

An integrated metabolomics and proteogenomics approach reveals molecular alterations following carbamazepine exposure in the male mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis

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15 Abstract

16 Carbamazepine is one of the most abundant pharmaceutical active compounds detected in 17 aquatic systems. Based on laboratory exposures, carbamazepine has been proven to adversely affect aquatic organisms. However, the underlying molecular events remain poorly understood. This study 18 19 aims to investigate the molecular mechanisms potentially associated with toxicological effects of 20 carbamazepine on the mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis exposed for 3 days at realistic concentrations 21 encountered in coastal environments (80 ng/L and 8 µg/L). An integrated metabolomics and 22 proteogenomics approach, including data fusion strategy, was applied to gain more insight in 23 molecular events and cellular processes triggered by carbamazepine exposure. Consistent metabolic 24 and protein signatures revealed a metabolic rewiring and cellular stress at both concentrations (e.g. 25 intensification of protein synthesis, transport and catabolism processes, disruption of lipid and amino 26 acid metabolisms). These highlighted molecular signatures point to the induction of autophagy, closely related with carbamazepine mechanism of action, as well as a destabilization of the lysosomal 27 membranes and an enzymatic overactivity of the peroxisomes. Induction of programmed cell death 28 29 was highlighted by the modulation of apoptotic cognate proteins. The proposed integrative omics 30 data analysis was shown to be highly relevant to identify the modulations of the two molecular 31 levels, i.e. metabolites and proteins. Multi-omics approach is able to explain the resulting complex biological system, and document stronger toxicological pieces of evidence on pharmaceutical active
 compounds at environmental concentrations in sentinel organisms.

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Keywords: Multi-omics, data fusion, pharmaceutical active compounds, mechanism of action,
 Mediterranean mussel, marine organisms

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38 1. Introduction

The antiepileptic carbamazepine (CBZ), known for its low removal in wastewater treatment 39 plants (WWTPs) ¹ and its low (bio)degradability in the environment ^{2,3}, has been proposed as a 40 41 possible anthropogenic marker of urban pollution in the aquatic systems ^{4,5}. CBZ is among the most 42 frequent pharmaceutical active compounds (PhACs) detected in the environment and can be a threat for aquatic organisms ^{6–9}. Marine ecosystems constitute the terminal receptacle of contaminated 43 44 continental water and are also submitted to direct discharges from WWTPs. Therefore, those 45 ecosystems are not spared by the occurrence of PhACs, including CBZ. The latter is not easily 46 adsorbed by sediments or solid particles and consequently remains mainly in the aqueous phase ^{10,11}, 47 at concentrations ranging from < 1 to 1410 ng/L in marine ecosystems ^{12,13}. CBZ is thus bioavailable to 48 numerous marine organisms, especially filter feeders such as bivalve mollusks. It has already been detected in tissues of marine bivalves despite its low bioaccumulation potential ^{13–17}. 49

The exposure of marine bivalves to CBZ may lead to adverse effects. Several experimental studies revealed individual and sub-individual effects at different life stages (adult, larval). The most common effect reported was the induction of oxidative stress at environmental concentrations ^{18,19}. CBZ also exerts various effects on marine bivalves such as cytotoxicity and immunotoxicity ^{20–24}, genotoxicity ^{22,25} and embryotoxicity ²⁶. Nevertheless, little is known about its mechanisms of action on invertebrates. Some mechanisms known in humans were confirmed in marine bivalves, such as its interaction with the adenylyl cyclase system leading to the reduction of intracellular cAMP levels in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* ²³. In addition, its potential agonist role of gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptors in the clam *Ruditapes philippinarum* ²¹, and its interaction with voltage-dependent Na⁺ and K⁺ channels in *Scrobicularia plana* ²⁷ were demonstrated. However, these different types of molecular alterations are not sufficient to fully explain the adverse effects reported in the literature. Since differences in CBZ pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics are expected between humans and bivalves, it is necessary to apply non hypothesis-driven approaches to further investigate mechanisms of action and toxicological effects of CBZ on marine bivalves.

The combination of different omics approaches (i.e., multi-omics) has been shown as a relevant 64 way to examine the complex interactions and regulation events between different biological layers 65 (e.g. DNA, RNA, proteins, metabolites) ^{28,29}. Indeed, the major motivation for integrating data from 66 67 different levels (e.g. transcriptome, proteome, metabolome) is to improve the understanding of the underlying biological system, and to gain further insight into mechanistic knowledge that is hardly 68 accessible by measuring a single level of the biological system (e.g. metabolomics alone)²⁸. According 69 70 to previous ecotoxicological studies, an integrated metabolomics and proteomics approach is 71 suitable to unravel mechanisms of action and toxicological effects of contaminants, without preconceived assumptions ^{30–32}. However, due to a certain degree of heterogeneity between these 72 73 large-scale approaches and the intrinsic complexity of the generated datasets, the integrative analysis of different omics remains challenging ³³. For this purpose, different fusion strategies can be 74 considered, depending on the structure and the nature of the associated data ³⁴. When observations 75 76 constitute the common mode, i.e. the same samples are characterized by several blocks of variables (e.g. metabolites and proteins), high/low/mid/ level approaches can be implemented ³⁵. High-level 77 data fusion involves the individual investigation of each data block, and outputs are then collected to 78 79 offer a global picture of all data. One potential advantage is to provide increased prediction accuracy, 80 e.g. using a majority vote, but it does not allow links between signals from the different sources to be 81 directly considered. For that purpose, low-level data fusion constitutes an attractive alternative, because the combination of data is carried out at the signal level. As relationships between multiple 82

83 blocks can be objectively evaluated, multiblock modelling provides a very efficient approach to this 84 aim. However, it may suffer from different sources of biological and technical noise, especially in the 85 case of multi-omics integration. In that context, mid-level strategies offer an interesting compromise 86 between these two extremes, by starting with an individual evaluation of the different blocks to 87 extract meaningful information that will be combined in a second phase. The first step of mid-level 88 data fusion can be carried out using either dimensionality reduction based on latent variable models (e.g. Principal Component Analysis) or variable selection methods. The latter aims to select the most 89 90 informative subset of variables from each block, therefore potentially increasing prediction accuracy. 91 Another way of looking at variable selection is to remove signals that are not relevant to describe the 92 biological situation of interest. For this purpose, it is possible to implement uninformative variable 93 elimination (UVE) strategies. Processed data blocks can then be used as input of a multiblock model. 94 A mid-level data integration strategy combining Monte Carlo UVE based on partial least squares regression (MCUVE-PLS) ³⁶ and consensus orthogonal partial least squares-discriminant analysis 95 96 (consensus OPLS-DA) ³⁷ was implemented in this work. By focusing on a relevant subset of variables 97 in each block, it offers the advantage of improved prediction performance compared to the whole 98 dataset, while allowing potential links between blocks to be efficiently considered. Moreover, an objective evaluation of the most relevant data block(s) can be gained using multiblock modelling ³⁵. 99

Hence, an integrated metabolomics and proteogenomics approach, based on mid-level data fusion and multiblock modelling, can be a suitable strategy to gain understanding of biological systems by reinforcing the biochemical connectivity between the two omics levels (*i.e.* proteins and metabolites). Such a strategy was applied in this study to fill the information gap about the mechanisms of action and potential toxicological effects of CBZ on marine bivalve mollusks. For this purpose, a 3-day exposure at a low (80 ng/L) and a high (8 µg/L) dose on the Mediterranean mussel *M. galloprovincialis* was conducted in controlled laboratory conditions.

108 2. Materials & Methods

109 2.1. Chemicals

110 Pesticide analytical-grade solvents (methanol, dichloromethane and ethanol) and LC/MS 111 grade solvents (water, acetonitrile, formic acid 99%) were obtained from Carlo Erba (Val de Reuil, 112 France). Ultrapure water was generated by a Simplicity UV system from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA) 113 with a specific resistance of 18.2 MQ.cm at 25°C. Analytical pure standards used for identification of 114 endogenous metabolites were purchased from the following suppliers: Sigma-Aldrich (now part of 115 Merck), Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Toronto Research Chemicals and LGC Standards. Analytical pure 116 standard used for xenobiotic quantification concern carbamazepine (CBZ, Sigma-Aldrich) and the 117 deuterated carbamazepine-d8 (CBZ-d8, Toronto Research Chemicals). All chemicals used in this study 118 were analytical grade (purity > 95 %).

119 2.2. Animals, experimental design and sample collection

Mussels *Mytilus galloprovincialis* were purchased from Les Compagnons de Maguelone mussel culture (Villeneuve-les-Maguelone, France) in March 2019 and were brought back to the laboratory in a mesh bag at room temperature (14°C) within an hour. On arrival at the laboratory, mussels were immersed in seawater. Then, 90 mussels with a homogenous shell size (7.0 cm \pm 0.4 cm) were rinsed with seawater while algae and barnacles were removed from the shell. Mussels were then randomly distributed in 18 glass aquaria (n = 5 mussels per aquarium), each containing 2 L of filtered seawater (provided by IFREMER, Palavas, France; filter GF/F Ø 100 µm).

During all the experiment (acclimatization and exposure periods), seawater was continuously aerated and renewed daily, and mussels were fed once daily with the alga *Tetraselmis suecica* (Greensea, Mèze, France) at constant density (10 000 cells/mL). Physicochemical parameters were checked on a daily basis such as temperature (14.4 °C \pm 0.5), pH (7.5 \pm 0.06), oxygen (10.3 mg/L \pm 0.1) and salinity (36.8 ‰ \pm 0.2), and were maintained constant throughout the experiment. 132 After a 7-day acclimatization period, three exposure conditions were constituted (n = 30133 mussels per condition) with an environmentally relevant CBZ concentration (80 ng/L; low dose), a 134 higher CBZ concentration (8 μ g/L; high dose) and a solvent control exposure (10 μ l/L of methanol, 135 solvent used for the preparation of CBZ solution, corresponding to a final dilution of 0.01 ‰). Each 136 exposure solution was prepared extemporaneously every day. Aquaria seawater was spiked one hour 137 after feeding to prevent any adsorption of CBZ on the algae. Seawater (500 mL) from aquaria was sampled in triplicate daily before each seawater renewal (static renewal) to quantify carbamazepine 138 139 concentration.

140 After three days of exposure, no dead mussels were recorded. Mussels were dissected on ice 141 to collect the digestive gland (used for both metabolomics and proteomics analysis), the gills (for 142 further analyses not in the scope of this study) and the remaining soft tissues (for CBZ 143 quantifications) in different cryotubes. In the same time, sex microscopy determination allowed the 144 identification of 17 females, 10 males and 3 undifferentiated in the solvent control exposure 145 condition, 13 females, 12 males and 5 undifferentiated in the low dose exposure condition, and 14 146 females, 12 males and 4 undifferentiated in the high dose exposure condition. The samples were 147 directly frozen in liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80°C. Metabolomics and proteomics 148 analyses were performed on the same samples in order to reinforce the biochemical connectivity 149 between the two omics levels (*i.e.* proteins and metabolites).

In the present study, only samples of male mussels were considered for the following analysis in order to avoid any bias due to the gender confounding factor. Beside, two samples from the solvent control exposure condition and two samples from the high dose exposure condition were excluded from analysis due to insufficient digestive gland tissue to perform both metabolomics and proteomics analysis (n = 8 males for the solvent control, n = 12 males for the low dose and n = 10 males for the high dose). Mussels individuals were considered independent (as the unit of replication) since no clustering related to glass aquarium was observed using Principal Analysis 157 Components (PCA) or hierarchical clustering analysis for both metabolomics and proteomics analyses158 (results not shown).

159

2.3. Extraction and analysis of carbamazepine

160 Materials and methods describing extraction and analysis of CBZ in seawater exposure and 161 mussel soft tissues were given in Supplementary Data. Briefly, extraction of CBZ in seawater 162 exposure was carried out with a solid phase extraction (SPE) method using SPE cartridges Oasis HLB 500 mg 6 cc (Waters, Wexford, Ireland). The extraction protocol of CBZ in mussel soft tissues was 163 164 based on a QuEChERS (Quick, Easy, Cheap, Efficient, Rugged and Safe) method adapted from Martínez Bueno et al.¹⁵. The targeted analysis of CBZ was performed on a Vanquish HPLC (Thermo 165 166 Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) coupled to a Q Exactive Orbitrap high resolution mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) equipped with a heated electrospray 167 168 ionization source (HESI).

- **169** 2.4.
- 170

2.4.1. Sample preparation

Metabolomics analysis

Digestive glands of male mussels were lyophilized and grinded until a fine powder was 171 38,39 172 obtained. studies the As described in previous biphasic solvent system 173 methanol/dichloromethane/water (16/16/13; v/v/v) was used to extract metabolites from tissues. 174 Briefly, 30 mg of tissue (± 0.40 mg) were first homogenized and extracted in a glass tube with 240 µL 175 of methanol and 75 μ L of ultrapure water and vortexed for 1 min. In the next step, 240 μ L of 176 dichloromethane and 120 µL of ultrapure water were added before vortexing the whole 1 min. The samples were left on ice for 15 min and then centrifuged at 2000× g for 15 min at 4°C. Volumes of 50 177 178 µL of the supernatant (polar phase) were collected and evaporated to dryness under a nitrogen 179 stream and finally reconstituted in 200 μ L of water/acetonitrile (95/5; v/v). The extracts were filtered 180 using a 500 µL centrifugal filter with a 10k modified polyethersulfone membrane (VWR, Fontenay-181 sous-Bois, France), and then transferred into vials prior to liquid chromatography—high resolution 182 mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) analysis.

183

2.4.2. Data acquisition and quality control

184 Non-targeted analysis was carried out using a Vanquish HPLC (ThermoFisher Scientific, 185 Bremen, Germany) coupled to a Q Exactive Orbitrap HRMS (ThermoFisher Scientific, Bremen, 186 Germany) equipped with a heated electrospray ionization source (HESI).

187 A reversed phase pentafluorophenylpropyl (PFPP) analytical column (100 × 2.1 mm; 3 μ m 188 particle size; Sigma Aldrich, PA, Bellefonte, USA) was used for HPLC separation. Each sample (10 μ L) 189 was loaded onto the column with a full loop injection. The mobile phase was constituted of water 190 and acetonitrile both modified with 0.1 % formic acid. The flow rate was set at 250 μ L/min and the 191 gradient system was as follows (water/acetonitrile): 95/5 until 3 min, 60/40 at 8 min, 50/50 at 9 min, 192 30/70 at 13 min, 5/95 from 15 to 18 min, going back to the initial condition at 21 min (95/5) and 193 equilibrating the column until the 28th min.

The Q Exactive HRMS was tuned to a mass resolution of 35,000 (FWHM, m/z 200) with a mass spectrum range of 50–750 m/z. Data were acquired simultaneously in both positive (ESI⁺) and negative (ESI⁻) ionization modes with the following settings: spray voltage at 3.35 |kV|, sheath gas flow rate of 55, aux gas flow rate at 10, S-Lens RF level of 50, capillary temperature at 300°C and heater temperature at 250°C. Sample order was randomly distributed in the injection sequence to avoid any bias and to reduce the influence of potential confounding factors.

200 In order to assess the analytical repeatability and sensitivity of acquisitions, a quality control 201 (QC) sample was injected at regular intervals throughout the sequence (every six samples). The QC 202 sample was prepared by pooling 40 μ L of each injected sample extract. Then, the relative standard 203 deviation (RSD) for each features detected in QC samples was calculated. A controlled analytical 204 variability is set such that 70 % of features must have an RSD < 30 % ⁴⁰.

205

2.4.3. Data pre-processing

The strategy for data pre-processing was already presented in Dumas et al. ^{39,41}. Briefly, the raw data were converted into mzXML files with MSConvert freeware (ProteoWizard 3.0) ⁴². A multistep strategy was applied for processing ESI⁺ and ESI⁻ acquisitions separately using the XCMS

package 43 in the R environment. Optimized XCMS parameters were implemented: m/z interval for 209 peak picking was set at 0.0025, the signal-to-noise ratio threshold was set at 10, the group 210 211 bandwidth was set at 8, and the minimum fraction was set at 0.5. XCMS returned results as a peak 212 table containing variable identity (i.e., m/z and retention time) and feature abundances (i.e. peak 213 area). After visual inspection of each extracted ion chromatogram, all features corresponding to 214 baseline drift or background noise were discarded from the peak table. In addition, the Bioconductor package CAMERA ⁴⁴ was used to remove isotopes, adducts, and fragments from the peak table, thus 215 216 avoiding information redundancy. Based on QC sample injections, features with a RSD > 30 % were 217 excluded for statistical analysis.

218

2.4.4. Metabolites annotation and identification

The public databases Human Metabolome Database (HMDB; http://www.hmdb.ca/; ⁴⁵) and 219 LipidMaps (https://lipidmaps.org/; ⁴⁶) were used for feature annotation. A mass precision was fixed 220 at 0.002 Da. The levels of confidence for the annotation were defined according to the 221 recommendation of the Compound Identification work group of the Metabolomics Society ⁴⁷: (i) level 222 223 1 was characterized by unambiguous identification based on the accurate mass and retention time of 224 the corresponding analytical standard injected under the same analytical conditions (in-house 225 database), (ii) level 2 corresponded to putative annotation based upon physicochemical properties 226 and/or spectral similarity with public databases (e.g. HMDB and LipidMaps), and (iii) level 3 was putatively characterized compound classes (e.g. based upon characteristic physicochemical 227 properties of a chemical class of compounds). Compound classes were attributed thanks to the 228 229 LipidMaps Database of Computationally-generated Bulk Lipid Species ⁴⁸.

230

2.4.5. Differential metabolite abundance analysis

Abundance of metabolites (peak area of MS spectra) was compared between the solvent control condition and the CBZ treated conditions. Differential abundance was assessed with a Welch *t*-test and the False Discovery Rate (FDR) was controlled using the Benjamini–Hochberg FDR correction. Metabolites with an absolute significant modulation higher than 30 % (adjusted p-value <
0.05) were considered statistically relevant.

- 236
- 237 2.5. Proteogenomics analysis
- 238 2.5.1. Protein extraction

239 Each digestive gland, previously lyophilized, was analyzed individually by shotgun proteomics 240 in standard conditions. For this, 7 mg from each lyophilisate was mechanically homogenized by bead-241 beating in 70 µl of LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) with a Precellys 242 Evolution homogenizer (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). The homogenates 243 were centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 3 min in order to pellet cellular debris, and the resulting 244 supernatant collected to a new tube. Samples were homogenized with a mix of 0.1 mm and 0.5 mm glass beads and 0.1 mm silica beads as previously recommended ⁴⁹. The homogenization was carried 245 246 out until the dissolution of the whole material was achieved with 5 homogenization cycles at 6800 247 rpm with a pause of 30 s between each. Then, samples were centrifuged at 16 $000 \times q$ for 2 min. 248 Samples were then incubated for 5 min at 99 °C and briefly centrifuged. A 20 µL aliquot of each 249 supernatant was then subjected to SDS-PAGE for a short electrophoretic migration, as described previously ⁵⁰. The whole-protein content from each well was extracted as a single polyacrylamide 250 band, processed as described ⁵¹, and submitted to proteolysis with trypsin (Roche) using 0.01 % 251 252 ProteaseMAX surfactant (Promega).

253

2.5.2. Liquid Chromatography - Tandem Mass Spectrometry method

The peptide mixtures were analyzed in data-dependent mode with a Q Exactive HF mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific) coupled with an UltiMate 3000 LC system (Dionex-LC Packings). This analytical system was operated essentially as described ⁵². Peptides were resolved onto a nanoscale C18 PepMapTM 100 capillary column (LC Packings) with a 90-min gradient of acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid, at a flow rate of 0.2 µL/min. Following a Top20 method, peptides were analyzed with scan cycles initiated by a full scan of peptide ions in the Orbitrap analyzer, followed by high-energy collisional dissociation and MS/MS scans on the 20 most abundant precursor ions. Full scan mass spectra were acquired from m/z 350 to 1800 at a resolution of 60,000. Ion selection for MS/MS fragmentation and measurement was performed applying a dynamic exclusion window of 10 s.

264

2.5.3. Peptide assignation and proteomics data analysis

265 MS/MS spectra were assigned to peptide sequences by the MASCOT Daemon 2.3.2 search 266 engine (Matrix Science, London, UK) searching against the digestive gland specific RNAseq-derived database obtained by *de novo* assembly with Trinity version 2.4 ⁵³ and followed by ORF search and 267 268 transcript translation with Transdecoder as described in Cogne et al. ⁵⁴. The mRNA sequencing used 269 the Illumina method with paired-end 150bp sequencing strategy from which 40 millions of reads were used to assemble the transcriptome. The final protein database contains 86,022 putative 270 271 protein sequences totaling 29,583,007 amino acids. For MS/MS spectra assignment, the parameters 272 were: full-trypsin specificity, maximum of one missed cleavage, mass tolerances of 5 ppm on the 273 parent ion and 0.02 Da on the MS/MS, carboxyamidomethylated cysteine (+57.0215) as a fixed 274 modification, and oxidized methionine (+15.9949) and deamidation of asparagine and glutamine 275 (+0.9848) as variable modifications. All peptide matches presenting a MASCOT ion score with a p-276 value of less than 0.05, corresponding to a FDR of 1% as evaluated with the DecoyPyrat procedure ⁵⁵, 277 were filtered and assigned to a protein following a parsimony rule. Functional annotation of 278 identified proteins was perform by sequence similarity search using Swissprot and NCBInr databases 279 with the blast tool alignment DIAMOND as previously described ⁵⁶. Peptide-to-spectrum matches 280 were counted for each protein leader of the protein group defined on the basis of their sequence 281 similarities.

282

2.5.4. Differential protein abundance analysis

The abundances of all MS/MS-detected proteins were based on cumulated spectral counting of peptides used to identify proteins. For the differential comparison of protein abundances, spectral counts were normalized as described in Liu et al. ⁵⁷. Statistical evaluation of differential detection was

carried out using the Tfold method i.e. log2 (fold change), combined with a Student t-test for the p-286 value calculation. The fold change was calculated according to the following ratio 287 Spectral count proteins from treated samples Spectral count proteins from non-treated samples (CTRL). Benjamini-Hochberg correction was applied on 288 p-values as following: $adjusted p - value = \min\left(\frac{p \times nbp}{i}, 1\right)$ using the number of proteins 289 detected with at least two different peptides for each sample (nbp), the t-test p-value (p) and the 290 291 protein rank according to the classification of increase p-value (j). A Tfold absolute value higher than 1 (corresponding to an up-modulation of +100 % or a down-modulation of -50 %) was considered as 292 293 differentially expressed between the solvent control condition and the CBZ treated conditions.

294

2.5.5. Mass spectrometry and proteomics data

295 The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE ⁵⁸ partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD024201 and project 296 297 DOI 10.6019/PXD024201. [The reviewers may access this private dataset using 298 reviewer_pxd024201@ebi.ac.uk as Username and mCyQvaJY as Password].

299 2.6. Metabolomics and proteogenomics data fusion

300 Unit variance was used as a pre-treatment to scale the variables of the different blocks. MCUVE-PLS ³⁶ and consensus OPLS-DA ³⁷ models were computed with combinations of toolboxes and in-301 302 house functions under the MATLAB® 8 environment (The MathWorks, Natick, USA). MCUVE-PLS was carried out using the libPLS 1.98 package ⁵⁹ using an ensemble of 10⁴ models with a ratio of 303 304 calibration samples to the total samples of 0.7. A reliability index threshold of 2 was applied to 305 remove variables considered as uninformative. Then, consensus OPLS-DA was implemented using the K-OPLS package ⁶⁰ and leave-one-out cross-validation was performed to assess the optimal model 306 307 size and predictive ability. More information on MCUVE-PLS and consensus OPLS-DA are available in 308 Supplementary Data.

309 2.7. Bioinformatics analysis

310 Bioinformatics analysis was carried out to translate metabolic or proteomic signatures, i.e. lists of markers of interest, into meaningful functional information, and get deeper insights into the 311 312 biological events modulated by CBZ exposure. When a biological pathway is modulated in a given 313 condition, levels of the corresponding proteins and metabolites are expected to change accordingly. 314 In that context, Gene Ontology (GO) terms classification, i.e. metadata stored in databases linking 315 biological entities to a biological context, can help to highlight meaningful alterations. GO 316 classification was done for modulated proteins as previously described ⁵⁶. Due to the lack of an 317 annotated genome, we used the top five homologs in the Swissprot database to associate GO terms 318 to each protein. In addition, to decipher metabolism pathways disruption by the CBZ, proteins were 319 also annotated and classified according to the KEGG pathway and KEEG BRITE databases 320 (https://www.kegg.jp/).

321 3. Results

322 In this study, we performed untargeted metabolomics and shotgun proteomics analyses on 323 the digestive gland of male mussels M. galloprovincialis exposed 3 days at two CBZ environmental concentrations 80 ng/L (low dose, LD; n = 12) and 8 μ g/L (high dose, HD; n = 10) and a solvent control 324 325 (SC; n = 8). Measured concentrations of CBZ in seawater exposure did not differ from the nominal 326 concentrations by more than 10 % (Supplementary Data). Uptake of CBZ by mussel was confirmed 327 according the CBZ concentration quantified in their soft tissues (Supplementary Data). The metabolic 328 fingerprints were constituted of 3203 signals in ESI⁻ and 5216 signals in ESI⁺, 80 % of the signals 329 having a good analytical repeatability in both ESI modes, across the QC replicates (RSD < 30 %). The 330 shotgun mass spectrometry analysis provided 864,275 Peptides Spectra Matches with a p-value equal to 0.05 or lower, from the 1,891,263 spectra recorded, leading to a mean of 46 % of the 331 332 interpreted spectra. A number of 6,880 proteins were identified, using a parsimony method classified 333 into 5,954 groups including proteins with at least 50 % of homology.

334

3.1. Metabolomics and proteomics integrated analysis

335 Data integration was implemented using a mid-level data fusion strategy involving MCUVE-PLS 336 and consensus OPLS-DA. Figure 1 provides a comprehensive description of the statistical strategy 337 used with the remaining number of variables after each step. The metabolomic datasets acquired in ESI⁺ (MetaboPOS) and ESI⁻ (MetaboNEG) as well as the proteomic dataset (Proteo) were defined as 338 339 three separate data blocks, accounting for 1178, 1146 and 2422 variables, respectively. These 340 variables were considered as acceptable according to analytical criteria (e.g. QC RSD < 30 %, 341 exclusion of isotopes, exclusion of signals with a retention time out of the analytical acquisition 342 time). First, the three data blocks were processed individually and MCUVE-PLS was carried out to 343 remove uninformative variables. A reliability index cut-off of 2 was found appropriate to remove 344 unwanted signals, while preserving biological information. Subsets of 365 variables, representing 31 % of the total from the corresponding block, 399 (35 %) and 937 (39 %) variables were obtained for 345 346 the MetaboNEG, MetaboPOS and Proteo blocks, respectively.





Figure 1: Strategy for selection of statistically relevant proteins and metabolites, and the remaining variables after each
 step for the respective blocks MetaboPOS (metabolomics dataset acquired in ESI+), MetaboNEG (metabolomics dataset
 acquired in ESI-) and Proteo (proteomics dataset).

Two consensus OPLS-DA models comparing the solvent control (SC) to each exposure condition separately, i.e. low dose 80 ng/L (SCvsLD) and high dose 8 µg/L (SCvsHD), were then evaluated. Both models were found optimal with two components (one predictive and one orthogonal) using leaveone-out cross-validation. The SCvsLD model was characterized by R2Y=0.990 and Q2Y=0.851 (Figure 2A), while the SCvsHD was associated with R2Y=0.985 and Q2Y=0.811 (Figure 2B), indicating that each model explained more than 98 % of the data and has a predictive performance higher than 80

357 %.

A Shared and Unique Structure (SUS) plot was then used to distinguish signals with common patterns of variations associated with both doses, from specific modulations related to a given exposure condition (Figure 2C). The coordinates of the signals on the SUS-plot were defined according to their loading provided by each consensus OPLS-DA model (abscissa axis: loading from the SCvsLD model; ordinate axis: loading from the SCvsHD model). Interestingly, the distribution of the data points suggested an overall common modulation resulting from the two doses. Moreover, the lower density at the center of the plot was the consequence of the elimination of variables considered as non-informative by MCUVE-PLS. Thresholds were set to select the extreme data points of the SUS-plot associated with markers of interest. These variables were expected to be the most informative according to the models to explain the effects of CBZ at the low and high dose of exposure on the modulation of proteins and metabolites.

Hence, the selected signals considered as relevant included subsets of 128, 166 and 316 signals from the blocks MetaboNEG, MetaboPOS and Proteo, respectively. Among these selected signals, 45 were annotated from the block MetaboNEG, 37 from the MetaboPOS and 316 from the Proteo. The annotations are provided in Tables S1 and S2 for metabolites and proteins, respectively.



Figure 2: Score plots of the two consensus OPLS models with one orthogonal component (to) and one predictive
 component (tp): (A) solvent control exposure versus low dose exposure (SCvsLD) and (B) solvent control versus high dose
 (SCvsHD). (C) Shared and Unique Structure (SUS) plot integrating both comparisons SCvsLD and SCvsHD with common and
 specific modulations. Variables with a blue triangle belong to the MetaboNEG block (metabolomics dataset acquired in ESI-

378), those with a green circle to the MetaboPOS block (metabolomics dataset acquired in ESI-) and those with a red cross to
 379 the Proteo block (proteomics dataset). The thresholds are represented with black lines and variables with a variation
 380 considered less relevant are shaded.

381 In order to highlight the significantly modulated proteins and metabolites, their modulation 382 amplitude and p-value for both comparisons SCvsLD and SCvsHD were indicated in Tables S1 and S2. As expected, all the selected signals had not necessarily a significant modulation amplitude, 383 especially for proteins. As no pre-selections of the metabolites and proteins was done on the basis of 384 385 the modulation of their abundance, the selection of proteins and metabolites from the SUS-plot was not only based on a significant modulation, but mainly depended on correlation patterns between 386 387 the variables. Compounds with a non-significant modulation amplitude, but localized at the extremes 388 of the SUS-plot data points, may have a high correlation with other compounds, and the latter could 389 have an important biological meaning. Therefore, selected (and annotated) signals with a modulation 390 trend considered as relevant on the SUS-plot were selected for subsequent bioinformatics analyses.

Venn diagrams were built to highlight the number of metabolites or proteins with a common or specific modulation between the exposure conditions (Figure 3). Among the selected metabolites or proteins, less than half had a common modulation between the low and high dose of exposure. Hence, CBZ seemed to have partially similar effect at both doses but also some dose specificities. When looking at annotated signals, the common and specific patterns of modulation between the two doses were globally conserved, although less than one third of the metabolites could be annotated (Figure 3).



Figure 3: Venn diagrams highlighting specific and common variable modulations (metabolites and proteins) between both comparisons solvent control exposure versus low dose exposure (SCvsLD), and solvent control versus high dose (SCvsHD).
Results are given for the selected signals according to the SUS-plot and then for annotated ones.

Bioinformatics tools were used to highlight biological processes and functions potentially altered by CBZ exposure from the selected subsets of proteins and metabolites. Finally, both proteins and metabolites were employed for a global analysis of metabolic pathways, in order to describe the relationships between both omics levels.

406 3.2. CBZ effects on proteome

407 Modulated proteins were queried against KEGG and assigned to pathways, themselves 408 classified in three categories: genetic information processing, metabolism and cellular process 409 (Figure 4). Not all the proteins queried against the KEGG database could be assigned to a KEGG ID, 410 and the number of modulated proteins successfully associated to KEGG pathways was 97 for the low 411 dose (73 % of the selected proteins) and 127 for the high dose (74 % of the selected proteins).



413 **Figure 4:** KEGG pathways in which the modulated proteins are involved at the low and high dose of carbamazepine.

412

The classification of proteins according to KEGG databases (Figure 4) highlighted cellular and metabolic processes largely impacted by proteins modulated at low or high doses. These processes were mainly related to translation process (twice the amount of protein modulated at the high dose), transport and catabolism (more pronounced at the high dose), metabolisms of amino acids and carbohydrates (equally between the two doses), degradation of lipids (more pronounced at the high dose) and cell growth and death (equally between the two doses).

420 An intensification of the translation process can be highlighted through the increasing 421 number of modulated ribosomal proteins at the low dose (6 ribosomal proteins up-modulated and 6 422 down-modulated) and, to a greater extent at the high dose (19 ribosomal proteins mainly up-423 modulated) (Table S2). Increased numbers of ribosomal proteins lead to increases in the amount of 424 RNA transcription and protein synthesis. The steps following translation, involving the folding and 425 maturation of newly synthetized proteins, the sorting and the degradation of misfolded proteins, 426 were also disturbed through the modulation of proteins within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) at 427 both doses (Figure S1). For example, the following proteins from ER were significantly up-modulated 428 at the low and high dose, respectively: mannosyl-oligosaccharide 1,2-alpha-mannosidase IA (ERManl)

429 (+1340 % and +900 %), dolichyl-diphosphooligosaccharide--protein glycosyltransferase subunit STT3B-like (STT3) (+140 % and + 160 %), protein ERGIC-53 (+120 % and +120 %), while UDP-430 431 glucose:glycoprotein glucosyltransferase 1-like isoform X1 (HUGT) was significantly up-modulated 432 only at the high dose (+70 %). Through an intensification of translation and ER activity, CBZ exposure 433 induces protein synthesis and degradation of misfolded proteins. Accumulation of misfolded proteins 434 can cause stress of ER. Significant up-modulations of two markers of ER stress were observed: bax 435 inhibitor-1 protein (+1245 % at the low dose and +885 % at the high dose) and sarco/endoplasmic 436 reticulum calcium ATPase (+200 % at the low dose and +160 % at the high dose).

437 Transport and catabolism processes appeared to intensify at the low dose and, to a greater 438 extent, at the high dose (Figure 4). As described in Table S3, several proteins, mainly up-modulated, 439 were involved in the internalization of compounds into the cell by endocytosis/phagocytosis. This 440 also includes the degradation of compounds and cellular components mainly via the autophagic-441 lysosomal system, but also by phagolysosomes (fusion of lysosome with phagosome), and 442 peroxisomes. Regarding the high number of down- and up-modulated proteins involved in the 443 autophagic-lysosomal system (Table S3), CBZ triggered certain mechanisms inducing autophagy at 444 the both doses. The most modulated protein was Bax inhibitor-1 protein, involved in the regulation 445 of autophagy after ER stress. Another protein that may be related to autophagy induction is inositol 446 monophosphatase 1, significantly up-modulated at the low and high doses (+328 % and +245 %, 447 respectively).

Cell growth and death was the second most enriched cellular process at both doses (Figure 4). More specifically, modulated proteins belonged mainly to the cell death process that includes apoptotic processes. Induction of apoptosis was supported by several proteins that were significantly, or slightly, modulated at the high dose, such as TNF ligand-like 1 (+160 %; p-value = 0.042), TNF ligand superfamily member 10 (+40 %; p-value = 0.068), caspase 2 (-30 %; p-value = 0.067), cathepsin B (+80 %; p-value = 0.015) and mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1 (+470 %; p-value = 0.0015). At the low dose, the modulation of the quinone oxidoreductase PIG3-like isoform 455 X2 (-60 %; p-value = 0.016) from the p53 signaling pathway could be involved in the induction of 456 apoptosis by generating oxidative stress. At the same dose, we also observed a tendency towards 457 down-modulation of caspase 2 (-30 %; p-value = 0.059) and up-modulation of cathepsin B (+50 %; 458 0.081) as well as significant up-modulation of mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase (+400 %; p-459 value = 0.024), supporting the induction of programmed cell death even at an environmental 460 concentration of CBZ.

461 Regarding metabolic pathways, most of the modulated proteins matched with the amino 462 acid metabolism (17 proteins) and carbohydrate metabolism (13 proteins), while no marked 463 difference was observed between the both doses (Figure 4). However, no particular amino acid metabolism or carbohydrate metabolism was significantly affected by CBZ, as modulated proteins 464 465 were scattered in different metabolic pathways. Lipid metabolism was affected by CBZ exposure 466 mainly at the high dose and to a lesser extent at the low dose (Figure 4). Several peroxisomal 467 enzymes involved in fatty acid β -oxidation were up-modulated as illustrated in Table S3. Acyl-CoA 468 oxidase, one of the key enzymes involved in the β -oxidation process, was significantly up-modulated 469 (+230 %). Exposure to CBZ increased the fatty acid degradation that takes place in peroxisome and 470 affected the lipid homeostasis.

471

472

3.3. CBZ effects on metabolome related to proteogenomics data

473 Among the 294 signals selected from the blocks MetaboNEG and MetaboPOS, 82 were 474 annotated and reported in Table S1. Many signals were annotated at level 2, some of them with 475 several potential annotations, while 7 metabolites were identified at level 1. A total of 41 annotated 476 metabolites were significantly modulated (abundance modulation > 30 % and p-value < 0.05) at the 477 low dose (SCvsLD) (29 up-modulated and 12 down-modulated), while 33 annotated metabolites were 478 significantly modulated at the high dose (SCvsHD) (28 up-modulated and 5 down-modulated). The 479 specific metabolic pathway or class compound assigned to each metabolite is provided in Table S1. 480 Most of these metabolites belong to the amino acid metabolism, lipid metabolism and purine

metabolism. What is interesting here, is to investigate the consistent modulation of metabolites in accordance with protein modulations. As detailed in Table S4, several modulated proteins and metabolites shared common metabolic pathways. When direct connections were investigated between modulated proteins and metabolites, consistently affected pathways were observed for purine metabolism, phenylalanine metabolism in relation to tyrosine, and lipid degradation. Detailed metabolic pathways for purines, phenylalanine and tyrosine are illustrated in Figure 5.

487 At the low dose, modulation of phenylalanine (+64 %) was consistent with the up-modulation 488 of two enzymes, namely aspartate aminotransferase (+70 %) involved in the conversion of 489 phenylpyruvate to phenylalanine, and phenylalanine-4-hydroxylase (+110 %) which converts 490 phenylalanine to tyrosine which was not highlighted as modulated. Even if tyrosine, precursor of 491 catecholamines neurotransmitters (e.g., dopamine, metanephrine, norepinephrine, etc.), was not 492 modulated, the dopamine metabolites 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetaldehyde (-61 %) and the 493 phenylalanine modulation indicates that the low dose of CBZ has modified the catecholamine 494 metabolism. At the high dose, phenylalanine up-modulation was maintained, as well as the up-495 modulation of aspartate aminotransferase directly linked to this amino acid. Furthermore, a 496 modulation trend was observed for monoamine oxidase (+210 %; p-value = 0.198; high biological 497 variability) which catalyses the oxidative deamination of amines (i.e., dopamine, norepinephrine, 498 epinephrine, serotonine) although amine compounds were not detected or modulated at 3 days of 499 exposure.

Disturbances of purine metabolism were contrasted between the two CBZ doses (Figure 5). While purine-nucleoside phosphorylase (+180 %) and xanthine dehydrogenase/oxidase (+100 %) were up-modulated at the low dose, no related metabolite was affected. However, adenosine (+57 %; p-value = 0.052) and xanthine (+63 %) were up-modulated at the high dose consistently with an up-modulation of purine-nucleoside phosphorylase (+190 %) and 5'-nucleotidase (+130 %). An upmodulation of xanthine could be related to an increased nucleotides catabolism since it is the end product just before its conversion to uric acid.

507 A large part of metabolites, modulated either at the low dose, the high dose or both, 508 belonged to the lipid metabolism. As reported in Table S1, the main compound classes of modulated 509 lipids were fatty acids, branched fatty acids, fatty esters, acyl carnitines and acyl glycines. A 510 disturbance of lipid metabolism is consistent with the proteogenomics data. For example, long-chain 511 specific acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, actively involved in fatty acid degradation in mitochondria, was up-512 modulated at the low dose (+60 %). At the high dose, three different enzymes that complete the 513 fatty acid degradation in mitochondria and peroxisome were up-modulated (acyl-coenzyme A 514 oxidase 1; long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase 4-like; peroxisomal bifunctional enzyme-like). In addition, 515 CBZ affected the arachidonic acid metabolism by the down-modulation of the two enzymes 516 prostaglandin-H2 D-isomerase/glutathione transferase (-60 %, low dose) and carbonyl reductase 1 (-517 40 %, low dose; -70 % high dose) as well as a prostaglandin and a thromboxane metabolites (Table 518 S4). Arachidonic acid being the precursor of the eicosanoid family (prostaglandins, thromboxanes, 519 and leukotrienes), a disturbance of its metabolism could have physiological consequences regarding 520 the important role of eiconaoid family in organisms.

521 Finally, several annotated metabolites corresponding to dipeptides (e.g. gamma-l-glutamyl-l-522 leucine) were up-modulated at the low and/or high doses (Table S1). This is consistent with the 523 increase in proteins synthesis and degradation as dipeptides are catabolic products of proteins.



Figure 5: Metabolic pathways of phenylalanine, tyrosine and purine metabolisms represented by consistent changes in the
 levels of metabolites and proteins affected by the CBZ exposure at the low (80 ng/L) and high (8 μg/L) dose in the digestive
 gland of male mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis.

529 4. Discussion

530 The strategy of metabolomics and proteomics data fusion combining MCUVE-PLS and 531 consensus OPLS-DA, aimed to highlight metabolic and protein correlated signatures, and then to 532 study the possible relationships between these entities in response to the exposure of male M. galloprovincialis to a low and high dose of CBZ. The two consensus OPLS-DA models, each comparing 533 534 the SC condition with either the low dose condition (SCvsLD) or the high dose condition (SCvsHD), 535 were found to be robust based on cross-validation. The combination of these two models was carried 536 out using a SUS-plot and allowed us to extract the most informative signals, related to common 537 modulation patterns shared by the two doses or specific to each of them. The links between proteins 538 and metabolites were then investigated using tools for visualizing metabolic pathways.

539 The interpretation of metabolomics data in combination with proteomics data is sometimes 540 difficult when it comes to explain changes from one omics level to another ⁶². The coordination 541 between the modulation of a metabolite and the modulation of a protein can be constrained by feedback phenomena as well as by the time scale between them, or cannot be of the same 542 543 amplitude and thus not be detected. Indeed, the concentration of a metabolite can modulate the 544 expression of a gene, and changes in the expression of a gene can lead to an increase or decrease in 545 the concentration of a regulatory enzyme or protein, subsequently affecting the concentration of the metabolite ⁶². Based on the simultaneous measurement of metabolite and transcript or protein 546 547 concentrations, different studies have reached contradictory conclusions on the coordination of the observed changes between the different levels ⁶². Some studies have claimed that transcripts and 548 metabolites are substantially co-regulated ^{63–65}, providing examples of consistent correlations 549 550 between biosynthetic enzymes and their products ⁶³. In contrast, other studies have shown that 551 transcript and metabolite profiles tend to behave differently ⁶⁶, and some have argued that 552 correlational approaches are not specific enough to draw conclusions about functionally related genes and metabolites 67,68. As our observations suggest, biochemical mechanisms probably lie 553 554 between these two conclusions. On the one hand, proteins and metabolites were co-regulated (e.g.

peroxisomal and mitochondrial enzymes and fatty acids, phenylalanine and phenylalanine-4-555 hydroxylase, adenosine and purine nucleoside phosphorylase-like isoform X1, etc.). On the other 556 hand, changes in other protein and metabolite abundances seemed uncoordinated or isolated. In 557 558 addition to the feedback phenomena and time scales that may explain the latter cases, it is also 559 highly likely that partial access to the metabolome and proteome, as well as the lack of knowledge 560 about protein-metabolite and protein-protein interactions may explain these observations. However, 561 despite the lack of data related to bivalve mollusks, our integrative analysis of metabolomics and 562 proteomics data revealed promising results and consistent relationships between the two datasets in 563 response of the male mussel *M. galloprovincialis* to CBZ exposure.

Globally, the presented results indicated a metabolic and cellular stress in the digestive gland of male mussels induced by CBZ at both concentrations (80 ng/L and 8 μg/L). As discussed hereafter, this stress was revealed by different marker compounds of the lysosomal-autophagic system, lysosomal membrane destabilization, overactivity of peroxisomal and mitochondrial enzymes, apoptosis, or compounds involved in proteins synthesis and energy metabolism.

569 Autophagy induction following CBZ exposure was demonstrated in this study by numerous 570 modulated proteins. Autophagy clears aggregated and misfolded proteins as well as damaged 571 organelles via cytosolic sequestration and subsequent lysosomal degradation. One of the known 572 mechanisms of action of CBZ in mammals is the induction of autophagy by inhibition of inositol monophosphatase (IMPase), leading to free inositol depletion and reduced myo-inositol-1,4,5-573 triphosphate (IP3) ⁶⁹. Although autophagy and its induction is not well understood in bivalve 574 575 mollusks ⁷⁰, autophagy is a mechanism widely conserved in eukaryotes. Our findings showed a 576 significant modulation of IMPase at both exposure doses. It means that CBZ can act on the intracellular inositol levels with consequences for the autophagy regulation, although inositol or IP3 577 578 were not detected by the metabolomics analysis. Another hypothesis can be put forward regarding 579 the induction of autophagy. Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress (e.g., accumulation of misfolded proteins, change in Ca²⁺ level) is known as a particularly efficient stimulus for autophagy ⁷¹. This study 580

581 demonstrated an ER stress through the up-modulation of protein synthesis and the potential increase in misfolded proteins. ER stress was also highlighted by a high up-modulation of bax 582 inhibitor-1 and sarco/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase at both CBZ doses. Sarco/endoplasmic 583 reticulum calcium ATPase is a Ca²⁺ transport protein of the ER membrane maintaining the low 584 cytosolic calcium level that enable a vast array of signaling pathways and physiological processes ⁷². 585 586 Bax inhibitor-1 is an ER-located protein, with anti-apoptotic functions, involved in the suppression of intrinsic cell death mediated by ER stress or ER calcium release (see references in ⁷³). Evidences were 587 588 provided on the dual role of Bax inhibitor-1 to regulate both autophagy and apoptosis, two closely 589 related homeostatic processes ⁷³. Further research is then needed to elucidate the mechanism of 590 action of CBZ in bivalve mollusks, triggering autophagy either via depletion of inositol or by the 591 induction of ER stress.

592 In response to exposure in bivalves, lysosomes contribute to the degradation and detoxification of contaminants through different enzymes ⁷⁴. Among these enzymes, cathepsins are 593 594 often involved in the detoxification of metals or organic contaminants²². In our study, the exposure 595 at the low and high doses induced an up-modulation of cathepsin B and a cathepsin-like protein-4, 596 and a down-modulation of cathepsin L. An over-expression of the gene coding for cathepsin L in the 597 digestive glands of M. galloprovincialis mussels, exposed for 3 days to 6.3 µg/L CBZ (close to the present study exposure conditions) was reported in a recent study ²². Exposure of the marine bivalve 598 Ruditapes philippinarum to 1 µg/L CBZ for 28 days also resulted in over-expression of the same 599 gene²¹. Changes in cathepsin abundance may reflect a general up-regulation of lysosomal proteolysis 600 601 due to either damage to cellular proteins or direct effects on protease activity due to CBZ 602 sequestration in lysosomes. However, an elevated lysosomal activity or sequestration of 603 contaminants in lysosomes can affect the lysosomal integrity (e.g. membrane permeability, size of lysosome) ^{74,75}. In marine bivalves, β -glucuronidase is even used as lysosomal enzymatic markers of 604 changes in membrane permeability and lysosome size ^{74,76}. In our study, significant up-modulation of 605 606 β -glucuronidase was observed at the low (+210 %; p-value = 0.004) and high dose (+130 %; p-value =

607 0.034), although it was not selected by MCUVE-PLS. A modification of the membrane permeability of 608 the lysosomes or their morphology is possible at both exposure doses. At comparable doses of CBZ 609 (0.1 μ g/L and 10 μ g/L) but a longer exposure time (7 days), Martin-Diaz et al. ²³ measured a dose-610 dependent decrease in the stability of the lysosome membranes of haemocytes, collected from the 611 digestive gland of *M. galloprovincialis*. As a consequence, hydrolytic lysosomal enzymes can be 612 released in the cytosol causing severe cellular damages and even cell death ⁷⁷.

613 Peroxisomes and mitochondria play a very important role in the phenomena of β -oxidation 614 of fatty acids to maintain lipid homeostasis in eukaryotic cells ⁷⁸. These enzymatic reactions produce 615 reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , which is then degraded by catalase 79 . In our study, an up-modulation of the peroxisomal enzymes responsible for the β -616 617 oxidation of saturated and unsaturated fatty acids (e.g. acyl-CoA oxidase; long-chain acyl-CoA 618 synthetase; peroxisomal multifunctional enzyme type 2 isoform X2) was observed, mainly at the high 619 CBZ dose, as well as a slight up-modulation of catalase. In conjunction with this, the metabolomics 620 data also showed a disturbance in the metabolism of lipids and especially fatty acids. It also includes 621 a disturbance of arachidonic acid metabolism, precursor of eicosanoids, playing an important role in bivalves reproduction and others physiological processes ⁸⁰. In response to a number of endogenous 622 623 compounds and xenobiotics, peroxisomes can undergo massive proliferation. This phenomenon is 624 usually accompanied by the induction of certain peroxisomal enzyme activities, particularly those of the fatty acid β -oxidation system, while catalase may not be induced or weakly induced ^{79,81}. 625 626 Consequently, peroxisome proliferation is considered as a potential source of oxidative stress for 627 cells, since ROS-producing enzymes are induced to a greater extent than the catalase capable of detoxifying ROS ^{82,83}, which could be the case in our study. Although the induction of peroxisomal 628 proliferation has already been observed in the cells of the digestive gland of *M. galloprovincialis* in 629 response to contaminants⁸⁴, to our knowledge this phenomenon has not been described in 630 631 invertebrates exposed to CBZ. More targeted measurements on the numerical and volume density of 632 peroxisomes and on the enzymatic activity of acyl-CoA oxidase would make it possible to verify this

hypothesis ⁸⁴. Peroxisome (or even peroxisome proliferation) dysfunction can cause an unbalanced
 ROS homeostasis leading to cellular damages and cell death ⁷⁸.

In this study, organelles (e.g. lysosome, peroxysome and endoplasmic reticulum) stress 635 and/or dysfunction triggered by CBZ exposure, as well as possible oxidative stress, can induce 636 apoptosis⁸⁵. This hypothesis is supported by several proteins involved in apoptotic processes, 637 638 modulated at the low or high dose, such as TNF ligand-like 1, TNF ligand superfamily member 10, 639 caspase 2, cathepsin B, apoptosis-inducing factor 3 isoform X1, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1, and quinone oxidoreductase PIG3-like isoform X2^{86–91}. Although apoptosis was not directely 640 641 measured in mollusks exposed to CBZ, Mezzelani et al.⁹² observed several up-regulated genes with a 642 role in apoptotic processes after *M. galloprovincialis* exposure to 1 µg/L CBZ (28 days). Furthermore, 643 this programmed cell death was observed in the Chinese rare minnows Gobiocypris rarus exposed 28 days at 1, 10 and 100 µg/L CBZ ⁹³. After a 3-days exposure, we were probably at an early stage of the 644 645 apoptosis signaling pathway. Prolonged exposure to CBZ would eventually lead to programmed cell 646 death, even at environmentally relevant concentrations.

647 The general metabolic and cellular stress in digestive gland of male mussels triggered by CBZ 648 exposure can also be demonstrated by an increase in protein turnover. This turnover was marked by 649 an increase in both protein synthesis (e.g., increasing numbers of ribosomal proteins and proteins 650 from endoplasmic reticulum) and catabolism (e.g., increasing numbers of dipeptides, catabolic 651 products of proteins). Catabolic processes are thought to remove damaged proteins while the 652 synthesis of new and protective proteins is vital for the preservation of cellular homeostasis during 653 CBZ-induced stress. However, faced with environmental stressors or pollution, mussels generally 654 adopt a strategy of depressing protein synthesis to protect themselves ⁹⁴. Organisms limit protein 655 synthesis by storing inactive ribosomes that are rapidly reactivated when conditions improve. In the 656 present study, it would be interesting to check whether ribosomal proteins are active in the 657 translation process or wether they are stored for inactive ribosomes assembly. In any case, both 658 strategies reveal a general stress induced by CBZ exposure at environmental concentrations.

659 The integrated analysis of proteomics and metabolomics data provided a detailed view of the 660 cellular and metabolic processes modulated in response to CBZ, indicating a general state of stress in 661 the cells of the digestive gland of male M. galloprovincialis. Our findings provide preliminary results on CBZ mechanism of action related to autophagy induction in bivalve mollusks, either by inositol 662 663 depletion or ER stress. Furthermore, as the induction of oxidative stress is the most frequently 664 reported effect of CBZ in non-target organisms, this study could provide more details on the causes 665 of this stress. Indeed, oxidative stress can be triggered following a possible destabilization of the 666 lysosomal membranes, already demonstrated by other studies, but also through an enzymatic 667 overactivity of the peroxisomes (or even peroxisome proliferation), of which our results provide the first evidence in M. galloprovincialis. As supported by others studies, ROS production and cellular 668 669 damages could lead to programmed cell death. Our results show several modulated proteins 670 involved in apoptotic processes. These cytotoxic effects generated by CBZ could also explain the 671 decrease in cell viability observed in studies conducted on mussel haemocytes. As example, decrease 672 in cell viability was measured in *M. galloprovincialis* haemocytes treated for 1 hour at different CBZ concentrations (0.01; 0.1; 1; 10 and 100 µg/L) ²⁴ or on haemocytes of the freshwater mussel 673 674 Dreissena polymorpha from 96h of treatment at the lowest CBZ dose tested 1 µg/L ⁹⁷. Induction of 675 cellular death or a decrease in cell viability would result in a weakening of the mussel immune system 676 ^{24,97}. The general stress triggered by CBZ was initiated as early as 3 days of exposure to an 677 environmental concentration (80 ng/L) but more intensively at the higher dose (8 μ g/L). It would be 678 interesting to check whether prolonged exposure to the low dose would induce the level of stress 679 reached at the high dose, or whether organisms can adapt to prolonged exposure by developing 680 strategies to mitigate the toxicity. Further research is also needed to decipher the molecular intiating 681 events leading to the overall metabolic and cellular stresses observed in this study.

682

683 **Declaration of competing interest**

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We declare that there is no conflict of interest for this paper.

685

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695

696 Appendix A. Supplementary Data

697 The following are available online at [XXXX], Figure S1: Folding, sorting and degradation 698 processes disrupted by exposure to low and high doses of carbamazepine (KEGG pathway). Table S1: 699 Annotation and identification of relevant metabolites selected according to the SUS-plot, modulated 700 by CBZ exposure in male mussels either at the low dose, high dose, or both. Table S2: Annotation of 701 relevant proteins selected according to the SUS-plot, modulated by CBZ exposure in male mussels 702 either at the low dose, high dose, or both. Table S3: Relevant proteins selected by the models, 703 involved in the transport and catabolism cellular process. Table S4: Modulated metabolites and 704 proteins involved in common metabolic pathways.

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Metabolic & Cellular stress

- Amino acid, purine and lipid metabolisms
- Protein synthesis process
- Transport and catabolism processes

HYPOTHESES

- Autophagy induction
- Lysosomal membrane destabilization
- Peroxisomes and mitochondria dysfunction

Apoptosis