylators 287 identified along this canyon (Fig. 5), our results highlighted that geochemical conditions 288

controlled both the global microbial communities and thus the Hg methylating microbialcommunities.

Hg-methylating communities in submarine canyon sediments: global and functional approaches

For the first time, in submarine canyon sediments, we identified Hg methylating communities 293 using both 16S rDNA and hgcA gene. The organic carbon remineralization in marine 294 295 sediments is dominated by bacterial sulfate reduction (Jørgensen, 1990, 1977) performed by 296 Deltaproteobacteria who are known to be the main group of Hg-methylating microorganisms (Bravo et al., 2018; Christensen et al., 2019; Compeau and Bartha, 1985; Parks et al., 2013; 297 Podar et al., 2015). Nevertheless, although 16S rDNA analysis showed the 298 Desulfobacterales as dominant, hgcA analysis showed SRB were also related to 299 300 Desulfovibrionales. That is in accordance with the results of SRB identified in the water column in this canyon (Colin et al., 2017). hgcA clones within the "unafilliated 4", likely 301 302 affiliated with the Deltaproteobacteria (Jones et al., 2019), might be related to the uncultured or unknown bacteria from the 16S rDNA analysis (Fig.5 and Fig.6). We suggest putative Hg 303 304 methylating bacteria of unknown genera within the Desulfubacteraceae, Desulfobulbaceae and Sva1033 within the Desulfuromonadaceae. The relative abundance of those genera 305 followed the trend of Hg methylation potential along the canyon axis, suggesting their 306 307 involvement in this process. Moreover, Sva1033 was related to Desulfuromonas palmitatis 308 (Ravenschlag et al., 1999) and Kerin et al. 2006 (Kerin et al., 2006) demonstrated that the latter, in pure culture under iron reducing conditions, was able to methylate Hg. Although 309 sulfate reducing bacteria are widely studied and accepted as the major bacteria involved in 310 311 mercury methylation in aquatic environments, these sulfate but also sulfur reducing bacteria remain largely unknown in marine environments. 312

Like in recent studies, *hgcA* analysis showed that the Hg methylators are also represented by fermentative organisms, or ferrireducers (Fig. 6) (Bae et al., 2014; Christensen et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2019; Podar et al., 2015). This highlighted the complexity between

geochemical parameters and microorganisms involved inte the MeHg formation. As recently
discovered, HgcA clones were related to new phyla containing *hgcA* (Jones et al., 2019),
such as *Aminicenantes*, *Bacteriodetes*, *Kiritimatiellaeota*, *Elusimicrobia* and Spirochaetes
(Fig. 6).

320 Hg methylation is a strain-specific trait (Ranchou-Peyruse et al., 2009; Podar et al., 2013; 321 Gilmour et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2013; Gilmour et al., 2018) that cannot be predicted purely by 322 16S rDNA taxonomic classification. Although another recent study demonstrated that 16s 323 rRNA gene pyrosequencing did not have sufficient resolution to identify hgcAB harboring species in soil samples (Christensen et al., 2019), this approach in marine sediments could 324 provide indications about the hgcA-carrying Prokaryotes. The unknown hgcA-carrying 325 populations are from uncultivated organisms, and consequently their identification, cultivation 326 327 and specific contribution for MeHg remain to be explored.

328 MeHg proportion has previously been used as a proxy for methylation efficiency (Drott et al., 329 2008; Skyllberg et al., 2007) and high MeHg proportion has also in a few cases been shown to correlate positively with the abundance of Hg(II) methylators (Xu et al., 2019). Relative 330 abundance of some phyla showed a strong correlation with MeHg proportion such as 331 Cyanobacteria or Gemmatimonadetes (Table S5) suggesting that they could be involved, 332 indirectly or directly, in MeHg formation. This may suggest that not only the Hg methylators 333 themselves, i.e. Deltaproteobacteria, but also the supporting and interacting bacterial 334 335 communities residing in the sediment may influence the MeHg formation across the studied submarine canyon sediments (Xu et al., 2019). 336

As previously demonstrated in these sediments, methylmercury production is under control of both methylation and demethylation processes (Azaroff et al., 2019). Although the methylation seems to be controlled by microbial activities (for example *hgcA* gene is used as a proxy of microbial methylation), demethylation can be both abiotic (e.g. photoreduction) and biotic (e.g. reductive (performed by microorganisms carrying *operon mer*), oxidative (performed by methylotrophs)) processes (Lu et al., 2017; Mark Marvin-DiPasquale et al.,

343 2000; Oremland et al., 1991). Such biotic demethylation should be investigated in further
344 studies to better understand microbial involvement in the Hg cycle in marine environment.

345 The S cycling and OM in marine sediments: drivers of Hg biomethylation ?

346 The mercury bioavailability for methylating microorganisms in marine sediments and indirectly the MeHg production, is controlled OM mineralization, thus depending on 347 geochemical parameters (Bravo et al., 2017; Goñi-Urriza et al., 2015) and the degree of OM 348 349 lability. Only a small portion of the total inorganic mercury is likely available for cellular 350 uptake (Hsu-Kim et al., 2013). Indeed, the relative partitioning of Hg(II) between various dissolved and particulate forms will govern the overall mobility of Hg in aquatic systems and 351 the bioavailability of Hg to methylating microorganisms in anaerobic settings. OM could be 352 more labile in coastal sediment (Wakeham and Lee, 2019), which may improve the microbial 353 354 activities. This suggests that terrestrial inputs, from the high proximity of the canyon mouth to the coast, can influence Hg-methylating microbial composition and thus could explain the 355 higher estimated methylation potential in coastal locations compared to the offshore 356 sediments. 357

Putative Hg methylators were found among different anaerobic metabolic guilds, including 358 359 sulfate and sulfur-reducing bacteria, dehalorespiring bacteria, syntrophs, and in some cases FeRB (Fig. 6) but also some newly identified micro-organims (Chloroflexi, Spirochaetes, 360 *Elusimicrobia*, PVC superphylum). This suggests that Hg methylation potential is shared by 361 organisms using a wide variety of carbon sources and electrons acceptors. This is in 362 accordance with recent studies which demonstrated that the putative Hg methylators are 363 phylogenetically more diverse that previously, suggesting several independent horizontal 364 gene transfer events (Jones et al., 2019; McDaniel et al., 2020). 365

Carbon cycling in marine sediments is dominated by sulfate-reduction that could mineralize 50% of the OM (Jørgensen, 1977). This is in accordance with the predominance of sulfur reducing bacteria (observed within 16S rDNA and HgcA) observed in these sediments.

Fermenters were also observed in all studied sediments (Fig. 7). This suggests a 369 fermentative degradation of OM from complex carbon molecules to small carbon products 370 371 (i.e. proprionate, pyruvate, acetate) and dihydrogen production. They could be used as electron donors for the SRB and methanogens (Gilmour et al., 2018), improving the Hg 372 biomethylation. Otherwise, OM degradation depends on the microbial composition and then 373 both the methylating and non-methylating bacterial may control the MeHg formation (Bravo 374 375 et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019). Specific populations of non-Hg(II) methylating bacteria actively 376 decomposing OM seem also to create a niche that promotes Hg(II) methylation. Also, it has been demonstrated that bioturbating fauna disturbed mechanically the electrogenic sulfur 377 oxidation through long filamentous bacteria (Desulfobulbaceae), which likely mediated the 378 379 electron transport between the deep and surface marine sediments (at the centimetre scale; 50), could have profound implication for the sulfur cycle. This highlights the complexity of 380 381 interspecific relationship at different scales for the S and the Hg cycling in marine sediments (Liu et al., 2018). 382

In oceans and seas, methylation of mercury occurs both in column water and sediment 383 compartment (Monperrus et al., 2007; Rosati et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2018). At a global 384 scale, Boyd et al. 2019 (Boyd et al., 2019) showed that carbon sequestration in the open 385 ocean is probably more influenced by solubility than biological activity. These insights into 386 387 carbon sequestration can be taken into consideration to better understand the Hg biogeochemical cycle of mercury in ocean sediments. Although the OM is very reactive in the 388 euphotic layer of the ocean, the carbon can directly sink to the bottom surface sediment 389 390 (Wakeham and Lee, 2019) and could be an important carbon pump reacting into the Hg cycle, i.e. increase Hg methylation. Marine environment are the largest habitat on the earth 391 392 accounting for more than 90% of total biosphere volume. The microorganisms colonizing marine habitats are responsible for more than 50% of the global primary production and 393 394 nutrient cycling (Lauro et al., 2009).

Carbon sedimentation at the bottom ocean of the ocean represents a significant fraction of 395 global oceanic carbon sequestration (Boyd et al., 2019) and could influence the bacterial 396 397 composition, and consequently, can be a determinant for the formation of methylmercury (Bravo et al., 2018; King et al., 2001, 2000, 1999). The high anthropogenic Hg levels found in 398 the North Atlantic ocean (Lamborg et al., 2016, 2014) associated with the high affinity of Hg 399 for OM, could sink and trap Hg in those marine sediments. It is crucial to improve our 400 401 knowledge of the Hg-methylating bacteria in marine sediments, in order to estimate their 402 impact on MeHg production in a the global Hg cycle.

403

404 Conclusion

In this study, an assessment of marine Hg-methylating microbial communities was conducted 405 406 in submarine canyon sediments by combining pluridisciplinary approaches including geochemical parameters, mercury speciation, global microbial diversity and hgcA-carrying 407 bacteria diversity. Results highlighted that the distribution of microbial communities in 408 submarine canyon sediments as well as methylation of mercury, were driven by the 409 410 environmental parameters. Although Hg(II) and MeHg concentrations increased along the canyon axis from the coast to the offshore, the fraction of MeHg was higher in coastal 411 412 locations due to the higher biomethylation potential estimated in coastal sediments (Azaroff 413 et al., 2019). These results may indicate that methylation of Hg in marine sediments is driven 414 by OM composition and the S cycle. Indeed, 16S rDNA and hgcA analysis suggested that 415 Deltaproteobacteria dominated by sulfur-compounds-reducing bacteria are the main contributors for the methylation of Hg in marine sediments. Nevertheless, further studies are 416 417 needed to identify and characterize/isolate the unaffiliated and unknown hgcA carrying 418 microorganisms that could be novel Hg-methylators. Their methylation and demethylation capacities must be also determined in order to estimate their impacts on MeHg production in 419 marine environments at the global scale. To fully understand and quantify the relationship 420

- between Hg, sulfur, OM and microorganisms, further studies are also needed to decipher thebiogeochemical cycle of Hg in marine sediments.
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432 Compliance with ethical standards

- 433 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 434

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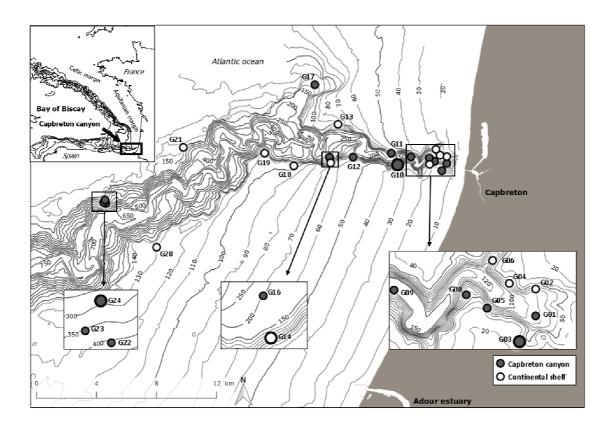
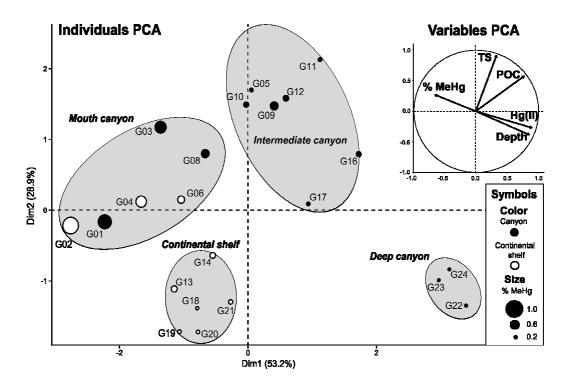


Fig. 2





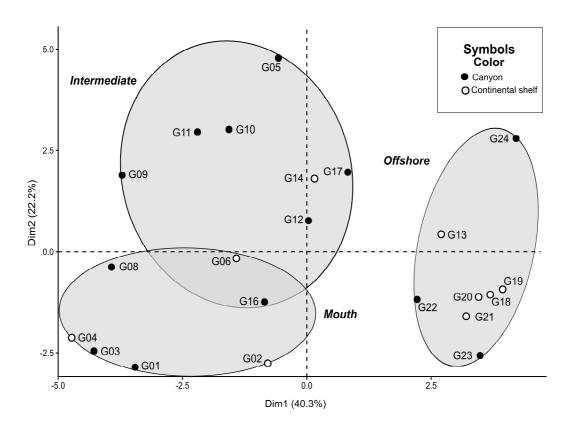
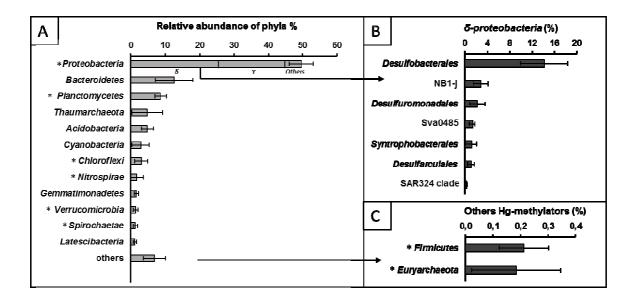
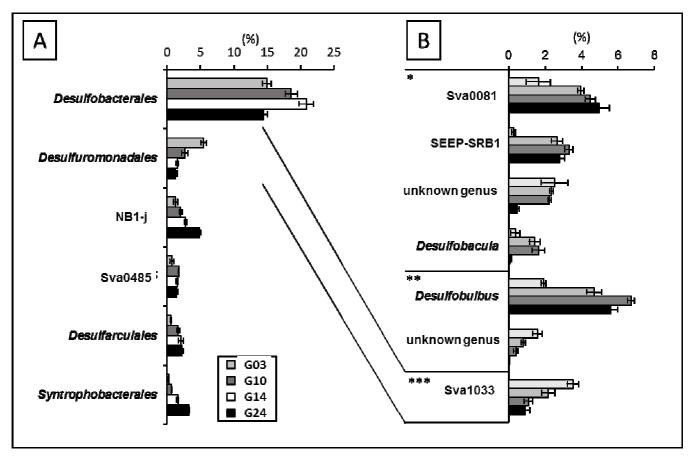


Fig. 4





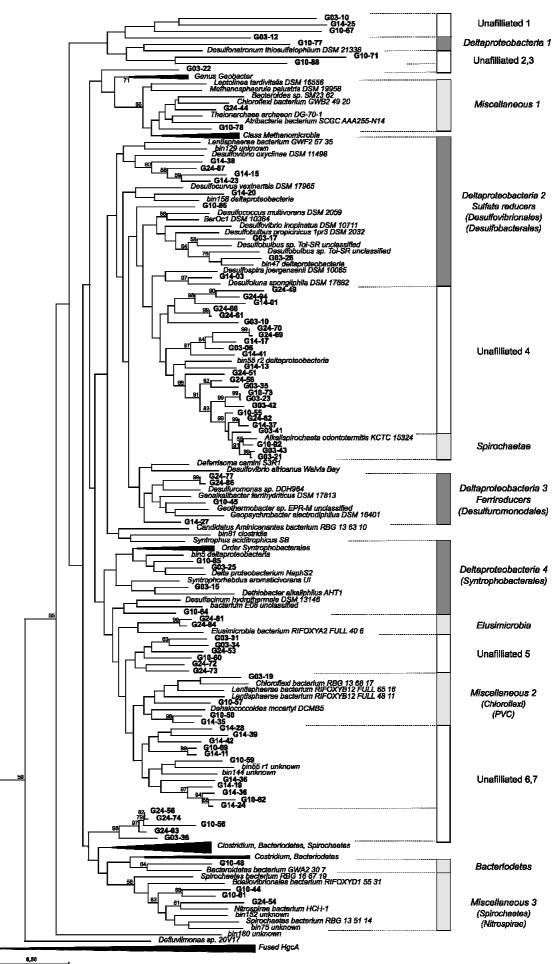
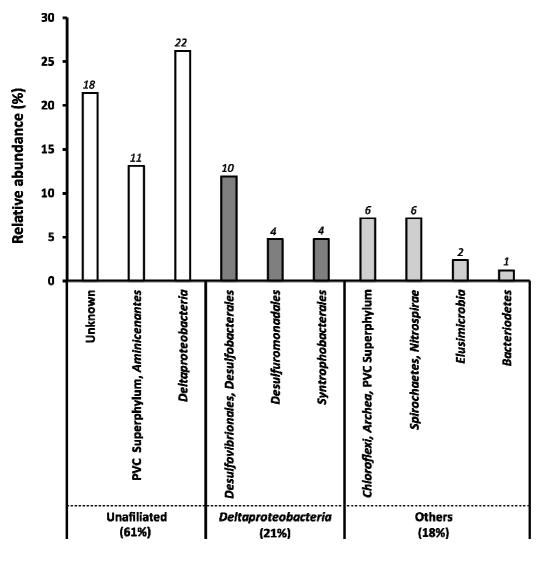


Fig. 6



Marine mercury-methylating microbial communities from coastal to Capbreton Canyon sediments (North Atlantic Ocean)

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