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Mercury dynamics and mass balance in a subtropical forest, southwestern China

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7 Abstract: The mid-subtropical forest area in southwest China was affected by anthropogenic 8 mercury (Hg) emissions over the past three decades. We quantified mercury dynamics on the forest field and measured fluxes and pools of Hg in litterfall, throughfall, stream water and forest 9 soil in an evergreen broad-leaf forest field in southwestern China. Total Hg (THg) input by the 10 throughfall and litterfall were assessed at 32.2 and 42.9 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively, which were 11 12 remarkably higher than those observed from other forest fields in the background of North 13 America and Europe. Hg fluxes across the soil/air interface (18.6 mg m⁻² yr⁻¹) and runoff/stream flow (7.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹) were regarded as the dominant ways for THg export from the forest field. 14 15 The forest field hosts an enormous amount of atmospheric Hg, and its reserves is estimated to 16 $25341 \ \mu g \ m^2$. The ratio of output to input Hg fluxes (0.34) is higher comparing with other study 17 sites. The higher output/input ratio may represent an important ecological risk for the downstream 18 aquatic ecosystems, even if the forest field could be an effective sink of Hg.

19 Keywords: Mercury; flux; output/input ratio; deposition; subtropical forest

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27 1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg) can cause damage to the environment and human health due to its extreme toxicity. It is well established that gaseous Hg can travel a long distance in the atmosphere so that aquatic systems in remote regions can be impacted by Hg pollution through deposition from the atmosphere (Lindberg et al., 2002a, b; Feng et al., 2009a, b). As a consequence, atmospheric deposition is the principal form of total Hg (THg) input to aquatic systems in remote pristine regions. Although Hg emissions must be reduced to mitigate current Hg contamination in surface water and fish, the magnitude of that reduction is a critical policy debate.

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36 Forest ecosystem is generally regarded as an active pool of Hg. Hg transformation processes in the 37 forest is considered as a vital part of global Hg cycling (Ericksen et al., 2003; Sigler et al., 2009). Most of the Hg accumulated in canopy foliage comes from atmospheric sources, rather than root 38 uptake (Ericksen et al., 2003; Stamenkovic and Gustin, 2009). The forest canopy is a major 39 receptor of Hg in forested landscapes (St. Louis et al., 2001). The deposited Hg to the forest may 40 41 produce a certain ecological risk on the biogeochemical cycle of Hg in the forest watersheds. Hg 42 accumulated in the forest soil may be considered as a source of both total and methyl Hg (MeHg) 43 to aquatic ecosystems through runoff/stream flow. Moreover, Hg in the forest soil and 44 decomposed litterfall can transfer into MeHg, resulting in increased MeHg levels in downstream

wet areas. Thus the release of Hg compounds from the forest field can be considered as an initial 45 step of Hg mobilization in forested catchments, and seems to be of high importance for its 46 47 mobility.

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49 Biogeochemical mass balance studies quantifying Hg pools and fluxes in the forest ecosystem are 50 essential for assessing current rates of Hg inputs to, retention within, and release from terrestrial ecosystems. Major research initiatives have improved our understanding of current Hg pools and 51 52 fluxes (Grigal et al., 2000; Schwesig and Matzner, 2001), however, knowledge of the internal cycling dynamics controlling retention within and release from these ecosystems which are 53 54 located in the elevated Hg emitting regions is still limited (Demers et al., 2007). China's rapid 55 economic development is predicted to increase the emission of atmospheric Hg (Fu et al., 2008a, b). The coal burning leads to Hg pollution in industrial and urban areas, as well as remote areas 56 57 due to the long-range atmospheric transport of Hg (Feng and Qiu., 2008; Fu et al., 2009). In 58 this study, we conducted a full-scale investigation on the distribution of Hg in the throughfall, 59 litterfall and precipitation for a year. At the same time, we calculated the output and input of Hg during the study period. Thus, the objectives of this study were to: 1) evaluate the deposition and 60 61 output fluxes of Hg in the forest field and the accumulation of THg in a subtropical forest soil pool 62 of southwest China, 2) discuss Hg import and export characteristics via deposition and 63 runoff/stream flow in the study field, and 3) explore the main factors affecting Hg deposition, 64 retention within and output fluxes in the subtropical forest ecosystem.

65 2 Materials and methods

66 2.1 Site description

We conducted this research at Mt. Simian National Natural Reserve (106° 22' ~106° 25' E, 28° 67 35'~28° 39' N), which is situated about 200 km away from Chongqing city (Fig. 1). Chongqing is 68 the largest industrial city in southwest China, where combustion of coal accounted for more than 69 70 75% of the regional energy supplies in recent years. The study area has a subtropical monsoon 71 climate, with abundant rainfall every year. The mean annual temperature is 13.7 °C, with the 72 highest and lowest records in August (average: 31.5 °C) and January (averages: -5.5 °C) 73 respectively. The mean annual precipitation in the study area is 1,522.3 mm with a daily 74 maximum up to 160.5 mm (Lv et al, 2014). There are four seasons in Chongqing, spring (March 75 to May), summer (June to August), autumn (September to November), and winter (December to 76 February), with a well-defined wet/warm season from June to October. The study area is typical of 77 the region with hills of 1394 m and watersheds of about 100.1 km⁻². The evergreen broad-leaf 78 forest selected in our research is believed to be one of the most representative vegetation types 79 preserved in the study reserve due to the following reasons. First, it is one of the most complete 80 forest located in the place between Chongqing and Guizhou. Second, it is almost all subtropical 81 forest and until recent decades is one of Asia's least populated and most inaccessible areas. Third, it is the only largest and intact forest in the same latitude of the earth. Therefore, the evergreen 82 83 broad-leaf forest was selected as the representative forest of subtropical vegetation in this 84 research.

85 2.2 Sampling methods and analysis

86 2.2.1 Sampling method of throughfall and precipitation

87 The throughfall samples were obtained from the evergreen broad-leaf forest where Hg dynamics 88 have been investigated for one year, from March 2012 to February 2013. The precipitation

samples were collected by automatic precipitation samplers (APS-3A, Changsha XianglanScientific Instruments Co., Hunan, China), which were placed on the forest field of the sampling

- site. The throughfall was collected and measured using the same rain gauges (APS-3A, Ma et al.,
- 92 2015). Four rain gauges were randomly placed in each of the three 20×20 m² permanent
- 93 observation plots in each plantation, resulting in 12 throughfall sampling points for each plantation.
- 94 The containers were pre-washed with dilute (5%) HCl and thoroughly rinsed with deionized water
- after each sampling. Moreover, the throughfall and precipitation samples were collected after eachprecipitation event from each site during the sampling period.

97 The volume-weighted mean concentration (VWM) is obtained with the formula introduced in98 Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia, 2012:

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$$VWM = (X_1 \times V_1 + X_2 \times V_2 + \dots + X_t \times V_t) / (V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_t) = \sum (X_t \times V_t) / \sum V_t$$

where, X_t means the ion concentration in each precipitation event (ng L⁻¹), V_t means the volume of each rainfall (mm).

Hg flux was determined by multiplying Hg concentrations by the volume of precipitation
collected. Wet deposition fluxes of THg and MeHg were calculated according to the following
equation:

$$F_W = \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (C_R^i p^i)$$

where, F_w is the annual THg or MeHg wet deposition flux (mg m⁻² yr⁻¹), C_i is the VWM (ng L⁻¹) of each rain sample, and P_i (mm) is the precipitation or throughfall amount.

108 2.2.2 Sampling method of the stream

109 The stream/runoff was collected at the edge of the forest catchment. For the water yield of the 110 stream/runoff, it was monitored in the outlets of the forest catchment by the local hydrological departments. Stream water samples for analysis were collected in 7 sampling sites every two 111 weeks from March 2012 to February 2013. The 250 ml Teflon bottles were used to collect the 112 113 stream water samples. All Teflon bottles were cleaned with detergent, thoroughly rinsed with tap 114 water, boiled in a 30% HNO₃ solution (v/v) for 1.5 h, rinsed and filled with Milli-Q water. 115 Trace-metal grade HCl was immediately treated to the samples to acidify them. It should be noted 116 that the water samples were not filtered and thus represented the stream load of THg. The subtropical forest field in the study area is 100.1 km⁻². Annual water discharge of the study site is 117 118 1.86×10^8 m³ (hydrological departments of Jiangjin district). The annual precipitation (Table 1) of 119 the sampling site is slightly lower than the annual discharge. Therefore, it can be assumed that the 120 calculation has certain representativeness. Volume weighted concentrations were computed by the stream/runoff collected during the study period. The fluxes were achieved by multiplying the 121 122 average Hg concentration by the total amount of runoff during the study period.

123 2.2.3 Sampling method of litterfall and soil pool

The litter samples were collected by self-made litter collectors (0.5 m×0.5 m), which were made from treated lumber with a screen bottom. During the study period, the collectors were placed at four different sites within the study field. The litter collected was saved in brown paper bags and transported to the laboratory under 4°C, and then air-dried in clean environment in the laboratory until analysis. Soil samples were collected at five different sites in each field using polyvinyl chloride pipes (2.54 cm). Soil samples were obtained from 5 soil profiles. Three layers (O_i , O_e , and O_a horizons) were collected from each profile according to diagnostic horizons. The average thickness of the organic soil horizon (O horizon) was ~98 cm. The O_i and O_e combined were ~38 cm in thickness, and the O_a horizon was ~60 cm. THg in the O_i , O_e , and O_a horizons of the forest floor were based on two replicate soil cores from each of the five litter decomposition plots in each forest stand. After freeze-dried, the samples were preserved in acid-cleaned polypropylene containers at room temperature until further analysis. Litter and soil collections were done monthly from March 2012 to February 2013.

137 2.2.4 Hg volatilization from the forest field

138 A dynamic flux chamber (DFC) in series with Tekran 1110 synchronized dual-port sampling unit 139 and Tekran automated Hg analyzer (2537X) were used to measure the emission rates of Hg⁰ (Fu et 140 al., 2010). The special DFC method was described in detail at Ma et al. (2013). Hg emission 141 fluxes were calculated by the equation below (Ma et al., 2013):

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$$F = (C_{out} - C_{in}) \times Q/A$$

143 Where *F* is the flux (ng m² h⁻¹); C_{out} and C_{in} are Hg⁰ levels at the outlet and inlet of the Hg 144 analyzer (ng m³); *Q* is the flushing flow rate through the chamber (m³ h⁻¹); and *A* is the surface 145 area of the soil exposed in the chamber (m²).

Hg emission fluxes across the air/soil interface were monitored seasonally during eight intensive 146 field campaigns from spring 2012 to winter 2013 (Spring: March 4th-16th, May 8th -15th, 2012; 147 Summer: July 5th -12th, August 15th -22rd, 2012; Autumn: September 15th -22rd, October 20th -27th, 148 2012; Winter: December 24th -31st, 2012; February 6th -13th, 2013). Hg emission flux were 149 150 monitored at three sampling sites in the evergreen broadleaved forest of Mt. Simian. Hg emission 151 fluxes were measured continuously for 7 days for each sampling. Quality assurance was conducted by manually injected Hg to the ambient air and soil vapor of the Tekran analyzer before 152 and after data collection. At the beginning and end of each measurement date, the Hg fluxes over a 153 154 clean TeflonTM sheet in the field was measured and regarded as the chamber blanks. The chamber blanks in our research ranged from 0.48 to 0.64 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, with an average of 0.54 \pm 155 0.07 ng m⁻² h⁻¹ (n=12). No blank value was needed to be subtracted from the flux due to no 156 157 significant difference found.

158 2.3 Sample analysis and quality control

- 159 For THg and MeHg in water samples, the special method was described at Ma et al. (2015).
- 160 Detailed introduction of the measurement of THg and MeHg in soil and litter samples can also be
- found at Ma et al (2015). The detection limits of THg and MeHg in this research were 0.02 ng L^{-1}
- and 0.01 ng L^{-1} respectively. The dissolved total mercury (DHg), dissolved methylmercury
- 163 (DMeHg), particulate Hg (PHg) and particulate MeHg (PMeHg) were analyzed following the
- 164 EPA Method 1631 (US EPA, 1999). The method blank was lower than detection limits in all cases.
- And the equipment blanks for THg and MeHg were 0.04 ng L^{-1} and 0.02 ng L^{-1} , respectively. The
- 166 detection limits of Tekran 2537X was 0.1 ng L⁻¹ for GEM. The average relative standard deviation
- 167 for the duplicate analyses of THg and MeHg were 5.2% and 5.4%, respectively. Matrix spikes
- recoveries for THg and MeHg were both within acceptable range, 89% to 115% for THg, and 91%
- to 117% for MeHg. Precision was determined by relative standard deviations. For duplicate
- samples, the precision were 5% for THg in water samples, 9% for MeHg in water samples, 8% for
- 171 THg in soil samples, and 4.1% for THg in leaf tissues.
- 172 **3. Results and discussion**

173 **3.1** Hg concentrations and deposition fluxes in throughfall and litterfall

174 THg concentrations in the throughfall ranged from 3.2 to 62.5 ng L^{-1} for the individual samples,

- and the average level of throughfall was 24.1 \pm 7.9 ng L⁻¹. Canopy density did have an effect on THg and MeHg concentrations (the forest cover is more than 90% and the canopy density is 0.9). THg concentrations measured in the throughfall of the subtropical evergreen broad-leaved forest (24.1 \pm 7.9 ng L⁻¹) were significantly higher than those measured in the open field (10.9 \pm 3.1 ng L⁻¹). Similar to THg concentrations, MeHg concentrations in the throughfall were nearly 2.5 times higher than that in precipitation (*p*=0.004, n=49).
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182 THg concentrations in the throughfall were consistently at their highest in the cold season (Fig.1), which was probably due to the lower rainfall but elevated atmospheric Hg in this season. In the 183 184 subtropical region of China, the monsoon-driven climate of northwest China doesn't bring much precipitation in cold season. At the same time, atmospheric stability is high during the cold period, 185 and pollutants like atmospheric Hg do not spread easily, which contributes to the higher 186 187 scavenging ability of Hg in the atmosphere. While the warm season (from April to September) is influenced by the southeast monsoon, and the rainfall increases greatly, which leads to lower 188 189 concentration of Hg (Fig.1). The study station has obscure seasons and clear rainy and dry seasons. The deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall also showed the seasonal variation 190 191 characteristics, with higher fluxes appearing in wet-season (June to August). The deposition fluxes 192 of THg through throughfall in summer at Mt. Simian accounted more than 40% of total annual Hg 193 deposition. However, it is still in September and October that a higher throughfall flux is observed. 194 This may because that the rainfall in the two months is mainly effected by Indian Monsoon, 195 contributing to a higher rainfall (Fu et al., 2008a) comparing with other months. The minimum 196 values for THg deposition occurred in the cold season.

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During the surveillance, THg in the throughfall was evaluated to be 32.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹. The 198 deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall in Mt. Simian were lower than those investigated in 199 200 the southwestern cities of China, such as Guizhou and Chongqing (Precipitation: $8.4-62.1 \ \mu g \ m^{-2}$ 201 yr⁻¹, throughfall: 15.6–292.1 μg m⁻² yr⁻¹, Guo et al., 2008; Feng et al., 2009a,b; Wang et al., 2007). However, the deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall in Mt. Simian were approximately 202 2–10 times higher than those reported in remote areas of North America and Europe (Precipitation: 203 $3.1-10.0 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ yr^{-1}$, throughfall: $6.7-23.0 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ yr^{-1}$, St. Louis et al., 2001; Keeler et al., 2005). 204 205 Obviously, the THg fluxes at Mt. Simian were higher than other sites abroad. The reason perhaps 206 was that Mt. Simian had considerably more dense forest canopies. As one of the National Natural 207 Reserves of China, it has preserved the best subtropical evergreen broad-leaved forest of China. 208 The forest cover in the reserves reaches over 90%. The increased THg concentrations in 209 throughfall mainly resulted from the dry deposition of Hg on the vegetation, followed by the 210 washout of throughfall. Another possible reason for the elevated deposition fluxes, which may be 211 the most important one, probably related with the increased atmospheric Hg concentrations in the 212 past 30 years due to China's fast economic development. This area, especially Chongqing city, has a large demand for energy consumption, and about 70% of which is from coal combustion. The 213 annual mean gaseous elemental Hg (GEM) concentration in the middle of Chongqing city 214 215 (9.6-31.9 ng m³, Wang et al., 2006), more than 200 km away from the study site, tripled 216 comparing with global background level (Lindberg et al., 2002a, b), which corresponded to the 217 high annual deposition flux of Hg in the study area. It is also reported that the GEM concentration in the study area is as high as 3.8 \pm 1.5 ng m⁻³ (Ma et al., 2015), even if it is situated in a natural 218

subtropical forest reserve. The MeHg flux was 0.45 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, which was higher than those 219 measured in other areas. While MeHg/THg in the throughfall samples was 1.3 %, which was a 220 221 relatively high value compared with other studies (0.4%-0.8%, Lee et al., 2000; Demers et al., 222 2007; Choi et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2008a; Guo et al., 2008; Larssen et al., 2008). Here, the higher 223 ratio of MeHg to THg in throughfall samples may suggest that the contribution of MeHg from 224 throughfall cannot be ignored and should be taken care of in future studies. After all, 225 accumulation of MeHg in the soil might have caused serious risks in the functioning of natural 226 downstream ecosystems.

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228 The deposition fluxes of THg through litterfall are shown in Table 1. The average concentrations of THg and MeHg in leaf litter were 106.7 \pm 18.3 ng g⁻¹ (SE = 2.6, N=60) and 0.8 \pm 0.4 ng g⁻¹(SE = 229 0.2, N=60), respectively. The deposition flux of THg through litterfall was estimated to be 42.9 µg 230 m⁻² vr⁻¹ in the measurement field, which was remarkably higher than the input flux through 231 throughfall. It is also considerably higher than litterfall fluxes reported from other regions (St. 232 233 Louis et al., 2001; Demers et al., 2007). GEM can be absorbed by stomata and detained in the leaf 234 tissue (Ericksen et al., 2003; Fu et al., 2008a, b). Therefore, we believed that the elevated litterfall 235 input fluxes directly related to the increased GEM concentrations, even in remote areas.

236 **3.2** Mercury emission from soils under the canopy

The emission characteristics and air-surface exchange of GEM from the subtropical forest field 237 238 have been investigated during eight intensive field campaigns from 2012 to 2013. At the forest 239 field, GEM released from soils had the characteristic of obvious diurnal and seasonal variations. 240 Day and night GEM fluxes were statistically different (t-test, p < 0.001), with nighttime emissions 241 considerably lower than that in daytime in all seasons (Fig.2). Average fluxes of Hg in spring, summer, autumn and winter were 12.2 ± 5.1 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, 14.2 ± 4.7 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, 9.9 ± 2.5 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, 242 243 and 3.1 \pm 1.1 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, respectively. It can be seen that the highest value occurred in summer, followed by spring and fall, while the lowest value was observed in winter. The average fluxes of 244 245 Hg in spring $(12.2 \pm 5.1 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1})$ were slightly lower than that in summer $(14.2 \pm 4.7 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1})$ h^{-1}), which was different from other studies (Larssen et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2010). It appeared that 246 247 warm temperature with low canopy density in spring at the mid subtropical forest were more 248 likely to release GEM. Perhaps the primary reason lies that the forest canopies are lushly and well spaced in spring, and thus the forest can receive more sunlight. Therefore, the reduction rate of 249 Hg²⁺ by photochemical, thermal and biogenic processes probably increased. 250

251 This research indicated that Hg fluxes of forest field were far lower than those observed from 252 contaminated areas such as heavily air-polluted areas in eastern Guizhou (33-3638 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Wang et al., 2007), some cities in southwest China (15.0–44.4 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Qiu et al., 2006), dry 253 254 landfills (46.5–22.8 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Zhu et al., 2010) and wetlands (20–500 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Lindberg et 255 al., 2002b). But the emission of GEM elevated in comparison with those reported from other 256 places (-5.4-4.2 ng m³, Lindberg et al., 2002a, b; 1.7-8.4 ng m³, Travnikov, 2005). At Mt. Simian, the estimated net GEM fluxes were released from soils during the warm season and slightly 257 volatilized during the cold season. Hg deposition was only observed in several nights of the cold 258 259 season during the study period. Hg released from the snow/air interface was extremely low comparing with the soil/air interface. It was supposed that the Hg⁰ flux was zero from 260 261 snow-covered surface (Huang et al., 2012). At most subtropical areas, especially mid-subtropical 262 forests, however, there were short winter seasons with unstable snow cover, and the snow cover season only tended to occur in January. So we assumed that there still existed Hg⁰ emission in December and February in winter. Therefore, the annual total net Hg emission flux was 18.6 mg m^{-2} yr⁻¹.

266 3.3 Hg concentrations and out-flux in stream water

267 Annual volume-weighted concentrations of THg and MeHg were measured at the outlet stream of 268 the forest field of Mt. Simian. The mean concentrations of THg and MeHg in the outflow stream were 3.9 ± 2.0 and 0.2 ± 0.08 ng L⁻¹, respectively. THg and MeHg concentrations in stream water 269 270 draining the upland in our research were slightly higher than those reported in literature (Fu et al., 2008a, b; Larssen et al., 2008). THg concentrations in runoff/stream water in rainy seasons 271 272 $(4.6\pm2.0 \text{ ng } \text{L}^{-1})$ were significantly higher than those in dry seasons $(3.3\pm1.8 \text{ ng } \text{L}^{-1})$, which can probably be attributed to the soil erosion and runoff (Ma et al., 2015). It is known that if a remote 273 274 forest field does not have other obvious Hg pollution sources, Hg concentrations in the 275 runoff/stream water can represent risks from a solitary watershed. Numerous studies showed that 276 the catchments of remote forest were regarded as filters between atmosphere and hydrosphere 277 (Lee et al., 2000; Larssen et al., 2008; Ericksen et al., 2003). The fate of Hg stored in the forest 278 soils can be divided into three parts. One part of them transfers through food webs, threatening the 279 balance of forest ecosystems; the second part of them is released into the atmosphere again; the 280 third part of them probably transfers with the runoff/stream, becoming one of the Hg sources of downstream aquatic ecosystem. Therefore, to a certain extent, the role of forested catchments as 281 282 Hg filters can be characterized by Hg output (runoff/stream) from the forest field.

283 This study showed that, even though Hg deposition fluxes in throughfall was high, THg concentration in stream/runoff was lower than that in contaminated sites under the same 284 geological background. This indicated that subtropical forest field had the filtering effect of Hg in 285 precipitation and throughfall. On the other hand, the lower concentration in stream/runoff 286 287 indicated that the study area did not suffer from severe anthropogenic Hg pollution. Steam output 288 of THg was calculated by multiplying the average THg concentration in stream water (3.9 ±2.03 289 ng L^{-1}) by the water discharge rate in the forest field of the study site (annual water discharge: 290 1.86×10⁸ m³, from hydrological departments of Jiangjin district). The export flux of THg via runoff/stream was 0.73 kg yr⁻¹. The subtropical forest field in the study area is 100.1 km⁻². So the 291 export flux of THg through stream water was 7.23 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, which tripled the values reported 292 in the catchments of Sweden (1.6–1.8 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, Lee et al., 2000; 2.4 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, Larssen et al., 293 2008). Our results indicated that the output fluxes of MeHg via stream water were 0.08 μ g m⁻² 294 yr⁻¹, which was similar to or slightly larger than other results (0.03–0.07 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, Lee et al., 295 2000; 0.05 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, Schwesig and Matzner, 2001). As we mentioned above that Mt. Simian 296 was one of the most complete forest and until recent decades was one of Asia's 297 298 least populated and most inaccessible areas. Average Hg concentration in the soil detected in 299 previous research was 0.28 mg kg⁻¹ (Ma et al., 2013), which indicated that it was not an obvious 300 geological Hg hotspot. Therefore, the elevated Hg fluxes in stream water were probably attributed to the great atmospheric Hg depositions. At the same time, our preliminary research results also 301 illustrated that forest runoff and soil erosion could increase Hg output from subtropical forest 302 303 catchments (Ma et al., 2013). But the total output fluxes of THg and MeHg were far lower than the input fluxes via wet deposition (32.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹ for THg and 0.5 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹ for MeHg). This 304 study showed that the subtropical forest was able to exert purification effect of filtration, even 305 306 under the condition of elevated deposition of Hg.

307 3.4. Dynamics and transport of Hg based on forest field

THg content in the forest field (forest floor and soil profiles) of Mt. Simian was shown in Table 2. 308 The THg stocked in the forest soil was approximately 20192 μ g m⁻² (average soil depth is 98 cm), 309 while that in the organic floor was 5148 μ g m⁻² (average litter depth is 19 cm). THg content in soil 310 311 profile were three times more than the organic horizon in the subtropical forest field. The active 312 pool (the upper 22 cm, O_i) of THg represented 41 % of the total storage of the study area. In the 313 soil profile, THg content in the organic horizon (O_i) is obviously higher than those in the other 314 horizons. At the same time, the organic matter is well decomposed under warm and rainy subtropical climate, has 315 which high affinity to Hg in soil. 316 Due to the good adsorption and reduction of organic matter, the organically bound contents of Hg could be released into the environment again during the decomposition of organic matter. 317

318 The ultimate fate of Hg in the terrestrial ecosystem may depend upon its delivery and 319 incorporation into the forest floor. And the average Hg fluxes were also estimated. Input of THg to the forest field of Mt. Simian included net throughfall and litterfall depositions (St. Louis et al., 320 2001; Fu et al., 2010). Annual throughfall and litterfall deposition fluxes of THg in Mt. Simian 321 were 32.2 and 42.9 mg m⁻² y⁻¹, respectively (Fig.3). Litterfall deposition inputs were estimated to 322 323 134% of the throughfall deposition at the forest field. In the study forest field, the predominant 324 pathway of Hg fluxes to the forest floor was via ltterfall (57.1%). A majority of atmospherically 325 deposited THg was released through Hg⁰ at a rate of 18.6 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹. Steam outflow of THg from the wetland was 7.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹. The ratio between output and input of THg was 0.34 at the 326 subtropical forest field of Mt. Simian, which was significantly higher than others (0.02-0.04, Lee 327 et al., 2000; 0.16, Larssen et al., 2008; 0.30, Fu et al., 2010). The apparently higher ratio between 328 329 the output/input fluxes of THg may represent an important ecological risk.

The THg stored in the forest field was 982 times larger than the annual THg output by 330 331 stream/runoff outflow and soil volatilization, and 338 times larger than the input estimated from wet and dry depositions (Fig.3). The estimates of the deposition flux of THg in this study were 332 333 much higher than values reported from the northeastern American (3.8–12.6 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹; Driscoll et al., 2007) and Norway (7 µg m² yr⁻¹; Larssen et al., 2008), probably indicating a significant 334 impact of heavy regional Hg emissions from industry and urban on local Hg deposition. The 335 reason perhaps was that highly soluble Hg²⁺ was easily stripped from the atmosphere and 336 deposited locally. Higher wet deposition can illustrate the remarkable influence of local Hg 337 338 emissions on Hg accumulation in the regional forest field. The THg flux through litterfall was 1.5 339 times larger than that through through fall due to greater input of litter mass and higher Hg concentrations in the litter. Annual exports of THg in stream water of the study area (3.2-9.5 µg 340 $m^{-2}yr^{-1}$) were not accorded with those reported from northern forest catchments (1.0–3.4 µg m⁻² 341 342 yr^{-1} ; St. Louis et al., 2001; Grigal et al., 2000). An amount of the atmospherically deposited THg 343 was lost via emissions at a rate of 18.6 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹. Compared with stream outflow, the evasion of 344 Hg from forest soil played a more essential role in THg outputs.

Compared the ratios of output to input flux with other places (Larrsen et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2010), the higher ratio may be greatly affected by the elevated deposition. Therefore, regional emission of Hg may have stronger influence on forest ecosystems, in which the deposition of THg through litterfall and throughfall, being affected more by local and regional changes of Hg emissions and cycling, were the main paths for Hg entering into soil surface (Demers et al., 2007). However, in this study, the outflow of Hg via runoff output and the soil-air interface accounted for a small

fraction of Hg budget in the study area. And the accumulation pattern of Hg in forest floor and soil 351 profiles was seasonal. As we mentioned above that Mt. Simian was one of the most typical 352 subtropical forest systems and the least accessed area, average Hg concentrations in all soil 353 surfaces of this area were below 0.30 mg kg⁻¹(Fu et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2013). Therefore, the 354 355 accumulation of Hg in soil would be enhanced with time. At the same time, the ultimate fate of 356 deposited Hg depends upon the biogeochemical processes that have not been well quantified within the ecosystem. Hg dynamics during litter decomposition, for instance, need to be 357 358 considered as a whole so that we can better understand controls on long-term accumulation of Hg 359 in the forest ecosystem and its delayed release to surface water.

360 **4.** Conclusions

- 361 In this study, the mass balance and transport of Hg in southwestern China were first measured at a subtropical forest, Chongqing, China. Results revealed that litterfall deposition inputs were the 362 363 predominant pathway (42.9 mg m⁻² y⁻¹, account for 57.1%) of Hg flux to the forest floor. Annual deposition fluxes of Hg through through fall were 32.2 m⁻² y⁻¹, accounting for 42.9% of the Hg 364 365 inputs. Researchers should pay more attention to the higher ratio of MeHg to THg in the throughfall deposition when they model the biogeochemical cycling in a typical local forest 366 367 watershed. For the output process, the exchange of Hg (18.6 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹) across the forest field-air 368 interface was an essential part of the biogeochemical cycle of Hg. The runoff/steam outflow of THg from the wetland was 7.2 mg m⁻² yr⁻¹, which was lower than that in contaminated sites under 369 the same geological background. Therefore, we may conclude that: 1) the study area does not 370 371 suffer from severe anthropogenic Hg pollution; 2) the forested field has the filtering effect of Hg in precipitation and throughfall, even in the elevated atmospheric Hg area. 372
- The forest field (forest floor and soil profiles) plays an important role in the cycling of THg and MeHg. In reality, it is just another problem created by the accumulation of Hg, which would be a potential risk affecting the output of Hg in the long term. Terrestrial ecosystems that have accumulated more Hg may ultimately emit them to the wetlands and surface water, finally affecting the entire aquatic ecosystems. Therefore, it is a signal that we should not ignore. In this case, however, any changes in the forest floor like deforestation or forestland degradation may strongly affect Hg budget of the region.

380 Data availability

381 Data in this research is available from the email of Professor D.Y. Wang,382 dywang@swu.edu.cn.

383 Author contribution

Ma M, Sun T, Du H and Zhao Z collected the litterfall, throughfall, stream water and forest soil samples. Wang Y measured the concentrations of THg and MeHg from all samples. Sun T made the analysis of Hg volatilization from forest field. Ma M wrote the main manuscript text and drew all the figures, with contributions from all co-authors. Wang D, Wei S and Ma M designed the research. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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Tables

Table 1 Mean values of THg and MeHg concentrations and deposition fluxes in throughfall and litterfall

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		THg Concentr	ration (ng L ⁻¹)		MeHg Concentration (ng L ⁻¹)			
		THg	DHg	PHg	MeHg	DMeHg	PMeHg	
	Precipitation	10.94±3.1	4.43±2.2	6.52±2.9	0.24±0.34	0.11±0.04	0.13±0.10	
	Throughfall	24.04 ±7.9	6.68 ±4.2	16.35±5.7	0.33 ±0.24	0.25 ±0.12	0.31 ±0.14	
	X 1 C 11	THg Concentration (ng g ⁻¹) 106.7±18.3 THg (μg m ⁻² yr ⁻¹) 15.45 32.17			MeHg Concentration (ng g ⁻¹)			
	Litterfall				0.79 <u>±</u> 0.36			
	Annual deposition flux				MeHg (μg m ⁻² yr- ¹) 0.36 0.45			
	Precipitation (1508mm)							
	Throughfall (1336mm)							
	Litterfall (402g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)		42.89			0.3	32	
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3	Table 2 The co	oncentrations	in forest floor and different soil layers					

		THg (ng g ⁻¹)	Density (g cm ⁻³)	Thickness (m)	THg content(µg m ⁻²)	Total contents
	Initial leaf litter	46.30±14.2	0.28±6.2	0.06±0.02	774.8	
Forest floor	Half decomposition	51.22±9.4	0.49±18.1	0.08±0.03	2000.8	5148.7
	decomposition	57.88±10.3	0.82±9.9	0.05 ±0.02	2373.1	
	O_i	297.8±15.2	1.27±2.1	0.22±0.10	8320.5	
Soil profile	O_e	117.4±32.3	1.65±16.2	0.34±0.08	6586.1	20192.6
	O_a	68.4±13.6	1.84±20.7	0.42±0.06	5286.0	

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Fig. 1. Volume-weighted mean concentrations of THg and MeHg and deposition fluxes of throughfall in the evergreen broad-leaf forest from March 2012 to February 2013



Fig. 2. Soil emission fluxes of Hg and air temperature in the evergreen broad-leaf forest field.
Spring: March 4th-16th, May 8th -15th, 2012; Summer: July 5th -12th, August 15th -22rd, 2012;
Autumn: September 15th -22rd, October 20th -27th, 2012; Winter: December 24th -31st, 2012;
February 6th -13th, 2013.



Fig.3. Annual ecosystem Hg fluxes and pools in the evergreen broad-leaf forest field. Fluxes (μg m⁻² yr⁻¹) were represented by arrows, while pools (μg m²) by boxes.

1	Mercury dynamics and mass balance in a subtropical forest, southwestern China
2	
3	Ma Ming ^a , Wang Dingyong ^{a,b,*} , Du Hongxia ^a , Sun Tao ^a , Zhao Zheng ^a , Wang Yongmin ^a , Wei Shiqiang ^a
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6	
7	Abstract: The mid-subtropical forest area in southwest China was affected by anthropogenic
8	mercury (Hg) emissions over the past three decades. We quantified mercury dynamics on the
9	forest field and measured fluxes and pools of Hg in litterfall, throughfall, stream water and forest
10	soil in an evergreen broad-leaf forest field in southwestern China. Total Hg (THg) input by the
11	throughfall and litterfall were assessed at 32.2 and 42.9 $\mu g\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1},$ respectively, which were
12	remarkably obviously higher than those formerly observed from other forest fields in the
13	background of North America and Europe. Hg fluxes across the soil/air interface (18.6 mg m^{-2}
14	yr^1) and runoff/stream flow (7.2 $\mu g~m^{-2}~yr^{-1})$ were regarded as the dominant ways for THg export
15	from the forest field. The forest field hosts an enormous amount of atmospheric Hg, and its
16	reserves were is estimated to 25341 μ g m ² . The ratio of output to input Hg fluxes (0.34) is higher
17	comparing with other study sites. The higher output/input ratio may represent an important
18	ecological risk for the downstream aquatic ecosystems, even if the forest field could be an
19	effective sink of Hg.

20 Keywords: Mercury; flux; output/input ratio; deposition; subtropical forest

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- 28 1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg) can cause damage to the environment and human health due to its extreme toxicity. 29

30 It is well established that gaseous HgHg as a gas phase can travel a long distance in the 31 atmosphere so that aquatic systems in remote regions can be impacted by Hg pollution through

32 deposition from the atmosphere (Lindberg et al., 2002a,b; Feng et al., 2009a,b). As a consequence,

33 atmospheric deposition is the principal form of total Hg (THg) input to aquatic systems in remote

34 pristine regions. Although Hg emissions must be reduced to mitigate current Hg contamination in

35 surface water and fishes, the magnitude of that reduction is a critical policy debate.

36

37 Forest ecosystem is generally regarded as an active pool of Hg. Hg transformation processes in the 38 forest is considered as a vital part of global Hg cycling and possible climate changes (Ericksen et 39 al., 2003; Sigler et al., 2009). Most of the Hg accumulated in canopy foliage comes from

40 atmospheric sources, rather than root uptake (Ericksen et al., 2003; Stamenkovic and Gustin,

41 2009). The forest canopy is a major receptor of Hg in forested landscapes (St. Louis et al., 2001).

42 The deposited Hg to the forest may produce a certain ecological risk on the biogeochemical cycle

43 of Hg in the forest watersheds. Hg accumulated in the forest soil may be considered as a source of

both total and methyl Hg (MeHg) to aquatic ecosystems through runoff/stream flow. Moreover, 44

Hg in the forest soil and decomposed litterfall can transfer into MeHg, resulting in increased 45 46 MeHg levels in downstream wet areas. Thus the release of Hg compounds from the forest field 47

48 high importance for its mobility.

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can be considered as an initial step of Hg mobilization in forested catchments, and seems to be of

- 50 Biogeochemical mass balance studies quantifying Hg pools and fluxes in the whole-forest 51 ecosystem are essential for assessing current rates of Hg inputs to, retention within, and release 52 from terrestrial ecosystems. Major research initiatives have improved our understanding of current 53 Hg pools and fluxes (Grigal et al., 2000; Schwesig and Matzner, 2001;), however, knowledge of 54 the internal cycling dynamics controlling retention within and release from these ecosystems 55 which are located in the elevated Hg emitting regions is still limited (Demers et al., 2007). 56 China's rapid economic development is predicted to increase the emission of atmospheric Hg (Fu 57 et al., 2008a, b). The coal burning leads to Hg pollution in industrial and urban areas, as well as 58 remote areas due to the long-range atmospheric transport of Hg (Feng and Qiu., 2008; Fu et al., 59 2009). In this study, we conducted a full-scale investigation on the distribution of Hg in the 60 throughfall, litterfall and precipitation for a whole year. At the same time, we calculated the output and input of Hg during the study period. Thus, the objectives of this study were to: 1) evaluate the 61 62 deposition and output fluxes of Hg in the forest field and the accumulation of THg in a subtropical 63 forest soil pool of southwest China, 2) discuss Hg import and export characteristics via deposition 64 and runoff/stream flow in the study field, and 3) explore the main factors affecting Hg deposition,
- 65 retention within and output fluxes in the subtropical forest ecosystem.

2 Materials and methods 66

67 2.1 Site description

68 We conducted this research at Mt. Simian National Natural Reserve (106° 22' ~106° 25' E, 28° 69 35'~28° 39' N), which is situated about 200 km away from Chongqing city (Fig. 1). Chongqing is 70 the largest industrial city in southwest China, where combustion of coal accounted for more than 71 75% of the regional energy supplies in recent years. The study area has a subtropical monsoon 72 climate, which means that this area has with abundant rainfall every year. The mean annual

temperature is 13.7 °C, with the highest and lowest records in August (average: 31.5 °C) and 73 74 January (averages: -5.5 °C) respectively. The mean annual precipitation in the study area is

75 1,522.3 mm with a daily maximum up to 160.5 mm (Lv et al, 2014). There are four seasons in

76 Chongqing, spring (March to May), summer (June to August), autumn (September to November),

77 and winter (December to February), with a well-defined wet/warm season from June to October.

78 The study area is typical of the region with hills of 1394 m and watersheds of about 100.1 km⁻².

79 The evergreen broad-leaf forest selected in our research is believed to be one of the most

80 representative vegetation types preserved in the study reserve due to the following reasons. First, it

81 is one of the most complete forest located in the place between Chongqing and Guizhou. Second,

82 it is almost all subtropical forest and until recent decades is one of Asia's least populated and most

83 inaccessible areas. Third, it is the only largest and intact forest in the same latitude of the earth.-

84 And it is also the only largest and intact forest in the same latitude of the earth. Therefore, the 85 evergreen broad-leaf forest was selected as the representative forest of subtropical vegetation in

86 this research.

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89 2.2 Sampling methods and analysis

90 2.2.1 Sampling method of throughfall and precipitation

The throughfall samples were obtained from the evergreen broad-leaf forest where Hg dynamics 91 92 have been investigated for one whole year, from March 2012 to February 2013. The precipitation 93 samples were collected by self-made-automatic precipitation samplers (APS-3A, Changsha 94 Xianglan Scientific Instruments Co., Hunan, China), which were placed on the forest field of the 95 sampling site. The throughfall was collected and measured using the same rain gauges (APS-3A, 96 Ma et al., 2015). Four rain gauges were randomly placed in each of the three 20×20 m² 97 permanent observation plots in each plantation, resulting in 12 throughfall sampling points for 98 each plantation. The containers were pre-washed with dilute (5%) HCl and thoroughly rinsed with 99 deionized water after each sampling. Moreover, the through<u>fall</u> and precipitation samples were

100 collected after each precipitation event from each site during the whole-sampling period.

101 <u>The volume-weighted mean concentration (VWM) is obtained with the formula introduced in</u>
 102 <u>Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia, 2012:</u>

 $\underline{\text{VWM}} = (X_1 \times V_1 + X_2 \times V_2 + \dots + X_t \times V_t) / (V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_t) = \sum (X_t \times V_t) / \sum V_t$

104 where, X_t means the ion concentration in each precipitation event (ng L⁻¹), V_t means the volume of 105 each rainfall (mm).

106 Hg flux was determined by multiplying Hg concentrations by the volume of precipitation

collected. Wet deposition fluxes of THg and MeHg were calculated according to the following
 equation:

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$$F_W = \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (C_R^i p^i)$$

110 where, F_{w} is the annual THg or MeHg wet deposition flux (mg m⁻² yr⁻¹), C_{i} is the VWM (ng L⁻¹) of

111 each rain sample, and *P_i* (mm) is the precipitation or throughfall amount.

112 2.2.2 Sampling method of the stream

113 The stream/runoff was carried outollected at the edge of the forest catchment. For the water 114 yield of the stream/runoff, it was monitored in the outlets of the forest catchment The measured 115 data of the stream/runoff for calculating flow rate were collected by the local hydrological 116 departments-in the outlets. Stream water samples for analysis were collected in 7 sampling sites every two weeks from March 2012 to February 2013. The 250 ml Teflon bottles were used to 117 118 collect the stream water samples. All Teflon bottles were cleaned with detergent, thoroughly rinsed with tap water, boiled in a 30% HNO3 solution (v/v) for 1.5 h, rinsed and filled with 119 120 Milli-Q water. The bottles were rinsed by the water samples for three times before collection. 121 Trace-metal grade HCl was immediately treated to the samples to acidify them. It should be noted 122 that the water samples were not filtered and thus represented the stream load of THg. The 123 subtropical forest field in the study area is 100.1 km⁻². Annual water discharge of the study site is 124 1.86×108 m3 (hydrological departments of Jiangjin district). The annual precipitation (Table 1) of 125 the sampling site is slightly lower than the annual discharge. The annual precipitation of the 126 sampling site is slightly lower than the annual discharge. Therefore, it can be assumed that the 127 calculation has a certain representativeness. Volume weighted concentrations were computed by 128 the stream/runoff collected during the whole-study period. The fluxes were achieved by 129 multiplying the average Hg concentration by the total amount of runoff during the whole 130 yearstudy period. The robustness of the approach for THg and MeHg was 5 % and 9 %

131 respectively.

132 2.2.3 Sampling method of litterfall and soil pool

133 The litter samples were collected by self-made litter collectors ($0.5 \text{ m} \times 0.5 \text{ m} \frac{0.25 \text{ m}^2}{2}$), which were 134 made from treated lumber with a screen bottom. During the study period, the collectors were 135 placed at four different sites within the study field. The litter collected was saved in brown paper 136 bags and transported to the laboratory under 4°C, and then air-dried in clean environment in the 137 laboratory until analysis. Soil samples were collected at five different sites in each field using 138 polyvinyl chloride pipes (2.54 cm). Soil samples were obtained from 5 soil profiles. Three layers 139 $(O_i, O_{e_s} \text{ and } O_a \text{ horizons})$ were collected from each profile according to diagnostic horizons. The 140 average thickness of the organic soil horizon (O horizon) was ~98 cm. The O_i and O_e combined 141 were ~38 cm in thickness, and the Oa horizon was ~60 cm. THg in the Oi, Oe, and Oa horizons of 142 the forest floor were based on two replicate soil cores from each of the five litter decomposition 143 plots in each forest stand. After freeze-dried, the samples were preserved in acid-cleaned 144 polypropylene containers at room temperature until further analysis. Litter and soil collections were done monthly from March 2012 to February 2013. 145 146 The ultimate fate of Hg in the forest field may be fixed by the delivery of Hg into the forest floor. 147 Hg delivered to the forest floor through litterfall is likely retained in the soil profile, whereas Hg 148 delivered to the forest floor through throughfall is either incorporated into decomposing leaf litter 149 or re volatilized. At the same time, Hg accumulation in soil is a long process so the pool in soil is 150 not comparable with Hg deposition fluxes, and delivered Hg might not be considered to be a new 151 output on the basis of origin in forest soil. It would still be considered to be a more biologically 152 available form of Hg. Thus, new and recycled Hg are difficult to differentiate in the soil pool. 153 There may be very few errors of estimates of Hg output from the soil pool. 154 2.2.4 Hg volatilization from the forest field 155 A dynamic flux chamber (DFC) in series with Tekran 1110 synchronized dual-port sampling unit 156 and Tekran automated Hg analyzer (2537X) were used to measure the emission rates of Hg⁰ (Fu et 157 al., 2010). The special DFC method was described in detail at Ma et al. (2013). The DFC used 158 here can measure 20 cm × 20 cm × 60 cm. The volume of the DFC is 0.024 m³. It is made by 159 quartz glass due to its transparency to light and potential to achieve low chamber blanks. The 160 special DFC method was described in detail at Ma et al (2013). Tekran 1110 can be used to

161 alternately sample the ambient air (inlet) and vapor from soil substrate (outlet) within the chamber

- 162 consecutively at five minute intervals. Hg emission fluxes were calculated by the equation below
- 163 (Ma et al., 2013): 164

$F = (C_{out} - C_{in}) \times Q/A$

165 Where *F* is the flux (ng m² h⁻¹); C_{out} and C_{in} are Hg⁰ levels at the outlet and inlet of the Hg 166 analyzer (ng m³); *Q* is the flushing flow rate through the chamber (m³ h⁻¹); and *A* is the surface 167 area of the soil exposed in the chamber (m²).

168 Hg emission fluxes across the air/soil interface were monitored seasonally during eight intensive

169 field campaigns from spring 2012 to winter 2013 (Spring: March 4th-16th, May 8th -15th, 2012;

- 170 <u>Summer: July 5th -12th, August 15th -22rd, 2012; Autumn: September 15th -22rd, October 20th -27th,</u>
- 171 <u>2012; Winter: December 24th -31st, 2012; February 6th -13th, 2013</u>). Hg emission flux were
- 172 monitored at three sampling sites in the evergreen broadleaved forest of Mt. Simian. And the Hg
- 173 emission fluxes were measured continuously for 7 days for each sampling. Quality assurance was
- 174 conducted by manually injected Hg to the ambient air and soil vapor of the Tekran analyzer before

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- and after data collection. At the beginning and end of each measurement date, the Hg fluxes over a
- 176 clean TeflonTM sheet in the field was measured and regarded as the chamber blanks. The
- 177 chamber blanks in our research ranged from 0.48 to 0.64 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, with an average of 0.54 \pm 178 0.07 ng m⁻² h⁻¹ (n=12). No blank value was needed to be subtracted from the flux results due to no
- significant difference found.

180 2.3 Sample analysis and quality control

- 181 For THg and MeHg in water samples, the special method was described at Ma et al. (2015).
- 182 Detailed introduction of the measurement of THg and MeHg in soil and litter samples can also be
- found at Ma et al (2015). The detection limits of THg and MeHg in this research were 0.02 ng L^{-1}
- and 0.01 ng L⁻¹ respectively. <u>The dissolved total mercury (DHg), dissolved methylmercury</u>
- 185 (DMeHg), particulate Hg (PHg) and particulate MeHg (PMeHg) were analyzed following the
- 186 <u>EPA Method 1631 (US EPA,1999).</u>The method blank was lower than detection limits in all cases.
- 187 And the equipment blanks for THg and MeHg were 0.04 ng L^{-1} and 0.02 ng L^{-1} , respectively. The
- 188detection limits of Tekran 2537X was $0.1 \text{ ng } L^{-1}$ for GEM. The average relative standard deviation189for the duplicate analyses of THg and MeHg were 5.2% and 5.4%, respectively. Matrix spikes
- 105 for the duplicate analyses of fing and weing were 5.2% and 5.4%, respectively. Mathx spikes
- 190 recoveries for THg and MeHg were both within acceptable range, 89% to 115% for THg, and 91%
- 191 to 117% for MeHg. <u>Precision was determined by relative standard deviations. For duplicate</u>
- 192 <u>samples, the precision were 5% for THg in water samples, 9% for MeHg in water samples, 8% for</u>
- 193 <u>THg in soil samples, and 4.1% for THg in leaf tissues.</u>
- 194 3. Results and discussion
- 195 3.1 Hg concentrations and deposition fluxes in throughfall and litterfall
- 196 THg concentrations in the throughfall ranged from 3.2 to 62.5 ng L^{-1} for the individual samples,
- and the average level of throughfall was 24.1 \pm 7.9 ng L⁻¹. Canopy density did have an effect on
- 198 THg and MeHg concentrations (the forest cover is more than 90% and the canopy density is 0.9).
- 199 THg concentrations measured in the throughfall of the subtropical evergreen broad-leaved forest
- 200 (24.1 \pm 7.9 ng L⁻¹) were significantly higher than those measured in the open field (10.9 \pm 3.1 ng
- 201 L^{-1}). Similar to THg concentrations, MeHg concentrations in the throughfall were nearly 2.5 times
- higher than that in precipitation (p=0.004, n=49).
- 203

THg concentrations in the throughfall were consistently at their highest in the cold season (Fig.1), 204 205 which was probably due to the lower rainfall but elevated atmospheric Hg in this season. In the 206 subtropical region of China, the monsoon-driven climate of northwest China doesn't bring much 207 precipitation in cold season. At the same time, atmospheric stability is high during the cold period, 208 and pollutants like atmospheric Hg do not spread easily, which contributes to the higher 209 scavenging ability of Hg ofin the atmosphere. While the warm season (from April to September) 210 is influenced by the southeast monsoon, and the rainfall increases greatly, which leads to lower 211 concentration of Hg (Fig.1). The study station has obscure seasons and clear rainy and dry seasons. 212 The deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall also showed the seasonal variation 213 characteristics, with higher data-fluxes appearing in wet-season (June to August). The deposition 214 fluxes of THg through throughfall in summer at Mt. Simian accounting ed more than 40% of total 215 annual Hg deposition. It is, Hhowever, it is still in September and October that a higher

- throughfall flux is observed. This may because that the rainfall in the two months is mainly
- 217 effected by Indian Monsoon, contributing to a higher rainfall (Fu et al., 2008a) comparing with
- 218 other months. The minimum values for THg deposition occurred in the cold season.

During the surveillance, THg in the throughfall was evaluated to be 32.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹. The 220 deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall in Mt. Simian were lower than those investigated in 221 222 the southwestern cities of China, such as Guizhou and Chongqing (Precipitation: 8.4-62.1 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, throughfall: 15.6–292.1 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, Guo et al., 2008; Feng et al., 2009a,b; Wang et al., 2007). 223 224 However, the deposition fluxes of THg through throughfall in Mt. Simian were approximately 225 2-10 times higher than those reported in remote areas of North America and Europe (Precipitation: 3.1-10.0 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, throughfall: 6.7-23.0 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, St. Louis et al., 2001; Keeler et al., 2005). 226 227 Obviously, It was obviously that the THg fluxes at Mt. Simian were higher than other sites at home 228 and abroad. The reason perhaps was that Mt. Simian had considerably more dense forest canopies. 229 As one of the National Natural Reserves of China, it has preserved the best subtropical evergreen 230 broad-leaved forest of China. The forest cover in the reserves reaches over 90%. The increased 231 THg concentrations in throughfall mainly resulted from the dry deposition of Hg on the vegetation, 232 followed by the washout of throughfall. Another possible reason , which may be the most 233 important one, for the elevated deposition fluxes, which may be the most important one, were 234 probably bound uprelated with the increased atmospheric Hg concentrations in the past 30 years 235 due to China's fast economic development. This area, especially Chongqing city, has a large 236 demand for energy consumption, and about 70% of which is from coal combustion. The annual 237 mean gaseous elemental Hg (GEM) concentration in the middle of Chongqing city (9.6-31.9 ng 238 m³, Wang et al., 2006), more than 200 km away from the study site.) tripled comparing with 239 global background level (Lindberg et al., 2002a, bYang et al., 2009), which corresponded to the 240 high annual deposition flux of Hg in the study area. It is also reported that the GEM concentration 241 in the study area is as high as 3.8 ±1.5 ng m⁻³ (Ma et al., 2015), even if it is situated in a natural 242 subtropical forest reserve. The MeHg flux was 0.45 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, which was higher than those 243 measured in other areas. While MeHg/THg in the throughfall samples was 1.3 %, which was a 244 relatively high value compared with other studies (0.4%-0.8%, Lee et al., 2000; Demers et al., 245 2007; Choi et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2008a; Guo et al., 2008; Larssen et al., 2008). Here, the higher 246 ratio of MeHg to THg in throughfall samples may suggest that the contribution of MeHg from 247 throughfall cannot be ignored and should be taken care of in future studies. After all, 248 accumulation of MeHg in the soil might have caused serious risks in the functioning of natural 249 downstream ecosystems.

250

251 The deposition fluxes of THg through litterfall were are shown in Table 1. The average 252 concentrations of THg and MeHg in leaf litter were 106.7 \pm 18.3 ng g⁻¹ (SE = 2.6, N=60) and 0.8 ± 0.4 ng g⁻¹(SE = 0.2, N=60), respectively. The deposition flux of THg through litterfall was 253 254 estimated to be 42.9 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the measurement field, which was obviousremarkably higher 255 than the input flux through throughfall. And il t is also considerably higher than litterfall fluxes 256 reported from other regions (St. Louis et al., 2001; Demers et al., 2007;). GEM can be absorbed by 257 stomata and detained in the leaf tissue (Ericksen et al., 2003; Fu et al., 2008a, b). Therefore, we 258 believed that the elevated litterfall input fluxes were directly related to the increased GEM 259 concentrations, even in remote areas.

260 **3.2 Mercury emission from soils under the canopy**

261 The emission characteristics and air-surface exchange of GEM from the subtropical forest field

262 have been investigated during eight intensive field campaigns from 2012 to 2013. At the forest

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field, GEM released from soils had the characteristic of obvious diurnal and seasonal variations. 263 264 Day and night GEM fluxes were statistically different (t-test, p < 0.001), with nighttime emissions 265 considerably lower than that in daytime fluxes in all seasons (Fig.2). Average fluxes of Hg in 266 spring, summer, autumn and winter were 12.2 ± 5.1 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, 14.2 ± 4.7 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, 9.9 ± 2.5 ng $m^{-2}\ h^{-1},$ and 3.1 $\,\pm$ 1.1 ng $m^{-2}\ h^{-1},$ respectively. It can be seen that the highest value occurred in 267 268 summer, followed by spring and fall, while the lowest value was observed in winter. Unlike some 269 other studies, in which The average fluxes of Hg in spring (12.2 \pm 5.1 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) were slightly lower than that in summer (14.2 \pm 4.7 ng m⁻² h⁻¹), which was different from other studies (Larssen 270 271 et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2010). Lit appeared that warm temperature with low canopy density in spring 272 at the mid subtropical forest were more likely to release GEM. Perhaps the primary reason lies 273 thatOne of the possible reasons perhaps was that the forest canopies were are lushly and well 274 spaced in spring, and thus the forest can receive more sunlight. Therefore, the reduction rate of

275 Hg²⁺ by photochemical, thermal and biogenic processes probably increased.

This research indicated that Hg fluxes of forest field were far lower than those observed from contaminated areas such as heavily air-polluted areas in eastern Guizhou (33–3638 ng m⁻² h⁻¹)

278 (Wang et al., 2007), some cities in southwest China (15.0–44.4 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Qiu et al., 2006), dry

279 landfills (46.5–22.8 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Zhu et al., 2010) and wetlands (20–500 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) (Lindberg et 280 al., 2002b). But the emission of GEM elevated in comparison with those reported from other

281 places (<u>-5.4-4.2 ng m³, Lindberg et al., 2002a, b; <u>1.7-8.4 ng m³, Travnikov</u>, 2005). At Mt. Simian,</u>

the estimated net GEM fluxes were released from soils during the warm season (spring, summer and fall) and slightly volatilized during the cold season (winter). Hg deposition was only observed in several nights of the cold season during the study period., and thus only several data were observed with Hg deposition in the night. Hg released from the snow/air interface was extremely low comparing with the soil/air interface. <u>INormally it</u> was supposed that the Hg⁰ flux was zero

287from snow-covered surface (Huang et al., 2012). At most subtropical areas, especially288mid-subtropical forests, however, there were short winter seasons with unstable snow cover, and289the snow cover season only tended to occur in January. So we assumed that there still existed Hg⁰290emission in December and February in winter. Therefore, the annual total net Hg emission flux291was 18.6 mg m⁻² yr⁻¹.

292 3.3 Hg concentrations and out-flux in stream water

Annual volume-weighted concentrations of THg and MeHg were measured at the outlet stream of 293 294 the forest field of Mt. Simian. The mean concentrations of THg and MeHg in the outflow stream 295 were 3.9 ±2.0 and 0.2±0.08 ng L⁻¹, respectively. THg and MeHg concentrations in stream water 296 draining the upland in our research were slightly higher than those reported in literature (Fu et al., 2008a,b; Larssen et al., 2008). THg concentrations in runoff/stream water in rainy seasons 297 $(4.6\pm2.0$ ng L⁻¹) were significantly higher than those in dry seasons $(3.3\pm1.8$ ng L⁻¹), which can 298 299 probably be attributed to the soil erosion and runoff (Ma et al., 2015). It is known that if a remote forest field does not have other obvious Hg pollution sources, Hg concentrations in the 300 301 runoff/stream water can represent risks from a solitary watershed. Numerous studies showed that 302 the catchments of the remote forest already considered the forested catchments were regarded as 303 filters between atmosphere and hydrosphere (Lee et al., 2000; Larssen et al., 2008; Ericksen et al., 304 2003). The fate of Hg stored in the forest soils can be divided into three parts. One part of them

transfers through food webs, threatening the balance of forest ecosystems; the second part of them is released into the atmosphere again; the third part of them probably transfers with the 带格式的: 上标

runoff/stream, becoming one of the Hg sources of downstream aquatic ecosystem. Therefore, to a 307 308 certain extent, the role of forested catchments as Hg filters can be characterized by Hg output 309 (runoff/stream) from the forest field.

310 This study shows showed that, even though Hg deposition fluxes in throughfall iwas high, THg 311 concentration in stream/runoff wais lower than that in contaminated sites under the same 312 geological background. This indicated that subtropical forest field had the filtering effect of Hg in 313 precipitation and throughfall. On the other hand, the lower concentration in stream/runoff 314 indicated that the study area did not suffer from severe anthropogenic Hg pollution. Steam output 315 of THg was calculated by multiplying the average THg concentration in stream water (3.9 ±2.03 316 ng L⁻¹) by the water discharge rate in the forest field of the study site (annual water discharge: 317 1.86×108 m³, from hydrological departments of Jiangjin district). The export mass-flux of THg via 318 runoff/stream was 0.73 kg yr⁻¹. The subtropical forest field in the study area is 100.1 km⁻². So the 319 export mass-flux of THg through stream water was 7.23 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹, which tripled the values 320 reported in the catchments of Sweden (1.6-1.8 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, Lee et al., 2000; 2.4 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, 321 Larssen et al., 2008). Our results indicated that the output fluxes of MeHg via stream water were 322 0.08 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, which was similar to or slightly larger than other results (0.03–0.07 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, 323 Lee et al., 2000; 0.05 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹, Schwesig and Matzner, 2001). Here the elevated Hg fluxes in 324 stream water were probably attributed to the great atmospheric Hg depositions. As we mentioned 325 above that Mt. Simian was one of the most complete forest and until recent decades was 326 one of Asia's least populated and most inaccessible areas. Average Hg concentration in the soil 327 detected in previous research was 0.28 mg kg-1 (Ma et al., 2013), which indicated that it was not 328 an obvious geological Hg hotspot. Therefore, the elevated Hg fluxes in stream water were 329 probably attributed to the great atmospheric Hg depositions. At the same time, our preliminary 330 research results also illustrated that forest runoff and soil erosion could increase Hg output from 331 subtropical forest catchments (Ma et al., 2013). But the total output fluxes of THg and MeHg were far lower than the input fluxes via wet deposition (32.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹ for THg and 0.5 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹ 332 333 for MeHg). This study showed that the subtropical forest was able to exert purification effect of 334 filtration, even with under the condition of elevated deposition of Hg.

335 3.4. Dynamics and transport of Hg based on forest field

336 THg content in the forest field (forest floor and soil profiles) of Mt. Simian was shown in Table 2. 337 The THg stocked in the forest soil was approximately 20192 μ g m⁻² (mean-average soil depth is

338 98 cm), while that in the organic floor was 5148 μ g m⁻² (mean-average litter depth is 19 cm). THg

339 content in soil profile were three times more than the organic horizon in the subtropical forest field.

340 The active pool (the upper 22 cm, O_i) of THg represented 41 % of the total storage of the study

area. In the soil profile, THg content in the organic horizon (O_i) is obviously higher than those in 341

the other horizons. At the same time, the organic matter is well decomposed under warm and rainy 342 343 subtropical climate, which has high affinity to Hg in

344 Due to the good adsorption and reduction of organic matter, the organically bound contents of Hg

soil.

345 could be released into the environment again during the decomposition of organic matter.

346 The ultimate fate of Hg in the terrestrial ecosystem may depend upon the means ofits delivery and

347 incorporation of Hg into the forest floor. And the average Hg fluxes were also estimated. Input of 348 THg to the forest field of Mt. Simian included net throughfall and litterfall depositions (St. Louis

349 et al., 2001; Fu et al., 2010). Annual throughfall and litterfall deposition fluxes of THg in Mt.

Simian were 32.2 and 42.9 mg m⁻² y⁻¹, respectively (Fig.3). Litterfall deposition inputs were 350

studied asto 134% of the throughfall deposition at the forest field. In the studied study forest

352 field, the predominant pathway of Hg fluxes to the forest floor was via ltterfall (57.1%). <u>A</u> 353 majority of An amount of the atmospherically deposited THg was released through Hg⁰ emission

at a rate of 18.6 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹. Steam outflow of THg from the wetland was 7.2 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹. The ratio

between output and input of THg was 0.34 at the subtropical forest field of Mt. Simian, which was
significantly higher than others (<u>0.02-0.04</u>, Lee et al., 2000; <u>0.16</u>, Larssen et al., 2008; <u>0.30</u>, Fu et
al., 2010). The apparently higher ratio between the output/input fluxes of THg may represent an

358 important ecological risk.

359 The THg stored in the forest field was 982-2 times larger than the annual THg output by 360 stream/runoff outflow and soil volatilization, and 3387.6 times larger than the input estimated 361 from wet and dry depositions (Fig.3). The estimates of the deposition flux of THg in this study were much higher than values reported from the northeastern American (3.8–12.6 μ g m⁻² yr⁻¹; 362 363 Driscoll et al., 2007) and Norway (7 µg m² yr⁻¹; Larssen et al., 2008), probably indicating a 364 significant impact of heavy regional Hg emissions from industry and urban on local Hg deposition. The reason perhaps was that highly soluble Hg2+ was easily stripped from the atmosphere and 365 366 deposited locally. HAnd higher wet deposition can illustrate the obvious remarkable influence of local Hg emissions on Hg accumulation in the regional forest field. The THg flux through litterfall 367 368 was 1.5 times larger than that through throughfall due to greater input of litter mass and higher Hg concentrations in the litter. Annual exports of THg in stream water of the study area (3.2-9.5 µg 369 370 $m^{-2}yr^{-1}$) were not accorded with those reported from northern forest catchments (1.0–3.4 µg m⁻²

371 yr^{-1} ; St. Louis et al., 2001; Grigal et al., 2000). An amount of the atmospherically deposited THg372was lost via emissions at a rate of 18.6 µg m⁻² yr⁻¹. Compared with stream outflow, the evasion of

373 Hg from forest soil played a more essential role in THg outputs.

374 Compared the ratios of output to input flux with other places (Larrsen et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2010), 375 the higher output flux ratio may be greatly affected by the elevated deposition. Therefore, regional 376 emission of Hg may have stronger influence on forest ecosystems, in which the deposition of THg 377 through litterfall and throughfall, being affected more by local and regional changes of Hg 378 emissions and cycling, were the main paths for Hg entering into soil surface (Demers et al., 2007). 379 However, in this study, the outflow of Hg via runoff output and the soil-air interface accounted for 380 a small fraction of Hg budget in the study area. And the accumulation pattern of Hg in forest floor 381 and soil profiles was seasonal. As we mentioned above that Mt. Simian was one of the most 382 typical subtropical forest systems and the least accessed area, average Hg concentrations in all soil

383 surfaces of this area were below 0.30 mg kg⁻¹(Fu et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2013). Therefore, the

384 accumulation of Hg in soil would be enhanced with time. At the same time, the ultimate fate of 385 deposited Hg depends upon the biogeochemical processes that have not been well quantified 386 within the ecosystem. Hg dynamics during litter decomposition, for instance, need to be 387 considered as a whole so that we can better understand controls on long-term accumulation of Hg

388 in the forest ecosystem and its delayed release to surface water.

389 4. Conclusions

390 In this study, the mass balance and transport of Hg in southwestern China were first measured at a

391 subtropical forest, Chongqing, China. Results revealed that litterfall deposition inputs were the

- $\label{eq:source} \textbf{392} \qquad \text{predominant pathway (42.9 mg m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1} \text{, account for 57.1\%) of Hg flux to the forest floor. Annual}$
- deposition fluxes of Hg through throughfall were 32.2 m⁻² y⁻¹, accounting for 42.90% of the Hg
- 394 inputs. Researchers should pay more attention to the higher ratio of MeHg to THg in the

throughfall deposition when they model the biogeochemical cycling in a typical local forest

watershed. For the output process, the exchange of Hg (18.6 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹) across the forest field-air interface is was an essential part of the biogeochemical cycle of Hg. The Rrunoff/Ssteam outflow

of THg from the wetland was 7.2 mg m⁻² yr⁻¹, which was lower than that in contaminated sites

399 <u>under the same geological background. Therefore, we may conclude that: 1) the study area does</u>

400 not suffer from severe anthropogenic Hg pollution; 2) the forested field has the filtering effect of

401 <u>Hg in precipitation and throughfall, even in the elevated atmospheric Hg area.</u>

402 The forest field (forest floor and soil profiles) plays an important role in the cycling of THg and
403 MeHg. In reality, it is just another problem created by the accumulation of Hg,
404 which would be a potential risk affecting the output of Hg in the long term. Terrestrial ecosystems
405 that have accumulated more Hg may ultimately emit them to <u>the</u> wetlands and surface water,

finally affecting the entire aquatic ecosystems. Therefore, it is a signal that we should not ignore.

407 In this case, however, any changes in the forest floor like deforestation or forestland degradation408 may strongly affect Hg budget of the region.

409 Data availability

410 Data in this research is available from the email of Professor D.Y. Wang, 411 dywang@swu.edu.cn.

412 Author contribution

Ma M, Sun T, Du H and Zhao Z collected the litterfall, throughfall, stream water and forest soil
samples. Wang Y measured the concentrations of THg and MeHg from all samples. Sun T made
the analysis of Hg volatilization from forest field. Ma M wrote the main manuscript text and drew

416 all the figures, with contributions from all co-authors. Wang D, Wei S and Ma M designed the

417 research. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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Tables

Table 1 Mean values of THg and MeHg concentrations and deposition fluxes in throughfall and

533	litterfall								
		THg Concentration (ng L-1)			MeHg Concentration (ng L-1)				
		THg	DHg	PHg	MeHg	DMeHg	PMeHg		
	Precipitation	10.94±3.1	4.43±2.2	6.52±2.9	0.24±0.34	0.11±0.04	0.13±0.10		
	Throughfall	24.04 ±7.9	6.68 ±4.2	16.35±5.7	0.33 ±0.24	0.25 ±0.12	0.31 ±0.14		
	T :::[-1]	THg C	THg Concentration (ng g-1)						
	Litteriali		106.7±18.3		0.79 <u>±</u> 0.36				
	Annual deposition flux	T	THg (µg m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)		MeHg (µg m ⁻² yr- ¹)				
	Precipitation (1508mm)	15.45			0.36				
	Throughfall (1336mm)	32.17 42.89			0.45 0.32				
	Litterfall (402g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)								

Table 2 The concentrations and contents of THg in forest floor and different soil layers

		THg (ng g ⁻¹)	Density (g cm ⁻³)	Thickness (m)	THg content—($\mu g m^{-2}$)_	Total contents
	Initial leaf litter	46.30±14.2	0.28±6.2	0.06±0.02	774.8	
Forest floor	Half decomposition	51.22±9.4	0.49±18.1	0.08±0.03	2000.8	5148.7
	decomposition	57.88±10.3	0.82±9.9	0.05±0.02	2373.1	
	O_i	297.8±15.2	1.27±2.1	0.22±0.10	8320.5	
Soil profile	Oe	117.4±32.3	1.65 ± 16.2	0.34±0.08	6586.1	20192.6
	O_a	68.4±13.6	1.84 ± 20.7	0.42±0.06	5286.0	

Figures



Fig. 1. Volume-weighted mean concentrations of THg and MeHg and deposition fluxes of throughfall in <u>the</u> evergreen broad-leaf forest from March 2012 to February 2013



556Fig.3. Annual ecosystem Hg fluxes and pools in the evergreen broad-leaf forest field. Fluxes (μg 557 $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$) were represented by arrows, while pools ($\mu g m^2$) by boxes.