



Observations of atmospheric mercury in China: a critical review

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Observations of atmospheric mercury in China: a critical review

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Abstract

China is presently the largest contributor of global anthropogenic Hg emission to the atmosphere. Over the past two decades, extensive studies have been conducted to characterize the concentration and speciation of atmospheric Hg in China. These studies provide important insight into the spatial and temporal distributions of atmospheric Hg species in China through ground-based measurements at a wide range of altitude over diverse geographical locations, and cruise and flight campaigns. In this critical review, we synthesize the available data to date to delineate the spatial and temporal patterns of atmospheric Hg, the long-range transport pattern of atmospheric Hg, and the impacts of Hg emissions on atmospheric Hg distribution and deposition in China. Atmospheric Hg species in China are substantially elevated compared to the background values in the Northern Hemisphere. The highly elevated Hg levels in Chinese urban areas were derived from local and regional anthropogenic and natural emissions, while long-range transport plays an important role in the atmospheric Hg concentration in remote areas. Preliminary studies suggested that atmosphere GEM levels are increasing at an urban and remote sites over the last decade, which were likely caused by the increasing anthropogenic emissions. The anthropogenic emission quantity in China estimated through the observed concentration ratios of GEM to CO (observed from 2001 to 2013) is approximately 983 t in 2009, ~ 3 folds of the published anthropogenic GEM emission inventories using activity data. Wet deposition fluxes of Hg in remote regions are low but the fluxes in Chinese urban areas are much higher than that in urban areas of North America and Europe. Dry deposition fluxes of Hg measured as litterfall input in forest areas of China were 2.5–9.0 times higher than the wet deposition fluxes and 1.8–13.6 times higher than the dry deposition fluxes of Hg in North America and Europe, suggesting that dry deposition to forest may be an important sink of atmospheric Hg in China.

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and lower implementation of pollution control devices, anthropogenic emissions in Asia appeared to increase during the past decades and play a more important role in the global Hg cycle (Wu et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2013). China is regarded as the world largest anthropogenic source region of atmospheric mercury. Recent estimates suggest that anthropogenic emissions of Hg to the atmosphere are in the range of from 500 to 1000 t yr^{-1} (Streets et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2013), approximately 1/3 of the total global anthropogenic emissions. Information on natural emissions (including direct natural and legacy emissions) of Hg in China is limited. GEM emission fluxes from various landscapes in China were summarized by Fu et al. (2015) and significantly higher than that observed from Europe and North America.

There is a need to assess the source, deposition, distribution, transport, and atmospheric processes of atmospheric Hg in China, which is important for better understanding of the global biogeochemical cycle of Hg in the environment. During the last two decades, studies on atmospheric Hg in China have focused on the distributions and transport of atmospheric Hg at ground-based sites, and in coastal and open sea areas, upper troposphere, and lower stratosphere. Additionally, measurements of atmospheric deposition in various areas of China were also conducted. These efforts elucidated the three dimensional distributions of atmospheric Hg in China, constrained the inventory of Chinese Hg emissions, assessed the transport of atmospheric Hg in China, and evaluated the role of Chinese emissions in regional- and global-scale Hg cycle. In this paper, we provide an integrated synthesis on the state of understanding in atmospheric Hg in China.

2 Observational approaches

2.1 Atmospheric total gaseous mercury (TGM) and gaseous elemental mercury (GEM)

There are a number of methods utilized for measurements of atmospheric Hg in China. For atmospheric TGM and GEM, the most widely utilized method is the commercial Model 2537 A/B automated ambient mercury vapor analyzer (Tekran, Canada). This automated analyzer combines the pre-concentration of Hg vapor (GEM and a fraction of GOM) on dual gold cartridges, thermal desorption and detection of Cold Vapor Atomic Fluorescence Spectrometry (CVAFS), periodic auto calibrations using internal permeation source and manual calibration using external Hg vapor standard (e.g. Tekran Model 2505 calibration unit) in a single package that enables continuous measurements of atmospheric Hg vapor. This analyzer is believed to provide accurate measurement of atmospheric Hg vapor and has a detection limit of $\sim 0.1 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ as specified by Tekran Instrument Corporation. There have been debates as to whether the Tekran Model 2537 measures TGM (the sum of GEM and GOM) or GEM. It has been suggested that, in certain conditions such as marine boundary layer with large salt aerosols, humid ambient air, installation of soda lime trap and using of unheated Teflon sampling tube, GOM in ambient air is not likely to bypass the sampling line and filter and therefore the measurement is GEM (Fu et al., 2010b; Moore et al., 2013). For other instances, the measured atmospheric Hg vapor likely represents TGM. It should be pointed out that GEM concentration in remote areas is approximately two orders of magnitude higher than the GOM level, and therefore the measurement of TGM or GEM does not yield significant errors. In this review, we refer the atmospheric TGM and GEM observations in China to GEM for text clarity and consistency.

RA-915 +Hg analyzer (Lumex, Russia) has also been used for monitoring of GEM in several Chinese studies (Yang et al., 2009; Ci et al., 2011a, b). It is based on differential Zeeman Atomic Absorption Spectrometry with High-Frequency Modulation of light polarization (ZAAS-HFM) and a multi-path analytical cell. This analyzer can measure

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detection limits of GOM and PBM using the system have been reported to be 0.5–6 pgm^{-3} , which is partially depending on the sampling duration (Landis et al., 2002; Poissant et al., 2005). It is worth noting that many recent studies suggested there are uncertainties about GOM measurements using Tekran system. This is mainly due to the lack of calibration standards of GOM and PBM, incomplete collection and loss of atmospheric GOM and PBM during sampling (Jaffe et al., 2014; Gustin et al., 2015). Recent field and laboratory intercomparison studies suggested that the GOM measured by Tekran system may be biased low by a factor of 1.6–10.6 times as compared to newly developed methods such as Detector for Oxidized Hg Species (DOHGS), nylon membranes and cation exchange membranes, and the biased factor can be influenced by the form of GOM, Ozone and relative humidity (Lyman et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2013; Gustin et al., 2013; Ambrose et al., 2013; McClure et al., 2014).

A manual method similar to the Tekran 2537/1130/1135 system has also been applied to measure GOM and PBM in China (Fu et al., 2012a; Zhang et al., 2015a). This method collects GOM and PBM (fine particulate bounded mercury) onto a KCl-coated quartz annular denuder and a quartz fiber filter in sequence. After sampling, annual denuder and quartz fiber filter (transported manually into a quartz tube) are flushed with zero gas, followed by thermal desorption at required temperature which converts GOM and PBM into GEM for CVAFS detection. The detection limits of GOM and PBM based on 3 times the SDs of blanks are 1.2 and 4.2 pgm^{-3} , respectively (Fu et al., 2012a).

Total particulate bounded mercury (TPM) has also been measured in China. In these studies, airborne particles were collected onto glass and/or quartz fiber filter without any upstream cut-off devices. For determination of TPM concentrations, Fu et al. (2008c) and Xu et al. (2013) used a thermal desorption coupled with detection by Tekran 2537 analyzer and Lumex RA-915 +Hg analyzer, while other studies used acid digestion and CVAFS detection (Fang et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2006b; Xiu et al., 2009). The thermal desorption method yields relatively lower (30–56 %) values for particulate

bounded mercury when compared with acid digestion (Lynam and Keeler, 2002), likely due to the matrix interference of gold traps and/or blank of chemical reagents.

2.3 Atmospheric wet deposition

Wet deposition flux of atmospheric Hg can be estimated via periodical or event-based measurements of precipitation Hg concentrations and rainfall depth. Previous studies in China used both bulk collector (Fu et al., 2008c; Guo et al., 2008; Wan et al., 2009a; Fu et al., 2010a) and wet-only collector (Fu et al., 2010b; Liu et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2013). Due to the dry deposition of atmospheric TPM during the sampling period, the bulk collector tends to overestimate the wet deposition flux. The artifact of using bulk collector may be lower at remote sites with low atmospheric TPM concentrations and a short sampling duration such as < 1 week (Landis and Keeler, 1997). Given that atmospheric TPM concentrations in China are generally elevated (Sect. 3.1), previous observations using bulk collectors likely overestimated the wet deposition fluxes. Analysis of total mercury (THg) and methyl mercury (MeHg) concentrations in precipitations in China followed the standard methods of EPA Method 1631B and Method 1630 (USEPA, 1998, 2002).

2.4 Atmospheric dry deposition

Dry deposition is an important pathway for the removal of atmospheric Hg and for the Hg input to ecosystems. Dry deposition velocities for atmospheric Hg are thought to vary significantly with the physical and chemical forms of atmospheric Hg, meteorological conditions, and surface characteristics (Gustin and Jaffe, 2010). Zhang et al. (2009) critically reviewed the dry deposition velocities of different atmospheric Hg forms. Using the measured concentrations of atmospheric Hg species in North America and its dry deposition velocities, Zhang et al. (2012) estimated the speciated and total mercury dry deposition fluxes in eastern and central North America. The result suggested that dry deposition flux of Hg is equal to or more than the wet deposition flux in North America.

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Africa and South America (Table 1). For example, average GEM concentrations at 11 of the 12 remote sites in China exceeded the background concentrations of GEM ($1.5\text{--}1.7\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) in the Northern Hemisphere (Lindberg et al., 2007).

Significant variation of GEM concentrations was also observed at the remote sites in China (Fig. 1). In general, GEM concentrations in northeast, northwest, and southwest China (e.g. Mt. Changbai, Mt. Waliguan, and Mt. Ailao, means = $1.60\text{--}2.09\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) were relatively lower than those ($2.94\text{--}5.07\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) in northern, southern, and eastern China (e.g. Miyun, Mt. Damei, and Mt. Dinghu, Fig. 1). This pattern is similar to the spatial distribution of anthropogenic emissions in China (Wu et al., 2006; AMAP/UNEP, 2013). According to the Chinese anthropogenic Hg emission inventories, most of the anthropogenic mercury sources are located in northern, central, eastern, and southern China. The anthropogenic Hg emissions in northeast (Jilin and Heilongjiang province), western (Xinjiang, Xizang, and Qinghai province), and southwest China (mainly in Yunnan province) are relatively lower (Fig. 2). Mt. Gongga and Mt. Leigong in southwest China showed relatively higher GEM concentrations of $3.98 \pm 1.62\text{ ng m}^{-3}$ and $2.80 \pm 1.51\text{ ng m}^{-3}$, respectively, approximately 2–3 times higher than the background level in the Northern Hemisphere. These two sites are located in Sichuan and Guizhou provinces, two of the largest anthropogenic sources regions in China (Wu et al., 2006). The highest average GEM concentration ($5.07 \pm 2.89\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) at remotes of China was observed at Mt. Dinghu in the central Pearl River Delta (Chen et al., 2013). The Pearl River Delta is one of the most industrialized and urbanized regions in China. Total anthropogenic Hg emissions in the Pearl River Delta in 2008 were estimated to be 15.7 t (Zheng et al., 2011). Most of the emissions were located upwind of Mt. Dinghu, which may explain the elevated GEM concentrations observed at Mt. Dinghu. In addition, Hg emissions from natural surfaces cannot be ruled out. Due to the elevated geologic background of Hg in soil and reemissions of deposited mercury, GEM emissions from agricultural and bare soils in the Pearl River Delta were in the range of $18.2\text{--}135\text{ ng m}^{-2}\text{ h}^{-1}$, higher than that in southwest China and approximately one order

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air plumes originated from industrial and urbanized centers that are about 90 km to the east of the sampling site (Fu et al., 2012a). In-situ production is also an important source of GOM at remote sites. Several studies observed a remarkable diurnal pattern for GOM with relatively higher concentrations during daytime that cannot be explained by emissions (Fu et al., 2012a; Zhang et al., 2013). Although not as significant as in the polar region, free troposphere and marine boundary layer (Lindberg et al., 2002; Swartzendruber et al., 2006; Timonen et al., 2013), in-situ GOM production is an important source of GOM in remote areas of China. There are currently no evidences with respect to the mixing of GOM-enriched air from the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere being observed in China, mainly because most of the sampling sites are located in low-altitude areas or the local topography does not favor the intrusions of air massed from the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere.

3.2 Atmospheric mercury in marine boundary layer

The first measurement of GEM in the Chinese marine boundary layer was made on board of a ship during a cruise campaign in the northern South China Sea (SCS) in August 2007 (Fu et al., 2010c). The northern SCS is surrounded by several countries including China, Vietnam and Laos in the Indo-China Peninsula, and Philippines. GEM concentration in the marine boundary layer displayed a clear spatial distribution pattern in the northern SCS with concentrations ($1.29\text{--}1.94\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) close to the background values ($1.5\text{--}1.7\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) in the Northern Hemisphere and with elevated concentrations ($2.5\text{--}4.71\text{ ng m}^{-3}$) measured at sites close to mainland China (Fig. 4). Backward trajectory analysis indicated that most of the high-GEM events were related to air masses originated from southern China and Indo-China Peninsula (Fu et al., 2010c). These results suggest that the southern China and Indo-China Peninsula are important source regions of atmospheric Hg and have strong impacts on atmospheric Hg pollution in the North SCS. Atmospheric Hg emissions from mainland China have been well investigated (Streets et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2006; Shetty et al., 2008). However, there is a lack of information regarding Hg emissions in the Indo-China Peninsula. An ex-

the Yellow Sea (range from 1.50 to 2.50 ngm⁻³) than in the western coast of Korea (range from 1.40 to 2.00 ngm⁻³) (Nguyen et al., 2011). GEM concentrations in marine boundary layer of the East China Sea (ECS) were measured on board during the cruise campaign from Shanghai, China to Antarctic (Xia et al., 2010). This study navigated the east of ECS and showed a mean value of 2.32 ± 0.49 ngm⁻³ in the ECS, and coast of Japan and Korea (Xia et al., 2010).

3.3 Atmospheric mercury in the free troposphere and lower stratosphere

GEM concentrations in the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere (10–12 km a.s.l.) over mainland China were measured onboard a passenger aircraft during dozens of CARIBIC flights from Frankfurt, Germany to Guangzhou, China (Slemr et al., 2009; Lai et al., 2011). Slemr et al. (2009) depicted the time-longitude distribution of upper tropospheric GEM concentrations crossed northwest China and southern coastal China. The GEM concentrations in upper troposphere/lower stratosphere over mainland China were in the range of 0.5–1.5 ngm⁻³ for most cases with the exception in the proximity of Guangzhou, southern China, which showed GEM concentrations exceeding 2.0 ngm⁻³. Stratospheric measurements of GEM were also made over the South China Sea (SCS) during the flight from Guangzhou, China to Manila, Philippines (Lai et al., 2011). The GEM concentrations in the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere over the SCS were in the range of 0.8–1.8 ngm⁻³, comparable with that over the mainland China. The levels of GEM in the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere over China are comparable with the observations over southern Europe, western Africa, Atlantic Ocean, and western South America (Slemr et al., 2009) as well as North America and North Pacific Ocean (Talbot et al., 2007; Lyman and Jaffe, 2012). Ozone concentrations in the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere are up to 1000 ppb and can facilitate the fast depletion of GEM (Slemr et al., 2009; Lyman and Jaffe, 2012). Also, the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere has high horizontal wind speed and weak mixing of air from lower troposphere. Hence, GEM concentrations measured in the upper tro-

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are mainly originated from India Ocean and western Pacific Ocean and move northwards from southwest and southeast China to northern China, while the winter wind flows are mainly originated from Siberia and move southwards from northern China to southeast. Given the pronounced spatial pattern of anthropogenic Hg emissions in China and East Asia (Fig. 2), the circulation of the monsoons could change the source-receptor relationships at most of the monitoring stations and influences the seasonal trend of GEM concentrations. For example, the elevated GEM concentrations in summer at Mt. Waliguan, northwest China and Miyun, northern China, both under the influence of East Asian summer monsoon, were attributed to the long-range transport of GEM from source areas to the east and south of the two sampling sites, respectively (Fu et al., 2012a; Zhang et al., 2013). Zhang et al. (2015a) proposed that long-range transport of GEM-enriched air masses from South Asia, which was caused by the southwest monsoon (Indian summer monsoon) and westerlies, played an important role in the elevation of GEM concentration at Shangri-La, southwest China in spring. Other processes such as changes in atmospheric photochemical processes, dry deposition, mixing layer depth, and meteorological conditions may also be responsible for the seasonal trend of GEM in China (Fu et al., 2008b, 2012b; Chen et al., 2013).

Seasonal variations of atmospheric TPM/PBM have also been reported. Most reports showed a lower average concentration of TPM/PBM in summer, while the higher mean concentration (up to one order of magnitude higher than in summer) was observed both in winter (Wang et al., 2006b; Fu et al., 2008c; Zhu et al., 2014) and autumn (Zhang et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015a). The high levels of TPM/PBM in winter and autumn coincided with the particulate pollution during these periods, which was likely caused by direct anthropogenic particulate mercury emissions and formation of secondary particulate mercury via gas-particle partitioning processes (Wang et al., 2006b; Fu et al., 2008c; Zhu et al., 2014). Seasonal variations of GOM concentrations were not extensively studied in China. The studies at Mt. Gongga, southwest China and Miyun, northern China showed the GOM concentrations were lower in winter and higher in spring and autumn, in contrast with the seasonal patterns

from early morning to noon, which was attributable to natural emissions and downward mixing of air masses from aloft (Zhu et al., 2012).

Several studies have investigated the diurnal variations of PBM and GOM in China (Fu et al., 2008c, 2011a, 2012a; Zhang et al., 2013). In Guiyang, Mt. Waliguan, and Miyun, elevated PBM concentrations were observed at night. The most pronounced diurnal variation of PBM was observed in Guiyang, with the peak hourly-averaged PBM concentration observed at night and about 9 times higher than the minimum observed during daytime, suggesting the impact of local PBM emissions during the buildup of nocturnal boundary layer (Fu et al., 2011a). The elevated PBM at night at Miyun was related to the formation of temperature inverse layer (Zhang et al., 2013), while that at Mt. Waliguan were caused by long-range transport (Fu et al., 2012a).

All GOM measurements in the remote and urban areas of China displayed a well-defined diurnal trend with increasing concentrations during daytime, coinciding with increasing solar radiation and atmospheric oxidants concentrations (Fu et al., 2008c, 2011a; Zhang et al., 2013, 2015a). The diurnal trend of GOM is more pronounced at remote sites where the impact of anthropogenic emissions was minimal and in warm seasons when levels of atmospheric oxidants and solar radiation were high (Fu et al., 2008c; Zhang et al., 2013). This result is consistent with the observations in North America and Europe (Munthe et al., 2003; Lan et al., 2012). Both anthropogenic sources and photochemical oxidation can produce atmospheric GOM. Photochemical oxidation produces approximately 8000–15 000 t of atmospheric GOM annually (Selin et al., 2007; Driscoll et al., 2013), about 10–20 times higher than the emissions from anthropogenic sources. Although previous studies demonstrated that this process mainly occurred in the free troposphere, stratosphere, polar regions, and marine boundary layer (Lindberg et al., 2002; Swartzendruber et al., 2006; Fain et al., 2009; Lyman and Jaffe, 2012; Timonen et al., 2013), the well-defined diurnal pattern of GOM at remote sites in China suggests that the photochemical oxidation may also play an important role in the formation of GOM in continental boundary layer.

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3.6 Long-term trend of atmospheric mercury distribution in ambient air

Long-term trend of GEM in South Africa, Europe, and North America have been well documented (Slemr and Scheel, 1998; Slemr et al., 2003, 2011; Ebinghaus et al., 2002; Cole et al., 2013). These trends showed slowly decreasing GEM concentrations over the past two decades. Slemr et al. (2011) observed that GEM concentrations decreased from $\sim 1.35 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in 1996 to $\sim 0.9 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in 2008 in South Hemisphere and from $\sim 1.75 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in 1996 to $\sim 1.4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in 2009 at Mace Head, Europe, corresponding to annual decreasing rates of $0.024\text{--}0.035 \text{ ng m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. The ten-year trends of GEM concentrations at five ground-based sites in the Arctic and Canada also showed a decreasing trend with annual decreasing rates ranging of $0.013\text{--}0.035 \text{ ng m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($0.9\text{--}2.2\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) (Cole et al., 2013). Such a decrease is consistent with the temporal trends of anthropogenic mercury emissions in Europe and North America but contrary to the temporal trends of global anthropogenic mercury emissions (Pirrone et al., 1996; Pacyna et al., 2003; AMAP/UNEP, 2013; Muntean et al., 2014).

Knowledge of long-term trend of GEM in China is currently scarce. However, several preliminary studies have been carried out and may provide clues in the long-term trend of GEM in China. For example, Fu and Feng (2015) found that the annual mean GEM concentration in Guiyang, southwest China increased from 8.40 ng m^{-3} (geomean = 7.46 ng m^{-3}) around 2002 to 10.2 ng m^{-3} (geomean = 8.88 ng m^{-3}) around 2010. Assuming a constant GEM increasing rate during 2002–2010, the mean annual increasing rate can be estimated to be $0.16 \text{ ng m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($2.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). The increase of GEM in Guiyang was mainly observed during cold season and daytime (Fig. 8), when the impact of regional emissions and long-range transport from central China played a more important role. The annual mean GEM concentration at Mt. Changbai, north-east China around 2014 was reported to be 1.73 ng m^{-3} , which was 0.17 ng m^{-3} higher than that observed around 2009 (Fu et al., 2012b). This corresponded to a mean annual increasing rate of $0.034 \text{ ng m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($2.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). These observations implied that the levels of GEM may undergo a slight increase in some regions of China. This as-

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ter were not well understood (Li et al., 2009; Ren et al., 2014). The emissions from these sections may be important contributors to the anthropogenic Hg emissions in China. Other potential mechanisms including natural emissions and conversion of Hg species and trace gases during long-range transport should be also evaluated to better constrain Hg emissions of China (Jaffe et al., 2005).

3.8 Long-range transport of atmospheric mercury

Most anthropogenic Hg emissions in China are related to domestic industrial and urban sources (Wang et al., 2014a). Strong Hg emissions in urban areas not only result in highly elevated GEM concentrations locally, but also impact the GEM levels in remote areas via long-range transport. Figure 8 shows the potential source regions of GEM at Mt. Waliguan, northwest China, Mt. Changbai, northeast China, Mt. Leigong, southwest China, and Mt. Damei, eastern China obtained by the Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF) analysis. The source regions of Mt. Waliguan were mainly related to industrialized and urbanized areas in northwest China which are 100–400 km to the east of the sampling site as well as northern India (Fu et al., 2012a). For Mt. Changbai, northern China where many megacities such as Beijing, Tianjin, and Shijiazhuang are located was identified as potential source regions (Fu et al., 2012b). The identified source regions of Mt. Changbai were more or less similar to that of Miyun, northern China (Zhang et al., 2013). The source regions of Mt. Leigong included a megalopolis in southwest China (including Chongqing, Guiyang, and Kunming, with a population of ~ 20 million), as well as the northern Myanmar, in which forest biomass burning released huge air pollutants to the atmosphere (Streets et al., 2003). The source regions of GEM at Mt. Damei were mainly central Anhui province and western Jiangshu province, both being important industrial region in eastern China (Yu et al., 2015). The identified source regions corresponded reasonably to the distributions of anthropogenic Hg sources in China and other Asian countries (Fig. 2). Long-range transport of atmospheric Hg from major anthropogenic Hg source regions in East Asia played an important role in the elevated GEM concentrations at remote sites in China. These

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- Outflows and inputs of atmospheric Hg from China into the Chinese marginal seas and the Pacific and its impacts on Hg concentrations in marine water and marine products need to be addressed.
- Using new methods such as Hg isotopes to trace the sources and processes of atmospheric Hg is required.

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Table 1. Atmospheric Hg concentrations at ground-based stations in China and other regions worldwide (PBM/TPM: * indicates TPM (total particulate bounded mercury) and the rest indicates PBM (fine (< 2.5 μm) particulate bounded mercury)).

Site	Location		Type	Study period	GEM (ng m ⁻³)	PBM/TPM (pg m ⁻³)	GOM (pg m ⁻³)	Reference	
	Lon	Lat (m.a.s.l.)							
Mt. Changbai	128.112° E	42.402° N	740	Remote	Oct 2008–Oct 2010 Jul 2013–Jul 2014	1.60 ± 0.51 1.73 ± 0.48	18.9 ± 15.6	5.7 ± 6.8	Fu et al. (2012b) Fu et al. (2014a)
Mt. Waiguan	100.898° E	36.287° N	3816	Remote	Sep 2007–Sep 2008	1.98 ± 0.98	19.4 ± 18.0	7.4 ± 4.8	Fu et al. (2012a)
Mt. Ailao	101.017° E	24.533° N	2450	Remote	May 2011–May 2012	2.09 ± 0.63	31.3 ± 28.0	2.2 ± 2.3	Zhang et al. (2015b)
Chengshantou	122.68° E	37.38° N	30	Remote	Jul and Oct 2007, Jan and Apr 2009	2.31 ± 0.74			Ci et al. (2011a)
Chongming Island	121.908° E	31.522° N	11	Remote	Sep–Dec 2009	2.50 ± 1.50			Dou et al. (2013)
Shangri-La	99.733° E	28.017° N	3580	Remote	Nov 2009–Oct 2010	2.55 ± 2.73	37.8 ± 31.0	7.9 ± 7.9	Zhang et al. (2015a)
Mt. Leigong	108.2° E	26.39° N	2178	Remote	May 2008–May 2009	2.80 ± 1.51			Fu et al. (2010b)
Wanqingsha	113.55° E	22.7° N	3	Remote	Nov–Dec 2009	2.94			Li et al. (2011)
Miyun	116.775° E	40.481° N	220	Remote	Dec 2008–Nov 2009	3.22 ± 1.94	98.2 ± 113	10.1 ± 18.8	Zhang et al. (2013)
Mt. Damei	121.565° E	29.632° N	550	Remote	Apr 2011–Apr 2013	3.31 ± 1.44	154 ± 104	6.3 ± 3.9	Yu et al. (2015)
Mt. Gongga	102.117° E	29.649° N	1640	Remote	May 2005–Jul 2007	3.98 ± 1.62	30.7 ± 32.0*	6.2 ± 3.9	Fu et al. (2008b, c)
Mt. Dinghu	112.549° E	23.164° N	700	Remote	Sep 2009–Apr 2010	5.07 ± 2.89			Chen et al. (2013)
Mt. Jiuxian	118.11° E	25.71° N	1700	Remote	Nov 2010, Jan, Apr and Aug 2011		24.0 ± 14.6		Xu et al. (2013)
Shanghai	121.54° E	31.23° N	19	Urban	Jul–Sep 2009	2.70 ± 1.70			Friedli et al. (2011)
Qingdao	120.5° E	36.16° N	40	Urban	Jul 2004–Apr 2006		560 ± 220*		Xiu et al. (2009)
Xiamen	118.05° E	24.60° N	7	Urban	Jan 2013	2.80 ± 0.90	245 ± 174*		Zhang et al. (2014)
Ningbo	121.544° E	29.867° N	10	Urban	Mar 2012–Feb 2013	3.50 ± 1.61	174 ± 280	61 ± 69	Xu et al. (2015)
Guangzhou	113.355° E	23.124° N	60	Urban	Oct 2007–Jan 2008	3.79 ± 1.29			Nguyen et al. (2011)
Jiaxing	120.7° E	30.833° N	10	Urban	Nov 2010–Oct 2011	4.60 ± 1.60			Chen et al. (2013)
Chongqing	106.5° E	29.6° N	350	Urban	Sep 2005	5.40 ± 4.10			Wang et al. (2007)
Nanjing	118.78° E	32.05° N	100	Urban	Aug 2006–Sep 2007	6.74 ± 0.37			Yang et al. (2009)
Guiyang	106.72° E	26.57° N	1040	Urban	Jan–Dec 2011	7.90 ± 7.00			Zhu et al. (2012)
Beijing	116.392° E	38.898° N	48	Urban	Jun 2011–Feb 2012		1100 ± 570*		Zhu et al. (2014)
Wuhan	114.3° E	30.6° N	20	Urban	Nov 2011–Nov 2002	8.40 ± 4.87			Feng et al. (2004)
Changchun	125.319° E	43.824° N	270	Urban	Dec 2009–Nov 2010	10.2 ± 7.06			Fu and Feng (2015)
Lanzhou	103.79° E	36.067° N	1540	Urban	Aug–Dec 2009	9.72 ± 10.2	368 ± 276	35.7 ± 43.9	Fu et al. (2011a)
				Urban	Feb and Sep 1998	10.4 ± 3.25			Liu et al. (2002)
				Urban	Jan–Dec 2003		1180 ± 820*		Wang et al. (2006b)
				Urban	–/2002	14.8			Xiang and Liu (2008)
				Urban	–/2001	18.4	276*		Fang et al. (2004)
				Urban	–/2004	28.6			Su et al. (2007)
				Urban	Apr, Jul, Oct and Dec 1994		955*		Duan and Yang (1995)
Southeast coastal cities				Urban	Nov 2010, Jan, Apr and Aug 2011		141 ± 128		Xu et al. (2013)
Suriname, South America	56.983° W	5.933° N		Remote	Mar–Jul 2007	1.40			Muller et al. (2012)
Cape point, South Africa	18.483° E	34.35° S	230	Remote	Jan–Dec 2009	0.87			Slemr et al. (2011)
Cape Grim, Australia	144.683° E	40.683° S		Remote	2011–2013	0.85–0.96			Slemr et al. (2014a)
North America				Urban		1.60–4.50	2.5–25.4	6.9–37.2	Peterson et al. (2009); Song et al. (2009); Engle et al. (2010); Liu et al. (2010); Brooks et al. (2010); Lan et al. (2012)
				Remote		1.32–1.66	1.6–13.7	0.5–5.6	Lan et al. (2012); Cole et al. (2013)
Europe				Urban		1.9–3.4	12.5	2.5	Dommergue et al. (2002); Li et al. (2008)
				Remote		1.40–1.93	3.0–32.2	9.1–26.5	Slemr and Scheel (1998); Lee et al. (1998); Munthe et al. (2003); Kock et al. (2005)
Antarctic				Remote		0.23–1.20	116–344	12–224	Dommergue et al. (2010)

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Table 2. GEM/CO ratios in air plumes originated from mainland China.

Source region	GEM/CO ratio (pg m^{-3} ppb^{-1})	Time	Receptor station	Reference
Eastern, Northern, and Northeast China	6.2 ($n = 13$)	Spring 2001	Flight over East Asia	Friedli et al. (2004); Pan et al. (2006)
Eastern China	6.5 ($n = 2$)	Summer 2004	Hedo station, Japan	Jaffe et al. (2005)
Eastern China	4.6 ± 1.3 ($n = 10$)	Apr 2004–Apr 2005	MBO, USA	Weiss-Penzias et al. (2007)
Eastern China	5.2 ± 4.3 ($n = 68$)	Feb 2005–Dec 2006	Seoul, Korea	Choi et al. (2009)
Southern China	5.0	Apr 2007	Mt. Lulin, Taiwan	Sheu et al. (2010)
Northern and Eastern China	11.4	Oct 2007	Mt. Lulin, Taiwan	
Eastern China	3.0	May 2006–May 2007	Jeju Island, Korea	Nguyen et al. (2010)
Northwest, Southwest, and Southern China	11.4	May 2005–Mar 2007	Flight over China	Slemr et al. (2009)
Northwest, Southwest, and Southern China	8.2 ($n = 101$)	May 2005–Jun 2013	Flight over China	Slemr et al. (2014b)
Northwest China	9.4 ± 3.5 ($n = 20$)	Oct 2007–Sep 2009	Mt. Waliguan, China	Fu et al. (2014b)
Southwest China	3.5 ± 2.6 ($n = 3$)	Jul–Oct 2010	Shangri-La, China	
Southwest China	6.1 ± 4.2 ($n = 15$)	Sep 2011–Mar 2013	Mt. Ailao, China	
Overall mean	6.7 ± 2.8			

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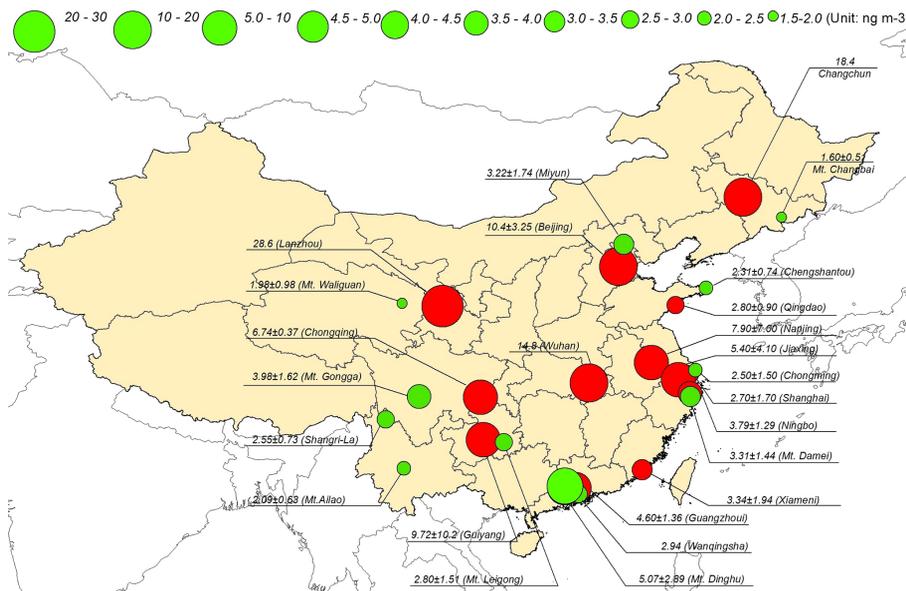


Figure 1. A map showing the locations and atmospheric GEM concentrations of the ground-based sites in mainland China (green and red circles indicate remote and urban sites, respectively, datasets were cited from literatures in Table 1).

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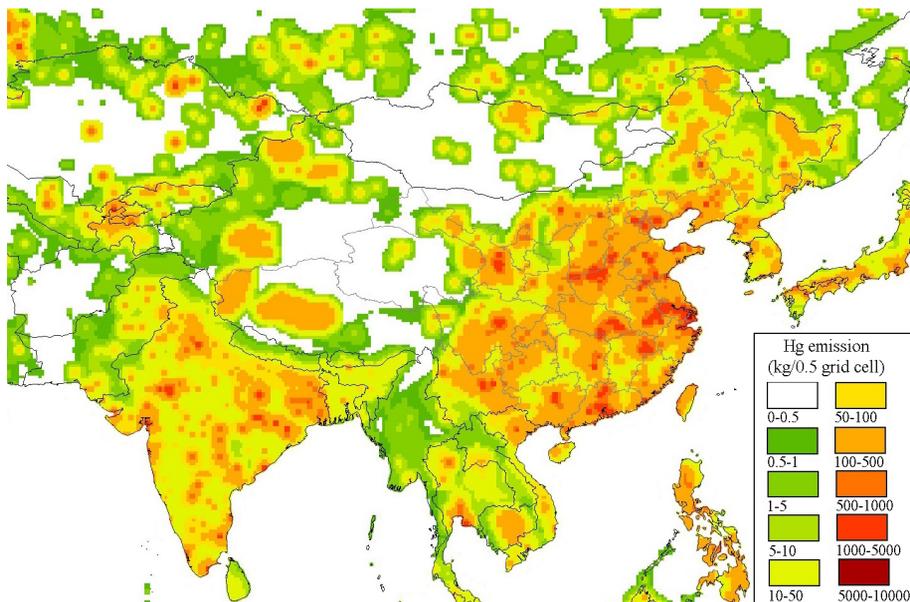


Figure 2. Anthropogenic total mercury emissions in East Asia (AMAP/UNEP, 2013).

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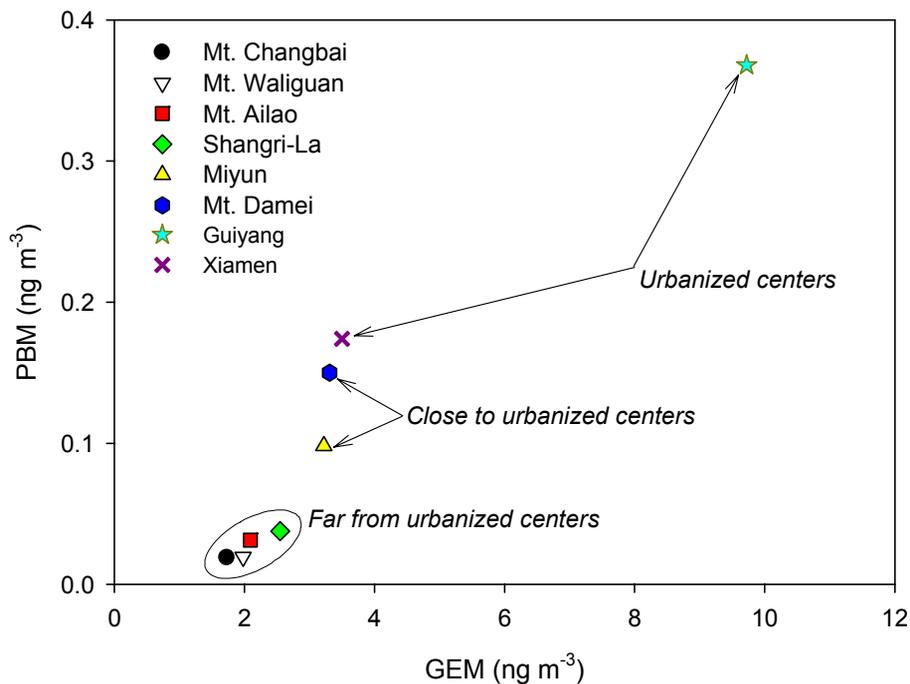


Figure 3. A correlation between atmospheric gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) and particulate bounded mercury (PBM, Hg-P_{2.5}) concentrations in remote and urban areas of China.

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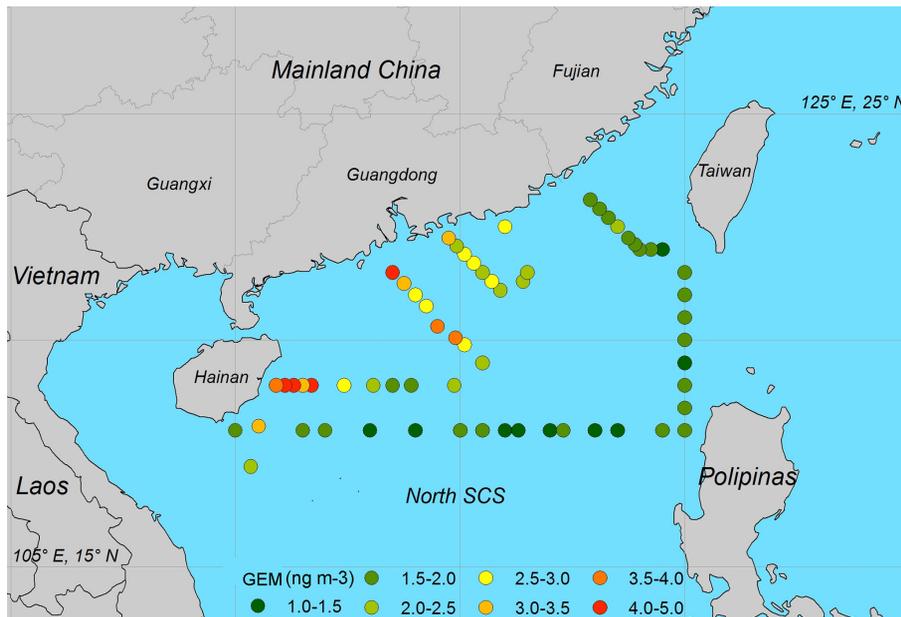


Figure 4. Spatial distribution of boundary layer GEM concentrations in the North South China Sea (Fu et al., 2010c).

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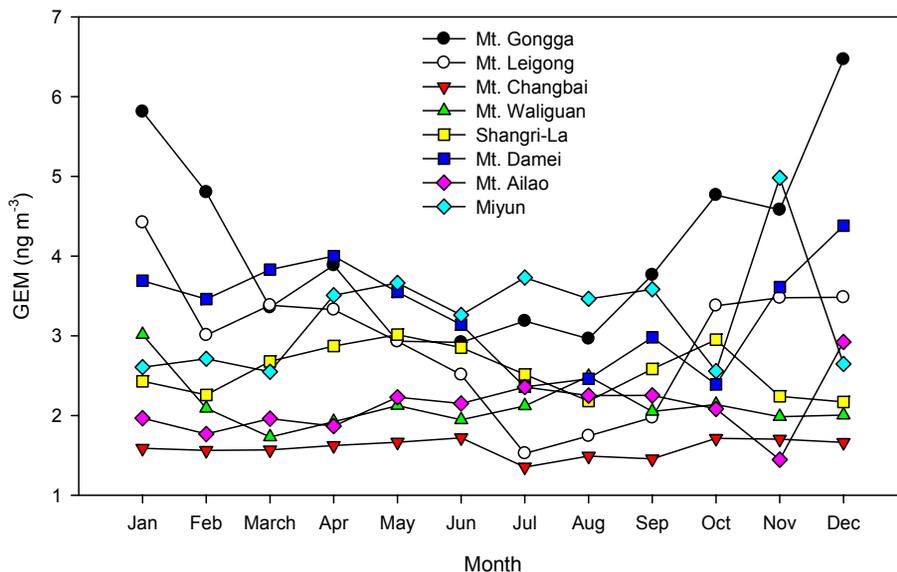


Figure 5. Monthly mean atmospheric gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) concentrations at remote sites of China.

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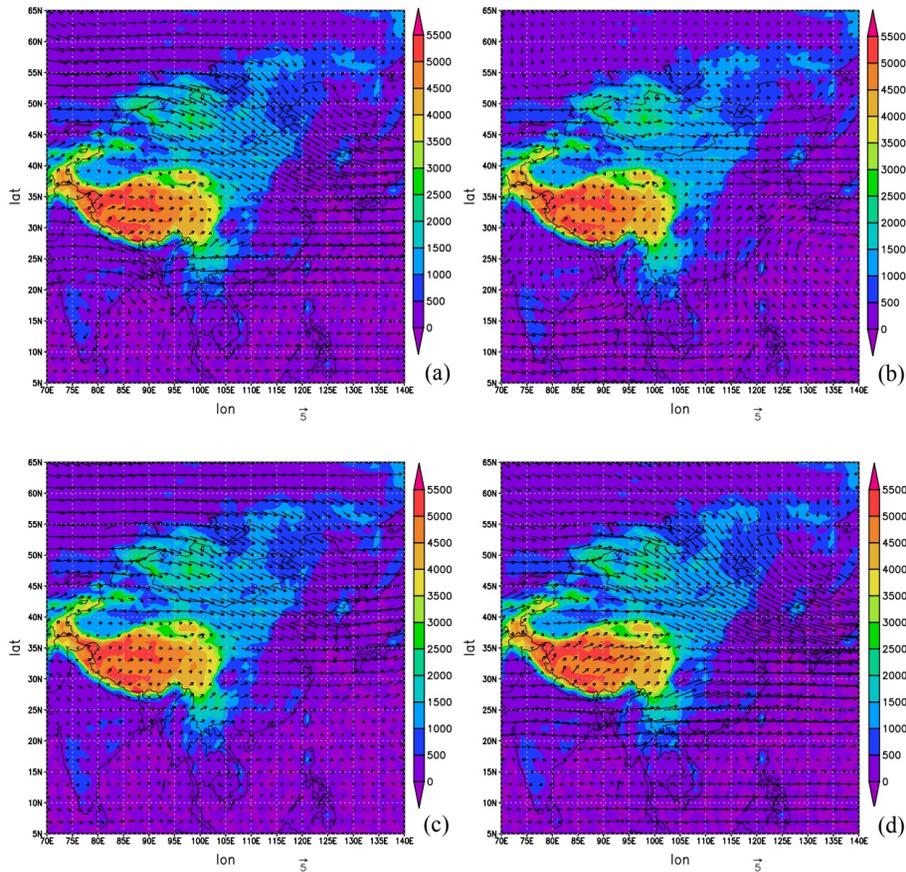


Figure 6. Wind field at 650 hPa level and Geopotential height during 2011–2013 in **(a)** spring, **(b)** summer, **(c)** autumn, and **(d)** winter. It was calculated using the Grid Analysis and Display System (GrADS) and gridded meteorological data ($1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$) from NCEP FNL (Final) Operational Global Analysis system.

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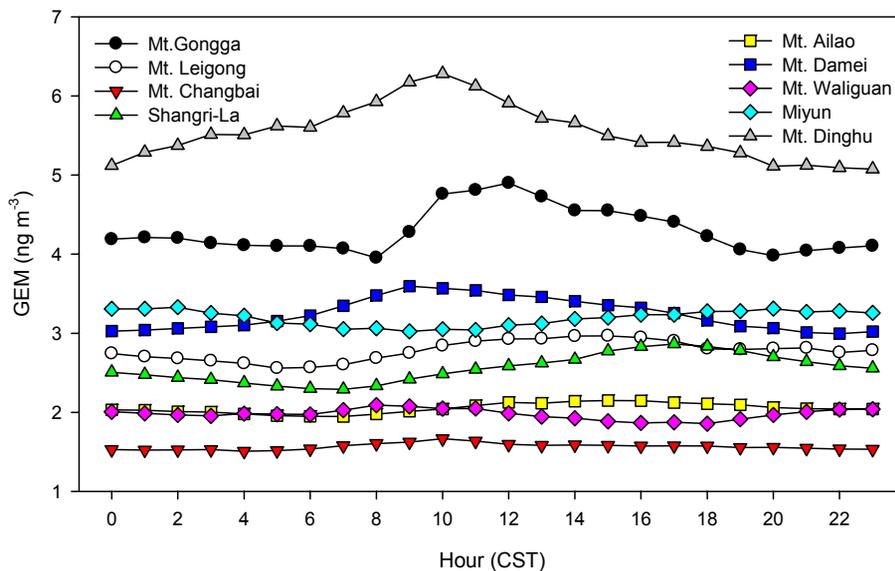


Figure 7. Diurnal trends of atmospheric gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) concentrations at remote sites of China.

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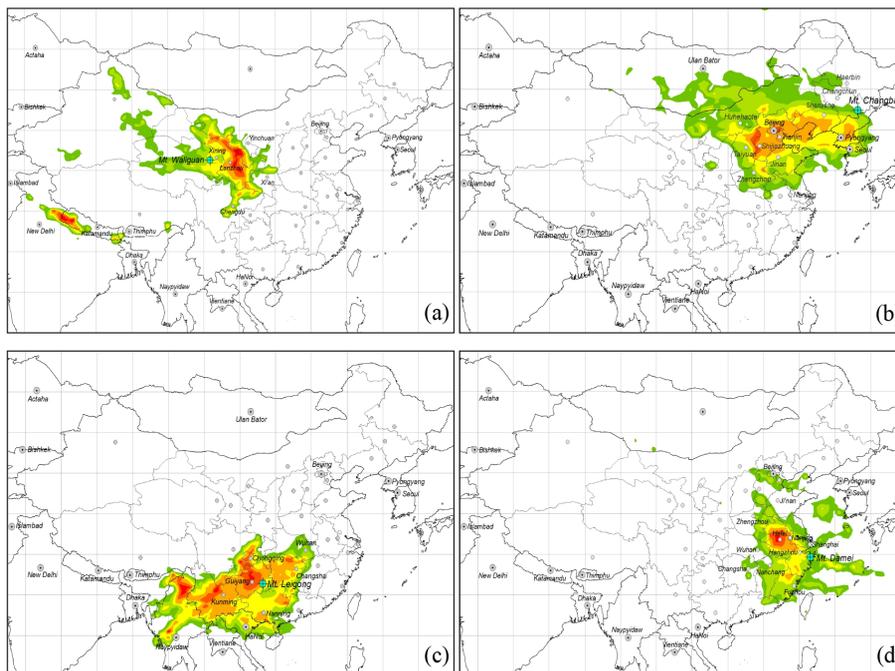


Figure 9. Potential source regions of atmospheric gaseous elemental mercury at **(a)** Mt. Waliguan, **(b)** Mt. Changbai, **(c)** Mt. Leigong, and **(d)** Mt. Damei (Fu et al., 2010b, 2012a, b; Yu et al., 2015).

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