

Mediterranean Mercury Assessment 2022: An Updated Budget, Health Consequences, and Research Perspectives

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Critical Review

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2 Mediterranean Mercury Assessment 2022: An Updated

3 Budget, Health Consequences, and Research Perspectives

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- 18 **ABSTRACT:** Mercury (Hg) and especially its methylated species (MeHg) are toxic
- chemicals that contaminate humans *via* the consumption of seafood. The most recent
- 20 UNEP Global Mercury Assessment stressed that Mediterranean populations have higher
- 21 Hg levels than people elsewhere in Europe. The present critical review updates current
- 22 knowledge on the sources, biogeochemical cycling, and mass balance of Hg in the
- 23 Mediterranean, and identifies perspectives for future research especially in the context of
- 24 global change. Concentrations of Hg in the Western Mediterranean average 0.86 ± 0.27
- 25 pmol L⁻¹ in the upper water layer and 1.02 ± 0.12 pmol L⁻¹ in intermediate and deep
- 26 waters. In the Eastern Mediterranean, Hg measurements are in the same range but are
- 27 too few to determine any consistent oceanographical pattern. The Mediterranean waters
- have a high methylation capacity, with MeHg representing up to 86 % of the total Hg,
- and constitute a source of MeHg for the adjacent North Atlantic Ocean. The highest
- 30 MeHg concentrations are associated with low oxygen water masses suggesting a
- 31 microbiological control on Hg methylation, consistent with the identification of hgcA-
- 32 like genes in Mediterranean waters. MeHg concentrations are twice as high in the waters
- of the western basin compared to the ultra-oligotrophic eastern basin waters. This
- 34 difference appears to be transferred through the food webs and the Hg content in
- predators to be ultimately controlled by MeHg concentrations of the waters of their
- 36 foraging zones. Many Mediterranean top-predatory fish still exceed European Union

37 regulatory Hg thresholds. This underlines the necessity of monitoring the exposure of 38 Mediterranean populations, to formulate adequate mitigation strategies and 39 recommendations, without advising against seafood consumption. This review also 40 points out other insufficiencies of knowledge of Hg cycling in the Mediterranean Sea, 41 including temporal variations in air-sea exchange, hydrothermal and cold seep inputs, 42 point sources, submarine groundwater discharge, and exchanges between margins and 43 the open sea. Future assessment of global change impacts under the Minamata 44 Convention Hg policy requires long-term observations and dedicated high-resolution 45 Earth System Models for the Mediterranean region. 46 47 Introduction 48 Mercury (Hg) has been classified by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) as a chemical element toxic to living organisms including humans^{1, 2, 3}. One 49 group of its compounds, methylated mercury (MeHg), damages the human nervous 50 system^{4, 5, 6}, and has been linked to cardiovascular disease⁷. Exposure of top predators to 51 MeHg is caused by its high biomagnification potential within aquatic food webs^{2, 8}. 52 Marine fish consumption is the main source of MeHg to humans^{2, 8, 9, 10}. Hg is of global 53 54 environmental concern, because of the major perturbation of its natural cycle by human 55 activities, its long-distance transport via the atmosphere resulting in its ubiquity in 56 terrestrial and marine ecosystems, and finally because of its long persistence in biologically-crucial zones of the aquatic environment^{11, 12, 13}. The global issue of Hg has 57 begun to be confronted by the adoption of the Minamata Convention, which entered into 58 59 force in 2017 under the auspices of UNEP to reduce human and ecosystem Hg exposure. 60 The recent Global Mercury Assessment (GMA 2018)¹ highlighted key policyrelevant findings and includes an updated inventory of anthropogenic Hg releases: 61 62 artisanal and small-scale gold mining, fossil fuel and biomass burning, waste 63 incineration, smelters, and from the re-mobilization of anthropogenic Hg deposited in 64 the past to soils, sediments, water bodies, dumping grounds, and mine-tailings. 65 Anthropogenic Hg emissions have been substantial since the Industrial Era, and have left a detectable environmental imprint for more than 2000 years¹⁴. Moreover, it has 66 been estimated that 95 % of Hg emissions occurred in the last 500 years and that they 67 have increased by 1.8 % per year during the 2010-2015 period 15, 16. The global Hg

budget, updated in 2018¹³, states that current Hg concentrations in the global

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atmosphere, surface, and deep marine waters have increased respectively by 450, 230, and 12-25 % above levels prevailing during the pre-Colombian period¹¹, i.e., before ~1450 CE. This budget however presents large uncertainties, in particular, local differences are to be expected, due to specific geographical, geological, biological, and anthropogenic factors.

The GMA 2018¹ also stresses that Mediterranean (MED) populations tend to have higher Hg levels than people from Asia, North America, and Europe. Already, 50 years ago, high Hg levels were observed in MED fish and marine mammals^{17, 18}, and these findings have been confirmed several times^{19, 20, 21}. It has been recently suggested that Hg accumulation rates in bluefin tuna are the highest in the individuals from the MED²² and that certain birds linked to the marine ecosystem could be at risk of suffering long-term, Hg-related effects²³. These observations suggest specific features and a particular vulnerability of this region and emphasize the need to reassess, there, the state of the art on Hg. The present Critical Review aims to summarize and update current knowledge on the biogeochemistry of Hg in the MED, including its main implications for human health, and to identify perspectives for future research activities in this field.

1. The marine mercury cycle and relevant Mediterranean-specific features

The main chemical reactions within the Hg cycle in the environment may be roughly summarized by the interconversions of elemental Hg (Hg⁰), inorganic divalent Hg (Hg_i^{II}), and organic divalent, including mono- and dimethylated species (CH₃Hg⁺/MMHg and CH₃HgCH₃/DMHg, hereafter collectively abbreviated as MeHg). Mobility through the atmosphere is favored by volatile Hg⁰, and through the hydrosphere by the solubilities of various Hg^{II} species. A summary of the latest scientific advances on the global Hg biogeochemical cycle is available in a recent paper²⁴. Due to its volatility, Hg is dispersed in the global atmosphere. Part of it is redeposited onto continental and sea surfaces, where it is incorporated into biota mainly as MeHg. MeHg biomagnification along the food web is its main source of Hg for top predators, with a bioconcentration factor up to 10⁷ (Ref. 25). The result is that some marine predators eaten by human populations or other animals are the main sources of their exposure to MeHg and as such a major risk of Hg poisoning⁸. A more detailed summary of the biogeochemical Hg cycle is given in the Supporting Information (SI.1).

The MED is a semi-enclosed sea (Fig. 1), with a water residence time of around 100 years, characterized by marked North-South and East-West gradients, mainly driven by the different physiographies of the two basins, the different terrestrial nutrient loadings, and the cyclonic and anticyclonic wind-driven current structures^{26, 27}. The geological context, the contrasting hydrodynamic regimes, and the biogeochemical functioning of the MED have several characteristics important to the MED Hg cycle. In addition, the MED has been identified as a climate change hotspot^{28, 29}.



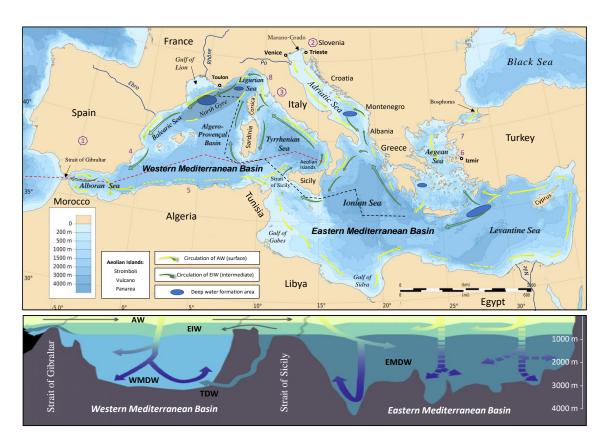


Figure 1. The Mediterranean Sea with its main rivers and a schematic of water circulation. Purple numbers refer to Hg ore deposits: (1) Almaden, Spain, (2) Idrija, Slovenia, and (3) Monte Amiata are the main ones; other minor Hg deposits include (4) Azogue Valley (Pulpi), Spain, (5) Numidia, Algeria, (6) Karaburn, Turkey, (7) Kuçukyenice, Turkey, and (8) Levigliani, Italy. The red dash line refers to the Figure 2 transect. The black dash line refers to the Figure 3 transect. Dash arrows refer to seasonal circulation paths. The lower part of the figure is modified from Ref. 27. www.ifremer.fr/lobtln/COURANTS/SCHEMA_3D_MED_LABELS_EN.jpg.

The Iberian Hg belt, where cinnabar (HgS) is the principal Hg ore, is found along the edges of the MED. It extends from Spain (Almaden) to Italy (Monte Amiata), Slovenia (Idrija), Algeria (Numidia belt), and Aegean Turkey (Karaburun) (Fig. 1). In addition to these natural sources, mining and other anthropogenic activities have mobilized large quantities of Hg that are now buried in coastal sediments. Among the

123 most relevant anthropogenic legacy Hg hotspots in the MED, are the Gulf of Trieste (with 13 000 Mg of anthropogenic Hg accumulated in the sediments^{30, 31}), Marano 124 Grado Lagoon (271 Mg³²), Venice Lagoon (20 Mg³³) in the Eastern MED (EMED), and 125 the Toulon Bay (26 Mg³⁴) in the Western MED (WMED) (Fig. 1). These Hg reservoirs 126 127 can maintain steady inputs to the water column. Also, Hg-laden sediments may be 128 remobilized and transported off-shore during floods or storms. Mercury inputs to the 129 MED from hydrothermal vents are suspected but are not yet constrained³⁵. Elevated Hg concentrations have been found in shallow hydrothermal fluids³⁶ and terrestrial 130 volcanoes³⁷. Subaerial volcanic Hg emissions in the Mediterranean region are dominated 131 132 by the Aeolian Island volcanoes Vulcano and Stromboli, and by Mt Etna in Sicily³⁸ (Fig. 133 1). 134 Since it has become possible to determine accurately ultra-trace levels of Hg in ocean waters, several mass budgets for Hg in the MED have been established^{39, 40, 41}. 135 136 The first budget concludes that Hg entered through the Gibraltar Strait as inorganic Hg and was exported to the North Atlantic Ocean with a larger proportion of MeHg³⁹. 137 138 Another conclusion was that atmospheric exchanges are the main source and sink of Hg in the MED⁴¹. Hg exchanges at the sediment/water interface and the influence of 139 140 hydrothermal vents are currently much less well constrained. The ultimate sources of water-column MeHg are currently under debate 42, 43. The experimental estimates of Hg 141 methylation rates^{44, 45} suggest that the consequence of even a small change in these 142 143 transformation rates would have a major impact on the levels of MeHg, which is the 144 main factor governing the entry of Hg into the food webs. Continental Hg sources, 145 namely rivers and groundwaters, have not yet been considered with sufficient attention 146 in the karstic MED environment. Large discrepancies also exist between estimates of Hg transport in water masses, due to variations in Hg water column concentrations over the 147 last 30 years^{39, 40, 41}. These variations in Hg flux estimates may be due to (i) the observed 148 149 decrease in Hg concentrations in North-Atlantic surface waters which can be over 50 % between 1989 and 2012⁴⁶, but also to (ii) variations in the surface water inflow estimated 150 151 at Gibraltar⁴⁷. Furthermore, the residence time of water in the WMED is shorter than 50 152 years and biogeochemical conditions and Hg fluxes may vary over a decadal time scale^{27, 29}. In summary, the steady-state Hg fluxes in the different MED biogeochemical 153 154 compartments are far from being well-established, warranting a revisit of Mediterranean 155 Hg dynamics and budget. Moreover, Hg accumulation in biota is a multi-causal

process^{21, 48} that is ultimately determined not only by past Hg emissions and their temporal evolution, but also by changes in biogeochemical, climate-induced, and biologically mediated processes⁴⁹. Thus, the ecological and health consequences of the present Hg cycle in the MED will likely further evolve with the climate changes expected over the next decades.

2. Updating the Mediterranean Hg cycle

2.1. Emissions, evasions, and deposition

An early assessment of the total anthropogenic Hg emissions of countries bordering the MED was about 100 Mg for the year 1995 (i.e., equivalent to a third of European or 5% of global anthropogenic emissions)⁵⁰. Thirty (30) Mg resulted from the burning of fossil fuels, 29 Mg from the incineration of household wastes, 28 Mg from cement production, and 10 Mg from the production of chlorine and lye. In addition, the total amount of Hg released to the atmosphere from forest fires in the Mediterranean region accounted for 4.3 Mg y^{-1} (Ref. 51) and 7 Mg y⁻¹ from volcanoes (see section 2.5.). The GMA 2018¹ indicates that between 2010 and 2015 anthropogenic emissions from the (then) EU28 (EU28 was the abbreviation of the 28 countries of the European Union) decreased by 12.5 % while those from North Africa increased slightly (+15.8 %). Both EU28 and North Africa increased in large-scale gold production, and while the EU28 countries reduced emissions from the oil industry and power plants, North Africa increased emissions from domestic and industrial fossil fuel combustions. The phasing out of Hg in chlor-alkali plants in EU28 led to a two-thirds reduction in emissions from chemical industries. Since the year 2000, numerous oceanographic and more local near-coast

measurement campaigns have been carried out to determine Hg species concentrations in the marine boundary layer and the water column^{52, 53, 54, 55, 56}. Evasion fluxes of Hg are calculated using measured dissolved gaseous mercury (DGM) and Hg⁰_(g) concentrations, wind speed, and sea surface temperature, and several approaches can and have been used to estimate MED efflux/volatilization/atmospheric rates^{57, 58, 59, 60}. Details about the medalling approaches to calculate gas transfer velocities at the air-sea interface are given in Supporting Information (SI.2)^{61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71}.

literature, 2-8 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, with higher values typically found in summer and autumn (up 188 to 20 ng m⁻² h⁻¹ was reported⁶⁰ for a short period), and for the Eastern Basin compared to 189 the Western Basin^{57, 58, 59, 60}. The higher values obtained for the Eastern Basin stem 190 possibly from tectonic activity. These fluxes lead to estimates of annual evasion of Hg⁰ 191 192 to the atmosphere between 50 and 100 Mg v⁻¹ (Table 4 in Ref. 71). While the estimated 193 average fluxes are close between the studies, all the above studies indicate that the Hg⁰ 194 flux to the atmosphere can be extremely variable over space and time. Indeed, they 195 depend on DGM concentrations, temperature, and exponentially on wind speed, which 196 are all highly variable. There are also several Hg "hot spots" in the MED, both due to tectonic activity and regions impacted by anthropogenic activities where significantly 197 higher evasion fluxes can occur^{72, 73}. A description of atmosphere surface exchange 198 measurement techniques can be found in a recent review⁷⁴. 199 200 Mercury deposition to the MED is a combination of Hg^{II} wet deposition (rainfall), dry deposition of gaseous, and particulate oxidized Hg^{II} forms. There are several 201 202 "European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme" sites that measure Hg wet and/or 203 dry depositions. Unfortunately, only 3 of these are in or near the MED basin, and 204 measure wet deposition only: Iskrba, Slovenia, at 500 m a.s.l., Longobucco, in Southern 205 Italy, at 1358 m a.s.l., and Ostriconi, in Corsica, at 100 m a.s.l. Annual Hg wet deposition at these sites is 6.7, 1.7, and 3.0 µg m⁻² y⁻¹ respectively^{75, 76}. The paucity of 206 207 representative measurement data for the MED is an issue that needs to be addressed. Hg 208 deposition to the MED has therefore been estimated from knowledge of the concentration of Hg⁰ and its oxidants in the region, the rate of atmospheric oxidation 209 processes which lead to the formation of Hg^{II}, and wet and dry deposition processes. 210 Gencarelli et al.⁷⁷ used a version of WRF-Chem to estimate dry and wet deposition 211 212 fluxes to the MED. They found that the modeled contributions to deposition were almost 213 equal, 19.6 and 18.1 Mg y⁻¹ dry and wet, respectively. No observational data exist for Hg dry deposition. Combined with modeled annual evasion of Hg⁰ from the sea surface 214 of 67.5 Mg y⁻¹ (in agreement with most of the estimates from the studies above), the 215 216 model budget gives a net annual evasion flux of 30 Mg. A further model study showed 217 that dry deposition accounted for more than half the Hg deposited to the MED in the 218 summer months, and between 40 and 50 % of the annual total deposition, depending on the atmospheric Hg oxidation mechanism employed in the model⁷⁸. Synoptic scale wet 219

Averaged Hg evasion fluxes for the MED are reasonably consistent across the

220 deposition of Hg contributes roughly ten times more to the total Hg deposition than 221 convective wet deposition and is the dominant source of Hg to the MED from Autumn 222 through to Spring. Most Hg deposition to the MED is due to transport from distant 223 sources, except in the summer when sources from countries surrounding the MED have 224 a greater influence due to the prevailing meteorological conditions. This is reflected in 225 the change in the total modeled deposition to the MED when using anthropogenic 226 emission databases for 2005 and 2010, where a 33 % reduction of in-domain emissions resulted in a 12 % deposition decrease. A global modeling study⁷⁹ suggested that slightly 227 more than 20 % of Hg deposited to the MED comes from primary anthropogenic 228 sources. A recent study⁸⁰ estimates that a 50 % reduction in EU emissions, would only 229 lead to a 17 % decrease in Hg deposition to the MED. 230 231 The recent advances in understanding the processes driving atmospheric Hg redox chemistry^{81, 82, 83, 84}, and also in coupling ocean and atmosphere models^{69, 71}, suggest that 232 it would be an appropriate time for high-resolution MED modeling studies to be 233 234 conducted again. Potentially the photolytic reduction of Hg^{II} compounds in the atmosphere⁸² could have a significant role in the cycling of Hg between the atmosphere 235 and seas. Gas-phase reduction of Hg^{II} could decrease model estimates of both Hg^{II} wet 236 237 and dry deposition to the MED, by a proportion that needs yet to be modeled. Given the 238 dominance of Hg long-range transport and the synoptic rain fluxes, the chemical reduction of gaseous Hg^{II} likely has a small impact. Gas-phase reduction of Hg^{II} could 239 240 decrease model estimates of both Hg^{II} wet and dry deposition to the MED, by a 241 proportion that needs yet to be modeled, and that is supported by recent Hg stable isotope observations of Hg in the MED⁸⁵. 242 243 Despite the questions remaining regarding the exact nature of atmospheric Hg redox pathways, there is little doubt that the MED is a net source of Hg to the atmosphere, 244 with roughly 60 - 80 Mg y⁻¹ is emitted to the atmosphere while it is estimated that dry 245 and wet deposition amount at around 20 Mg y⁻¹ each. 246 247 2.2. The waters of the Mediterranean Sea

- 248 2.2.1. Geographical distribution of total mercury (THg)
- 249 The vertical structure of the WMED water column can be schematically subdivided into
- 250 three major water masses: (i) Atlantic Water (AW), (ii) Eastern Intermediate Water
- 251 (EIW), and (iii) Western Mediterranean Deep Water (WMDW)²⁷ (Fig. 1). AW (from the

252 surface to ~ 250 m) is a low salinity water mass entering the MED at Gibraltar, and 253 spreading eastward into the entire basin. EIW is a high salinity water mass, located just 254 below AW and down to ~600 m, originating in the EMED. Below that depth and down 255 to the seabed is the WMDW formed in the WMED during winter convection periods, 256 which fills the entire basin. In addition, in the Tyrrhenian basin, Tyrrhenian Deep Water 257 (TDW) is formed as the result of the deep mixing of waters from eastern and western 258 MED (Fig. 1). 259 Figure 2 illustrates a recently measured distribution of THg across the western basin (WMED). Summarized statistics of THg concentrations (pmol L⁻¹) in the WMED waters 260 measured between 2000 and 2017 are given in the Supporting Information (SI.3). In 261 262 open waters, the <0.45 µm fraction represents 89% of the THg in waters. High and low 263 THg concentrations are present in the AW (0.21-2.01 pmol L⁻¹) averaging 0.86 ± 0.27 pmol L⁻¹. Within the EIW and WMDW, the concentrations vary over a narrower range 264 265 $(0.51-1.62 \text{ pmol L}^{-1})$ averaging $1.02 \pm 0.12 \text{ pmol L}^{-1}$. The highly variable concentrations in AW are the consequence of air-sea exchange dynamics which govern the balance 266 267 between Hg deposition and evasion from the sea surface, and primary production, which 268 governs the downward Hg biological pump. In places where deep convection occurs 269 (i.e., the Ligurian Sea and the Gulf of Lion), transferring the surface layer and its Hg 270 level to depth, a local Hg-enrichment (or depletion) of the WMDW can be observed 271 compared to the rest of the Western Basin. By comparison, the THg concentrations in 272 the waters of the WMED margins (Gulf of Lion) are slightly higher: 1.52 ± 1.00 pmol L⁻ ¹ in the inner shelf, 1.09 ± 0.15 pmol L⁻¹ along the slope, and 1.10 ± 0.13 pmol L⁻¹ in the 273 Northern Gyre. These higher concentrations result from the higher particulate Hg load of 274 shelf waters⁸⁶ rather than dissolved Hg species. In the open waters of the eastern basin 275 (EMED) Hg measurements are scarce. The first "oceanographically consistent" profile 276 showed little vertical THg variation (mean = 1.01 ± 0.08 pmol L⁻¹, n = 22)⁷⁵. Note that 277 "oceanographic consistency" means, among other criteria, that vertical profiles should 278 be smooth and relatable to established oceanographic features⁸⁷. In contrast, more data 279 280 are available from the Adriatic Sea. This region, consisting of a large continental shelf, 281 exhibits high THg concentrations and strong geographical gradients due to Hg mining and industrial sources⁸⁸. 282 283 No temporal trend has been detected in the THg concentrations listed in the 284 Supporting Information (SI.3). However, a significant decrease in concentration in the

Alboran Sea and the adjacent Northeast Atlantic waters was observed over a 20-year period⁴⁶. Based on the results of THg in water columns on both sides of the Strait of Gibraltar between 1989 and 2012, it was proposed that a 30 % decrease of THg has occurred in the deep layer which flows out of the MED, whereas a 50 % decrease has occurred in the Atlantic waters entering the MED.

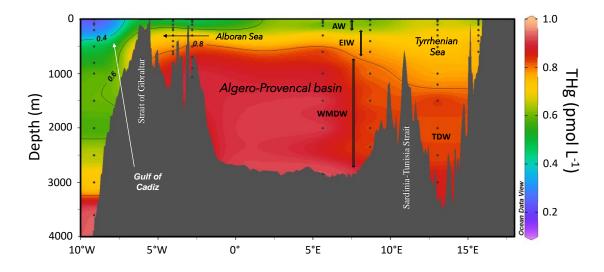


Figure 2. Distribution of total Hg in unfiltered samples (THg) distribution across the WMED during FENICE cruise (2012). AW: Atlantic Water, EIW: Eastern Intermediate Water, WMDW: Western Mediterranean Deep Water, TDW: Tyrrhenian Deep Water. The path of the transect is the red dash line in Figure 1.

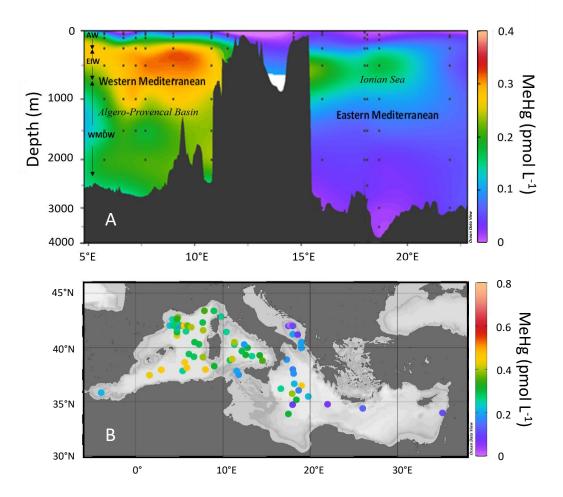


Figure 3. Panel A: Methylated Hg (MeHg) in unfiltered samples during ALDEBARAN cruise (June 2009). AW: Atlantic Water, EIW: Eastern Intermediate Water, WMDW: Western Mediterranean Deep Water, TDW: Tyrrhenian Deep Water. The path of the transect is the black dash line in Figure 1. Panel B: MeHg in unfiltered samples from 400 m during MEDSHIP cruise (2011).

Recent MeHg measurements^{89, 90} display concentration ranges from <0.02 pmol L⁻¹ up to 0.71 and up to 0.23 pmol L⁻¹ for the WMED and EMED waters, respectively. The MeHg:THg ratios vary from 0.01 to 0.86. The highest values are found in the oxygen minimum zones (OMZ). These ranges are similar to other ocean basins (Supporting Information, SI.4). MeHg concentrations vary spatially (Fig. 3) with higher levels in the WMED compared to the EMED, and over-time as shown by time-series in the Ligurian Sea (WMED)⁹¹. MeHg was positively correlated with oxygen consumption (Fig. 4), especially within aphotic layers, namely EIW and DMW (MeHg_{pM} = 0.004 AOU_{μ M} – 0.017 (R² = 0.58, n = 301, p< 0.001). Regression coefficients (molar ratios) of MeHg ν s

apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) relationships, assumed to be a proxy for the Hg methylation capacity of a water mass, varied between 2.1 x 10⁻³ and 6.6 x 10⁻³ during a number of Mediterranean cruises. Compared with values obtained in the North, Equatorial, South Pacific^{92, 93}, the Southern Ocean⁹⁴, and the North Atlantic⁹⁵, the methylation capacity of intermediate waters of the MED is the highest. Methylation in the OMZ results from microbiological activity in association with OM regeneration^{92, 96, 97, 98}. Low MeHg concentrations were found in waters overlying the continental shelves of the Northern Adriatic and Gulf of Lion^{43, 88}.

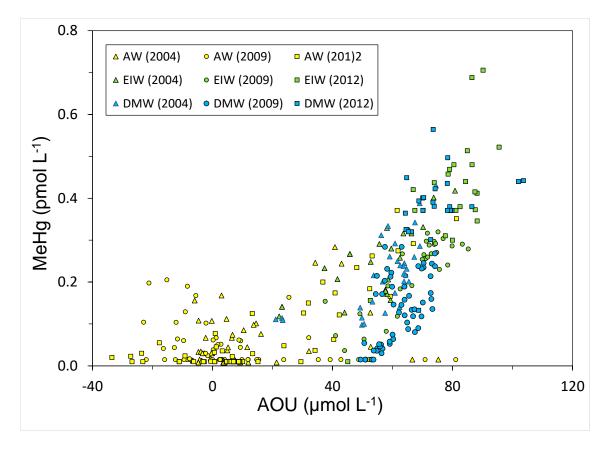


Figure 4. Methylated Hg (MeHg) vs. Apparent Oxygen Utilization (AOU) during MEDOCEANOR-3 (April 2004), ALDEBARAN (June 2009), and FENICE cruises (August 2012). Colors refer to various water masses (yellow for AW, green for EIW, and blue for DMW, Fig. 1). The shapes of symbols refer to the different cruises.

Mono- and dimethylmercury have been identified in Mediterranean waters^{39, 43, 99}. However, observed MMHg:DMHg ratios vary inexplicably in space and time. This possibly indicates a very fast interconversion of the two Hg methylated species or more likely analytical difficulties. Thus, the first step to address this issue would be to acquire additional quality-controlled data on Hg speciation. The second step would be to further

332	explore the mechanisms for Hg_i^{II} methylation in oxic oceanic waters. Suboxic/anoxic
333	microzones of the marine snow may be suitable environments for microbiological Hg
334	methylation, as has been suggested for settling particles in lakes 100. In marine
335	oligotrophic waters, such as those of the EMED, findings suggest an important role for a
336	noncellular or extracellular methylation mechanism ¹⁰¹ .
337	2.2.3. Dissolved gaseous Hg
338	Generally, DGM represents 1/5 th of the THg in Mediterranean waters and it would
339	consist, mostly of dissolved Hg ⁰ if DMHg data are correct. Vertical profiles of DGM
340	presents large spatial and temporal variations from a few tenths to 1.4 pmol L ⁻¹ , with
341	high concentrations found in intermediate and deep waters (e.g., EIW, WMDW, and
342	EMDW) compared to AW88, and frequent increases in the hypoxic layer. This is
343	coherent with a microbially-mediated Hg reduction to DGM species. Finally, a possible
344	geotectonic origin for DGM exists in the hydrothermal zones of the MED ¹⁰² . In coastal
345	areas of the Adriatic Sea, the influence of anthropogenic Hg on DGM has been
346	suggested ⁸⁸ .
347	2.3. The sediments of the Mediterranean Sea
348	Sediment cores were collected on the abyssal plain of the MED ^{42, 75, 103} . Some THg
349	vertical profiles in sediment cores from the abyssal plain of the MED are shown in
350	Figure 5. The use of Hg stable isotopes allowed us to suggest anthropogenic sources for
351	Hg in Mediterranean surface sediments 104. A recent paper 105 shows that Hg
351 352	Hg in Mediterranean surface sediments ¹⁰⁴ . A recent paper ¹⁰⁵ shows that Hg accumulation rates rose from 0.4 to 8.6 µg m ⁻² y ⁻¹ in the last 6000 years, with a
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of the Gulf of Lion (WMED)⁸⁶ and of the Adriatic Sea (EMED)^{88, 108} where Hg hotspots were identified. Extrapolating these data, the Hg accumulated each year on the shelf is 3.6 and 3.2 Mg for Western and Eastern basin shelf sediments, respectively. However, the shelf sediments may not be a permanent sink, and turbiditic currents and cascading phenomena may export part of the sediment to the abyssal plain trough canyons¹⁰⁹.

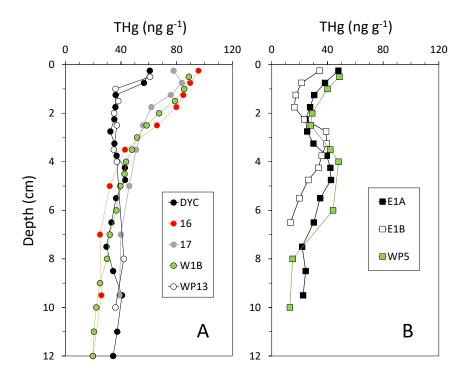


Figure 5. Total Hg concentration (THg) profiles in sediment cores from the abyssal plain (bottom > 2000m) of the Western Mediterranean (A) and Eastern Mediterranean (B). (DYC) Ligurian Sea¹⁰³; (WP13, WIB, 16 and 17) Algero-Provençal basin^{42, 75}; (EIA and E1B) Ionian Sea⁷⁵; (WP5) Levantine Sea⁴².

2.4. Exchanges with the Atlantic Ocean

Using water mass fluxes and updated THg concentrations from Table 1, the Hg inflow entering the MED at the Strait of Gibraltar is 2.54 ± 0.26 Mg y⁻¹. This estimation is more than 3 times lower than the 7.5 Mg y⁻¹ estimated in the previous budget⁴¹. On the other hand, Hg outflow to the North Atlantic Ocean is 3.99 ± 0.76 Mg y⁻¹, a value also smaller than the preceding estimate $(6.5 \text{ Mg y}^{-1})^{41}$. The largest difference of this budget compared to the previous transport calculation at the Gibraltar Strait is the net export of "Mediterranean Hg" to the adjacent North Atlantic Ocean of ~1.9 Mg y⁻¹. This export is consistent with the Hg-enriched Mediterranean water lenses found at the salinity maximum in the North-East Atlantic Ocean water column¹¹⁰. Thus, the MED is a source

of Hg for the adjacent Eastern North Atlantic Ocean, as it is also for lead¹¹¹, another anthropogenic trace metal still abundant in the MED. Considering the MeHg fluxes, the excess of Mediterranean export to the Atlantic is more marked, since MeHg is maximum at depth (with outflowing waters at Strait of Gibraltar) and demethylation of MeHg occurs in inflowing surface waters. Using the water fluxes at Gibraltar of 0.85 Sv and the MeHg concentrations of 0.25 pmol L⁻¹, this export of Mediterranean MeHg to the North Atlantic Ocean is 1.35 Mg y⁻¹.

Table 1. Average concentrations (\pm standard deviation) of total Hg (THg) and methylated Hg (MeHg) and derived fluxes at the Strait of Gibraltar. 1 Sv = 10^6 m³ s⁻¹. (*) at Espartel sill according to Ref. 112. THg concentrations from Ref. 46. MeHg concentrations from Ref. 90.

Water mass	Water flux* (Sv)	THg (pmol L ⁻¹)	Hg flux (kmol y ⁻¹)	MeHg (pmol L ⁻¹)	MeHg flux (kmol y ⁻¹)
Atlantic inflow	0.89 ± 0.12	0.45 ± 0.05	12.6 ± 2.3	< 0.05	<1.4
Mediterranean outflow	0.85 ± 0.13	0.83 ± 0.13	22.3 ± 3.8	0.26 ± 0.09	6.9 ± 1.2

2.5. Volcanic and hydrothermal emissions

Subaerial volcanic Hg emissions in the Mediterranean region are dominated by the Aeolian volcanoes Vulcano and Stromboli, and by Mt Etna in Sicily. A cruise campaign to the south-western sector of the Mediterranean Basin during summer 2015 studied the potential impact of continuously active volcanoes of the Aeolian arc on observed atmospheric Hg concentrations¹¹³. Increases in GOM (Gaseous Oxidized Mercury) concentrations, often during night time (30 pg m⁻³ with peaks of 129 pg m⁻³), were observed close to Stromboli volcano in the air originating from it, simultaneously with an increase in both SO₂ and GEM (Gaseous Elemental Mercury). There are currently many difficulties in quantifying the Hg flux from volcanic emissions due to the spatial and temporal variabilities in the activity from one volcano to another^{37, 114}, or from different emission sites on the volcano¹¹⁵.

Ferrara et al.³⁷ measured Hg/SO₂ ratios at Vulcano and used these to calculate passive Hg emissions ranges for Vulcano $(1.3-5.5 \text{ kg y}^{-1})$, Stromboli $(7.3-77 \text{ kg y}^{-1})$, and Etna $(0.06-0.54 \text{ Mg y}^{-1})$ by multiplying with field-based SO₂ emission estimates. Here we use a mean global volcanic Hg/SO₂ ratio of $7.8 \pm 1.5 \times 10^{-6}$ (n = 13, Ref. 116) and modern satellite-based SO₂ emissions for Stromboli and Etna¹¹⁷ between 2005-2015 to estimate passive degassing Hg emissions of $0.5 \pm 0.3 \text{ Mg y}^{-1}$ for Stromboli and $5.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ Mg}$

- 414 1.8 Mg y⁻¹ for Etna. Remote sensing SO₂ data is not available for Vulcano, so we cannot
- refine its budget here. Global eruptive volcanic SO₂ emissions, estimated by remote
- sensing, are indicated to be one order of magnitude smaller (8.8x) than passive
- degassing¹¹⁷. We, therefore, estimate the sum of passive and eruptive aerial volcanic Hg
- 418 emissions in the MED region to be $7.0 \pm 2.3 \text{ Mg y}^{-1}$.
- Two recent Geotraces cruises found elevated Hg levels crossing the Mid Atlantic
- 420 Ridge and no distinct Hg signal crossing the East Pacific Rise in the vent plumes 118, 119.
- The results and implications are either contradictory or point to strong site-specificity
- and temporal dynamics. Some contradictory data exists for hydrothermal systems in the
- deep ocean (Ref. 35 and references therein), but no deep vents exist in the MED.
- 424 Hydrothermal systems in shallow (less than 200 m-depth), near-shore environments
- have been largely ignored, and their contribution to the global Hg cycle remains
- 426 unknown¹³. In the MED several shallow sites are known (e.g., Milos). A first
- investigation of the Panarea site (Italy) shows significant Hg inputs, especially Hg⁰ (Ref.
- 428 36). The study finds that the Hg^0 evasion flux is negligible in the MED budget. The
- 429 authors state that previous assessments of total hydrothermal inputs to the MED ~15 Mg
- y^{-1} (Refs. 40, 41), are underestimations. This possibly important source is far from being
- well-constrained; obviously, more data are crucially needed in this field.
- 432 **2.6.** Riverine and submarine groundwater discharge
- 433 According to a recent paper, riverine discharge from European rivers into the MED is
- 2.9 Mg v⁻¹ (Ref. 120); this input is highly seasonal due to the Mediterranean
- hydrological regime⁷⁵. However, the inputs from rivers into the eastern and southern
- parts of the MED shore are not included in this inventory. The way we have chosen to
- assess the total Hg riverine influxes to the MED is by extrapolating the mean Hg
- concentrations (2.45 pmol L⁻¹, 0.85 nmol g⁻¹, for dissolved and particulate Hg,
- respectively) of the Rhône River, for which multi-year time-series exist⁴³, to the total
- MED river discharge. We arrive at a total Hg input of 6 Mg y⁻¹, which is divided into 2.3
- and 3.7 Mg y⁻¹ for the Western and Eastern basins, respectively. Hydrological data used
- for these calculations are from Refs. 121, 122, 123. These calculated fluxes are in the
- same order of magnitude that the Hg accumulated annually in shelf sediments (see
- Section 2.3.). This observation suggests that most of the Hg associated with riverine
- particles settles into shelf sediments.

446	For submarine groundwater discharges (SGD) the available data are even more
447	limited. The Hg load of SGD has been studied in the Marseille region (NWMED): THg
448	concentrations were in the picomolar range and often $<$ 3 pmol L^{-1} (Ref. 124). For a 20
449	km long coastline an annual mean of THg discharge of 0.14 ± 0.12 kg was calculated.
450	Extrapolating this figure to the total MED shoreline and assuming constant submarine
451	discharge point and flux density gives a total Hg flux from SGD of ~0.32 Mg y ⁻¹ .
452	However, this figure could be largely underestimated. Trace element SGDs in the
453	WMED have been estimated to be roughly in the same range as riverine discharges ¹²⁵ .
454	Assuming a similar behavior for Hg would give a total Hg discharge from submarine
455	groundwaters an order of magnitude higher, namely \sim 6 Mg $\rm y^{-1}$. In summary, Hg inputs
456	from continental exoreic water sources to the MED can be estimated at ca. 12 Mg y ⁻¹ .
457	Here again, this flux is not well constrained, and more studies are needed on rivers and
458	especially SGD.
459	2.7. Mercury budget in the Mediterranean Sea
460	The diagram in Figure 6 sums up the Hg exchanges at the boundaries of the system and
461	the Hg species inventory of the two MED basins. Precision concerning the Hg
462	measurements, their natural variability, as well as that of the hydrodynamic and
463	particulate fluxes, make this an exercise with major uncertainties. However, information
464	that can be gained by such a mass balance calculation is to reveal the relative
465	magnitudes of various sources and sinks and to test the hypothesis of a steady-state of
466	Hg in the MED waters. In terms of balance, Hg output exceeds input by ~15 Mg y ⁻¹ ,
467	which is ~17% of the total export flux. Considering the uncertainties, the present Hg
468	budget is close to balance. However, if we consider the excess of Hg export as real, this
469	means that the Hg quantity in the MED is decreasing at the time scale of the residence
470	time of Hg (2 % y^{-1}). This is consistent with the observations of a ~30% decreasing Hg
471	concentrations in the MED over the last 20 years ⁴⁶ .
472	In summary, the achievements of the updated budget are:
473	 It is confirmed that the exchanges between surface water and the atmosphere
474	dominate the Mediterranean Sea Hg transport; however, the excess of evasion
475	compared to the deposition, currently given by the models, is still insufficiently
476	supported by the observations to be fully reliable;

- 477 In absence of a robust quantification of diffusive Hg flux from sediment, the Hg
 478 buried in deep sediment is estimated around 5.8 Mg y⁻¹;
 - The rate Hg accumulated in shelf sediments is ~6.8 Mg y⁻¹, which is similar to the Hg flux from rivers; part of it is probably temporarily trapped in coastal sediments before a possible transfer to the deep sea *via* submarine canyons;
 - The finding that Hg efflux to the Atlantic Ocean, with intermediate and deep waters at Gibraltar, dominates the Atlantic input in surface water (by a factor ~2), with Hg entering the MED as inorganic species and escaping substantially as MeHg; MED is a site of MeHg production and a point source of MeHg for the adjacent Northeastern Atlantic Ocean (~1.4 Mg y⁻¹);
 - The estimation of a Hg (MeHg) content of the MED ~680 Mg (~150 Mg), with
 0.7 % being associated with biota (6 % of which is annually removed by
 fisheries) (see section 4 below);
 - The estimation of a residence time of Hg in MED waters < 10 years, which is roughly 5 to 10-times less than the residence time of waters; thus, decreasing the atmospheric Hg deposition (i.e., a decrease of anthropogenic emissions) over the MED region would more rapidly decrease the Hg concentration in MED waters than in other parts of the World Ocean.

The present budget remains poorly constrained about several Hg inputs especially those from geotectonic origins, coastal erosion, SGD, sedimentary mobilization, and point sources. These uncertainties are added to that of the imbalance in the Hg air-sea exchanges between evasion and deposition. Seasonal variation of numerous inputs needs to be assessed. In addition, the transport of particulate Hg inputs from terrigenous origin to the deep open sea through canyons is not quantified. For example, which part of riverine Hg inputs (associated with particulate material) remains in the margin sediments, which part reaches the abyssal sediments *via* canyons or is released in the water column, and may become available to benthic food webs? Such questions need answers for refining the Hg budget in order to use it to manage the near-shore areas where fishing and aquaculture activities are located.

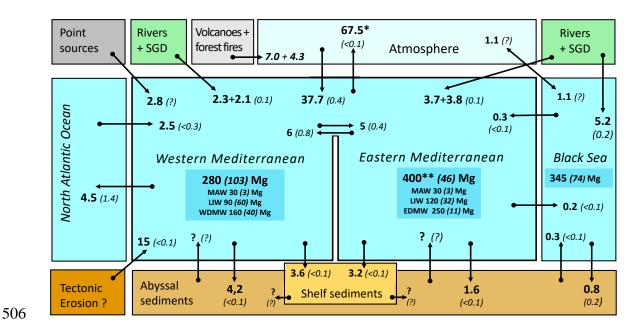


Figure 6. Total Hg (THg in bold) and methylated Hg (MeHg in brackets) annual mass fluxes in the Mediterranean Sea (Mg y⁻¹). In the dark blue rectangle are the Hg inventories (Mg) in subbasins and water masses. Fluxes from modeled air-sea exchanges are discussed in Section 2.1, Gibraltar exchanges are from Section 2.4, volcanic inputs from Section 2.5, and sediment deposition from Section 2.3; point sources are taken from Refs. 32, 33, 40, and 126; tectonic fluxes from Ref. 40 (probably an underestimation), are not differentiated according to basins; erosion fluxes are not quantified; fluxes from/to the Black Sea are from Ref. 45. The seawater fluxes at the Sicily Strait are from Ref. 123. Mediterranean areas and volumes are from Ref. 127. *Range: 50-100 Mg y⁻¹; **THg concentrations in the EMED used for calculation are limited to 24 measurements on only one profile in the Ionian Sea acquired in 2004 during MEDOCEANOR-3 cruise.

3. Biological mercury transformations: state of the art for MED

The net amount of MeHg formed in the ocean is controlled by three processes: (i) the methylation of Hg_i^{II} to MMHg, (ii) MMHg demethylation to Hg_i^{II}, and (iii) interconversion between DMHg and MMHg. Abiotic methylation of Hg_i^{II} is possible if suitable methyl donors are present, but research efforts have mostly been concerned with biologically mediated Hg methylation. The biological methylation of Hg_i^{II} to MeHg can be performed by microorganisms carrying the *hgcA* and *hgcB* gene clusters^{128, 129, 130, 131}. A detailed description of the gene clusters is given in Supporting Information (SI.5). Some *Nitrospina hgcA*-like genes in one of three MED water samples were also detected ¹³². In particular, those gene copies were detected in surface waters and were not detected at the deep chlorophyll maximum of the MED. Three samples are not representative of the vertical and horizontal variability of the MED but, based on previous knowledge, it can be speculated that *hgcA* might be more abundant in surface waters and

at the OMZ of the MED. Due to the lack of data, a more extensive evaluation of the presence and activity of *hgcA* in the MED is needed to determine the position in the water column where these microorganisms are active, and thus responsible for biological MMHg formation in the MED water column, and to unveil their different metabolic capacities.

Besides the occurrence of potential Hg_i^{II} methylators in the ocean, the amount of Hg_i^{II} available for methylation plays an important role in determining the rate of this process. In this context, Hg_i^{II} reduction, which might decrease Hg_i^{II} bioavailability for methylation, and MMHg demethylation, which might increase it, are both critical processes to consider. Both Hg_i^{II} reduction and MMHg demethylation can be biotically ¹³³, ¹³⁴ and photochemically mediated ^{135, 136, 137, 138}. As mentioned above, although rates of photochemical transformations have never been reported for the MED, it is logical that these processes are limited to the photic zone and thus to the AW. Similarly, there is no information concerning biological Hg_i^{II} reduction. Two pathways of MMHg demethylation have been identified: an oxidative pathway yielding Hg^{II} and CO₂, and a reductive pathway yielding Hg⁰ and CH₄. Since the Hg⁰ produced from reductive demethylation can diffuse out of the cell, it has been proposed that reductive demethylation is a cellular detoxification mechanism¹³⁴, which would dominate at high Hg concentrations, whereas the oxidative pathway, which is an unknown, would be more important at low Hg concentrations¹³⁹. MMHg demethylation is biologically mediated by the mer operon ^{134, 140}. Lastly, the interconversion between DMHg and MMHg is still poorly understood but has been suggested to be potentially abiotic 141, 142. In the MED the lack of knowledge regarding metabolic pathways and the organisms involved in these processes has limited the possibilities to further understanding of Hg biogeochemical cycling.

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4. Biological transfers in food webs

In the MED, top-predator fish often exceed EU regulatory Hg thresholds^{75, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148} and contribute to the increase in MeHg exposure of seafood consumers^{10, 149}. Also, for over 50 years, Hg-enrichment in Mediterranean fish compared to other oceanic regions at the same latitudes has been observed (e.g., Refs. 17, 18, 148), with the result that Aston and Fowler²⁰ describe these findings as a real "mercury enigma" in MED biota. After debates about the possible importance of biological factors^{20, 75}, a comparison

of Hg content in hake and its food web elements from the MED and the adjacent North Atlantic Ocean suggests a multi-causal explanation for this issue²¹, namely (i) the location of the MeHg maximal concentration in the water column, (ii) the growth rates of the fish, and (iii) the structure of the food webs.

Most available information on Hg concentrations in Mediterranean organisms, from primary producers to marine mammals and birds, recorded between 1969 and 2015 was compiled into a large database¹⁴⁸. Among Animalia about 80 % of samples concern Actinopterygii (mainly teleost fish) and Bivalvia (mainly mussels), while among Plantae 87 % of the data concern the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica*, highlighting the lack of knowledge on Hg content in important small organisms, such as phytoplankton producers, zooplankton consumers, and benthic invertebrates. More information is available from the northern than the southern part of the MED and the western rather than the eastern basin¹⁴⁸. Hg transfer in biota involves three complex multifactorial processes (bioconcentration, bioaccumulation, and biomagnification) interacting at different levels of the food webs, which need to be taken into account for a true understanding of Mediterranean specificities and to facilitate geographical comparisons.

4.1. Bioconcentration

Bioconcentration is the absorption of contaminants in organisms directly from water through cell membranes. This is the first and most important step in Hg transfer, which occurs mainly at microorganisms levels. Bioconcentration depends not only on the bioavailable Hg concentration in seawater, but also on the specific composition of phytoplankton communities, their abundance, and size, which govern Hg sorption and uptake in the first trophic level of food webs¹⁵⁰. It has been demonstrated that MMHg is preferentially integrated into the cell cytoplasm whereas Hg_i^{II} is adsorbed on phytoplankton membranes¹⁵¹. As a consequence, MeHg is assimilated by zooplankton four times more efficiently than Hg_i^{II} (Ref. 150). For a given Hg concentration in seawater, absorption is negatively related to phytoplankton abundance (dilution by biomass), and uptake is negatively related to cell size (higher surface/volume ratio in smaller cells) and their rates vary among species 152, 153. As the base of the food web is mainly made up of pico- or nano-bacteria and phytoplankton in oligotrophic Mediterranean seawaters¹⁵⁴, the combination of low phytoplankton abundance and smallsized cells increase both sorption processes resulting in higher Hg concentrations of the first trophic level in the MED than in the northeastern Atlantic²¹. At a smaller spatial

scale in the MED, higher Hg bioconcentration in phytoplankton is also found in oligotrophic offshore waters than in mesotrophic coastal waters due to similar processes²¹. In the MED, the higher proximity at mid-depth of both chlorophyll (~40 m)¹⁵⁵ and MeHg maxima (~250-400 m)²¹ increases Hg bioavailability for phytoplankton incorporation. In contrast, these two zones are more separated in the Northeastern Atlantic, where the MeHg maximum is located in deep waters (800 m)²¹ and the chlorophyll one in shallow waters (5-40 m), contributing to reduce bioconcentration at the base of the food webs in this region. In the Black Sea, MeHg maximum occurs in permanently anoxic waters⁴⁵. The strong stratification of the water column between the oxic and anoxic layers precludes the exposure of higher living organisms to elevated MeHg concentrations. In addition, the high primary production of the Black Sea adds a bio-dilution effect and may contribute to explaining the lower Hg bioconcentration observed¹⁵⁶.

Studies in the Gulf of Lion provide evidence of higher Hg concentrations in the smaller (6-60 μ m), rather than the larger (60-200 μ m), phytoplankton fractions analyzed ¹⁵⁷, consistently with the results obtained experimentally and by modeling ¹⁵⁰, ¹⁵⁸. However, in these small-size fractions, detrital organic particles and numerous associated bacteria are mixed with autotrophic and heterotrophic plankton. That raises the question of the relative role of living and non-living particles, and of the different types of plankton in Hg transfer in food webs. Which species or size fractions are the most significant for Hg transfer in food webs? It seems that Hg could be more readily assimilated by copepods when they are feeding on ciliates (protozoa) than on phytoplankton or heterotrophic dinoflagellates ¹⁵⁹.

4.2. Bioaccumulation

Bioaccumulation refers to a contaminant increase in an organism during its lifetime from both the environment and food consumption. Hg bioaccumulation in consumer organisms during their lifetime is mainly due to prey consumption^{160, 161}, and differs widely according to species, and the organs or body parts considered^{148, 157, 162}. Thus, the Hg content of prey is one of the major parameters for explaining bioaccumulation in organisms, and a positive correlation between Hg content in food and consumer is generally observed¹⁶³. In the MED as elsewhere, whole organisms are analyzed for plankton, benthic invertebrates, and fish larvae due to their small size, whereas muscle tissues are generally analyzed in larger marine consumers (crustaceans, cephalopods, and

fish) due to their consumption by human populations 10, 146. Other tissues are analyzed for 631 larger Mediterranean predators, such as skin biopsies for mammals 164 or blood for 632 seabirds¹⁶⁵. Higher Hg concentrations are generally found in the liver, compared to 633 muscle and the gonads in MED fish^{157, 166, 167}, while this pattern may differ according to 634 species, higher Hg content is found in muscle than liver of hake 168 and shark 169. 635 Conversely, a higher MeHg percentage (85-97 %) is recorded in muscle than in the liver 636 637 (30 %)¹⁶² due to the slower elimination rate from muscle than liver (2 % and 60 % respectively)¹⁶⁷. In addition to organ differences, bioaccumulation is modulated at the 638 639 individual level by a series of interacting biological (species, size, weight, sex, age, life 640 duration, growth rate, reproduction, metabolism, proximal composition, detoxification 641 mechanisms, diet, etc.) and environmental (depth, habitat, temperature, primary production, etc.) factors, as described in studies of the European hake *Merluccius* 642 merluccius^{21, 170, 171} and small pelagic fishes in the Gulf of Lion¹⁵⁷. The synergistic and 643 antagonistic effects of all these factors, which vary in space and time for a given species, 644 645 explain the high variability of the vast amount of data published on Hg concentrations in 646 MED organisms and the complexity of fully understanding and explaining local and 647 regional differences (e.g., Ref. 148 and references therein). Generally speaking, a positive 648 correlation is observed between Hg concentration and individual size, weight, age, 649 trophic level and depth, and a negative correlation with growth rate (Hg dilution by an 650 increase in organism biomass) in MED fishes and mammals, with numerous exceptions 651 according to species or populations. For example, a higher Hg content was found in male than female hakes of similar size in the Gulf of Lion but not in the Bay of Biscay, as 652 653 males grow more slowly than females in the MED, but not in the Atlantic²¹. Hg content was correlated with size in *Mullus surmuletus* in the Ligurian Sea¹⁷² and south of Spain¹⁶⁸ 654 655 but not in the Gulf of Lion¹⁵⁶. A recent study also demonstrates the importance of the 656 proximal composition (mainly protein and lipid contents) of organisms on Hg concentration in MED fish¹⁶⁸. Besides, as the whole life history determines Hg 657 658 accumulation in organisms, the inter-individual variability would be higher in the older, often also the larger, individuals in a population, a pattern observed in MED fishes 170, 173 659 and marine mammals¹⁶⁴. Most authors agree however on the higher Hg bioaccumulation 660 in MED benthic fish species compared to pelagic fish, and in individuals within species 661 occurring at deeper than in shallower waters, 166, 173, 174, 175, 176, while exceptions are also 662 observed¹⁷⁷. 663

664 Regional comparisons of Hg concentrations in marine organisms are thus 665 complicated by the combination of the high number of factors involved in contaminant bioaccumulation and may differ according to the organisms studied¹⁷⁸. Mediterranean 666 organisms, from sponges to fish, marine mammals, and seabirds, are known for their 667 higher Hg concentrations than their Atlantic counterparts 21, 48, 164, 165, 179, 180, 181, 182. Within 668 the MED, some geographic regions such as the North Adriatic Sea, the Tyrrhenian Sea, 669 and the Sea of Marmara^{174, 180, 181} are known hotspots for Hg bioaccumulation, while the 670 Aegean Sea¹⁸³, Ionian Sea¹⁷⁴, the Black Sea¹⁵⁶, and the Tunisian coast¹⁶² appear to be less 671 contaminated. Locally, Hg concentration in one species may vary by an order of 672 magnitude, as observed for mussels on French MED coasts¹⁸⁴. The exceptionally high 673 spatial variability in MED organisms is highlighted by all studies, both between western 674 675 and eastern basins, northern and southern coasts, and among habitats and depths. An 676 example of the WMED-EMED difference of Hg content in fish is provided by the red mullet Mullus barbatus, a much-used species in monitoring surveys, from the Gulf of 677 Lion¹⁷⁰ and the coast of Turkey¹⁸³. M. barbatus of the same size range (11-19 cm TL) 678 679 exhibit a ~2 times higher mean Hg content in the WMED $(0.190 \pm 0.013 \,\mu g \,g^{-1})$ wet weight in muscle, n = 94) than the EMED $(0.090 \pm 0.017 \,\mu g \, g^{-1} \, ww, \, n = 52)$ (Fig. 7). The 680 681 regression logHg vs size presents a significantly higher intercept in the WMED than in 682 the EMED, suggesting a higher Hg concentration at the base of the food web in WMED, 683 while slopes do not differ due to the high variance of data indicating similar Hg 684 bioaccumulation rates in the two fish populations. Such regional differences in fish Hg 685 content could be related to the higher MeHg concentration in WMED than EMED waters 686 (Fig. 3), which could induce more pronounced bioconcentration processes and thus higher Hg content in all trophic levels in WMED food webs. Consistently, the relatively 687 high Hg bioaccumulation observed in Mediterranean hakes²¹ could be essentially related 688 689 to the environmental specificities of the MED compared to the adjacent NE Atlantic, 690 including slightly higher MeHg concentrations in waters where predators are foraging. This latter hypothesis is supported by recent results on bluefin tuna, for which very high 691 Hg levels have been observed²². Indeed, Tseng et al. (2021)²² showed that this long-lived 692 693 apex predator has Hg accumulation rates (defined as a change in muscle Hg concentration 694 per unit change in either size/weight or age) which reach the highest level in the MED 695 and decrease as North Pacific > Indian Ocean > North Atlantic. The authors argue that the 696 Hg accumulation rate in tuna can be used as a Hg contamination index in the oceans. This

interesting hypothesis deserves further testing and it is probably related to the high methylation capacity of MED waters (see section 2.2.2).

In addition, the higher temperature of the MED and its oligotrophic waters would induce an increase in metabolic activity^{185, 186} and a decrease in the growth of the organisms^{187, 188}, leading to a smaller size at a given age, which, along with a lower Hg elimination rate¹⁶⁷, would induce higher bioaccumulation of Hg in Mediterranean organisms^{21, 48}.

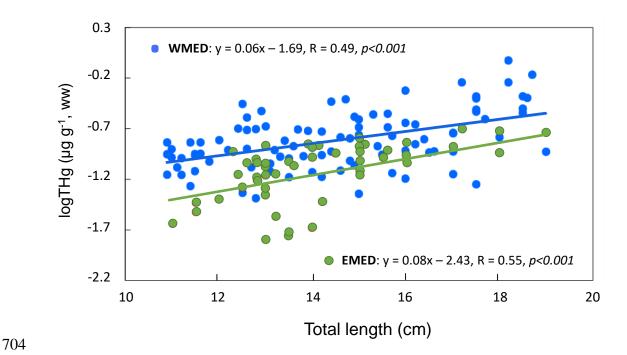


Figure 7. Log-log relationships between THg and total length in the red mullet (Mullus barbatus) from the Gulf of Lion, France (WMED) and the Gulf of Izmir, Turkey (EMED).

4.3. Biomagnification

Biomagnification is defined as the increase in Hg concentration in organisms from prey to predator throughout food webs from primary producers to high trophic level predators. Some studies provide data on Hg biomagnification along Mediterranean food webs from primary producers to various consumers at different trophic levels^{21, 157, 176, 178}. Most often the food webs analyzed were comprised of only a few trophic levels as highlighted in the worldwide meta-analysis¹⁸⁹ in which the food webs analyzed ranged across a mean of only 1.7 trophic levels, but a few studies recently analyzed entire food webs from phytoplankton to marine mammals¹⁵³. All studies provide evidence of an exponential

increase of total Hg concentration with the trophic level increase, and a steeper slope for MeHg which presents a higher retention efficiency due to its lower elimination rate.

718 Mercury biomagnification in food webs is generally quantified either by the trophic 719 magnification slope (TMS) (also called biomagnification power), corresponding to the slope (b) of the regression between logHg or logMeHg vs trophic level or δ^{15} N of the 720 organisms, or by the trophic magnification factor (TMF) calculated as TMF = 10^b (see 721 722 Ref. 190 for a critical discussion). Trophic magnification slope generally ranges from 723 0.11 to 0.22 for total Hg and 0.14 to 0.36 for MeHg in the food webs studied from polar 724 to tropical ecosystems, which corresponded to TMFs ranging from 1.29 to 1.66 for Hg and from 1.38 to 2.29 for MeHg $^{153,\,184,\,189}$. The TMFs calculated for Hg in Mediterranean 725 food webs are within this range with a lower value in Sicily (1.22, Ref. 175) than in the 726 727 Gulf of Lion (1.68, Ref. 171) or the Bay of Marseille (1.25 - 1.58, Ref. 177), but reaches 2.40 (TMS = 0.38) for MeHg in the Gulf of Lion²¹. A higher biomagnification power for 728 729 MeHg was calculated in the hake food web in the MED than in the NE Atlantic (2.40 and 1.95 respectively)²¹, while no difference in MeHg biomagnification power between 730 731 the MED and the Atlantic was found for deeper fish species occurring in deeper 732 waters⁴⁸, such as the sharks Scyliorhinus canicula and Galeus melastomus. Currently, 733 due to the scarcity of relevant data, it is not possible to account for a particular Hg 734 biomagnification in MED food webs. However, a possible hypothesis is that the smaller 735 size of individuals in the MED induces longer or more complex food webs, which may 736 result in a higher Hg biomagnification factor. It is proposed that longer food chains induce a decrease in energy transfer and an increase in contaminant retention ^{191, 192}. 737 738 During summer, when nutrients become limiting, changes in trophic conditions could 739 modify the importance of the microbial loop as well as the role played by mixotrophic 740 organisms in the trophic transfer of Hg. It is not known if there are differences in the 741 processes involved in Hg transfer and biomagnification in pelagic and benthic-742 dominated food webs or a difference in the magnitude of similar processes. Few data are 743 available on Hg and MeHg concentrations in the benthic invertebrates which constitute 744 important prey sources for higher trophic level consumers. The specificity of the MED food web functioning itself may well influence Hg transfer¹⁹³. 745

The use of different trophic markers (carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes, fatty acids, amino-acids, compound-specific stable isotope analyses) and stable Hg isotopes may improve the comprehension of trophic transfer in the first levels of the food web and

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749 thus refine the estimation of Hg and MeHg transfers under varying environmental 750 conditions. Ecosystem models such as ECOPATH with ECOSIM, ECOSPACE, and ECOTRACER^{194, 195} take into account all food web interactions. Applying such models 751 752 here should allow better quantification of the trophic transfers of Hg and MeHg in MED 753 ecosystems and their temporal and spatial variability. Regional food web models 754 accounting for bioaccumulation need to be implemented to simulate the spatial 755 variability, as well as the population-variability, of Hg concentration in organisms, and 756 refine the estimation of total Hg and MeHg content in MED biota. All these questions 757 require accurate knowledge of organism biology, physiology, and ecology, to determine 758 how they differ in the MED from adjacent areas. 759 4.4. Quantification of Hg content in Mediterranean biota and fisheries harvest 760 From the data compiled in the Supporting Information (SI.6), we estimated the THg and 761 MeHg content in MED biota. Detailed methodological and calculation details are also 762 given in the Supporting Information (SI.7). The estimate indicated that MED marine biota 763 contains ~ 4.7 Mg of THg and ~2.2 Mg as MeHg. Due to the uncertainty associated with 764 the initial biomass estimation, a range between 3.0 and 6.4 Mg of THg in MED biota can 765 be approximated using the standard deviation of the biomass compartments 196. These results illustrate not only the importance of primary producers, which represent 13 % of 766 THg in MED biota, as already observed in other mass balance inventories 197 but also the 767 768 chief importance of the benthos, a too often neglected compartment, which accounts for 769 ~50 % of THg (32 % of the MeHg) in MED biota. Cetaceans also constitute an important Hg reservoir (10 % of THg and 18 % of the MeHg present in MED biota). However, THg 770 771 in biota represents only a small part (0.7 %) of the general Hg budget in the MED. An 772 estimation of Hg removed from the MED by fishery catches was performed using the observed data of catches for the year 2011¹⁹⁶. A total of 0.30 Mg THg y⁻¹ and 0.26 Mg 773 774 MeHg y⁻¹ is extracted from the MED by fisheries, which is similar to the value of 0.29 Mg MeHg y⁻¹ calculated by Žagar et al.⁴¹ using a different method. However, in contrast 775 776 to these authors, total aquaculture products were not included in our estimation, which 777 could therefore be considered as a minimum value. Catches therefore annually remove ~6 778 % of the THg and ~12 % of MeHg held in living biomass in the MED. Sharks and small 779 pelagic fishes (including sardine and anchovy) constitute the main quantities of MeHg 780 (20 % each) removed by MED fisheries, followed by large pelagic (13 %) and large

demersal (11 %) fishes. These estimations should be treated with caution as a large degree of uncertainty is associated with all steps of the calculations.

5. Human exposure

Mercury is one of the ten most important pollutants of global concern for human health¹⁹⁸. The major toxic effects of MeHg, a naturally occurring organic form of Hg prevalent in fish, are on the central nervous system, with the developing fetus being most vulnerable¹. Consumption of fish is considered a major source of Hg exposure to Europeans. Other sources are well described, but their contributions are minor in comparison with fish consumption¹⁹⁹.

Human exposure to mercury and its compounds can be assessed through the measurement of Hg concentrations in many different biological sample types. The most commonly used biomarkers are the concentrations of mercury in hair, urine, blood, and cord blood, and their selection can depend on factors such as the potential source of exposure, chemical form, and exposure life stage. An extensive recent review indicated that the individuals with the highest reported Hg levels were those living in the Arctic, Pacific, MED, and Atlantic coast regions who consume the highest amounts of fish, seafood, and marine mammals²⁰⁰. It has been shown that several species of fish from the MED have higher levels of Hg in their tissues compared with the same species from the Atlantic Ocean^{201, 202,} and references cited in section 4.3. An extensive review of mercury levels in biota is presented by Cinnirella et al.¹⁴⁸ and indicates that among all the species considered, *Diplodus sargus*, *Sardina pilchardus*, *Thunnus thynnus*, and *Xiphias gladius* show trends of mercury concentration higher than safe limits defined by WHO and EU.

Human exposure to Hg in Europe, and in particular, the question of whether MED populations are more exposed to this contaminant than other European populations has been addressed in the literature. Two studies have evaluated Hg concentrations in blood, urine, and hair, widely used biomarkers to evaluate Hg human exposure, of populations from European Countries^{199, 203}. Both studies agreed on the fact that there are significant differences in MeHg exposure across the EU and that exposure is highly correlated with the consumption of fish and marine products, as well as the availability of large fish species from the MED. Whether human exposure to Hg is higher in the MED than in

North European countries still needs to be elucidated through a well-designed comparative study.

The results of studies in the MED countries are provided in the Supporting Information (SI.8)^{199, 203}. The highest levels are found in coastal regions with local seafood consumption (Spain, Morocco, Tunisia, and Greece) which is consistent with other studies around the world. In the framework of the EU-funded DEMOCOPHES project²⁰⁴, the dietary habits and consumption frequency of fish and other marine products showed great variations among the 17 EU countries, which was also reflected in the high variability of Hg levels in the hair of mothers and children. Among the MED countries participating in DEMOCOPHES the highest values (geometric means) were found in Spain (1.59 μg g⁻¹), whereas Cyprus and Slovenia showed much lower values (0.43 μg g⁻¹and 0.26 μg g⁻¹, respectively).

In the MED region, two cohort studies aimed to link prenatal Hg exposure and health outcomes in newborns. The prenatal exposure in both studies was based on cord blood mercury measurements. In Spain, the "Environment and Childhood" (INMA) study implemented in the period 2004 to 2008 included several regions, and 1883 cord blood samples were analyzed for THg²⁰⁵. The highest concentrations expressed as geometric means were found in samples collected in Valencia (9.5 µg L⁻¹) and Asturias (10.8 ng mL⁻¹) and were strongly related to fish consumption, especially large oily fish and tuna. The second MED cohort study included coastal regions in Italy, Slovenia, Croatia, and Greece^{206, 207} in the period between 2007 and 2011. This cohort study included 1308 mother-child pairs enrolled in the Public Health Impact of long-term, low-level, Mixed Element exposure in a susceptible population (PHIME). The highest levels of cord blood samples were found in the Greek population with geometric means of 7.7 ng mL⁻¹, followed by Italy with 5.6 ng mL⁻¹, Croatia with 5.1 ng mL⁻¹, and the lowest in Slovenia with 2.1 ng mL⁻¹. These levels were strongly correlated with fish consumption, and in Greece primarily due to locally caught fish. The Valencia and Asturias region in the INMA and Greek PHIME prenatal exposure values are comparable to regions with high fish intake in Japan, Honk Kong, Korea, and Polynesia²⁰⁵. These two studies confirm the data presented in Supporting Information (SI.8) that indicate high variability of Hg exposure in the MED region reflecting variation in the frequency of fish consumption, their sources, and type. Similar findings were reported in a recent publication of Petrova et al. 10, where mean Hg levels in hair for women of childbearing age on the French

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Mediterranean coast were higher than for women of childbearing age from other European countries. This trend is in accordance with the higher annual fish consumption *per capita* in various European countries. Besides, it has to be noted that fish from aquaculture often have lower Hg levels compared with wild fisheries. For example, levels of Hg in seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) from wild fisheries in the MED were, on average, approximately 10 times higher than in aquaculture seabass²⁰⁷.

While fish consumption is an important element of human health, especially in the early stages of life^{208, 209}, higher MeHg exposure during pregnancy is associated with a poorer metabolic profile. Both MED epidemiological studies, INMA and PHIME, also indicated that there is a growing awareness of inter-individual differences in the toxicokinetics of mercury and the resulting biomarker measurements may be influenced by genetic polymorphisms^{210, 211}. Since the symptoms of MeHg exposure are subtle and multi-causal, there is still no consensus on a health-based guidance value for MeHg exposure despite the large number of studies trying to connect low exposure levels to actual risk^{209, 212}. However, there is a general recommendation that pregnant women, children, and women of childbearing age should be protected as much as possible from Hg exposure. Therefore, it is important to know what the actual exposure to MeHg is in the general population and what the sources of exposure are to formulate adequate mitigation strategies and recommendations. For example, an attempt was made for the Italian population²¹³ with the formulation of advice regarding food habits that could maximize the benefits, whilst reducing the risks of MeHg intake in sensitive groups without compromising seafood consumption. This should allow a better understanding of the food risk associated with mercury, particularly in highly polluted sites. Overall, the Minamata Convention on Mercury sets guidelines for limiting human exposure to Hg. Article 22 of the Minamata Convention calls for parties to monitor mercury in the environment as well as in people (biomonitoring) as a way of assessing the effectiveness of the convention.

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6. Modeling the Hg cycle in the Mediterranean

Numerical biogeochemical models are effective tools to investigate the fate and transport of Hg in the environment. Synthesizing available knowledge into a rigorous framework, they help to highlight gaps in process understanding and data availability^{32, 33, 45, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223}. Moreover, models can be used to predict the

evolution of a system under different Hg emission scenarios, trophic conditions, and climate change, supporting the evaluation of alternative management strategies^{218, 219, 224, 225, 226, 227}. Reviewing modeling studies for the marine Hg cycle in the Mediterranean area, we found that only one paper has sought to model the Hg cycle in the MED at the basin scale⁴¹, pointing out uncertainties in Hg input to the basin and a poor understanding of Hg methylation and demethylation processes at that time. Other modeling efforts in the MED are local scale studies focusing either on transport and transformation processes of Hg species in regional seas⁶⁹ and coastal sites^{32, 224, 228, 229, 230, 231}, as well as on the bioaccumulation and biomagnification processes^{21, 232}. Most of these models still presented several limitations, namely, the use of the quasi-steady state approach, coarse spatial resolutions, and the lack of full coupling between physical and biogeochemical processes.

Small-scale assessments are relevant to provide estimates of Hg fluxes from coastal and former industrial areas²³³ since a comprehensive assessment of Hg point sources and legacy Hg for the MED is lacking. However, existing modeling studies for Hg in the MED are also geographically biased as they have been carried out in the areas where more data have been collected over the years: either the Northern Adriatic Sea, or the NWMED. Significant differences in the distribution and fluxes of Hg species are observed^{46, 88}, in these two sub-basins, driven by contrasting oceanographic and biogeochemical features, (i.e. the Northern Adriatic Sea is a shallow shelf with depth < 50 m and high river discharge, while the NWMED a deep system with seasonal upwelling events), but a complete understanding of the MED system as a whole is missing.

Remarkable research efforts in the last decades to unveil the mechanisms underlying Hg methylation in the ocean pointed out organic matter remineralization as a key process that triggers the release of dissolved Hg and fuels the activity of heterotrophic bacterioplankton^{96, 97, 234, 235, 236}. Phytoplankton phenology patterns have a large impact on MeHg production and bioaccumulation, as the cell size affects both the ability to bioaccumulate Hg^{152,158} and the sinking velocity after death, with small slow-sinking plankton favoring water column Hg methylation in the water column^{91, 237}, and large fast-sinking plankton acting as a fast vector for Hg sequestration through scavenging and transport to the seafloor²³⁸. These pieces of evidence are fostering new efforts aimed at developing integrated modeling tools that couple the biogeochemistry of

Hg species with that of organic matter and nutrients and with hydrodynamic transport ²¹⁹
²²³ . At the state of the art, coupled physical-biogeochemical models for the MED, can
simulate the key processes of nutrients (i.e., nitrogen, phosphorus, silica, iron) carbon,
and oxygen in the water, sediments, and in the food web from heterotrophic bacteria to
phytoplankton and zooplankton, reproducing the observed spatial gradient and seasonal
variations of chlorophyll and primary production at a spatial resolution up to 1/64
degree ²³⁹ . Validated model outputs for the BFM-OGSTM model, a biogeochemical
model coupled to the physical model NEMO-OceanVar, are freely available at the
Copernicus Marine Service site (https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu), with a spatial
resolution of 1/24 degree, for 125 depth levels, for forecast simulations and 20-year
reanalysis. Given the high standard attained in physical-biogeochemical models, a full
physical-biogeochemical-Hg coupling will likely add insights into the cycling of Hg in
the MED and its possible future evolution.

To improve our ability to model the Hg cycle, a better mechanistic understanding is also needed. A few measurements are available for Hg methylation and demethylation rates in the MED waters, as well as for the formation of Hg⁰ and DMHg^{43, 44, 240}; but rates of photochemical transformations have never been assessed in the MED^{137, 138}, nor has a full mechanistic understanding been achieved for any of these processes. Moreover, a recent review highlighted significant uncertainties in assessing potential seawater Hg methylation and demethylation rates²⁴¹. Given the relevance of DMHg in the open ocean^{39, 43}, more observations and modeling experiments are needed to constrain transformation kinetics between DMHg, MeHg, and inorganic Hg^{II} (Ref. 237). Further investigation of Hg species transformations in sub-basins of the MED with different trophic status could provide more reliable site-specific rates to be used in the models and could help to elucidate how different controlling factors, such as primary production, dissolved organic matter, oxygen, temperature, and chlorides affect transformations kinetics. The continuous availability of data of Hg species in water and plankton, the latter being particularly scarce in MED¹⁴⁸, is also crucial for model validation and to improve our ability to deal with the challenges posed by climate change.

7. Overview of recent advances

944 Compiling the oceanographically consistent THg data obtained in the open WMED 945 waters between 2000 and 2017 allowed us to draw a consistent pattern of Hg 946 distributions (Fig. 2). The THg concentrations of the upper layer (AW) are rather 947 variable (as a result of Hg evasion and biological pumping) averaging 0.86 ± 0.27 pmol L⁻¹, whereas, in the intermediate and deep waters (EIW+WMDW), they are more 948 homogenous with a mean of 1.02 ± 0.12 pmol L⁻¹. In the EMED, the available THg 949 950 measurements are in the same range as those of the WMED but are far too few to 951 determine any consistent oceanographical pattern. MeHg represents around 10, 40, and 952 13 % of THg in AW, EIW, and DMW, respectively. The highest MeHg values are found 953 in the OMZ with high AOU (Fig. 4). The methylating, hgcA-like genes from different 954 microbial groups have even been identified in MED waters. The MeHg distribution 955 seems likely to be ultimately governed by the intensity of primary production and the 956 associated OM degradation. Consistently, MeHg concentrations in the mesotrophic 957 WMED average twice those in the oligotrophic EMED. In addition, the methylation 958 capacity of MED waters is high compared to other parts of the World Ocean. The THg 959 (MeHg) inventories in waters are ~280 (100) Mg and ~400 (50) Mg for the WMED and 960 EMED, respectively. Air-sea exchanges dominate the Hg fluxes, and Hg evasion largely exceeds atmospheric deposition (~30 Mg y⁻¹ net). However, the excess of evasion, given 961 962 by the models, is still insufficiently supported by the observations to be fully reliable. 963 The MED is a net exporter of Hg to the adjacent Atlantic Ocean (~2 Mg y⁻¹, with ~1.4 Mg y⁻¹ as MeHg), and MED abyssal sediments are a net sink for Hg (~6 Mg y⁻¹), 964 whereas shelf sediments retain (at least temporarily) ~7 Mg y⁻¹. Most of this latter input 965 966 originates from rivers (~6 Mg y⁻¹). This budget is, however, still far from being well constrained. For example, our estimations of submarine groundwater discharges, coastal 967 968 erosion, submarine tectonic inputs, and point sources are rather coarse. High Hg 969 concentrations were observed in Mediterranean predator organisms. 970 The MED is not only a bioreactor for MeHg production but also one of the places in 971 the World Ocean where the methylation capacity of the Hg is highest. The difference in 972 MeHg water concentrations between the MED basins (and other oceanic basins) appears 973 to be transferred through the food webs and the Hg content in predators to be ultimately 974 controlled by the MeHg concentrations of the waters of their foraging zones. 975 Mediterranean top-predator fish still exceed European Union regulatory Hg thresholds. 976 Since fish are the main vector of MeHg to humans, the current knowledge of the actual

exposure of MED populations to MeHg is still needed to formulate adequate mitigation strategies and recommendations without compromising seafood consumption. Mitigation of MED ecosystem exposure to Hg requires a full coupling of physicalbiogeochemical-Hg models based on a better assessment of anthropogenic Hg sources; such coupling will likely add insights into the possible future evolution of the Hg cycling in the MED, as a result of climate changes and variations in Hg atmospheric deposition.

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8. Perspectives

8.1. Hg cycle, climate change, and human coastal management in the MED

MED shares most of the uncertainties with other parts of the global ocean concerning the Hg cycle and its possible modification due to climate change. Non-Mediterraneanspecific changes in Hg cycling are expected from climate change, such as those listed for a global perspective²⁴², including changes in atmospheric Hg oxidation and deposition and wildfires. Also, climate change is expected to induce modifications in the hydrological regime that would consequently affect the Hg atmospheric wet depositions, input regime from rivers, and submarine groundwater discharges. More specifically, the MED is very vulnerable to future climate change scenarios²⁸, which are expected to induce an increase in vertical stratification, a depletion of oxygen in deep layers, and a reduction of primary productivity. Shallow and deep-water mixing would affect the efficiency of Hg transfer to the bottom sediments. A possible decrease in plankton productivity may slow down the uptake and subsequent Hg scavenging. Depletion of oxygen may favor the MeHg formation. However, the multi-causal drivers of Hg methylation and demethylation rates add complexity to any attempts to predict future effects. Besides, a reduction in European atmospheric emissions would lead to a decrease in Hg deposition to the MED, and the short Hg residence time in waters should favor a rapid decline of Hg concentrations in waters. Climate change may induce in the MED not only a reduction of primary productivity but changes in phytoplankton community composition and likely a decrease in cell size, as already observed in different geographic zones^{243, 244, 245}. Human coastal management may also impact terrestrial inputs, such as the decrease of phosphorus inputs to the Mediterranean rivers in recent decades inducing a decrease in plankton size²⁴⁶. An increase in oligotrophy and a decrease in cell size may thus increase Hg bioconcentration processes at the base of food webs. At higher trophic

levels, an increase in temperature would increase the metabolic demand of organisms¹⁸⁶ and affect their behavior¹⁸⁵, leading to a decrease in their growth rate and size that could cause an increase of MeHg bioaccumulation and a decrease in its elimination rate¹⁶⁷. A decrease in organism size generally leads to longer and less efficient food webs, along which Hg biomagnification would be increased, while the effects of temperature on food web length are complex and may vary spatially^{192, 247, 248}. Thus, the three Hg transfer processes in biota, bioconcentration, bioaccumulation, and biomagnification could be enhanced by different climate change scenarios in the MED¹⁵⁸, but its intensity would probably be highly spatially heterogeneous. An increase in Hg concentrations in marine organisms would be problematic for seafood consumers in the MED region.

8.2. The unknowns of the Mediterranean Hg cycle and research needs

- Despite the numerous scientific advances described in this review paper, several uncertainties in the MED Hg distribution, cycling, and budget persist.
 - Measurements of THg and MeHg in the Southern MED and the Levantine Basin waters are insufficient for mapping oceanographically consistent distributions of Hg species in the water column of the EMED.
 - The revised Hg budget for the MED remains poorly constrained relatively to several Hg inputs especially because of the almost total absence of spatial and seasonal data series, including speciation, and fluxes at the air-sea interface, hydrothermal vents, cold seeps, SGD, and point sources. Monitoring systems for seasonally quantifying continental inputs have to be implemented.
 - Notwithstanding a general agreement for a net Hg evasion flux (~30 Mg y⁻¹) to the atmosphere, taking into account the photolytic reduction of Hg^{II} compounds in the atmosphere could modify this figure. Gas-phase reduction of Hg^{II} would reduce dry and wet deposition to the MED, however by how much, requires further modeling studies to be performed. In addition, at-sea monitoring of seasonal and spatial variability (coastal upwelling) of Hg deposition and evasion is needed to explore to what extent atmospheric deposition is the primary factor controlling evasion of Hg⁰ to the atmosphere. Such data will provide the basis for models and for validating them.
 - The transport of particulate Hg inputs from terrigenous origin to the open sea
 through canyons is not adequately quantified. For example, which part of riverine
 Hg inputs (associated with particulate material) remains in the margin sediments,

- which part reaches the abyssal sediments *via* canyons, which part is released in the water column, and which part may become available to benthic food webs?
 - Some aspects of Hg speciation in waters are still questionable. For example, published observations on MMHg/DMHg ratios diverge widely in space and time and show little coherence or rationale. The ratio between the two methylated forms has consequences for MeHg fate and distribution between the atmosphere, water, and biota.
 - Further work is also needed to elucidate Hg methylation mechanisms. The biogeochemical factors which promote net Hg methylation are still being identified. The importance of the nutrient status (and associated plankton communities) appears to be a determining criterion. Indeed, we know that the oligotrophic EMED waters are less loaded with MeHg than the WMED. To what extent is the heterotrophic activity responsible for Hg methylation, especially in phosphate-limited environments? Is there a place for abiotic methylation?
 - The main challenge to advancing the understanding of Hg transfer in MED marine food webs resides in the clarification, and quantification, of bioconcentration processes at the base of the food chain, by far the largest "quantum" leap in Hg concentration in biota. This challenge comes with several questions:
 - What are the relative roles of food web length, plankton size and nature,
 and detritus in the transfer efficiency of MeHg?
 - How would differences in biomass of the various groups of viruses,
 bacteria, autotrophic and heterotrophic pico, and nanoplankton cells affect
 Hg bioaccumulation in zooplankton consumers?
 - Could the oligotrophic conditions modify the importance of the microbial loop as well as the role played by mixotrophic organisms in the trophic transfer of Hg?
 - Rather few data are available on Hg and MeHg concentrations in the benthic invertebrates which constitute important prey sources for higher trophic level consumers. Are there different processes involved in Hg transfer and biomagnification in pelagic and benthic-dominated food webs?

To sum up, a strategy for building a comprehensive understanding of the Hg cycle in the MED, allowing future assessment of global change impacts in conjunction with

the Minamata Convention Hg policy, should be based on long-term time-series
observations, the use of new markers (e.g., Hg isotopes), and high-resolution Earth
System Models dedicated to the MED area. Understanding, representing, and
quantifying the interlinked processes involved in the Hg cycle, from earth system
physics to microbial transformations, is far from trivial. Although the levels of
uncertainty associated with individual processes are still high, models can be useful in
dealing with such uncertainty through scenario analyses ^{45, 78, 224} . Coupled physical-
biogeochemical numerical models can help in investigating the impacts of climate
change on marine ecosystems focusing on Hg biogeochemistry and its interconnections
with transport and transformation phenomen ^{33, 218, 219, 224} allowing different hypotheses
and scenarios to be tested. Future efforts should be made in coupling Hg models into
integrated regional and/or earth system models, able to describe Hg cycling through the
ocean, atmosphere, and biosphere, and to properly consider contamination hot spots, and
impacts on regions of particular interest, such as coastal areas ^{249, 250} . Such a challenge
calls for a combination of modeling refinement, from the use of variable spatial mesh
and/or downscaling, to a better parameterization of transport and transformation
processes, aerosols, and Hg bioaccumulation and magnification in terrestrial and marine
ecosystems. Such integrated modeling is the ultimate step in building realistic scenarios
of Hg cycle evolution in the Mediterranean environment. New spatial and dynamic end-
to-end ecosystem modeling which relates trophic transfer and Hg and MeHg transfer,
based on field data should be developed to relate observations of physical and
biogeochemical processes to marine resource exploitation and consumption. Such
integrated models are required to test scenarios and to be used as mitigation and
management tools.

ACRONYMS

- 1102 AOU: Apparent oxygen utilization
- 1103 AW: Atlantic Water
- 1104 DGM: Dissolved gaseous mercury
- 1105 DMHg: Dimethyl mercury
- 1106 DMW: Deep Mediterranean Water
- 1107 EIW: Eastern Intermediate Water
- 1108 EMED: Eastern Mediterranean
- 1109 EU: European Union
- 1110 GEM: Gaseous elemental mercury
- 1111 GMA: Global mercury assessment

1112 1113	GMOS: Global mercury observation system GOM: Gaseous oxidized mercury
1114	Hg: Mercury
1115	INMA: Environment and Childhood Project (ISGlobal, Spain)
1116	MED: Mediterranean
1117	MeHg: Methylated mercury (MMHg+DMHg)
1118	MMHg: Monomethyl mercury NWMED: Northwestern Mediterranean
1119 1120	OM: Organic matter
1120	OMZ: Oxygen minimum zone
1122	PHIME: Public Health Impact of Long-Term, Low-level Mixed Element Exposure in
1123	Susceptible Population Strata (USA Department of Agriculture)
1124	SGD: Submarine groundwater discharge
1125	TDW: Tyrrhenian Deep Water
1126	TMF: Trophic magnification factor
1127	TMS: Trophic magnification slope
1128 1129	UNEP: United Nations Environment Programme WHO: World Health Organization
1129	WMDW: Western Mediterranean deep water
1131	WMED: Western Mediterranean
1132	
1133	Supporting Information
1134	SI.1. Summary of the biogeochemical Hg cycle; SI.2. Calculation of the gas transfer
1135	velocities at the Mediterranean air-sea interface; SI.3. Summary statistics on total Hg
1136	concentrations in the western Mediterranean waters; SI.4. Methylated mercury in
1137	various oceanic basins; SI.5. Biological methylation and demethylation mechanisms;
1138	SI.6. Calculations of total and methylated Hg masses in Mediterranean marine biota;
1139	SI.7. Total and methylated Hg content in Mediterranean biota; SI.8. Mercury levels in
1140	exposure biomarkers in humans in the Mediterranean countries.
1141	
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