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Reconstructing historical atmospheric mercury deposition in Western Europe using: Misten peat bog cores, Belgium

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HIGHLIGHTS

► Study of Hg concentration in four cores from Belgian peat bog.
► Reconstruction of Hg deposition over last 1500 years.
► Maximum Hg accumulation rates ranging from 90 to 200 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ are recorded between 1930 and 1980 AD.
► The average Hg accumulation rate before the influence of human activities (e.g. 1300 AD) was 1.8 ± 1 μg m⁻² y⁻¹.
► The predominant anthropogenic Hg sources were coal burning and smelter Hg emissions.

ABSTRACT

Four sediment cores were collected in 2008 from the Misten ombrotrophic peat bog in the Northern part of the Hautes Fagnes Plateau in Belgium. Total mercury (Hg) concentrations were analyzed to investigate the intra-site variability in atmospheric Hg deposition over the past 1500 years. Mercury concentrations in the four cores ranged from 16 to 1100 μg g⁻¹, with the maxima between 840 and 1100 μg g⁻¹. A chronological framework was established using radiometric ²¹⁰Pb and ¹⁴C dating of two cores (M1 and M4). Pollen horizons from these two cores were correlated with data from two additional cores, providing a consistent dating framework between all the sites. There was good agreement between atmospheric Hg accumulation rates in the four cores over time based on precise age dating and pollen chronosequences. The average Hg accumulation rate before the influence of human activities (from 500 to 1300 AD) was 1.8 ± 1 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ (2SD). Maximum Hg accumulation rates ranged from 90 to 200 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ between 1930 and 1980 AD. During the European–North American Industrial Revolution, the mean Hg accumulation rate exceeded the pre-Industrial values by a factor of 63. Based on comparisons with historical records of anthropogenic activities in Europe and Belgium, the predominant regional anthropogenic sources of Hg during and after the Industrial Revolution were coal burning and smelter Hg emissions. Mercury accumulation rates and chronologies in the Misten cores were consistent with those reported for other European peat records.

1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg) has been used for thousands of years and more recently it has been used in a large number of industrial processes (Pacyna et al., 2006). Mercury is a metal that is toxic to humans and wildlife at low concentrations (Morel et al., 1998; Mergler et al., 2007). Natural Hg sources include volcanic activity, erosion and marine emissions (Schroeder and Munthe, 1998). The principal anthropogenic Hg emission sources are coal fired power plants, chlorine production, non-ferrous metallurgy, cement production, and primary and secondary lead and zinc production (Wilson et al., 2006; Pacyna et al., 2006; Pirrone and Mason, 2009). More than 95% of natural and anthropogenic Hg emissions are mainly in elementary form (Hg⁰) with a residence time of 6–12 months in the atmosphere (Schroeder and Munthe, 1998; Fitzgerald and Lamborg, 2007; Pirrone and Mason, 2009). Long-range transport of Hg emissions has resulted in the contamination of remote ecosystems, generating a serious environmental problem that transcends national boundaries (Pirrone and Keating, 2010). Hylander and Meili (2003)

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suggested that the current rate of global Hg emission (until 2000) to the atmosphere was approximately 3 times higher than during the pre-Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution was a period from 1750 to 1850 marked by an increase in industrial activities, coal burning, and petroleum use. Similarly, Lindberg et al. (2007) estimated that atmospheric Hg deposition to remote ecosystems globally had increased by a factor of 3 since the start of the Industrial Revolution (1700 AD). To determine the regional versus global contributions, it is important to quantify the origin of this atmospheric Hg and its spatio-temporal variations.

Several types of environmental archives (lake and marine sediments, ice and peat) have been used to provide information about Hg deposition during the last thousand years (e.g., Gobell et al., 1999; Bindler et al., 2001; Biester et al., 2002; Roos-Barracough et al., 2002; Givelet et al., 2004a, 2004b). Peat records from ombrotrophic peatlands that receive inputs by way of the atmosphere are unique archives of anthropogenic and natural deposition of trace elements (e.g., Shotyk et al., 1996, 2001; Martinez Cortizas et al., 1997, Farmer et al., 2009; Zaccoone et al., 2009; Manneville et al., 2006).

Data from ombrotrophic peat bogs, (Martinez Cortizas et al., 1999; Roos-Barracough et al., 2002; Biester et al., 2002; Shotyk et al., 2003) have been utilized to reconstruct the evolution of atmospheric Hg deposition over long-term periods (e.g. the Holocene). In these studies, the Hg accumulation rate was calculated by combining the accumulation rate and density of the peat bog and Hg concentration (Madson, 1981; Jensen and Jensen, 1990; Norton et al., 1997; Martinez Cortizas et al., 1999; Roos-Barracough et al., 2002; Givelet et al., 2004a, 2004b), and Hg was assumed to be immobile and well preserved in ombrotrophic peat (e.g. Benoit et al., 1998; Roos-Barracough et al., 2002; Givelet et al., 2004a, 2004b; Shotyk et al., 2003, 2005). However, most authors (e.g. Rydberg et al., 2010; Biester et al., 2003) have suggested that Hg concentrations in peat bogs could be affected by natural biogeochemical processes such as peat decomposition and early diagenesis. This hypothesis was tested, but not validated, by Outridge et al. (2011) using a dated permafrost peat core from Northern Canada. Thus to use Hg concentrations in peat bogs as a record over time requires a precise chronological control of peat accumulation, especially in the acrotelm zone or the layer generally above the water table that can exercise chronological control of peat accumulation, especially in the age-dated permafrost peat core from Northern Canada. To determine the regional versus global contributions, it is important to quantify the origin of this atmospheric Hg and its spatio-temporal variations.

2. Materials and methods
2.1. Sampling site and sample collection

The Misten peat bog is located in Eastern Belgium, ~5 km from the German border (Fig. 1). The peat bog surface has higher relief than surrounding area. A titanium Wardenaar corer from the University of Heidelberg was used to recover the upper first meter. The length of all peat cores was between 90 and 110 cm. A Belarus corer was therefore used to core deeper (core name MIS-08-01b). Maximum peat thickness reaches up to 8 m (Wastiaux and Schumacker, 2003), dating back to 9000 years (De Vleeschouwer et al., 2007). Based on geochemical parameters (Ca/Mg ratio, Sr concentrations), the Misten peat bog described as ombrotrophic for the upper 6.5 m and minerotrophic between 6.5 and 8 m. Although, ombrotrophic peatlands receive inputs from the atmosphere, the minerotrophic component also receives water influenced by surrounding soils and rocks.

The four peat cores MIS-08-01W (M1), MIS-08-04W (M2), MIS-08-05W (M3) and MIS-08-06W (M4) were collected in February 2008 using a Wardenaar corer (Fig. 1) in the most protected part of the natural reserve “Les Hautes-Fagnes”. The distance between the four cores was 50 to 100 m. The length of all peat cores was between 90 and 110 cm. Following the protocol described by Givelet et al. (2004a, 2004b), the cores were frozen (−40 °C) and cut by a stainless steel band saw (thickness of each sample ~1.5 cm). The peat samples were freeze-dried (at −40 °C, pressure ~10⁻³ mbar) during approximately 1 week and powdered using an agate ball mill.

2.2. Ash content and humification

The mineral matter content of the peat, defined as “ash content”, was determined for all samples in cores M1 and M4 and every other sample in cores M2 and M3. Peat samples were dried at 105 °C over night and subsequently weighed to obtain the dry weight. Between 0.1 and 1 g of dried peat was then placed in oven at 550 °C for 6 h, to remove all organic matter by combustion (Chambers et al., 2011).

The degree of humification was estimated by colorimetry on peat alkaline extracts (Chambers et al., 2011). Two hundred milligrams of dried peat were reduced to powder and placed in an Erlenmeyer flask. One hundred milliliters of NaOH (8%) were added and the solution was boiled for 1 h. After cooling, the solution was diluted to 200 ml with MQ distilled water, then homogenized and filtered using no.1 Whatman filter paper. Fifty milliliters were taken and diluted with an equal volume of distilled water, and then directly placed in a spectrophotometer at the Scientific Station of the “Hautes Fagnes” (SSH, University of Liège), for absorbance measurement at 540 nm. For every 10 samples, a standard with a humification level of 100% (Humic acid technical, ALDRICH) was included in the measurement. The ratio between the absorption values in the peat samples and peat standard was transformed to humification percentage.

2.3. Hg analysis

Mercury concentration was measured using a Milestone® DMA-80 at the Geosciences Environment Toulouse laboratory (France). All samples of the upper 25 cm of the cores and every other sample below this depth were measured. From 20 to 120 mg of dried bulk peat samples were used for analysis. Mercury concentrations were measured using an atomic absorption spectrophotometer after combustion and reduction of all forms of Hg to elemental Hg. Calibration was performed using ombrotrophic peat reference material (NIST/UEF/FM/001/NIST 1575) and peach leaves (NIST 1547). During each series of analyses, standards were analyzed three times before the first sample then between the samples. The average measured values were 162 ± 9 μg kg⁻¹ (n=9) for NIMT.
(certified value $164 \pm 20 \mu g \, kg^{-1}$), $150 \pm 30 \mu g \, kg^{-1}$ (n = 5) for NIST 1575 (certified value $150 \pm 50 \mu g \, kg^{-1}$), and $38 \pm 3 \mu g \, kg^{-1}$ (n = 3) for NIST 1547 (certified value $33 \pm 5 \mu g \, kg^{-1}$). All samples were analyzed in duplicate or triplicate.

2.4. Data analyses

Summary statistics were computed using Microsoft Office Excel 2010. The correlation coefficients ($r$) allow for the assessment of the degree of linear relationship between two variables. Relative standard deviation (% RSD) was calculated by dividing mean Hg accumulation rates (Hg AR) by standard deviation (SD), which is expressed as %. Bulk density (g cm$^{-3}$) was estimated by dividing the dry weight (g) by fresh sample volume (cm$^3$). Hg AR ($\mu g \, m^{-2} \, y^{-1}$) were calculated as follows (Givelet et al., 2004a, 2004b):

$$\text{Hg AR} = 10 \times [\text{Hg}] \times \text{BD} \times \text{PAR} \left( \text{cm} \, y^{-1} \right)$$

where $[\text{Hg}]$ is the concentration ($\mu g \, kg^{-1}$), BD is the bulk density of the peat (g cm$^{-3}$), and PAR is the peat accumulation rate (cm yr$^{-1}$).

2.5. Elemental analysis

Fifty-five elements were measured in core M1 (unpublished data). Only lead (Pb), manganese (Mn), iron (Fe), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), and titanium (Ti) are used in this study. Calcium and Mg are used to identify the peat status (ombrotrophic or minerotrophic peat, e.g. Shotyk et al., 1996). The concentrations of Ti is applied to quantify the natural “background” or lithogenic component of trace elements as brought by dust (Shotyk et al., 2001). Manganese and Fe are applied to understand the redox state of the samples (Steinmann and Shotyk, 1997). Lead is considered as immobile in the peat column and is largely enriched in the recent layers of European mires. It can be used as an indicator of the importance of anthropogenic trace metals.

Dry peat samples of $\pm 100 \, mg$ were digested by microwave at the Institute of Earth Sciences (University of Heidelberg) using a mixture of HNO$_3$ (3 ml) and HBF$_4$ (0.1 ml). Organic matter was removed from the digested solution by addition of H$_2$O$_2$ (Krachler et al., 2002; Givelet et al., 2004a, 2004b). Element-concentrations were measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (Agilent quadrupole ICP-MS), at Geosciences Environment Toulouse laboratory (Toulouse, France). The plant standards (ICTJ CTA-OTL-1 Oriental Tobacco Leaves, NIST tomato leaves 1573 and IAEA lichen 336) were analyzed with each series of samples, in order to determine the precision and reproducibility of analytical procedures. Comparison between reference values and measured values are satisfactory within 88–97%.

2.6. Age dating

Radioisotope age dating was done using stems, branches or leaves of plant material collected under a binocular microscope. Samples were prepared at the GADAM Center for Excellence (University of Gliwice, Poland) and measured by acceleration mass spectrometer (AMS) in Poznan, according the protocol described by Piotrowska et al. (2010, 2011). Activities of $^{210}$Pb were indirectly determined in cores M1 and M4 by the measurement of its decay product $^{210}$Po using a Canberra 740 alpha spectrometer (Sikorski and Bluszcz, 2008; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2010). The constant rate of supply (CRS) model (Appleby, 2008) was applied for the $^{210}$Pb dating. The maximum depth at which $^{210}$Pb could be detected was 22 cm for the core M1 (Table 1). Ten samples in the core M1 were dated by this method (Table 2). The M1 (200 cm) was cross referenced using the Wardenaar section and two Belorussian sections from the Miten peat bog previously dated. In this study we focus on the upper Wardenaar core (M1).

The composite age-depth for M1 was obtained by coupling the $^{14}$C and $^{210}$Pb to generate an age interval for each sample (Piotrowska et al., 2010, 2011). The $^{210}$Pb age was obtained by applying a Gaussian distribution of an age a function of depth, with a standard deviation of several years (Piotrowska et al., 2010). The total
activity of $^{210}$Pb ($C_{\text{tot}}$) was determined using the formula according to Appleby, 2001:

$$C_{\text{tot}} = C_{\text{tot}}(0) e^{-\lambda t} + C_{\text{sup}} (1 - e^{-\lambda t})$$

where $C_{\text{sup}}$ is the supported activity, $\lambda$ is the $^{210}$Pb radioactive decay constant and $C_{\text{tot}}(0)$ is the total $^{210}$Pb activity of the sediment at the time of burial.

All $^{210}$Pb and $^{14}$C data were processed using the 'Bacon' software (Blaauw and Christen, 2011) to establish an age model and age range for each peat section (Fig. 2).

### 2.7. Pollen analysis

The obtained age-depth model for C1 and data from the a core previously described by De Vleeschouwer et al., 2012, were applied along with the pollen horizons to stratigraphically correlate the four cores. The pollen and spore composition for each of the four cores were analyzed at the Palaeobiogeology, Palaeobotany and Palaeopalynology laboratory (University of Liege, Belgium). About 2 g of fresh peat were treated with hydrochloric acid (HCl, 10%), pure acetic acid and acetylation and the residues were washed by sieving through 200 μm and 12 μm meshes. The pollen and spore residues were suspended in glycerol, identified and counted at ×400 magnification using JENAVAL microscope. Pollen zones to stratigraphically correlate the four cores. The pollen and spore composition for each of the four cores were analyzed at the Palaeobiogeology, Palaeobotany and Palaeopalynology laboratory (University of Liege, Belgium). About 2 g of fresh peat were treated with hydrochloric acid (HCl, 10%), pure acetic acid and acetylation and the residues were washed by sieving through 200 μm and 12 μm meshes. The pollen and spore residues were suspended in glycerol, identified and counted at ×400 magnification using JENAVAL microscope. Pollen zones were defined in cores M1 and M4 (Table 3) that were correlated to those found in M2 and M3 (Fig. 3). First, the pollen zones were directly defined by comparing cores M1 and M4 (the best age-dated records). Second, the zonation was established for cores M2 and M3 which were not $^{210}$Pb age-dated and only $^{14}$C age dated at the bottom (Table 2). The upper sections of cores M2 and M3 were dated by combining pollen chronology, sedimentation rates, and $^{210}$Pb and $^{14}$C dates from the cores M1 and M4 (Table 2).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Density, ash content and humification

In core M1 peat accumulation rate increased slightly from 100 cm at base to 2 mm yr$^{-1}$ at 84 cm depth (447–692 AD) and then declined to 22 cm (1850–1864 AD) where it was lowest value (0.2 mm yr$^{-1}$). From this depth upward, the values increase again and reach a maximum of 15 mm yr$^{-1}$ at the peat surface (2008–2011 AD). The peat accumulation rates were calculated for cores M2 and M3, considering that the accumulation rate is constant in all pollen zones, by using the correlation between pollen record and the age dating of cores M1 and M4.

Peat density in the 4 cores varied from 0.01 g cm$^{-3}$ to 0.2 g cm$^{-3}$, reflecting the shift from the living plants of the bog acrotem to the catotelm (Fig. 4). Thus density values increase from the lower part of the cores up to 15–25 cm, and then they decrease to the surface.

Ash contents of 0.3–10% are typical of ombrotrophic peats (Fig. 4). In the case of Misten bog, higher values around 10% can indicate additional input of inorganic particles by human activities: eroded soil particles but also industrial particles from coal burning and smelting. The degree of humification is very low ($\leq$ 20%) in the upper 10–15 cm and generally increases with depth (Fig. 4).

#### 3.2. Hg concentrations

Average Hg concentrations were similar in the lower part of the four cores (35 ± 15 μg kg$^{-1}$), and gradually decreased from ~30 to 40 cm to reach a maximum value between 13 and 27 cm (Fig. 4). The maximum Hg concentration recorded in core M1 was 840 μg kg$^{-1}$ (at 19 cm-depth), core M2 was 890 μg kg$^{-1}$ (at 27 cm-depth), core M3

---

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Composite depth (cm)</th>
<th>$^{14}$C age AD</th>
<th>CRS $^{210}$Pb age (AD/BC)</th>
<th>Uncertainty (years)</th>
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<tr>
<td>M1-08-01W</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3.0</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4.3</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1-08-01W</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>M1-08-01W</td>
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<td>2003</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1-08-01W</td>
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<td>2002</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2001</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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* BC stands for “before Christ” and AD stands for “after death.”
was 870 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (at 18 cm-depth), and in core M4 was 1130 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (at 12 cm-depth). For the core M1, the concentrations average 35 ± 9 μg kg\(^{-1}\) from the base (91 cm) to 34 cm-depth. For the cores M2 and M3, Hg concentrations start to increase occurred at 35 and 25 cm deep, respectively. Below these depths the average concentrations is 46 ± 13 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (35 to 108 cm), and 45 ± 12 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (25 to 93 cm), respectively. For the core M4 the onset of the major Hg increase occurs at 29 cm-depth, below this depth average Hg concentration is 37 ± 10 μg kg\(^{-1}\). In the upper most section of the four cores, Hg concentration decreased to values 45 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (0 cm-depth) for M1, 30 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (1.5 cm-depth) for M2, 29 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (1 cm-depth) for M3, and 70 μg kg\(^{-1}\) (1 cm-depth) for M4. Maximum humification values occurred in the lower sections, while the maximum Hg concentration was observed in the upper section of the catotelm (between 15 and 30 cm) for all the cores. In the Misten peat cores, correlation coefficients between mercury concentration and the humification were calculated. There was no significant correlation between Hg concentration and humification (for cores M1 and M4 \(r = -0.11\), for core M2 \(r = 0.3\) and for core M2 \(r = 0.07\)).

### 3.3. Pb, Ti, Mn, Fe, Ca, and Mg concentrations

Major elements, Pb and Ti were investigated for only core M1. Calcium and magnesium concentrations are relatively constant in

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Pollen zone</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Age model for 01W AD</th>
<th>Age model for 06W AD</th>
<th>Main AP criteria</th>
<th>NAP criteria</th>
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<th>Total NAP %</th>
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<td>7</td>
<td>1996–1998</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Picea</td>
<td>Ericaceae development</td>
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<td>18</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1788–1933</td>
<td>1790–1946</td>
<td>Quercus, Betula, Pinus, Picea</td>
<td>Plantago maximum, Poaceae max (30%)</td>
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<td>Xb</td>
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<td>1566–1780</td>
<td>1431–1759</td>
<td>Quercus = Fagus</td>
<td>Cerealia max (&gt;10%)</td>
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<td>Poaceae &lt;20%, Cerealia &lt;6%</td>
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<td>666–1153</td>
<td>Fagus &gt; 50%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xa</td>
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<td>533–635</td>
<td>503–648</td>
<td>Fagus &gt; 50%</td>
<td>Cerealia development</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3**

Comparison date, thickness and pollen zones for the Misten cores. Each pollinic zone has a different characters AP (arboreal pollen) and NAP (non-arboreal pollen).

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**Fig. 3.** The correlation of pollen zones in the four cores. The green color shows the acrotelm and the brown color is the catotelm. Black line is the concentration of Hg in the four cores.
Fig. 4. Profiles of bulk density (g cm$^{-3}$), ash content (%), humification (%), Ti and Pb concentration (mg kg$^{-1}$), Hg concentration (µg kg$^{-1}$), ratio Hg/humification, and pollen zones versus depth. (a) core M1, (b) core M2, (c) core M3, and (d) core M4.
the catotelm layer. In the upper most section (catotelm layer) of this core, Ca and Mg concentrations increased to values >2000 and 300 mg kg\(^{-1}\), respectively. The Mg/Ca ratio (\(\approx 0.23 \pm 0.11\)) is similar the average rainwater in this area confirming that the Misten peat is ombrotrophic.

Titanium concentrations showed a large increase at catotelm–acrotelm boundary (Fig. 4a). Titanium concentrations were not correlated with Fe (correlation coefficient \(r = 0.34\)).

Iron is a major element susceptible to redox processes at the acrotelm–catotelm boundary (Gobeil et al., 1999) and Pb input may come from the surrounding watershed or from the atmosphere. Between 18 cm and the peat surface, the concentrations fall to 110 μg g\(^{-1}\) (Fig. 4a).

Lead values increase from the base of the core, and abruptly peak at 660 mg kg\(^{-1}\) within 5 cm under the acrotelm–catotelm boundary. They then decrease abruptly above this boundary but remained elevated at 400 mg kg\(^{-1}\). Lead concentration decreases to 5 mg kg\(^{-1}\) in surface (Fig. 4a). Manganese and iron concentrations are almost constant in the lower sections of core M1 (3 ± 1, 330 ± 60 mg kg\(^{-1}\), respectively). Manganese and iron concentrations increase in the upper sections, and decrease to the surface of the core M1 (Fig. 5).

3.4. Hg accumulation rates

In order to examine the historical record of Hg pollution over the last 1500 years, Hg accumulation rates, and Hg AR (μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\)) were calculated for the four cores studied (Fig. 6). Hg accumulation rates in M1 averaged ~2 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) from 533 to 1611 AD. The mean values increase from 4 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) at the start of the Industrial Revolution (1691 AD) to >170 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) at 1953 AD. Mercury accumulation rates increased to 115 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (1965 AD), and decreased slightly to 111 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (1975 AD). Mercury accumulation rates increase to a maximum of 179 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (1987 AD), followed by a decrease to the surface of the core (20 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\), Fig. 6). In M2 and M3 cores, Hg accumulation rates remain constant at a mean value of 3 ± 1.4, 1.2 ± 0.4 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\), respectively, from the base of M2 and M3 cores to 50 cm of depth, and increase to maximum values of 88 and 193 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\), respectively. The Hg accumulation rates declined towards the top of the core to 5 and 38 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\), respectively. In the core M4, Hg accumulation rates remained constant at a mean value of 1.4 ± 0.8 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) from 503 to 1603 AD. In the upper 25 cm of the core, Hg accumulation rates increased from 4 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (1664 AD) to a maximum ~120 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (1930 AD), followed by a decline to 8 μg m\(^{-2}\)y\(^{-1}\) (2007 AD) at the surface (Fig. 6). There was a significant correlation between Hg AR in the four cores (\(r \geq 0.87\)).

4. Discussion

4.1. Effects of biogeochemical processes on Hg concentration

Previous work (e.g. Biester et al., 2003; Zaccone et al., 2009) suggested that Hg concentrations in peat bog cores may be affected by different biogeochemical processes (diagenetic processes, peat decomposition and humification). Similarly, Fe and Mn reactivity are influenced by similar processes (e.g. Steinmann and Shotyk, 1997). Some elements adsorbed on Fe and Mn hydroxides can be remobilized and redistributed during the redox processes (i.e. arsenic and phosphorus; Steinmann and Shotyk, 1997). In anoxic conditions, Fe and Mn oxides release Fe (II) and Mn (II) to the porewaters (Gobeil et al., 1999). These reduced forms will diffuse upward until they reach the oxic zone and become oxidized (Steinmann and Shotyk, 1997; Matty and Long, 1995). If Hg showed similar behavior then the maximum Hg concentration would be correlated with maximum in Fe and Mn concentrations in the upper layers of peat cores at catotelm–acrotelm interface.

In core M1, Fe and Mn concentrations were measured and compared with Hg concentration (Fig. 5). The maximum Hg concentrations in core M1, at 19 cm, are below the maximum Fe and Mn concentrations at 16–6 cm-depth. Normalizing Fe, Mn and Hg to a conservative element such as Ti showed that the maximum Hg/Ti ratio corresponded to the minimum in Fe/Ti and Mn/Ti ratios (Fig. 5). Such observation suggests that the Hg concentration profiles measured in the Misten bog were not affected by redox or diagenetic processes.

In a study on Patagonian cores, Biester et al. (2003, 2012) showed that Hg concentration is influenced by peat decomposition processes and mass losses, and suggested that Hg concentrations in peat do not solely reflect the variations in external Hg flux. However, Biester et al. (2012) recently showed using data collected from a peat bog in the Harz mountains, Germany, that “peat decomposition may have played only a minor role” in Hg distribution in the peat column illustrating the specificity of each site in preserving or not the Hg historical signal. The lack of correlation between humification and Hg concentrations also suggests that the peat decomposition is not playing a major role in Hg variability in Misten peat cores.

Others factors could also influence the Hg concentrations in peat. For instance, differences in the structure and morphology of the bog can indicate heterogeneous peat accumulation rates (Rydberg et al., 2010), as...

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**Fig. 5.** Concentrations of Hg (μg kg\(^{-1}\)), Mn (mg kg\(^{-1}\)) and Fe (mg kg\(^{-1}\)), Fe/Ti and Mn/Ti ratio for the M1 core. Note that the maximum in Hg concentrations corresponds to minimum in Fe/Ti in M1 core.
AR were also higher at TEG, 12.6 ±7.7 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ (12× vs. 11×). Based on this we conclude that bog-specific characteristics prevent the comparison of absolute Hg deposition rates between bogs, but that relative increase factors obtained from different bogs are valid indicators of changes in Hg deposition.

The objective of the multi-coring approach taken in this study was to investigate the intra-site variability in Hg AR reconstructions on a scale of 10 to 100 m. Fig. 6 compares the Hg AR in the four cores. First, the Hg AR profiles agree fairly well between the four cores (r≥0.87, Table 4). The broad 20th century maximum Hg AR occurs in pollen zones 5 and 6 in all cores and at different locations with respect to the acrotelm–catotelm boundary. Intra-core and intra-site variability is summarized in Table 4. Pre-Industrial Hg AR from the M1 average around 23±10 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ (41% RSD). However, the core M2 maximum Hg AR of 53±33 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ and the core M1 pre-Industrial Hg AR of 2.4±1.5 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ were significantly different from the other cores (p<0.02). This shows that reconstructions of Hg AR that are based on a single peat core have a high statistical chance of showing core-specific values that are not representative of the bog as a whole (Bindler et al., 2004; Martinez Cortizas et al., 2012). Taking the core M2, Hg AR maximum of 53 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ as an example, a single core study may deviate from the bog average (105 μg m⁻² y⁻¹) by as much as 100%. Despite these significant differences, the outlier observations on cores M2 and M1 do not exceed a variation of 2SD around the mean and were therefore retained in calculating the bog averaged Hg AR trends. The multi-coring approach taken in this study results in overall uncertainties associated with pre-Industrial, maximum 20th century, and post-maximum reconstructed Hg AR that are similar and around 30 to 40% RSD.

Potential factors that could contribute to this intra-site variation are micro-climatic variations affecting Hg deposition and soil re-emission,
Hg accumulation rates reconstructed from the Misten peat cores are comparable to results obtained from other European bogs. The mean pre-Industrial Hg accumulation rate (before 1300 AD, 1.8 ± 0.5 μg m⁻² y⁻¹, 1SD) for M1, M2, M3 and M4 is similar to published values of 0.3–8 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ from 12,500 BC to 1300 AD for a Swiss peat bog (Roos-Barralouclough et al., 2003), 0.3–3 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ obtained from 200 AD to 950 AD for a Greenland peat bog (Shotyk et al., 2003), and 1.4 ± 1 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ from 5700 BC to 1470 AD for 3 sites in Southern Ontario, Canada (Givel et al., 2004a, 2004b). Those studies suggested that Hg accumulation rates in several ombrotrophic bogs, during pre-Industrial period correspond mainly to natural Hg deposition.

During the Industrial revolution, the maximum Hg accumulation rates in the Misten peat bogs were within the range 90 to 190 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ (1930–1990 AD). This is in good agreement with the maximum values recorded in peat bogs in Switzerland (79 to 108 μg m⁻² y⁻¹) from 1911 AD to 1973 AD (Roos-Barralouclough et al., 2002), Greenland and Denmark (164–184 μg m⁻² y⁻¹, Shotyk et al., 2003) in 1953 AD, Ontario peat bogs in Canada (55–141 μg m⁻² y⁻¹) from 1950 to 1960 AD (Givel et al., 2004a, 2004b), and Flanders Moss in Scotland 77–183 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ from 1923 to 1948 AD (Farmer et al., 2009). In the Misten cores, the recent Hg accumulation rate from 1990 to 2008 AD (23 ± 10 μg m⁻² y⁻¹) is similar to the 35 ± 5 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ in Switzerland (Roos-Barralouclough et al., 2002) and 27 ± 15 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ for 4 Scottish cores (Farmer et al., 2009) but 2 times lower that what observed in recent peat layers of Czech Republic (Zuna et al., 2012).

4.3. Comparison of the Misten bog with others sites

Table 4
Summary and intra-site comparison of reconstructed mercury accumulation rates (Hg AR, μg m⁻² y⁻¹) for the four Misten cores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core ID</th>
<th>Pre-Industrial</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Post-maximum</th>
<th>Max./pre-Ind.</th>
<th>Max./post-max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01W</td>
<td>2.4 ± 1.5 (62%)</td>
<td>126 ± 31 (25%)</td>
<td>20 ± 7 (37%)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04W</td>
<td>1.7 ± 1.5 (89%)</td>
<td>53 ± 33 (62%)</td>
<td>18 ± 11 (60%)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05W</td>
<td>1.3 ± 0.5 (38%)</td>
<td>137 ± 49 (36%)</td>
<td>37 ± 22 (60%)</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06W</td>
<td>1.7 ± 0.6 (34%)</td>
<td>103 ± 17 (17%)</td>
<td>83 ± 0.6 (7%)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.5 (27%)</td>
<td>105 ± 37 (36%)</td>
<td>21 ± 12 (58%)</td>
<td>63 ± 31 (50%)</td>
<td>6.4 ± 4.3 (68%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The records of Hg accumulation rates found in the Misten bog are in good agreement with the history of the global production of Hg over the past 500 years reported by Hylander and Meili (2003) and of European coal production over the past 200 years (Rutledge, 2011) (Fig. 7). Mercury shows that Hg accumulation rates increase in cores M1 and M4 in parallel with the global production of Hg from 1500 to 1800 AD. Based on the data from these cores, during this period Hg accumulation rates increased from 2 to 28 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ in M1 and from 1 to 3 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ in core M4. This increase in Hg accumulation rate can be explained by Hg mining and metallurgy emissions in Almadén (Spain) and Idrija in Slovenia (Hylander and Meili, 2003). The total Hg production from 1500 to 1800 AD in these mines was 150,000 tons (17% from the global production in the last 500 years, Hylander and Meili, 2003). Between 1800 and 1850 AD, the global production of Hg decreased from 57,000 to 49,000 tons (Hylander and Meili, 2003), but the total Hg accumulation rates in Misten cores continued to increase (Fig. 7). This increase coincided with a maximum of European production of Hg (47,000 tons, 5% from the global Hg production) and a maximum Zn–Pb mining activity in Belgium (Dejonghe, 1998; Hylander and Meili, 2003). Average Zn ores contain ~10 mg kg⁻¹ of Hg (Hylander and Herbert, 2008). Coal production and industrial use became important in Europe (1.3 million metric tons per year) in 1817 AD and in 1830 AD (2.3 million metric tons per year) in Belgium (Rutledge, 2011). Therefore, Zn–Pb mining and coal burning may have been dominant source of Hg deposition between 1800 and 1850 AD. The increased Hg accumulation rates in the Misten peat bogs between 1850 and 1915 AD can be explained by increased European coal production and use, and metal smelting and refining (Pb and Zn) in Belgium. The European coal production increased up to 400 million metric tons per year in 1913 AD while that in Belgium was up to 25 million metric tons per year between 1900 and 1910 (Fig. 7). The smelter and refinery production (Pb and Zn) in Belgium increased by factor >100 from 1850 to 1913 (Fig. 7).

In the cores M1 and M4, the maximum Hg accumulation rates between AD 1930 and 1980 are good agreement with the maximum Belgian coal and smelter production (Fig. 7). Coal combustion, non-ferrous mining and refining were the dominant anthropogenic Hg sources from 1930 to 1970 (Shotyk et al., 2003, 2005). Mining activity decreased in Belgium after 1945 (Dejonghe, 1998; Schmitz, 1979). However, the import of Zn–Pb ores from worldwide locations to Belgium has always been larger than local production and fueled the metallurgical industries (Schmitz, 1979; Sonke et al., 2002). Smelter and refinery production of imported (Pb, Cu, and Zn) reached a maximum in 1976 (Fig. 7). This may explain the higher Hg accumulation rate in Misten peat cores (at 19 cm for M1 and at 12 cm for M4). The maximum Pb concentration in core M1 corresponds to the maximum Hg concentration, suggesting a common source of these elements. In the 20th century, coal combustion was the dominant anthropogenic source of both Hg (Lindberg et al., 1987; Shotyk and Krachler, 2010) and Pb (Shotyk et al., 2003, 2005) and is the most likely source for these two elements.

The reduction in Hg accumulation rates in the upper section of the peat cores between 1980 and 2008 follows the same trend as global and the European Hg/coal production. The decline of Hg AR after the 1980s may be linked to the introduction of Hg retaining filters in industrial process and the decline in coal consumption (Fig. 7). The main sources of Hg emissions in Belgium from 1980 to 2008 were chlorine plants, cement production, construction industry and mining and various industrial emissions (Mukherjee et al., 2004, 2008).

According to Ilyin et al. (2010), the atmospheric Hg deposition measured at 8 Belgian sites, from 1990 to 2008, demonstrate a declining trend. In 1991 (1987–1994 AD), the Hg accumulation rate was 67 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ over Belgium, close to that in cores M1 and M4. By 2009, atmospheric Hg deposition reduced to 19 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ (Ilyin et al., 2010), which again is in good agreement with reconstructed Hg AR at Misten of 18 μg m⁻² y⁻¹ in the surface peat layers (2007–2008 AD) and modeled data by EMEP (Ilyin et al., 2010, 2011; Travníkov et al., 2012). The modeled trend of Hg
deposition over Belgium (Travnikov et al., 2012) is in good agreement with the estimation of Hg AR by Misten peat cores over the period 1990–2008.

5. Conclusions

The four Misten peat cores recorded the historical evolution of Hg accumulation rates over the last 1500 years. The comparison between the pollen zones in the four cores of the Misten peat bogs and the $^{210}$Pb–$^{14}$C dating in the cores M1 and M4 shows that the Misten peat accumulation is rather heterogeneous. There is a good agreement between the AR chronologies of the four Misten peat cores, as assessed independently by $^{14}$C–$^{210}$Pb combined chronologies and pollen timing zones. Our results show that despite different peat accumulation rates in the four cores, the Hg peaks in each core are always located in layers with the same age.

The multiproxy approach measured in core M1 (Fe/Mn ratio, and Pb profile) and the humification calculated for all cores show that Hg is not influenced by redox processes and is an immobile element in Misten peat bog.

At the Misten bog, pre-Industrial Hg accumulation rate averaged $1.8 \pm 0.5 \mu g m^{-2} y^{-1}$ between 500 AD to 1300 AD. The highest Hg accumulation rates were observed during the 20th century ($105 \pm 37 \mu g m^{-2} y^{-1}$). The maximum Hg accumulation rates ranging from 90 to 200 $\mu g m^{-2} y^{-1}$ are recorded between 1930 and 1980 AD. The Hg accumulation rate in the Industrial period seems to have been primarily caused by the regional domestic and industrial coal use and smelter and refinery activity (Pb, Cu, and Zn). This study shows the necessity of multi-coring of peat bogs to avoid biased absolute Hg AR reconstructions due to variations in natural biogeochemical and climatic processes. Estimated trends in Hg accumulation rates by peat cores and measured and modeled atmospheric fluxes measured by EMEP in Belgium were in good agreement for the period 1990–2008 with a decrease of a factor – 3–5 over this period.

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References


Fig. 7. Comparison between total accumulation rates in M1 and M4 cores with the Belgian and European production of coal (Rutledge, 2011), and with smelter and refinery production (Pb, Cu and Zn) in Belgium (Rutledge, 2011).


