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1 **Bioconcentration, bioaccumulation and biomagnification of mercury in plankton of the**
2 **Mediterranean Sea**

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14 the Mediterranean Sea: Biological pump and interactions from regional to global
15 approaches”

16 **Revised version**

17 **Highlights**

- 18 - Highest THg bioconcentration was highlighted in picoplankton
- 19 - MMHg biomagnified while THg decreased along the plankton food web
- 20 - MMHg bioaccumulated and biomagnified in zooplankton
- 21 - Highest zooplankton MMHg concentrations were observed in oligotrophic areas

22 **Abstract**

23 Plankton plays a prominent role in the bioaccumulation of mercury (Hg). The MERITE-
24 HIPPOCAMPE campaign was carried out in spring 2019 along a north-south transect
25 including coastal and offshore areas of the Mediterranean Sea. Sampling of sea water and
26 plankton by pumping and nets was carried out in the chlorophyll maximum layer. Two size-
27 fractions of phytoplankton (0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 µm) and five of zooplankton (between 60

and >2000 µm) were separated, and their total mercury (THg) and monomethylmercury (MMHg) contents were measured. Bioconcentration of THg was significantly higher in the smallest phytoplankton size-fraction dominated by *Synechococcus* spp. The bioaccumulation and biomagnification of MMHg in zooplankton was influenced by size, food sources, biochemical composition and trophic level. MMHg was biomagnified in the plankton food web, while THg decreased toward higher trophic levels. Higher MMHg concentrations were measured in oligotrophic areas. Plankton communities in the Southern Mediterranean Sea had lower MMHg concentrations than those in the Northern Mediterranean Sea. These results highlighted the influence of environmental conditions and trophodynamics on the transfer of Hg in Mediterranean plankton food webs, with implications for higher trophic level consumers.

Keywords

Mercury, methylmercury, plankton, trophic transfer, contamination, food web

1. Introduction

Mercury (Hg), predominantly in its inorganic form, is released to the atmosphere and the ocean from natural and anthropogenic sources, with the latter largely outweighing the former (Outridge et al., 2018). Anthropogenic Hg emissions are thought to have tripled surface ocean Hg levels (Lamborg et al., 2014). Marine apex predator Hg levels are driven by anthropogenic Hg inputs and marine methylmercury (MeHg) production (Medieu et al. 2022), yet their relative importance is still poorly constrained (Wang et al. 2019). The relatively small and semi-enclosed Mediterranean Sea receives proportionally more Hg and the sea water MeHg dynamics are well known, making it an ideal case study (Cossa et al., 2022). Microorganisms present in the ocean can convert inorganic Hg into MeHg species (Villar et al., 2020), namely monomethylmercury (MMHg) and dimethylmercury (DMHg). MMHg is a potent neurotoxic which bioaccumulates in organisms with size and age and biomagnifies in food webs, reaching high concentrations in apex predators (Morel et al., 1998). Mediterranean human populations are exposed to high levels of Hg related to higher marine fish consumption, posing a potential health risk (UNEP, 2019; Petrova et al., 2020). This is further exacerbated by the higher fish Hg levels in the Mediterranean Sea, often exceeding regulatory limits (Aston and Fowler, 1985; Storelli and Marcotrigiano, 2001;

67 Tseng et al., 2021).

1 68 Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the so-called “Mediterranean Hg
2 69 anomaly” (Aston and Fowler, 1985; Cossa and Coquery, 2005), mainly attributing the
3 70 higher biota Hg levels to enhanced MeHg production. The high methylation capacities
4 71 reported in the Mediterranean Sea may enhance MMHg availability to the lower trophic
5 72 levels, namely plankton (Cossa and Coquery, 2005, Monperrus et al., 2007; Cossa et al.,
6 73 2022). Similarly to the Arctic Ocean, the Mediterranean MeHg maxima are located at
7 74 shallow depths in proximity to the phytoplankton habitat, allowing for an efficient uptake
8 75 into the food web (Heimbürger et al., 2010, 2015; Cossa et al., 2012). Nevertheless, sea
9 76 water Hg concentrations alone cannot explain the “Mediterranean Hg anomaly” observed for
10 77 biota (Aston and Fowler, 1985; Cossa and Coquery, 2005). While Hg concentrations have
11 78 been extensively observed in Mediterranean higher trophic level biota (Cinnirella et al.,
12 79 2019 and references therein), only few studies have been conducted on plankton Hg levels
13 80 (Cossa et al., 2012; Chouvelon et al., 2019).

14 81 Although studies are scarce, plankton organisms are hypothesized to play a key role in the
15 82 accumulation and transfer of Hg in the Mediterranean food webs (Cossa and Coquery, 2005;
16 83 Harmelin-Vivien et al., 2009; Chouvelon et al., 2018, 2019; Cossa et al., 2022).
17 84 Phytoplankton bioconcentrates Hg more than 10,000 times from sea water, which is by far
18 85 the largest enrichment step of Hg along the marine food web (Lee and Fisher, 2016).
19 86 Mercury bioconcentration has been shown to be related to species and size, with the highest
20 87 bioconcentration for smallest phytoplankton cells largely driven by their higher surface-to-
21 88 volume ratio (Lee and Fisher, 2016). In the Mediterranean Sea, phytoplankton is mainly
22 89 composed of small cells (pico- and nanoplankton) with a low biomass (Leblanc et al., 2018;
23 90 Boudriga et al., 2022; Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023), and a high Hg bioconcentration may thus
24 91 be expected (Chouvelon et al., 2018). In addition, the slow-sinking pico- and
25 92 nanophytoplankton cells are more prone to remineralization (Guidi et al., 2009) and thus to
26 93 providing more Hg for methylation (Heimbürger et al., 2010). Due to technical difficulties,
27 94 data on Hg concentrations in small phytoplankton fractions collected in the field remain
28 95 scarce to date (Gosnell and Mason, 2015; Gosnell et al., 2017). Zooplankton represents the
29 96 link between phytoplankton and higher trophic levels. MMHg bioaccumulates in
30 97 zooplankton with size and age mainly because of food uptake (Tsui and Wang, 2004;
31 98 Hammerschmidt et al., 2013). A size-based approach has become widely used to study the
32 99 structure and functioning of the planktonic compartment (Rau et al., 1990; Rolff, 2000;

100 Carlotti et al., 2008; Hunt et al., 2017). However, taxonomic and groups composition differ
101 between plankton size-fractions (Boudriga et al., 2023; Fierro-González et al., 2023).
102 Zooplankton may exhibit different feeding patterns across size-fractions, ranging from
103 herbivorous to carnivorous, resulting in different Hg exposure (Pućko et al., 2014).
104 Oligotrophic ecosystems are characterized by lower growth rates, which reduces the
105 biodilution of Hg in biota (i.e., decrease in Hg with increasing biomass) (Silva et al., 2008;
106 Cossa et al., 2012; Chouvelon et al., 2018). The relatively warm waters of the Mediterranean
107 Sea may stimulate Hg-methylating microbes (Bacci et al., 1989; Heimbürger et al. 2010),
108 likewise increase the metabolic activity of higher trophic levels, and reduce excretion rates
109 of MMHg (Remen et al., 2015; Maulvault et al., 2016). The biochemical composition of
110 organisms can influence their physico-chemical affinity for Hg bioaccumulation (Wu and
111 Wang, 2011; Charette et al., 2021). Overall, little is known about the biological mechanisms
112 of accumulation of Hg in plankton in the Mediterranean Sea and the influence of species,
113 size, and biochemical composition of plankton. Moreover, Hg biomagnification in the food
114 web may be related to food sources but also to trophic structure. The longer food web of
115 oligotrophic ecosystems (Décima, 2022; Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023) may increase MMHg
116 biomagnification (Cossa et al., 2012, 2022). Nevertheless, to date, biomagnification in a
117 size-fractionated plankton food web has, to our knowledge, never been studied.
118 The Mediterranean Sea represents a semi-enclosed basin with spatial nutrient gradients and
119 different sources and concentrations of Hg in sea water (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2011;
120 Cossa et al., 2022). Spatial variations of Hg concentrations have been shown in both sea
121 water and sediments (Cossa and Martin, 1991; Horvat et al., 1999; Covelli et al., 2001;
122 Tessier et al., 2011; Rosati et al., 2020), potentially impacting Hg concentrations in fishes
123 (Kucuksezgin et al., 2001; Cresson et al., 2015) and at all levels of the food web (Chen et
124 al., 2008). Gosnell and Mason (2015) hypothesized that the spatial variability of Hg
125 concentrations in plankton size-fractions is also related to the plankton productivity.
126 However, in the Mediterranean Sea, no spatially resolved data is available on the Hg content
127 of plankton.
128 To investigate the “Mediterranean Hg anomaly” at the base of the pelagic food web,
129 sampling different plankton size classes remains a challenge, the main technical difficulty
130 being the collection of large quantities for subsequent chemical analyses. A key feature of
131 the MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE campaign was the implementation of targeted sampling
132 strategies for the collection of large quantities of size-fractionated phyto- and zooplankton at

133 the chlorophyll maximum layer (CML). Throughout the MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise,
134 samples were taken for sea water, different size-fractions of phyto- (0.7–2.7, 2.7–20 µm)
135 and zooplankton (60–200, 200–500, 500–1000, 1000–2000 and >2000 µm). Complementary
136 studies were also conducted on environmental parameters, species or groups composition,
137 biochemical and stable isotopes composition of the different size-fractions (Boudriga et al.,
138 2022; Fierro-González et al., 2023; Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023; Tedetti et al., 2023). The aim
139 of our study was to investigate the bioconcentration, bioaccumulation and biomagnification
140 of THg and MMHg in different plankton size classes in contrasted ecoregions of the
141 Mediterranean Sea.

142 2. Material and methods

143 2.1 Sampling preparation

144 The MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise took place in the Mediterranean Sea, between April
145 13th and May 14th 2019, onboard the R/V *Antea* (Fig. 1; Tedetti and Tronczynski, 2019). A
146 total of 10 stations were sampled in different ecoregions, including coastal sites in the Bay
147 of Marseille and Toulon (France), in the Gulf of Gabès (Tunisia) and offshore
148 Mediterranean waters (Table S1). Details on the sampling sites, the hydro-bio-geochemical
149 context and the sampling techniques are reported in Tedetti et al. (2023).

150 Unfiltered sea water was collected under trace metal clean conditions with a 12 L GOFLO
151 bottle (General Oceanics). Sea water was filtered through a PFA filter holder (Savillex),
152 holding a 47 mm diameter glass fiber filter of 0.7 µm porosity (GF/F, Whatman), conserved
153 in PFA bottles and immediately analyzed. Suspended particulate matter was sampled using
154 McLane Large Volume Water Transfer System Samplers (WTS6-142LV, 4–8 L min⁻¹), also
155 called *in situ* pumps. These *in situ* pumps were mounted with bulk and sequential filtration
156 systems (Bishop et al., 2012), holding 142 mm diameter nylon (20 µm), GF/D (2.7 µm) and
157 GF/F (0.7 µm) filters, and typically filtered between 169 and 300 L. The glass fiber filters
158 (GF/D and GF/F, Whatman) were pre-combusted (450°C, 6 h), rinsed, dried and weighed
159 prior to deployment. The 20 µm nylon filters (Mougel, France) were cleaned (HCl 0.05%
160 v/v), dried and weighed prior to deployment. After deployment, the filters were stored
161 folded in half in pre-combusted aluminum foil at –20°C.

162 Zooplankton collection was carried out towing a Multinet Plankton Sampler (Midi type with

166 0.25 m² opening, Hydro-Bios) at ~2 knots. The obtained bulk sample was consecutively
167 sieved to obtain the following fractions: 60–200, 200–500, 500–1000, 1000–2000 and
168 >2000 µm. Samples were stored in cleaned polypropylene tubes and conserved frozen at –
169 20°C. In the laboratory, filters and zooplankton were freeze-dried before being analyzed.
170 Overall, 67 samples were collected for THg and MMHg measurements in different fractions.
171 We collected 10 samples of sea water, 10 samples of each of the following fractions: 0.7–
172 2.7, 2.7–20, 60–200, 200–500 µm, 9 samples of the 500–1000 µm fraction, 5 samples of the
173 1000–2000 µm fraction and 3 samples of the >2000 µm fraction.
174 Dry weight biomass and biochemical content of all the sieved size-fractions were analyzed
175 and are available in Tesán-Onrubia et al. (2023).

176 2.2 Reagents and standards for Hg analyses

177 Reagent and standard solutions were prepared in ultrapure water (18 MΩ cm; MilliQ).
178 Sodium tetraethylborate (Merseburger Spezialchemikalien) solution (1% m/v) was prepared
179 in ultrapure water and dispensed into 15 mL trace metal grade polypropylene vials (VWR).
180 The solution was frozen initially and, after thawing, stored at 4°C for up to 3 days. Sodium
181 acetate buffer solution (2 M) was prepared by diluting glacial acetic acid (J.T. Baker) and
182 anhydrous sodium acetate (J.T. Baker), which was muffled at 300°C for 3 h prior to making
183 up the solution. Nitric acid (14 M) and hydrochloric acid (12 M) were bi-distilled in a clean
184 room under trace metal free conditions.

185 Standard solutions of inorganic Hg (iHg) (0.9 µg L⁻¹) and MMHg (0.02 and 1 µg L⁻¹) for
186 plankton analysis were prepared from standard solutions (NIST3133 for iHg and a 1 µg L⁻¹
187 MMHg solution purchased from Brooks Rand Labs, traceable to NIST3133). The standards
188 were diluted in 0.5% v/v nitric acid and 0.2% v/v hydrochloric acid solution using a
189 precision balance (Mettler Toledo XS105; d = 0.01 mg).

190 2.3 THg and MMHg in sea water

191 Filtered dissolved total mercury (dHg) was analyzed on board by cold vapor atomic
192 fluorescence spectrometry (CV-AFS) immediately after sampling. The mineralization of all
193 dissolved Hg species was done using an acidic BrCl solution during 20 to 60 min prior to the
194 analyses. For shipboard analyses, we used a lab-built sample sparging device connected to a

199 Tekran 2500 fluorescence detector and a chromatography package to quantify fluorescence
1
2 peaks. For our analyses, a 40 mL aliquot of the digested sample containing its quantitatively
3 oxidized mercury (Hg^{2+}) was placed in a gas-stripping FEP tube. An excess of SnCl_2 was
4 added immediately before closing it to convert all Hg into gaseous elemental Hg, $\text{Hg}(0)$. The
5 sample was sparged in a FEP tube at 150 mL min^{-1} for 4 min with Hg-free Ar to exsolve
6 $\text{Hg}(0)$ and to sweep it toward a gold trap where it was retained. Mercury was thermally
7 desorbed from the trap and swept by an argon stream into the CV-AFS detector. For dHg
8 analyses, the daily 4-point external linear calibration curves were verified with an aliquot of
9 a certified reference material (ORMS-5, National Research Council Canada) that was
10 analyzed every fifth run. Additional 1-point recalibration curves were acquired when the
11 instrument's response drifts by more than 5% from the target value of the reference material.
12
13 Overall precision and accuracy of dHg measurements, based on repeated analyses of
14 samples, standards and CRMs, was better than 10%, and limits of quantification attained
15 during the cruise were better than 5 pg L^{-1} , based on repeated analyses of 4 pg Hg^{2+} .
16
17 Unfiltered MeHg species were analyzed back at the laboratory in samples acidified to 0.5%
18 v/v with HCl 11N, and stored in FEP bottles without headspace. Acidification converts the
19 gaseous DMHg to MMHg, and thus the sum of both is measured as MeHg. The general
20 principles of the hydrid generation are as follows. Analyses were carried out by sparging a
21 40 mL sample aliquot with He while NaBH_4 was continuously added (10 g L^{-1} pumped at
22 0.25 mL min^{-1}). The evolved volatiles were retained on a 20 cm long, U-shaped cryogenic
23 trap and chromatography column (Chromosorb with silicone OV1 at 15%) immersed in
24 liquid nitrogen. When stripping of the MeHg is completed after 7 min, the trap is removed
25 from liquid nitrogen and heated. As it progressively warms, the trapped Hg species
26 including elemental and MeHg are released at different times from the column. Helium and
27 Hg gases exiting from the outlet of the column then flowed through a 20 cm x 1 mm inner
28 diameter quartz tube maintained at 800°C , where Hg species are pyrolyzed to elemental Hg.
29 The cooled helium and Hg vapor were then directed to a mirrored cell (Hellma, Germany) of
30 a CV-AFS detector (Tekran 2500).
31
32 A 2-point external calibration was done at the beginning of each day, and after every 5th
33 sample to account for potential instrumental drift. Based on the uncertainty of low amounts
34 of analyte (2 pg Hg as MMHg), the detection limit was 0.29 pg Hg as MMHg, in a 40 mL
35 sample (7 pg L^{-1}). The dissolved methylmercury (dMeHg) species were calculated by
36 subtracting the particulate (0.7 to 20 μm) from the unfiltered fraction.
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1 233 **2.4 THg and MMHg in plankton**

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3 235 THg was analyzed in zooplankton size-fractions (>60 µm) using atomic absorption
4 236 spectrometry (AAS, AMA 254, LECO). The analyzer was equipped with a low-level Hg
5 237 optical cell. The certified reference material (MESS-4, National Research Council Canada)
6 238 was measured at the beginning and end of the run to verify accuracy. The THg
7 239 measurements were always within the certified values and the limit of detection,
8 240 corresponding to the blank plus three times the standard deviation, was 23 pg.
9 241

10 242 In contrast to zooplankton, THg and MMHg on digested filters were simultaneously
11 243 measured by purge-and-trap gas chromatography pyrolysis atomic fluorescence
12 244 spectrometry (PT-GC-Pyr-AFS, MERX-M, Brooks Rand Labs) (Sharif et al., 2013). The
13 245 biomass collected on filters was too low for measuring THg in a subsample with a signal
14 246 close to the detection limits of the AAS. Secondly, particulate matter may not be evenly
15 247 distributed in the filters and may not be suitable for subsampling (Bishop et al., 2012).

16 248 Filters were digested, and both iHg and MMHg were derivatized and measured
17 249 simultaneously. Briefly, filters and zooplankton aliquots between 13 and 190 mg were
18 250 digested in 20 and 60 mL, pre-combusted (350°C, 5 h) glass vials with 4.57 M nitric acid
19 251 (3.5–15 mL) for 12 h at 60°C (Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald, 2006). Amber glass vials (60
20 252 mL) were filled with ultrapure water and buffered with sodium acetate to pH 4.5–4.9. An
21 253 aliquot of the acidic extract (400–800 µL) was then added. The solution was spiked with iHg
22 254 (100 to 400 µL) and MMHg (10 to 400 µL) solutions for quantification *via* standard
23 255 addition.

24 256 Finally, we added the derivatizing agent, sodium tetrathylborate (NaBeT₄) and filled the
25 257 vial with ultrapure water until a slightly negative meniscus was formed. The cap was
26 258 tightened, and the preparation was gently mixed. The samples were measured by PT-GC-
27 259 Pyr-AFS. The chromatogram typically contains three peaks, corresponding to different
28 260 mercury species: elemental mercury (Hg0), ethylmethylHg and diethylHg. THg was
29 261 calculated as the sum of iHg and MMHg. We followed a standard addition protocol to
30 262 estimate THg and MMHg concentrations. The low concentrations and matrix effect
31 263 associated with biological samples make standard addition a more reliable analytical
32 264 approach than external calibration. For a single sample, five measurements were performed
33 265 to construct a regression line. Of the five measurements, two corresponded to sample

replicates without addition, and the remaining three to three different volumes of standard solution. The targeted standard volumes corresponded to between 1 and 5 times the amount of iHg or MMHg present in the sample. The linear regression between added iHg or MMHg and the peak height was calculated. The y-intercept of the linear regression was used to obtain the iHg and MMHg concentrations. The correlation coefficients (R^2) ranged from 0.96 to 1.00. The certified reference material (DORM-4, National research council Canada) was digested and measured similarly to the samples. The measurements corresponded respectively to 79 and 85% of the THg and MMHg certified concentrations. The limits of detection for iHg and MMHg were respectively 8 and 0.8 pg.

Based on the measurement made during the MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise between plankton biomass wet and dry weights (% of water in plankton: $90 \pm 3\%$; Tedetti et al., 2023), a factor of 10 was used to allow comparison of the THg and MMHg concentrations expressed here on a dry weight basis, with those reported in the literature. Further experiments were carried out to assess the THg blanks in the filters, which could be due to the retention of dissolved, colloidal and particulate Hg ($<0.7 \mu\text{m}$) (Table S2). Different volumes of sea water (10–80 L) were filtered as replicates through three stacked $0.7 \mu\text{m}$ glass fiber filters (GF/F, 142 mm). THg blanks measured on the 2nd and 3rd filters were not significantly different ($H = 1$; $p > 0.05$) and represented less than 2% of the particulate fraction measured on the 1st filter ($n = 12$). We therefore assume that the THg measured on the filters was representative of the particulate fraction, with a negligible contribution of the dissolved ($<0.7 \mu\text{m}$) fraction.

2.5 Data treatment

The effect of size-fractions and geographical area on the THg, MMHg and fraction of MMHg were assessed by means of one-way ANOVA (F) or non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis (H) tests after testing for normality and homogeneity of variances, followed by appropriate paired comparison tests, using the software Statistica 12. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the R software (R Core Team, 2017). The PCA used data from Tesán-Onrubia et al. (2023) that may influence THg and MMHg in zooplankton: proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, C/N, THg and MMHg in the $0.7\text{--}2.7$ and $2.7\text{--}20 \mu\text{m}$ fractions, phytoplankton size-fractions biomass, zooplankton size-fractions biomass, and plankton group composition.

298 The bioconcentration factor of THg and MMHg (BCF_{Hg} , in $L\ kg^{-1}$) was calculated between
1
2 plankton and sea water:
3
4

$$BCF_{Hg} = \left(\frac{[Hg]_{Plankton}}{[Hg]_{Seawater}} \right) \times 10^6$$

300
9 where $[Hg]_{Plankton}$ is the dry weight concentrations of THg or MMHg on a given size-fraction
10 (in $ng\ g^{-1}$), $[Hg]_{sea\ water}$ is the dissolved concentrations of Hg (dHg) or MeHg (dMeHg) in sea
11 water (in $pg\ L^{-1}$), and 10^6 is the unit conversion factor.
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13

304 The trophic magnification factor (TMF_{Hg}) of THg and MMHg was calculated within the
15 planktonic food web as follows:
16
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$$TMF_{Hg} = 10^a$$

$$\log [Hg]_{Plankton} = \delta^{15}N * a + b$$

307
22 where $\log [Hg]_{Plankton}$ is the logarithm of the THg or MMHg concentration in plankton
23 fractions, $\delta^{15}N$ is the nitrogen stable isotope in the plankton fraction and a is the slope of the
24 linear regression.
25
26

311 3. Results and discussion

312 The basis of marine Mediterranean food webs is mainly constituted of pico- (0.7–2.7 μm) and
313 nanophytoplankton (2.7–20 μm) (Bănaru et al., 2013; 2019). These phytoplankton fractions
314 are consumed by zooplankton (Hunt et al., 2017; Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023), which transfer
315 the organic matter and the associated contaminants up to higher trophic level consumers. THg
316 and MMHg measurements on the 0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 μm size-fractions are scarce and were
317 usually only measured on relatively small sea water volumes (Gosnell and Mason, 2015;
318 Gosnell et al., 2017). In the present study, these analyses were performed on large volume
319 samples (>150 L), which enabled precise Hg species measurements and complementary
320 biological and biochemical analyses (Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023).
321
322

323 3.1 THg and MMHg in phytoplankton

324 A contrasted pattern of the relationship between concentration and size was observed for THg
325 and MMHg in phyto- and zooplankton size classes (Fig. 2a, 2b, Tables S3, S4). Both THg and
326

327 MMHg concentrations decreased in phytoplankton with increasing cell size, but the difference
1 was statistically significant only for THg in the smallest size-fractions ($86 \pm 32 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ dw in
2 the 0.7–2.7 μm fraction, and $42 \pm 28 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ dw in the 2.7–20 μm fraction) ($F = 10.6$, $p =$
3 0.005). These values were in the upper range (maxima 42–160 ng g^{-1} dw) of previous
4 observations obtained on a wide range of phytoplankton fractions (Baeyens et al., 2003;
5 Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald, 2006; Beldozska and Kobos, 2018; Cossa et al., 2012;
6 Hammerschmidt et al., 2013; Gosnell and Mason, 2015; Lamborg et al., 2016; Fox et al.,
7 2017; Harding et al., 2018). However, our measurements were lower than the maxima (420–
8 740 ng g^{-1} dw) reported in studies with larger size-fractions (Bargagli et al., 1998), indirect
9 measurements (Luengen and Flegal, 2009), small volumes of filtered sea water (Gosnell et al.,
10 2017) and estuaries (Kehrig et al., 2009; Mason et al., 2021, 2023) (Table S5). Mean MMHg
11 concentrations of $1.2 \pm 0.7 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ dw and $0.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ dw were measured in the 0.7–2.7
12 and in the 2.7–20 μm fractions, respectively, and are within the range of previous studies. Our
13 observations correspond well to MMHg concentration measured in phytoplankton (Baeyens et
14 al., 2003; Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald, 2006; Luengen and Flegal 2009; Cossa et al., 2012;
15 Hammerschmidt et al., 2013; Gosnell and Mason, 2015; Gosnell et al., 2017; Fox et al., 2017;
16 Harding et al., 2018) but were lower than concentrations modeled for the Mediterranean Sea
17 (2–15 ng g^{-1} dw) (Rosati et al., 2022) and for the global ocean (12–185 ng g^{-1} dw) (Zhang et
18 al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021).

19 Chouvelon et al. (2019) showed that Hg bioaccumulation in the lowest size-fractions (6–60
20 μm) may be high compared to larger plankton size-fractions. The higher surface-to-volume
21 ratio (giving a higher contact surface), which increases Hg uptake (Fisher, 1985), may explain
22 the higher concentrations of THg measured in picoplankton in our study. Small phytoplankton
23 cells are prevalent in Mediterranean oligotrophic waters and during our sampling survey
24 (Boudriga et al., 2022). Enhanced concentrations of MeHg have previously been observed in
25 sea water during pico- and nanoplankton blooms in the Mediterranean Sea (Heimbürger et al.,
26 2010).

27 Low dissolved Hg (dHg) and MMHg (dMHg) concentrations measured in this study (94 ± 32
28 pg L^{-1} and $13 \pm 7 \text{ pg L}^{-1}$, respectively, Table S6) are likely due to enhanced photochemistry
29 and evasion (Cossa et al., 2009; Sunderland et al., 2009; Heimbürger et al., 2010; Cossa et al.,
30 2022). The mean BCF_{THg} values in the 0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 μm fractions were $2 \times 10^6 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$
31 dw and $1 \times 10^6 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$ dw, respectively, while the mean BCF_{MMHg} values were $1 \times 10^5 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$
32 dw and $8 \times 10^5 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$ dw, respectively (Table S7). Mediterranean phytoplankton of different
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size classes bioconcentrate THg and MMHg 10^6 and 10^5 times, respectively, from sea water, these values being in the upper range of those reported in the literature (Table S5). The mean THg bioconcentration values observed in this study are >10 times higher than the partitioning coefficient of suspended particulate matter (K_d), generally used in global THg models (Zhang et al., 2014), which testifies to the need for more accurate regional data. Various studies have already highlighted the underestimation of K_d , constraining Hg export fluxes from the surface and, more broadly, its biogeochemical cycle (Lamborg et al., 2016; Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2020). It has also been observed that MMHg bioconcentration was promoted under low dissolved organic carbon concentrations (Schartup et al., 2018).

The MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise offered a unique opportunity to couple biological and contaminant analyses (Tedetti et al., 2023), and explore for the first time the relationships between the composition of the suspended particles collected, and their THg and MMHg concentrations. Suspended particles collected on filters were a complex mixture of living and dead organisms (autotrophic and heterotrophic), also containing detritus and mineral particles. Tesán-Onrubia et al. (2023) showed that the 0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 μm size-fractions were dominated (86% of the total biomass) by two phytoplankton groups: *Synechococcus* spp. ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$) and nanoeukaryotes ($\sim 4 \mu\text{m}$). The two axes of the PCA analysis relating THg and MMHg concentrations to the size class and group composition of phytoplankton explained 56% of the variability (Fig. S1). Higher THg concentrations were associated with a dominance of *Prochlorococcus* spp. ($\sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$) in the 0.7–2.7 μm size-fraction, and a dominance of nanoeukaryotes in the 2.7–20 μm size-fraction. Similarly, higher MMHg concentrations were related to the dominance of *Synechococcus* spp. in the 0.7–2.7 μm size-fraction, and to the dominance of *Cryptophyceae* ($\sim 6 \mu\text{m}$) in the 2.7–20 μm size-fraction. These two phytoplankton size-fractions constitute a large part of the diet of zooplankton organisms between 200 and 1000 μm size, and represent an important source of Hg for consumers (Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023).

3.2 THg and MMHg in zooplankton

THg and MMHg bioaccumulated with size among zooplankton, their concentrations increasing from 22 to 45 ng g^{-1} dw, and from 3 to 7 ng g^{-1} dw, respectively, in 60 to 2000 μm size-fractions (Fig. 2a, 2b, Tables S3, S4). Bioaccumulation of MMHg with zooplankton size was previously shown in the North Atlantic (Hammerschmidt et al., 2013), while no

difference was found for THg in the Mediterranean (Chouvelon et al., 2019). THg and MMHg concentration values reported here in the Mediterranean zooplankton were comparable to those observed in other regions (**Table S8**) (Stern and Macdonald, 2005; Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald, 2006; Loseto et al., 2008; Lavoie et al., 2010; Cossa et al., 2012; Hammerschmidt et al., 2013; Gosnell and Mason, 2015; Gosnell et al., 2017; Harding et al., 2018), but were lower than those from the Arctic Ocean (Campbell et al., 2005; Foster et al., 2012; Pućko et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2017) and from one study in the Mediterranean Sea (Buckman et al., 2018). Our measured MMHg concentrations in zooplankton are in relatively good agreement with model outputs for the Mediterranean Sea (3–10 ng g⁻¹ dw) (Rosati et al., 2022) and the global ocean (1–69 ng g⁻¹ dw) (Zhang et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021).

Changes in metabolism during an organism's life cycle may impact its MMHg concentration. Hammerschmidt and Fitzgerald (2006) showed reduced removal and higher uptake rates in large-size organisms compared to smaller ones. Fierro-González et al. (2023) reported an increase in carnivory with increasing size of zooplankton, which was also in agreement with increasing trophic level traced by $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Tesán-Onrubia et al., 2023). The lowest THg and the highest MMHg concentrations were both measured in the largest size-fraction (>2000 μm) (**Table S3, S4 and S9**), as observed in previous studies (Chouvelon et al., 2019).

The biochemical composition of zooplankton may also explain the accumulation of THg and particularly MMHg. MMHg concentrations were significantly correlated with particulate organic carbon (POC), proteins and lipids in zooplankton ($R^2 = 0.47$, $p < 0.0001$; $R^2 = 0.18$, $p = 0.009$ and $R^2 = 0.25$, $p = 0.002$, respectively). The quantity of these compounds increased with the size of zooplankton, except for the >2000 μm fraction (Tesan-Onrubia et al., 2023). The affinity of Hg for POC and proteins is due to the capacity of thiol groups present in cellular proteins to effectively bind to Hg and MMHg (Ravichandran, 2004; Yoon et al., 2005; Gosnell and Mason, 2015).

3.3 Trophic transfer of THg and MMHg

Trophic transfer in the plankton food web was assessed taking into consideration all phyto- and zooplankton size-fractions. The two smallest size-fractions of phytoplankton (0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 μm) presented the highest THg but the lowest MMHg concentrations with respect to most zooplankton size-fractions ($H = 23.9$, $p < 0.0001$ and $H = 30.1$, $p < 0.0001$, respectively) (**Fig. 2a, 2b, Tables S3, S4**). While THg concentrations were related mainly to the effect of the surface-volume ratio on bioconcentration in phytoplankton, MMHg concentrations were

426 mainly related to predation relationships and biomagnification processes among zooplankton
1 fractions. Biomagnification was assessed by using the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as a proxy of trophic level (Fig.
2 3). The logTHg and logMMHg showed respectively negative and positive correlations with
3 4 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($R^2 = 0.1$, $p < 0.05$ and $R^2 = 0.43$, $p < 0.0001$, respectively, $n = 57$), indicating a
4 5 bioreduction of THg ($\text{TMF}_{\text{THg}} = 0.9$) and a biomagnification of MMHg in the food web
5 6 studied ($\text{TMF}_{\text{MMHg}} = 1.7$). In our work, particularly low TMF_{THg} were recorded, indicating a
6 7 marked bioreduction of THg within the planktonic food web. Chouvelon et al. (2009) also
7 8 observed no THg increase in zooplankton fractions of increasing size, and THg
8 9 biomagnification in the food web only when zooplanktivorous fishes were considered. In our
9 10 case, when only zooplankton size-fractions $>60 \mu\text{m}$ were considered, significant positive
10 11 correlations were observed for both logTHg and logMMHg and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($R^2 = 0.22$, $p < 0.005$
11 12 and $R^2 = 0.39$, $p < 0.0001$, respectively), thus evidencing the biomagnification of THg
12 13 ($\text{TMF}_{\text{THg}} = 1.3$) and a higher biomagnification factor of MMHg ($\text{TMF}_{\text{MMHg}} = 2.1$).
13 14

14 439 The high proportions of MMHg, exceeding 95% in higher trophic level consumers (UNEP,
15 440 2019), as well as the lack of data in the literature regarding primary producers and particularly
16 441 pico- and nanoplankton, may explain these differences. The plankton TMF_{MMHg} in our study
17 442 showed high values compared to other marine food webs, which also included higher trophic
18 443 level organisms (Atwell et al., 1998; Campbell et al., 2005; Al-Reasi et al., 2007; Nfon et al.,
19 444 2009; Lavoie et al., 2010, 2013; Cossa et al., 2012; Chouvelon et al., 2018; Harding et al.,
20 445 2018; Hilgendorf et al., 2022). Low growth rates, specific to the oligotrophic Mediterranean
21 446 Sea, seem to induce higher MMHg biomagnification in planktivorous food webs (Cossa et al.,
22 447 2012; Chouvelon et al., 2018). The %MMHg significantly increased between phyto- and
23 448 zooplankton groups from a mean of 3% in the 0.7–20 μm fractions to 23% in the $>60 \mu\text{m}$
24 449 fraction ($H = 35.8$, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 2c), highlighting the preferred biomagnification of
25 450 MMHg. Inorganic Hg has a lower assimilation efficiency compared to MMHg, while their
26 451 efflux rates are similar (Mason et al., 1996; Lawson and Mason, 1998; Lee and Fisher, 2017),
27 452 explaining the inverted patterns between food sources and consumers. Inorganic Hg reacts in
28 453 the same way as other trace metals (Chen and Folt, 2000; Ho et al., 2007; Chouvelon et al.,
29 454 2019; Chifflet et al., 2023). To our knowledge, there is no previous estimation of MMHg
30 455 biomagnification in plankton food web considering different size-fractions of phyto- and
31 456 zooplankton. The few studies that have explored this point consisted of models for the
32 457 Mediterranean Sea (Rosati et al., 2022) and the global ocean (Zhang et al., 2020; Wu et al.,
33 458 2021). Without exception, these models indicate bioreduction of MMHg in plankton food
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459 webs, mainly composed of herbivorous and omnivorous organisms, and biomagnification
1 when carnivorous organisms were taken into consideration. Our results suggest the contrary,
2 biomagnification of MMHg occurs in all plankton consumers, independently of their trophic
3 position.
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6 The trophic transfer efficiency between phytoplankton (0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 μm) and
7 zooplankton size-fractions ($>60 \mu\text{m}$) was assessed by considering the total amounts of THg
8 and MMHg available in their respective biomasses at the CML (Fig. 4). THg amounts in
9 phyto- and zooplankton biomass was 15 and 1 ng m^{-3} of sea water, respectively, while their
10 respective MMHg contents amounted to 200 and 300 pg m^{-3} . MMHg is almost 10 times
11 higher than that modeled in the Mediterranean Sea (Rosati et al., 2022). The trophic transfer
12 efficiency of THg ranged from 2 to 21% (average 8%), while it was higher for MMHg,
13 ranging from 11 to 169 %, with an average of 78%. Zooplankton can represent a comparable
14 or even larger sink of MMHg when compared to phytoplankton. Longer lifespan together
15 with bioaccumulation can lead to a higher MMHg storage in zooplankton despite their lower
16 biomass than phytoplankton. The MMHg trophic transfer efficiency estimated here presented
17 a higher value than the zooplankton daily grazing, which accounted for 2.7 to 27% of the
18 phytoplankton stock (Fierro-González et al., 2023). Considering daily grazing and Hg
19 concentrations in phytoplankton and assuming a quantitative assimilation of MMHg,
20 zooplankton organisms should have grazed for 6 to 13 days to reach the MMHg
21 concentrations measured in their body. This short integration time suggested that zooplankton
22 could be a good bioindicator of Hg exposure over days or a few weeks. The results reported
23 here indicated that MMHg was efficiently biomagnified and transferred along the plankton
24 food web, in contrast to a rather inefficient transfer of inorganic Hg.
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3.4 Spatial variability of THg and MMHg

Dissolved Hg (dHg) concentrations ranged from 50 to 165 pg L^{-1} at St11 and St4,
respectively. Dissolved MeHg (dMeHg) concentrations ranged from detection limits (7 pg L^{-1})
at St1, St9, St11, St17 and St19 to 26 pg L^{-1} in St3. Both Hg species were comparable to
previous studies in the Mediterranean Sea (Jiskra et al., 2021; Cossa et al., 2022).

THg and MMHg concentrations in phytoplankton (0.7–20 μm) showed strong spatial
variations in the western Mediterranean, with the highest values in the smallest fraction
recorded at St1 (Toulon in the north) and St17 (Gabès in the south) (Table S3 and S4).
Volume concentrations of MMHg in the 0.7 to 20 μm fractions (in pg L^{-1}) were significantly

492 correlated to phytoplankton biomass ($R^2 = 0.49$, $p < 0.001$) (Table S10). This highlighted the
1 influence of the biomass on Hg-uptake at the basis of the plankton food web. Zones with high
2 biomass of small phytoplankton cells may store a large amount of Hg in phytoplankton,
3 bioavailable then for grazers and higher trophic level consumers. In addition, inorganic Hg
4 may represent a substrate for MMHg production.
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7 Our results suggested higher THg and especially MMHg differences in zooplankton between
8 stations than between size-fractions (Fig. 5, Table S3 and S4). The high growth rates and
9 short life cycles of zooplankton make it a potentially relevant biomonitor for ambient MMHg
10 concentrations over short periods, as suggested in the previous section. This observation
11 contrasts with the high variability reported in marine organisms of higher trophic level related
12 in particular to longer life span and larger home ranges (UNEP, 2019).
13

14 THg and MMHg concentrations of zooplankton size-fractions available at all stations (60–
15 200, 200–500 and *500–1000 μm , *unavailable for St17) were pooled to test zooplankton
16 spatial variability that appeared higher for MMHg than for THg (Fig. 5). Significant
17 differences were reported between stations only for MMHg ($H = 24.0$, $p = 0.004$). Mean
18 MMHg concentrations differed ten-fold between minimum (0.6 ng g^{-1} dw, St17) and
19 maximum values (9.4 ng g^{-1} dw, St1). This highlighted the importance of measuring MMHg
20 in consumers with lower trophic levels. Zooplankton from northern (St1, 2, 3 and 4) and
21 offshore (St9, 10 and 11) areas presented higher MMHg concentrations than those from the
22 southern area (St15, 17 and 19) ($H = 14.0$, $p = 0.001$). A $\text{TMF}_{\text{MMHg}} < 1$ indicated a
23 bioreduction of MMHg in zooplankton and consequently a lower exposure to Hg of
24 zooplankton along the Tunisian coast (St17 and 19). (Fig. 6).
25

26 The two axes of the PCA analysis, performed between THg, MMHg, POC, C/N, protein,
27 lipids, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and biomass values in zooplankton per station, explained 57% of the
28 variability (Fig. S2). Two groups of stations were observed along the first axis: the first group
29 gathering St1, 2, 9, 10 and 11, and the second one including St3, 4, 15, 17, and 19. The first
30 group was related to high concentrations in POC, proteins, lipids, THg, MMHg, trophic level
31 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in zooplankton, while the second group was correlated with high values of C/N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
32 and zooplankton biomass. MMHg in zooplankton increased with the trophic level ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ may
33 be used as a proxy). Zooplankton MMHg decreased with increasing amounts of organic
34 matter, likely because of the affinity of POC, proteins and lipids for Hg. MMHg
35 concentrations in zooplankton were high in oligotrophic, low productivity areas with low
36 zooplankton biomass, high trophic level and high POC, protein and lipid content. Under
37

525 oligotrophic conditions, zooplankton were limited by food resources and, as a result, their
1 526 biomass and growth rates decreased, and increasing Hg bioaccumulation was observed.
2 527 Oligotrophic ecosystems also have longer food webs with intermediate consumers (ciliates,
3 528 dinoflagellates, microzooplankton, etc.), which may constitute a trophic link between pico-
4 529 and nanoplankton, and mesozooplankton, generating additional food steps and probably
5 530 increasing the biomagnification processes (Søreide et al., 2006; Kürten et al., 2013).
6

7 531 The negative correlation in zooplankton between MMHg and its biomass may suggest a
8 532 biodilution with growth in more productive areas. This is probably the case in the Gulf of
9 533 Gabès where lower Hg concentrations in planktivorous species were already reported
10 534 compared to those in the north-western Mediterranean basin (Aboul-Dahab et al., 1986; Ben
11 535 Hassine et al., 1990; Joiris et al., 1999). Moreover, in ecosystems where nutrients and
12 536 phytoplankton resources are abundant, herbivory is the main food pathway, generating lower
13 537 trophic level ecosystems (Sommer et al., 2002) and thus potentially lower Hg concentrations
14 538 in consumers.

15 539 Coastal areas have been considered to be hotspots for Hg-accumulation due to proximity to
16 540 sediment and resuspension (Chen et al., 2008). Cossa et al. (2018) showed that MeHg
17 541 concentrations in subsurface waters are higher in Mediterranean offshore waters. Although
18 542 coastal regions are subjected to additional sources of Hg (submarine groundwater discharge,
19 543 rivers and sediments), our results evidenced a lower trophic transfer of Hg in plankton food
20 544 webs compared to offshore areas, as also observed by Cossa et al. (2012) in the Gulf of Lion.
21 545 There is indeed more and more evidence of *in situ* Hg methylation in oxygenated waters of
22 546 the open ocean (Mason and Fitzgerald, 1990; Blum et al., 2013; Masbou et al., 2015; Villar et
23 547 al. 2020; Liu et al., 2021), and the Mediterranean Sea (Cossa et al. 2022).

24 548 However, potential sources of Hg in contaminated areas must be considered as well. Toulon
25 549 Bay represents an important hotspot of Hg, containing large amounts in its sediments (Tessier
26 550 et al., 2011) and may be responsible for the highest concentrations measured in this study.
27 551 High concentrations of THg and MMHg have already been recorded in fish and mussels in
28 552 Toulon Bay (Cresson et al., 2014; Briant et al., 2017).

29 553
30 554 **4. Conclusions**
31 555

32 556 Few Hg data are currently available for plankton, particularly for MMHg, and they generally
33 557 show wide variations. An inappropriate plankton sampling strategy may lead to the collection
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558 of organisms with a heterogenous size and composition, highly impacting their Hg and
1 MMHg concentrations. We have tried to overcome these limitations with a dedicated
2 sampling strategy for the acquisition of different phyto- and zooplankton size-classes, the
3 acquisition of trophic proxies and the collection of sufficient biomass for complementary
4 biological and chemical analyses.
5

6 High THg and MMHg bioconcentration values were observed for phytoplankton, with the
7 highest values for picoplankton. Small phytoplankton cells were the main contributors to
8 primary production in the Mediterranean waters during our sampling campaign and a major
9 food source for zooplankton. Phytoplankton THg concentrations were higher overall
10 compared to the existing literature. Our study implies that phytoplankton in the oligotrophic
11 Mediterranean Sea is an important driver in the biomagnification of MMHg.
12

13 Although THg accumulation through diet is a widely accepted process, our results show that
14 THg bioreduces while MMHg bioaccumulates in the plankton food web. Different kinetics of
15 iHg and MMHg have been evidenced in plankton, supporting the need to analyze both phyto-
16 and zooplankton, and to relate them to their species/group composition in future studies.
17

18 Biomagnification of MMHg in all plankton consumers was evidenced, independently of their
19 trophic position. High biomagnification factors were measured compared to previous studies,
20 suggesting an effective transfer in Mediterranean plankton food webs.
21

22 Moreover, the biochemical composition of zooplankton, particularly the availability of POC,
23 proteins and lipids appears to have an important role in MMHg bioaccumulation.
24

25 Spatial variability in MMHg concentrations in zooplankton was important, with ten-fold
26 differences between areas. Productivity gradients may explain these contrasts. Higher
27 zooplankton MMHg concentrations were measured in low productive areas offshore. In
28 contrast, more productive coastal planktonic food webs showed lower zooplankton MMHg
29 concentrations. Our results suggest a lower impact of Hg on plankton food webs in the less
30 poorly-studied southern Mediterranean Sea, but more observations are needed to corroborate
31 this. Oligotrophy and plankton trophodynamics were key factors in the transfer of Hg in the
32 Mediterranean Sea, playing probably an important role in the Hg transfer along food webs.
33 Our study may thus contribute to explaining the higher Hg levels observed in Mediterranean
34 apex predators. The impact of climate change is thought to contribute to the increase of the
35 oligotrophy and the decrease in size of phytoplankton and may thus exacerbate Hg
36 accumulation in Mediterranean marine food webs in the future. Overall, our study suggests
37 that bioconcentration of MMHg into phytoplankton and subsequent bioaccumulation and
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591 biomagnification are by far the most important factors driving higher trophic level MMHg
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592 exposure. As such, the efforts in reducing Hg emissions within the Minamata Convention may
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593 be outweighed by the effects of climate change on the lower marine food web structure.
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595 **Author contribution statement**

1 596 Conception and design of study: DB, LEHB, FC, MT, JK
2 597 Acquisition of data: JATO, JK, BT, MT, FC
3 598 Analysis and/or interpretation of data: JATO, DB, LEHB, MHV, MT, AD, BT, JK
4
5 599 Drafting of the manuscript: JATO, DB, LEHB, MHV, MT
6
7 600 Revising/editing of the manuscript: JATO, DB, LEHB, MHV, AD, MVL, IGA, JK, BT, FC,
8
9 601 MT
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11 602 Project administration and funding acquisition: DB, MT, FC
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49 622 **Supplementary information**
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51 623 Supplementary material related to this article is available online.
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1084 **Figure captions**

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2 31086 **Figure 1:** Location of the ten sampling stations of the MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise in the Mediterranean Sea
4 1087 (April-Mai 2019).
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7 1089 **Figure 2:** Boxplot of the concentrations of A) THg, B) MMHg (ng g^{-1} dw) and C) %MMHg in the different
8 1090 plankton size-fractions (fractions between 0.7 and 20 μm (green scale) and $>60 \mu\text{m}$ (red scale) for all stations
9 1091 combined. H = Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test and the associated p-value for the respective Hg species (H =
10 1092 24, p < 0.0001; H = 36, p < 0.0001 and H = 30, p < 0.0001, respectively). The mean and median values are
11 1093 represented by a cross and a horizontal line, respectively, and the box length is defined as the interquartile range.
12 1094 The minimum and maximum values are represented by whiskers. Mean values with different post-hoc letters are
13 1095 significantly different (p < 0.05).
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15 1096
16 1097 **Figure 3:** Logarithm of THg (A) and MMHg (B) concentrations in function of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (%) in the different phyto-
17 1098 (green dots) and zooplankton (red dots) size-fractions. The linear regression curve with its equation and the R-
18 1099 square are indicated.
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20 1100
21 1101 **Figure 4:** Transfer efficiency between phytoplankton (0.7 to 20 μm fractions) and zooplankton ($>60 \mu\text{m}$
22 1102 fractions) amounts of THg (A) and MMHg (B) (in pg m^{-3}) by station. Yellow, orange and red isolines represent
23 1103 transfer efficiencies of 1, 5 and 10% for THg and 10, 50 and 100% for MMHg, respectively.
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26 1105 **Figure 5:** Box plots of A) THg (yellow) and B) MMHg (red) (in ng g^{-1} dw) concentrations measured in the 60 to
27 1106 1000 μm zooplankton size-fractions by station. The mean and median values are represented by a cross and a
28 1107 horizontal line, respectively, and the box length is defined as the interquartile range.
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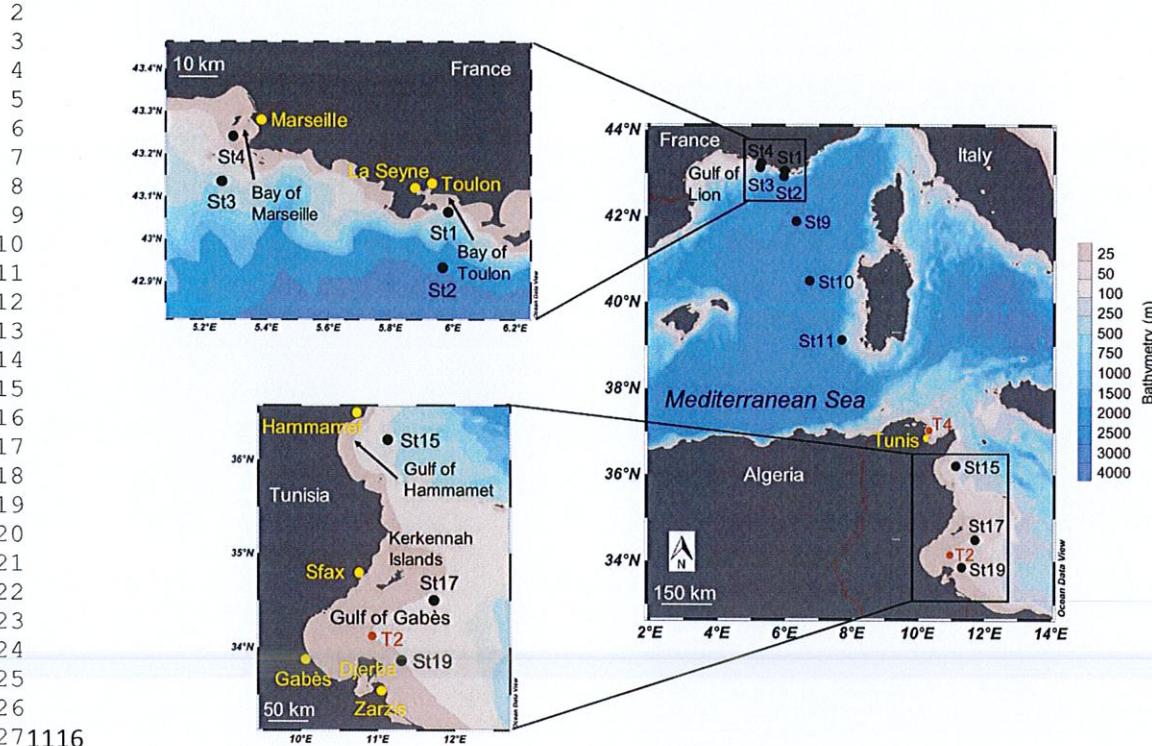
30 1108 **Figure 6:** Trophic magnification factors of THg (TMF_{THg} , in yellow) and MMHg (TMF_{MMHg} in red) at the
31 1109 different stations. >1 values indicated biomagnification, while <1 indicated bioreduction.
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1114 Figures

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271116 Figure 1

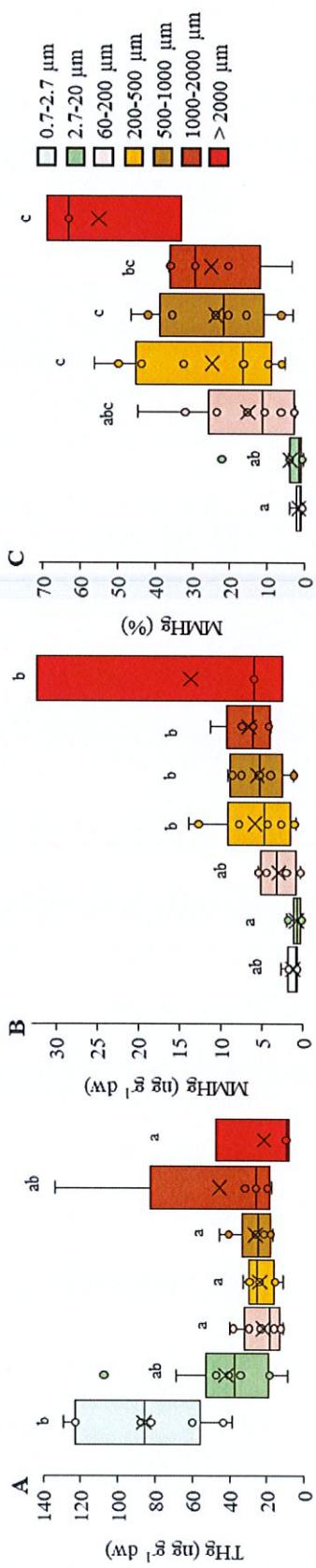
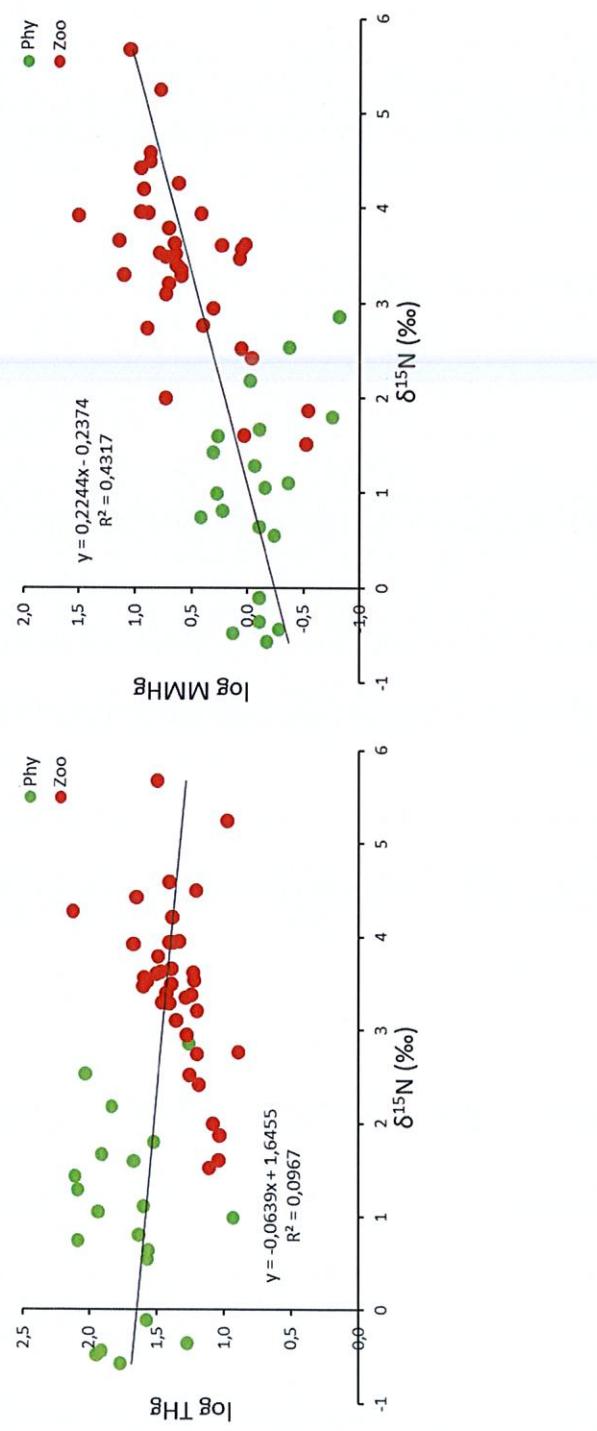


Figure 2



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Figure 3

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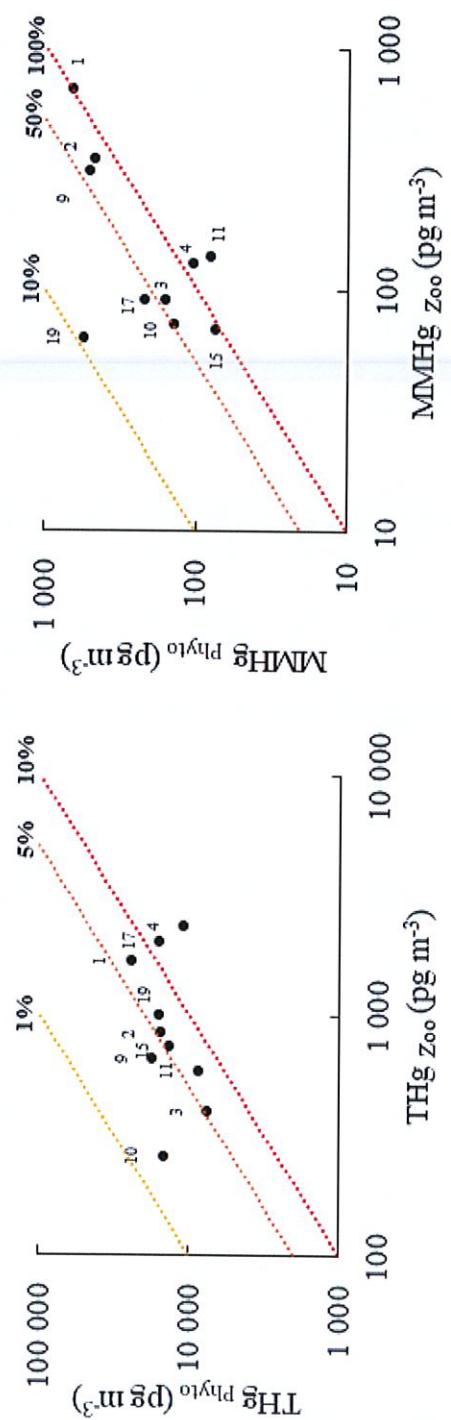


Figure 4

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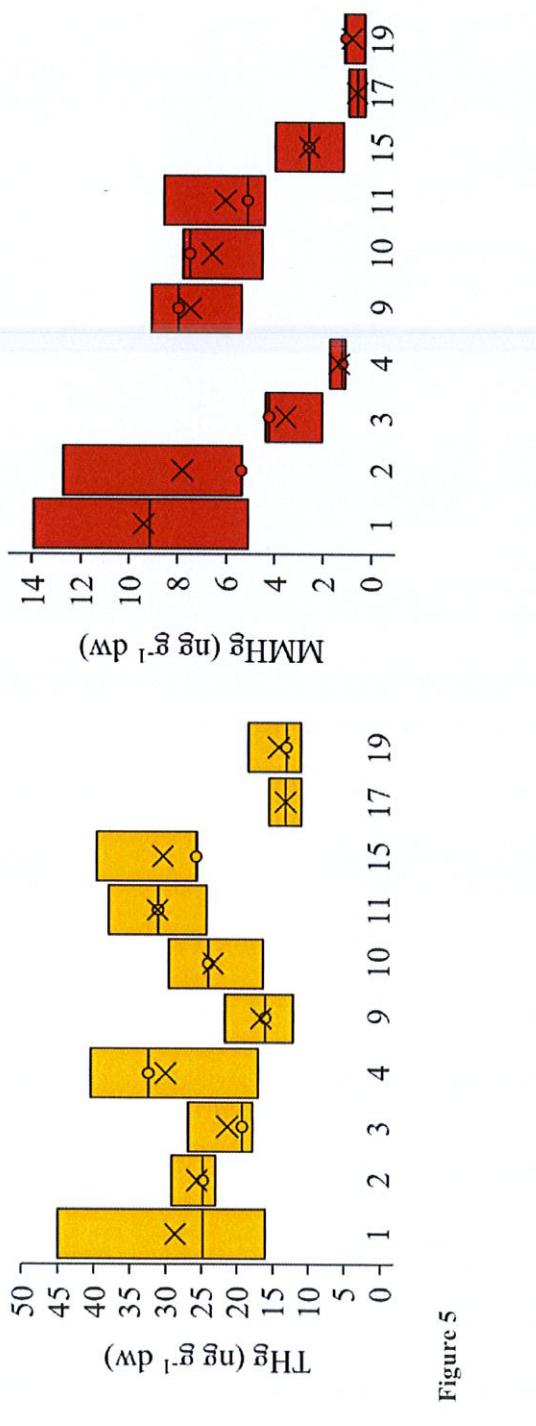


Figure 5

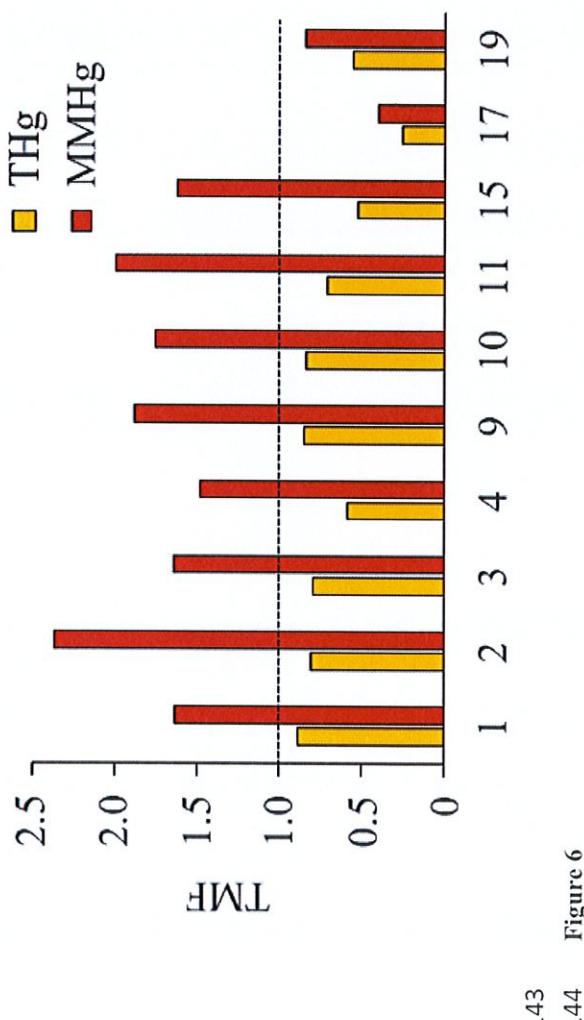


Figure 6

1145 **Supplementary information**

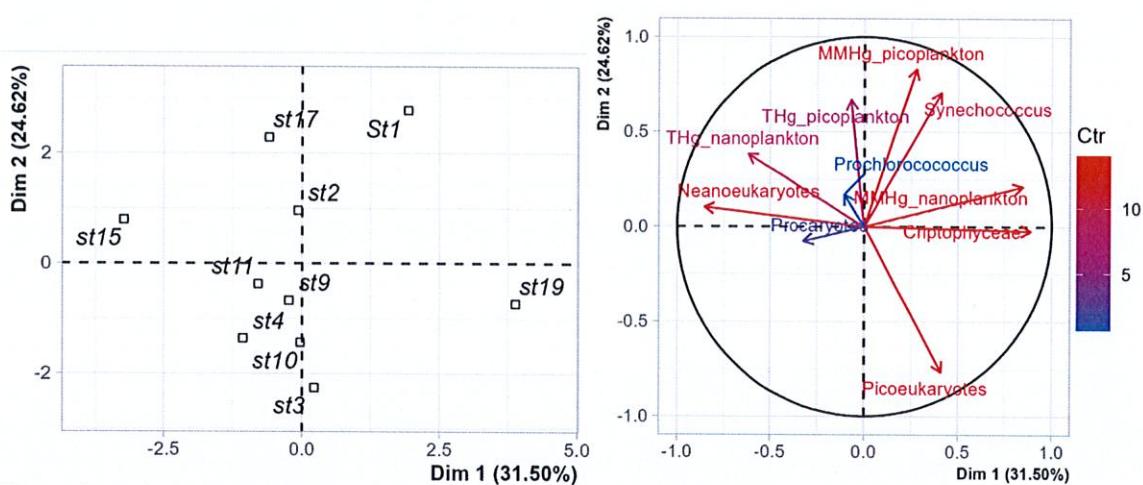


Figure S1: Principal component analysis of the phytoplankton composition (*Synechococcus* spp., *Prochlorococcus* spp., picoeukaryotes, nanoeukaryotes and cryptophyceae), THg and MMHg in the 0.7–2.7 and 2.7–20 µm size-fractions by station. Color gradient indicates the contribution of the variables from blue for low contribution to red for high contribution.

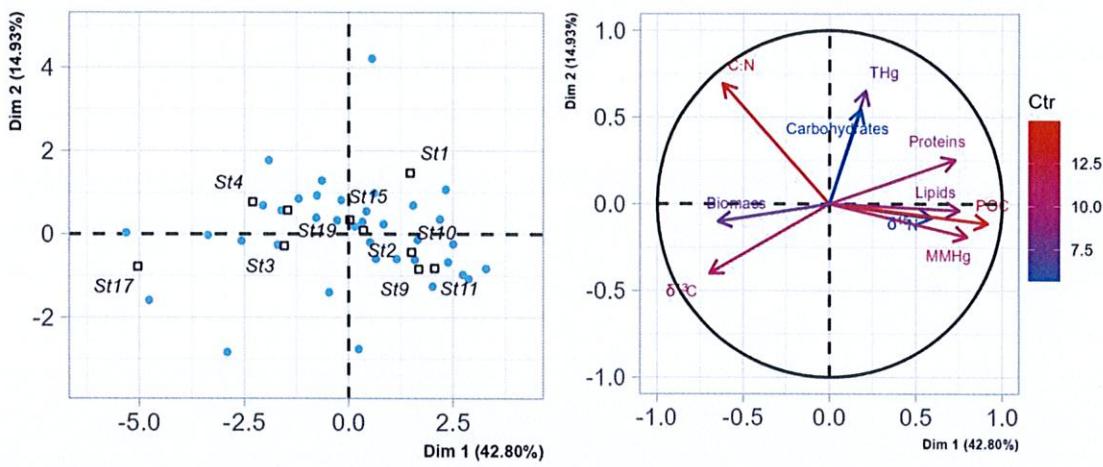


Figure S2: Principal component analysis of the biochemical variables (zooplankton biomass, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, C/N, POC, proteins, carbohydrates and lipids), THg and MMHg in zooplankton (60 to 1000 μm fractions) by station. Color gradient indicates the contribution of the variables from blue for low contribution to red for high contribution.

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Table S1. Main characteristics of the ten sampling stations of the MERITE-HIPPOCAMPE cruise (13 April–14 May 2019) aboard the R/V *Antea* along a north-south transect in the Mediterranean Sea. The environmental conditions in these stations were detailed in Tedetti et al. (2023).

Station	Location	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Bottom depth (m)	McLane sampling depth (m)	MultiNet sampling depth (m)
St1	Bay of Toulon (north)	43° 03.819'	5° 59.080'	91	20	20
St2	Toulon - Antifares (north)	42° 56.020'	5° 58.041'	1770	25	34
St3	Marseille - Julio (north)	43° 08.150'	5° 15.280'	95	55	58
St4	Bay of Marscille (north)	43° 14.500'	5° 17.500'	58	31	35
St9	North Balearic Front (offshore)	41° 53.508'	6° 19.998'	2575	20	20
St10	North Balearic Front (offshore)	40° 18.632'	7° 14.753'	2791	50	30
St11	North Balearic Front (offshore)	39° 07.998'	7° 41.010'	1378	40	30
St15	Gulf of Hammamet (south)	36° 12.883'	11° 07.641'	100	40	60
St17	Gulf of Gabès (south)	34° 30.113'	11° 43.573'	50	40	40

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