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exploration of  
gaseous elemental  
mercury

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# Statistical exploration of gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) measured at Cape Point from 2007 to 2011

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converted into methylated Hg, which is a potent toxin for humans and animals. Methylated Hg bio-accumulates in the aquatic food chain and may lead to the build-up of high concentrations in predatory fish that can pose serious health risks to people and animals that depend on a fish diet (Mergler et al., 2007). These negative environmental impacts of Hg have led to an increase in atmospheric Hg research (Lindberg et al., 2007).

Current emission inventories and models indicate that anthropogenic emissions are the largest source of atmospheric Hg ( $2880 \text{ tyr}^{-1}$ ), followed by marine ( $2680 \text{ tyr}^{-1}$ ) and terrestrial ( $1850 \text{ tyr}^{-1}$ ) sources (Mason, 2009; Pirrone et al., 2010). Industrial coal combustion processes, which include electricity generation, petrochemical plants and gasification processes, are considered to be the major anthropogenic sources of atmospheric Hg (Laudal et al., 2000; Wagner, 2001). It is estimated that coal combustion accounts for approximately a third of anthropogenic Hg emissions in the United States of America (USA) (Laudal et al., 2000). Other main sources of anthropogenic Hg emissions include non-ferrous metal production, gold refining, cement production and other combustion sources. The US Environmental Protection Agency (US-EPA) introduced the Clean Air Mercury Rule in March 2005 enforcing the capping of mercury emissions from new and existing coal-fired power plants. The USA and European Union (EU) were among the first to regulate Hg pollution, and it is widely expected that this could significantly influence the way in which South Africa adopts Hg control legislation. In 2013, the Minamata Treaty was signed by South Africa and 98 other countries to protect human health and the environment from anthropogenic emissions and releases of elemental Hg and Hg compounds. It is expected that the Minamata Treaty will have far-reaching implications for South Africa, since it is globally considered to be the 6th largest emitter of mercury, emitting  $\sim 50 \text{ tyr}^{-1}$  due to the reliance on fossil fuels (Scott and Mdluli, 2012).

The global uncertainty associated with anthropogenic Hg emissions is considered to be  $\pm 30\%$ , while the uncertainties associated with emissions from oceans and terrestrial surfaces are  $\pm 50\%$  (Lin et al., 2006; Lindberg et al., 2007). Long-term monitoring

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of Hg is important to reduce these uncertainties associated with Hg emissions from different sources, as well as to provide important information relating to the oxidation mechanism of atmospheric Hg (Slemr et al., 2008, 2013). Although atmospheric Hg is monitored extensively in the Northern Hemisphere, few studies have been published in peer-reviewed literature for the Southern Hemisphere (Slemr et al., 2011). The German Antarctic research station measured total gaseous Hg (TGM) from January 2000 to January 2001 (Ebinghaus et al., 2002). Gaseous elemental Hg (GEM) measurements have been conducted at the Cape Point Global Atmosphere Watch (CPT GAW) atmospheric monitoring station in South Africa since 1995 and have yielded several publications on long-term trends, depletion events, seasonal cycles and flux rates (Baker et al., 2002; Slemr et al., 2008; Brunke et al., 2010a, b). From 1995 until 2004, approximately 200 three-hour GEM samples have been collected each year with a manual double amalgamation technique (Slemr et al., 2008) at the CPT GAW station, while continuous high-resolution Hg measurements commenced in 2007.

In this paper, a combination of different statistical techniques was applied to continuous high-resolution Hg data collected between March 2007 and December 2011, as well as back-trajectory analyses that were performed in order to provide greater insight into the source regions of GEM at the CPT GAW station. This approach is different from previous studies of GEM measured at the CPT GAW station, where  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  measurements were used to determine the origin of air masses, i.e. maritime or continental (Brunke et al., 2004; Slemr et al., 2013). The relationship between GEM and other atmospheric parameters measured at the CPT GAW station was also determined statistically in order to establish whether GEM levels could be estimated or predicted from these parameters.



















solute humidity in  $\text{gm}^{-3}$ ,  $P$  the ambient pressure in hectopascal (hPa) and UVb the ultraviolet radiation in minimum erythema dose (MED) units. In Eq. (1), independent variables associated with positive constants indicate that an increase in these parameters would statistically lead to an increase in atmospheric GEM, whereas the increase in independent variables associated with negative constants would statistically lead to lower GEM. Although the MLR equations cannot be used to explicitly derive the origin and/or reaction mechanistic information about GEM at CPT GAW, it could be used to provide some insight.

The positive constants associated with CO and CH<sub>4</sub> could indicate that higher GEM can be attributed to anthropogenic emissions such as fossil fuel (e.g. shipping) and household combustion, as well as natural biomass burning observed during pollution events (Brunke et al., 2010a, b). Higher O<sub>3</sub> leads to higher hydroxyl ( $\bullet\text{OH}$ ) radical concentrations, therefore the possible negative constant associated with O<sub>3</sub>. As discussed in Lan et al. (2012) and the references therein, GEM may be oxidised by  $\bullet\text{OH}$ , nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub> $\bullet$ ) or halogen (X $\bullet$ ) radicals. Gierens et al. (2014) recently indicated that  $\bullet\text{OH}$  concentrations reach a peak around midday in the interior of SA, and since  $\bullet\text{OH}$  has a lifetime of  $\sim 1$  s, its diurnal variation will therefore follow the diurnal variation of the UV radiation with wavelength capable to photolyse O<sub>3</sub> to O<sup>1</sup>D, and therefore achieving peak GEM oxidation during midday. Additionally, the negative constant associated with O<sub>3</sub> in Eq. (2) could also indicate aged air masses, in which GEM decreased (e.g. by oxidation and deposition). The photochemically-driven oxidation of GEM results in the formation of gaseous oxidised mercury (GOM). Particulate bound mercury (PBM) and GOM typically reach diurnal minima before sunrise and maxima in the afternoon (Lan et al., 2012). It has been suggested that an abundant halogen radical (X $\bullet$ ) concentration present in the marine environment may lead to higher GOM concentrations (Mao and Talbot, 2012). The photochemically-driven oxidation of GEM to GOM in summer depletes GEM levels during midday when solar radiation, O<sub>3</sub> levels and atmospheric halogens produced by sea spray are the most intense and would therefore explain neg-

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5 other busy shipping routes. Correlation of the time that back trajectories spent over the African continent and GEM concentration, proved that such analyses could be used as an alternative tool to distinguish between continental and marine GEM contributions. It was also demonstrated that MLR analysis could be used to determine an equation  
10 that can be used to predict GEM at CPT GAW. Moreover, this equation provided some insight into the complex nature of GEM chemistry. Lastly, the evaluation of both continuously measured and calculated (with the determined MLR Eq. 1) GEM concentrations seems to indicate a decline in GEM concentrations over the period evaluated in this paper. It remains to be seen whether this decline continues, which would reflect a positive  
15 response to global Hg emission reductions, or if it is only part of a longer-term cycle with a temporary decline.

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20 expressed and conclusions arrived at are those of the authors and are not necessarily to be attributed to the NRF.

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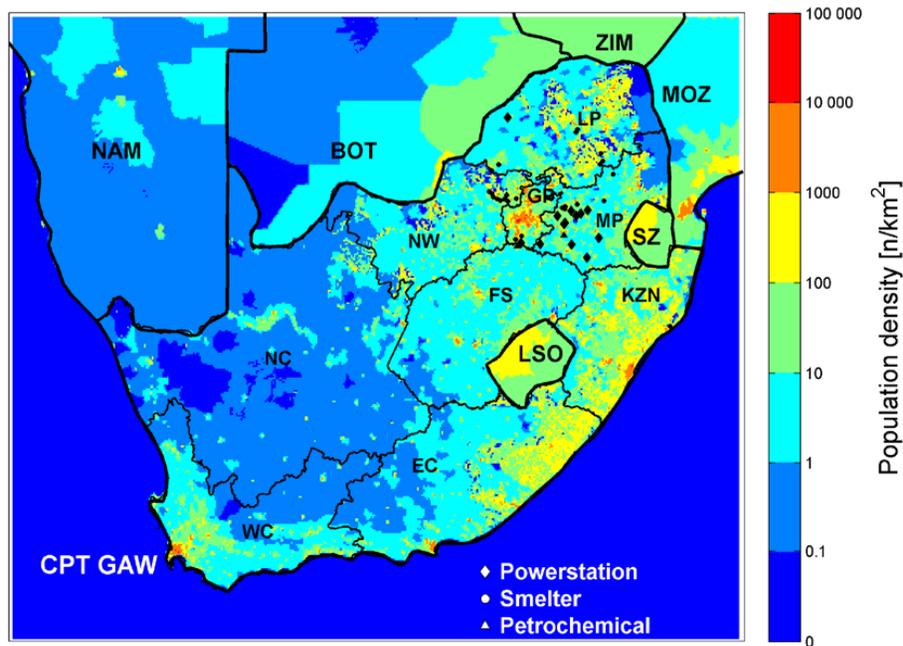
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**Table 2.** The overall identity of independent variables during the determination of the optimum combination of independent variables for GEM calculation utilising the entire dataset.

No of independent variables	MLR solutions for all GEM values								
1	AbsH								
2	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>							
3	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO						
4	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO	P					
5	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO	P	T				
6	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO	P	T	CH <sub>4</sub>			
7	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO	P	T	CH <sub>4</sub>	Rn		
8	AbsH	O <sub>3</sub>	CO	P	T	CH <sub>4</sub>	Rn	WGS	



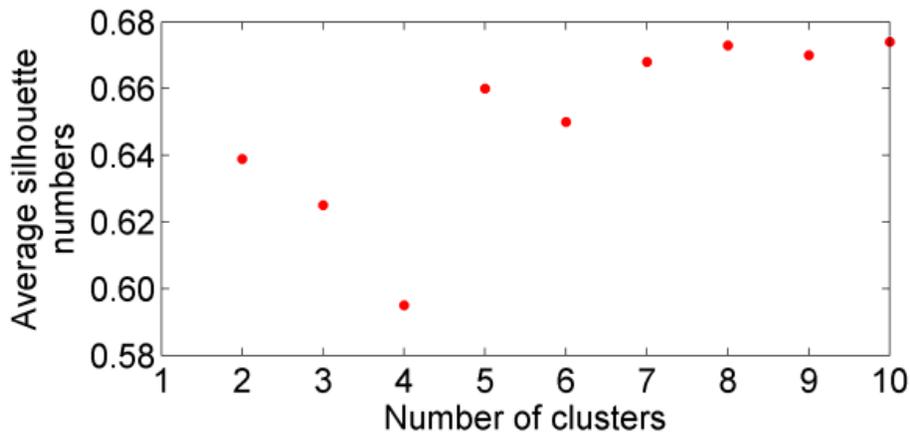
**Figure 1.** Position of CPT GAW within a regional context. The population density (people per km<sup>2</sup>) provides an indication of the possible location of anthropogenic pollution sources, while the location of large anthropogenic point sources (e.g. coal-fired power stations, metallurgical smelters and petrochemical plants, adapted from Venter et al., 2012; Lourens et al., 2011, 2012) is also indicated. NAM = Namibia, BOT = Botswana, ZIM = Zimbabwe, MOZ = Mozambique, SZ = Swaziland, LSO = Lesotho, WC = Western Cape, EC = Eastern Cape, NC = Northern Cape, NW = North West, FS = Free State, KZN = KwaZulu-Natal, GP = Gauteng, MP = Mpumalanga and LP = Limpopo.

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**Figure 2.** Average silhouette numbers for the various cluster solutions. An increase in silhouette numbers indicates that individual sub-clusters are better separated.

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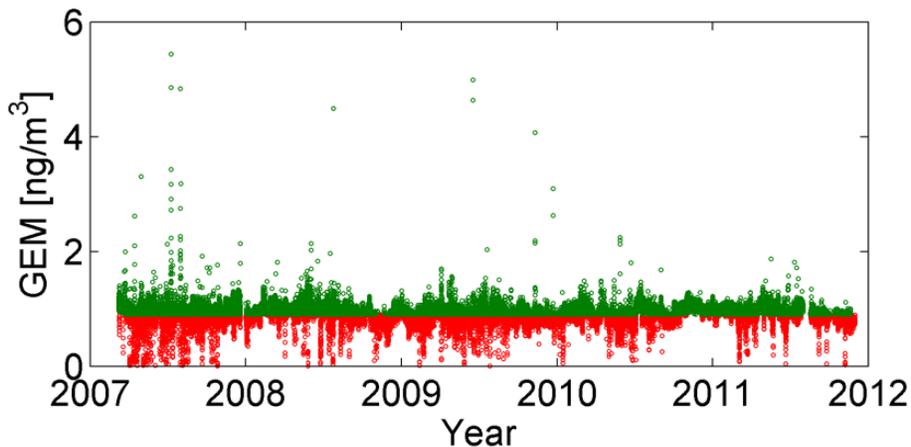
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**Figure 3.** A scatter plot of GEM concentrations over the entire sampling period indicating the two main clusters. According to the clustering applied, division between the two clusters was at a GEM concentration of  $0.904 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ .

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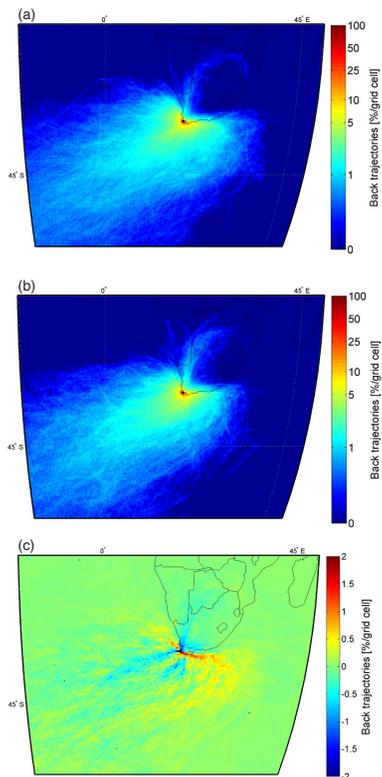
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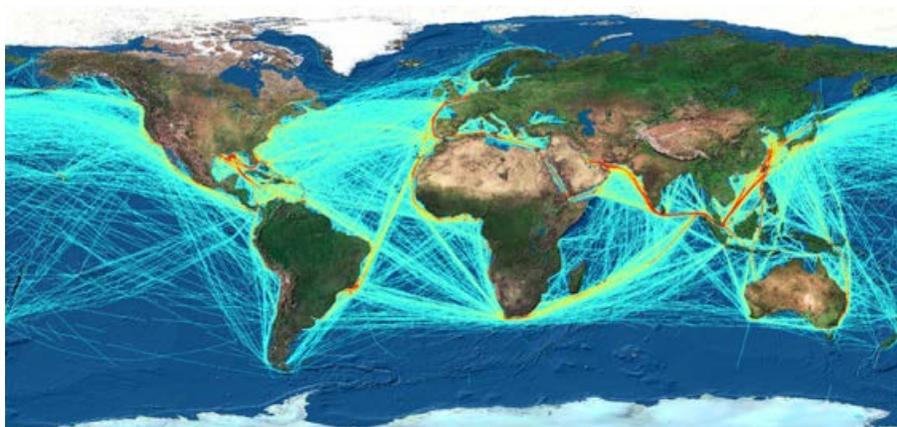
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**Figure 4.** Normalised back trajectory analysis map, i.e. hourly arriving eight-day back trajectories with 100 m arrival height overlaid with MATLAB and normalised to percentage for the entire sampling period for, **(a)** cluster one, i.e. GEM concentration  $> 0.904 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ , **(b)** for cluster two, i.e. GEM concentration  $< 0.904 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  and **(c)** the difference between the two individual maps, i.e. percentage of trajectories passing over each correlating  $0.2^\circ \times 0.2^\circ$  grid cells in **(b)** subtracted from the percentage of trajectories passing over each  $0.2^\circ \times 0.2^\circ$  grid cell in **(a)**. The colour bar indicates the percentage of trajectories passing over each grid cell.



**Figure 5.** Monthly density plot for the total number of ships registered with Automated Mutual-Assistance Vessel Rescue System (AMVER) for July 2011. AMVER is sponsored by the United States Coast Guard and makes use of the global ship reporting system used worldwide by search and rescue authorities. The ship density plot is compiled from a 2011 average of 4634 ships per day (United States Coast Guard, 2014).

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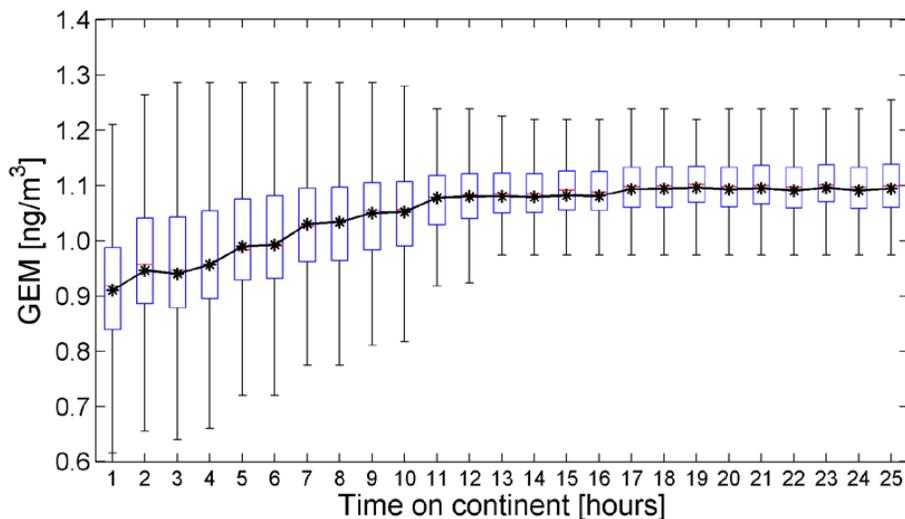
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**Figure 6.** The statistical distribution of GEM concentrations as a function of time spent over the continent. The mean is indicated by the black stars, the median by the red line, the 25 and 50 percentile by the blue box and the whiskers indicating 99.3% data coverage (if a normal distribution is assumed), while the black line connects the mean values to provide an indication of the trend observed.

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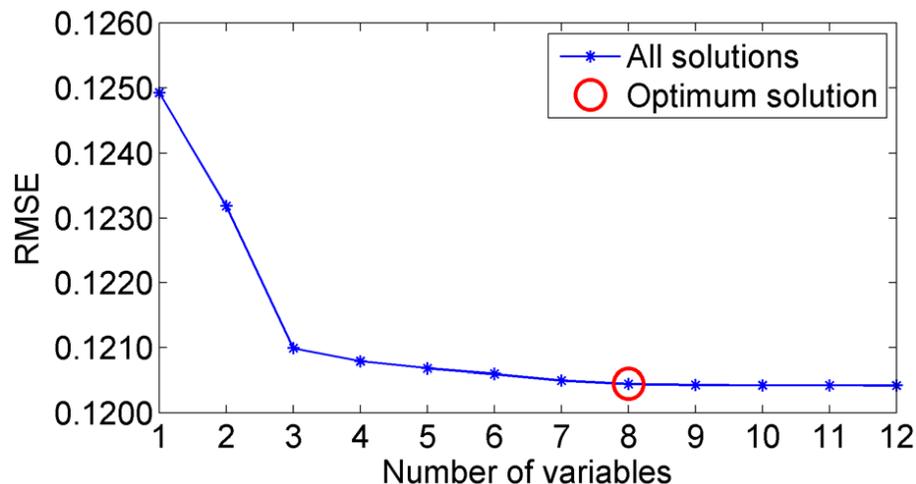
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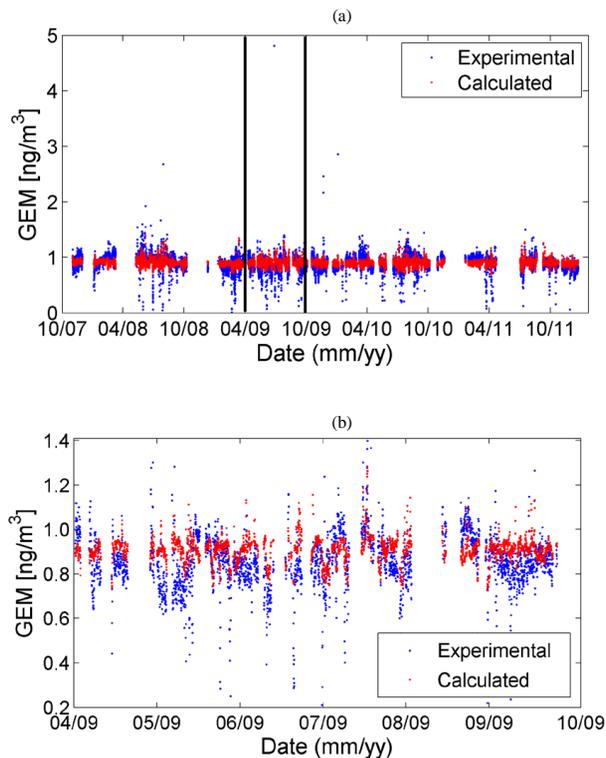
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**Figure 7.** Determination of the optimum combination of independent variables to include in the MLR equation to calculate the dependant variable, i.e. GEM concentration (2007–2011). The root mean square error (RMSE) difference between the calculated and actual GEM concentrations indicated that the inclusion of 8 parameters in the MLR solution was the optimum.

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**Figure 8.** (a) Measured GEM (blue) and calculated GEM concentrations using the MLR Eq. (1) (red) for the entire sampling period. The two vertical black lines in (a) indicate a period that was enlarged in (b) to indicate more detailed differences between the measured and calculated GEM concentrations.