

A synthesis of research needs for improving the understanding of atmospheric mercury cycling

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1 **Abstract:** This synthesis identifies future research needs in atmospheric mercury science, based
2 on a series of review papers, as well as recent developments in field data collection, modeling
3 analysis, and emission assessments of speciated atmospheric mercury. Research activities are
4 proposed that focus on areas that we consider important. These include refinement of mercury
5 emission estimations, quantification of dry deposition and air-surface exchange, improvement of
6 the treatment of chemical mechanisms in chemical transport models, increase in the accuracy of
7 oxidized mercury measurements, better interpretation of atmospheric mercury chemistry data,
8 and harmonization of network operation. Knowledge gained in these research areas will
9 significantly improve our understanding of atmospheric cycling from local to global scales.

10

11 **1. Introduction**

12 Knowledge of atmospheric mercury (Hg) cycling processes and accurate mass balances on local,
13 regional, and global scales is needed to assess Hg impacts on humans, animals, and ecosystems,
14 and to establish Hg emission control policies. A series of review papers, published in a special
15 issue of Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics ([http://www.atmos-chem-](http://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/special_issue377.html)
16 [phys.net/special_issue377.html](http://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/special_issue377.html)), summarize the knowledge gained from decades of research on
17 atmospheric Hg, operationally defined as gaseous elemental Hg (GEM), gaseous oxidized Hg
18 (GOM), and particulate bound Hg (PBM).

19

20 Current methods for measurement and model interpretation of the three forms of Hg in the
21 atmosphere were reviewed in Gustin et al. (2015). They revealed potential large measurement
22 uncertainties and associated important implications for refining existing measurement methods,
23 model-measurement comparisons, model development, and trend analysis. Sampler designs for

24 passive GEM sampling were reviewed in McLagan et al. (2016), and the suitability of these
25 devices for measuring high and low GEM concentrations was identified. Mercury transformation
26 mechanisms and speciation profiles for Hg formed in and released from flue gases of coal-fired
27 boilers, non-ferrous metal smelters, cement plants, iron and steel plants, waste incinerators, and
28 biomass burning were documented in Zhang et al. (2016a). Worldwide measurements of Hg
29 spanning the past four decades were reviewed in Mao et al. (2016) together with the mechanisms
30 driving the observed spatiotemporal variations of speciated Hg in various environments
31 including oceans, continents, high elevation, the free troposphere, and low to high latitudes.
32 Current knowledge of Hg dry deposition was reviewed in Wright et al. (2016), including dry
33 deposition algorithms used in chemical transport models and at monitoring sites, measurement
34 methods and quantification of dry deposition of oxidized Hg, and Hg in litterfall and throughfall.
35 The same study also explored the geographical variations of Hg deposition as well as the relative
36 importance of dry and wet deposition. A global observational flux database of the atmosphere-
37 surface exchange of GEM was developed and the implication of the flux data to global Hg
38 budgets was discussed in Zhu et al. (2016). Receptor-based source apportionment studies using
39 speciated Hg were summarized in Cheng et al. (2015a), and studies related to speciated Hg in
40 China were reviewed in Fu et al. (2015).

41
42 Recommendations for future research needs based on the aforementioned review articles are
43 summarized below, and the discussion here is extended further to include topics not included in
44 the special issue, but closely linked to the understanding of atmospheric Hg cycling. This
45 synthesis is not aimed to cover all research needs of atmospheric Hg, but to provide directions
46 guiding future research. Other recommendations and knowledge gaps can also be found in a

47 recent mercury science assessment conducted in Canada which summarized scientific findings
48 from research undertaken in the past 20 years focusing on the Canadian environment (ECCC,
49 2017).

50

51 **2. Recommendations**

52 **2.1 Mercury emission**

53 Emission inventories used in chemical transport models (CTMs) are prepared using known
54 anthropogenic sources and highly empirically parameterized natural sources. Existing emission
55 inventories are thought to be relatively accurate for anthropogenic emission source categories
56 such as energy and industrial sectors in the United States and Europe, but with large uncertainties
57 for other anthropogenic sources, and even larger uncertainties for natural sources and reemission
58 estimation (Pacyna et al., 2016).

59

60 To improve estimation of mercury emission from anthropogenic sources, several measurement
61 studies are recommended (Pacyna et al., 2016; UNEP, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016a). These include
62 (1) measurements of mercury behavior across newly employed air pollution control devices
63 (APCDs), e.g., wet electrostatic precipitators (WESP) for coal-fired power plants, flue gas
64 desulfurization (FGD) systems, and novel mercury reclaiming towers (MRT) for non-ferrous
65 metal smelters; (2) continuous measurements of mercury transformation and speciation under
66 different operational conditions, e.g., raw mill on/off modes and the whole cycle of fly ash
67 circulations in cement plants; (3) measurements of mercury transformation and speciation in flue
68 gases from sources (e.g., iron and steel plants, waste incinerators) and assessing the influence of
69 raw materials on mercury transformation and speciation; (4) continuous measurements of

70 mercury emission from sources with large fluctuation (e.g., waste incinerators, crematories),
71 which can be achieved through mercury flow analysis and statistical methods for the inventory
72 developments of these sources; (5) measurements of mercury emission factors and speciation of
73 potential large sources, e.g., mobile oil combustion, reutilization of by-products (e.g., fly ash,
74 waste acid), which will become potential large sources once mercury emissions from current
75 dominant sources are controlled; and (6) mercury emission from artisanal and small scale gold
76 mining activities in developing countries, a source category that has been poorly characterized.
77 Anthropogenic releases of Hg to freshwater also need to be better estimated (Liu et al. 2016;
78 Kocman et al., 2017; UNEP, 2013) since Hg in waterbodies can be released into atmosphere
79 through the air-surface exchange processes.

80
81 Natural emissions include those from geogenic sources as well as from reemission of previously
82 deposited mercury. To improve estimation of mercury emission from natural sources, a global
83 database of GEM flux from different land covers and geogenic sources could be developed,
84 similar to those done by Erikson et al. (2006) and Hartman et al. (2009). Another way to
85 approach this would be to do a literature review and compile papers that have identified
86 dominant mechanisms and developed algorithms that can be applied in models (Eckley et al.,
87 2011, 2016; Hartman et al., 2009;). Dominating factors include soil concentration of Hg, solar
88 radiation, temperature, soil moisture, and precipitation (Briggs et al., 2013). GEM evasion from
89 the sea surface is an important source (Pacyna et al., 2016), and air-sea Hg flux could be
90 modeled using parameters (e.g., temperature, wind speed) known to influence this exchange. It is
91 important to note that there is little work on GOM flux from any surface due to analytical
92 challenges associated with detecting ultra-trace quantity of GOM at sufficiently high temporal

93 resolution. The emission quantity and speciation of Hg from wildfires are not well characterized
94 due to a general lack of observational data (Webster et al., 2016). The data presented in Friedli et
95 al. (2003, 2009) provided preliminary estimates based on aircraft measurement and a satellite
96 constrained bottom-up methodology. Limited investigations have suggested that the emission
97 speciation is primarily GEM, and the emission quantity can be modeled based on the Hg content
98 in different parts of tree biomass. It may also be investigated through plume or receptor
99 measurement and modeling analysis. Mercury emission from geogenic sources such as
100 geothermal activities, volcanic eruptions, and plate tectonic movements needs to be better
101 quantified.

102

103 Estimation of emissions from area sources, e.g. urban areas, natural sources, and large
104 contaminated sites such as abandoned mercury mines or artisanal gold mining operations, is
105 important for these can constitute significant sources. For example area emissions were shown to
106 be similar to stack emissions at a Nevada gold mine (Eckley et al., 2011). Methods for the
107 identification, localization, and characterization of such mercury sources to the atmosphere are
108 required to support efforts to further reduce mercury emissions globally. Once identified and
109 substrate concentrations and meteorological conditions are known for contaminated areas,
110 previously developed algorithms or models could be used to refine the emission estimates and
111 then evaluated with field measurements.

112

113 Passive air samplers may play a role in the identification of the above-mentioned area sources
114 and in the quantification of emissions emanating from them. In particular, the cost and simplicity
115 of passive sampling allows extensive networks of samplers to be deployed to record average

116 concentrations over extended time periods and at high spatial resolution (Huang et al., 2014;
117 McLagan et al., 2016). Novel passive sampling techniques for gaseous mercury (both GEM and
118 GOM) will facilitate highly resolved, spatial mapping of time-averaged mercury air
119 concentration in and around area sources of mercury to the atmosphere, both natural and
120 anthropogenic. Development of numerical models for emission source strength estimate that can
121 utilize long-term data obtained from passive samplers over a large spatial coverage will also be
122 an important future task.

123
124 Constraining the contribution of different sources of mercury to the atmospheric burden might be
125 aided by the measurement of the isotopic composition of mercury in the atmosphere (Sun et al.,
126 2016b). Presently, characterizing the isotopic composition of atmospheric mercury is challenging
127 and has only been accomplished at a small scale, because of the need to collect sufficient
128 mercury mass for isotopic analysis (e.g. Blum et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2016). Such
129 measurements may be greatly facilitated by passive air samplers that can quantitatively sample
130 mercury from the atmosphere for extended time periods. In particular, with a global network of
131 passive air samplers, it might be possible to assess the average isotopic composition of the global
132 atmosphere, which in turn may allow an assessment of the relative importance of different types
133 of mercury emissions. An important need is to investigate the potential for isotopic fractionation
134 during the passive sampling process.

135

136 **2.2 Dry deposition and air-surface exchange**

137 Consistent and reliable methods for determining the dry deposition of mercury compounds is
138 critically needed since this process dominates the mercury input into many ecosystems. Current

139 methods rely on measurement of atmospheric concentrations, combined with modeled deposition
140 velocities, to estimate dry deposition fluxes (Zhang et al., 2016b). Further refinement of existing
141 methods for directly measuring dry deposition fluxes is needed (Huang et al., 2014).

142

143 The most common approach for measuring dry deposition flux of oxidized mercury (GOM and
144 PBM) is using devices with surrogate surfaces collecting the oxidized mercury (Wright et al.,
145 2016). However, surrogate surfaces may not accumulate the same amount of oxidized Hg as
146 natural surfaces. A surrogate surface would collect the same amount of oxidized mercury over
147 different land uses at the same location assuming the same aerodynamic and chemical
148 conditions, while in theory dry deposition flux can vary by a factor of 2 or larger over different
149 land uses (Zhang et al., 2016b). Dry deposition algorithms validated using such field flux
150 measurements have uncertainties of a similar magnitude. More complicated methods, such as the
151 relaxed eddy accumulation method (Skov et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2015a, b), may provide more
152 accurate flux data.

153

154 For GEM, bi-directional flux exchange makes the surrogate surface flux measurements
155 meaningless. No surrogate surface can simulate the canopy since the majority of GEM uptake is
156 by foliage and likely an active process by the vegetation. After uptake, oxidation of GEM could
157 occurred and stored in the foliage (Wang et al, 2016; Yu et al, 2016) and part of the oxidized
158 mercury can be reduced and re- emitted back to the air (Gustin, 2011). Gradient methods also
159 have large uncertainties due to (1) lack of homogeneity of underlying surfaces, and (2) small
160 gradients compared to instrumental detection accuracy. A modified gradient method is worth
161 considering for measuring GEM flux (Wu et al., 2015). Relaxed eddy accumulation would work,

162 but is a complex measurement technique (cf. Ostwalder et al., 2016). Concurrent gradient
163 measurements of GEM and other well-known pollutant species (such as O₃) can provide a sense
164 of data quality. Presently, GEM flux observations are made in relatively short-term campaigns
165 (Edwards and Howard, 2013). Longer-term measurements are needed to adequately observe the
166 variation in seasonal flux variation and the influence of environmental factors. This has been
167 done in laboratory studies with chambers and some comparison with field measurements (cf.
168 Eckley et al., 2011; Miller et al. 2011; Miller and Gustin, 2013).

169
170 Concurrent measurements of Hg fluxes using different methods (e.g., gradient measurements),
171 litterfall, throughfall, and soil Hg content provide more complete information when combined
172 with model estimates (Graydon et al., 2012). Individual data sets can have large uncertainties.
173 With a combined data set, uncertainty ranges can be quantified and model
174 validation/improvement can be done with more confidence (Wright et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,
175 2016b). Such a combined campaign would be useful for quantifying the flux to forests, which are
176 a potentially large sink of mercury worldwide. The geospatial coverage of GEM flux data is
177 highly heterogeneous, and more field observations are needed in South America, South Asia,
178 Africa, Australia, and the polar regions (Zhu et al., 2016).

179
180 Other research advancements that can improve our understanding of flux exchanges include
181 developing a fast-response detection technique at sufficiently high sensitivity to reduce the
182 uncertainty of flux measurement, investigating kinetic parameters of Hg transformation (redox
183 and coordination chemistry) in soil and on surfaces to fundamentally understand bi-directional
184 GEM exchange, and developing mechanisms describing physicochemical and biological

185 processes contributing to evasion and deposition processes. The quantity of GEM air-surface
186 exchange at global scales can then be re-assessed using models that better describe processes.

187

188 **2.3 Chemical mechanisms**

189 Due to the limited knowledge on the chemical forms of oxidized Hg and its ultra-trace
190 concentrations below the detection limit of existing instruments, both monitoring networks and
191 CTMs use the operationally defined oxidized Hg (GOM and PBM). The chemistry of
192 atmospheric Hg has long been regarded as a major source of CTM uncertainties (Lin et al. 2006;
193 Pongprueksa et al. 2008; Subir et al., 2011, 2012) resulting in widely varying treatments of GEM
194 oxidation in CTMs (Ariya et al., 2015; De Simone et al., 2014). Many oxidation reactions
195 currently employed in CTMs or published studies are considered implausible based on kinetic
196 and *Ab initio* thermodynamic equations (Balabanov et al., 2005; Calvert and Lindberg, 2005;
197 Dibble et al., 2012), such as the following:



205 but could be facilitated by heterogeneous reactions or complex reactions with other constituents
206 in the atmosphere (T. Dibble, personal communication). Gas-particle partitioning between GOM
207 and PBM in CTMs is mostly oversimplified (see a summary in Ariya et al., 2015). A

208 fundamental understanding of the chemistry driving atmospheric Hg cycling is needed, which
209 requires GOM speciation measurements and laboratory studies on multiphase redox kinetics.
210

211 While technical breakthroughs of GOM speciation measurements are gradually emerging (cf.
212 Deeds et al., 2015; Gustin et al., 2015; Lyman et al. 2016), quantum computational tools and
213 laboratory experiments could shed light on the potential reactions and provide theoretical values
214 for model interpretation of atmospheric Hg chemistry. Dibble et al. (2012) used quantum
215 calculations to determine the stability of GOM compounds likely to be formed in the Br-initiated
216 oxidation of GEM and demonstrated stable products, HgBrY, forming from HgBr reacting with
217 NO₂, HO₂, ClO, and BrO, as well as little dependence of the bond strength of XHg-Y (X=Br, Cl)
218 on halogen identity. In the first kinetic study of BrHg + NO₂ and BrHg + HOO, Jiao and Dibble
219 (2017) computationally determined the rate constants and product yields for these two reactions.
220 Incorporating results from studies like these in atmospheric models is likely to cause significant
221 changes in predicted rates of GEM oxidation in different geographical regions and various parts
222 of the atmosphere. A recent modeling study (Horowitz et al, 2017) suggested that applying those
223 kinetic data in chemical transport models can be consequential to simulations of the
224 spatiotemporal variability of GOM concentrations and deposition. A new study (Ye et al., 2017),
225 which was recently submitted, evaluated a regional chemical transport model (CMAQ) modified
226 by implementing a Hg and Br chemical mechanism that included the most up-to-date kinetic data
227 and reactions (Ye et al., 2016) and constrained by an observed vertical profile of BrO. They
228 found that the modified CMAQ-Hg could capture significantly greater seasonal and diurnal
229 variations of GEM, GOM, and PBM that the default version failed to do and simulate Hg wet
230 and dry deposition in better agreement with observations or observation-based estimates.

231 Moreover, calculated product yields could provide directions and guidance for laboratory
232 experiments. Quantum chemical computation can in theory also be extended to studying the
233 kinetics of aqueous and solid phase reactions, which could address multiphase redox chemistry.
234 However, this remains quite challenging as it is very difficult to determine the geometries of
235 aqueous and solid compounds among a multitude of other issues.

236
237 Research areas needed to improve the understanding of Hg cycling include (Ariya et al., 2015;
238 Gustin et al., 2015; Solis et al., 2017; Subir et al., 2011, 2012, Sun et al., 2016a) : (1) primary
239 oxidation mechanisms responsible for Hg removal from the atmosphere using measurement and
240 quantum computation approaches; (2) Hg isotopic fractionation of gaseous and aqueous phase
241 redox processes in air, water, and soil; (3) interactions between various Hg compounds and
242 particles in aqueous and gaseous phases; (4) information on mercury cycling in the upper
243 troposphere and lower stratosphere; and (5) mechanism and kinetics of Hg(II) reduction in
244 natural water and atmospheric droplets, in particular, the agents responsible for Hg(II) reduction
245 under realistic environmental conditions.

246

247 **2.4 Field measurements of speciated mercury**

248 A growing body of research has shown that the only commercially-available instrument capable
249 of distinguishing between GEM, GOM, and PBM (the Tekran 2537/1130/1135 speciation
250 system) exhibits a low bias in measuring GOM, and a large uncertainty in measurements of PBM
251 (Cheng and Zhang, 2017; Gustin et al. 2013; Lyman et al. 2016; Rutter and Schauer, 2007;
252 Talbot et al., 2011). Ozone (Lyman et al., 2010; McClure et al., 2014), water vapor (Gustin et al.,
253 2013; Huang et al., 2015; McClure et al., 2014), and perhaps some other atmospheric

254 constituents (Lyman et al., 2016) interfere with GOM measurements. Bias in KCl coated-
255 denuder based GOM measurements varies with season, time of day, and chemical and
256 meteorological conditions (Gustin et al., 2016; Huang and Gustin, 2015; Lyman et al., 2016;
257 McClure et al., 2014), and current scientific understanding of GOM and PBM dynamics and
258 chemistry is based, in part, on these biased measurements. Improved measurement methods are
259 needed to re-establish and solidify scientific understanding of GOM and PBM sources, transport,
260 and fate in the atmosphere.

261
262 It is recommended that when developing or improving measurement techniques that researchers
263 consider the following: (1) reliable, routine, and reproducible calibration in laboratory and field
264 conditions, (2) ability to capture GOM and PBM without significant measurement bias, or at
265 least with a bias that is well characterized, and (3) ability to distinguish quantitatively between
266 GOM and PBM. It is also desirable to identify and quantify individual oxidized mercury
267 compounds, although this may be changing for operational purposes.

268
269 Measurement of ambient GOM at sub-pptv levels is challenging. Careful calibration under field
270 measurement conditions is critical to understanding these biases and, potentially, correcting for
271 them. Permeation tube-based methods have been used by several groups for GOM calibration
272 (Finley et al., 2013; Huang and Gustin, 2015; Jones et al., 2016; Lyman et al., 2010; McClure et
273 al., 2014), including an automated calibrator (Lyman et al., 2016), but other methods have been
274 developed for high-concentration GOM calibration (e.g., Thermo Model 81i and Tekran Model
275 3310/3321) and could be adapted for ambient levels of GOM. Regardless of the method used, all
276 future measurements of GOM should incorporate routine calibration in ambient air.

277

278 Cation-exchange membrane-based GOM collection methods have been explored as an
279 alternative to denuder methods (Huang and Gustin, 2015; Huang et al., 2013). Air is drawn
280 through the membranes, and oxidized mercury compounds are captured while other atmospheric
281 constituents, including GEM, pass through. Membranes are then analyzed for total mercury
282 content via standard methods. Limited studies in laboratory and ambient air have indicated that
283 cation-exchange membranes may exhibit bias for selected Hg compounds under atmospheric
284 conditions (Gustin et al., 2016; Huang and Gustin, 2015). Direct measurement of GOM with
285 cation-exchange membranes requires long sampling times (on the order of 1-2 weeks), but
286 alternative collection configurations or materials could alleviate this concern.

287

288 Differential measurements that use quartz wool (Ambrose et al., 2015; Lyman and Jaffe, 2012;
289 Slemr et al., 2016) or cation-exchange membranes (Ambrose et al., 2015; Gratz et al., 2015) to
290 selectively trap GOM have provided GOM measurements with high temporal resolution. These
291 methods currently have high detection limits (about 100 pg m^{-3} (Ambrose et al., 2015)), but
292 modifications could possibly improve detection. Quartz wool appears to work poorly as a GOM
293 collection material in high-humidity environments (Ambrose et al., 2013; 2015). Other collection
294 methods for GOM have been explored, notably nylon membranes (Gustin et al., 2013; Huang
295 and Gustin, 2015), zirconia (Urba et al., 2017), and PTFE chips (Deeds et al., 2015). Nylon
296 membranes do not quantitatively capture GOM, but have been shown to be useful for thermal
297 desorption techniques (discussed below (Huang and Gustin, 2015)). Zirconia shows promise at
298 collecting GOM with low interference from ozone and water vapor (Urba et al., 2017). Some
299 other collection surfaces have been explored as well (Lyman et al., 2007; Rutter et al., 2008;

300 Urba et al., 2017).

301

302 Two types of methods under development focus on identifying individual oxidized mercury
303 compounds in the atmosphere. The first is mass spectrometry (MS)-based methods. Deeds et al.
304 (2015) described an atmospheric-pressure chemical ionization MS that can identify HgBr₂ and
305 HgCl₂ in the atmosphere after preconcentration and thermal desorption, though interference from
306 other atmospheric constituents made identification somewhat ambiguous in ambient air samples.
307 Jones et al. (2016) described a gas chromatography (GC)-MS system that successfully identified
308 and quantified HgBr₂ and HgCl₂ in the laboratory, but this system had high detection limits and
309 was unable to identify Hg compounds in ambient air. More work is needed to develop and refine
310 MS-based methods, including and especially ambient air preconcentration methods that will
311 work with MS systems.

312

313 The use of thermal desorption to identify oxidized mercury compounds in the atmosphere has
314 also been explored (Gustin et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017). In this technique, nylon membranes
315 are used to collect mercury from ambient air, and membrane samples are then desorbed in a
316 programmed temperature sequence, and desorbed mercury is passed through a pyrolyzer and
317 analyzed for GEM. Oxidized mercury standards are loaded onto membranes and used to identify
318 oxidized mercury compounds in the atmosphere. This method has shown that different oxidized
319 mercury compounds exist in urban versus rural atmospheres, at high versus lower elevation sites
320 (Gustin et al., 2016), and at the same location at different times or seasons (Huang et al., 2017).
321 Evidence for HgBr₂, HgCl₂, HgO, and nitrogen- and sulfur-containing compounds has been
322 produced via this method (Gustin et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017). More work is needed to

323 determine whether atmospheric constituents and conditions influence thermal desorption results.

324

325 No method has yet been developed that can quantitatively distinguish between GOM and PBM.

326 This is a critical measurement need. A large portion of GOM can be lost on sample inlets that

327 exclude large particles (Feng et al., 2003), and GOM can break through collection media and

328 adhere to downstream filters that are intended for PBM collection (Lyman et al., 2016). GOM

329 can adhere to inlets, tubing, and filters and later revolatilize, likely complicating the collection of

330 PBM by filter-based methods (Lynam and Keeler 2005; Lynam and Keeler, 2002; Pierce and

331 Gustin, 2017; Rutter and Schauer, 2007; Talbot et al., 2011).

332

333 **2.5 Analysis and application of speciated mercury data**

334 Observations of speciated atmospheric Hg have been used in identifying Hg source-receptor

335 relationships (Cheng et al., 2015a and references there in), understanding Hg cycling, gas-

336 particle partitioning, and oxidation mechanisms (Amos et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2014; Gabay et

337 al., 2017; Obrist et al., 2011; Shah et al., 2016; Timonen et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2016), evaluating

338 Hg transport models (Angot et al., 2016; Gustin et al., 2015; Kos et al., 2013; Weiss-Penzias et

339 al., 2015), and quantifying Hg deposition budgets (Amos et al. 2012; Cheng et al., 2015b; Zhang

340 et al., 2016b). Limited long-term data have also been applied in assessing Hg trends in the

341 atmosphere and the effects of emission control policies (Brown et al., 2015; Castro and Sherwell,

342 2015; Cole et al., 2013, 2014; Martin et al., 2017; Steffen et al., 2005;).

343

344 With an increasing geographical coverage of speciated Hg data, receptor-based source

345 apportionment analysis has been utilized for quantifying contributions to the observed ambient

346 Hg concentrations (Cheng et al., 2015a). Results generated from these analyses should be
347 carefully compared to the results of source-based approaches, which may have the potential to
348 improve natural emission inventories that can then be used in improving CTMs performance.
349 This is because emission sources and intensities used in most CTMs are prepared using known
350 anthropogenic sources and highly empirically parameterized natural sources (Pacyna et al.,
351 2016), while receptor-based methods do not require comprehensive knowledge on source
352 emissions and can predict potential sources. Existing emission inventories used in various CTMs
353 should be compared in different model frameworks and with Hg speciation measurements
354 (Pacyna et al., 2016).

355

356 CTMs were mostly evaluated using monitored wet deposition and total gaseous Hg (TGM) data
357 (e.g., Gencarelli et al., 2017). These model simulations should be reassessed using available
358 speciated Hg data as was done by Bieser et al. (2014), while keeping in mind the magnitude of
359 potential uncertainties in the monitored Hg (Kos et al., 2013; Jaffe et al., 2014; Gustin et al.,
360 2015; Cheng and Zhang, 2017). It is recommended that CTMs are evaluated over the Asian
361 domain with high ambient oxidized Hg (and thus likely smaller uncertainties in oxidized Hg
362 measurements), once monitoring data at multiple locations are available.

363

364 A major goal of monitoring speciated Hg in the National Atmospheric Deposition Program
365 (NADP) Atmospheric Mercury Network (AMNet) in North America is to provide reliable dry
366 deposition estimation using the inferential modeling approach (Zhang et al., 2016b). However,
367 uncertainties for fluxes estimated using this approach are likely larger than a factor of 2, because
368 of a lack of reliable flux data for developing and improving dry deposition algorithms. Different

369 compounds of GOM will also have different dry deposition velocities (Huang et al., 2017).
370 Intercomparison studies using multiple dry deposition algorithms should be conducted to provide
371 a range of model uncertainties (Zhu et al., 2015a, b), and these model estimates should also be
372 compared with other types of deposition measurements as mentioned in Section 2.2. Further
373 development and/or improvement of the dry deposition algorithms are needed once new
374 knowledge is gained.

375
376 Future work is needed to confirm the recently observed decreasing trend of TGM/GEM
377 identified at a South Africa coastal site, over the Atlantic Ocean, at Canadian mid-latitude
378 sites and in China (Fu et al., 2015), and more work is needed to continue to unravel the causes
379 for these decreasing trends. For example, changes in anthropogenic emissions likely played a
380 major role in the changes of atmospheric Hg (Zhang et al., 2016c), while changes in marine
381 boundary layer halogen chemistry (Parrella et al., 2012) and in riverine and wastewater
382 discharges (Amos et al., 2014) were found to have little impact on mercury trends. The observed
383 decreasing trends were likely to be associated with decreased reemission of legacy mercury,
384 changing anthropogenic emissions, reduced use of mercury in commercial products, enhanced
385 oxidative capacity due to increasing tropospheric ozone, thus more production of GOM, and
386 decreased evasion from the Atlantic Ocean. The last factor was thought to be driven by
387 declining subsurface water Hg concentrations resulting from reduced Hg inputs from rivers and
388 wastewater and from changes in the oxidant chemistry of the atmospheric marine boundary
389 layer. These hypotheses require further research and validation using extensive, longer-term
390 datasets and model results produced from simulations realistically representing dynamical,
391 physical, and chemical processes in mercury cycling in the atmosphere, the oceans and the

392 terrestrial ecosystems, as well as the interactions among the three systems.

393

394 **2.6 Network harmonization**

395 Global distributions of tropospheric speciated Hg data remain sparse despite nearly two decades
396 of extensive monitoring and modeling studies (Mao et al., 2016). Globally harmonized

397 observation networks are needed for investigating intercontinental transport and providing mass
398 balance estimation on a global scale. Measurement instruments, techniques, maintenance, and

399 standard operating procedures (SOP) must be comparable between networks. In North America,

400 the NADP/AMNet has utilized consistent measurement instrumentation, SOP, and data quality

401 review across its 25 monitoring sites. The AMNet SOP was developed between 2007 and 2009

402 with the goal of developing one SOP and data quality assurance (QA) procedure generally

403 agreed upon by the Hg research community (Gay et al., 2013; Steffen et al., 2012). This AMNet

404 SOP and QA procedure was also adopted by the Global Mercury Observation System (GMOS)

405 for use at its >20 global sites (Sprovieri et al., 2016). Therefore, the two networks, GMOS and

406 AMNet are using very similar procedures to produce comparable observations of mercury.

407

408 Consistent quality control of mercury observations and quality assurance (QA/QC) processes

409 after data collection is also necessary to ensure the data are generated consistently within and

410 between operational networks. Among the operating Tekran-based atmospheric networks, both

411 the Canadian Atmospheric Mercury Measurement Network (CAMNet) and the Atmospheric

412 Mercury Network (NADP's AMNet) in the U.S. have data QA/QC systems in place. The two

413 systems are reasonably comparable (Steffen et al., 2012), making the two network datasets

414 comparable and usable in combination. In both cases, significant amounts of data are invalidated

415 due to many different causes (e.g. Gay et al, 2013), clearly showing that post measurement
416 quality control is necessary. Additionally, the GMOS network also implemented a data quality
417 control system (D'Amore et al., 2015), which is based upon both the Canadian and NADP
418 systems and uses the majority of the flags from each system. A strict comparison between the
419 three QC systems has not been completed but should be done in the near future. Based on the
420 similarities in the data quality control procedures, it is at least reasonable to assume that the
421 resulting data from the three networks are generally consistent. The QA/QC procedures from
422 these three mercury monitoring networks provide a basis for the development of a global QA/QC
423 process for all atmospheric observations, which is essential for the global modeling community
424 using the data from the three networks.

425
426 Consistent and continuous measurements in Asia are particularly important since Asia is the
427 largest source region for mercury emissions (Pacyna et al., 2016). The Asia Pacific Mercury
428 Monitoring Network (APMMN) was developed to organize Asian countries into a network
429 framework that will follow standard techniques for wet deposition monitoring (based on NADP
430 methods), and ultimately the speciation measurement of ambient Hg (GEM, GOM, and PBM).
431 Although there have been continuous observational efforts in China in the past decade, a stronger
432 coordination is recommended to avoid duplication of measurements and to enhance data quality
433 consistence (Fu et al., 2016). Observational data in South Asia and the Mideast are particularly
434 lacking. It is recommended to establish a harmonized monitoring network for data and procedure
435 sharing in China and other Asian countries.

436

437 The value of consistent global measurements of atmospheric Hg concentrations will diminish

438 without free exchange of data among scientists. As with AMNet, and planned with APMMN, all
439 measurements should be validated using similar techniques, shared in organized databases, and
440 released freely. This will allow modellers to use data for model evaluation, determination of
441 locations with high concentrations, and provide data useful for scientists tracking mercury as it
442 moves through the ecosystem. Furthermore, it will allow for policy makers to determine if
443 mercury emission control achieves the desired deposition reduction of mercury compounds.
444 Monitoring networks in regions other than the above-mentioned are also encouraged to fill data
445 gaps in terms of spatial coverage on the global scale, particularly in Africa and South America.
446
447 Each atmospheric network has a different set of protocols on data release, but it would be very
448 valuable to data users and the research community if freely available and timely data can be
449 accessed from one location that applies a consistent quality assurance and control system to
450 validate the data. Perhaps the operating networks will evolve to this combined operation, or
451 perhaps some type of system similar to the GEOSS (Global Earth Observation System of
452 Systems, <https://www.earthobservations.org/geoss.php>) could be employed, so that a consistent
453 and global dataset would be freely available to all data users.
454
455 It is conceivable that networks with large numbers of passive air sampling sites could
456 complement existing networks for atmospheric mercury measurements using more sophisticated
457 sampling techniques. Existing large-scale networks of passive air samplers at continental and
458 global scales for organic contaminants (Gawor et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2004, Shunthirasingham
459 et al., 2010) could serve as a template of what is feasible for gaseous mercury. Because of their
460 low cost and limited operational requirements, passive air samplers could potentially play a role
461 to increase the number of locations globally, although the comparison and interpretation of data

462 obtained by different measurements require further research. Another research need is to
463 establish the minimum change in long-term average concentrations that can be detected with
464 passive sampling techniques, and what the best temporal resolution of such long-term monitoring
465 should be.

466

467 Existing monitoring networks using the Tekran unit measure PBM at sizes $<2.5 \mu\text{m}$. However,
468 Hg in coarse particles could contribute substantially to the total Hg dry and wet deposition (Fang
469 et al., 2012; Cheng et al, 2015b). Impactor measurements of total PBM in the marine boundary
470 layer showed clear diurnal variations with daily maximums at around noon and minimums
471 before sunrise (Feddersent et al., 2012). In contrast, Tekran PBM measurement data from a
472 limited number of marine boundary layer and continental monitoring locations worldwide
473 exhibited no definitive diurnal patterns in PBM concentrations (Mao et al., 2016; Mao and
474 Talbot, 2012), likely due to artifacts associated with the instrument's GOM and PBM
475 measurements (Gustin et al., 2015). To understand and quantify atmospheric mercury deposition
476 budgets and gas-particle partitioning, it is imperative to monitor Hg in both fine and coarse
477 particles.

478 **3. Conclusions**

479 Extensive field data of atmospheric mercury has been collected in the past several decades, and
480 analysis and application of these data have generated a significant amount of knowledge
481 regarding mercury sources, transport, chemical transformation, and deposition. However, large
482 uncertainties exist in almost every aspect related to atmospheric mercury cycling, inherited from
483 those of the measurements especially in the oxidized forms of mercury due to their ultra-trace

484 ambient concentrations, instrument limitations, and undefined chemical speciation. Improving
485 the accuracy of existing instruments and developing new technologies for routinely measuring
486 speciated mercury is critically needed to provide high quality data for further understanding of
487 mercury cycling. Harmonized networks using the same operational and data quality control
488 standards are strongly recommended for field data collection in various regions of the world.
489 Box or 1-D numerical models with detailed chemistry combined with laboratory tests may shed
490 light on possible chemical mechanisms controlling mercury cycling, while regional to global
491 scale models should be further improved and evaluated using more recent data to provide a better
492 constraint on mercury mass balance, and to improve emission and deposition budgets. Receptor-
493 based models can be complementary to source-based models in improving emission estimation.
494 Practical methods and instruments for surface flux measurements are needed to quantify natural
495 emissions and dry deposition budgets, and existing algorithms estimating fluxes from these
496 processes need further evaluation. Coordinated studies are strongly recommended for better
497 integration of laboratory, field, and mathematical modeling research.

498

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