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## **To cite this version:**

Nicolas Lachaux, Alba Otero-Fariña, Laetitia Minguez, Bénédicte Sohm, Julie Rétif, et al.. Fate, subcellular distribution and biological effects of rare earth elements in a freshwater bivalve under complex exposure. Science of the Total Environment, 2023, 905, pp.167302.  $10.1016/j$ .scitotenv.2023.167302. hal-04286295

# **HAL Id: hal-04286295 <https://hal.science/hal-04286295v1>**

Submitted on 18 Nov 2024

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# Fate, subcellular distribution and biological effects of rare earth elements in a freshwater bivalve under complex exposure

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### 1 **Abstract**

 Rare earth elements (REE) are emerging contaminants due to their increased use in diverse applications including cutting-edge and green-technologies. Their environmental concerns and contradicting results concerning their biological effects require an extensive understanding of REE ecotoxicology. Thus, we have studied the fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects of three representative REE, neodymium (Nd), gadolinium (Gd) and ytterbium (Yb), individually and in mixture, using the freshwater bivalve *Corbicula fluminea*. 8 The organisms were exposed for 96 h at 1 mg  $L^{-1}$  REE in the absence and presence of dissolved organic matter (DOM) reproducing an environmental contamination. Combined analysis of the fate, distribution and effects of REE at tissue and subcellular levels allowed a comprehensive understanding of their behaviour, which would help improving their environmental risk assessment. The bivalves accumulated significant concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb, which were

 decreased in the presence of DOM likely due to the formation of REE-DOM complexes that reduced REE bioavailability. The accumulation of Nd, Gd and Yb differed between tissues, 15 with gills > digestive gland  $\ge$  rest of soft tissues > hemolymph. In the gills and in the digestive gland, Nd, Gd and Yb were mostly (>90 %) distributed among metal sensitive organelles, cellular debris and detoxified metal-rich granules. Gadolinium, Yb and especially Nd decreased lysosome size in the digestive gland and disturbed osmo- and iono-regulation of *C. fluminea* by 19 decreasing Na concentrations in the hemolymph and  $Ca^{2+}$  ATPase activity in the gills. Individual and mixed Nd, Gd and Yb exhibited numerous similarities and some differences in terms of fate, accumulation and biological effects, possibly because they have common abiotic and biotic ligands but different affinities for the latter. In most cases, individual and mixed effects of Nd, Gd, Yb were similar suggesting that additivity approach is suitable for the environmental risk assessment of REE mixtures.

 **Keywords:** lanthanide; mixture; ecotoxicity; bioaccumulation; dissolved organic matter, *Corbicula fluminea*

#### **1. Introduction**

 Rare earth elements (REE) are a group of seventeen metals composed of scandium (Sc), yttrium (Y) and the lanthanide series, which include lanthanum (La), cerium (Ce), praseodymium (Pr), neodymium (Nd), samarium (Sm), europium (Eu), gadolinium (Gd), terbium (Tb), dysprosium (Dy), holmium (Ho), erbium (Er), thulium (Tm), ytterbium (Yb) and lutetium (Lu). These elements share similar physicochemical properties, including electronic structure, oxidation state (+III) and atomic radius size. Based on their molecular weight, REE are divided in three groups: light REE (LREE) from La to Nd; medium REE (MREE) from Sm to Gd and heavy REE (HREE) from Tb to Lu. The ionic radius size of lanthanides is relatively close but it decreases progressively from La to Lu due to a phenomenon called "lanthanide contraction". Due to their specific physicochemical properties, REE production and uses in diverse applications (cutting-edge technologies, renewable energy production, industry, medicine…) are growing, which is expected to continue in the future (Gregoir, 2022). From mining extraction through production and use to e-waste management, REE are released into all compartments of the environment, which raised concerns because of their potential accumulation and toxicity, notably towards aquatic organisms (Gwenzi et al., 2018). Despite the increasing amount of ecotoxicological studies, several knowledge gaps remain to be filled concerning their fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects (Arienzo et al., 2022; Blinova et al., 2020), as the ones described below. It is not clear whether all REE have a common pattern of biological effects. Some authors reported a similar toxicity among REE (Blinova et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2022; Lachaux et al., 2022b; Morel et al., 2021; Tai et al., 2010), which may be related to their similar physicochemical properties that influence their chemical behaviour, bioaccumulation pathway and toxicity mechanisms. On the contrary, other studies showed a higher toxicity or ecotoxicological risk of HREE (González et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2023, 2022, 2020; Manusadžianas et al., 2020) or LREE (Blaise et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2022). Environmental

 risk assessment (ERA) of REE on freshwater ecosystems is limited because ecotoxicological data focuse on standard species and because existing studies are poorly representative of environmental complexity. For instance, exposure media of standard tests are exclusively mineral omitting the ubiquitous dissolved organic matter (DOM), which is likely to interact with REE and thus influence their speciation (Davranche et al., 2017; Tang and Johannesson, 2003), bioaccumulation and toxicity (Lachaux et al., 2022a).

 In the present study, we analyse REE from their distribution in water and organisms until their biological effects at different levels of organization. This integrated approach aims at a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms running REE bioaccumulation and toxicity using the bivalve *Corbicula fluminea*. This widespread filter-feeding organism represents a relevant part of freshwater ecosystems with often high biomass being essential for regulation of phytoplankton density and water depuration among others, which make this species a relevant model organism (Araujo et al., 1993). In addition, it is worldwide distributed allowing for comparisons of biological responses at a global scale (Pigneur et al., 2014). Its filtration activity leads to the bioaccumulation of environmental contaminants to which it is sensitive, making *C. fluminea* especially suitable for biomonitoring and assessing pollutants effects (Guo and Feng, 2018). Its use in this study aimed to provide new sublethal ecotoxicological data of REE on freshwater bivalves and more globally on benthic species, which despite their role in ecosystem processes have been rarely used for regulatory purposes. Thus, *C. fluminea* was exposed to Nd, Gd and Yb, which are representative of LREE, MREE and HREE, respectively. These three REE are of specific concern because of their increasing uses (Nd in permanent magnet), their occurrence in freshwaters (Gd is worldwide distributed) and their lack of ecotoxicological data (Yb is one of the least studied REE) (Blinova et al., 2020; Gregoir, 2022; Trapasso et al., 2021). We have compared their fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects to decipher whether REE represent a uniform group. The three REE have been tested individually  and in mixture, in the absence and presence of DOM to reproduce complex exposure being closer to environmental conditions because REE and DOM occur together in natural freshwaters. In addition, the use of DOM can modify REE speciation, which is important to assess its influence on REE bioaccumulation and toxicity in an environmentally realistic way. In most previous works, REE bioaccumulation was measured in the whole soft tissues of the marine bivalve *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Akagi and Edanami, 2017; Cunha et al., 2022; Freitas et al., 2020b; Henriques et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019). In the present study, Nd, Gd and Yb accumulation was investigated at the tissue (gills, digestive gland, rest of soft tissues, hemolymph) and subcellular (five sub-compartments of the gills and digestive gland) levels. This represents the most exhaustive description of REE distribution in a bivalve species so far. At the same time, a battery of biomarkers was measured in the gills, digestive gland and in the hemolymph in order to analyse energetic reserves and metabolism, osmo- and iono-regulation, nervous function, antitoxic and antioxidant defences and cellular damages in *C. fluminea*.

#### **2. Material and Methods**

#### **2.1. Preparation of test medium, rare earth elements (REE) and dissolved organic**

#### **matter (DOM)**

93 The test medium was a reconstituted water composed of :  $294 \text{ mg } L^{-1}$  CaCl<sub>2</sub>,  $2H_2O$ ; 123 94 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 7H<sub>2</sub>O; 65 mg L<sup>-1</sup> NaHCO<sub>3</sub>; 6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> KCl. It was previously oxygenated with 95 an air pump and the temperature was adjusted to  $9 \pm 1$ °C to stay close to the temperature measured *in situ* during the bivalve sampling. The pH was lowered and adjusted at 7.3 (using HCl 3 %) to enhance REE solubility and exposure while remaining in the range of pH values measured at the bivalve sampling location. In order to limit losses of REE during the experiment due to their possible adsorption on glass walls, the flasks used to prepare the test medium and the test flasks (glass beaker, 600 mL capacity) were previously filled with the test medium and REE during at least 12 h and then emptied (Lachaux et al., 2022a). At the test beginning, the flasks were filled again with the test medium spiked with REE and DOM as described below.

103 REE stock solutions (5 g  $L^{-1}$  REE salt) were prepared by dissolution in MilliQ water of chemicals (purity > 99 %) purchased from Sigma Aldrich, precisely: neodymium nitrate (Nd(NO3)3, 6 H2O), gadolinium chloride (GdCl3, 6 H2O) and ytterbium chloride (YbCl3, 6 H2O). REE exposure concentration was obtained by dilution of the stock solution in the test medium.

 The used DOM had been prepared at Wageningen University, the Netherlands, by purification of local groundwater to be used as drinking water using membrane filtration. Composition of the DOM stock solution in fulvic acids (>80 %), humic acids (>2 %) and 111 hydrophilic acids  $(\approx 10\%)$  was determined using the batch procedure described in van Zomeren 112 and Comans (2007). The tested dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration was 8 mg  $L^{-1}$  C  because it is widely representative of rivers and lakes (Thurman, 1985). This concentration was reached by dilution of the DOM solution in the test medium (Lachaux et al., 2022a).

#### **2.2. Experimental design and conditions**

 *Corbicula fluminea* individuals (2-2.5 cm) were collected in the Meurthe river, in Rosières-aux-Salines (Northeast of France), in February 2019. They were gradually acclimatised to lab conditions (test medium, temperature) and fed with green microalgae (*Raphidocelis subcapitata, Chlorella vulgaris and Scenedesmus subspicatus* at approximately  $1.5 \times 10^7$  cells ind<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) for 10 days.

 Afterwards, the organisms were exposed for 96 h in a beaker filled with 500 mL of test 122 medium spiked with 1 mg  $L^{-1}$  REE. These exposure concentrations and durations are representative of acute REE contamination due to mining (Liang et al., 2014) or industrial (Kulaksız and Bau, 2011) activities. Nd, Gd and Yb were tested individually and in ternary 125 mixture  $(1/3 \text{ mg } L^{-1}$  of each REE) in order to assess the potential interactions between REE. 126 Two different media were tested: in the absence  $(0 \text{ mg } L^{-1}C)$  or presence  $(8 \text{ mg } L^{-1}C)$  of DOM in order to estimate the influence of DOM on REE fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects. Controls (no REE) with and without DOM were included to the experiment in order to verify any direct influence of DOM (alone) on the results because DOM may affect organisms (Steinberg et al., 2008). For each experimental group (C, COM, Nd, NdOM, Gd, GdOM, Yb, YbOM, Mix, MixOM where C = control, Mix = mixture and OM = organic matter =  $8 \text{ mg } L^{-1}$  C), 30 individuals were divided into 6 beakers (5 individuals per beaker).

 The test medium was changed daily to renew dissolved oxygen concentration and ensure semi-static exposure because REE concentrations tend to decrease significantly over time (Blinova et al., 2018; González et al., 2015; Romero-Freire et al., 2019). The pH was monitored 136 for 24 h and confirmed that it was maintained at  $7.3 \pm 0.1$ . The photoperiod was natural

 corresponding to 11 h light / 13 h dark (in February in North East France). The bivalves were not fed during the experiment.

#### **2.3. Analysed physiological functions**

 After 96 h of exposure and depending on biomarkers between six and 12 bivalves (per experimental group) were taken from the six beakers (= six replicates) and dissected to collect the gills, the digestive gland and the rest of soft tissues, which were immediately stored at - 80°C until analyses. REE biological effects were assessed by measuring a battery of biomarkers in the gills and in the digestive gland of the bivalves (Figure 1). The samples were prepared according to Koehlé-Divo et al. (2018). Briefly, the organs were thawed and crushed with metallic beads with a beadbeater (30 sec) in phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.6) supplemented with 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 1 mM L-serine borate mixture as protease inhibitor at 8:1 volume:weight ratio. The preparation was then centrifuged for 5 149 minutes (min) at  $4^{\circ}$ C at 250 g. A part of the obtained supernatant (denoted homogenate) was used to measure protein (PROThom), triglyceride (TRIGLY) and lipid hydroperoxide (LOOH) concentrations, acid phosphatase (ACP) and electron transport system (ETS) activities. The remaining supernatant was firstly centrifuged at 1000 g for 20 min and then at 20000 g for 50 153 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C. The resulting supernatant corresponds to the cytosolic fraction used to measure protein (PROTcyt) and total antioxidant capacity (TAC) concentrations, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), total glutathione peroxidase (GPx), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione-S- transferase (GST) and caspase-3 (CSP-3) activities. These analyses were performed using the automated spectrophotometer analyser Konelab 20 XTi (Thermo Scientific) adapted from the protocols detailed by Garaud et al. (2016) and Bertrand et al. (2016).

#### 2.3.1. Energetic reserves and metabolism and nervous system

 Reserves represented by protein and triglyceride concentrations were measured using Thermo-Scientific Konelab ready-to-use reagents. ETS activity was determined according to the method described by Owens and King (1975), by monitoring formazan production at 480 nm resulting to the reduction of p-iodonitrotetrazolium as final electron acceptor in mitochondrial respiratory chain instead of O2. LDH was determined by monitoring lactate to pyruvate oxidation by LDH, which reduces NAD to NADH, the latter being measured at 340 nm. ETS and LDH are indicators of aerobic and anaerobic metabolism, respectively.

 Cholinesterase (ChE) enzymes catalyse the breakdown of some choline esters (neurotransmitters) after nervous influx, which is essential for the well-functioning of nervous cells. REE are likely to influence nervous influx by replacing calcium (Ca) in the voltage operated Ca channels in nervous cells due the similarities of ionic radii and coordination numbers between REE and Ca (Valcheva-Traykova et al., 2014). This can lead to an inhibition of ChE activity (Das et al., 1988) as previously observed in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to La (Pinto et al., 2019) and Gd (Henriques et al., 2019). Prior to the experiment, we measured the activity of different pseudocholinesterase enzymes (acetylcholinesterase, butyrylthiocholinesterase, propionyl-thiocholinesterase) in *C. fluminea* gills. A higher signal was detected for propionyl-thiocholinesterase (PrSChE) activity, which was then selected for the rest of analyses. PrSChE activity was measured in the absence and presence of several ChE inhibitors (Iso-OMPA, serine, BW) in order to check the specificity of measured ChE activity. PrSChE activity was determined in the gills by photometry according to a protocol adapted from Ellman et al. (1961). Briefly, the gills were thawed and crushed with metallic beads using a bead beater (30 sec) in phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 8). The preparation was centrifuged at 1000 g (20 min) and then at 10000 g (30 min). PrSChE activity was determined in the final supernatant by measuring the absorbance of dithiobisnitrobenzoate (DNTB)-thiocholine  complex after propionylthiocholine cleavage by PrSChE. PrSChE activity was expressed according to protein concentration determined using the method from Bradford (1976), which consists in measuring the absorbance at 595 nm of Coomassie blue complexed to proteins.

### 2.3.2. Osmo- and iono-regulation

 $Na^+ - K^+$  ATPase and plasma membrane  $Ca^{2+}ATP$ ase (PMCA) were measured on total protein extract in the digestive gland and on enriched membrane extracts in gills. Digestive 190 glands were suspended in 6 mL mg<sup>-1</sup> of fresh weight (FW) of Tris buffer (25 mM Tris pH 7.4, 1 mM PMSF) and crushed with metallic beads in a bead beater (30 sec). Homogenates were centrifuged at 2000 g for 10 min at 4°C, and then supernatants were centrifuged at 10000 g for 20 min at 4°C. The S10000 fractions were used to measure straight away protein concentration and ATPase activities. Membrane extracts were done according to the protocol of Santini et al. 195 (2011). Briefly, gills were suspended in 6 mL mg<sup>-1</sup> FW in HEPES buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.2, 250 mM Sucrose, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF) and crushed with metallic beads in a bead beater (30 sec). Gill's homogenate was centrifuged at 2000 g for 10 min at 4°C, then S2000 fraction was centrifuged at 10000 g for 20 min at 4°C and S10000 fraction was ultracentrifuged at 76000 g for 1 h at 4°C. Final pellet containing enriched membrane fraction was resuspended 200 in 4 mL mg<sup>-1</sup> FW of Tris buffer. Biomarkers were measured straight away on the automated chemistry analyser Konelab 20 Xti. Protein concentrations were measured using Thermo- Scientifc Konelab ready-to-use reagent. PMCA activity was measured on a modified protocol 203 from Santini et al. (2011). Membrane fraction  $(6 \mu L)$  were incubated in a final volume of 120 µL for 20 min at 37°C in a buffer containing 25 mM Tris (pH 7.4), 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 205 4 mM Na2-ATP, 0.5 mM NaN<sub>3</sub>, 0.2 mM ouabain and 10 mM of CaCl<sub>2</sub> for PMCA activity or 2 206 mM of EDTA to chelate  $Ca^{2+}$  free ion. The amount of Pi released was quantified at 700 nm by adding 120 µL of a solution containing 560 mM de H2SO4, 8,1 mM ammonium molybdate, 176

 mM FeSO4. A standard curve of Na2HPO<sup>4</sup> dilution is used to assess the phosphate 209 concentration. The enzyme specific activity was expressed in mM Pi mg<sup>-1</sup> protein  $h^{-1}$ .

 $Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity was assessed as the difference of ATP hydrolysis in the presence$  and absence of potassium, according to a modified protocol from Mosher et al. (2012). 212 Membrane fractions (6  $\mu$ L) were incubated at 37°C for 20 min in a final volume of 120  $\mu$ L reaction mix (10 mM HEPES pH 7.2, 50 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 5 mM Na<sup>2</sup> ATP) with and without 10.5 mM KCl. Phosphate released was assessed as described above for PMCA activity. 215 The enzyme specific activity was expressed in  $\mu$ M Pi mg<sup>-1</sup> protein h<sup>-1</sup>.

216 Bivalve hemolymph was sampled using minicaps  $(5 \mu L)$  and stored at -20 $^{\circ}$ C until analyses. Sodium (Na), calcium (Ca), potassium (K) and magnesium (Mg) were quantified by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, iCAP-TQ, ThermoScientific) after hemolymph thawing and dilution in Milli-Q water.

#### 2.3.3. Antioxidant, antitoxic defences and cellular damages

 Several antitoxic defences were analysed to highlight any potential toxic stress induced by REE. GST activity was determined by monitoring, at 340 nm, CNDB decrease resulting to its conjugation with GSH being induced by GST (Habig et al., 1974). ACP was determined by measuring p-nitrophenol complexation at 400-420 nm resulting to 4-nitrophenol phosphate hydrolysis by ACP.

 Metallothionein (MT) concentrations were measured by polarography using the apparatus 227 797 VA Computrace (Metrohm®) based on the protocol from Mouneyrac et al. (1998). Briefly, 228 tissues were ground on ice in two times the volume with the grinding tampon (Trizma<sup>®</sup> base + 229 NaCl, pH 8.6). Then, they were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 55 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C. 350 µL of supernatant (S1) were collected for the metal assay while the unsuspended pellet is frozen with 231 the remaining supernatant. Tubes with S1 were then placed in a water bath for 15 min at  $75^{\circ}$ C  and immediately incubated on ice (between 10 min and 1 h). Samples were then centrifuged for 233 10 min at 13000 rpm,  $4^{\circ}$ C and the supernatant was transferred into a new microtube and frozen until analysis.

 The digestive lysosomal system morphology was analysed by histochemical revelation of β-glucuronidase in unfixed cryostat sections according to Giambérini and Cajaraville (2005). Image analysis was performed on digestive tissue sections (8 µm thick) using a microscope. 238 Four stereological parameters were calculated: surface density  $(S = S_L/V_C)$ , volume density (V 239 =  $V_L/V_C$ ), surface to volume ratio ( $S/V = S_L/V_L$ , interpreted as the inverse of lysosome size) 240 and numerical density  $(N = N_L/V_C)$  of lysosomes, with lower S, V and N refer to surface, 241 volume and number respectively and L, C correspond to lysosomes and cytoplasm, respectively.

 Activities of antioxidant enzymes were measured to decipher any oxidative stress. GPx activity was measured by monitoring NADPH consumption at 340 nm according to Lawrence (2012). SOD activity was determined by monitoring formazan production (inversely 245 proportional to SOD activity). TAC activity was measured by monitoring AzBTS<sup>++</sup> reduction by all antioxidant species including enzymes (GSH reductase, catalase, peroxidase), small molecules (ascorbate, uric acid, GSH, vitamin E…) and proteins (e.g. albumin, transferrin) (Erel, 2004).

 Lipid peroxidation is a cellular damage provoked by oxidative stress. It was measured by 250 monitoring  $Fe^{2+}$  oxidation by lipid hydroperoxides according to Arab and Steghens (2004). CSP-3 activity was determined by measuring the fluorescence (emission 400 nm; excitation 505 nm) of 7-amino-4-trifluoromethylcoumarin (AFC) cleaved from Asp-Glu-Val-Asp (DEVD) by CSP-3. The latter indicates cellular death.

 Some biomarkers were not measured in the gills because of an insufficient biomass. Figure 1 summarizes the design of performed analyses.

#### **2.4. REE concentration measurements and analysis**

 Nd, Gd and Yb were quantified in the test medium and in the bivalves by ICP-MS (Nexion 350x PerkinElmer). Details concerning ICP-MS analyses can be found in Lachaux et al. (2022a).

 For one renewal cycle of the test medium (24h), REE concentrations were measured in 261 water immediately (t0), 1 h (t1), 6 h (t6) and 24 h (t24) after the successive addition of DOM, REE and bivalves. For each experimental group, the test medium of three beakers (replicates) was filtered at 0.45 µm using a mixed cellulose ester filter to dissociate the particulate phase kept on the filter and the dissolved phase representing the filtrate. Determination of measured 265 dissolved  $\langle 0.45 \mu m,$  denoted [REEdiss]) and particulate  $\langle 0.45 \mu m,$  [REEpart]) concentrations of REE is described in Lachaux et al. (2022a). We considered the sum of dissolved and 267 particulate concentrations as the total REE concentration ([REEtot]).

 To investigate REE accumulation and organ distribution in the bivalves, Nd, Gd and Yb were quantified in gills, digestive gland, rest of soft tissues and in the hemolymph by ICP-MS. After 96 h of exposure, the bivalves were depurated for 96 h (Figure 1) in clean water (test medium without REE) in order to remove the potential REE that are weakly bound to the tissues. After dissection, the gills, digestive gland and the rest of soft tissues were immediately stored at -80°C until analysis. Before analysis, the tissues were thawed and digested with 1 mL 274 of HNO<sub>3</sub> 65 % at 80°C.

 In addition, REE were quantified in five subcellular fractions in the gills and the digestive gland. Cellular debris (membranes, tissue fragments), metal rich granules (MRG), organelles (i.e. nuclear, mitochondria, microsomes, lysosomes), heat-sensitive proteins (including a large variety of enzymes) and heat-stable proteins (MT and MT-like proteins) were isolated based on the protocol from Wallace et al. (2003). To do so, each tissue from individual bivalves was  weighed in Eppendorf tubes and grinded (~1:5 heaviest tissue to buffer ratio,) using cold TRIS buffer. The obtained homogenized tissue was first fractionated by centrifugation at 1450 g for 15 min producing a pellet (P1) containing tissue fragments and other cellular debris (e.g. membranes, nuclear, MRG) and a supernatant (S1') containing the cytosol. MRG were isolated from P1 through digestion of tissue fragments with NaOH and centrifugation at 5000 g (P2). The resulting supernatant (S2) contained metal associated with dissolved tissues. The 1450 g supernatants (S1') were collected in special ultracentrifuge tubes and ultracentrifuged at 100 000 g for 1 h to produce a pellet (P3) containing various organelles (i.e. nuclear, mitochondria and microsomes); the 100 000 g supernatant (S3) contained the cytosol which is collected in special ultracentrifuge tubes. The cytosol was then heat-denatured (80°C) for 10-15 min and then ultracentrifuged at 30 000 g for 10 min. The final pellet (P4) contained heat-sensitive proteins ('enzymes'), while the supernatant (S4) contained heat-stable proteins (MT and MT- like proteins). Each fraction was stored at -80°C until measurement. Investigation of subcellular distribution of metals affords to assess the part of accumulated metals that is likely to induce toxicity (Otero-Fariña et al., 2022). Organelles and heat-sensitive proteins (denoted "enzymes") are considered as "metal-sensitive fractions" (MSF) because metal accumulation in these fractions can lead to harmful effects (Wallace et al., 2003). On the contrary, metals accumulated in MRG and heat-stable proteins (denoted "MT") are considered "biologically detoxified metals" (BDM) (Wallace et al., 2003). It is still not clear whether metals accumulated in cellular debris should be included in MSF or BDM fractions because they contain tissue fragments, cell membranes and other cellular components of unknown consequence (Cardon et al., 2019).

 The bioconcentration factor (BCF) was calculated in order to compare bioaccumulation between the different experimental groups using the formula:

$$
303 \tBCF = \frac{[REE]ORG}{[REEdiss]mean} \t(2)
$$

304 with [REE] $_{ORG}$  being the total REE concentration measured in the bivalve tissues (gills + digestive gland + rest of soft tissues).

 REE mass balance was calculated in order to determine the distribution (proportion) of REE among the water (dissolved and particulate phases) and the bivalves as a function of total REE mass measured at the end of the experiment (Lachaux et al., 2022b).

 Recovery of REE was estimated by calculating the ratio between the total mass of REE measured at the end of the experiment and the total mass theoretically introduced at t0. We consider the difference between theoretical (nominal) and real (measured) concentrations as significant if recovery is lower than 80 % or higher than 120 % (ISO, 2012). In that case, exposure concentrations of REE were corrected by determining the geometric mean concentration in accordance with Romero-Freire et al. (2019):

$$
315 \quad [REE] mean = \sqrt{(C_{t0} \times C_{t24})} \tag{1}
$$

316 with  $C_{t0}$  and  $C_{t24}$  being the concentrations measured in the water at the beginning and at the end of medium renewal cycle (24 h), respectively. When using total concentration to calculate the geometric mean, the latter is denoted "[REEtot]mean" and when using dissolved concentration, it refers to "[REEdiss]mean".

#### **2.5. Data analysis**

 Statistical analyses were conducted with R software (version 3.6.1). Data from the different experimental groups were compared performing analysis of variance (AOV) when normality and homoscedasticity conditions were respected (parametric test) otherwise by performing Kruskal-Wallis (KW) test (non-parametric-test) in order to discriminate REE and/or DOM effect on a given variable (biomarker). Tukey HSD (Miller, 1981) and the multiple comparisons test from Siegel and Castellan (1988) (for parametric and non-parametric tests, respectively) were conducted as post-hoc tests to identify exactly which groups differ from each  other. Data normality and homoscedasticity were checked with Shapiro-Wilk and Bartlett tests respectively. In addition, Hedge's g statistic was calculated based on the mean and standard deviation of each variable (biomarker) with the package "metafor" (Viechtbauer, 2010). Effect size represents the magnitude of difference between experimental groups and was thus used as a complement to AOV and KW tests to quantify the difference between groups (Sullivan and Feinn, 2012). Effect sizes were calculated between exposed (Nd, NdOM, Gd, GdOM, Yb, YbOM, Mix, MixOM) and control groups (C, COM) to analyse REE effects respect to the control. Effect sizes were also calculated to compare mixed (Mix, MixOM) and individual 336 effects of Nd, Gd and Yb. A given effect size is considered as very small if  $0 \le g < 0.2$ ; small 337 if  $0.2 \le g \le 0.5$ ; moderate if  $0.5 \le g \le 0.8$ ; large if  $0.8 \le g \le 1.3$ ; very large if  $1.3 \le g$  (Sullivan and Feinn, 2012). The effect size is significant when confidence interval of g does not include 0. Data concerning subcellular distribution of REE was analysed by comparing medians of the different experimental groups and calculating their respective 95 % confidence intervals (CI) (BCa method, R=1000), using bootstrap resampling (Canty and Ripley, 2016). This method is 342 more suitable and accurate for small samples  $(n = 3)$  (Cline, 2019). Differences in median values between groups were considered statistically significant when the 95 % CI excluded zero. Relationship between two variables was evaluated by performing a linear regression test of Pearson (when data normality is respected) otherwise Spearman using the whole data set for 346 each variable ( $n = 60-120$  individuals). A difference was considered as statistically significant in case of a p-value < 0.05. A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to compare biological effects observed in the different experimental groups. The criterion of Kaiser-Meyer-349 Olkin (Kaiser and Rice, 1974) was calculated (KMO =  $0.72$ ) and confirmed that the used dataset was suitable to run factorial analysis. The PCA was based on the mean of biomarkers exhibiting significant differences between experimental groups (in AOV, KW or effect size tests) in order to enhance the variance explained by PCA factors (axis).

#### **3. Results**

#### **3.1. REE in the water**

 REE concentrations measured at 0 h and 1 h were not significantly different. Then, we considered REE concentration at the beginning of the renewal cycle (t0) as the mean of the concentrations measured at 0 h and 1 h.

 The measured concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb in water were significantly lower (<80 %) than nominal ones (cf. section 2.4). Total (dissolved + particulate) concentrations measured at the end of medium renewal cycle (t24) represented less than 80 % of nominal concentrations (Table 1). REE exposure concentrations were thus corrected by calculating the geometric mean of measured concentrations (= REE mean) (cf. section 2.4).

 Total and dissolved concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb (individually and in mixture) decreased by 12-43 % from t0 to t24, whereas particulate concentrations increased by 37-130 % (Figure S1). The three REE (individually and in mixture) were mainly (77-93 %) measured in the dissolved phase and in a lesser extent in the particulate phase (6-20 %) (Figure S2). Total and dissolved concentrations of Gd were significantly lower than those of Nd and Yb. Dissolved concentrations of Yb were significantly higher than those of Nd and Gd whereas particulate Yb was lower than Nd. These results were observed with REE tested both individually (Table 1) and in mixture (Table S1) in the absence and presence of DOM.

 Recovery, total and dissolved concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb tested individually (Table 1) and in mixture (Table S1) were significantly higher in the presence than in the absence of DOM. Particulate concentrations of REE were lower in the presence of DOM respect to in its absence (significant for Nd) (Table 1).

#### **3.2. REE concentrations in** *C. fluminea*

 Significant concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb were measured in the exposed bivalves shows compared to the controls (not exposed to REE) ranging from 58 to 85  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> and from 33 to 58  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> in the absence and presence of DOM, respectively (Table 1), which represent 1-4 % of total REE measured at the end of the experiment (Figure S2). Bioaccumulation of the three REE were significantly lower in the presence of DOM compared to in its absence. Bioconcentration factors of Nd, Gd and Yb tested individually (Table 1) and in mixture (Table S1) were 2-3-fold lower in the presence of DOM.

 In the absence and presence of DOM, Yb bioaccumulation was significantly lower than the one of Nd (Table 1). No significant differences were observed between Nd and Gd uptake. 385 Bioaccumulated concentrations of REE in mixture (73 and 38  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> without and with DOM, respectively) were relatively close to the average of individual accumulations of Nd, Gd and 387 Yb (73 and 48  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> without and with DOM, respectively).

#### **3.3. Tissue and subcellular distribution of REE in** *C. fluminea*

 In the absence of DOM, Nd, Gd and Yb (individually and in mixture) were mostly distributed in the gills (63-74 %), then in the digestive gland (11-15 %), in the rest of soft tissues (14-25 %) and in a lesser extent in the hemolymph (<1 %) (Figure 2; Table 1). Similar results were observed in the presence of DOM. In all studied tissues, the concentrations of the three REE were lower with than without DOM (Figure 2; Table 1).

 In the gills and in the digestive gland, Nd, Gd and Yb (individually and in mixture) were mainly (>90 %) distributed among the organelles, MRG and cellular debris (Figure 3). This was observed in both the absence and presence of DOM. Less than 10 % of REE were accumulated in the enzymes and metallothioneins (MT).

 The proportion of REE in the organelles was lower in the digestive gland compared to the gills whereas REE proportion in MT was increased. The three REE were more accumulated in MT and less in organelles (in the digestive gland) in the presence of DOM than in its absence (significant for Nd). In the presence of DOM, REE were less accumulated in MRG and more in cellular debris than in the absence of DOM (significant for Nd and Yb). Neodymium was significantly less distributed in cellular debris (in the gills and digestive gland), enzymes (gills) and more in MRG (digestive gland) compared to Gd and Yb. Ytterbium (in the absence of DOM) had significantly higher concentrations in MT (in the gills and digestive gland) and enzymes (gills) than Nd and Gd. In the gills, Gd accumulated significantly more in MRG (with and without DOM) and less in organelles (with DOM) than Yb and Nd. No significant differences were observed between Nd, Gd and Yb tested in mixture. REE accumulated more in organelles and less in MRG when tested in mixture than individually (significant for Gd).

#### **3.4.Biological effects of REE and DOM**

 Energetic reserves and metabolism, osmo- and iono-regulation and antitoxic defences were modulated in the bivalves exposed to REE compared to the controls (not exposed to REE) (Figure 4).

 Protein concentrations were lower in the gills of bivalves exposed to Nd and Gd in the presence of DOM. Bivalves exposed to Nd without DOM had lower triglyceride concentrations and an increased LDH activity in the gills. On the contrary, LDH activity was decreased in the bivalves exposed to the mixture, both with and without DOM.

 Neodymium, Gd and Yb, individually and in mixture (with and without DOM), decreased 419 Na concentration in the hemolymph by 14 % in average (Table S2). The latter was negatively correlated to the REE concentrations measured in bivalve tissues and in the organelles of the digestive gland. Concentrations of K, Mg and Ca in the hemolymph were positively correlated 422 to REE concentrations measured in the hemolymph and in the tissues.  $Ca^{2+}ATP$ ase activity was 423  $\,$  3-fold higher in the gills than in the digestive gland and Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity was detected 424 only in the gills.  $Ca^{2+}$  ATPase activity was significantly decreased by 17 % in the gills of the bivalves exposed to Nd compared to the controls.

 GPx activity and MT concentrations were lower in bivalves exposed to Gd without DOM. In the presence of DOM, Nd, Gd and Mix increased or decreased MT concentrations in the gills and in the digestive gland. Metallothionein concentrations were positively correlated to REE concentrations in bivalve tissues. Neodymium, Yb, Mix and to a lesser extent Gd decreased lysosome volume (V) and/or surface (S) in the presence of DOM. Surface to volume ratio of lysosomes (S/V) was significantly higher in the bivalves exposed to Nd and Gd indicating a reduced size of organelles. V and S were positively correlated to the number of lysosomes (N) and negatively correlated to REE concentrations measured in bivalve tissues and in the enzymes and organelles of the digestive gland.

 Neither neurological function (PrSchE), antioxidant defences (except GPx) nor cellular damages were significantly affected in the bivalves exposed for 96 h to Nd, Gd and Yb. All results concerning percentage of biological effect (Table S2), biomarker measurements, statistical (Table S3) and correlation tests (Tables S4-S6) are available in Supplementary material.

440 The principal component analysis (PCA) shows that V, S, S/V of lysosomal system and Na concentration in the hemolymph are the biomarkers that most differentiate control bivalves from the ones exposed to REE, especially to Nd (Figure 5). The gap between Nd and control is 443 enhanced by  $Ca^{2+}$  ATPase activity and TRIGLY concentrations along the horizontal axis that explains most of data variance. The difference between Nd and control in the presence of DOM is also visible along the vertical axis driven by PROT and MT concentrations (Figure 5).

 The difference between mixed and individual effects of Nd, Gd and Yb was very small, small, moderate, large and very large for 25, 32, 21, 14 and 8 % of the 174 calculated effect sizes. Ten percent of the latter were significant corresponding to a lower LDH activity, S/V 449 ratio, MT concentration and higher  $Ca^{2+}ATP$ ase, GPx activities, triglycerides, MT concentrations and lysosome volume (V) in the bivalves exposed to the mixture compared to individual Nd, Gd and Yb (Figure 6).

 The presence of DOM influenced significantly biomarker responses by increasing ETS activity, PROT and Na concentrations and by decreasing GPx activity, S/V, Ca and MT concentrations respect to the absence of DOM (Table S3), which is illustrated by the PCA (Figure 5). Effects of REE on lysosomal system (V, S, V/S) and Na concentrations in the hemolymph (described above) were stronger in the presence of DOM (Figure 4).

#### **4. Discussion**

#### **4.1. REE in the water**

 The concomitant decrease of dissolved and increase of particulate REE in the test medium should be a consequence of REE precipitation as observed in numerous studies (Blinova et al., 2018; González et al., 2015; Romero-Freire et al., 2019). The difference between nominal and measured concentrations is probably related to REE precipitation but also to REE adsorption on glass walls (Crémazy et al., 2014; Weltje, 2002) despite the flask preconditioning (Lachaux et al., 2022a). These observations highlight the relevance to consider measured concentrations to characterize REE exposure and to avoid misinterpretation of observed biological effects (Lachaux et al., 2022b). Precipitation and adsorption of REE could happen due to the high reactivity of trivalent REE and to the low solubility of their complexes with carbonates, phosphates, or hydroxides (Johannesson et al., 1995; Liu and Byrne, 1997).

 The higher dissolved concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb in the presence of DOM was also demonstrated in previous works using similar medium composition (Lachaux et al., 2022a, 2022b). It is explained by REE-DOM complexation that maintain REE in the dissolved/colloidal phase of the water enhancing their solubility (Johannesson et al., 2004; Vukov et al., 2016). The influence of DOM on REE fate in freshwater is described elsewhere (Catrouillet et al., 2019; Gangloff et al., 2014; Marsac et al., 2011, 2010; Sonke and Salters, 2006).

 The three REE showed a common fate in the water balanced by some differences mostly between Nd and Yb, which may be related to their atomic number. The higher dissolved concentration and lower particulate concentration of Yb compared to Nd can be linked to the higher solubility of HREE-carbonates than LREE-carbonate complexes (Elderfield et al., 1990; Sholkovitz, 1995).

#### **4.2. REE concentrations in** *C. fluminea*

 The amount of REE accumulated by the bivalves after 96 h demonstrates that a part of REE was bioavailable despite the potential REE complexation and precipitation, which are known to reduce their bioavailability (González et al., 2015; Romero-Freire et al., 2019). Bioaccumulated concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb determined in this study are relatively close 486 to the concentrations of Gd  $(45 \text{ µg g}^{-1})$  and samarium  $(Sm)$   $(47 \text{ µg g}^{-1})$  measured in the 487 freshwater bivalve, *Dreissena polymorpha*, exposed to 1.25 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of Gd or Sm for 14 days (Hanana et al., 2018, 2017). Similar results were reported in *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, which 489 accumulated 119 µg  $g^{-1}$  (BCF = 142 L kg<sup>-1</sup>) of La after 28 days of exposure at 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> La (Pinto et al., 2019). These results show that bivalves accumulate concentrations of different REE in the same order of magnitude when they are exposed to similar concentration. The similar bioaccumulated concentrations observed after different exposure durations (4, 14 and 28 days) show that bivalves quickly accumulate REE from the beginning of the exposure period. However, it should be noted that the different bivalve species were not exposed in the same conditions (test medium, etc.).

 The presence of DOM mitigated Nd, Gd and Yb (individually and in mixture) uptake due to the formation of REE-DOM complexes, which reduced REE bioavailability, as previously demonstrated with *D. magna* (Lachaux et al., 2022a) and *D. rerio* (Lachaux et al., 2022b). To our knowledge, no other studies investigated the influence of DOM on measured bioaccumulation of REE in animal species.

 The lower bioaccumulation of Yb respect to Nd supports the lower accumulation of HREE compared to LREE and MREE reported in several species during lab experiments (Khan, 2017; Lachaux et al., 2022a; Qiang et al., 1994; Yang et al., 1999) and *in situ* (Amyot et al., 2017; Li et al., 2016; MacMillan et al., 2017). This could be linked to the higher stability of HREE complexes, especially HREE-carbonate complexes (Pourret et al., 2007), which would  decrease HREE bioavailability relative to LREE (Neira et al., 2022). Another hypothesis may imply a different mode of bioaccumulation (e.g. different transporters) of HREE compared to LREE. The investigation of the distribution of Nd, Gd and Yb at tissue and subcellular levels could help for a better understanding of REE internalisation pathway.

#### **4.3. Tissue and subcellular distributions of REE in** *C. fluminea*

 Neodymium, Gd and Yb have a similar organotropism in *C. fluminea* that suggests a common pattern of bioaccumulation among the different REE, which has also been reported in fish (Hao et al., 1996). Neodymium, Gd and Yb were preferentially accumulated in the gills because these organs are directly exposed to the medium *via* filtration activity. Water was the only route of exposure (because bivalves were not fed during the experiment), which enhanced metal accumulation in the gills (Marigómez et al., 2002). Most of studies with bivalve species measured REE accumulation in the whole soft tissues and we found only two that quantified REE in different organs. In the freshwater bivalve, *Hyriopsis cumingii*, all REE were mainly distributed in the gills (Xu et al., 2022) whereas *C. fluminea* and *Dreissena rostriformis bugensis* accumulated higher concentrations of Gd in the digestive gland (Perrat, 2017). However, the different form of Gd tested in the latest study (contrast-agent for magnetic resonance imaging against GdCl3 in the present study) has probably influenced its distribution in bivalves. We have also detected significant concentrations of Nd, Gd and Yb in the rest of soft tissues (including mantle, muscles, foot, siphon, etc.). Among these tissues, REE were mainly located in the mantle of *H. cumingii* (Xu et al., 2022) probably because it is the tissue of shell formation and calcification (Marigómez et al., 2002) where REE are likely to displace Ca due to their similar ionic radius size (0.83-1.03 pm) with Ca (1 pm) (Valcheva-Traykova et al., 2014). REE may be accumulated more precisely in inorganic calcium concretions (carbonates and/ or phosphates) used to store Ca for shell formation. Indeed, the presence of REE has been observed in the shell of *C. fluminea* (Merschel and Bau, 2015). In the present  study, we have observed that REE also occur in the hemolymph of *C. fluminea* being, to our knowledge, the first demonstration of the presence of REE in internal fluids of aquatic animal. Bivalves have an opened circulatory system where the organs are immersed in hemolymph. Metals are transferred from an organ to another and eliminated *via* the hemolymph and circulating cells (Marigómez et al., 2002) explaining the presence of REE in the latter. The occurrence of REE in all studied compartments show that they are dispersed in the whole body of *C. fluminea*.

 At subcellular level, the dominant distribution among the organelles (MSF), MRG (BDM) and cellular debris shared by Nd, Gd and Yb suggests that they have common biotic ligands. It is likely that the three REE do not have the same affinity for these ligands explaining some differences in their distribution. All REE belong to the same category (class "a") from the empirical classification based on the atomic properties and the solution chemistry of metal ions (Nieboer and Richardson, 1980). This classification separates the periodical table into three categories: class "a" elements (REE, Ca, Na, K, Mg etc.) having a higher affinity for O-545 containing ligands  $(OH^{\dagger}, CO3^{2}^{\dagger}, HPO4^{2}^{\dagger}, SO4^{2}^{\dagger}, etc.), class "b" elements (Hg, Cu, Pb, Ag, etc.)$  binding preferentially to S-containing ligands and the third class corresponds to borderline elements (Ni, Zn, Cd, As, etc.). Due to their similar physicochemical properties, an element belonging to class "a" is able to replace another class "a" element from its endogenous binding 549 site (Nieboer and Richardson, 1980). Then, in MRG, REE can substitute  $Ca^{2+}$  due to their similar ionic radius size (Brown et al., 1990; Lansman, 1990; Pałasz and Czekaj, 2000; Valcheva-Traykova et al., 2014). As Nd (0.98 pm) and Gd (0.94 pm) have an ionic radius closer 552 to the one of Ca (1 pm) than Yb (0.87 pm), they may have a greater affinity for  $Ca^{2+}$ -receptors in the MRG, which could explain why they tend to be more accumulated than Yb in MRG causing their depletion in other fractions.

 Subcellular distribution of REE in a bivalve species has never been analysed before. Cardon et al. (2019) showed in the crustacean *D. magna* that yttrium was mostly (>75 %) recovered in the detoxified MRG, 6-18 % in the organelles (mitochondria, lysosomes) and the remaining yttrium was located in cellular debris and MT. The fish, *O. mykiss* exhibited a different distribution with most of yttrium in MSF, among which more than 50 % in the organelles (mitochondria, lysosomes and microsomes) and around 20 % in the fraction relative to enzymes. Less than 15 % of accumulated yttrium were associated to the detoxified MRG and MT and the rest was recovered in cellular debris. It has been demonstrated that *D. magna* accumulates more REE than fish species (Cardon et al., 2019; Lachaux et al., 2022b). Crustaceans may not limit REE uptake as most of accumulated metal can be detoxified whereas fish might regulate REE uptake as low levels of accumulated metal can be toxic. In the present study, the freshwater bivalve exhibited an intermediate pattern between crustacean and fish in terms of REE accumulated concentrations (Lachaux et al., 2022b) and subcellular distribution (Cardon et al., 2019) showing that species have different strategies to handle REE. The analysis of internal distribution of metals is useful for understanding the way they are handle by organisms and for deciphering their potential toxic mechanisms (Otero-Fariña et al., 2022).

**4.4. Biological effects of REE and DOM**

### 4.4.1. REE detoxification

 A relevant part of Nd, Gd and Yb was detoxified being accumulated in MRG (BDM). Freshwater mollusks have numerous and diverse mineral granules mainly composed of carbonates, phosphates, Ca, K and Mg. They perform several functions such as metal detoxification and regulation of pH and ion homeostasis, especially the one of calcium which is an essential element in bivalves (Marigómez et al., 2002). The high accumulation of REE in 578 MRG is probably due to the presence of strong affinity ligands (carbonates, phosphates,  $Ca^{2+}$ receptors).

 The lower accumulation of REE in the organelles (MSF) of the digestive gland compared to the gills is related to the higher detoxification capacity of the digestive gland, which can implement diverse detoxification and elimination mechanisms preventing metal accumulation in MSF (Marigómez et al., 2002). This would explain the higher proportion of REE linked to metallothioneins (MT) in the digestive gland compared to the gills. However, less than 7 % of Nd, Gd and Yb were accumulated in MT, demonstrating that REE have less affinity for thiols groups (contained in MT) than class "b" metals (Marigómez et al., 2002). Metallothionein exhibited a contrasting pattern of response being increased or decreased in the presence of REE. It has been demonstrated that MT induction by *C. fluminea* can be related to metal exposure (Doherty et al., 1987), which is supported by the positive correlation that we observed between MT and REE concentrations. However, Hanana et al. (2017) reported that MT expression in *D. polymorpha* was stimulated at low concentration (50  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) and inhibited at high concentration 592 (1.25 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) of Gd. The authors suggested that MT inhibition was due to a strong interaction of REE (especially HREE and MREE) with GSH of MT, which would prevent GSSG formation and thus MT induction (Hanana et al., 2021).

 In the present study, other defence enzymes (against toxic and oxidative stress) were not induced after 4 days of exposure. After 28 days of exposure, REE enhanced enzymatic defence mechanisms such as GST, SOD, GPx and catalase in *M. galloprovincialis* (Andrade et al., 2023; Freitas et al., 2020b, 2020a; Pinto et al., 2019) and in *D. polymorpha* (Hanana et al., 2018, 2017). These results suggest that REE sequestration in MRG is an early response to REE exposure, which is implemented in bivalves before enzymatic responses. However, it seems that this detoxification process did not prevent the occurrence of some biological effects.

#### 4.4.2. REE effects on osmo- and iono-regulation

 Homeostasis and osmoregulation are tightly regulated functions that maintain the well- functioning of organisms. Even slight deviations of these constants from normal values represent a disturbance. The decrease of hemolymphatic concentrations of Na (dominant cation 606 of osmoregulation) and the decreased  $Ca^{2+}ATP$ ase activity in the gills of exposed bivalves are probably related to the accumulation of Nd, Gd and Yb in the gills. Indeed, gills represent the main organ of osmo- and iono-regulation in aquatic animals (Griffith, 2017), which was 609 illustrated by the higher activities of  $Ca^{2+}$  ATPase and Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup> ATPase measured in the gills compared to the digestive gland. The presence of REE in cell debris suggests that they can be present in cell membranes. As cell membranes contain numerous and diverse transporters (including ion exchangers, cotransporters, ionic channels, ATPase proteins), with which REE may have interacted, it could explain the observed effects on iono- and osmo-regulation. The presence of REE in cells membranes can also be explained by REE binding to phosphate moieties in membrane phospholipids (Nieboer and Richardson, 1980).

616 The decrease of  $Ca^{2+}$  ATPase activity in the gills was statistically significant only for Nd possibly because of its closer ionic radius size with Ca compared to Gd and Yb leading to a 618 stronger interaction of Nd with  $Ca^{2+}$  receptors. The decrease of Na concentration in the hemolymph of exposed bivalves can be also related to the close ionic radius size of REE (0.86- 1.03 pm) with Na (1.02 pm) leading to a disruption of Na receptors. A potential mechanism for 621 the lower Na concentrations in the hemolymph is a downregulation of the  $Na^+K^+$ -ATPase activity, yet our results showed a decrease of these enzymes but it is not statistically significant due to a high data variability.

 Effects of REE on osmo- and iono-regulation deserve more attention because they can lead to a disruption of the metabolism of essential elements (namely Na and Ca) and affect the  well-functioning of the organism as already described in mollusc species exposed to other metals (Griffith, 2017; Mosher et al., 2012; Vercauteren and Blust, 1999). However, such effects have been poorly studied in aquatic animals exposed to REE, thus mechanisms remain to be deciphered as numerous and diverse processes are involved (ion channel, exchanger, carbonic anhydrase and lysosome activities, membrane properties, etc.).

### 4.4.3. Biological effects potentially associated to REE in metal sensitive fraction

 A significant part of Nd, Gd and Yb was accumulated in the metal sensitive fraction relative to organelles (including nuclei, mitochondria, lysosomes, ribosomes), which induce harmful effects in bivalves.

 Lysosomes perform essential functions in cells such as cellular waste digestion and homeostasis. They respond to intra- and extra-cellular stimuli adjusting continuously their number, position and size. The present results indicated a decrease of lysosomal system due to smaller lysosomes, which can be explained by the accumulation of Nd, Gd and Yb in lysosomes (retrieved in the organelle fraction) and their subsequent effects. Indeed, class "a" metals are present in lysosomes of mollusks (Marigómez et al., 2002). REE have possibly interacted with  $Ca^{2+}$  channels located in lysosome membranes, which regulate lysosome size (de Araujo et al., 2020). Thus, interactions of REE with lysosomes should disturb their turnover and especially the lysosome fusion process affecting their well-functioning (de Araujo et al., 2020). Consequently, the fundamental functions of lysosomes including signal transduction, vesicular trafficking, autophagy, exocytosis and membrane reparation (Feng and Yang, 2016) could have been disrupted inducing cellular stress and damages. Lysosome sensitivity to contaminants, including metals, has been described elsewhere (Giamberini, 1993; Regoli, 1992; Yancheva, 2017) but never in aquatic animals exposed to REE.

 The decreased protein concentration could be related to REE accumulation in endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi apparatus or nuclei (retrieved in organelles), which may disturb protein synthesis. Protein decrease by REE has been never reported before contrary to previous studies showing that La and Gd increased protein concentration in *M. galloprovincialis* (Cunha et al., 2022; Henriques et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019) due to the production of enzymatic defences (GST, GPx, SOD, catalase) that do not seem to be activated in the present study.

 Aerobic metabolism (ETS activity located in mitochondria membranes) was not affected but REE modulated anaerobic metabolism by increasing or decreasing LDH activity. An increase of LDH activity could be associated to valve closure in order to limit REE exposure and prevent any stress. An increase of LDH can also indicate cellular and tissue damages (Chan et al., 2013), which would be in line with protein concentration decrease.

#### 4.4.4. REE mixture effects

 In most cases, the biological effects of Nd, Gd and Yb in mixture were similar to individual effects, which is related to their relatively close subcellular distribution when tested individually and in mixture. The higher and lower proportions of individual REE in MRG (BDM) and organelles, respectively, compared to those of REE in mixture, reflect an enhanced detoxification of individual REE, which can be linked to the higher concentrations of Nd, Gd 666 and Yb tested individually (1 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) than in mixture (0.333 mg  $L^{-1}$ ). The very close subcellular distribution of Nd, Gd and Yb in mixture suggests that they have common molecular targets. This would explain the similarity between individual and mixture effects suggesting additive effects of REE in mixture, which have previously been observed on *D. rerio* (Kang et al., 2022), *D. magna* and *R. subcapitata* (Lachaux et al., 2022b).

 Yet, our results show also some differences between individual and mixed effects. The higher GPx activity and MT concentrations indicate an increase of defences and stress in the  bivalves exposed to the mixture compared to individual Gd and Yb, which could mean 674 synergistic effects. On the contrary, the increase of  $Ca^{2+}ATP$ ase activity, S/V ratio, and the decrease of lysosome volume in the bivalve exposed to the mixture compared to individual REE suggest a lower impact of the mixture on osmoregulation and lysosomal system. Moreover, the lowered LDH activity, MT concentration and the higher TRIGLY concentrations observed in the bivalves exposed to the mixture is linked with a lower metal exposure and stress. These results indicate mitigation of harmful effects of REE in mixture, mainly in the presence of DOM, which is notable on the PCA. Antagonist interactions can be caused by a competition between the different REE for binding to common biotic ligands, which is supported by the similar subcellular distribution of Nd, Gd and Yb in mixture. A similar hypothesis had been suggested to explain antagonist effects of REE towards *Hydra vulgaris* (Hanana et al., 2022) and *C. reinhardtii* (Morel et al., 2021).

#### 4.4.5. DOM effects

 Our results on the morphology of the lysosomal system indicate that lysosomes were larger in the presence of DOM suggesting that DOM was taken up by the bivalves and digested by lysosomes. The differences in REE subcellular distribution in the absence and presence of DOM suggest that at least a part of the REE-DOM complexes was accumulated. This would be consistent with the lower accumulation of REE in MRG (in the presence of DOM) because 691 REE-DOM complexes are not likely to bind to carbonates, phosphates and/or  $Ca^{2+}$  receptors as much as free ion REE. REE-DOM complexes have possibly formed ternary complexes in cell membranes (Zhao and Wilkinson, 2015), which would support the higher accumulation of REE in cellular debris (including cell membranes) in the presence of DOM.

 The presence of DOM and its possible uptake by the bivalves had direct effects on measured biomarkers. Digestion of DOM could increase metabolism explaining the higher

 protein concentration and ETS activity in the digestive gland in the presence compared to the absence of DOM. The decrease of GPx activity in the presence of DOM can be related to its capacity to isolate superoxide radicals and other reactive oxygen species outside and inside cells (Cardenas et al., 2011). A similar mechanism could explain MT decrease in the presence of DOM with the capacity of the latter to scavenge metals, which would reduce metal abundance (compared to in the absence of DOM) and thus the concentration of MT. These protective effects of DOM against metal toxicity and oxidative stress can thus be considered as beneficial for the organisms. The scavenging capacity of DOM for REE and other metals may also explain the decrease of Ca concentration in the hemolymph. Complexation between Ca and DOM might decrease Ca bioavailability and uptake. Indeed, the strong affinity of Ca for DOM lead to a competition between Ca and REE for DOM complexation (Kautenburger, 2009). The increase in Na concentration with DOM may be related to DOM interaction with Na or Na receptors. Such an increase in the presence of DOM was also observed in *D. magna* (Glover and Wood, 2005) and *D. rerio* (Al-Reasi, 2012) and has been explained by Na uptake stimulation due to DOM interactions on Na membrane transporters.

 Dissolved organic matter can have an indirect effect on the observed REE effects. The stronger decrease of Na concentration and lysosomal system size observed in bivalves exposed to REE in the presence of DOM is probably due to the increase of lysosome volume and Na concentration in the hemolymph induced by DOM (without REE) rather than an enhancement of REE toxicity directly caused by DOM.

#### **5. Conclusion**

 The combined analysis of REE distribution in the medium, in the organisms and their biological effects at organ and subcellular levels allowed a thorough understanding of the underlying mechanisms of REE accumulation and biological effects. We demonstrated by using  media with and without DOM that medium composition influences REE bioavailability and bioaccumulation, which highlights the relevance to consider speciation of REE in order to understand their bioaccumulation. The detailed analysis of REE accumulation, organotropism and subcellular distribution in the organisms allowed to explain the observed biological effects. The presence of REE in gills, hemolymphand more precisely in cell membranes explain the observed effects on osmo- and iono-regulation, illustrated by the decrease of both Na z concentrations in the hemolymph and  $Ca^{2+}ATP$  as activity in the gills. These effects can affect the metabolism of Na and Ca, which are essential elements in bivalve physiology. Further, REE accumulation in the organelles of the digestive gland is related to the decreased size of lysosomal system, which could disturb lysosome and cell functioning. These early physiological effects of REE have so far been little described and deserve more attention. Cellular and molecular approaches would be consistent to decipher the exact mechanisms of toxicity and the potential impacts on organisms. Concerning REE detoxification, sequestration in MRG appears to be an early process implemented in bivalves.

 Our study on the fate, bioaccumulation and effects of Nd, Gd and Yb revealed several similarities between LREE, MREE and HREE such as 1) a close distribution in water and in 737 organisms (measured concentrations of the three REE did not vary by a factor  $>$  2); 2) their fate and bioaccumulation were similarly affected by the presence of DOM; 3) they accumulate mainly in the gills, MRG, organelles and cellular debris; 4) they induced common biological effects on lysosomes and Na concentration in the hemolymph. These similarities in their fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects suggest that REE share common abiotic and biotic ligands (phosphates, carbonates, hydroxides, Ca receptors, etc.) which is supported by different studies (Blinova et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022; Morel et al., 2021; Tang and Johannesson, 2003; Wood, 1990). Abiotic ligands of REE determine their speciation and thus their bioavailability whereas biotic ligands influence their uptake and internal distribution, which are

 directly linked to their biological targets and subsequent effects. It is likely that Nd, Gd and Yb have different affinities for these ligands, in relation with their physicochemical properties (including their ionic radius size), which could explain the observed differences between the three REE. The relatively close fate, bioaccumulation and biological effects between individual and mixed REE suggest limited interactions between Nd, Gd and Yb. Occasionally, mixture effects were lower than individual effects suggesting antagonism, which could be due to competition between the three REE for their common biotic ligands. These results show that an additivity approach should be appropriately protective in a context of environmental risk assessment of REE mixture.

#### **Acknowledgements**

 We gratefully acknowledge technical assistance from the Pôle de compétences en biologie environnementale and the Pôle de compétences en chimie analytique environnementale, ANATELo, LIEC laboratory, UMR 7360 CNRS – Université de Lorraine. The authors specifically thank Maximilien Beuret, Danièle Pauly and Marie Zaffino for their contributions and Bert-Jan Groenenberg for providing the DOM stock solution.

#### **Funding**

 This work was supported by the French National Research Agency through the ECOTREE project [ANR-16-CE34-0012] and the national program "Investissements d'avenir" [ANR-10- LABX-21-01/RESSOURCES21] with financial support by the ZAM LTSER Moselle for the thesis of Nicolas Lachaux.

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