

1 **Two-century sediment records of atmospheric mercury variations in North**

2 **China and their relations with regional and global emissions**

3 Dejun Wan^{a,b*}, Handong Yang^c, Zhangdong Jin^d, Lei Song^b, Dongliang Ning^a, Longjuan
4 Cheng^a, Qingfeng Jiang^a

5 ^a School of Geographical Science, Nantong University, Nantong, 226007, China

6 ^b Institute of Hydrogeology and Environmental Geology, Chinese Academy of
7 Geological Sciences, Shijiazhuang 050061, China

8 ^c Environmental Change Research Centre, University College London, London WC1E
9 6BT, UK

10 ^d State Key Laboratory of Loess and Quaternary Geology, Institute of Earth
11 Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xi'an 710075, China

12

13 **Corresponding authors:**

14 Dejun Wan, dejunwan@foxmail.com, dejunwan@ntu.edu.cn, Address: 999 East
15 Waihuan Road, Nantong, 226007, Jiangsu, China

16 Dongliang Ning, ningdl@ntu.edu.cn, Address: 999 East Waihuan Road, Nantong,
17 226007, Jiangsu, China

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Sedimentary mercury (Hg) records from remote areas are significant for revealing
21 historical variations of regional Hg and understanding the influence of regional and
22 global Hg emissions. In this study, sediment cores were retrieved from two subalpine
23 lakes in Shanxi Province in North China and employed to reconstruct atmospheric Hg
24 variations over the last two centuries. The two records show similar anthropogenic Hg
25 fluxes and evolution trends, corresponding with that they were affected mainly by
26 regional atmospheric Hg deposition. Before ~1950, the records show negligible Hg
27 pollution signals. Atmospheric Hg in the region had increased rapidly since the 1950s,
28 lagged more than a half-century compared to the global Hg. This indicates that they
29 were seldom affected by Hg emissions dominated by Europe and North America after
30 the Industrial Revolution. The Hg increases since the 1950s in the two records
31 corresponded well with rapid industrial developments in and around Shanxi Province
32 after the founding of the PR China, implying the dominant contribution of domestic Hg
33 emissions. By comparing other Hg records, we find that widespread increases in
34 atmospheric Hg in China likely occurred post ~1950. This study rouses to re-examine
35 historical variations in atmospheric Hg at various settings, which is significant to
36 understanding global Hg cycling in the industrial era.

37 **Keyword:** sediment record; pollution history; heavy metal; atmospheric pollution;
38 North China

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Mercury (Hg) is one of the most polluted heavy metals on the globe. It is estimated
42 that the global average Hg is about three times higher than that in the pre-industrial
43 era as a result of anthropogenic emissions (Driscoll et al., 2013; Hylander and Meili,
44 2003). Usually, the largest increases in environmental Hg are found in and around the
45 industrialized regions (Fu et al., 2015; Hylander and Meili, 2003). In the regions, it is
46 estimated that the present atmospheric Hg deposition rate has increased by 2-10 folds
47 (Hylander and Meili, 2003). Historically, in early period of the Industrial Revolution
48 (~1860s-1960s) developed countries in Europe and the United States were the major
49 anthropogenic Hg emitters, accounting for more than 80% of the total global Hg
50 emissions (Streets et al., 2019). Since the 1970s, as developed countries have realized
51 the risks of Hg pollution and put environmental pollution controls in place, Hg
52 emissions in these regions have reduced significantly (Streets et al., 2019). In contrast,
53 in developing countries like China economy and industry have developed rapidly after
54 the Reform and Opening-up in the late 1970s. The development has caused sharp
55 increases in Hg emissions. Now, China contributes the largest amount of
56 anthropogenic Hg into the atmosphere in the world (Fu et al., 2016), accounting for
57 25-40% of the global total anthropogenic Hg emissions (UNEP, 2018). Therefore,
58 special attentions should be paid to the long-term variations in anthropogenic Hg in
59 China.

60 In recent decades, some studies reconstructed historical variations of Hg using

61 sedimentary records in different regions of China, such as on the Qinghai-Tibet
62 Plateau (Kang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2010), in western (Zeng et al., 2014), northern
63 (Liang et al., 2022), northeastern (Zhan et al., 2020), and southeastern regions of China
64 (Li et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2017). These studies suggest considerable increases in Hg
65 in the last century, with the highest Hg flux ($70\text{-}80 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) found in Lake
66 Huguangyan (Li et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2017) in South China and the lowest ($\sim 10 \mu\text{g}$
67 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (Yang et al., 2010) and in West China (Zeng et
68 al., 2014). However, there are discrepancies between these reconstructions on the
69 evolution trends of Hg pollution and their relations with global Hg emissions derived
70 from the Industrial Revolution. For example, studies from Lake Sayram in West China
71 (Zeng et al., 2014), Lake Gonghai in North China (Liang et al., 2022), Lake Tianchi
72 in Northeast China (Zhan et al., 2020), and Lake Huguangyan in South China (Zeng
73 et al., 2017) reported Hg increases since the late 19th or early 20th century presumably
74 caused by global Hg emissions after the Industrial Revolution, whereas a study (Li et
75 al., 2021) also from Lake Huguangyan and some records (e.g. Cuo Na, Cuo E, Nam
76 Co, and Kemen Co) on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (Yang et al., 2010) did not find such
77 increases. In addition, some of the reconstructions only calculated total Hg
78 accumulation rates or enrichment factors (e.g. Kang et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2017;
79 Zhan et al., 2020), while some calculated anthropogenic Hg accumulation fluxes
80 without considering the focusing effect (e.g. Li et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2022; Zeng
81 et al., 2014). This not only leads uncertainties on revealing evolution trends of
82 anthropogenic Hg in the past but also makes it difficult to conduct comparative

83 analysis of these reconstructions. Until now, it is still unclear about the general
84 variations of atmospheric/anthropogenic Hg in China after the Industrial Revolution
85 and their relations with anthropogenic Hg emissions from developed countries in
86 Europe and North America.

87 In view of this, sediment cores were retrieved from two remote subalpine lakes that
88 were seldom affected by local human activities in North China, and employed to
89 reconstruct historical variations of atmospheric Hg in the past. Based on the records,
90 corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes in the last two centuries were reconstructed by
91 eliminating the focusing effect. Then, temporal variations and causes of atmospheric
92 Hg pollution were discussed in combination with other pollutants and historical data
93 of economic and industrial developments. Finally, by compiling sediment Hg records
94 over China, historical anthropogenic Hg variations in China and their relation with the
95 global Hg emissions was examined. This study is significant for revealing historical
96 trends of atmospheric Hg in China and understanding global Hg cycling in the
97 industrial era.

98 **2. Materials and methods**

99 *2.1. Sampling and analysis*

100 Details of the study area, including the two lakes——Lake Gonghai and Lake
101 Mayinghai, are provided in Section S1 of the Supporting Material (SM). Sediment cores
102 were retrieved using a 90-mm diameter gravity corer from the center areas of the lakes.

103 The cores were 60-cm-long for GH from Lake Gonghai and 56-cm-long for MY from
104 Lake Mayinghai. They were sectioned in the field at 1.0 cm interval. The sediment
105 samples were dried at about -40 °C with a vacuum-freezing dryer in the lab, and
106 homogenized and grounded to fine powder (<63 μm) for chemical analyses (Wan et al.,
107 2019a and 2020).

108 Sediment samples were analyzed for ^{137}Cs , ^{210}Pb , and ^{226}Ra by direct gamma assay
109 using a low-background intrinsic germanium detector (EG&G Ortec Gamma
110 Spectrometry) at the State Key Laboratory of Lake Sciences and Environment in China.
111 Chronologies of the cores were calculated using ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs radiometric data (Wan
112 et al., 2020). Details of sediment core dating are in Section S2 of the SM.

113 For analyzing element composition, approximately 0.125 g ground sediment was
114 accurately weighted for each sample. Then, it was hot-digested in Teflon digestion tubes
115 with mixed acids of nitric acid, perchloric acid, and hydrochloric acid (Wan et al., 2016).
116 After digestion, the samples were diluted to 50 ml with double-distilled deionized water.
117 Then, the solutions were taken for determining concentrations of major elements such
118 as Al, Ti and Ca in both GH and MY sediments by a Leeman Labs Profile inductively
119 coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) and trace elements including
120 Cd, As and Pb in GH sediments by an Agilent 7700x inductively coupled plasma mass
121 spectrometry (ICP-MS) at the State Key Laboratory of Lake Sciences and Environment
122 (Wan et al., 2019a). The precision of these measurements was less than 5% for their
123 relative standard deviations.

124 Mercury measurements for the GH sediments were conducted at Environment

125 Research Center in University College London following the method of Yang et al
126 (2016). Briefly, the sediment was firstly digested using 8 mL of aqua regia on a hot
127 plate at 100 °C for 1.5 h in 50 mL polypropylene DigiTUBE (SCP Science). Then,
128 mercury concentrations in the digested solutions were analyzed using a cold vapor-
129 atomic fluorescence spectrometry (CV-AFS) following reduction with SnCl₂. Quality
130 control was conducted by digesting and analyzing analytical blanks and standard
131 reference materials (stream sediment GBW07305, certified Hg value 100 ± 10 ng g⁻¹).
132 The average recovery rates of Hg were 93±8% for the reference material of GBW07305.
133 Mercury concentrations in the MY sediments were measured using a direct mercury
134 analyzer (Hydra-C, Leeman Labs Inc) following the USEPA method at the State Key
135 Laboratory of Lake Sciences and Environment (Wan et al., 2022). Standard reference
136 material (GSD-23) and duplicate measurements were employed to control the analysis
137 quality. The measurement errors were less than 5%, with a detection limit of 0.6 ng g⁻¹.

138 Analytical details for other parameters including grain-size composition, contents
139 of total organic carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN), and diatom assemblages can be
140 found in Section S3 of the SM.

141 2.2. Calculation of anthropogenic Hg flux

142 To reflect human-derived Hg trends, anthropogenic Hg fluxes were estimated in
143 the two sediment cores. The anthropogenic Hg flux (Hg[Flux_{anthr}], µg m⁻² yr⁻¹) was
144 calculated by the following equation (Wan et al., 2019b):

$$145 \text{Hg[Flux}_{\text{anthr}}] = (\text{Hg}[C_{\text{sample}}] - \text{Hg}[C_{\text{background}}] \times R[C_{\text{sample}}] / R[C_{\text{background}}]) \times \text{SR} \times \rho \times 10$$

146 (2)

147 where $Hg[C_{sample}]$ and $Hg[C_{background}]$ represent Hg concentrations in sediment samples
148 and in background sediment, respectively. $R[C_{sample}]$ and $R[C_{background}]$ represent Ti
149 concentrations in sediment samples and in background sediment, respectively. SR
150 represents sedimentation rate ($cm\ yr^{-1}$) and ρ is dry bulk density ($g\ cm^{-3}$) of the sediment.
151 For a few sediment samples in the lower core section without Ti measurement (GH: 42,
152 48, 52, and 60 cm; MY: 33, 37, 40, 46, and 55 cm), background Ti or average Ti values
153 in their upper and lower samples were taken for the calculation. Negative values of the
154 calculated flux in the background sections of the sediment cores were set to zero.

155 Finally, the anthropogenic Hg flux was corrected for the influence of sediment
156 focusing by using the following equations (Perry et al., 2005):

$$157\ Hg[Flux_{anthr}]_c = Hg[Flux_{anthr}]/F \quad (3)$$

$$158\ F = (\sum F^{210}Pb_{ex, core})/(\sum F^{210}Pb_{ex, regional}) \quad (4)$$

159 where $\sum F^{210}Pb_{ex, local}$ represents unsupported ^{210}Pb inventory measured in the sediment
160 core, and $\sum F^{210}Pb_{ex, regional}$ represents the regional $^{210}Pb_{ex}$ reference inventory in this
161 region. The regional $^{210}Pb_{ex}$ reference inventory referred to the value of $5730\ Bq\ m^{-2}$
162 revealed by (Zhang et al., 2003) in adjacent province of Shaanxi with similar
163 precipitations to that of the study lakes.

164 **3. Results and discussion**

165 **3.1. Historical variations of anthropogenic Hg in GH and MY**

166 **3.1.1. Anthropogenic Hg variations before ~1950**

167 In the period of 1780s-1950, Hg concentrations in the GH core had a range of 17.1-
168 23.2 ng g⁻¹, with an average of 19.5±2.2 ng g⁻¹; while those in the MY core had a range
169 of 35.8-42.8 ng g⁻¹, with an average of 39.6±2.1 ng g⁻¹. The average Hg concentration
170 in GH was only half of that in MY, which could be ascribed to relatively low
171 background Hg in soil in Lake Gonghai catchment compared to Lake Mayinghai.
172 Although the large differences, Hg concentrations in the two sediment cores were
173 relatively low and stable during this period (Fig. 1). After ~1950, Hg concentrations in
174 the two sediment cores increased rapidly. In the 2010s, Hg concentration in GH reached
175 64.5 ng g⁻¹, increased by a factor of three as against that in 1780s-1950; while that in
176 MY reached 66.4 ng g⁻¹, increased by a factor of nearly two.

177 Mercury concentrations in lake sediments are usually affected by both
178 anthropogenic emissions and natural factors such as lake sedimentation rate, primary
179 productivity, and terrigenous detrital inputs (Cooke et al., 2020). To help distinguish
180 anthropogenic and natural contributions, anthropogenic Hg fluxes were reconstructed
181 and corrected in the two records.

182 In the 1780s-1950, the corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes in GH and MY cores
183 were close to zero (Fig. 1). Although there were several fluctuations in the fluxes during
184 this period, e.g. peaks in the 1860s in GH and in the 1820s in MY, they all were
185 relatively minor compared to the increases in recent decades (Fig. 1) and it is difficult
186 to determine whether they were related to real anthropogenic influence or natural
187 fluctuation. These data suggest that the reconstructed anthropogenic Hg fluxes, similar
188 to Hg concentrations, were relatively low and stable in 1780s-1950, indicating

189 negligible contribution of anthropogenic Hg.

190 In addition, sedimentary compositions, including grain sizes, Al, Ti, and Ca, of the
191 two sediment cores only showed slight variations in this period (Fig. 2), suggesting
192 relatively stable sedimentation environments in the two lakes. This provided good
193 sedimentation backgrounds for faithfully recording anthropogenic Hg pollution signals,
194 further implying that the low and stable Hg fluxes could reflect the negligible
195 anthropogenic Hg signals in this period.

196 Liang et al. (2022) also reconstructed historical Hg variations in GH and MY using
197 sediment cores. The study reported similar negligible anthropogenic Hg signals before
198 ~1950 in Lake Mayinghai but an earlier increase in anthropogenic Hg since the late
199 19th century in Lake Gonghai (Fig. 3) (Liang et al., 2022). From the comparison of Hg
200 concentration vs depth in GH and MY between our study and Liang et al. (2022), it can
201 be seen that vertical variations of Hg concentrations in the two studies fitted well with
202 each other and sharp increases in Hg concentrations occurred in similar upper core
203 sections (Fig. 3). This suggests the reliability of sampling and measurement in the two
204 studies and that their discrepancy was caused by sediment core dating.

205 For vertical variations of ^{137}Cs in GH (Fig. 3), our study and Liang et al. (2022)
206 both showed the first occurrence of ^{137}Cs at 24-25 cm depth and the first peak at 20-21
207 cm. Increases of ^{137}Cs from 25 to 20 cm depth were sharp, without any trailing
208 phenomenon. This suggests that the depth of 24-25cm probably corresponded to the
209 early 1950s when nuclear tests started to increase worldwide and that the depth of 21cm

210 corresponded to the early 1960s when nuclear tests peaked. These deduced ages fit well
211 with our dating results of GH core, but show a half-century discrepancy compared to
212 that of GH core in Liang et al. (2022). If the GH core in Liang et al. (2022) was in line
213 with this ^{137}Cs ages, its temporal variation of Hg would be in agreement with the record
214 in their MY core and our two records in this study.

215 The dating results of the MY cores in our study and Liang et al. (2022) showed
216 similar ages for the ^{137}Cs peak of 1963 (Fig. 3). And the two studies reported almost the
217 same temporal variations of Hg in MY. In addition, our reconstruction shows similar
218 Hg fluxes between the two lakes, whereas that of Liang et al. (2022) shows large
219 discrepancy in fluxes between the two lakes (Fig. 3). These facts suggest the reliability
220 of our dating and reconstructions, confirming the negligible anthropogenic Hg signals
221 in the lakes before ~1950.

222 **3.1.2. Rapid increases in atmospheric Hg since the 1950s**

223 Since the 1950s, the corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes, similar as Hg
224 concentrations, have begun to increase rapidly in the two records (Fig. 1). Heavy-metal
225 increases in recent lake sediments usually relate to increased atmospheric deposition,
226 direct dumping into the lakes, and variations of aquatic primary productivity and
227 catchment erosion (Yang, 2015; Wan et al., 2020). Lakes Gonghai and Mayinghai are
228 situated remotely in the Lvliang Mountains. There was no industry around the lakes.
229 Although TOC content in the GH core experienced a rapid increase during ~1970-1990
230 (Fig. 4), the primary productivity in the lake did not experience obvious changes until

231 ~1985 indicated by diatom changes (Fig. 4). This time was significantly later than the
232 major Hg increase occurred in ~1950-1990. Corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes in MY
233 also increased significantly during 1950-1990, but TOC and TOC/TN did not change
234 much in this period (Fig. 4) (Liang et al., 2022). These suggest that the recent Hg
235 increases in the two lakes had little relation with the aquatic primary productivity.
236 Finally, the two lakes might receive a certain amount of anthropogenic Hg from their
237 catchment via erosion (Liang et al., 2022). However, the amount was likely not large,
238 considering that the lakes are located on a semi-arid climate area with a mean annual
239 precipitation of only 468 mm and they have relatively low catchment/lake area ratios
240 (2-6) as they are known as Tianchi (crater lake) situated on mountain tops. A study in
241 semi-arid lakes on the Tibetan Plateau estimated that contribution of Hg caused by
242 catchment input accounted for no more than ~11% of the total Hg in the lake sediments
243 (Yang et al., 2010). In addition, as atmospheric Hg in China did not experience obvious
244 declines in recent decades (Tian et al., 2015), the fractions of the atmospheric Hg fluxes
245 which have been transported to the lake from the catchment should be relatively
246 constant (Yang et al., 2015). These suggest that the Hg increases in recent several
247 decades in the two sediment cores were mainly related to atmospheric deposition.

248 In 1950-2014, the maximum Hg concentration in GH increased by 3.4 times
249 compared with the background value, while that in MY increased only by 85% (Fig. 1).
250 Although the two records have large discrepancies in Hg concentration, they show
251 similar corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes and evolution trends. This indicates that the
252 two lakes had been affected by the same source——regional atmospheric deposition,

253 and thus they could be used to reflect atmospheric mercury variations in the past.

254 Since the 1950s, the anthropogenic Hg fluxes in both cores had increased
255 significantly, suggesting a rapid increase in atmospheric Hg level in the region. This
256 change corresponded well to the rapid development of economy and industry in the
257 region after the founding of the PR China in 1949. Shanxi province and its surrounding
258 areas, rich in coal and steel resources, were a key development area in industry in the
259 early years of New China (Liu, 2009). In the 1950s, there were eight key constructive
260 industrial cities in the whole China, with three of them situated in the region, i.e.
261 Taiyuan (~120 km south to the lakes), Datong (~150 km northeast), and Baotou (~270
262 km northwest) (Zhou, 2005). The backward trajectories show that these cities are
263 located on the main directions of atmospheric circulation over the lakes (Fig. S3).

264 In the early period of New China, heavy industry, especially iron and steel, was the
265 top priority of economic development. In 1949, annual production of cast iron in Shanxi
266 Province was only 40,000 tons. However, in 1960 it reached 1.19 million tons,
267 increased by nearly 30 times (Fig. 5) (SBSP, 1999). In 1958-1960, there even occurred
268 a nationwide campaign to make iron and steel. In this period, most of the iron and steel
269 refining furnaces were small and crude, with less developed technology and poor
270 management (EBFYCISI, 1999). The output of iron and steel was relatively low, but
271 the pollutant emissions were high, which caused rapid increase in atmospheric Hg
272 emissions in the region. The increase trend of Hg since the 1950s in GH and MY
273 sediments was consistent with estimated atmospheric Hg emissions in China (Fig. S4)
274 (Tian et al., 2015) and synchronous with the sediment records from most regions of

275 China (Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2010).

276 In the late 1990s, the anthropogenic Hg fluxes in the two cores experienced an
277 obvious decrease, suggesting a decline in atmospheric Hg level in this region. In 1997,
278 the Asian financial crisis triggered a national economic recession in China. Coal and its
279 related industries entered a downturn period, as coal price continued to fall despite
280 rising production cost. As an important province of coal production and consumption,
281 annual coal consumption in Shanxi Province changed from a rapid rise in the early
282 1990s to a decline in 1997-2001 (Fig. 5)
283 (http://calendar.hexun.com/area/dqzb_140000.shtml). This change caused a decrease in
284 pollutant emissions in the region, corresponding to the decline in atmospheric Hg level.
285 These imply that the two sediment cores may have recorded the regional atmospheric
286 Hg changes in the past.

287 **3.2. Comparison with historical variations of other pollutants in the** 288 **lakes**

289 From historical variations of other pollutants, including other heavy metals, black
290 carbon, and PAHs, in these lakes (Fig. 6), heavy metals and PAHs concentrations were
291 also relatively low and stable during 1780s-1950. Only black carbon experienced some
292 slight rises (e.g. in the 1870s in Lake Mayinghai, in the 1930s in Lake Gonghai), which
293 were probably caused by natural factors like wildfires rather than human-related
294 emissions (Zhan et al., 2019). This suggests that the lakes were seldom affected by not
295 only anthropogenic Hg but also other pollutants before 1950.

296 Since the 1950s, black carbon and PAHs showed similar increasing trend with Hg,
297 but other heavy metals did not increase till ~1980 AD. This was probably because that
298 heavy metals are usually transported shorter distance in the atmosphere than Hg as they
299 tend to stick to atmospheric particulates (Lü et al., 2019). Heavy metals in the lakes
300 were affected by pollutant emissions mainly from nearby cities such as Ningwu,
301 Shenchu, and Wuzhai, where industry developed later and development level was
302 relatively low in Shanxi Province (Peng et al., 2010).

303 **3.3. Comparison with Hg records from other regions**

304 Since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the 1860s, global
305 anthropogenic Hg emissions have increased rapidly due to fossil fuel combustion,
306 mining, and industrial production (Hylander and Meili, 2003; Streets et al., 2019).
307 Model estimations suggest that the global atmospheric Hg emissions in the late 19th
308 century reached ~2500 ton yr⁻¹, only slightly lower than that in the 1960s (Fig. S4)
309 (Streets et al., 2019). Similarly, many sediment records from Europe and North America
310 also show considerable increases in anthropogenic Hg since the late 20th century (e.g.
311 Cooke et al., 2020; Corella et al., 2017; Cortizas et al., 2012).

312 In China, some studies (Fig. 7), such as Lake Huguangyan in South China
313 (Zeng et al., 2017), lakes of Qinghai, Keluke, and Gahai on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau
314 (Yang et al., 2010), Lake Tianchi in Northeast China (Zhan et al., 2020), and Badain
315 Jaran Desert (Liu et al., 2015), reported earlier increases in Hg since the late 19th
316 century and inferred those were likely caused by global industrial Hg emissions.
317 However, from their trends in Fig. 7, it can be seen that most of these Hg increases were

318 not obvious before ~1950 compared to their recent and even early natural changes.
319 Together with that most of previous studies did not calculate historical anthropogenic
320 Hg contributions (Kang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2017; Zhan et al., 2020)
321 and investigated only one single sediment core without any comparative ones (Li et al.,
322 2021; Liu et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2014 and 2017; Zhan et al., 2020), there are still
323 uncertainties on the inference of these Hg increases related to global Hg emissions.

324 Our records of historical Hg variations in GH and MY suggested negligible
325 increases in anthropogenic Hg before ~1950 (Fig. 1). Besides, some other sediment
326 records from China that calculated anthropogenic Hg contributions, e.g. Lake
327 Huguangyan Marr in South China (Li et al., 2021) and lakes of Cuo Na, Cuo E, Nam
328 Co, and Kemen Co on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (Yang et al., 2010), also showed
329 similar negligible increases in Hg before ~1940-1950 (Fig. 7). These negligible
330 anthropogenic Hg signals indicate that the above Hg increases in the late 19th and early
331 20th centuries could not be caused by long-range transport and deposition of the global
332 Hg emissions, as atmospheric deposition at the global scale should cause similar Hg
333 pollution signals in all lake sediment records with similar Hg backgrounds in China. It
334 is known that the early global Hg emissions were contributed mainly (~80% in 1880s-
335 1890s and ~50-60% in 1900-1950) by developed countries in Europe and North
336 America (Streets et al., 2019) which are situated the farthest away from China in the
337 Northern Hemisphere. Some of them may have been transported and deposited into
338 remote China, but they were likely not enough to leave obvious signals in most
339 sediment records. Even in Eastern America (Rhode Island), a lake sediment record

340 showed little indication of increased Hg deposition related to the late 19th-century silver
341 and gold mining in the western USA (Fitzgerald et al., 2018). Therefore, obvious
342 anthropogenic Hg signals occurred in some lake sediment records in China before 1950
343 should be more likely ascribed to local/regional Hg sources than global emissions. For
344 example, in Lake Sayram in West China (Zeng et al., 2014) and three lakes in
345 southeastern Inner Mongolia (Wan et al., 2022) in North China, considerable increases
346 in anthropogenic Hg were found in the first half of the 20th century, and they both were
347 speculated to be caused by regional emissions.

348 Although the Hg records in China exhibit differences in their early Hg changes
349 before the 1950s, most of them show significant Hg increases since the 1950s related
350 to Hg emissions in China (Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2010; Zhan et al.,
351 2020) (Fig. 7). The change fitted well with the backward industry in old China and
352 quick developments of industry after the founding of the PR China in 1949. The model
353 estimated atmospheric Hg emission in China was only ~ 12.5 ton yr⁻¹ in the year of
354 ~ 1950 (Tian et al., 2015), which was only $\sim 1/10$ of that in Asia (131 ton yr⁻¹) and $\sim 1/100$
355 of the global emissions (1330 ton yr⁻¹) (Streets et al., 2019). In 1959, the emission
356 increased rapidly to ~ 270 ton yr⁻¹ (Tian et al., 2015), which was 21.6 times of that in
357 ~ 1950 . The above facts indicate widespread increases in atmospheric Hg in China likely
358 occurred after the founding of New China, obviously later than the beginning time of
359 the Industrial Revolution. The finding supports assessments that most of the 20th
360 century Hg emissions were deposited locally near urban and industrial centers of Hg
361 use and release (Cooke et al., 2022; Fitzgerald et al., 2018). However, it should be noted

362 that most of the above Hg records were usually of uncertainties on core dating and
363 affected by local Hg sources at different degrees, the exact increase time in atmospheric
364 Hg and its spatial variations should be further studied by investigating more reliable
365 sediment records from different regions in China.

366

367 **4. Conclusions**

368 In this study, historical variations in atmospheric Hg over the last two centuries were
369 reconstructed using two sediment cores from remote lakes in Shanxi Province in North
370 China. Compared with the background, the present Hg concentration in the GH core
371 increased by ~3 times, whereas that in the MY core increased by only 85%, ascribed to
372 relatively low background Hg in catchment soil in Lake Gonghai compared to Lake
373 Mayinghai. Despite of the large difference in Hg concentrations between the two cores,
374 their corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes were close and showed similar evolution trends.
375 The two records show relatively low and stable anthropogenic Hg fluxes in the whole
376 19th and the first half of the 20th centuries, suggesting negligible pollution signals of
377 atmospheric Hg. The fact indicates little influence of early industrial Hg emissions,
378 which was likely caused by that the early Hg emissions were contributed mainly by
379 developed countries in Europe and North America and that few of them were
380 transported and deposited into remote China. Rapid increases in atmospheric Hg in this
381 region have occurred since the 1950s, derived mainly from regional Hg emissions. This
382 corresponded well with the rapid development of industry in and around Shanxi

383 Province after the founding of the PR China. The results imply a possible minor
384 influence of Hg emissions dominated by Europe and North America in the late 19th and
385 early 20th centuries on China. The findings are significant for understanding historical
386 variations of atmospheric Hg in China and the influence of the early industrial Hg over
387 the globe.

388

389 **Ethical Approval**

390 Not applicable.

391 **Consent to Participate**

392 Not applicable.

393 **Consent to Publish**

394 Not applicable.

395 **Authors Contributions**

396 Dejun Wan: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation,
397 Methodology, Project administration, Software, Visualization, Writing original draft.
398 Handong Yang: Supervision, Validation, Writing - review & editing. Zhangdong Jin:
399 Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Lei Song: Investigation,
400 Methodology, Supervision, Review & editing. Dongliang Ning, Longjuan Cheng, and

401 Qingfeng Jiang: Methodology and Review & editing.

402 **Funding**

403 This work was financially supported by Research Programs of Chinese Academy
404 of Sciences [XDB40020100, 132B61KYSB20170005] and Nantong Science and
405 Technology Planning Project [MS22022107].

406 **Competing Interests**

407 Not applicable.

408 **Availability of data and materials**

409 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published
410 article.

411 **Acknowledgements**

412 We thank Dr. Jinsong Yang and Dr. Xin Mao at Institute of Hydrogeology and
413 Environmental Geology, Chinese Academy of Geological Sciences and Dr. Yuxin Zhu
414 at State Key Laboratory of Lake Sciences and Environment for their assistance in field
415 sampling and laboratory analysis.

416 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

417 Supplementary data to this article can be found in *Supporting Material*.

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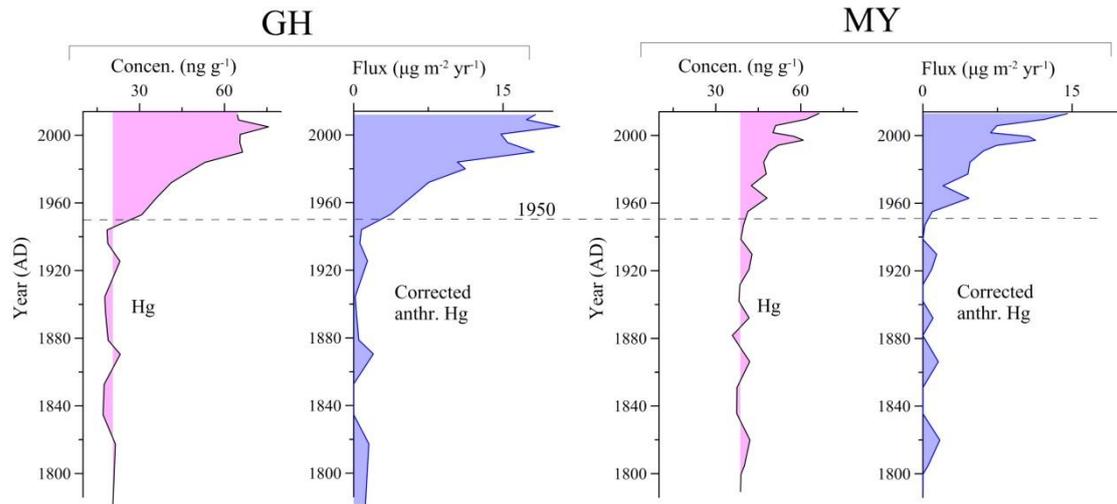
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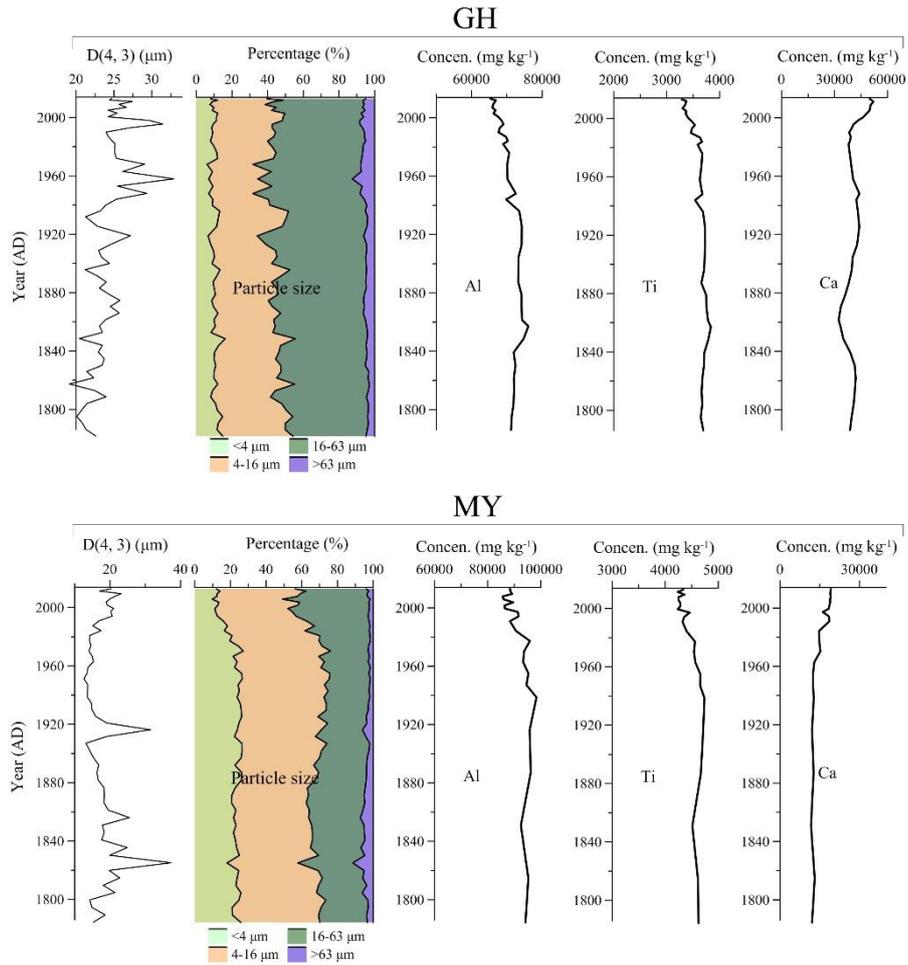


535

536 **Fig. 1** Temporal variations of Hg concentrations and corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes

537 in GH and MY.

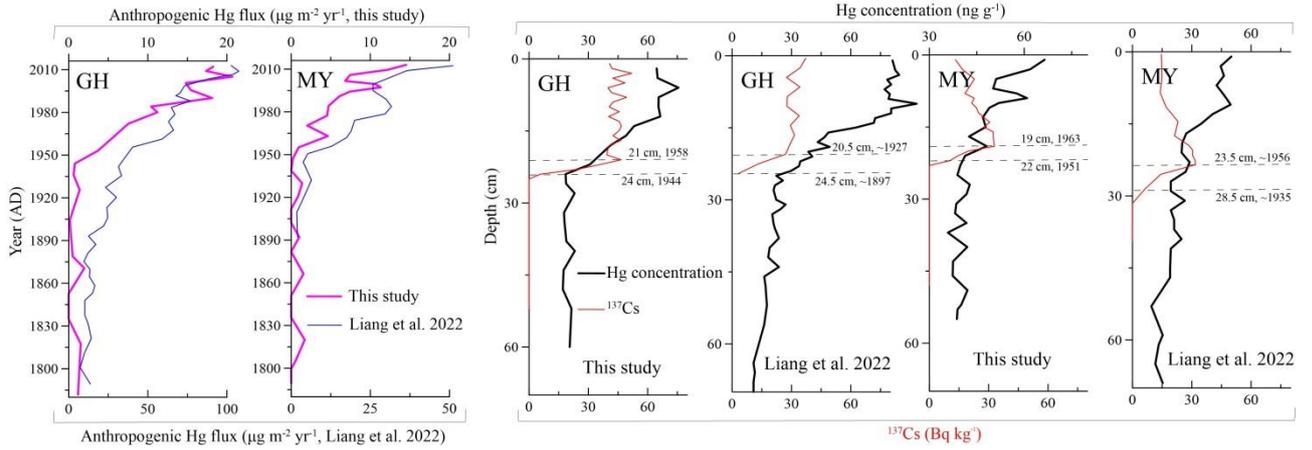
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540 **Fig. 2** Temporal variations of grain sizes, Al, Ti, and Ca in the two sediment cores. D
 541 (4, 3) and percentage (%) represent volume-weighted mean grain size and relative
 542 percentage of each component of grain size in sediment, respectively.

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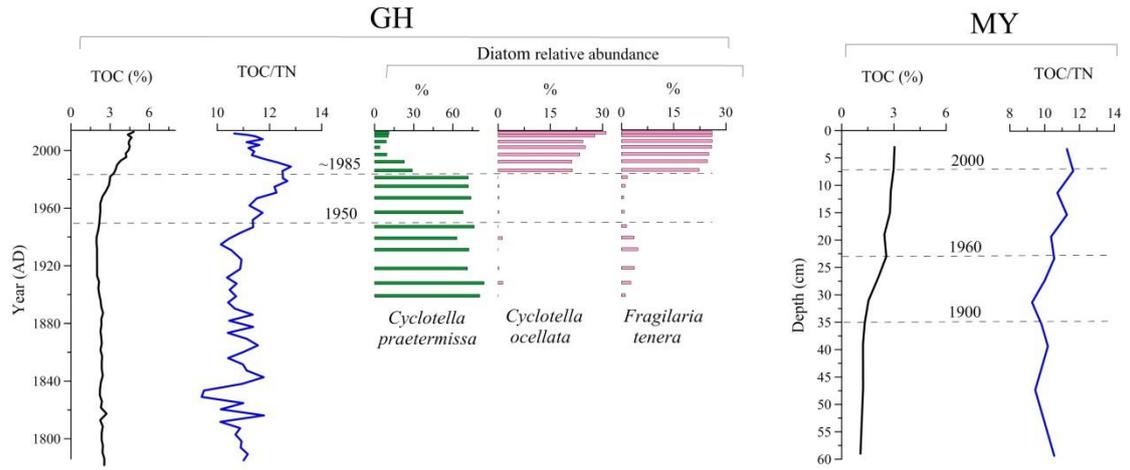


544

545 **Fig. 3** Comparisons of reconstructed anthropogenic Hg fluxes, Hg concentrations, and

546 ^{137}Cs in the two lakes between this study and Liang et al. (2022).

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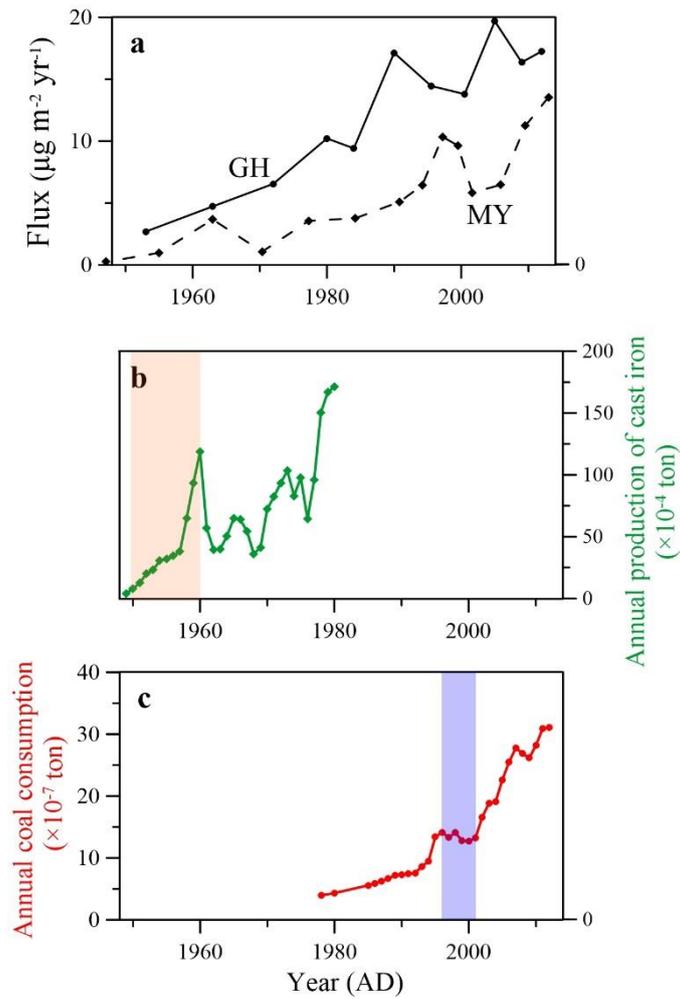


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549 **Fig. 4** Temporal trends of TOC, TOC/TN, and diatom in GH and MY. Data of TOC and

550 TOC/TN in MY were from Liang et al. (2022).

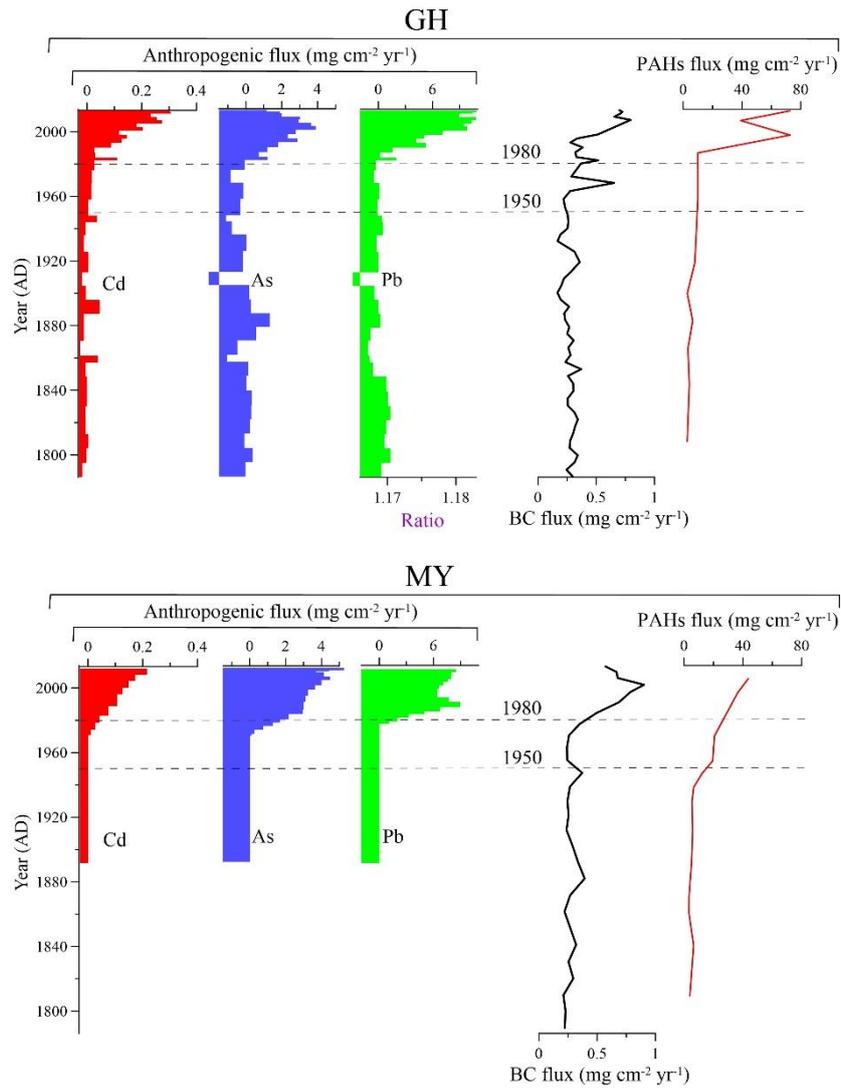
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553 **Fig. 5** (a) Corrected anthropogenic Hg fluxes in GH and MY in 1949-2014, (b) annual
 554 production of cast iron (SBSP, 1999), and (c) coal consumption in Shanxi Province
 555 (http://calendar.hexun.com/area/dqzb_140000.shtml). 坐标轴没对齐。

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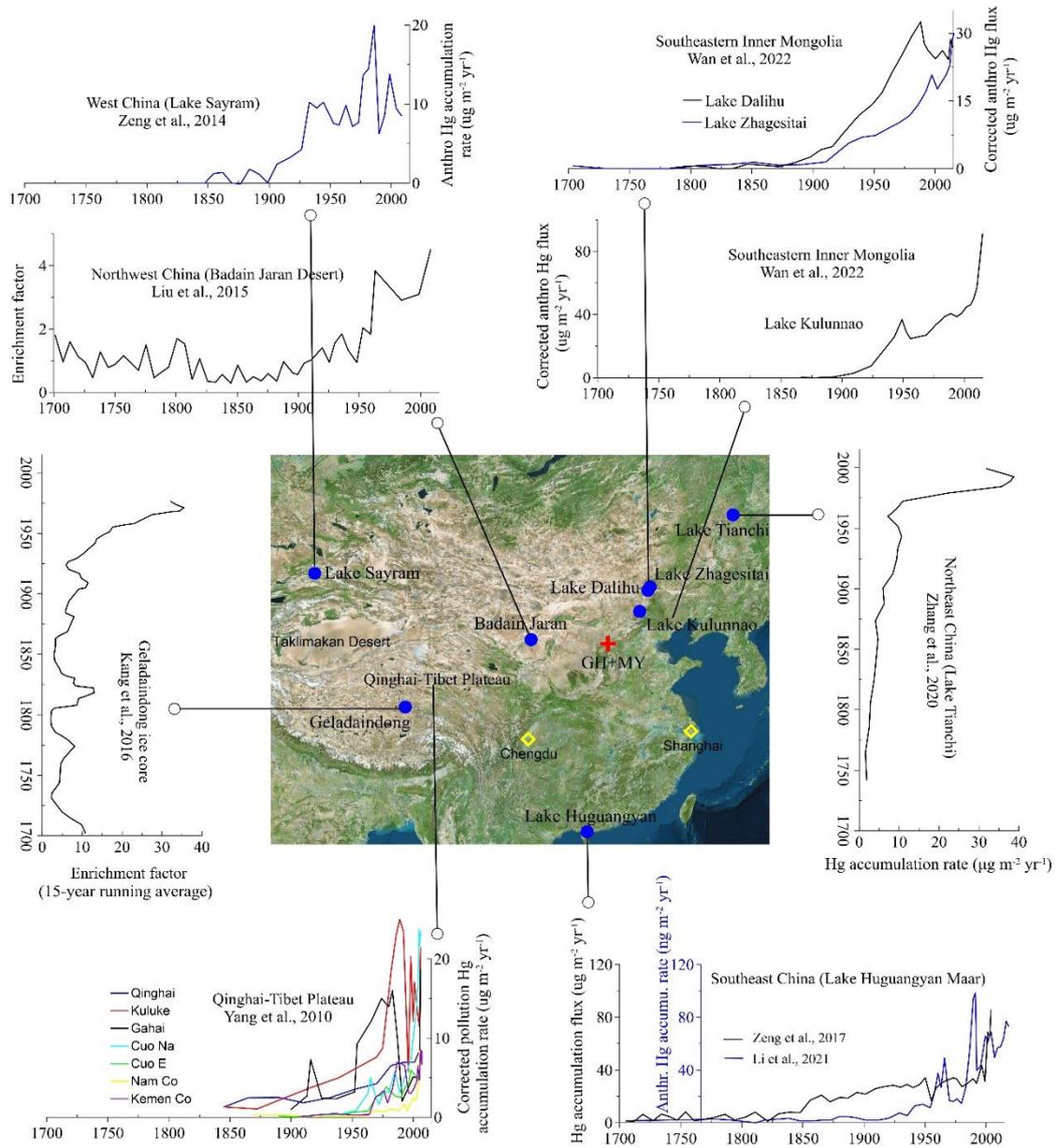
557

558 **Fig. 6** Historical variations of reconstructed heavy metals, BC, and PAHs fluxes in lake

559 sediment cores of GH and MY. Data sources: BC and PAHs from Zhan et al. (2019),

560 and heavy metals in Lake Mayinghai from Liang et al. (2022).

561



562

563 **Fig. 7** Comparisons with Hg records from other regions in China, including Lake
 564 Tianchi in Northeast China (Zhan et al., 2020), three lakes in southeastern Inner
 565 Mongolia (Wan et al., 2022), Lake Huguangyan Maar in South China (Li et al., 2021;
 566 Zeng et al., 2017), a small lake in Badain Jaran Desert in Northwest China (Liu et al.,
 567 2015), Lake Sayram in West China (Zeng et al., 2014), and Geladaindong ice core
 568 (Kang et al., 2016) and seven lakes (Yang et al., 2010) on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau.

569 加北京、玛珥湖文献位置调整。

