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1 **Are the existing guideline values adequate to protect soil health from inorganic mercury**
2 **contamination?**

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18
19 **Abstract**

20
21 Currently, data that guide safe concentration ranges for inorganic mercury in the soil are
22 lacking and subsequently, threaten soil health. In the present study, a species sensitivity
23 distribution (SSD) approach was applied to estimate critical mercury concentration that has
24 little (HC₅) or no effect (PNEC) on soil biota. Recently published terrestrial toxicity data were
25 incorporated in the approach. Considering total mercury content in soils, the estimated HC₅
26 was 0.6 mg/kg, and the PNEC was 0.12 – 0.6 mg/kg. Whereas, when only water-soluble
27 mercury fractions were considered, these values were 0.04 mg/kg and 0.008 – 0.04 mg/kg,
28 respectively.

29
30 **Key words:** SSD; HC₅; ecotoxicity; bioavailability; safe limits.

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33 **Highlights**

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- 36 • Data on terrestrial Hg toxicity are insufficient
 - 37 • SSD approach was employed to estimate safe concentrations of Hg in soil
 - 38 • Low levels of Hg could affect terrestrial biota
 - 39 • Soluble fractions of Hg should be considered to estimate safe Hg limits

1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg) is a heavy metal that is widespread in the biosphere but has no known biological functions, rather it exerts toxicity on living organisms. Soil is one of the most important environments where Hg undergoes numerous chemical and biological reactions, and at certain concentrations disrupts soil health by altering soil biota such as microbes, plants, and animals (Ha et al. 2017; Rice et al. 2014). These bio-geo-chemical changes determine the degree of toxicity that different forms of Hg have toward organisms in different trophic levels (Schaefer 2016). The metallic form of mercury (Hg^0) is the least toxic form because it is not water soluble, and does not bind to animal tissues and are not readily taken up by lower animals or microbes. Hg^0 can be oxidised in the atmosphere to inorganic mercury (Hg^{2+}) which is found in different salt forms such as chloride, nitrate or sulfide. Hg^{2+} is a reactive form that has high affinity to animal/plant tissues and can be taken up by micro- and macro-organisms resulting in many physical and biochemical adversities in the affected biota. Moreover, Hg^{2+} can serve as a substrate for bacterial methylation under anaerobic conditions, such as in sediments and water-logged soils (Mahbub et al. 2017a). The bioaccumulated Hg (after methylation) can enter into the food chain through intoxicated plants or animals, leading to severe acute and chronic disease in humans. Abnormalities in nervous, renal, cardiovascular and reproductive systems were found linked to Hg exposure (Kim et al. 2016; Yassa 2014).

As the divalent and methylated forms of Hg are highly toxic, many industrial countries have developed regulatory limits or guideline values to control the use of Hg in agricultural and industrial practices. The estimation of a critical concentration of Hg in soil above which biological activity may be affected is important, as it constitutes a safe concentration or regulatory limit. Because of the severity of health problems from Hg pollution in waters, most of these regulatory limits are developed for aquatic environments. As such, a large number of studies have been carried out to estimate Hg toxicity in different water environments (Lavoie et al. 2013; Rodrigues et al. 2013). However, soils have not received much attention even though large portions of emitted Hg undergoes various changes in terrestrial environments.

The average contents of mercury in soils range from 0.001 – 1.5 mg/kg, which is related to the soil's property and proximity to an emission site (Kabata-Pendias and Szeke 2015). However, high levels of soil-bound Hg in areas adjacent to the contamination sources have been identified in several studies. In China, 15-119 mg/kg Hg^{2+} was estimated close to a smelting area (Søvik 2008). In different countries in Europe, contaminated soils were reported to contain 5-778 mg/kg inorganic Hg (Moreno-Jiménez et al. 2006). In agricultural soils, Hg concentrations have been reported from background level to approximately 180 mg/kg (Li et al. 2013; Meng et al. 2014; Şenilă et al. 2012). Soil-bound inorganic Hg can linearly accumulate and magnify in important plants such as rice (Li et al. 2013; Meng et al. 2014) which is a staple food in many countries. To protect soils as well as human health from soil bound Hg, industrial countries like Canada, America, UK, Netherland, Germany and Australia have developed guidelines for Hg use in residential, agricultural and recreational soils (Mahbub et al. 2017a; Tipping et al. 2010). However, the suggested safe soil Hg limits from different countries lack robustness because of inadequate toxicity data from soil environments; most of the studies being done on

81 observing merely toxic effects, rather than estimating critical doses causing the effects from
82 proper dose-response analyse (Mahbub et al. 2017a).

83 From our several recent investigations, it has been observed that the degree of toxicity of Hg
84 depends on the biological species inhabited in soils and the soil's physicochemical properties.
85 For instance, soil-bound Hg is highly toxic to soil microorganisms (Mahbub et al. 2016a;
86 Mahbub et al. 2016b) but less toxic to soil invertebrates (Mahbub et al. 2017c) and plants
87 (Mahbub et al. 2017b). Toxic doses also varied depending on varying end points. For instance,
88 a dose required to observe negative effect on earthworm's reproduction rate is different from
89 the toxic dose on their mortality or weight loss (Lock and Janssen 2001). In addition, soil
90 properties such as organic carbon content, pH, and cation exchange capacity play significant
91 roles in bioavailability of Hg in the soil which is directly related to the degree of toxicity (Kim
92 et al. 2016). As significant variation in the toxic doses of Hg in soil has been previously
93 observed, this study was undertaken to consolidate recent toxicity data in the literature with a
94 view to estimating a safe concentration that can be used to protect the majority of biota in the
95 terrestrial habitat.

96 In the present study, a species sensitivity distribution (SSD) approach was applied to obtain
97 critical Hg concentrations in soil that when exceeded, leads to toxicity. SSD is the
98 recommended approach for ecological risk assessment and is used to predict hazardous
99 concentrations (HC) that may affect a certain percentage of species in a biota, using
100 extrapolation of ecotoxicity data from published literature or databases (Posthuma et al. 2001;
101 US-EPA 2005). This approach has recently been used by others to estimate critical Hg
102 concentrations in water (Rodrigues et al. 2013). Generally, the SSD approach utilized to
103 determine the HC₅ value, which denotes the concentration that affects 5% of the species in an
104 environment. Alternatively, this concentration protects 95% of species. In this study, both total
105 and water-soluble Hg concentrations were considered for the estimation of HC₅. Moreover, the
106 predicted no-effect concentration (PNEC) had been estimated from the same approach. The
107 HC₅ and PNEC values generated in the present study will advance the knowledge of Hg toxicity
108 in terrestrial environments.

109

110 **2. Materials and methods**

111 **2.1. Data collection**

112 Toxicity data were collected from the existing published papers by a literature search using
113 Scopus and Web of Science. Papers from last 20 years (1997 – 2017) were selected, based on
114 data generated from experiments carried out in soil under laboratory conditions. Organisms
115 from three trophic levels – microbes, invertebrates, and plants were chosen which have direct
116 contact with soil. Statistically determined EC₅₀ values were considered only when a proper
117 dose-response relation was evident. In contrast, any data failing to demonstrate regression
118 relation (i.e., merely a concentration that has a negative effect on any endpoint) were excluded
119 from this study. As such for soil microbes, data were available for a range of soil enzymatic
120 activities and soil microbial alpha diversity; for soil invertebrates, mortality rate, reproduction
121 inhibition rate, and avoidance rate were available; for plants, only root elongation data were

122 obtained. Based on the literature search, information from the twelve papers that met the above-
 123 mentioned criteria were selected for the present study (Table 1). EC₅₀ values were either
 124 reported in the selected papers or generated from the available data using four parametric
 125 logistic model applying IBM SPSS version 17.

126 **2.2. Estimation of critical Hg concentration**

127 The toxicity data were subjected to SSD analysis using the SSD generator downloaded from
 128 https://www3.epa.gov/caddis/da_software_ssdmacro.html and HC₅ was determined. The
 129 predicted no-effect concentration (PNEC) was estimated by dividing the estimated HC₅ by a
 130 factor 1-5 (Rodrigues et al. 2013).

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 132

Table 1: Toxicity data of Hg²⁺ for soil micro and macro organisms

Endpoint	EC ₅₀ (THg mg/kg)	EC ₅₀ (WHg mg/kg)	Number of soils used and their properties	Aging period/ site	Referen ces
1. Soil microbial activity					
DHA	2.0	NR	One soil, pH 7, Sand 9%, Silt 75%, Clay 15%, TOC 1.12	Laboratory exposure	(Welp 1999)
DHA	13.2	0.05	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbu b et al. 2016a)
DHA	2.4	0.29	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbu b et al. 2016a)
Nitrification	88	0.27	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbu b et al. 2016a)
Nitrification	0.7	0.02	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbu b et al. 2016a)
Nitrification	22.6	NR	One soil, pH 7.8, TOC 2.28%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Zhou et al. 2015)
Nitrification	1.59	NR	One soil, pH 7.14, TOC 2.05%	7 d laboratory exposure	(Liu et al. 2010b)
Urease		NR	One soil, pH 5.94, OM 26.4 mg/kg, Sand 54%, Silt 30%, Clay 16%	NR	(Yang et al. 2007)
Urease	88				
Urease		NR	One soil, pH 6.19, OM 20.7 mg/kg, Sand 62%, Silt 20%, Clay 18%	NR	(Yang et al. 2007)
	5.5				

Urease		NR	One soil, pH 6.26, OM 31.6 mg/kg, Sand 29%, Silt 38%, Clay 32%	NR	(Yang et al. 2007)
	24				
Urease		NR	One soil, pH 6.71, OM 29.4 mg/kg, Sand 22%, Silt 42%, Clay 36%	NR	(Yang et al. 2007)
	20				
Arylsulphatase	0.78*	NR	Three soils, pH 7.2-8.3, OM 1.7-16.8%, Sand 3.9-74%, Silt 16-52.1%, Clay 10-48%	30 d laboratory exposure	(Casucci et al. 2003)
Arylsulphatase	5.3*	NR			(Casucci et al. 2003)
Microbial biomass carbon	0.8*	NR			(Casucci et al. 2003)
Microbial biomass carbon	1.4*	NR			(Casucci et al. 2003)
Alkaline phosphatase	1.4*	NR			(Casucci et al. 2003)
Fe (III) reduction	56	NR	Eighteen soils, pH 3.5-7.8, TOC 0.9-11.4%, clay 2-41%	Median EC ₅₀ of field soils	(Welp and Brümmer 1997)
2. Soil microbial diversity					
Alpha diversity	25	0.18*	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2016b)
Alpha diversity	57	0.58*	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%	90 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2016b)
3. Earth worm's mortality, reproduction and behaviour					
<i>Eisenia fetida</i> Mortality	152	0.8*	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017c)
Mortality	294	1.2*	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017c)
Mortality	367	0.8*	One soil, pH 4.2, TOC 2.2%, sand 89%, silt 9% and clay 2%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017c)
Reproduction	9.16	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%	21 d laboratory exposure	(Lock and Janssen 2001)

<i>Enchytraeus albidus</i>	Reproduction	22	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%	42 d laboratory exposure	(Lock and Janssen 2001)
<i>Folsomia candida</i>	Reproduction	3.26	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Lock and Janssen 2001)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Avoidance	128.3	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Avoidance	206.2	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Avoidance	168.2	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 26 g/kg, Sand 53%, Silt 15% Clay 32%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Pontoscolus corethurus</i>	Avoidance	266	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Avoidance	300	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Avoidance	295	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	2 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Mortality	153	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Mortality	113	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Mortality	110	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 26 g/kg, Sand 53%, Silt 15% Clay 32%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Mortality	203	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Mortality	194	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Mortality	220	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	14 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Reproduction	10	NR	One soil, pH 6, TOC 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Reproduction	7	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)

<i>Eisenia andrei</i>	Reproduction	7	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 26 g/kg, Sand 53%, Silt 15% Clay 32%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Reproduction	11	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Reproduction	12	NR	One soil, pH 6, organic carbon 10%, Sand 70%, Clay 20%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
<i>P. corethurus</i>	Reproduction	13	NR	One soil, pH 4, OM 24 g/kg, Sand 50%, Silt 15% Clay 35%	91 d laboratory exposure	(Buch et al. 2017a)
4. Plant's growth						
<i>Iseilema membranaceum</i> (Barcoo)	Root growth	200	1.4	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017b)
	Root growth	10	0.41	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%		
	Root growth	224	1.9	One soil, pH 4.2, TOC 2.2%, sand 89%, silt 9% and clay 2%		
<i>Dichanthium sericeum</i> (Qld blue)	Root growth	126	1.32	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017b)
	Root growth	123	0.82	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%		
	Root growth	ND	1.9	One soil, pH 4.2, TOC 2.2%, sand 89%, silt 9% and clay 2%		
<i>Sporobolus africanus</i> (Tussock)	Root growth	209	1	One soil, pH 7.6, TOC 2%, sand 50%, silt 35% and clay 13%	28 d laboratory exposure	(Mahbub et al. 2017b)
	Root growth	132	0.82	One soil, pH 8.5, TOC 2.2%, sand 42%, silt 44% and clay 13%		
	Root growth	ND	0.15	One soil, pH 4.2, TOC 2.2%, sand 89%, silt 9% and clay 2%		

135 detected/statistically not significant. A total of 34 different soils with varying physicochemical properties were
136 observed.

137

138 **3. Results and discussion**

139

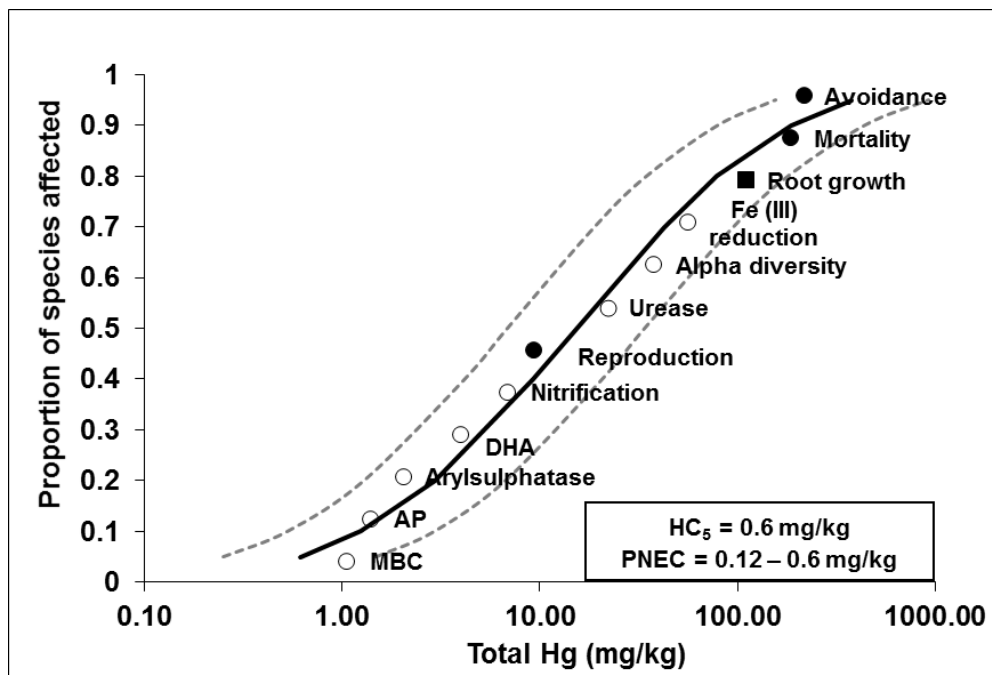
140 Different species of plants, animals, and microbes have been used as indicator organisms in
141 long term and short term exposure experiments to estimate the toxicity of Hg in soil
142 environments, but not as extensively as the toxicological assessments in water environments.
143 Plants are higher organisms, and their uptake rate of Hg through their root system is very low
144 because of the presence of barriers in the root tips (Patra and Sharma 2000). Plants also
145 accumulate elemental Hg from the atmosphere through the leaves which is then translocated to
146 other organs. At certain concentrations, Hg²⁺ is reported to exert oxidative stress (Israr et al.
147 2006; Tamás and Zelinová 2017), disrupt membrane structure (Ma 1998), damage DNA
148 (Dogan-Topal et al. 2018), reduce the uptake of minerals and nutrients (Tangahu et al. 2011),
149 interfere cell division (Azevedo et al. 2018) and disrupt chlorophyll synthesis (Liu et al. 2010a),
150 photosynthesis and transpiration rates (Rai et al. 2016). Although a lot is known about toxic
151 effects of Hg on plants, there is a scarcity of data where a proper dose-response relationship
152 was reported for terrestrial plants to predict a safe Hg limit. Only one study is available where
153 three Australian native plants namely *Iseilema membranaceum* (Barcoo), *Dichanthium*
154 *sericeum* (Qld blue) and *Sporobolus africanus* (Tussock) were used in a 28 d laboratory
155 experiment in three soils of different physicochemical properties (Mahbub et al. 2017b). The
156 other studies report only Hg uptake and toxicity related syndromes in different plant parts
157 harvested in contaminated fields (Azevedo and Rodriguez 2012; Mahbub et al. 2017b;
158 Nagajyoti et al. 2010).

159 Unlike plants, invertebrate animals in soils have been used more elaborately as indicator
160 organisms to estimate safe Hg limits in the soil. At toxic concentrations, Hg can cause death,
161 weight loss, lead to behavioural abnormalities, and interfere with reproduction rates in different
162 species of terrestrial invertebrates. There are few studies (Table 1) where a proper dose-
163 response relationship was established to estimate a Hg concentration that affects any of the
164 endpoints. Most of these studies used different species of earthworms as they are considered a
165 reliable bioindicator of soil pollution. The issue here is, the estimated toxic concentrations of
166 Hg can vary depending on the species used and the endpoints observed (Buch et al. 2017b).
167 Therefore there is a need to combine data obtained from different species of organisms where
168 several endpoints are observed. To include soil invertebrates in the present study, data were
169 obtained from studies where different species of *Eisenia*, *Pontoscolex*, *Enchytraeus*, and
170 *Folsomia* were used to monitor the effect of Hg on their behaviour, mortality, weight loss and
171 reproduction rate (Table 1).

172 Many studies have demonstrated that microbes are the most affected organisms in a
173 contaminated area (Harris-Hellal et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2014; Mahbub et al. 2017a). Therefore
174 to predict a safe Hg concentration that protects organisms from all trophic levels, microbes can
175 be used as the most reliable indicators. Changes in microbial community structure, diversity
176 and functions are common in contaminated environments (Müller et al. 2001; Zappellini et al.

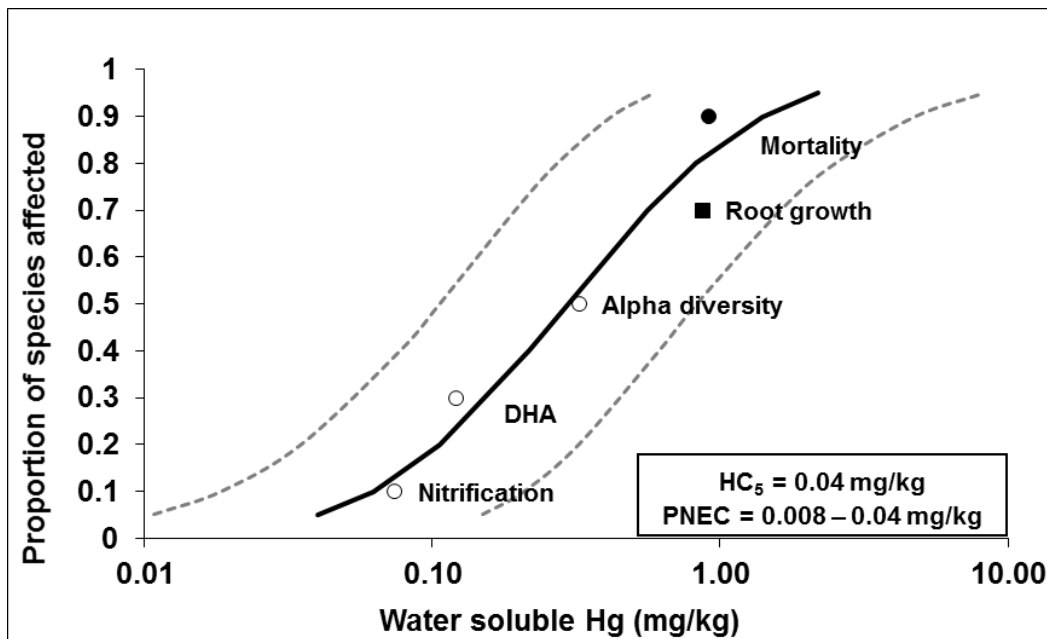
177 2015). Therefore, establishing a proper dose-response curve and subsequent estimation of HC
 178 values from microbial endpoints can provide reliable secondary data for establishing guideline
 179 values. Hence we obtained a wider range of data that covers various soil microbial functions
 180 which included dehydrogenase enzyme activity (DHA), soil nitrification rate, urease activity,
 181 arylsulphatase activity, alkaline phosphatase activity (AP), Fe (III) reduction, microbial
 182 biomass carbon content (MBC) and total microbial alpha diversity (Table 1). These endpoints
 183 were observed to respond in a varying manner with Hg gradients.

184 After plotting the data on SSD calculator, we observed a sigmoidal pattern of distribution of
 185 the species affected by different Hg concentrations (Figure 1 and 2). Considering total Hg
 186 concentrations in soil, a HC₅ value of 0.6 mg/kg (confidence interval 0.25-1.45) was estimated.
 187 Whereas, this value was much lower when we considered water-soluble Hg fractions, i.e., 0.04
 188 mg/kg (CI 0.01-0.15). Because, water-soluble Hg fractions are potentially bioavailable to soil
 189 biota, the estimated HC₅ of 0.04 mg/kg indicates that very low concentration of bioavailable
 190 Hg is sufficient to exert toxicity to soil organisms. The estimated PNEC values for total Hg and
 191 water-soluble Hg were 0.12 – 0.6 mg/kg and 0.008 – 0.04 mg/kg respectively. The only other
 192 similar study was by Tipping et al. (2010) who used chronic toxicity data from the years of
 193 1973 to 1997 and data from their experiments on microbial activities. They expressed the HC₅
 194 as 0.13 µg/g soil and 3.3 µg/g organic material. Our approach includes both chronic and acute
 195 toxicity data from more recent years as listed in Table 1. In another study, De Vries et al. (2007)
 196 emphasized on Hg content in soil solutions and estimated HC₅ value of 0.02–0.08 mg/m³,
 197 however, the study included only 11 data points from the literature. Above all, the HC₅ values
 198 estimated in the present study are lower than many guideline values set by different industrial
 199 countries, notably Australia (1 mg/kg), Canada (6.6 mg/kg) and the US (2.3 mg/kg) (Mahbub
 200 et al. 2017a).



201
 202 Figure 1: SSD plot of total Hg concentrations in soil and proportion of species affected. The estimated HC₅ is 0.6
 203 mg/kg (CI 0.25-1.45), PNEC is 0.12 – 0.6 mg/kg, R²=0.95, n=50. Each point on the Y-axis represents the mean
 204 of replicate observations of an endpoint as labeled in certain species (total 12 endpoints used) (Table 1). The

205 unbroken black line is a central tendency, and the grey dashed lines are upper and lower limits at 95% CI. Open
 206 circles represent soil microbes, closed circles represent soil invertebrates and closed square represents plants.
 207



208
 209 Figure 2: SSD plot of water-soluble Hg concentrations in soil and proportion of species affected. The estimated
 210 HC_5 is 0.04 mg/kg (CI 0.01-0.15), PNEC is 0.008 – 0.04 mg/kg, $R^2=0.91$, $n=18$. Each point on the Y-axis
 211 represents the mean of replicate observations of an endpoint as labeled in certain species (total 5 endpoints used)
 212 (Table 1). The unbroken black line is a central tendency, and the grey dashed lines are upper and lower limits at
 213 95% CI. Open circles represent soil microbes, closed circles represent soil invertebrates and closed square
 214 represents plants.
 215

216 The bioavailable fractions of Hg in the soil cannot be predicted by measuring total Hg content.
 217 Rather, it largely depends on soil physicochemical properties, such as organic carbon content,
 218 pH, mineral contents and clay contents. The selected papers from where toxicity data obtained
 219 in the present study used 34 soils with varying physicochemical properties. The important soil
 220 properties that influence the Hg bioavailability such as organic carbon content, pH and
 221 sand/clay content were in various ranges which indicate that the bioavailable fractions of Hg
 222 in the studied soils could have been different (Table 1). Organic matter-rich soils have always
 223 been reported to contain a very little amount of soluble fractions of Hg (Biester et al. 2002;
 224 Skyllberg 2012). Hence, different soils with similar amounts of total Hg can display varying
 225 amounts of soluble Hg (Millán et al. 2006; Skyllberg et al. 2006). This clearly suggests that
 226 measuring total Hg content may not predict the real toxicity of Hg in a soil. Alternatively,
 227 soluble fractions may be a better predictor to use in toxic dose determination approaches.
 228 However, adequate data are not available where toxic doses have been determined based on
 229 soluble fractions of Hg in soil; hence, the estimation of a true toxic dose remains a challenge.
 230 More eco-toxicological studies are required where soluble fractions of Hg in soils would be
 231 considered to determine critical safe limits. Most of the data used in the present study were
 232 generated from laboratory-based experiments that might be different in field scenario.
 233 However, field data lacks appropriate controls and often contain multiple contaminants making
 234 it difficult to validate the toxicity against particular contaminant. Therefore, toxicological

235 studies conducted in the laboratory with appropriate controls are best suited to estimate the
236 potential toxicity of any contaminant.

237 **4. Conclusion**

238 The current soil Hg guideline values developed by the industrialised countries seem to be
239 inadequate for the protection of soil biota given these are based on limited toxicity data.
240 Therefore, we have derived the HC₅ values (0.6 mg/kg and 0.04 mg/kg for total and water-
241 soluble Hg respectively) and safe Hg concentrations based on wider toxicity data available to-
242 date including from our own toxicological studies, and we believe these are more scientifically
243 defensible and appropriate for use as guideline values for Hg in soils. On the other hand,
244 toxicity data based on water-soluble Hg are scarce. Therefore we recommend the future
245 ecotoxicological studies should consider the water-soluble Hg fractions in soil.

246

247 **5. Declaration of Interests**

248 None

249 **6. Acknowledgment**

250

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253

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