

Drivers of variability in mercury and methylmercury bioaccumulation and biomagnification in temperate freshwater lakes

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Drivers of variability in mercury and methylmercury bioaccumulation and 2 3 biomagnification in temperate freshwater lakes 4 Sophie Gentès^{a*}, Brice Löhrer^a, Alexia Legeay^a, Agnès Feurtet Mazel^a, Pierre Anschutz^b, 5 Céline Charbonnier^b, Emmanuel Tessier^c, Régine Maury-Brachet^a. 6 7 ^a Université de Bordeaux – CNRS, Environnements et Paléoenvironnements Océaniques et 8 9 Continentaux (EPOC), UMR 5805, F-33120 Arcachon, France 10 ^b Université de Bordeaux – CNRS, Environnements et Paléoenvironnements Océaniques et 11 Continentaux (EPOC), UMR5805, 33615 Pessac, France 12 ^c Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour – CNRS, Institut des Sciences Analytiques et de 13 Physico-Chimie pour l'Environnement et les Matériaux (IPREM), UMR 5254, Laboratoire de 14 Chimie Analytique Bio-Inorganique et Environnement, 2 avenue du président Angot, 64053 15 16 Pau, France. 17 *Author for correspondence: phone: +33 5 56 22 39 30; e-mail: so.gentes@gmail.com 18 19 20 **Declarations of interest:** none 21 22 23 24 25

Abstract

The four largest freshwater lakes in southern France are of both ecological and
economic importance. However, some of them are subjected to mercury (Hg) contamination,
resulting in the ban of human consumption of piscivorous fish. Moreover, beyond predatory
fish, little information exist regarding Hg levels in other species of these ecosystems. In this
context, we used a food web analytical approach to investigate Hg bioaccumulation and
biomagnification in relation to the trophic structure of these four lakes. More specifically,
various organisms (macrophytes, epiphyton, invertebrates and fish) were collected at the four
lakes and analysed for carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes as well as for total Hg (THg) and
methylmercury (MeHg). A spatial variability of bioaccumulation in organisms was observed,
particularly in carnivorous fish, with higher Hg levels being found in the two more northern
lakes (median±SE: 3491±474 and 1113±209 ng THg.g ⁻¹ dw in lakes HC and L, respectively)
than in the southern pair (600±117 and 911±117 ng THg.g-1 dw in lakes CS and PB,
respectively). Methylmercury biomagnification was observed through the food webs of all
four lakes, with different trophic magnification slopes (HC=0.16; L=0.33; CS=0.27;
PB=0.27), even though the length of the food chains was similar between the lakes. Our
results suggest that rather than the food web structure, anthropogenic inputs (sulfate in
northern lakes and phosphorus inputs in southern ones) may have a strong impact, more or
less directly, on Hg methylation in freshwater environments, and lead to concentrations
exceeding environmental recommendations despite low mercury backgrounds in sediment and
water.

Keywords: methylmercury, fish, invertebrates, epiphyton, stable isotope, lakes.

1. Introduction

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Mercury (Hg) is a toxic trace metal found naturally in the environment, and whose contemporary releases mainly come from anthropogenic activities (Driscoll et al. 2013; Lindberg et al. 2007). Methylmercury (MeHg) is the most toxic Hg species, mostly produced within aquatic ecosystems by prokaryotes (e.g. Bridou et al. 2011; Hamelin et al. 2011; Gilmour et al. 2013), bioaccumulated in biota mainly by trophic pathway, and biomagnified through aquatic food webs (Clarkson et al. 2006; Watras et al. 1998). Nonetheless, wide disparities that exist within and between ecosystems in measured Hg concentrations point to the complexity of the Hg biogeochemical cycle. Indeed, MeHg formation and transfer in food webs are influenced by a multitude of factors, such as levels of environmental inorganic Hg, the activity of prokaryotes carrying out most of the methylation processes, the bioavailability of inorganic Hg to these prokaryotes, the bioavailability of MeHg at the base of the food web, as well as the ecological mechanisms affecting the efficiency of biomagnification among which are primary productivity, habitat use, bioenergetics and food web structure (Arcagni et al. 2018; Braaten et al. 2020; Clayden et al. 2013; Eagles-Smith et al. 2018; Lavoie et al. 2013; Ward et al. 2010; Wyn et al. 2009). Thus, identifying environmental factors influencing Hg bioaccumulation and biomagnification within specific aquatic ecosystems is essential for predicting where risks may be high for humans and wildlife, and to find remedial solutions.

The four largest freshwater lakes (Hourtin-Carcans, Lacanau, Cazaux-Sanguinet and Parentis-Biscarrosse) in southern France, are recognized as emblematic aquatic systems for both ecological and economic reasons. Recently, in the two more northern lakes (Hourtin-Carcans and Lacanau), high Hg concentrations exceeding the World Health Organization consumption recommendation (0.5 μg.g-¹ wet weight, equivalent to 2.5 μg.g-¹ dry weight (dw) WHO, 1990) were detected in the carnivorous fish zander (*Sander lucioperca*) and

northern pike (*Esox lucius*) (ANSES, 2003). Significantly in this context, no local Hg emission sources have been identified in Southwestern France, nor is the region a localized 'hot spot' for Hg atmospheric emissions (Colette et al. 2016) with Hg deposition measurements revealing normal Hg fluxes (Roustan et al. 2006 and data not shown). Understanding these spatial differences is therefore important for the conservation of these ecosystems. On this basis, the first objective of the present study was to determine and contrast the concentrations of Hg and MeHg in primary producers, invertebrates and fishes across the four lakes. The second objective was to assess the food web structure in each lake using stable C and N isotopes. The third objective was to determine and contrast Hg biomagnification across these four lakes and investigate underlying factors to the higher Hg concentrations measured in northern lakes.

To this end, we used a food web analytical approach combining carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes, which are useful tools to reveal feeding relationships among consumers. This approach is also used to understand Hg bioaccumulation in ecosystems because of the importance of diet as a route of exposure for Hg (Hall et al. 1997). Indeed, carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes can explain variability in Hg concentrations of different animal populations (Jardine et al. 2006). The relatively low enrichment of δ^{13} C along food chains (1‰ between two trophic levels) enables discriminating the different sources of organic carbon (Peterson, 1999; Hobson et al. 2002). Thereby, it may be possible to link the various consumers to the various primary producers located at the base of food chains and to locate the entry point of matter and xenobiotics into food webs (Cabana & Rasmussen, 1994; Vizzini et al. 2002). In contrast to δ^{13} C, nitrogen incorporation leads to an enrichment in δ^{15} N of approximately 3 to 5‰ between each trophic level (Peterson, 1999; Cabana & Rasmussen, 1994), allowing the trophic position of species to be inferred. Thus, nitrogen stable isotope allow assessing simultaneously the importance of food chain length and dietary pathway in Hg biomagnification processes (Jardine et al. 2006). In addition, the use of isotopic mixing

models, based on $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values in prey and predators, complements these analyses by enabling the feeding relationships between organisms to be more precisely estimated (Phillips et al. 2005).

2. Methods

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2.1 Study area

The four lakes under study are located in the Nouvelle Aquitaine region (Southwestern France) (Figure 1). Lake Hourtin-Carcan (hereafter termed 'HC'; 45°06'00.4"N 1°07'05.1"W) flows into lake Lacanau ('L'; 44°58'26.6"N 1°07'18.7"W), whereas lake Cazaux-Sanguinet ('CS'; 44°29'22.1"N 1°09'35.6"W) flows into lake Parentis-Biscarosse ('PB'; 44°21'05.3"N 1°09'58.6"W). The waterway connection between each pair is via a canal with locks that control lake water level. The watershed surfaces of the lakes, which belong to a common type of ecoregion (Carvalho et al. 2008), are between 200 to 360 km² (Table S1). Thermal stratification has already been observed in the two most southern lakes, but this is not systematic and the waters do not reach complete anoxia. Cyanobacteria blooms appear frequently in the eutrophic PB lake due to high amounts of sedimentary phosphorus (Cellamare et al. 2012). The lakes have been subjected to increasing anthropogenic pressure for several years, mainly due to recreational activities, especially angling and boating. They have also been exposed to the development of invasive aquatic macrophytes such as Lagarosiphon major and Egeria densa, particularly for the L and PB lakes (Bertrin et al. 2017). The PB lake presents the highest colonized surface of invasive macrophytes (4.17 km^2), followed by L (1.19 km^2), HC (0.94 km^2) and CS (0.17 km^2 ; surface area of dense stands > 50 g.m⁻² dw; Bertrin et al. 2017).

2.2 Sampling and sample preparation

Organisms, macrophytes and periphyton associated with macrophytes (epiphyton) were mainly collected during the autumn of 2015. Macrophytes and Asiatic clams (*Corbicula fluminea*) were also collected during the fall of 2017 and 2018 (Asiatic clams: 2017 in lake L, 2018 in lake PB; *Lagarosiphon*: 2016 in lake CS, 2017 in lakes PB and HC; *Egeria*: 2017 in lake PB). Isotopic and Hg data (see below) were pooled in assuming similar food web structures and baselines in both sampling years. As part of this study, sediment sampling in the four lakes has been previously conducted and reported (collected in April 2014 and in January 2015 for the two northern lakes, and in spring and summer 2016 for the two southern lakes; Canredon et al. 2019).

Asiatic clams, crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) and stems of aquatic macrophytes (Lagarosiphon major, Egeria densa and Phragmites australis) were collected by hand. Special attention was given to the macrophytes to preserve their epiphyton during collection. Epiphyton fixed on submerged reed stems (Phragmites australis, a common plant in the four lakes) was collected by scraping and washing with field water, maintained at 4°C for 24 h, then centrifuged for 3 min at 10 000 g. An extensive fishing sampling campaign (with both nets and lines) provided 490 individuals of various fish species. Five species common to the four lakes were targeted (n = 353) in order to compare the bioaccumulation and biomagnification of Hg between lakes: zander, northern pike, European perch (Perca fluviatilis), common bream (Abramis brama) and common roach (Rutilus rutilus). Based on the fact that size is correlated with the age of individuals, a size class (Table S2) was chosen in order to compare total Hg concentrations per lake for the five species (n = 128, Table 1). For Hg speciation and nitrogen and carbon stable isotope analyses, five individuals of each species and lake were selected. Extended fishing facilities at lake CS only (permitted by a collaboration with a fishing sampling campaign organized by the French Agency for Biodiversity) resulted in the capture of additional fish species, namely bleak (Alburnus alburnus), white bream (Blicca bjoerkna), gudgeon (Gobio gobio), ruffe (Gymnocephalus cernua) and black bullhead (Ameiurus melas) (see Table 1 for details).

Dorsal muscle tissues free of skin were dissected from fish, while muscle free of shell and soft tissues were dissected from crayfish and molluscs, respectively. A single tissue sample from molluscs comprised 10 pooled individuals. Samples were freeze-dried and homogenised by automatic grinding using Teflon® balls and mortars, washed with 3% HCl and rinsed with ultrapure water between each sample. The ground material obtained was stored in ultraclean amber glass tubes at 4°C.

2.3 Total mercury analysis

Total Hg (THg) concentrations in samples were determined by flameless atomic absorption spectrometry (Altec AMA 254). The detection limit of this method is 0.01 ng and the limit for quantification is 0.010 μ g.g⁻¹ dw. Reference material IAEA 436 (International Atomic Energy Agency, Tuna Fish Flesh Homogenate) was used every ten samples to control analytical accuracy, which averaged 101.5%.

2.4 Mercury speciation analysis

Plants and epiphyton were digested with 6N nitric acid, whereas fish and crayfish muscle and mollusc soft tissues were digested with TMAH (Tetramethylammonium hydroxide), under microwave radiation. All samples were analysed by GC-ICP-MS (gas chromatography-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry; Focus GC and ICPMS X2 series, Thermo Electron) as described elsewhere (Rodriguez Martin-Doimeadios et al. 2002; Clémens et al. 2011). Quantification of Hg species was performed by species-specific isotope dilution, by adding the appropriate amount of isotopically enriched Hg standards (199iHg and 201MeHg) (Rodriguez Martin-Doimeadios et al. 2002). Each assay was analyzed three times, with the measurement error for MeHg and IHg being <2%. Data quality was checked by

blanks and by IAEA 407 reference material (Fish Homogenate) with a recovery rate of 93.4% for MeHg and 106.6% for IHg. The limits of quantification are 0.02 ng.L⁻¹ for IHg and 0.005 ng.L⁻¹ for MeHg. Hg concentrations are expressed in ng.g⁻¹ on a dry weight basis.

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2.5 Stable isotope analysis

Homogenized powder samples were weighed into tin capsules using a microbalance (XPE26, Mettler Toledo®). Isotopic analyses were performed by the platform 'Spectrométrie Isotopique' (LIENSs laboratory, La Rochelle) using a Thermo Scientific Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Chartier et al. 2014). The 13 C/ 12 C (denoted δ^{13} C) and 15 N/ 14 N (denoted $\delta^{15}N$) ratios, expressed in $\%_0$, were calculated as the relative differences between the sample and the conventional standard following Peterson and Fry (1987). Standards were run in duplicate every twenty measurements. The analytical precision for δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N were 0.2% and 0.3%, respectively. According to Post et al. (2007), organisms with a C/N ratio of > 4 (solely molluses and bleak) were systematically lipid extracted. Lipids were removed by successive cyclohexane washing (addition of 4 ml cyclohexane to 15 mg of homogenized powder samples, placed 5 min in an ultrasonic bath, 10 min vortex, and centrifugation 5 min at 4500 rpm). The supernatant containing lipids was removed and cyclohexane washings were performed on the pellet until the supernatant was clear, then the pellet was dried at 45°C. Carbonate extraction was also tested for macrophytes and epiphyton from the four lakes. Carbonates were removed prior to elemental analyses by adding HCl 0.5 N on samples (until cessation of bubbling) and placed for 3 min in an ultrasonic bath. Subsequently, samples were dried at 50 °C, homogenized using an ultrasonic bath after addition of milliQ water, and freeze-dried before ground again. No between lake differences were observed, except for reed epiphyton from HC where the δ^{13} C value after carbonate extraction was kept.

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2.6 Data analyses

2.6.1 Trophic position calculation

The trophic position (TP) of each organism was calculated based on $\delta^{15}N$ values and following the equation of Bergamino et al. (2011):

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$$TP_i = [(\delta^{15}N_i - \delta^{15}N_{pc}) / 3.4] + 2 (Eq 1)$$

where TP_i represents the average trophic position of species i; $\delta^{15}N_i$ the average $\delta^{15}N$ value of species i; $\delta^{15}N_{pc}$ the average $\delta^{15}N$ value of primary consumers; 3.4 the mean $\delta^{15}N$ trophic enrichment occurring per trophic level (Post, 2002); and 2, the trophic position of the baseline organism (filter feeders in our study). Because of our inability to find a filter feeder in lake HC and since HC waters flow into lake L, calculations of an organism's trophic position in the former lake were based on the $\delta^{15}N$ value for filter feeders from the latter.

2.6.2 Isotopic mixing model

The relative isotopic contributions of the different food sources to the three carnivorous fish species studied were estimated by incorporating C and N isotope data into a Bayesian stable isotope mixing model (SIMMR package in R software, Parnell et al. 2013). Potential prey for each of these species were chosen according to the literature (Bruslé et al. 2001; Keith et al. 2011; Schlumberger and Elie, 2008) and validated with stomach content observations: crayfish, common roach and common bream were identified as common food sources for European perch, northern pike and zander; juvenile and small European perch were considered as additional prey for northern pike and zander. We used trophic enrichment factors of 2.90 ±0.32‰ for nitrogen and 1.30 ±0.30‰ for carbon between prey and predator muscles, as previously advised in the study of Mc Cutchan et al. (2003). The degree of uncertainty associated with the mixing-model outputs was usually close to 10‰.

2.6.3 Mercury biomagnification factors

2.6.3.1 Biomagnification factor (BMF)

Biomagnification factor (BMF) is a magnification factor between a predator and its main preys. To quantify the proportion of sources (PS) consumed by a predator (consumer, C), we used our results obtained from the stable isotope mixing models in the following equation modified according to Lavoie et al. (2010):

BMF_{PSC} = [Hg] _{predator} /
$$(\sum_{i=1}^{n} ([Hg]_{prey i} \times f_{prey i}))$$
 (Eq 2)

where $[Hg]_{prey\,i}$ is the Hg concentration of prey i and $f_{prey\,i}$ is the proportion of prey i in the diet of its predator. Proportions of sources are provided in Table S3.

2.6.3.2 Trophic Magnification Slope (TMS)

The biomagnification potential throughout the entire food web for each lake was assessed using the slope (b), termed Trophic Magnification Slope (TMS), of the simple linear regression that included all organisms (Eq 3):

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$$Log_{10}[Hg] = b (\delta^{15}N) + a (Eq 3)$$

where a is the intercept. As for the TP calculation (Eq 1), we used $\delta^{15}N$ values from filter feeders taken from lake L to calculate the TMS for HC.

2.6.3.3 Food web magnification factor (FWMF)

In order to compare different ecosystems, the biomagnification potential through each lake's entire food web was corrected by taking into account the different trophic enrichment factors and the baseline differences and was calculated as follow (Fisk et al. 2001):

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$$FWMF = 10^b (Eq 4)$$

where b is the TMS from Eq (3) using TL instead of $\delta^{15}N$.

2.6.4 Statistical analyses

Factorial ANOVAs were used to study differences in species THg concentrations for each site. Assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity of the error term were tested. If the

assumption was satisfied, the parametric post hoc LSD Fisher test was applied; if not, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used. Comparisons of means within the same lake for two different groups of individuals (e.g. carnivorous versus omnivorous) were performed using Student's t-test when the assumption was met or the non-parametric Wilcoxon test when it was not met. An ANCOVA followed by a post hoc Tukey's test was run to check if the difference in TMS differed significantly between lakes. In each test, p < 0.05 was considered significant. All statistical analyses were performed using *STATISTICA* version 6.1 software (Statsoft, USA).

3. Results

3.1 Mercury concentrations in biota

Total Hg concentrations measured in macrophytes, epiphyton, invertebrates and low-trophic level fish (both herbivorous and omnivorous) in all four lakes ranged from 5.5 ng. g^{-1} (plant *Egeria densa*, PB) to 982 \pm 325 ng. g^{-1} (common roach, CS, Table 1). Carnivorous fish (European perch, northern pike, zander) expressed the highest THg concentrations and MeHg percentages in all lakes, particularly in HC (maximum value: 7384 \pm 1536 ng. g^{-1} , 94% MeHg in zander, Table 1). Total Hg and MeHg concentrations were also averaged for omnivorous and carnivorous fish to compare Hg levels between lakes (Figure 2). In omnivorous species, a significant lake effect on THg concentrations was observed (ANOVA, F_{3,89}=3.2, p=0.03). Post hoc LSD Fisher's multiple comparison test indicated that THg concentrations were significantly lower in PB than in the other three lakes (all p<0.05). However, no significant effect of lake with respect to MeHg concentrations was observed (F_{3,27}=1.4, p=0.26). In carnivorous species, a significant lake effect was observed for both THg (F_{3,124}=25.04, p<0.001) and MeHg (F_{3,40}=14.1, p<0.001) concentrations. Both THg and MeHg concentrations were significantly higher in HC than in the other lakes (all p<0.001).

Moreover, MeHg concentrations were also significantly higher at L and CS than at PB (both p<0.05). 283

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3.2 Food web structure and feeding behavior of top predators

Carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) stable isotopes mean values for the different species analysed are summarised in Table 1 and plotted for each lake in Figure 3 in order to visualize the food web relationships among the species. For three of the four lakes (L, CS and PB), the δ^{13} C values were significantly different between species (Kruskal-Wallis test, L: H = 19.00; CS: H = 36.22; PB: H = 30.20, all p<0.01) except between the Asiatic clams and European perch in lake L, between gudgeon and ruffe and gudgeon and Asiatic clams in lake CS, and between the Asiatic clams and northern pike in PB (all p < 0.05). Carbon values were not significantly different between species for HC (ANOVA, $F_{8.22}$ =0.91, p = 0.53). Carbon isotopic ratios in carnivorous fish were significantly different between lakes (ANOVA, $F_{3.51}$ =0.91, p = 0.15) with higher values occurring in HC than in the other three lakes (Post hoc LSD Fisher test, p < 0.001). Few significant differences in $\delta^{15}N$ values were found between species within each lake (Kruskal-Wallis test, HC: H = 24.76; L: H = 23.11; CS: H = 47.00; PB: H = 40.56, all p<0.01), and when present, were mainly between species of low- and high-trophic levels (HC: zander vs common roach / zander vs crayfish; L: clam vs northern pike; CS: zander vs clam / zander vs gudgeon; PB: zander vs clam, all p < 0.05). Nitrogen isotopic ratios in carnivorous fish were significantly different between lakes (Kruskal-Wallis test, H = 47.28, p < 0.001) with higher values in PB than in the other lakes p < 0.05). Trophic positions (TP, Table 1) ranged from 1.4 ± 0.1 for crayfish (HC) to 4.1 ± 0.1 for zander (PB). Trophic positions of

zanders (considered as the top predator) were not statistically different between lakes

(Kruskal-Wallis test, H = 9.98, p = 0.018). The diets of zander, northern pike and European

perch are presented in Table S3. Overall, these species had a similar diet, both within and

between lakes. However, some variability was observed: at HC, L and CS: northern pike and European perch had higher isotopic contribution from benthic prey in their diet (for northern pike, 23 to 51% crayfish and 18 to 53% common bream; for European perch, 44 to 50% crayfish and 24 to 25% common bream) than of pelagic prey (for northern pike, 8 to 18% common roach and 13 to 15% European perch; for European perch, 15 to 26% common roach). Conversely, zander had approximately equal isotopic contribution of the different prey species (see Table S3 for details).

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3.3 Mercury biomagnification factors

The significant and positive linear relationships between $log_{10}[MeHg]$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values (Figure 4) indicated that MeHg biomagnified along the food web of each lake (HC: $F_{1,23}$ =7.5, R^2 =0.21, p=0.01; L: $F_{1,24}$ =39.2, R^2 =0.60, p<0.01; CS: $F_{1,45}$ =184, R^2 =0.80, p<0.001; PB: $F_{1,30}$ =136.4, R^2 =0.81, p<0.001). Trophic Magnification Slopes (TMS) and Food Web Magnification Factors (FWMF) were calculated based on MeHg and THg concentrations measured in organisms from each lake (Table 2). The TMS for THg and MeHg ranged from 0.13 (PB) to 0.23 (L) and from 0.16 (HC) to 0.33 (PB), respectively. The TMS for MeHg was significantly steeper than for the THg of each lake (L: $F_{52,53}$ =4.13; p<0.05; CS: $F_{100,101}$ =11.13; p<0.001; PB: $F_{68,69}$ =20.86; p<0.001), except for HC (HC: $F_{51,52}$ =0.03; p=0.86). A significant lake effect on the TMS for MeHg was observed (ANCOVA, $F_{3.122} = 2.8$, p = 0.045), with lower TMS values measured at HC than the three other lakes (Post hoc Tukey's test, all p<0.01). Food web magnification factors ranged from 2.96 (PB) to 5.35 (L) for THg and from 3.48 (HC) to 12.87 (L) for MeHg. For carnivorous fish, the highest BMF_{psc} was observed for European perch from HC for both THg and MeHg (9.5), whereas the lowest BMF_{psc} was observed for zander from L for THg (2.0) and for northern pikes from L and CS for MeHg (2.9) (Table 1). For lakes L, CS and PB, the BMF_{psc} for carnivorous fish were systematically higher than the FWMF for MeHg, which was not the case for lake HC (Tables 1 and 2).

4. Discussion

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4.1 Mercury concentrations in biota

Total Hg concentrations in epiphyton and macrophytes (Table 1) were relatively similar to those previously measured (Gentès et al. 2013a) in all four lakes, except PB where Hg levels were six times higher in epiphyton associated with Egeria densa than in Egeria densa itself. This could be explained by the fact that epiphyton is known to be a trap for pollutants such as Hg, due to their rich organic matter composition (Coelho-Souza et al. 2011; Gentès et al. 2013b; Klaus et al. 2016). Total Hg concentrations in macroinvertebrates (crayfish) and omnivorous species (common bream and common roach) were below the WHO guideline threshold and were relatively similar to other European aquatic systems, including streams (Babut et al. 2011; Noël et al. 2013) and lakes (Łuczynska et al. 2018; Ortelli et al. 2009). However, THg levels in the carnivorous fish were close to, or exceeded, the WHO guideline, especially in the two northern lakes (HC and L), where THg levels were two to six times higher (in fish of similar standard length) than in fish from similar ecosystems (Babut et al. 2011; Luczynska et al. 2018), but were close to THg levels found in disturbed temperate freshwater lakes (Gorski et al. 2003; Chasar et al. 2009) or tropical ecosystems (Berzas-Nevado et al. 2010). Moreover, a spatial variability in MeHg concentrations between lakes was observed in the three carnivorous fish, highlighting a South-North positive gradient for MeHg, although this was less evident than for THg. A similar gradient for MeHg has been previously observed in the organic sediment of these lakes (Canredon et al. 2019), and also in epiphyton and crayfish, although statistical testing was lacking due to a paucity of sampled organisms.

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4.2 Food web structure

In our study, carbon and nitrogen isotopic data suggest that the food web structures were not significantly different between the four studied lakes (despite that less organisms were sampled in lakes HC and L). Indeed, we found few differences between trophic levels of organisms (i.e., the same trophic guilds), and equivalent food web lengths (even if food web length of the two most southern lakes were slightly longer than the two northern ones). However, significantly higher nitrogen ratios found in carnivorous fish of lake PB than at three other lakes show higher enrichment in nitrogen, but could be explained by the presence of high biomass of invasive macrophyte species (Bertrin et al., 2017) and regular cyanobacteria bloom (Cellamare et al., 2012) in this eutrophic system, leading to a higher incorporation of atmospheric nitrogen.

Methyl Hg trophic transfer efficiency in carnivorous fishes is influenced by the composition of food web and feeding relationships (Vander Zanden and Rasmussen, 1996; Cabana and Rasmussen, 1994). Here, it is thus unlikely that food web structure was the main factor explaining the observed differences in Hg bioaccumulation in top predatory fishes. On the other hand, processes at the base of food webs that influence MeHg availability are generally the principal contributors to bioaccumulation and biomagnification of Hg in ecosystems (Gorski et al. 2003; Chasar et al. 2009; Molina et al. 2010). Significant differences observed in δ^{13} C values between invasive macrophytes and other organisms indicated that macrophytes do not represent a major feeding resource for grazing fish (common roach) or detritivorous (crayfish) in the four lakes. Conversely, their epiphyton (epiE, epiphyton *Egeria*) and epiphyton associated with endemic plants (epiR, epiphyton reed) appears to be a food source for these organisms. Previous studies have highlighted the relative importance of epiphytic algae compared to macrophytes as a carbon source in benthic food webs (France, 1995a). In addition to allochtonous inputs, therefore, other autochthonous sources of carbon need to be investigated within the trophic chain, such as phytoplankton,

other macrophyte species and their associated epiphyton, as well as particulate organic matter, in order to assess more precisely food web functioning (France, 1996).

4.3 Methyl Hg biomagnification

A significant MeHg biomagnification was observed along the food webs of all lakes (Figure 4) with TMS values similar to those observed in other temperate freshwater lakes (Lavoie et al. 2013). Food Web Magnification Factor (FWMF) were similar to equivalent data from other studies (Lavoie et al., 2010; Fisk et al. 2001) and were higher for MeHg than for THg in all the lakes, but this was not systematically the case for the BMF_{psc} of carnivorous fish, which showed the greatest bioavailability and the largest proportion of MeHg in organisms. The elevated BMF_{psc} calculated for European perch from HC could be explained by the greater weight of individuals sampled from this lake.

The trophic transfer efficiency of Hg depends on local geochemical and biological factors (Luoma and Rainbow, 2005; Veltman et al. 2008). In a related aspect of the current project, an extensive mapping of the sediment characteristics and their Hg rates was conducted in the four lakes (Canredon et al. 2019), which revealed no sediment contamination and similar THg concentrations (averaged concentration in organic sediment for the four lakes: 213 µg THg.g⁻¹ dw). However, the MeHg proportion in organic sediment was higher in HC than the other three lakes (2.5± 1% of THg for lake HC, 1.7± 0.7% for L, 0.5± 0.1% for CS and PB; Canredon et al. 2019), following the same South-North positive gradient as that observed in the present study for carnivorous fish and crayfish. Since the origin of carbon in HC seems to be more benthic than in the other lakes, HC's organic sediment and the epifauna living on this substrate (such as crayfish) could be the main entry point of MeHg into the food web. The MeHg trophic transfer efficiency associated with benthos is generally considered to be less than that associated with the pelagic compartment (Cossa and Gobeil, 2000), thus

explaining the lowest TMS observed for HC. Here, the greater input of MeHg in sediment would offset the latter's lower trophic transfer efficiency, thereby providing an explanation for the highest biota contamination in this lake compared to the others.

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In their study, Canredon et al. (2019) also highlighted a South-North positive gradient of sulfate in the water column (PB = 114 μ M, CS = 126 μ M, L = 276 μ M and HC = 392 μ M), with optimal concentrations for the development of sulfate reducing microorganisms (SRM) occurring in the HC water column. Sulfate reducers are considered as the main source of MeHg production in the environment (King et al. 2001; Bridou et al. 2011). Moreover, a laboratory incubation with sulfate-enrichment of epiphyton on floating macrophyte roots (Ludwigia sp.) from CS and two other ecosystems of the region showed that Hg transformation processes were mainly due to SRM activity (Gentès et al. 2013b). Consequently, in these lakes, the sulfate concentration gradient in water could entail a biotic MeHg production gradient in epiphyton as well as in organic sediment. A natural origin of sulfate is unlikely since (i) the geological formation of these lakes and their respective watersheds are similar, and (ii) the distances between them are relatively small. Agricultural activity has been identified as a source of sulfate for these lakes, especially HC, due to the addition of lime to soils to control crop pH (Canredon et al. 2019). A survey on the use of sulfate by local farmers should therefore be conducted to further examine this hypothesis. If confirmed, solutions could be proposed to reduce these inputs and thus lower Hg concentrations in the biota of the more northern lakes (Braaten et al. 2020). Parentis-Biscarrosse is the lake with the lowest THg and MeHg concentrations measured in biota in parallel with the lowest sulfate concentrations measured in its water (Canredon et al. 2019). However, in addition to the presence of invasive macrophytes (Bertrin et al. 2017), cyanobacterial blooms occur regularly in PB (Cellamare et al. 2012). Another explanation for such low Hg levels in PB biota could be the presence of multiple carbon sources that in turn enhance the dilution factor for Hg bioavailability at the base of the food chain (Chen and Folt 2005). As a consequence, biodilution would be an indirect beneficial effect of the eutrophication on Hg dynamics in this lake, reducing bioaccumulation and the biomagnification factor in top predators.

Seasonal variation can affect TMS, for example through changes in $\delta^{15}N$ values in lower TP organisms, with a resultant influence on the entire food web (Borgå et al. 2011). To assess Hg biomagnification variability during the course of a year, different seasonal sampling of biota should be considered for these lakes, and particularly PB.

5. Conclusion

In this study, THg and MeHg concentrations were measured in the biota of the four largest lakes of southwestern France, in relation to their trophic structure. High Hg concentrations in piscivorous fish from the two northern lakes were confirmed, whereas fish from the two more southern lakes were below the WHO consumption recommendation. Methyl Hg biomagnification was observed in all four lakes, and surprisingly, the most contaminated lake displayed the lowest TMS. Food web structure alone could not explain this difference, although sulfate concentrations in the water column seems to be the main driver. In addition, the lake with the lowest Hg concentrations in biota was eutrophic as a consequence of preceding phosphorus inputs, and was subjected to regular algal blooms. Eutrophication could therefore have an indirect beneficial (reducing) effect on Hg bioaccumulation. This study therefore highlights the view that even in environments with very low mercury backgrounds in sediment and water, and beyond the immediate interest of controlling mercury release, other anthropogenic inputs (here, sulfate and phosphorus) may have a strong impact, more or less directly, on Hg methylation in freshwater environments.

Future studies of these ecosystems will aim to assess the methylation and demethylation potentials in different compartments at the base of the food web (organic sediment, epiphyton associated with invasive and endemic plants) using enriched stable isotopes of Hg to identify

the role played by each compartment in Hg transformations. In addition, microorganism diversity associated with each compartment will be studied, as well as sulfate reduction rates, since MeHg production in these aquatic compartments seems to be linked to the activity of sulfate reducers. Additionally, important information would derive from characterizing the Hg sources in these lacustrine ecosystems using Hg stable isotopes (isotopic fractionation).

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

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Figure 1. Location of the four sampled freshwater lakes in southwestern France.

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Figure 2. Boxplots of total mercury (left) and methylmercury (right) concentrations in muscle

tissue of carnivorous (zander, northern pike and European perch) and omnivorous fish species

(common roach and common bream) in lakes Hourtin-Carcans (HC), Lacanau (L), Cazaux-

Sanguinet (CS) and Parentis-Biscarrosse (PB). n: number of samples. Letters indicate

statistical differences (p < 0.05).

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Figure 3. Relationships between $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ mean values (%) of species in the four lakes.

Bars represent standard error. lag: Lagarosiphon, ege: Egeria, epiR: epiphyton reed, epiE:

epiphyton Egeria, epiL: epiphyton Ludwigia, cray: crayfish, roa: common roach, bre:

common bream, per: European perch, pik: northern pike, zan: zander, clam: Asiatic clams,

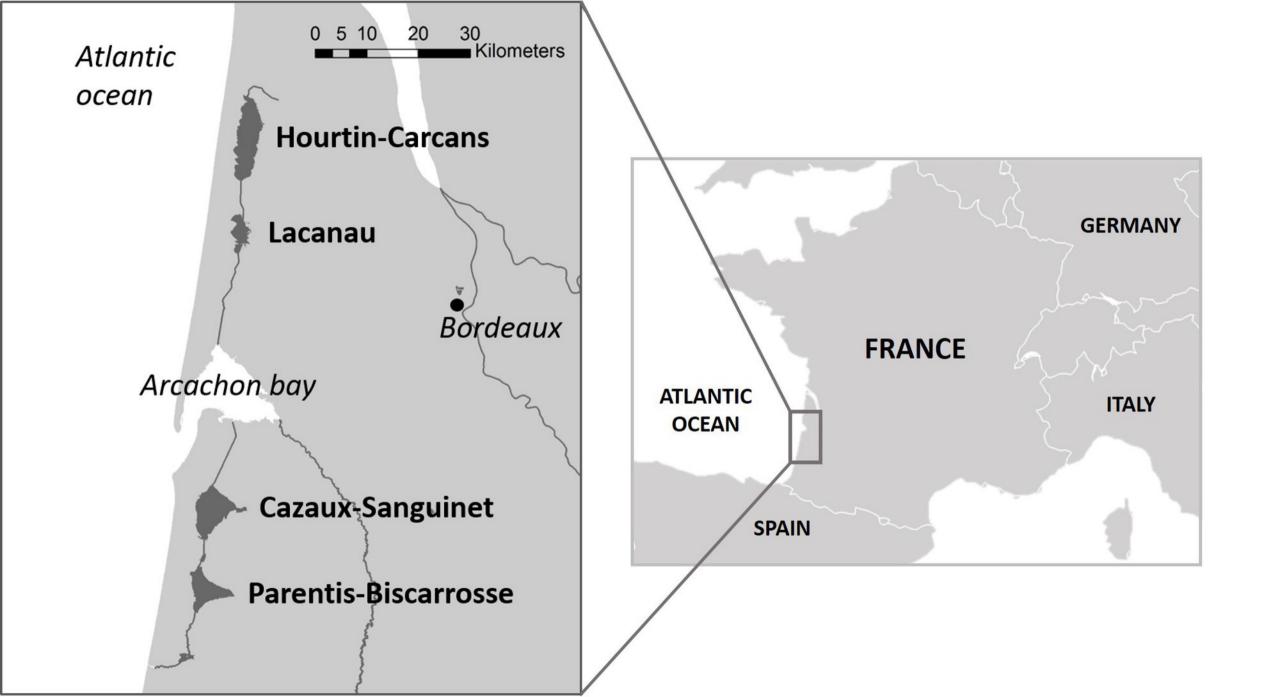
ble: bleak, wbre:white bream, gud:gudgeon, ruf: ruffe, bbh: black bullhead.

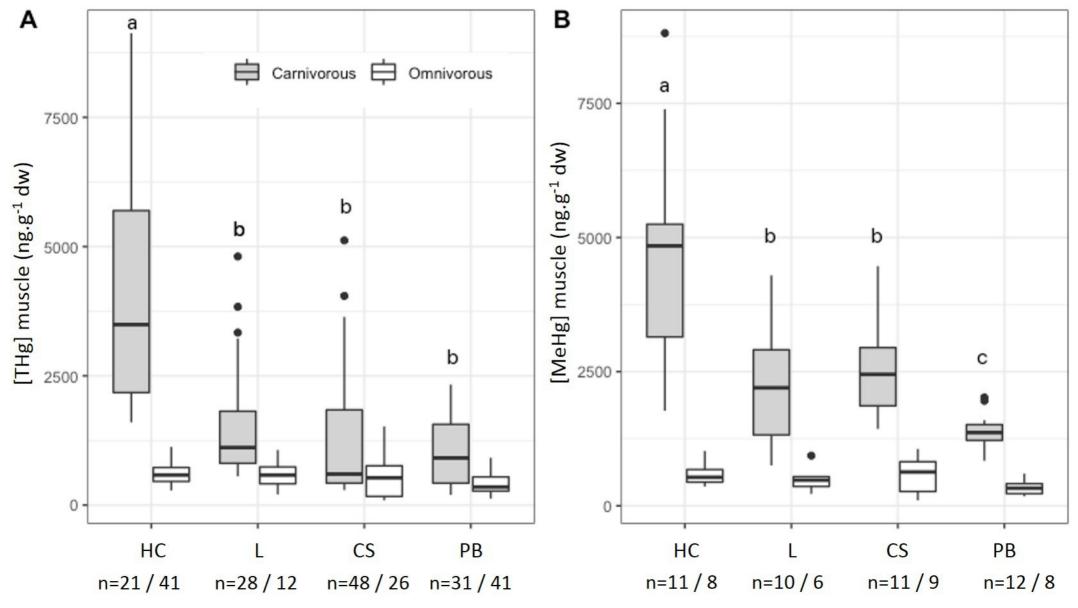
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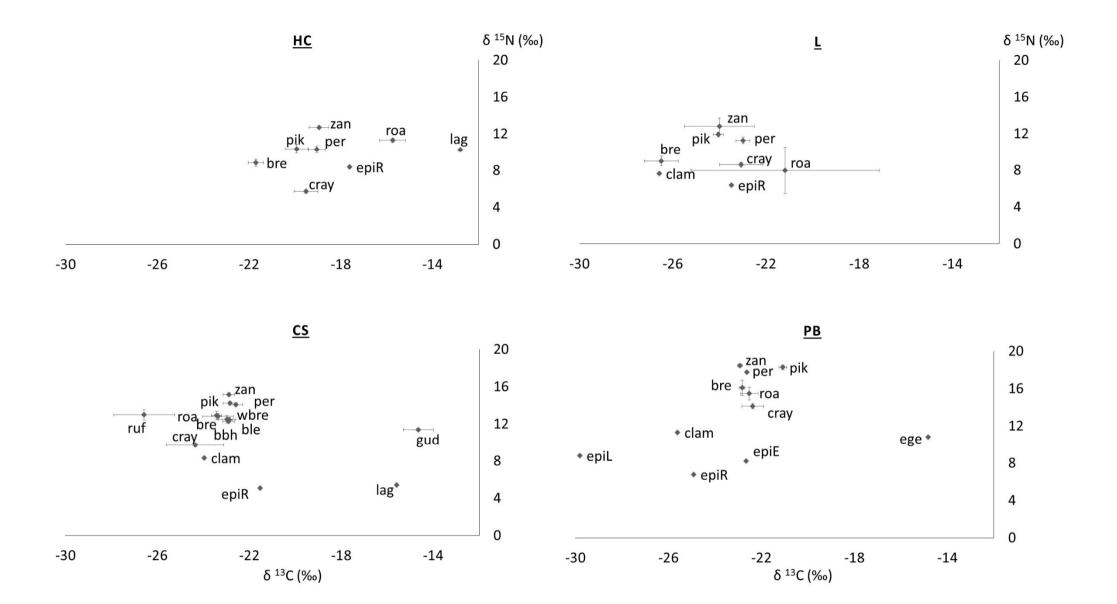
Figure 4. Averages of log_{10} MeHg concentrations versus trophic levels (δ^{15} N) measured in biota of the four lakes. Bars represent standard errors for δ^{15} N and [MeHg]. The linear regression and its correlation coefficient (R^2) were calculated for all individual species. lag: *Lagarosiphon*, ege: *Egeria*, epiR: epiphyton reed, epiE: epiphyton *Egeria*, epiL: epiphyton *Ludwigia*, cray: crayfish, roa: common roach, bre: common bream, per: European perch, pik: northern pike, zan: zander, clam: Asiatic clams, ble: bleak, wbre:white bream, gud:gudgeon, ruf: ruffe, bbh: black bullhead.

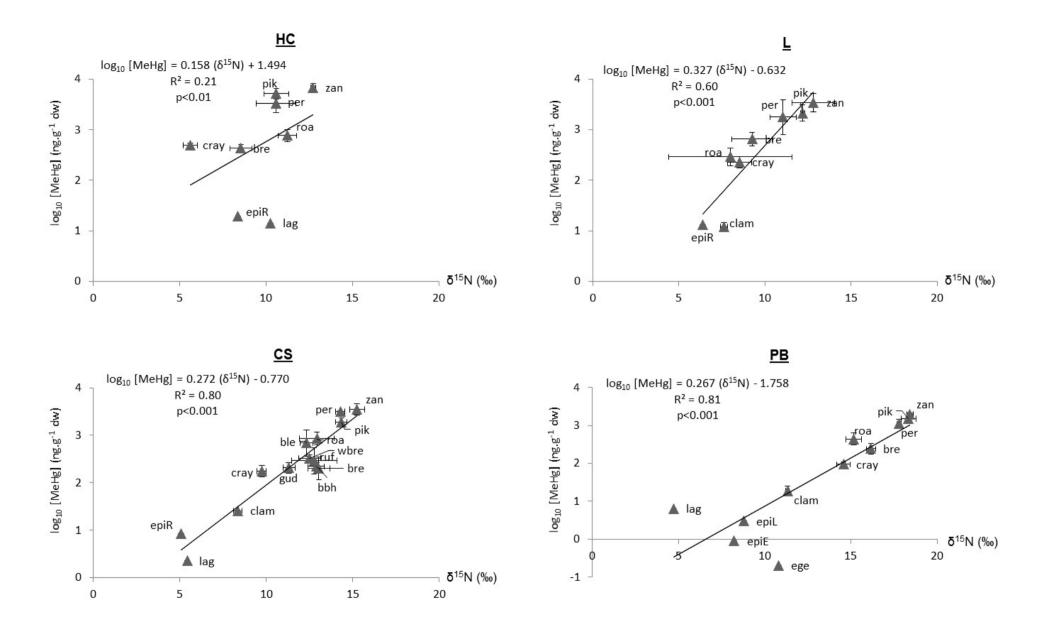
Table 1. Average mercury concentrations (Mean THg, ng.g⁻¹ dry weight), percentages of MeHg (%), stable isotope ratios ($\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$, %) and trophic positions (TP) of organisms sampled from the four lakes. Biomagnification Factor (BMF_{PSC}) were calculated in zander, northern pike and European perch for MeHg and THg for each lake. Biometric characteristics of organisms are also indicated: total weight (g) and standard length (cm). Values are means \pm standard error; N: number of samples for $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$ and THg analysis, n: number of samples for MeHg analysis.

Table 2. Trophic Magnification Slope (TMS) and Food Web Magnification factor (FWMF) calculated for THg and MeHg in each lake.









Lakes	Species	Common name (code)	Trophic guild	Body weight	Standard length	N/n	Mean δ ¹³ C	Mean δ ¹⁵ N	TP	Mean [THg]	% MeHg	BMF _{PSC} THg	BMF _{PSC} MeHg
Hourtin-	Lagarosiphon major	Lagarosiphon (lag)	PP			1/1	-12.8	10.3		187.1	7.5		
Carcans	Epiphyton Phragmites australis	(epiR)				1/1	-17.6	8.4		35.8	53.7		
(HC)	Procambarus clarkii	Crayfish (cray)	Det			5/4	-19.5±1.2	5.7±0.4	1.4±0.1	523.9±79.6	90.7±3.2		
	Rutilus rutilus	Common roach (roa)	Omni-Herbi	281±135	22±4	5/4	-15.7±1.3	11.3±0.5	3.1±0.1	803±218.4	97.2±3.2		
	Abramis brama	Common bream (bre)	Omni-Benth	427±387	25±8	5/4	-21.7±0.8	8.8±0.9	2.4±0.3	440.1±110.6	90.4±1.5		
	Perca fluviatilis	European perch (per)	Carni-Pisci	1660±416	36±3	5/4	-19±0.8	10.3±0.9	2.8±0.3	5463.9±1023.3	96.3±0.6	9.5	9.5
	Esox spp.	Northern pike (pik)	Carni	2030±416	56±3	5/4	-19.9±1.1	10.4±1.1	2.8±0.3	3518.5±1317.5	96.9±1.5	3.1	3.2
	Sander lucioperca	Zander (zan)	Carni-Pisci	2914±429	60±5	3/3	-18.9±0.7	12.7±0.1	3.5±0	7383.8±1536.1	93.9±2.7	3.6	4.3
Laconou	Epiphyton Phragmites australis	(epiR)	PP			1/1	-23.5	6.4		30.8	43		
Lacanau	Corbicula fluminea	Asiatic Clam (clam)	FF	0.95±0.05	32±3	5/5	-26.6±0.1	7.6±0.2	2	138.1±13.9	8.8±1.3		
(L)	Procambarus clarkii	Crayfish (cray)	Det			5/4	-23.1±2.1	8.6±0.6	2.3±0.2	260.1±64.9	87.4±2.5		
	Rutilus rutilus	Common roach (roa)	Omni-Herbi	89-421	15-25	2/2	-25.2; -17.1	10.5-5.5	2.1±1.1	414.3-206.7	93.1-100.0)	
	Abramis brama	Common bream (bre)	Omni-Benth	1454±186	40±2	5/4	-26.5±1.6	9±1.2	2.4±0.3	753.4±216.6	93±1.3		
	Perca fluviatilis	European perch (per)	Carni-Pisci	910±421	33±5	5/4	-23±0.7	11.3±0.8	3.1±0.2	1961.2±1500.7	96.2±1.1	4.2	5.0
	Esox spp.	Northern pike (pik)	Carni	2415±452	62±4	5/4	-24±0.5	11.9±0.6	3.3±0.2	2160.5±834.9	94.5±1.1	2.8	2.9
	Sander lucioperca	Zander (zan)	Carni-Pisci	2400-5100	56-71	2/2	-25.5; -22.5	11.9-13.7	3.5±0.4	4809.3-2642.9	96.4-96.3	2.0	4.9
Cazaux-	Lagarosiphon major	Lagarosiphon (lag)	PP			1/1	-15.6	5.4		41.3	5.5		
Sanguinet	Epiphyton Phragmites australis	(epiR)				1/1	-21.5	5.1		23.3	35.8		
(CS)	Corbicula fluminea	Asiatic Clam (clam)	FF	0.5±0.1	20±2	3/3	-24±0.1	8.3±0.2	2	295.8±18.2	8.8±0.6		
` '	Procambarus clarkii	Crayfish (cray)	Det			2/2	-23.1; -25.6	9.9-9.5	2.4±0.1	181.8-240.4	79.0-89.6		
	Rutilus rutilus	Common roach (roa)	Omni-Herbi	270±146	23±4	5/5	-23.4±0.5	12.9±1	3.3±0.3	982.5±325.5	91.5±3		
	Abramis brama	Common bream (bre)	Omni-Benth	1146±496	37±5	5/4	-23.4±1.5	12.8±0.7	3.3±0.2	234.7±110.4	83.9±7.1		
	Perca fluviatilis	European perch (per)	Carni-Pisci	950±294	34±3	5/3	-22.6±0.7	14.1±0.3	3.7±0.1	2582.7±1210.3	92.8±2.3	6.2	5.2
	Esox spp.	Northern pike (pik)	Carni	2220±396	59±4	5/4	-22.8±0.7	14.2±0.4	3.7±0.1	1920.1±476.9	95.6±0.5	2.9	2.9
	Sander lucioperca	Zander (zan)	Carni-Pisci	3443±527	63±3	5/4	-22.9±0.6	15.2±0.4	4±0.1	3533.6±1044	96.3±1.8	4.0	4.2
	Alburnus alburnus	Bleak (ble)	Omni	39±8	14±1	5/4	-22.9±0.6	12.3±0.3	3.2±0.1	747.3±466	90.9±1.3		
	Blicca bjoerkna	White bream (wbre)		183±41	20±2	5/4	-22.9±0.3	12.5±0.6	3.2±0.2	336.2±82.3	91.1±2.9		
	Gobio gobio	Gudgeon (gud)		7±1	9±1	5/4	-14.6±1.5	11.4±0.4	2.9±0.1	261.7±56	83.2±6.7		
	Gymnocephalus cernua	Ruffe (ruf)		18±3	10±1	5/4	-26.6±2.9	13±1.3	3.2±0.3	377.1±232.2	82.1±5.8		
	Ameiurus melas	Black bullhead (bbh)		123±49	18±3	5/4	-23±0.9	12.5±0.9	3.4±0.4	239.4±67.7	85.2±4.7		
Danam*!-	Lagarosiphon major	Lagarosiphon (lag)	PP			1/1	-11.3	4.7		149.9	4.2		
Parentis-	Egeria densa	Egeria (ege)				1/1	-14.8	10.8		5.5	3.7		
Biscarrosse	Epiphyton <i>Egeria densa</i>	(epiE)				1/1	-22.6	8.2		33	2.7		
(PB)	Epiphyton Ludwigia sp.	(epiL)				1/1	-29.8	8.8		43	7		
(-)	Epiphyton <i>Phragmites australis</i>	(epiR)				1	-24.9	6.8		20.7			
	Corbicula fluminea	Asiatic Clam (clam)	FF	0.8±0.1	20.9±0.8	5/5	-25.6±0.2	11.3±0.1	2	199.7±9.9	9.8±2.7		
	Procambarus clarkii	Crayfish (cray)	Det			5/4	-22.4±0.7	14.1±1.1	2.8±0.3	116.7±20.7	75.6±13.4		
	Rutilus rutilus	Common roach (roa)	Omni-Herbi	311±197	25±4	5/4	-22.5±1.5	15.5±0.8	3.2±0.2	531.7±151.7	90.6±6		
	Abramis brama	Common bream (bre)	Omni-Benth	395±46	27±2	5/4	-22.8±1.8	16.1±0.3	3.4±0.1	275.2±91.1	86.4±4.7		
	Perca fluviatilis	European perch (per)	Carni-Pisci	826±224	32±2	5/4	-22.6±0.2	17.8±0.1	3.9±0	1156.9±317.9	93.8±1.5	3.9	4.5
	Esox spp.	Northern pike (pik)	Carni	2460±451	65±3	5/4	-21.1±0.6	18.3±0.4	4±0.1	1459.4±332.5	95±2.3	3.4	3.9
	Sander lucioperca	Zander (zan)	Carni-Pisci	1890±284	55±3	5/4	-22.9±0.4	18.5±0.2	4.1±0.1	2065.7±258.1	92.5±1.4	4.8	5.1

PP: Primary producers; FF:Filter-feeders; Det: detritivorous; Omni: Omnivorous; Herbi: Herbivorous; Benthophagous: Benth; Carni: Carnivorous; Pisci: Piscivorous

	1	ГНg	MeHg				
lakes	TMS	FWMF	TMS	FWMF			
НС	0.16	3.06	0.16*	3.48			
L	0.23	5.35	0.33	12.87			
CS	0.18	4.06	0.27	8.46			
PB	0.13	2.96	0.27	8.13			

^{*:} ANCOVA, p <0.05