New insights on the impacts of e-waste towards marine bivalves: The case of the rare earth element Dysprosium

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## **ABSTRACT**

With the technological advance and economic development, the multiplicity and wide variety of applications of electrical and electronic equipment have increased, as well as the amount of end-of-life products (waste of electrical and electronic equipment, WEEE). Accompanying their increasing application there is an increasing risk to aquatic ecosystems and inhabiting organisms. Among the most common elements present in WEEE are rare earth elements (REE) such as Dysprosium (Dy). The present study evaluated the metabolic and oxidative stress responses of *mussels Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to an increasing range of Dy concentrations, after a 28 days experimental period. The results obtained highlighted that Dy was responsible for mussel's metabolic increase associated with glycogen expenditure, activation of antioxidant and biotransformation defenses and cellular damages, with a clear loss of redox balance. Such effects may greatly impact mussel's physiological functions, including reproduction capacity and growth, with implications to population conservation. Overall the present study pointed out the need for more research on the toxic impacts resulting from these emerging pollutants, specially towards marine and estuarine invertebrate species.

## Keywords:

Toxicity; mussels; e-waste; bioaccumulation; oxidative stress; metabolism.

**Capsule:** Dysprosium induced metabolic and oxidative stress alterations in *Mytilus* galloprovincialis, which may impair mussels physiological mechanisms.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The growing demand and use of rare earth elements (REEs) by the industries to produce electric and electronic equipment (EEE) led to enormous amount of e-waste generated annually (49.8 Mt in 2018) and consequently to its discharge into the environment. The disposal of ewaste into the environment is mainly due to the lack of government measures to raise public awareness about e-waste recycling and how to recycle it, to the lack of efficient recycling methodologies, by low yields rates obtained and the tedious and costly steps involved in the separation of the elements to further use (Baldé et al., 2017; European Rare Earths Competency Network (ERECON), 2014; Dutta et al., 2016). E-waste is not biodegradable and accumulates in the environment, in the soil, air, water and aquatic organisms (UNEP et al., 2019; ou, 2013). Although it is estimated that e-waste can represent only 2% of solid waste streams, it can represent up to 70% of the hazardous waste that ends up in landfill (UNEP et al., 2019). There is already an increase of REEs concentration in the superficial waters from the mining activities as a result of increased EEEs production demand. Recent studies revealed an increase of REEs concentration from 1 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (Ouyang et al., 2006) to 3007 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (He et al., 2010) in Pearl River, China – an extensive river system that across several REEs producing zones.

Dysprosium (Dy, Z = 66) is a REE with high economic importance but also with high supply risk (Batinic et al., 2018; Critical Raw Materials - European Commission Report, 2018). For this reason, Dy is identified as a critical element by the EU Commission (Rabe et al., 2017). According to Abrahami et al. (2015), neodymium (Nd), Dy and terbium (Tb) are among the REEs at most supply risk within the next few years. Almost 95% of the total Dy demand is related to its use in magnets (Zapp et al., 2018), due to its high resistance to demagnetization at high temperatures (Kim et al., 2017). Nevertheless, this element is also used in compounds like Dy iodide to be applied in commercial lighting, to produce an intense white light. Moreover, Dy oxide-nickel cermet (composite material made of ceramic and sintered metal) is used in nuclear reactor control rods, to absorb neutrons for a long period without contracting or expanding. Lastly, Dy, when combined with vanadium and other REEs, is used in the production of laser materials (Antić et al., 2016).

The concentration of Dy in natural waters varies from a few ng/L in seawater (0.90 ng/L) (Johannesson et al., 1994; Tai et al., 2010), rain water (1.48 – 1.8 ng/L), throughfall (3.62 ng/L), soil solution (19.0 ng/L) and stream water (46.8 ng/L) (Kabata-Pendias and Mukherjee, 2007) to a few µg/L in surface waters (such as Terengganu River Basin, in Malaysia, with 0.0038-1.93 µg/L) (Sultan and Shazili, 2009) and groundwaters (13.5 µg/L) (Johannesson et al., 1994). Furthermore, the concentration of Dy in contaminated environments can achieve 172 – 186 µg/L (Berkeley Pit lake, a large acidic mining lake in Butte, Montana) (Gammons et al., 2003). A recent review on the spatial concentration of REEs, including Dy, in various water matrices around several continents (including 35 countries) showed that Dy concentrations in groundwater and surface water (both freshwater and seawater) vary from few ng to more than 100 µg/L (Adeel et al., 2019). Nevertheless, it has been estimated that the e-waste generated will increase to 52 Mt in 2021 and to 120 Mt in 2050 (Baldé et al., 2017; UNEP et al., 2019), which will lead to an increase in the concentration of REEs, namely Dy, in the aquatic systems.

Although it is reported the increasing presence of REEs in marine coastal areas, their toxicological understanding, an in particular for Dy, in such aquatic systems is still almost unknown but of increasing concern. Nevertheless, the emergence of Dy in the aguatic systems has raised attention into the scientific community related to its effects in the living organisms. Oral et al. (2017) investigated the effect of REEs on early life cycle stages in Paracentrotus lividus sea urchins, exposing the embryos and sperm of these species to trichloride salts of five REEs, including Dy. The results obtained showed that P. lividus embryos had a decreased mitotic activity and an increased aberration rate. Sperm exposed to these elements showed decrease in fertilization success along with increase in offspring damage. These authors concluded that REE-associated toxicity affected embryogenesis, fertilization, cytogenetic and redox endpoints. In another study, Anaya et al. (2016) evaluated the effect of Dy oxide nanoparticles (nDy<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) on the bacteria Escherichia coli. This nDy<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has several biomedical applications due to its fluorescence and paramagnetic properties contributing to the location, diagnosis and treatment of diseases. During this study fluorescent dyes (Live/Dead) were used to measure the undisturbed cell membrane (UCM) and respirometric assays allowing the measure of remaining respiration percentage (RRP). After bacteria exposure to nDy<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the UCM and RRP decreased to 88% and 43%, respectively, evidencing Dy toxicity, with Dy(III) as

the main contributor to the overall toxicity. Vukov et al. (2016) compared the toxicological effect of the Dy to the freshwater invertebrates *Daphnia pulex* and *Hyalella azteca*. The results revealed that *H. azteca* is 1.4 times more sensitive than *D. pulex*. In this study, it was also verified the toxicity modifying influence of Ca, Na, Mg, pH and dissolved organic matter (DOM) in the presence of Dy with a more sensitive organism, *H. azteca*. It was concluded that additions of Ca and Na, low pH and DOM provided protection of the organisms against Dy toxicity, while on the contrary the addition of Mg increase the toxicity of Dy.

From the literature available it is possible to recognize that no knowledge exists on the toxic effects of Dy towards marine or estuarine bivalves, namely on species with high ecological and economic relevance. Nevertheless, marine coastal systems are frequently final destination of these pollutants putting at risk inhabiting animals and public health in the case of bivalves associated with human consumption. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the biochemical alterations induced in the mussel species Mytilus galloprovincialis, when exposed to an increasing exposure gradient of Dy, resembling low to highly contaminated areas. Although no studies are known on the impacts of Dy in bivalves, and in particular in mussels, recent studies demonstrated the negative impacts of other REEs (e.g. Neodymium, Lanthanum, Gadolinium) towards M. galloprovincialis, including impairments on their metabolic capacity and occurrence of oxidative stress, with alterations on mussels antioxidant capacity and redox balance (Freitas et al., 2020; Henriques et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019). For this reason the present study measured biochemical parameters related with alterations on mussel's metabolic capacity (electron transport system activity), energy reserves content (glycogen content, GLY; total protein content, PROT), oxidative stress (activity of antioxidant and biotransformation enzymes), cellular damage (lipid peroxidation and protein carbonyl levels) and redox balance (ratio between reduced glutathione and oxidized glutathione, GSH/GSSG), factors that may compromise the normal physiological functioning of mussels such as filtration and respiration rates, growth and reproductive capacity.

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## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 Experimental conditions

The Mediterranean mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* was selected as biological model for the present study. Among the most widely used mussel species identified as good bioindicator is *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, with several studies demonstrating the capacity of this species to respond to pollutants accumulation with physiological and biochemical alterations (among others, Andrade et al., 2019; Burgos-Aceves and Faggio, 2017; Coppola et al., 2018a; Henriques et al., 2019; Monteiro et al, 2019; Munari et al., 2018; Pirone et al., 2019; Renault, 2015).

Animals were collected in September 2018, at the Ria de Aveiro Iagoon (Portugal). Mussels with similar size (5.7±0.7 cm length; 3.0±0.4 cm width) were selected to avoid differences in biological responses.

Bivalves were transported from the field to the laboratory where they were placed in aquaria for depuration and acclimation to laboratory conditions for two weeks. During this period, mussels were maintained under constant aeration in different aquaria with artificial seawater (Tropic Marin® SEA SALT) at temperature, pH and salinity values resembling the sampling site conditions ( $18.0 \pm 1.0$  °C;  $8.0 \pm 0.1$ ,  $30 \pm 1$ , respectively). Seawater was renewed every day during the first seven days and then every three days until the end of the acclimation period.

After this period, mussels were distributed in different aquaria (with four aquaria per condition with 3 L of seawater each) and exposed to the following conditions for twenty-eight days: control (CTL, 0 µg L<sup>-1</sup>), 2.5, 5, 10, 20, 40 µg L<sup>-1</sup> of Dy (Dy<sup>3+</sup>). A total of twenty mussels were used per tested concentration (five mussels per aquarium). The selection of the Dy exposure concentrations was based on the levels identified in low to highly contaminated environments (see for review Adeel et al., 2019).

To evaluate the stability of Dy in the water medium a parallel experiment was conducted, in the absence of mussels. For this, glass containers with 500 mL of artificial seawater were spiked with 2.5 and 40 µg L<sup>-1</sup> of Dy (10 containers per concentration) and, during seven days (corresponding to the period between water renewals along the twenty-eight days experimental assay), aliquots of 5 mL were daily collected to assess concentrations of Dy in the water.

During the experimental period (twenty-eight days), water was changed every week and the medium conditions re-established, including Dy concentrations and seawater parameters (temperature  $17 \pm 1.0$  °C, pH  $8.0 \pm 0.1$  and salinity  $30 \pm 1$ ). During the exposure period water medium in each aquarium was continuously aerated with a photoperiod of 12h light:12h dark. Every week, immediately after water renewal, water samples were collected from each aquarium for Dy quantification, to assess real exposure concentrations. During this period, mussels were fed with Algamac protein plus (150,000 cells/animal) three times per week. Mortality was also daily checked, with 100% of survival recorded during all the experimental period.

At the end of the exposure period, mussels were frozen individually with liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C, until homogenization of each individual soft tissue under liquid nitrogen. Each homogenized organism was divided into aliquots (each with 0.5 g fresh weigh, FW) for biomarkers analyses and Dy quantification.

#### 2.2 Dysprosium quantification in water and in mussel tissues

To guarantee that nominal and real concentrations were similar, Dy concentrations in water samples, collected every week from each aquaria immediately after water contamination, were quantified using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), on a Thermo ICP-MS X Series equipped with a Burgener nebulizer after adequate sample dilution and acification to pH <2. Water samples collected daily to evaluate the stability of Dy in seawater (in the absence of mussels), along seven days experimental period, were analysed following the same procedure.

Total Dy concentrations in M. galloprovincialis whole soft tissues (2 individuals per replicate (8 individuals per condition) were also quantified by ICP-MS, after microwave assisted acid digestion. After freeze-drying, mussel samples with 100–200 mg were digested in a microwave, firstly with 2 mL of HNO<sub>3</sub> (70%) at 170  $^{\circ}$ C for 15 min, followed by a second i dentical microwave cycle with 0.5 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30%). After addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the mixture was allowed to stand for 15 min so that the microwave reaction was not as violent. The obtained digests were transferred into 25 mL polyethylene vessels and the volume made up with ultrapure water.

#### 2.3 Biochemical markers

The whole tissue of mussels was used for biomarkers determination. For each biochemical parameter, 0.5 g of FW tissue per organism was used, with 2 individuals per replicate (8 individuals per condition, the same used for Dy quantification). For each condition, metabolic capacity (electron transport system activity, ETS), energy reserves (glycogen content, GLY; total protein content, PROT), antioxidant and biotransformation defences (activities of superoxide dismutase, SOD; catalase, CAT; glutathione S-transferases, GSTs), cellular damage (lipid peroxidation levels, LPO; protein carbonyl levels, PC) and redox balance (ratio between reduced glutathione and oxidized glutathione, GSH/GSSG) markers were assessed. Each sample was performed at least in duplicate (2 sub-samples from each organism), for operator quality control. All measurements were done using a microplate reader. The extraction for each biomarker was performed with specific buffers: phosphate buffer for SOD, CAT, GSTs, PROT, GLY and PC; magnesium sulphate buffer for ETS; trichloroacetic acid buffer for LPO and KPE buffer for GSH/GSSG. Each sample was sonicated for 15 s at 4 °C and centrifuged for 25 min (or 15 min for GSH/GSSG) at 10,000 g (or 3,000 g for ETS). Supernatants were stored at -80 °C. Biomarkers quantifications were performed as described previously by Carregosa et al. (2014), Andrade et al. (2019), Coppola et al. (2019a) and Freitas et al. (2018).

#### Antioxidant defences

SOD activity was determined by the Beauchamp and Fridovich (1971) method after adaptations performed by Carregosa et al. (2014). The standard curve was formed using SOD standards (0.25-60 U/mL). Samples' absorbance was read at 560 nm after 20 min of incubation at room temperature. Results were expressed in U per g FW where one unit (U) represents the quantity of the enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of 1 µmol of substrate per min.

CAT activity was quantified according to the Johansson and Borg (1988) method and the modifications performed by Carregosa et al. (2014). The standard curve was determined using formaldehyde standards (0–150  $\mu$ M). Absorbance was measured at 540 nm. The enzymatic activity was expressed in U per g of FW, where U represents the amount of enzyme that caused the formation of 1.0 nmol formaldehyde per min at 25 °C.

234	GPx activity was quantified following Paglia and Valentine (1967). The absorbance was
235	measured at 340 nm in 10 sec intervals during 5 min and the enzymatic activity was determined
236	using $\epsilon$ = 6.22 mM <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> . The results were expressed as U per g FW, where U represents the
237	amount of enzyme that caused the formation of 1.0 µmol NADPH oxidized per min.
238	
239	Biotransformation defences
240	GSTs activity was quantified following Habig et al. (1974) protocol with some adaptations
241	performed by Carregosa et al. (2014). GSTs activity was measured spectrophotometrically at
242	340nm ( $\epsilon$ = 9.6 mM <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> ). The enzymatic activity was expressed in U per g of FW where U is
243	defined as the amount of enzyme that catalysis the formation of 1 µmol of dinitrophenyl
244	thioether per min.
245	
246	Redox balance
247	GSH and GSSG glutathione contents were measured at 412 nm (Rahman et al., 2007).
248	The ratio GSH/GSSG was determined taking in account the number of thiol equivalents (GSH /
249	2*GSSG).
250	
251	Cellular damage
252	LPO determination was done following the method described by Ohkawa et al. (1979).
253	LPO levels were measured trough the quantification of malondialdehyde (MDA), a by-product of
254	lipid peroxidation. Absorbance was measured at 535 nm and the extinction coefficient of 156
255	mM <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> was used to calculate LPO levels, expressed in nmol of MDA formed per g of FW.
256	The quantification of carbonyl groups in oxidized proteins (PC) was done following the
257	2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazina (DNPH) alkaline method, described by Mesquita et al. (2014).
258	Absorbance was measured at 450 nm and the extinction coefficient of 22,308 M <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> was
259	used to calculated PC levels, which were expressed in nmol per g of FW.
260	
261	Metabolic capacity and energy reserves
262	The ETS activity was measured based on King and Packard (1975) and the modifications
263	performed by De Coen and Janssen (1997). Absorbance was measured during 10 min at 490

nm with intervals of 25 s and the extinction coefficient of 15,900 M<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup> was used to calculate the amount of formazan formed. Results were expressed in nmol per min per g of FW.

For GLY quantification the sulphuric acid method was used, as described by Dubois et al. (1956). Glucose standards were used (0–10 mg/ mL) to produce a calibration curve. Absorbance was measured at 492 nm after incubation during 30 min at room temperature. Results were expressed in mg per g FW.

The PROT content was determined according to the spectrophotometric Biuret method (Robinson and Hogden, 1940). Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was used as standard calibration curve (0–40 mg/mL). Absorbance was read at 540 nm. The results were expressed in mg per g FW.

## 2.4 Integrated biomarker response

The integrated biomarker response (IBR) was calculated according to Beliaeff and Burgeot (2002) aiming to evaluate the general mussel's biochemical response among tested concentrations. All biomarkers determined were used in the calculation of the IBR and they were arranged clockwise in the following order: ETS, GLY, PROT, LPO, PC, GSH/GSSG, SOD, CAT, GPx and GSTs. Values were discussed in terms of a general response given by the final IBR value, where higher values correspond to higher mussels' response.

#### 2.5 Statistical analyses

Results from biochemical analyses and Dy concentrations in mussel's tissues, obtained from each condition, were submitted to statistical hypothesis testing using permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA+add-on in PRIMER v6, Anderson et al., 2008). When significant differences were observed in the main test, pairwise comparisons were performed among conditions. Values of *p* lower than 0.05 were considered as significantly different and identified in the figures with different lowercase letters and *p*-values are presented in a Table format.

The matrix gathering the Dy concentrations in mussels soft tissues and biochemical results per condition were used to calculate the Euclidean distance similarity matrix, which was .

simplified through the calculation of the distance among centroids matrix based on the
concentration and submitted to ordination analysis (Principal Coordinates, PCO). Pearson
correlation vectors of biochemical descriptors (correlation >0.75) were provided as
supplementary variables, which were superimposed on the top of the PCO graph.

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### 3. RESULTS

### 3.1 Dysprosium concentrations in seawater and mussel tissues

Results concerning the stability of Dy in seawater medium showed that, in the absence of mussels, concentrations were maintained along seven days' exposure period, with results showing that the mean $\pm$ STDEV values after exposure to 2.5 and 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy were, respectively, 2.5 $\pm$ 0.1 and 44 $\pm$ 3.2  $\mu$ g/L of Dy. These results clearly demonstrate the stability of Dy during the seven days' exposure period, the interval used between water renewal along the experimental assay.

In what regards to Dy concentrations in seawater from the experimental exposure assay, values obtained in water samples collected immediately after spiking revealed that measured and nominal concentrations were similar, for all the conditions and weeks, validating the Dy spiking process (Table 1).

The results obtained from Dy quantification in mussel's tissues showed significant difference among animals exposed to tested conditions, with increasing Dy levels along the increasing exposure concentration (Table 1).

#### 3.2 Biochemical markers

#### Antioxidant defences

The activity of SOD was significantly lower at control and at 2.5  $\mu$ g/L of Dy in comparison to mussels exposed to higher concentrations (Figure 1A, Table 2). The activity of CAT was significantly higher in mussels exposed to 20 and 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy in comparison to the remaining conditions (Figure 1B, Table 2). The activity of GPx was significantly higher in mussels exposed to 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy in comparison to non-contaminated mussels and the ones exposed to 5.0 and 10  $\mu$ g/L of Dy (Figure 1C, Table 2).

#### Biotransformation defences

The activity of GSTs increased with the increase of Dy exposure concentration, with significantly higher values in mussels exposed to 20 and 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy in comparison to animals under control and exposed to the lowest Dy concentration (Figure 2, Table 2).

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329	Redox balance
330	The GSH/GSSG values were significantly lower in contaminated mussels compared to
331	control ones, with the lowest values in animals exposed to concentrations 2.5 and 5.0 $\mu g/L$ of
332	Dy (Figure 3, Table 2).
333	
334	Cellular damage
335	Levels of LPO were significantly higher in contaminated mussels compared to control
336	ones, with the highest values in mussels exposed to 20 $\mu\text{g/L}$ of Dy. No significant differences
337	were observed among mussels exposed to 2.5, 5.0 and 10 μg/L of Dy (Figure 4A, Table 2). The
338	PC levels increased in mussels exposed to Dy, with significant differences between control and
339	Dy exposed mussels. Although higher PC levels were obtained in animals exposed to 10 $\mu g/L$
340	of Dy, no significant differences were observed among contaminated mussels (Figure 4B, Table
341	2).
342	
343	Metabolic capacity and energy reserves
344	The ETS activity showed no significant differences among conditions, although higher
345	values were observed at the highest Dy exposure concentrations (Figure 5A, Table 2). The GLY
346	content decreased in Dy exposed mussels, with significant differences between the control and
347	mussels exposed to 5, 10, 20 and 40 µg/L of Dy (Figure 5B, Table 2). As for the ETS activity, no
348	significant differences were observed among tested conditions in terms of PROT content,
349	although higher values were noticed at higher Dy concentrations (Figure 5C, Table 2).
350	
351	3.3 Integrated Biomarker Response
352	Integrated Biomarker Response (IBR) values showed the highest score (3.4) for
353	mussels exposed to the highest Dy exposure concentration. The lowest IBR values were
354	observed for mussels exposed to the concentrations 2.5 and 5.0 μg/L of Dy (Table 3).
355	
356	3.4 Principal Coordinates Analysis
357	The Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCO) representation revealed that PCO1 explained

64.2% of the total variation among the data, separating mussels exposed to control and to the

two lowest Dy exposure concentrations (2.5 and 5  $\mu$ g/L of Dy) in the positive side from the mussels exposed to higher concentrations (10, 20 and 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy) in the negative side. PCO2 explained 16.5% of the total variation, separating control (CTL) and the two highest concentrations in the positive side from the remaining conditions in the negative side. LPO, GLY and GSH/GSSG ratio presented a correlation higher than 0.6 with PCO1 positive side, with Dy, ETS, PROT, GSTs, SOD and PC being the factors that best correlate with PCO1 negative side (r>0.7).

## 4. DISCUSSION

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The present study evaluated the toxic impacts of Dy in the mussel *M. galloprovincialis*, evaluating the changes induced by this element in mussels oxidative stress status, metabolic capacity and energetic reserves content.

It has been reported that when in the presence of pollutants bivalves may increase the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS, the singlet oxygen <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, the superoxide anion O<sub>2</sub>, the hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and the hydroxyl radical (HO)), that are naturally produced during several cellular pathways of aerobic metabolism including oxidative phosphorylation, electron transport chains in mitochondria and microsomes, or during the activation of immune mechanisms (Halliwell and Gutteridge, 2007). Under basal conditions the adverse effects of ROS are prevented by a series of antioxidant defence mechanisms, including Phase I antioxidant enzymes, such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) and glutathione peroxidase (GPx). While SOD is responsible for the removal of O<sub>2</sub> with formation H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, CAT and GPx are involved in the reduction of  $H_2O_2$  to  $H_2O$  (Regoli and Giulianni, 2014). The present study revealed that M. galloprovincialis increased the activity of SOD, CAT and GPx enzymes along with Dy increasing exposure gradient, with the highest activities at the highest exposure concentrations. As previously demonstrated, in the presence of pollutants M. galloprovincialis has de capacity to activate antioxidant defence mechanisms, with published data revealing the ability of this species to increase the activity of antioxidant enzymes in the presence of metal(oid)s (Coppola et al., 2018a, 2018b; Freitas et al., 2019b; Monteiro et al, 2019), pharmaceuticals and personal care products (Balbi et al., 2018; Freitas et al., 2019a; Mezzelani et al., 2018; Munari et al., 2018; Pirone et al., 2019), and nanoparticles (Andrade et al., 2019; Barmo et al., 2013; Hull et al., 2013). Most recently is was also shown the capacity of M. galloprovincilais to increase the activity of antioxidant enzymes when exposed to the REEs Gadolinium (Gd) and Lanthanum (La) (Henriques et a., 2019; Pinto et al., 2019). Thus, the present results highlight that mussels exposed to Dy were able to develop a defence strategy to eliminate the excess of ROS produced, in a tentative to avoid cellular damages and loss of redox balance.

Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) are a superfamily of Phase II detoxification enzymes that detoxify both ROS and toxic xenobiotics, through conjugation to reduced glutathione (GSH)

with compounds that contain an electrophilic centre through the formation of a thioether bond between the sulfur atom of GSH and a broad range of substrates. Both GSH content and GSTs enzyme activities are under tight homeostatic control, with higher GSTs activity often associated with low GSH content, indicating loss of cellular redox balance. Under stressful conditions, GSTs activity are induced to achieve efficient protection. In this way, since xenobiotics are a primary source of oxidative stress, GSTs also play an important albeit indirect role in antioxidant defense, by eliminating toxic substances and preventing subsequent deleterious effects. The present study demonstrated the capacity of GSTs to detoxify Dy, with higher activity at higher exposure concentrations. Also previous studies already demonstrated the increased activity of GSTs in mussels exposed to different pollutants, including metal(oid)s (Coppola et al., 2018a, 2018b; Freitas et al., 2019b; Peric and Buric, 2019), drugs (Gonzalez-Rey and Bebianno, 2013; Martin-Diaz et al., 2009) and nanoparticles (Canesi et al., 2010; Ciacci et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2018) and most recently Pinto et al. (2019) and Henriques et al. (2019b) also demonstrated the capacity of this group of enzymes to detoxify other REEs, namely La and Gd, respectively. Thus, previous studies and the presents findings highlight the efficiency of this group of enzymes to detoxify mussels from REE.

Besides antioxidant and biotransformation enzymes, low molecular weight scavengers are also able to neutralize ROS by direct reaction with them. The most abundant cytosolic scavenger is GSH. In particular, GSH can be oxidized to GSSG (oxidized glutathione) by GPx. For this, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> acts also as substrate for GPx, using GSH as electron donor to catalyse the reduction of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O. Thus, when under a stressful condition GSSG content is enhanced above the reducing capacity of glutathione reductase (GRed) and the ratio GSH/GSSG is altered, decreasing along the increasing stress level. For this reason, the ratio GSH/GSSG has been frequently used as an indicator of cellular redox status after exposure to pollutants. The results obtained in the present study also demonstrated that mussels exposed to Dy strongly decreased the ratio GSH/GSSG, a clear sign of cells loss redox homeostasis when in the presence of this REE. Similarly, Coppola et al. (2017) showed a decrease of GSH/GSSG values along the exposure to metals. Other authors showed a similar pattern in bivalves exposed to pharmaceuticals and personal care products (Almeida et al. 2014, 2015; Freitas et al., 2019a). Recently, studies published by Pinto et al. (2019) and Henriques et al. (2019b) also highlighted

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the use of GSH/GSSG ratio as an indicator of redox balance in bivalves exposed to REEs (La and Gd, respectively), with significantly lower values in contaminated animals in comparison to control ones.

When enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant defences are not sufficient to eliminate the excess of ROS these free radicals can easily react with organism's membrane lipids, inducing an alteration of membrane permeability, as well as with proteins, causing oxidative modifications which might result in catalytically less active enzymes or proteins more susceptible to proteolytic degradation. Such events are normally assessed by measuring lipid peroxidation (LPO) and protein carbonylation (PC) in animals. Lipid peroxidation is the oxidative degradation of lipids in cell membranes, resulting in cell damage, being commonly measured by the content of malondialdehyde (MDA), one of the most abundant aldehydes generated during lipid oxidation and also probably the most commonly used as an oxidative stress marker. In the present study M. galloprovincialis showed increased LPO levels in Dy contaminated specimens. Similarly, several other studies used LPO as a marker of the oxidative stress generated by the exposure of bivalves to different pollutants, including in mussels, exposed to classical pollutants as metal(oid)s (among others, Vlahogianni and Valavanidis, 2006; Coppola et al., 2018a), and emerging pollutants, such as pharmaceuticals and personal care products (Gonzalez-Rey and Bebianno, 2011, 2014; Quinn et al., 2011; Teixeira et al., 2017), nanoparticles (Gornati et al., 2016; Gomes et al., 2011, 2014) and the REEs La and Gd (Henriques et al., 2019b; Pinto et al., 2019). Malondialdehyde (MDA) levels also increased in the sea urchin Paracentrotus lividus larvae exposed to Dy (Oral et al., 2017). Protein carbonylation is also one biomarker of oxidative stress, resulting from the oxidation of proteins by ROS and corresponding to the presence of carbonyl groups, such as aldehyde and ketone, in specific amino acid side chains such as lysine, proline, arginine and threonine. The present findings also highlighted the capacity of Dy to induce oxidation of proteins, with higher PC levels in contaminated mussels. Although less used as oxidative stress biomarker in bivalves, and especially in clams and mussels (Andreade et al., 2019; Matozzo et al., 2016; Merad et al., 2016; Parolini et al., 2016), few studies revealed increased PC levels in M. galloprovincialis exposed to the drugs triclosan and diclofenac (Freitas et al., 2019a), cadmium (Dailianis et al., 2009), the pesticides chlorpyrifos and penoxsulam (Patetsini et al., 2012).

Apart from alterations induced by Dy in oxidative stress related biomarkers, the impacts induced in M. galloprovincialis by this REE can be also assessed by evaluating mussel metabolism. For this, the electron transport system (ETS) activity is commonly used as a measure of the potential respiration that could be supported by the enzymatic machinery activity (Cammen et al., 1990). The results obtained in the present study indicate that mitochondrial respiration tended to increase at higher Dy concentrations, probably to fuel up mussels defence mechanisms, with higher ETS activity at higher exposure concentrations (especially at 20 and 40 μg/L of Dy). Accompanying this metabolic enhance the obtained results further demonstrated an increase of the total protein (PROT) content at higher exposure concentrations, which may result from higher production of enzymes, namely antioxidant enzymes, to fight against the stress induced by Dy. As a consequence of increased metabolic capacity and activation of defence mechanisms, bivalves tended to decrease their glycogen (GLY) concentration, evidencing that under Dy exposure conditions mussels may use this energy reserve. In aquatic species, including bivalves, ETS activity has been used also to assess the oxygen demand to evaluate environmental changes (Sokolova et al., 2012), including the ones related with seasonal alterations (Fanslow et al., 2001), pH decrease (De Marchi et al., 2017; Simcic and Brancelj, 2006), and the presence of pollutants (De Marchi et al., 2018; Bielen et al., 2016; Gagné et al., 2016; Duquesne et al., 2004; Hamza-Chaffai et al., 2003). A similar response was already demonstrated by other authors when exposing mussels to different pollutants, with increasing ETS activity and decreasing GLY content along the increasing exposure gradient of different pollutants (Coppola et al., 2017; Freitas et al., 2019a; Monteiro et al., 2019a, 2019b; Pinto et al., 2019).

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Overall the present study clearly demonstrated a dose-dependent response, with mussels showing higher biological impacts at to higher exposure concentrations. Nevertheless, at intermediate exposure concentrations, namely at 5 µg/L of Dy, it seems that mussels were able to avoid injuries by efficiently activating their defence mechanisms (including increase of antioxidant enzymes activities), while at the lowest concentration these strategies were not activated due to low stress levels. At higher concentrations, although enzymes activities increased mussels these defence mechanisms were not enough to avoid injuries, leading to

higher impacts. Such effects were corroborated by IBR values, based on measured biochemical markers, with the highest values at the highest exposure concentration and the lowest value at 5.0 µg/L of Dy. Such results are in accordance with previous studies that already highlighted IBR as a useful tool for quantitative assessment of stress levels in mussels exposed to different pollutants (Pinto et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2017; Beliaeff and Burgeot, 2002). The lowest IBR values obtained at 5 µg/L of Dy may corroborate the hypothesis of an hormesis response, indicating a certain adaptive response of organisms to a moderate stress. Furthermore, PCO analysis applied to Dy concentration levels and biochemical responses, demonstrated a clear distinction between: i) mussels exposed to control and the two lowest Dy concentrations (PCO axis 1, positive side), associated to lower cellular damage and the maintenance of redox balance; ii) and mussels exposed to the three higher Dy concentrations (PCO axis 1, negative side), close associated with higher metabolic capacity, higher antioxidant and biotransformation defences, and higher protein content.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

The present study clearly demonstrated the impacts of Dy in *M. galloprovincialis*, with increasing antioxidant defences, cellular damages and oxidative stress in Dy contaminated mussels. The results obtained further demonstrated that mussels exposed to Dy increased their metabolic capacity, with expenditure of GLY, indicating higher metabolic requirements under Dy contamination. With the increasing use of REE and the associated risks due to the increasing e-wastes resulting from electronic and electric devices, aquatic environments are increasingly endangered by the presence of these hazardous elements. Therefore, the present findings highlight the potential toxic impacts of REEs in marine animals, with oxidative stress and metabolic changes that might compromise mussel's physiological functions, such as respiration and filtration rates, growth, and reproduction. Considering that even at the lowest tested concentrations (2.5 and 5.0  $\mu$ g/L of Dy) significant biochemical impairments were observed, the present study highlights the risk of toxic effects under actual concentration levels, identifying Dy as an hazardous element towards mussel's populations, and potential other bivalve species.

Ac	kn	ow	led	ame	ents

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#### FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. A: Superoxide dismutase activity (SOD); B: Catalase activity (CAT); and C: Glutathione peroxidase activity (GPx), in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dysprosium concentrations (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 and 40 μg/L). Values are mean + standard deviation. Significant differences among concentrations are represented with different letters.

Figure 2. Glutathione S-transferases activity (GSTs), in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dysprosium concentrations (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 and 40 μg/L). Values are mean + standard deviation. Significant differences among concentrations are represented with different letters.

Figure 3. Ratio between reduced (GSH) and oxidized (GSSG) glutathione (GSH/GSSG), in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dysprosium concentrations (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 and 40 μg/L). Values are mean + standard deviation. Significant differences among concentrations are represented with different letters.

Figure 4. Lipid peroxidation levels (LPO); and B: Protein Carbonylation (PC), in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dysprosium concentrations (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 and 40 µg/L). Values are mean + standard deviation. Significant differences among concentrations are represented with different letters.

Figure 5. A: Electron transport system activity (ETS), B: Glycogen content (GLY) and C: Total Protein content (PROT), in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dysprosium concentrations (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 and 40 μg/L). Values are mean + standard deviation. Significant differences among concentrations are represented with different letters.

Figure 6. Centroids ordination diagram (PCO) based on Dy concentrations and biochemical parameters, measured in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* exposed to different Dy concentrations (CTL: control, C1: 2.5; C2: 5; C3: 10; C4: 20; C5: 40 µg L<sup>-1</sup> of Dy). Pearson correlation vectors

are superimposed as supplementary variables, namely biochemical data (r > 0.75): Dy, ETS, GLY, PROT, SOD, GSTs, LPO, PC, GSH/GSSG.



**Table 1-** Dysprosium (Dy) concentrations in water ( $\mu$ g/L), collected immediately after spiking at the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> weeks of exposure (mean values for the four weeks  $\pm$  STDEV) and in mussel's tissues ( $\mu$ g/g dry weight) collected at the end of the experimental period (4<sup>th</sup> week) (mean values of 8 individuals per condition  $\pm$  STDEV), from each condition (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20, 40  $\mu$ g/L of Dy). Different letters denote statistical significance among tested concentrations. Limit of quantification (LOQ) for water samples 10 ng/L; LOQ for tissue samples 0.00125  $\mu$ g/g.

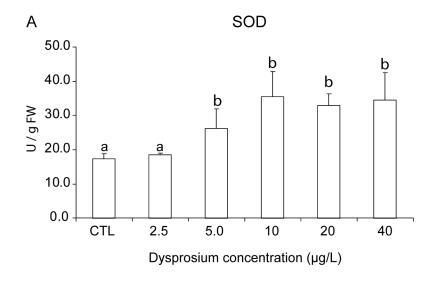
Dy concentrations	Seawater medium	Mussels tissues		
	Weekly, after spiking	End of the 4 <sup>th</sup> week		
CTL	<loq< th=""><th>0.013±0.002°</th></loq<>	0.013±0.002°		
2.5	2.6±0.18	0.036 <sup>b</sup>		
5.0	5.3±0.27	0.080±0.004 <sup>c</sup>		
10	10±1.8	0.147±0.001 <sup>d</sup>		
20	22±4.6	0.226±0.002 <sup>e</sup>		
40	44±7.0	0.484±0.009 <sup>f</sup>		

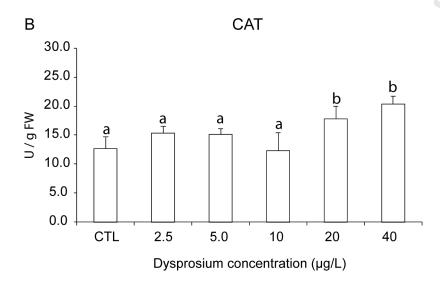
**Table 2-** p-values obtained through pairwise comparisons performed on biochemical results using PERMANOVA routine from the software PRIMER (PERMANOVA+add-on in PRIMER v6. Anderson et al., 2008).

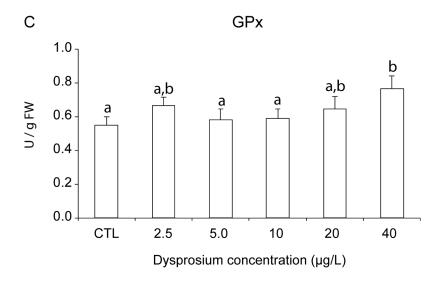
	SOD	CAT	GPx	GSTs	GSH/GSSG	LPO	PC	ETS	GLY	PROT
Main test	0.0496	0.0023	0.0581	0.0005	0.0001	0.0002	0.0023	0.3306	0.0082	0.2168
	Pairwise									
CTL vs 2.5	0.3789	0.9562	0.0814	0.235	0.0001	0.0026	0.0187		0.0834	
CTL vs 5.0	0.0345	0.9299	0.4525	0.2132	0.0002	0.0035	0.0488		0.0285	
CTL vs 10	0.0252	0.3879	0.2624	0.0902	0.0002	0.023	0.008		0.0209	
CTL vs 20	0.0013	0.0063	0.0994	0.0022	0.0001	0.0077	0.0338		0.0369	
CTL vs 40	0.0079	0.019	0.0198	0.0006	0.0002	0.0013	0.0102		0.0016	
2.5 vs 5.0	0.0286	0.8765	0.0699	0.9127	0.2654	0.4141	0.4931		0.9972	
2.5 vs 10	0.0426	0.4258	0.2498	0.1462	0.1502	0.5984	0.0883		0.6492	
2.5 vs 20	0.0004	0.0025	0.2712	0.0201	0.0895	0.0023	0.2534		0.1588	
2.5 vs 40	0.0269	0.0228	0.4814	0.0119	0.1129	0.0158	0.6932		0.4415	
5.0 vs 10	0.4207	0.3843	0.6752	0.1857	0.2893	0.4532	0.0962		0.6397	
5.0 vs 20	0.198	0.0016	0.4728	0.1271	0.0467	0.0005	0.1428		0.138	
5.0 vs 40	0.2083	0.0155	0.0497	0.1143	0.1172	0.027	0.2207		0.4174	
10 vs 20	0.8913	0.0359	0.8013	0.2559	0.1355	0.0386	0.0743		0.097	
10 vs 40	0.7579	0.0008	0.0224	0.3963	0.083	0.001	0.0639		0.9353	
20 vs 40	0.7438	0.3842	0.2256	0.4877	0.3451	0.0317	0.3408		0.0912	

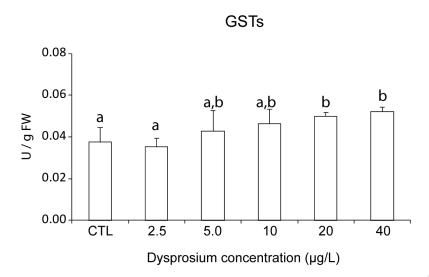
Table 3- Integrated Biomarker Response (IBR) obtained for each condition (CTL-0, 2.5, 5.0, 10, 20, 40 μg/L of Dy).

Dy exposure conditions μg/L	IBR values
CTL	-
2.5	1.1
5.0	0.22
10	2.1
20	1.9
40	3.4

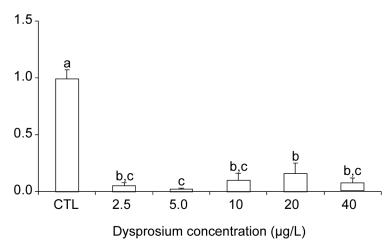


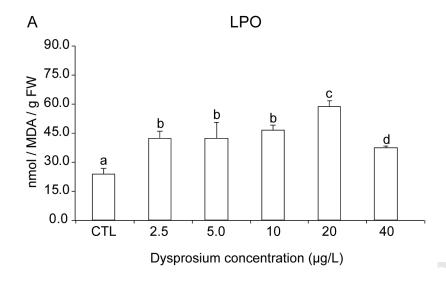


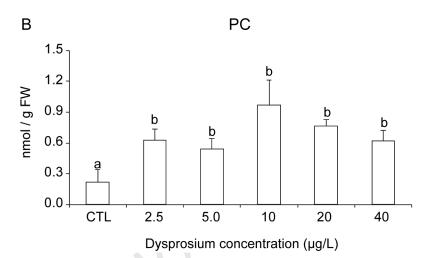


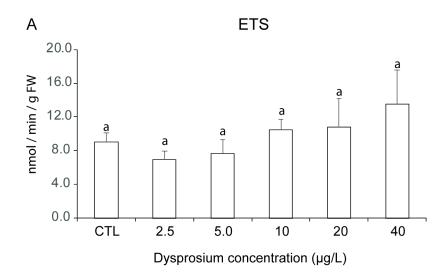


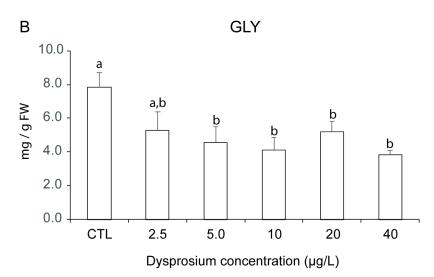
# GSH/GSSG

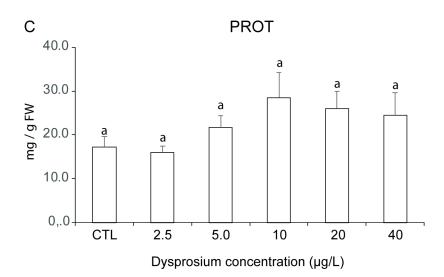


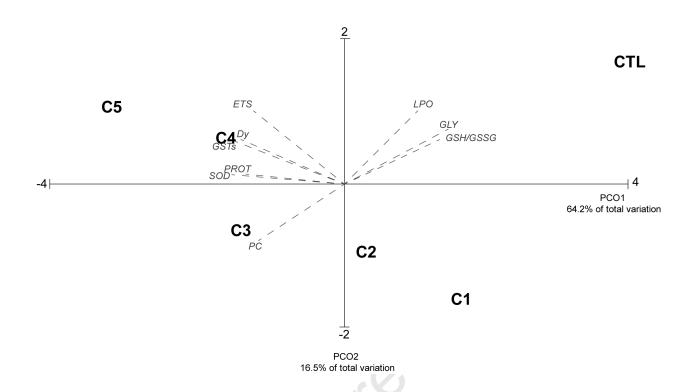












- Mytilus galloprovincialis bioaccumulated Dysprosium
- Mussels exposed to Dy decreased their metabolic capacity
- Contaminated mussels increased antioxidant and biotransformation defences
- Lipid peroxidation occurred in contaminated mussels
- Oxidative stress was observed in mussels exposed to Dy

Rosa Freitas and Eduarda Pereira are supervisors of the students that co-authored this ms (Silvana Costa, Celso Cardoso, Tiago Morais, Pedro Moleiro, André F. D. Lima, Márcio Soares, Samuel Figueiredo, Tiago L. Águeda, Pedro Rocha, Gonçalo Amador). Students did the exposure assay (for 28 days under controlled conditions), performed all methods and analyses for Nd quantification and biomarkers determination.

Rosa Freitas and Eduarda Pereira gave the idea of this study to the students that accepted this challenge and performed all the analyses during their last year of their bachelor degree. Eduarda Pereira is the responsible for the laboratory where Nd quantification was done. Rosa Freitas and Amadeu Soares are the responsible persons for the labs where biomarkers were determined. Eduarda Pereira, Rosa Freitas and Amadeu Soares funded this study.

### **Conflict of Interest**

The Authors whose names are listed immediately below certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affi liations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.