



HAL
open science

Comparative study of domoic acid accumulation, isomer content and associated digestive subcellular processes in five marine invertebrate species

José Luis García-Corona, Hélène Hegaret, Malwenn Lassudrie, Amélie Derrien, Aouregan Terre-Terrillon, Tomé Delaire, Caroline Fabioux

► To cite this version:

José Luis García-Corona, Hélène Hegaret, Malwenn Lassudrie, Amélie Derrien, Aouregan Terre-Terrillon, et al. Comparative study of domoic acid accumulation, isomer content and associated digestive subcellular processes in five marine invertebrate species. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 2024, 266, pp.106793. 10.1016/j.aquatox.2023.106793. hal-04347002

HAL Id: hal-04347002

<https://hal.univ-brest.fr/hal-04347002>

Submitted on 15 Dec 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 **Comparative study of domoic acid accumulation, isomer content and associated**
2 **digestive subcellular processes in five marine invertebrate species**

3

4 José Luis García-Corona¹, Hélène Hegaret¹, Malwenn Lassudrie², Amélie Derrien², Aouregan
5 Terre-Terrillon², Tomé Delaire¹, Caroline Fabioux^{1*}

6

7 ¹Laboratoire des Sciences de l'Environnement Marin, UMR 6539 LEMAR
8 (UBO/CNRS/IRD/Ifremer). Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer, rue Dumont d'Urville,
9 Technopôle Brest-Iroise, 29280 Plouzané, France.

10

11 ²Ifremer, LITTORAL LER BO, Station de Biologie Marine, Place de la Croix, BP 40537,
12 29900 Concarneau Cedex, France.

13

14 *Corresponding author: Caroline Fabioux

15

16 Laboratoire des Sciences de l'Environnement Marin, UMR 6539
17 (CNRS/UBO/IFREMER/IRD). Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer, Technopôle Brest-
18 Iroise 29280, Plouzané, France.

19

20 e-mail: caroline.fabioux@univ-brest.fr

21

22 **Abstract**

23 Despite the deleterious effects of the phycotoxin domoic acid (DA) on human health, and the
24 permanent threat of blooms of the toxic *Pseudo-nitzschia* sp. over commercially important
25 fishery-resources, knowledge regarding the physiological mechanisms behind the profound
26 differences in accumulation and depuration of this toxin in contaminated invertebrates remain
27 very scarce. In this work, a comparative analysis of accumulation, isomer content, and
28 subcellular localization of DA in different invertebrate species was performed. Samples of
29 scallops *Pecten maximus* and *Aequipecten opercularis*, clams *Donax trunculus*, slipper snails
30 *Crepidula fornicata*, and sea squirts *Asterocarpa* sp. were collected after blooms of the same
31 concentration of toxic *Pseudo-nitzschia australis*. Differences ($P < 0.05$) in DA accumulation
32 were found, wherein *P. maximus* showed up to 20-fold more DA in the digestive gland than
33 the other species. Similar profiles of DA isomers were found between *P. maximus* and *A.*
34 *opercularis*, whereas *C. fornicata* was the species with the highest biotransformation rate
35 (~10%) and *D. trunculus* the lowest (~4%). DA localization by immunohistochemical
36 analysis revealed differences ($P < 0.05$) between species: in *P. maximus*, DA was detected
37 mainly within autophagosome-like vesicles in the cytoplasm of digestive cells, while in *A.*
38 *opercularis* and *C. fornicata* significant DA immunoreactivity was found in post-autophagy
39 residual bodies. A slight DA staining was found free within the cytoplasm of the digestive
40 cells of *D. trunculus* and *Asterocarpa* sp. The Principal Component Analysis revealed
41 similarities between pectinids, and a clear distinction of the rest of the species based on their
42 capacities to accumulate, biotransform, and distribute the toxin within their tissues. These
43 findings contribute to improve the understanding of the inter-specific differences concerning
44 the contamination-decontamination kinetics and the fate of DA in invertebrate species.

45 **Keywords:** domoic acid, shellfish, DA isomers, autophagy, interspecific differences.

46 1. Introduction

47 Domoic acid (DA) is an extremely dangerous phycotoxin responsible of the illness referred as
48 amnesic shellfish poisoning (ASP) syndrome in humans (Perl *et al.*, 1990, Pulido, 2008; La
49 Barre *et al.*, 2014). This highly potent neuroexcitatory amino acid is naturally produced by
50 some diatoms of the genus *Pseudo-nitzschia* (Bates *et al.*, 1998, 2018), wherein the species
51 *Pseudo-nitzschia australis* is one of the most toxigenic (Lelong *et al.*, 2012; La Barre *et al.*,
52 2014). The recurrent presence of toxic blooms of *Pseudo-nitzschia* sp., and the subsequent
53 production of DA, frequently affect fishery resources on the North Atlantic coasts of France.
54 Indeed, suspension-feeding invertebrates are capable of ingesting toxic *Pseudo-nitzschia* cells
55 leading to high amounts of DA accumulated in their tissues (Basti *et al.*, 2018; Dusek
56 Jennings *et al.*, 2020) seriously threatening human health through contaminated seafood
57 consumption (Pulido, 2008; La Barre *et al.*, 2014). Over the last two decades, these blooms
58 have caused numerous and persistent harvest closures for some economically important
59 species (Amzil *et al.*, 2001; Husson *et al.*, 2016).

60 Notwithstanding, profound inter-specific variability in the toxicokinetics of accumulation and
61 depuration rates of DA burdens have been reported between several invertebrate species in the
62 same affected area (Costa *et al.*, 2004, 2005a,b; Bogan *et al.*, 2007a,b,c; Lage *et al.*, 2012;
63 Ben haddouch *et al.*, 2016; Dusek Jennings *et al.*, 2020; Blanco *et al.*, 2021; Kvirgić *et al.*,
64 2022). Thus, invertebrates have been broadly classified as “fast” or “slow” DA-depurators
65 (Blanco *et al.*, 2002a,b; Basti *et al.*, 2018). Larger scallops, such as King scallops *Pecten*
66 *maximus* (Blanco *et al.*, 2002a; García-Corona *et al.*, 2022) and giant scallops *Placopecten*
67 *magellanicus* (Gilgan, 1990; Haya *et al.*, 1991), some big-clams, such as razor clams *Siliqua*
68 *patula* (Horner *et al.*, 1993; Dusek Jennings *et al.*, 2020), and some cephalopod mollusk such
69 as *Octopus vulgaris* (Costa *et al.*, 2004) and *Eledone moschata* (Costa *et al.*, 2005b) as well as
70 the common cuttlefish *Sepia officinalis* (Costa *et al.*, 2005a; Ben haddouch *et al.*, 2015) are
71 capable of accumulating high amounts of DA, principally in the digestive gland, and require
72 from many months to a couple of years to depurate the toxin from their tissues. Therefore,
73 these species have been considered as slow DA-depurators. Notwithstanding, during *Pseudo-*
74 *nitzschia* outbreaks, the king scallop *P. maximus* is usually amongst the most contaminated
75 species (James *et al.*, 2005; Blanco *et al.*, 2002a, 2021). Levels of DA exceeding up to 5-fold
76 the European regulatory limit of 20 mg kg⁻¹ are not unusual in *P. maximus* (Blanco *et*
77 *al.*, 2006; Bogan *et al.*, 2007a,b; García-Corona *et al.*, 2022). Conversely, mussels (Novaczek
78 *et al.*, 1992 ; Blanco *et al.*, 2002b; Mafra *et al.*, 2010), and even smaller scallops, such as

79 *Argopecten purpuratus* (Álvarez *et al.*, 2020) are known as fast DA-depurators since they can
80 depurate up to 90 % of total DA burdens over hours to days. These species-specific
81 differences in DA accumulation-depuration represent a real issue for fishery economy and
82 management after ASP-blooms. Thus, understanding the physiological mechanisms behind
83 this phenomenon is of high interest.

84 Mauriz and Blanco (2010), as well as Lage *et al.* (2012) found that nearly 90% of total DA
85 accumulated in *P. maximus* and *O. vulgaris*, respectively, was free in a soluble form in the
86 cytoplasm of the digestive cells. García-Corona *et al.* (2022) observed, using an
87 immunohistochemical subcellular localization of DA in *P. maximus*, that DA is trapped into
88 small-spherical membrane-bound vesicles localized in the cytoplasm of digestive cells,
89 suggesting that autophagy could be one of the potential physiological mechanisms behind the
90 long retention of a part of DA in this species. Nevertheless, to date, the immunohistochemical
91 (IHC) localization of DA has not been applied to any other invertebrate species contaminated
92 with DA, which greatly hinders the comparison of the subcellular mechanisms involved in the
93 accumulation and retention of this toxin between affected species. Autophagy is a highly
94 regulated and dynamic “self-eating” catabolic system related to the intracellular ingestion and
95 digestion (Cuervo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2019; Zhao *et al.*, 2021). Through autophagy the
96 lysosomes receive autophagosomic vesicles (autophagosomes) containing cytoplasmic
97 cellular components, such as macromolecules, damaged or misfolded proteins, and entire
98 organelles, as well as extracellular-derived molecular cargo from endocytosis and
99 phagocytosis for degradation, digestion, recycling, or excretion (Klionsky *et al.*, 2014;
100 McMillan, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2019). These distinctive capabilities establish an essential role
101 of autophagy in maintaining metabolic homeostasis and cellular health in bivalves (Balbi *et al.*
102 *et al.*, 2018; Picot *et al.*, 2019; Rodríguez-Jaramillo *et al.*, 2022).

103 Not only untransformed DA, but also some structural isomers of the toxin (*i.e.* isoA, isoD,
104 isoE, and epi-DA) are frequently detected in seafood during ASP-monitoring. The
105 concentrations of DA-isomers commonly range from 0.5 to ~20% of total DA burdens
106 (Wright *et al.*, 1990a; Costa *et al.*, 2005; Takata *et al.*, 2009; Zheng *et al.*, 2022). Despite
107 some studies pointing out some degree of species-specific biotransformation of DA in
108 bivalves (Wright *et al.*, 1990b; Blanco *et al.*, 2010), fish and shellfish (Vale and Sampayo,
109 2001), and cephalopods (Costa *et al.*, 2005), no work has ever compared the
110 biotransformation profiles of DA against the subcellular localization of this toxin in
111 contaminated invertebrates. This information could be useful to elucidate differences in DA

112 uptake and allocation, as well as the potential implication of subcellular mechanisms on
113 depuration of this toxin between species.

114 This study compared biotransformation and subcellular localization of DA in five invertebrate
115 species simultaneously exposed to natural toxic *P. australis* blooms to answer the question:
116 How do invertebrate species differ in their ability to accumulate, process, and allocate DA in
117 their tissues?

118

119 **2. Materials and methods**

120 **2.1. Sample collection and *Pseudo-nitzschia australis* bloom-associated environmental** 121 **data**

122 A total of 38 invertebrate samples were collected in 2021 in the northwest coast of Brittany,
123 France. The samples consisted in clams *Donax trunculus* (n =11) collected on the 30th of
124 March in the Bay of Douarnenez, and scallops *P. maximus* (n =5), *A. opercularis* (n =10),
125 slipper snail *Crepidula fornicata* (n =7), and sea squirt *Asterocarpa sp.* (n =5) collected on the
126 8th of April in Camaret-sur-Mer (Fig. 1). Animals were collected eight days after blooms of
127 similar intensity of the DA-producing *P. australis* according to the French national
128 phytoplankton monitoring network (French Observation and Monitoring program for
129 Phytoplankton and Hydrology in coastal waters, REPHY) in both sampling sites ($[2.6 \times 10^5$
130 $\text{cell.L}^{-1}]$ on March 23, 2021 in the Bay of Douarnenez), and $[1.1 \times 10^5 \text{ cell.L}^{-1}]$ on March 30,
131 2021 (in Camaret-sur-Mer), respectively, <https://bulletinrephytox.fr/accueil>) (Fig 1). Once at
132 the laboratory, the digestive gland (DG) of the scallops (*P. maximus* and *A. opercularis*) was
133 carefully dissected from the rest of the tissues, and subsequently sectioned in two halves. For
134 the rest of the species with diffuse visceral mass (*C. fornicata*, *D. trunculus*, and *Asterocarpa*
135 *sp.*) the soft body (*i.e.* total flesh) was divided into two equal portions at the mid visceral
136 level, including a section of the DG on each. For each individual, one of these DG/visceral
137 sections was fixed in Davidson's solution (Kim *et al.*, 2006) for histology, and the second
138 DG/visceral sections section was stored at -20 °C for toxin analysis.

139 **2.2. Toxin quantification and DA-isomer analysis by liquid chromatography-tandem** 140 **mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)**

141 Since the DG accumulates most of DA (Mauriz and Blanco, 2010), only this tissue was
142 considered for toxin analysis in this work. For the non-pectinid species, the DG was separated

143 from the rest of the visceral mass once the tissues were frozen. DA was extracted from the
144 DG following the procedure described by Quilliam *et al.*, (1989). Samples were homogenized
145 from 200 ± 10 mg of frozen DG in 1 mL of 50% MeOH/H₂O using a Fastprep-24 5G system
146 (MP Biomedicals, Sta. Ana, CA, USA). The extract was clarified by centrifugation at 19,000
147 $\times g$ at 4 °C for 10 min and the supernatant was isolated, filtered through a 0.2 μ m nylon
148 centrifugal filter (VWR International, Radnor, PA, USA), and stored at -20 °C until analysis.

149 The quantification of total DA (tDA = ensemble of all DA isomers) and each isomer of the
150 toxin in the DG was carried out by LC-MS/MS according to Ayache *et al.* (2019) with
151 modifications, using a Shimadzu UFLCxR system coupled to a quadruple hybrid mass
152 spectrometer API400Q-Trap (Sciex, Concord, ON, Canada) equipped with a heated
153 electrospray ionization (ESI) source. Chromatographic separation was carried out on a
154 reversed-phase column Phenomenex Luna Omega C18 (150 \times 2.1 mm, 3 μ m, Phenomenex,
155 Torrance, CA, USA). The separation was carried out using a mobile phase consisting of
156 aqueous eluent A (100% H₂O + 0.1% H-COOH) and organic eluent B (95% CH₃CN/ 5% H₂O
157 + 0.1% H-COOH). The run started following a gradient from A to B as follows: 5% at min 0,
158 18.6% at 17 min, 95% at 17.5 min, 95% at 19.5 min, 5% at 20 min, and 5% at 25 min. The
159 flow rate was 200 μ L.min⁻¹ and the injection volume was 5 μ L. The column temperature was
160 maintained at 30 °C.

161 The ESI interface was operated with a curtain gas of 20 psi, temperature of 550 °C, gas1 55
162 psi, gas2 60psi, and an ion spray voltage of 5500 V. The detection of DA was achieved by
163 multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) in positive ion mode. The transition 312.1 > 266.1
164 (collision energy = 22 V) was used for quantification and 312.1 > 161.1 (collision energy =
165 33 V) for confirmation. The quantification was performed relative to the DA standard
166 (National Research Council Canada, NRCC) with a 6-point calibration curve. The Limit of
167 Quantification (LOQ) (S/N = 10) and the Limit of Detection (LOD) (S/N = 3) of the method
168 were 0.25 and 0.08 ng DA mL⁻¹, respectively, which corresponded to 1.25 and 0.4 ng DA g⁻¹
169 in tissue.

170 **2.3. Immunodetection of DA and quantitative histology**

171 Tissue samples fixed in Davidson's solution were dehydrated in ethanol series of progressive
172 concentrations (70%, 80%, 95%, and 100%), cleared in xylene, and embedded in paraffin
173 (Paraplast Plus, Leica Bio-systems, Richmond, IL, USA). Paraffin blocks were cut in 4- μ m-
174 thick sections using a rotary microtome (Leica RM 2155, Leica Microsystems) and sections

175 mounted on polylysine-coated glass slides (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). A series of
176 three consecutive sections was performed for each sample, which were used for (i)
177 immunohistochemical detection of DA, (ii) multichromic staining, and (iii) hematoxylin/eosin
178 staining, as described below. Sections were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated in ethanol
179 series of regressive concentrations before staining.

180 In order to detect the presence of DA at the subcellular level in the tissue sections, an
181 immunohistochemical DA labeling technique was applied following the procedure described
182 in García-Corona *et al.* (2022) on the first slide of each sample. Briefly, tissue sections were
183 incubated overnight with a Goat polyclonal anti-DA primary antibody (0.01 mg.mL^{-1} ,
184 Eurofins Abraxis[®], Warminster, PA, USA) at 4°C , and the next day the slides were incubated
185 at 37°C for 2h with an HRP sharped IgG Rabbit anti-Goat secondary antibody (0.001 mg.mL^{-1} ,
186 abcam[®], Cambridge, UK). Then, samples were washed and revealed with diaminobenzidine
187 (DAB+ Chromogen Substrate Kit, abcam[®], Cambridge, UK) for 1 h in darkness at room
188 temperature and counterstained with Harry's hematoxylin.

189 The second slide from each sample was stained with a multichromic procedure (Costa and
190 Costa, 2012). This technique consists of a combination of Alcian Blue and Periodic Acid–
191 Schiff's for the demonstration of acid mucopolysaccharides and neutral glycoconjugates, in
192 blue and magenta tones, respectively, Hematoxylin blueing for nuclear materials, and Picric
193 Acid to identify proteins in yellow hues.

194 The last set of tissue sections was stained with Hematoxylin–Eosin as reference (Kim *et al.*,
195 2006). The slides were examined under a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 light microscope.

196 For quantitative histological analysis, five randomly selected regions ($63\times$; $\sim 1.3 \text{ mm}^2$) from
197 each DG section treated for immunohistochemical DA detection, multichromic, and
198 hematoxylin-eosin staining were digitized at high resolution (600 dpi). A total of 570 images
199 (*i.e.* 114 micrographs by species) were used to obtain the following data: (a) DA chromogenic
200 signal (DAcs) corresponds to the coverage area, in pixels, occupied by the positive anti-DA
201 staining. This was manually calculated using an operator-driven digital image analysis system
202 (Image Pro Plus software v. 4.5, Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD, USA) (Gómez-
203 Robles *et al.*, 2005). The area reported as the DA chromogenic signal was calculated as $\text{DAcs} =$
204 $(\text{DA chromogenic signal area} / \text{total area occupied by the DG on the analyzed region of the}$
205 $\text{slide}) \times 100$. Since almost all the DA chromogenic signal detected in DG is trapped in
206 membrane-bound vesicles present in the cytoplasm of digestive cells (García-Corona *et al.*,

207 2022), the (b) Total autophagy (Ta) and total DA autophagy (DAa) were calculated by
208 counting the total number of autophagosome-like vesicles, and the number of
209 autophagosome-like vesicles with DA chromogenic signal, respectively, on each digitized
210 image. A fraction of the DA chromogenic signal is also observed in post-autophagic residual
211 bodies within the digestive cells (García-Corona *et al.*, 2022), thus the frequencies of (c) Total
212 residual bodies (Trb) and DA residual bodies (DArb) were assessed as the total number of
213 residual bodies and the total number of residual bodies with DA chromogenic signal,
214 respectively, on each digitized image. Finally, (d) Cell vacuolization (Vac), measured as an
215 indicator of potential histopathologies related to DA accumulation in the DG, represents the
216 total number of vacuoles within the digestive cells of each invertebrate species on each
217 digitized image.

218

219 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

220 All statistical analyses were performed in the R computing environment (R v. 4.2.2, R Core
221 Team, 2022). *A priori* Lilliefors (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) and Bartlett tests were applied to
222 confirm the normality of frequencies and homogeneity of variances of the residuals of the
223 data, respectively (Hector, 2015). All data were transformed (\log , $1/\chi$, or $\sqrt{\chi}$) prior to analysis
224 to meet a priori assumptions. The percentage-expressed values were also arcsine ($\arcsine \sqrt{P}$)
225 transformed (Zar, 2010), but all data are reported untransformed as the means \pm standard
226 errors (SE). Separate one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA, type II Sum of Squares) were
227 applied to assess statistically significant differences of toxin accumulation in the DG,
228 proportion of DA isomers, and quantitative histological features between species. As needed,
229 post hoc comparisons of means with Tukey's honest significance test (HSD) were performed
230 to identify differences between means (Hector, 2015; Zar, 2010). Principal component
231 analysis (PCA) was performed using the FactoMineR package with the factoextra package for
232 data visualization into smaller factorial clusters within a 95% confidence interval. All data
233 matrices were auto-scaled before PCA analysis. The corrplot package was run to calculate the
234 correlation coefficients and their significance between variables within their given PCs. All
235 graphics were generated using the package ggplot2. The level of statistical significance was
236 set at $\alpha = 0.05$ for all analyses (Zar, 2010).

237

238 **3. Results**

239 3.1. Toxin accumulation and biotransformation

240 Significant differences in the amounts of total DA (tDA) accumulated in the digestive glands
241 (DG) were found between the different invertebrate species sampled after blooms of the toxic
242 *P. australis* (Fig. 2). The significantly higher burdens of tDA were observed in the scallop *P.*
243 *maximus*, with $638.6 \pm 35.5 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$, followed by those of the snail *C. fornicata*, with $48.5 \pm$
244 14.2 mg.kg^{-1} , the scallop *A. opercularis* ($22.7 \pm 2.6 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), and the clam *D. trunculus* ($12 \pm$
245 1.7 mg kg^{-1}). The lowest values ($P < 0.05$) of tDA were found in the ascidian *Asterocarpa* sp.
246 ($4.2 \pm 1.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$). Moreover, as shown in Fig. 2, an important intraspecific variability in
247 tDA accumulation was also observed in *P. maximus* and *C. fornicata*, with values ranging
248 from 530 to 731 mg kg^{-1} , and from 0.2 to 93.8 mg kg^{-1} , respectively.

249 The toxin analysis carried out by LC-MS/MS revealed differences in biotransformation of DA
250 in the digestive glands among the different invertebrate species (Table I). For all species,
251 relative concentration levels of DA isomers were $< 10\%$ of the tDA burdens. Nonetheless, *C.*
252 *fornicata* was the species with the highest proportions ($P < 0.001$) of DA isomers (9.3 ± 1.1
253 $\%$), while *D. trunculus* showed significantly low DA isomer amounts ($4.2 \pm 0.3\%$).

254 Concerning the analysis of DA isomers proportion, *P. maximus* and *A. opercularis* showed
255 similar biotransformation profiles of the toxin since similar amounts of each DA isomer were
256 reported in both species. Furthermore, as shown in Table I, among the five species, the lowest
257 ratio of isoE ($P < 0.05$) was measured in *Asterocarpa* sp., and a significantly higher proportion
258 of isoD was recorded in *C. fornicata*, while the smallest amounts ($P < 0.05$) of isoA and epi-
259 DA were quantified in *D. trunculus*.

260 3.2. DA subcellular localization and histological measurements

261 The microanatomical observations of histological sections evidenced qualitative differences in
262 the localization of DA and the subcellular features linked to the accumulation of the toxin
263 among the invertebrate species analyzed in this study (Fig. 3, and supplementary materials
264 S1-5). DA detected by immunohistochemistry (IHC) appeared as a brown chromogenic signal
265 (cs) on slides (Fig 3A, 3D, 3G, 3J, 3M, and S1A-B, S2A-B, S3A-B, S4A-B, S5A-B).

266 In the digestive gland of *P. maximus* DA was detected mainly trapped within small ($\sim 1\text{-}2.5$
267 μm diameter) autophagosome-like vesicles (a) distributed throughout the cytoplasm of the
268 digestive cells (dc). A narrow fraction of DA-immunoreactivity was also observed in residual
269 bodies (rb) distributed in the acinar region (ar) of the digestive diverticula (dd) (Fig. 3A, S1A-
270 B). The presence of membrane-bounded vesicles (a) with positive DA-signal (cs) in the

271 tubular region (tr) of the digestive diverticula (dd) was confirmed by means of the
272 multichromic staining (MC), which produces a dark violet/blue hueing in membrane-bounded
273 structures (Fig. 3B, S1C-D). Hematoxylin-Eosin (H&E) staining (Fig. 3C, S1E-F) highlighted
274 a moderate vacuolization (v) within the cytoplasm of the digestive cells of *P. maximus*.
275 Neither the autophagosomes (a) nor the residual bodies (rb) acquired any coloration with the
276 H&E staining but residual bodies appeared yellow-green.

277 In the queen scallop *A. opercularis*, a strong DA-chromogenic signal (cs) was found in the
278 residual bodies (rb) of the digestive diverticula (dd) (Fig. 3D, S2A-B). No DA chromogenic
279 signal was observed in the autophagosome-like vesicles (a) present in the cytoplasm of the
280 digestive cells of the digestive diverticula (dd) (Fig. 3E-F, S2A-B). An intense process of
281 vacuolization (v) of the digestive cells of *A. opercularis* was found (Fig. 3E-F, S2C-D), while
282 H&E staining (Fig. 3F, S2E-F) showed that the autophagosomes seem to gather giving rise to
283 the residual bodies (rb) in the cytoplasm of the adipocyte-like digestive cells (al) of the
284 digestive diverticula (dd).

285 A similar result was found for *C. fornicata*, since most of the brown DA-chromogenic
286 staining (cs) was found in small residual bodies (rb) present in the basal cytoplasmic region
287 (bl) of the digestive cells (dc) (Fig. 3G, S3A-B), while autophagosome-like vesicles (a) that
288 are distributed in the apical region of the digestive cells (dc) (Fig. 3H-I, S3A-B) did not show
289 any DA-immunoreactivity.

290 A slight-blurred DA-chromogenic signal (cs) was also observed only free in the cytoplasm of
291 the digestive cells of *D. trunculus* (Fig 3J, S4A-B). The presence of autophagosome-like
292 vesicles (a, small blue colored vesicles distributed in the cytoplasm, Fig 3K, S4C-D) and
293 residual bodies (rb, larger round non-colored structures present within adipocyte-like cells,
294 Fig 3L, S4C-D) was confirmed in the digestive cells (dc) of clams (Fig. 3K-L, S4C-F).

295 Meanwhile, in sea squirts (*Asterocarpa* sp.) DA-chromogenic signal (cs) was rarely identified
296 and was located as small brown points (Fig. 3M, S5A-B) distributed through the digestive
297 epithelium (pse) of the blind ampulla (ba) (Fig. 3N-O, S5C-F).

298 The results of the quantitative analysis of histological parameters are shown in Fig. 4. The
299 coverage area of the DA chromogenic signal (%DAcs, Fig. 4A) was significantly higher in
300 the most contaminated invertebrate species (*P. maximus* = 4.8 ± 0.4 %, and *C. fornicata* = 5.3
301 ± 0.4 %). In addition, differences ($P < 0.05$) were found in the amount of DA chromogenic

302 signal in *A. opercularis* (3.2 ± 0.2 %) compared to the species contaminated with the lowest
303 DA burdens (*D. trunculus* = 0.2 %, and *Asterocarpa* sp. = 0%).

304 On the other hand, as seen in Fig. 4B, total autophagy (Ta) reached its highest values (P
305 <0.05) in the bivalve species, with frequencies of 185.4 ± 18 autophagosomes. area⁻¹ in *P.*
306 *maximus*, 123.2 ± 12.6 autophagosomes. area⁻¹ in *D. trunculus*, and 102.9 ± 9.7
307 autophagosomes. area⁻¹ in *A. opercularis*. The proportion of total autophagy (Ta) was
308 significantly lower in *C. fornicata* (60.9 ± 5.8 autophagosomes. area⁻¹) and *Asterocarpa* sp.
309 (18.3 ± 2.9 autophagosomes. area⁻¹). Nevertheless, the frequency of autophagosomes with
310 positive DA-chromogenic signal (DAa) significantly peaked in *P. maximus* (99.7 ± 9.7
311 autophagosomes. area⁻¹, corresponding to 53.8% of the Ta), followed by *C. fornicata* ($39.8 \pm$
312 4.6 autophagosomes. area⁻¹, corresponding to 65.3% of the Ta). The lowest proportions (P
313 <0.05) of autophagosomes with positive DA-chromogenic signal (DAa) were observed in *A.*
314 *opercularis*, *D. trunculus*, and *Asterocarpa* sp, with ≤ 7 autophagosomes. area⁻¹,
315 which corresponded to 8.4, 1.2, and 0% of the total autophagy (Ta), respectively (Fig. 4B). In
316 contrast, the frequencies of total residual bodies (Trb) and residual bodies with DA
317 chromogenic signal (DArb) significantly peaked in *C. fornicata* (92.4 ± 5.2 rb. area⁻¹, and
318 51.9 ± 4.1 rb. area⁻¹, respectively), while the frequencies of both subcellular parameters
319 showed their lowest values ($P <0.05$) in the rest of the species (Fig. 4C). It is important to
320 highlight that the percentage of residual bodies with DA chromogenic signal (%DArb)
321 compared to total residual bodies (Trb) was significantly higher in *A. opercularis*, with a 67.1
322 $\pm 3\%$, followed by *C. fornicata* and *P. maximus*, with rates of $58 \pm 3.8\%$ and $35.4 \pm 3.3\%$,
323 respectively. The lowest % DArb ($P <0.05$) was reported for *D. trunculus* ($2.2 \pm 1.3\%$) and
324 *Asterocarpa* sp. (0%). Finally, the highest frequency of cell vacuolization (Vac) of the
325 digestive cells was measured in *A. opercularis* (67.4 ± 6.7 vacuoles. area⁻¹, $P <0.05$), followed
326 by *P. maximus* (31.6 ± 2.4 vacuoles. area⁻¹). Significantly lower vacuolization (Vac) rates
327 were reported for the rest of the species (<8 vacuoles. area⁻¹, Fig. 4D).

328 **3.3. Integrative analysis compiling DA accumulation/biotransformation and subcellular** 329 **features**

330 A principal component analysis (PCA) was computed to summarize all variables measured in
331 this study on the five invertebrate species studied: DA accumulation, biotransformation, and
332 subcellular parameters (Fig. 5). The PCA described two-thirds (66.6 %) of the total variance
333 of the data along the first two principal dimensions. For the whole data set, the clustering-

334 PCA provided a clear distinction between species, except for the two pectinid species, which
335 slightly overlapped (Fig. 5A). In the scatter plot, *P. maximus* and *A. opercularis* showed
336 similar scores on the principal components and were different from the rest of the species.
337 Meanwhile, *D. trunculus*, *C. fornicata*, and *Asterocarpa* sp., were grouped separately from
338 each other (Fig. 5A). As shown in Fig. 5B, the dimension/principal component 1 (PC1, 42.3
339 % of the total variance) mainly explained the accumulated untransformed DA, isoD and isoA,
340 as well as the histological parameters such as domoic acid chromogenic signal (%DAcs),
341 domoic acid autophagy (DAa), total residual bodies (Trb), and residual bodies with DA signal
342 (DARB). In this PC1, the fraction of isoA was strongly and positively correlated to the %DAcs
343 and DARB ($r = 0.5$ and 0.6 , $P < 0.05$, respectively). Likewise, a strong and significant
344 correlation was found between the untransformed DA and DAa ($r = 0.8$), and between DARB
345 and %DAcs ($r = 0.8$) in this dimension. The amounts of isoE and epi-DA, as well as total
346 autophagy (Ta) and vacuolization (Vac), were the strongest correlated variables to
347 dimension/principal component 2 (24.3 % of the explained variance). A positive correlation (r
348 $= 0.5$, $P < 0.05$) between total DA (tDA) and isoE was found with Ta within the PC2. As
349 observed in Fig. 5, *P. maximus* and *A. opercularis* were associated with higher tDA and isoE,
350 as well as the maximum frequencies of Ta and Vac. Meanwhile, *C. fornicata* was related to
351 higher amounts of isoD, epi-DA, Trb, and *D. trunculus* with the highest fraction of
352 untransformed DA.

353 **4. Discussion**

354 In this study, we compared domoic acid (DA) accumulation and isomer profiles with the
355 subcellular localization of this toxin among naturally contaminated invertebrates to progress
356 in the understanding of interspecific differences in DA fate in marine invertebrates.

357 The DA contents measured in invertebrate tissues are the result of the accumulated and the
358 subsequently depurated toxin. Moreover, differences in DA accumulation in the organisms
359 are strongly dependent on the toxicity of the *Pseudo-nitzschia* cells, the duration of the ASP
360 blooms, the time through the animals were exposed to toxic microalgae, and the moment at
361 which the organisms were sampled during the bloom. In this work, DA contaminated animals
362 were collected 8 days after maximum cell densities of *P. australis* bloom of similar intensity,
363 duration and origin.

364 Since DA is a highly water-soluble molecule, it is expected to be easily accumulated in the
365 majority of forager species (Trainer *et al.*, 2012; La Barre *et al.*, 2014). Nonetheless, the
366 scallops, but notably *P. maximus*, as well as *C. fornicata*, remained significantly more
367 contaminated than the rest of the species in this study. These important differences in DA
368 accumulation in the digestive gland at the interspecific level are in accordance with
369 considerably high variability in DA amounts frequently detected in these species (Bogan *et*
370 *al.*, 2007a,b,c; Basti *et al.*, 2018, Blanco *et al.*, 2021) resulting from differences in the
371 accumulation but also in the depuration rates of DA reported mostly for bivalve species (Vale
372 and Sampayo, 2001; Blanco *et al.*, 2010; Dusek Jennings *et al.*, 2020). Notably, within the
373 pectinidae family, some large scallops like *P. maximus* can accumulate up to 3,200 mg
374 DA.kg⁻¹ in their DG (James *et al.*, 2005; Blanco *et al.*, 2006), which is 5-fold more than the
375 DA accumulated in the DG of the same species in this work. In contrast, smaller scallops,
376 such as *A. opercularis* (Ventoso *et al.*, 2019), *A. purpuratus* (Álvarez *et al.*, 2020) and *A.*
377 *irradians* (O’Dea *et al.*, 2012) accumulate lower DA burdens (~7-30 mg DA.kg⁻¹) similar to
378 those recorded in *A. opercularis* in this work, in the same organs. Depuration kinetics of the
379 toxin differ also between these species. Whereas *P. maximus* exhibits depuration rates as slow
380 as 0.007 day⁻¹ in the DG, remaining highly contaminated for months or even a few years
381 (Blanco *et al.*, 2002a, 2006), other scallops such as *A. purpuratus* show decontamination
382 debits near to 10 day⁻¹ in the DG, allowing to depurate ~90% of total DA burdens within
383 hours or a couple of days (Álvarez *et al.*, 2020). Thus, after all the differences in
384 accumulation and depuration rates of DA between invertebrate species discussed above, a
385 possible event of rapid depuration of DA in *A. opercularis*, *D. trunculus*, and *Asterocarpa* sp.
386 before sampling can be part of the interspecific differences of DA concentrations measured in
387 this study. Several factors could explain variability in DA decontamination: the transfer of
388 DA in other tissues than DG, its biotransformation and its depuration.

389 Differential tissue distribution of DA may not explain more than 20% of the interspecific
390 variability observed in this study since the digestive gland accumulates more than 80% of
391 total DA burdens in most invertebrates (Blanco *et al.*, 2002a; Costa *et al.*, 2005a,b). For all
392 the five species of this study, three bivalve molluscs (*P. maximus*, *A. opercularis* and *D.*
393 *trunculus*), one gasteropod mollusc (*C. fornicata*) and one ascidian (*Asterocarpa* sp.) DA
394 isomers were observed in digestive gland with significant interspecific differences between
395 the proportions of isomers E, D, A and epi-DA; iso-E being more represented in molluscs
396 compared to ascidian. Although it is known that DA isomerization can occur within toxic

397 *Pseudo-nitzschia* cells (Amzil *et al.*, 2001; Bates *et al.*, 2018; Quilliam *et al.*, 1989; Wright *et*
398 *al.*, 1990a), in the present study all invertebrate species were exposed to the same *Pseudo-*
399 *nitzschia* toxic bloom. These two sets of information demonstrate that metabolic conversion
400 of DA occurs in marine invertebrates as hypothesized first by Vale and Sampayo (2001) and
401 is species-specific. The integrative analysis revealed a close and significant relationship
402 between some subcellular features (vacuolization, autophagy, presence of residual bodies) and
403 the isomer profile of the toxin. Understanding DA compositional changes is important not
404 only as a means of predicting toxicity, but also because biotransformation could participate in
405 the prolonged retention of this toxin in invertebrate species by means of some of the
406 subcellular mechanisms analyzed here. Notwithstanding, biotransformation does not appear to
407 be the main route of DA elimination in these species since it represents less than 10% of total
408 DA of the digestive gland measured in these five species, as well as in previous studies (Costa
409 *et al.*, 2005a; Blanco *et al.*, 2010; Zheng *et al.*, 2022). There is only one study showing some
410 insights of DA biotransformation linked to apparent augmentation of the overall DA
411 detoxification rate in the cuttlefish *Sepia officinalis*, wherein DA isomers comprise a relevant
412 percentage of the toxin profile in the branchial hearts, suggesting that this organ has an
413 important function in system detoxification of DA (Costa *et al.*, 2005a).

414 Furthermore, it is worth to mention that king scallops were slightly contaminated (~5 mg DA
415 kg⁻¹, data from the REPHY French monitoring program) before the bloom of *P. australis*
416 occurred in late March 2021, after which they became highly contaminated (~ 650 mg DA kg⁻¹
417 ¹). Therefore, it is inferred that the concentrations of DA isomers found in the digestive glands
418 of *P. maximus*, and consequently, in all the invertebrate species analyzed in this work, were
419 the result of the bloom of *P. australis* occurred in late March 2021.

420 Despite the enormous differences in DA concentrations between the marine invertebrates
421 analyzed in this work, the physiological mechanisms behind this phenomenon remain poorly
422 understood. To date, only a few hypotheses about the biological processes potentially
423 involved in the large accumulation and long retention of DA in some bivalve species have
424 been proposed. On the one hand, Trainer and Bill (2004) characterized tissue-specific
425 expression of high and low affinity glutamate receptors in *S. patula*, inferring that this species
426 might selectively express low affinity glutamate receptors in all tissues, and high affinity sites
427 in specific tissues that retained DA for long periods of time. On another hand, Mauriz and
428 Blanco (2010) hypothesized that one of the causes of the long retention of DA in the DG of *P.*
429 *maximus* was not the binding of the toxin to some cellular component as previously discussed,

430 but the lack of efficient membrane transporters in the scallops to excrete the toxin. Recently,
431 using immunostaining of DA, García-Corona *et al.* (2022) revealed that in *P. maximus*, once
432 entered the cells, a part of DA was localized in the cytoplasm of digestive cells of the
433 digestive diverticula, trapped within autophagosome-like vesicles. Moreover, transcriptomic
434 analyses revealed the upregulation of genes related to autophagy and vesicle-mediated
435 transport in the DG of *P. maximus* injected with DA in the adductor muscle (Ventoso *et al.*,
436 2021), as well as in the DG of *A. opercularis* after exposure to DA-producing *Pseudo-*
437 *nitzschia* (Ventoso *et al.*, 2019). Taken together, these data suggest that the formation of
438 autophagosomal structures could be part of the explanation for the long retention of DA in *P.*
439 *maximus*. The results obtained in this work cope with these findings, since most of the DA-
440 labeling was found within a large number of autophagosomes distributed throughout the
441 cytoplasm of the digestive cells in *P. maximus*. Additionally, a strong DA-chromogenic signal
442 was found within the post-autophagic residual bodies present in the adipocyte-like cells in *A.*
443 *opercularis*, and in the basal region of the digestive diverticula in *C. fornicata*. During
444 autophagy the lysosomes in the digestive cells of these species receive DA trapped within
445 autophagosomic-vesicles. Nonetheless, the evidence of this work indicates that a fraction of
446 DA remains accumulated within autophagosomic structures instead being excreted or used by
447 the cells, leading to its accumulation within the autophagosomes, and consequently blocking
448 its excretion outside the cell by exocytosis (Cuervo, 2004; Zhao *et al.*, 2021). This eventually
449 triggers the aggregation of autophagosomes with sequestered DA to form residual bodies that
450 can remain in the cytoplasm of the digestive cells indefinitely. There is evidence of the long
451 retention of exogenous compounds through specialized cellular mechanisms in animals. A
452 concrete example is the dynamics of phagocytosis displayed by dermal macrophages,
453 explaining both persistence and strenuous removal of tattoo ink in mammalian skin. Baranska
454 *et al.* (2018) demonstrated that upon tattooing, pigment particles are captured by dermal
455 macrophages. Eventually, macrophages laden with tattoo ink die and release the pigment
456 particles, which remain in an extracellular form at the site of tattooing where they are
457 recaptured by neighboring or incoming macrophages. Through adult life, several cycles of ink
458 capture-release-recapture can occur, accounting for long-term tattoo persistence (Baranska *et*
459 *al.*, 2018). **Macrophagy and autophagy are analogous processes.**
460 **During macrophagy specialized cells called macrophages use their**
461 **cytoplasmic membranes to engulf large extracellular particles (\geq**
462 **0.5 μm , *i.e.* bacteria and debris) via endocytosis, giving rise to internal vesicular**

463 compartments called phagosomes. Phagosomes with cargo materials fuse with lysosomes,
464 forming phagolysosomes, leading to enzymatic degradation (Flannagan *et al.*, 2012; Gordon,
465 2016). Like autophagy, macrophagy is a major mechanism used to remove pathogens and
466 cellular debris for detoxification or nutrient recycling purposes, in which macrophages can
467 have lifespans of months to a few years (Baranska *et al.*, 2018). The discussion above raises a
468 new hypothesis suggesting that a part of DA that is not excreted from the cells due to the lack
469 of efficient membrane transporter (Mauriz and Blanco, 2010), may undergo successive cycles
470 of capture–release–recapture by autophagosomes through the regenerative cycle of digestive
471 cells in some invertebrates, without any or very few toxin vanishing from months to years.
472 Therefore, long-term DA persistence could rely on autophagosome renewal or on potential
473 longevity of residual bodies. A close relationship between early autophagy and DA
474 sequestration can be established in *P. maximus*, whereas in *A. opercularis* and *C. fornicata*
475 toxin accumulation seems to be closely linked to late autophagy and the formation of residual
476 bodies in the DG. This evidence strengthens the hypothesis stated by García-Corona *et al.*
477 (2022), where autophagy was proposed as one of the possible causes of the prolonged
478 retention of part of DA initially accumulated, now not only in *P. maximus*, but also in other
479 marine invertebrates. The next step is to decipher the fate and life-spent of autophagosomes
480 and residual bodies with anti-DA immunolabelling within a scenario of contamination and
481 decontamination.

482 Although the IHC method for the *in situ* detection of DA in contaminated invertebrates used
483 in this work has a high-sensitivity ($\sim 1 \text{ mg DA.kg}^{-1}$, García-Corona *et al.*, 2022) only a slight-
484 blurred DA chromogenic signal was found in the cytoplasm of the digestive cells of *D.*
485 *trunculus*, and *Asterocarpa* sp. This would suggest that in these species, intracellular DA is
486 not bound to any subcellular structure or component. Consequently, the feeble amounts of
487 toxin free in the cytoplasm of the digestive cells could be quickly depurated after DA
488 contamination but a part of DA, could also be lost by washing during histological process.
489 Furthermore, when all species are compared, the proportion of DA chromogenic signal seems
490 not correspond to the total amount of toxin accumulated in the DG of the animals. Despite the
491 large difference in DA concentration between *P. maximus* and *A. opercularis* (638.6 mg DA
492 kg^{-1} vs $22.7 \text{ mg DA kg}^{-1}$, respectively), the difference in DA signal was small ($\sim 2 \%$ between
493 both species). Therefore, it is possible that a fraction of the DA accumulated in the DG of
494 both species is free and dissolved in the cytoplasm of the digestive cells as reported for *P.*
495 *maximus* (Mauriz and Blanco, 2010) and for *O. vulgaris* (Lage *et al.*, 2012), and that *P.*

496 *maximus* effectively lacks efficient membrane transporters to excrete the toxin out of the cell
497 (Mauriz and Blanco, 2010), thus the chromogenic signal observed in the DG of both pectinids
498 could correspond to the fraction of DA trapped by the autophagic system, and not to the total
499 DA burdens in the DG. Further analyzes will be necessary to corroborate all the ideas
500 discussed above.

501 Scallops, *P. maximus* but even more so *A. opercularis* contaminated by DA in this study have
502 significantly higher digestive cell vacuolization rates in their digestive gland compared to
503 other species. Cell vacuolization is a common histopathological lesion in bivalves under
504 stressful environmental conditions (Rodríguez-Jaramillo *et al.*, 2022). According to Shubin *et al.*
505 (2016) this is a well-known subcellular phenomenon observed in animal cells which often
506 accompanies cell death after exposure to artificial or natural low-molecular-weight
507 compounds, such as DA. The scarce literature related to the effects of *Pseudo-nitzschia spp.*
508 or DA on invertebrates indicates that DA could potentially disturb behavioral, metabolic,
509 molecular, and physiological processes in some bivalves such as *P. maximus* (Ventoso *et al.*,
510 2021; Liu *et al.*, 2007a,b), *A. opercularis* (Ventoso *et al.*, 2019), *A. irradians* (Chi *et al.*,
511 2019), and some mussels, like *M. edulis* (Dizer *et al.*, 2001) and *M. galloprovincialis* (Pazos
512 *et al.*, 2017). Nevertheless, no lethal effects resulting from exposure to DA have been reported
513 in any of these species, suggesting either a low sensitivity to the toxin or yet unnoticed
514 negative effects. Further research is needed in order to decipher how DA exposure and its
515 biotransformation modulate cell vacuolization, as well as its potential detrimental effects on
516 the digestive cells of pectinids, and possibly, over other invertebrates, as reported for other
517 phycotoxins in other bivalve species (Hegaret *et al.*, 2010; Lassudrie *et al.*, 2014).

518 Furthermore, as discussed above, the highest proportions of total autophagy, and production
519 of residual bodies reported in *P. maximus*, *A. opercularis*, and *C. fornicata*, seems to directly
520 correspond to the sequestration of DA within these subcellular structures, which indicates that
521 autophagy could be also considered as a sign of homeostatic impairment, as reported in other
522 marine bivalve species when activated as an auxiliary mechanism for recycling internal
523 energy to cope with detrimental environmental conditions (Moore, 2008; Rodríguez-Jaramillo
524 *et al.*, 2022), or to deplete toxicological agents (Moore, 2004; Picot *et al.*, 2019). The
525 particularly highest proportions of DA-autophagy in *P. maximus* analyzed here stress out the
526 need to carry out the measurement of the frequency of these subcellular features in a DA
527 contamination and decontamination scenario. This basic knowledge is necessary to confirm

528 these physiological processes are the actual reasons for the long retention of a part of this
529 toxin in this species.

530 The findings presented in this work put in evidence DA biotransformation in invertebrate
531 species, and strongly suggest the role of subcellular mechanisms such as early and late
532 autophagy, in the accumulation, localization and long retention of DA in some marine
533 invertebrates.

534 **5. Conclusions**

535 The evidence presented in this work corroborates the profound interspecific differences in the
536 accumulation of DA between different species of marine invertebrates, as well as species-
537 specific profiles of toxin biotransformation among the analyzed species. Similar profiles of
538 DA isomers were found between *P. maximus* and *A. opercularis*, whereas *C. fornicata* was
539 the species with the highest biotransformation rate, and *D. trunculus* the lowest. In *P.*
540 *maximus*, *A. opercularis* and *C. fornicata* the DA chromogenic signal was detected mainly
541 within autophagosomic-structures in the cytoplasm of digestive cells, while in *D. trunculus*
542 and *Asterocarpa* sp. DA signal was found free in the cytoplasm of the digestive cells. This
543 evidence indicates that localization of DA and its effects at the subcellular level appear to be
544 species-specific, and the integrative analysis revealed that these parameters could be
545 potentially influenced by the biotransformation profiles of the toxin. All this new information
546 is highly valuable to strengthen ASP-monitoring systems since most of the invertebrate
547 species analyzed in this work could be used as sentinels of DA contamination in affected
548 areas. Furthermore, this study provides a set of innovative histological parameters developed
549 to assess quantitatively some subcellular mechanisms potentially involved in the
550 accumulation and long-retention of DA among contaminated invertebrates. This quantitative
551 information may be integrated into numerical models that allow estimating and predicting
552 toxicokinetics of contamination and depuration in fishery-stocks frequently affected during
553 blooms of toxic *Pseudo-nitzschia* sp.

554 **Acknowledgments**

555 The authors are grateful to Sylvain Enguehard (Novakits, Nantes) for providing the non-
556 commercial primary antibodies necessary to carry out this study, as well as Nicolas Chomerat
557 (from Ifremer, Concarneau) for sample transporting, and Adeline Bidault and Morgan
558 Perennou (from LEMAR, Brest) for their support during sampling and dissections. We also
559 thank Marie Calvez and Nelly Le Goïc (LEMAR, Brest) for their assistance with tissue

560 sectioning, and Carmen Rodríguez-Jaramillo (CIBNOR, La Paz) for her advices to optimize
561 non-commercial antibodies for the IHC analysis. Thanks to Alejandra L. Peña for English
562 edition.

563 **Declaration of competing interest**

564 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
565 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

566 **Funding**

567 This work received financial support from the research project “MaSCoET” (Maintien du
568 Stock de Coquillages en lien avec la problématique des Efflorescences Toxiques) financed by
569 France Filière Pêche and Brest Métropole. JLGC is recipient of a doctorate fellowship from
570 CONACyT, Mexico (REF: 2019- 000025-01EXTF-00067).

571 **Data availability statement**

572 The evidence and data that support the findings of this study are available from the
573 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

574 **Ethics statements**

575 The organisms used in this work were transported and handled according to the International
576 Standards for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. The number of sampled organisms
577 contemplated "the rule of maximizing information published and minimizing unnecessary
578 studies". In this sense, 38 individuals were considered the minimum number of organisms
579 needed for this work.

580 **Author contributions**

581 Conceived the study: CF, HH, JLGC. Sampling: JLGC, HH, CF, ML, TD, AT. Processed the
582 samples: JLGC, TD, AD, AT. Analyzed the data: JLGC, AD. Interpretation of data: JLGC,
583 CF, HH, AD. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: CF, HH, AD, AT, ML. Wrote the
584 first draft of the manuscript: JLGC. Writing – review & editing: CF, HH, JLGC, ML, AD,
585 AT.

586 **Literature cited**

587 Álvarez, G., Rengel, J., Araya, M., Álvarez, F., Pino, R., Uribe, E., Díaz, P.A., Rossignoli,
588 A.E., López-Rivera, A., Blanco, J., 2020. Rapid domoic acid depuration in the scallop
589 *Argopecten purpuratus* and its transfer from the digestive gland to other organs. *Toxins*,
590 12, 698. <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins12110698>.

591 Amzil, Z., Fresnel, J., Le Gal, D., Billard, C., 2001. Domoic acid accumulation in French
592 shellfish in relation to toxic species of *Pseudo-nitzschia multiseriis* and *P.*
593 *pseudodelicatissima*. *Toxicon*, 39(8), 1245–1251. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101(01)00096-4)
594 [0101\(01\)00096-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101(01)00096-4)

595 Ayache, N., Hervé, F., Martin-Jézéquel, V., Amzil, Z., Caruana, A. M. N., 2018. Influence of
596 sudden salinity variation on the physiology and domoic acid production by two strains of
597 *Pseudo-nitzschia australis*. In T. Mock (Ed.), *Journal of Phycology*, 55(1), 186–195.
598 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jpy.12801>.

599 Balbi, T., Cortese, K., Ciacci, C., Bellese, G., Vezzulli, L., Pruzzo, C., Canesi, L., 2018.
600 Autophagic processes in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* hemocytes: effects of *Vibrio tapetis*.
601 *Fish & Shellfish Immunology*. 73, 66–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fsi.2017.12.003>.

602 Baranska, A., Shawket, A., Jouve, M., Baratin, M., Malosse, C., Voluzan, O., Vu Manh, T.-
603 P., Fiore, F., Bajénoff, M., Benaroch, P., Dalod, M., Malissen, M., Henri, S., Malissen, B.,
604 2018. Unveiling skin macrophage dynamics explains both tattoo persistence and strenuous
605 removal. *Journal of Experimental Medicine*, 215(4), 1115–1133.
606 <https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20171608>

607 Basti, L., Hégaret, H., Shumway, S.E., 2018. Harmful Algal Blooms and Shellfish. In:
608 Harmful Algal Blooms: A Compendium Desk Reference, First Edition. Shumway, S.E.,
609 Burkholder, J.M., Morton, S.L. (eds). John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

610 Bates S.S., Garrison D.L., Horner R.A., 1998. Bloom dynamics and physiology of domoic-
611 acid-producing *Pseudo-nitzschia* species. In: Physiological ecology of harmful algal
612 multiseriis. In: Harmful algal blooms 2000 (Ed. by G.M. Hallegraeff, S.I. Blackburn, C.J.
613 Bolch & R.J. Lewis), pp. 320–323. Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of
614 UNESCO, Paris.

615 Bates, S.S., Hubbard, K.A., Lundholm, N., Montresor, M., Leaw, C.P., 2018. *Pseudo-*
616 *nitzschia*, *Nitzschia*, and domoic acid: new research since 2011. *Harmful Algae*, 79, 3-43.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2018.06.001>.

618 Ben Haddouch, A., Taleb, H., Elmortaji, H., Ben Brahim, S., Ennafah, B., Menchih, K.,
619 Boumaz, A., Mzaki, F., Radi, A., Loutfi, M., 2016. Accumulation and tissue distribution of
620 domoic acid in the common cuttlefish, *Sepia officinalis* from the south Moroccan coast.
621 *American Academic Scientific Research Journal for Engineering, Technology, and*
622 *Sciences*, 15(1), 252–264.

623 Blanco, J., Acosta, C., Bermúdez de la Puente, M., Salgado, C., 2002a. Depuration and
624 anatomical distribution of the amnesic shellfish poisoning (ASP) toxin domoic acid in the
625 king scallop *Pecten maximus*. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 60 (1-2), 111–121.
626 [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-445x\(01\)00274-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-445x(01)00274-0).

627 Blanco, J., Acosta, C.P., Mariño, C., Muñiz, S., Martín, H., Moroño, A., Correa, J., Arévalo,
628 F., Salgado, C., 2006. Depuration of domoic acid from different body compartments of the
629 king scallop *Pecten maximus* grown in raft culture and natural bed. *Aquatic Living*
630 *Resources*, 19 (3), 257–265. <https://doi.org/10.1051/alr:2006026>.

631 Blanco, J., Bermúdez, M., Arévalo, F., Salgado, C., Moroño, A., 2002b. Depuration of
632 mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) contaminated with domoic acid. *Aquatic Living*
633 *Resources*, 15, 53–60. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0990-7440\(01\)01139-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0990-7440(01)01139-1).

634 Blanco, J., Livramento, F., Rangel, I. M., 2010. Amnesic shellfish poisoning (ASP) toxins in
635 plankton and molluscs from Luanda Bay, Angola. *Toxicon*, 55(2–3), 541–546.
636 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxicon.2009.10.008>.

637 Blanco, J., Moroño, A., Arévalo, F., Correa, J., Salgado, C., Rossignoli, A., Lamas, P., 2021.
638 Twenty-Five Years of Domoic Acid Monitoring in Galicia (NW Spain): Spatial, Temporal
639 and Interspecific Variations. *Toxins*, 13(11):756. <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins13110756>.

640 Bogan, Y. M., Kennedy, D. J., Harkin, A. L., Gillespie, J., Vause, B. J., Beukers-Stewart, B.
641 D., Hess, P., Slater, J.W., 2007a. Variation in domoic acid concentration in king scallop
642 (*Pecten maximus*) from fishing grounds around the Isle of Man. *Harmful Algae*, 6, 81–92.
643 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2006.07.002>.

644 Bogan, Y., Bender, K., Hervas, A., Kennedy, D., Slater, J., Hess, P., 2007c. Spatial variability
645 of domoic acid concentration in king scallops *Pecten maximus* off the southeast coast of
646 Ireland. *Harmful Algae*. 6(1): 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2006.05.004>

647 Bogan, Y.M., Harkin, A.L., Gillespie, J., Kennedy, D.J., Hess, P., Slater, J.W., 2007b. The
648 influence of size on domoic acid concentration in king scallop, *Pecten maximus* (L.).
649 *Harmful Algae*, 6, 15–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2006.05.005>.

650 Chi, C., Zhang, C., Liu, J., Zheng, X., 2019. Effects of marine toxin domoic acid on innate
651 immune responses in bay scallop. *Journal of Marine Science and Engineering*, 7(11), 407.
652 <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse7110407>.

653 Costa, P. R., Rosa, R., Duarte-Silva, A., Brotas, V., Sampayo, M. A. M., 2005a.
654 Accumulation, transformation and tissue distribution of domoic acid, the amnesic shellfish
655 poisoning toxin, in the common cuttlefish, *Sepia officinalis*. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 74(1),
656 82–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2005.01.011>

657 Costa, P. R., Rosa, R., Pereira, J., M. Sampayo., 2005b. Detection of domoic acid, the
658 amnesic shellfish toxin, in the digestive gland of *Eledone cirrhosa* and *E. moschata*
659 (Cephalopoda, Octopoda) from the Portuguese coast. *Aquatic Living Resources*, 18(4),
660 395–400). <https://doi.org/10.1051/alr:2005041>.

661 Costa, P. R., Rosa, R., Sampayo, M. A. M., 2004. Tissue distribution of the amnesic shellfish
662 toxin, domoic acid, in *Octopus vulgaris* from the Portuguese coast. *Marine Biology*,
663 144(5), 971–976. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00227-003-1258-6>.

664 Costa, P., Costa, M.H., 2012. Development and application of a novel histological
665 multichrome technique for clam histopathology. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, 110,
666 411–414. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jip.2012.04.013>.

667 Cuervo, A.M., 2004. Autophagy: many paths to the same end. *Molecular and Cellular*
668 *Biochemistry*, 263 (1/2), 55–72. <https://doi.org/10.1023/b:mcbi.0000041848.57020.57>.

669 Dizer, H., Fischer, B., Harabawy, A.S.A., Hennion, M.C., Hansen, P.D., 2001. Toxicity of
670 domoic acid in the marine mussel *Mytilus edulis*. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 55: 149-156.
671 [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-445x\(01\)00178-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-445x(01)00178-3).

672 Dusek Jennings, E., Parker, M. S., Simenstad, C. A., 2020. Domoic acid depuration by
673 intertidal bivalves fed on toxin-producing *Pseudo-nitzschia multiseries*. *Toxicon*, 6,
674 100027. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxcx.2020.100027>.

675 Flannagan, R. S., Jaumouillé, V., Grinstein, S., 2012. The Cell Biology of Phagocytosis.
676 *Annual Review of Pathology: Mechanisms of Disease*, 7(1), 61–98.
677 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-pathol-011811-132445>.

678 García-Corona, J. L., Hégarret, H., Deléglise, M., Marzari, A., Rodríguez-Jaramillo, C.,
679 Foulon, V., Fabioux, C., 2022. First subcellular localization of the amnesic shellfish toxin,
680 domoic acid, in bivalve tissues: Deciphering the physiological mechanisms involved in its
681 long-retention in the king scallop *Pecten maximus*. *Harmful Algae*, 116.
682 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2022.102251>.

683 Gilgan, M.W., Burns B.G., Landry, G.J., 1990. Distribution and magnitude of domoic acid
684 contamination of shellfish in Atlantic Canada. In: E. Graneli, B. Sundstrom, L. Edler, D.M.
685 Anderson (Eds.), Toxic Marine Phytoplankton. Elsevier, N.Y. pp. 469- 474.

686 Gómez-Robles, E., Rodríguez-Jaramillo, C., Saucedo, P.E., 2005. Digital image analysis of
687 lipid and protein histochemical markers for measuring oocyte development and quality in
688 pearl oyster *Pinctada mazatlanica* (Hanley, 1856). *Journal of Shellfish Research*, 24(4),
689 1197-1202. [http://dx.doi.org/10.2983/0730-8000\(2005\)24\[1197:DIAOLA\]2.0.CO;2](http://dx.doi.org/10.2983/0730-8000(2005)24[1197:DIAOLA]2.0.CO;2).

690 Gordon, S., 2016. Phagocytosis: An Immunobiologic Process. *Immunity*, 44(3), 463–475.
691 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2016.02.026>.

692 Haya, K., Martin, J.L., Burrige, L.E., Waiwood, B.A., Wildish, J., 1991. Domoic acid in
693 shellfish and plankton from the bay of Fundy, New Brunswick, Canada. *Journal of*
694 *Shellfish Research*, 10, 113–118.

695 Hector, A., 2015. The new statistics with R: an introduction for biologists, 1st ed. Oxford
696 University Press, New York.

697 Hégarret, H., Smolowitz, R. M., Sunila, I., Shumway, S. E., Alix, J., Dixon, M., Wikfors, G.
698 H., 2010. Combined effects of a parasite, QPX, and the harmful-alga, *Prorocentrum*
699 *minimum* on northern quahogs, *Mercenaria mercenaria*. *Marine Environmental Research*,
700 69(5), 337–344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2009.12.008>.

701 Horner, R.A., Kusske, M.B., Moynihan, B.P., Skinner, R.N., Wekell, J.C., 1993. Retention of
702 Domoic Acid by Pacific Razor Clams, *Siliqua patula* (Dixon, 1789): Preliminary Study.
703 *Journal of Shellfish Research*, 12, 451–456.

704 Husson, B., Hernández-Fariñas, T., Le Gendre, R., Schapira, M., Chapelle, A., 2016. Two
705 decades of *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. blooms and king scallop (*Pecten maximus*)
706 contamination by domoic acid along the French Atlantic and English Channel coasts:
707 Seasonal dynamics, spatial heterogeneity and interannual variability. *Harmful Algae*, 51,
708 26–39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2015.10.017>

709 James, K.D., Gillman, M., Fernández-Amandi, M., López- Rivera, A., Fernández Puente, P.,
710 Lehane, M., Mitrovic, S., Furey, A., 2005. Amnesic shellfish poisoning toxins in bivalve
711 molluscs in Ireland. *Toxicon*, 46, 852–858. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxicon.2005.02.009>.

712 Jones, T.O., Whyte, J.N.C., Ginther, N.G., Townsend, L.D., Iwama, G.K., 1995. Haemocyte
713 changes in the pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, caused by exposure to domoic acid in the
714 diatom *Pseudo-nitzschia pungens* f. *multiseriata*. *Toxicon*, 33 (3), 347–353.
715 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0041-0101\(94\)00170-](https://doi.org/10.1016/0041-0101(94)00170-).

716 Kim, Y., Ashton-Alcox, K.A., Powell, E.N., 2006. Histological Techniques for Marine
717 Bivalve Molluscs: update. NOAA Technical Memorandum NOS NCCOS 27, Maryland.

718 Klionsky, D. J., Eskelinen, E.-L., Deretic, V., 2014. Autophagosomes, phagosomes,
719 autolysosomes, phagolysosomes, autophagolysosomes... Wait, I'm confused. *Autophagy*,
720 10 (4), 549–551. <https://doi.org/10.4161/auto.28448>.

721 Kvrđić, K., Lešić, T., Džafić, N., Pleadin, P., 2022. Occurrence and seasonal monitoring of
722 domoic acid in three shellfish species from the Northern Adriatic Sea. *Toxins*, 14(1), 33;
723 <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins14010033>.

724 La Barre, S., Bates, S.S. Quilliam, M.A., 2014. Domoic acid. In. Outstanding marine
725 molecules: chemistry, biology, analysis. Edited by S. La Barre and J.-M. Kornprobst.
726 Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KgaA, Weinheim, Germany, pp. 189–216.

727 Lassudrie, M., Soudant, P., Richard, G., Henry, N., Medhioub, W., da Silva, P. M., Donval,
728 A., Bunel, M., Le Goïc, N., Lambert, C., de Montaudouin, X., Fabioux, C., Hégaret, H.,
729 2014. Physiological responses of Manila clams *Venerupis (=Ruditapes) philippinarum*
730 with varying parasite *Perkinsus olseni* burden to toxic algal *Alexandrium ostenfeldii*
731 exposure. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 154, 27–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2014.05.002>.

732 Lelong, A., Hégaret, H., Soudant, P., Bates, S.S., 2012. *Pseudo-nitzschia* (Bacillariophyceae)
733 species, domoic acid and amnesic shellfish poisoning: revisiting previous paradigms.
734 *Phycologia*, 51 (2), 168–216. <https://doi.org/10.2216/11-37.1>.

735 Liu, H., Kelly, M.S., Campbell, D.A., Dong, S.L., Zhu, J.X., Fang, J.G., Wang, S.F., 2007a.
736 Exposure to domoic acid affects larval development of king scallop *Pecten maximus*
737 (Linnaeus, 1758). *Aquatic Toxicology*, 81, 152–158.
738 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2006.11.012>.

739 Liu, H., Kelly, M.S., Campbell, D.A., Dong, S.L., Zhu, J.X., Wang, S.F., 2007b. Ingestion of
740 domoic acid and its impact on king scallop *Pecten maximus* (Linnaeus, 1758). *Journal of*
741 *Ocean University of China*, 6, 175–181. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11802-007-0175-6>.

742 Mafra, L.L., Bricelj, V.M., Fennel, K., 2010. Domoic acid uptake and elimination kinetics in
743 oysters and mussels in relation to body size and anatomical distribution of toxin. *Aquatic*
744 *Toxicology*, 100 (1), 17–29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2010.07.0>.

745 Mauríz, A., Blanco, J., 2010. Distribution and linkage of domoic acid (amnesic shellfish
746 poisoning toxins) in subcellular fractions of the digestive gland of the scallop *Pecten*
747 *maximus*. *Toxicon*, 55 (2-3), 606–611. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxicon.2009.10>.

748 McMillan, D.B., Harris, R.J., 2018. The Animal Cell. In An Atlas of Comparative Vertebrate
749 Histology (pp. 3–25). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-410424-2.00001-9>.

750 Moore, M.N., 2004. Diet restriction induced autophagy: a lysosomal protective system against
751 oxidative- and pollutant-stress and cell injury. *Marine Environmental Research*, 58 (2–5),
752 603–607. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2004.03>.

753 Moore, M.N., 2008. Autophagy as a second level protective process in conferring resistance
754 to environmentally-induced oxidative stress. *Autophagy*, 4 (2), 254–256.
755 <https://doi.org/10.4161/auto.5528>.

756 Novaczek, I., Madhyastha, M.S., Ablett, R.F., Donald, A., Johnson, G., Nijjar, M.S., Sims,
757 D.E., 1992. Depuration of domoic acid from live blue mussels (*Mytilus edulis*). *Canadian*
758 *Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 49 (2), 312–318. [https://doi.org/10.1139/f92-](https://doi.org/10.1139/f92-035)
759 [035](https://doi.org/10.1139/f92-035).

760 O’Dea, S.N., 2012. Occurrence, Toxicity, and Diversity of *Pseudo-nitzschia* in Florida
761 Coastal Waters. University of South Florida ProQuest Dissertations Publishing. 1515837.

762 Pazos, A.J., Ventoso, P., Martínez-Escauriaza, R., Pérez-Parallé, M.L., Blanco, J., Triviño,
763 J.C., Sánchez, J.L., 2017. Transcriptional response after exposure to domoic acid-

764 producing *Pseudo-nitzschia* in the digestive gland of the mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*.
765 *Toxicon*, 140, 60–71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxicon.2017.10.002>.

766 Perl, T.M., Bédard, L., Kosatsky, T., Hockin, J.C., Todd, E.C.D., Remis, R.S., 1990. An
767 Outbreak of Toxic Encephalopathy Caused by Eating Mussels Contaminated with Domoic
768 Acid. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 322(25): 1775–1780. <https://doi:10.1056/NEJM199006213222504>.

769 Picot, S., Morga, B., Faury, N., Chollet, B., Dégremont, L., Travers, M.A., Renault, T., Arzul,
770 I., 2019. A study of autophagy in hemocytes of the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*.
771 *Autophagy*, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15548627.2019.1596>.

772 Pulido, O.M., 2008. Domoic Acid Toxicologic Pathology: A Review. *Marine Drugs*, 6, 180-
773 219. <https://doi.org/10.3390/md20080010>.

774 Quilliam, M.A., Sim, P.G., McCulloch, A.W., McInnes, A.G., 1989. High-performance liquid
775 chromatography of domoic acid, a marine neurotoxin, with application to shellfish and
776 plankton. *International Journal of Environmental Analytical Chemistry*, 36 (3), 139–154.
777 <https://doi.org/10.1080/03067318908026867>.

778 R Core Team (2020). R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation
779 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.

780 Rodríguez-Jaramillo, C., García-Corona, J.L., Zenteno-Savín, T., Palacios, E., 2022. The
781 effects of experimental temperature increase on gametogenesis and heat stress parameters
782 in oysters: Comparison of a temperate-introduced species (*Crassostrea gigas*) and a native
783 tropical species (*Crassostrea corteziensis*). *Aquaculture*, 561, 738683.
784 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2022.738683>.

785 Shubin, A. V., Demidyuk, I. V., Komissarov, A. A., Rafieva, L. M., & Kostrov, S. V., 2016.
786 Cytoplasmic vacuolization in cell death and survival. *Oncotarget*, 7(34), 55863–55889.
787 <https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.10150>.

788 Silvert, W. and Subba R.D.V., 1992. Dynamic model of the flux of domoic acid, a neurotoxin,
789 through a *Mytilus edulis* population. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*,
790 49, 400- 405. <https://doi.org/10.1139/f92-045>.

791 Takata, Y., Sato, S., Ha, D. V., Montojo, U. M., Lirdwitayaprasit, T., Kamolsiripichaiorn, S.,
792 Kotaki, Y., Fukuyo, Y., Kodama, M., 2009. Occurrence of domoic acid in tropical
793 bivalves. *Fisheries Science*, 75(2), 473–480. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12562-009-0073-5>.

794 Trainer, V.L., Bates, S.S., Lundholm, N., Thessen, A.E., Cochlan, W.P., Adams, N.G., 2012.
795 *Pseudo-nitzschia* physiological ecology, phylogeny, toxicity, monitoring and impacts on
796 ecosystem health. *Harmful Algae*, 14, 271–300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2011.10.025>.

797 Trainer, V.L., Bill, B.D., 2004. Characterization of a domoic acid binding site from Pacific
798 razor clam. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 69, 125–132.
799 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2004.04.012>.

800 Vale, P., Sampayo, M.A.M., 2001. Domoic acid in Portuguese shellfish and fish. *Toxicon*,
801 39:893–904. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101\(00\)00229-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101(00)00229-4).

802 Ventoso, P., Pazos, A.J., Blanco, J., Pérez-Parallé, M.L., Triviño, J.C., Sánchez, J.L., 2021.
803 Transcriptional Response in the Digestive Gland of the King Scallop (*Pecten maximus*)
804 After the Injection of Domoic Acid. *Toxins*, 13, 339.
805 <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins13050339>.

806 Ventoso, P., Pazos, A.J., Pérez-Parallé, M.L., Blanco, J., Triviño, J.C., Sánchez, J.L., 2019.
807 RNA-Seq Transcriptome Profiling of the Queen Scallop (*Aequipecten Opercularis*)
808 Digestive Gland after Exposure to Domoic Acid-Producing *Pseudo-nitzschia*. *Toxins*, 11,
809 97. <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxins11020097>.

810 Wang, L., Ye, X., Zhao, T., 2019. The physiological roles of autophagy in the mammalian life
811 cycle. *Biological Reviews*, 94, 503–516. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12464>.

812 Wright, J.L., Bird, C.J., de Freitas, A.S., Hampson, D., McDonald, J., Quilliam, M.A., 1990a.
813 Chemistry, biology, and toxicology of domoic acid and its isomers. Canada Diseases
814 Weekly Report = Rapport Hebdomadaire des Maladies au Canada. Pp. 21-26.

815 Wright, J.L.C., Falk, M., McInnes, A.G., Walter, J.A., 1990b. Identification of isodomoic acid
816 D and two new geometrical isomers of domoic acid in toxic mussels. *Canadian Journal of*
817 *Chemistry*, 68(1), 22–25. <https://doi.org/10.1139/v90-005>.

818 Zar, J. H., 2010. Biostatistical Analysis. 5th Ed. Pearson, Westlake Village, CA, 251 pp.

819 Zhao, Y.G., Codogno, P., Zhang, H., 2021. Machinery, regulation and pathophysiological
820 implications of autophagosome maturation. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*.
821 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41580-021-00392-4>.

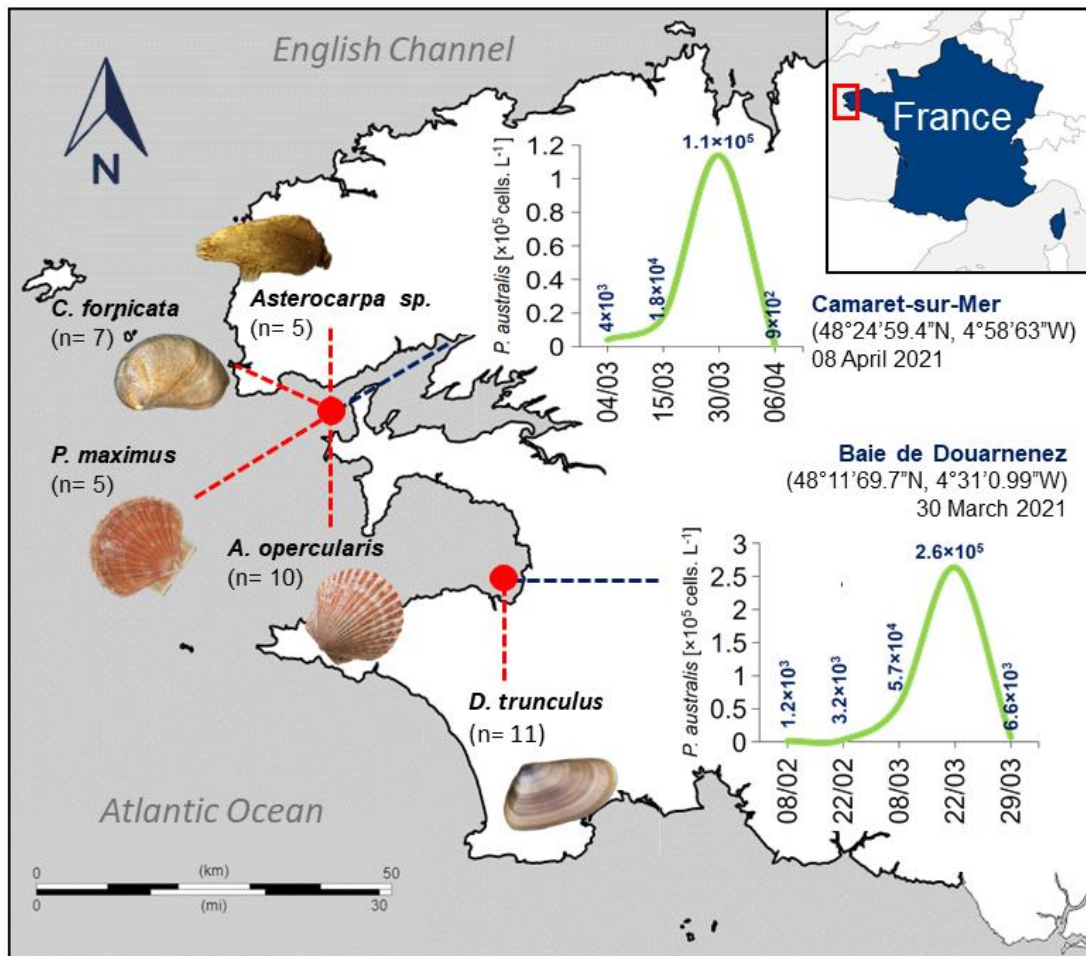
822 Zheng, G., Wu, H., Guo, M., Peng, J., Zhai, Y., Tan, Z., 2022. First observation of domoic
823 acid and its isomers in shellfish samples from Shandong Province, China. *Journal of*

824 *Oceanology and Limnology*, 40(6), 2231–2241. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00343-022-2104-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00343-022-2104-3)
825 [3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00343-022-2104-3).

826 **Table 1.** Relative abundance of DA and its isomers in the digestive glands of the scallops *P. maximus* (n =5) and *A. opercularis* (n =10), the clam
827 *D. trunculus* (n =11), the slippersnail *C. fornicata* (n =7), and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa* sp. (n =5) contaminated during *P. australis* blooms in
828 the northwest coast of Brittany, France between March-April 2021.

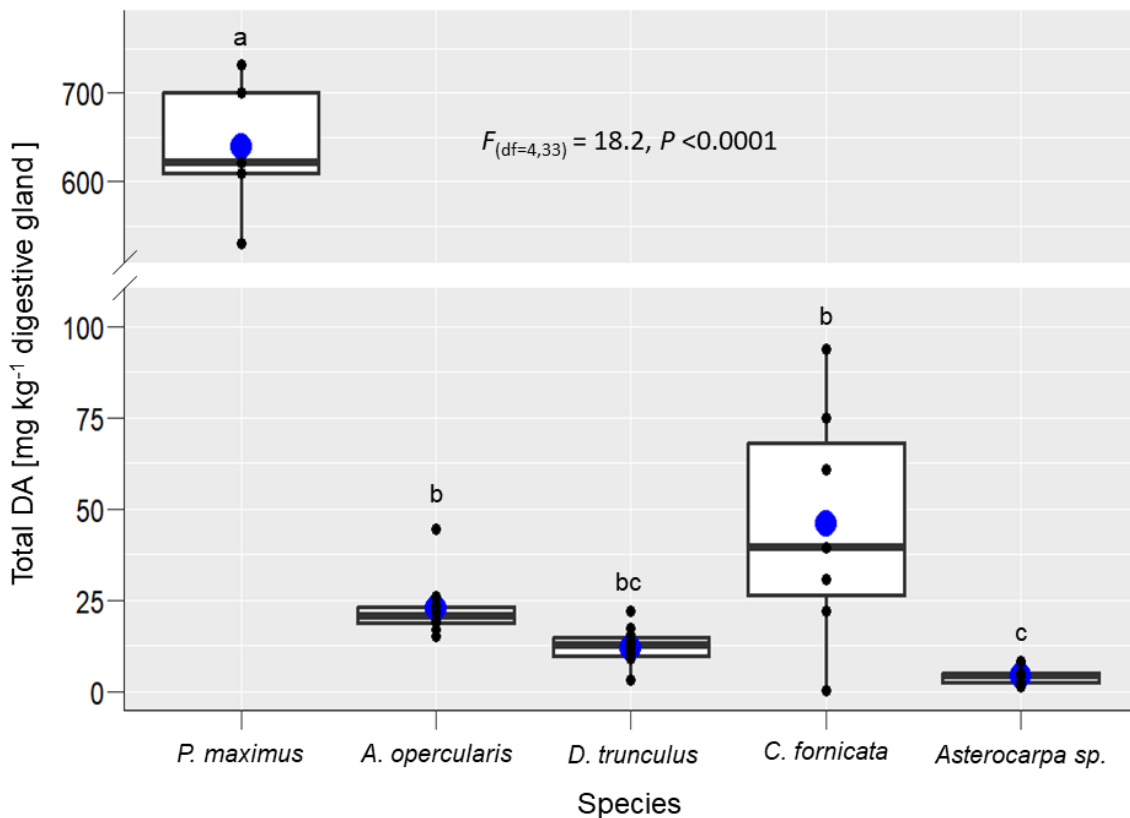
	Species					Statistical analysis	
	<i>P. maximus</i>	<i>A. opercularis</i>	<i>D. trunculus</i>	<i>C. fornicata</i>	<i>Asterocarpa</i> sp.		
DA (%)	93.3 ± 0.6 ^b	93.6 ± 0.3 ^b	95.8 ± 0.3 ^a	90.7 ± 1.1 ^c	94.5 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	F _(df=4,33) = 11.8,	P <0.0001
isoE (%)	4.3 ± 0.3 ^a	4.3 ± 0.3 ^a	3.5 ± 0.3 ^a	3.2 ± 0.4 ^a	1.6 ± 0.1 ^b	F _(df=4,33) = 10.9,	P <0.0001
isoD (%)	1.5 ± 0.3 ^{bc}	1 ± 0.1 ^{bc}	0.5 ± 0.1 ^c	4 ± 0.8 ^a	2.1 ± 0.0 ^b	F _(df=4,33) = 17.3,	P <0.0001
isoA (%)	0.4 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	0.7 ± 0.0 ^a	0.2 ± 0.0 ^b	0.6 ± 0.1 ^a	0.5 ± 0.0 ^a	F _(df=4,33) = 10.4,	P <0.0001
epi-DA (%)	0.4 ± 0.1 ^b	0.4 ± 0.0 ^b	0 ± 0.0 ^c	1.5 ± 0.1 ^a	1.3 ± 0.0 ^a	F _(df=4,33) = 156.4,	P <0.0001

829 Results are expressed as mean ± SE. Data were analyzed using species (five levels) as factor in separate one-way ANOVAs (P <0.05). The F-test
830 statistic and degrees of freedom (df) are reported. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between species. The level of
831 statistical significance was set at α =0.05.



832

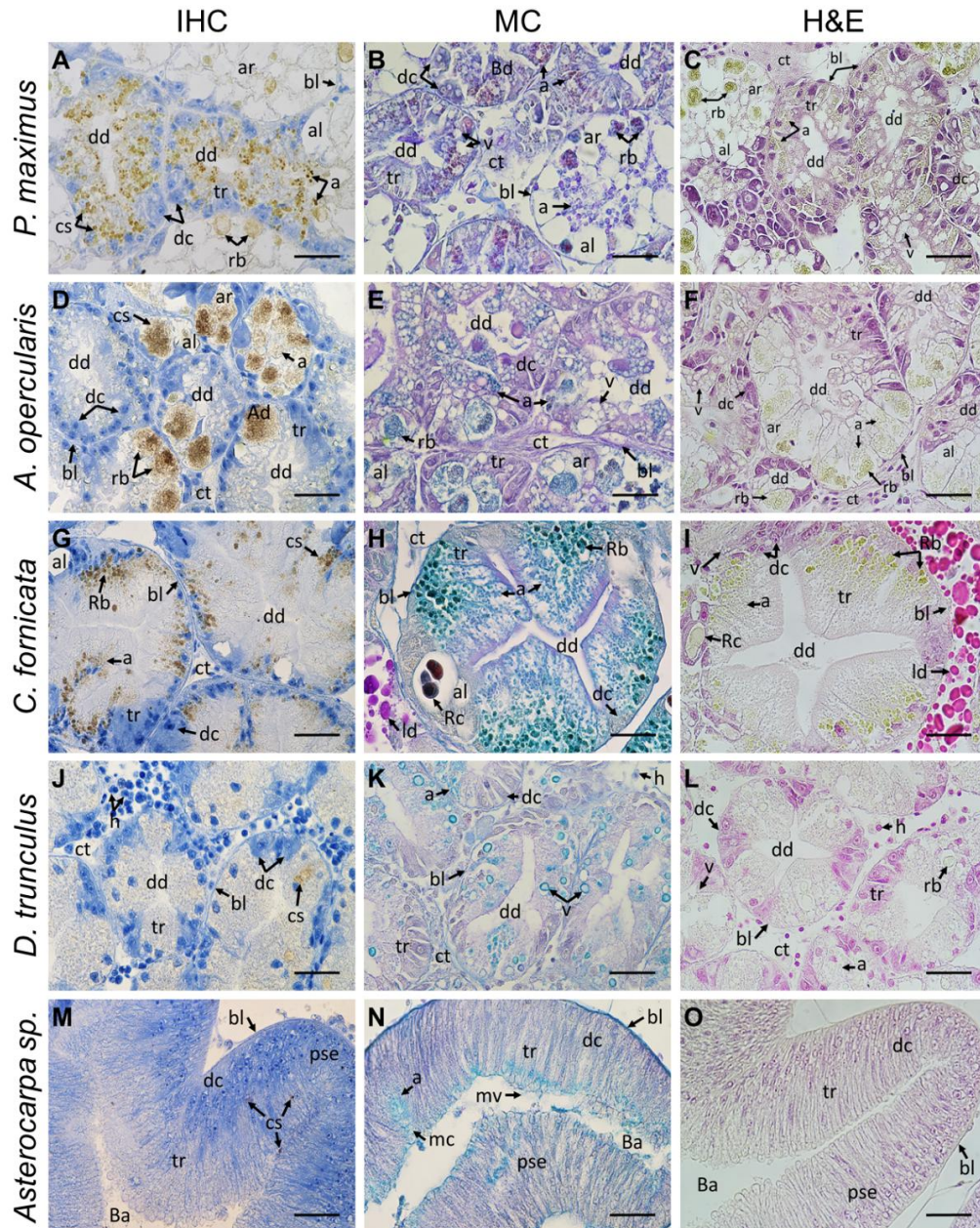
833 **Figure 1.** Sampling sites of the scallops *P. maximus* (n =5) and *A. opercularis* (n = 10), the
 834 clam *D. trunculus* (n =11), the slippersnail *C. fornicata* (n =7), and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa*
 835 *sp.* (n =5) and cell densities (cells. L⁻¹) of *P. australis* during toxic blooms in the northwest
 836 coast of Brittany, France between February and-April 2021.



837

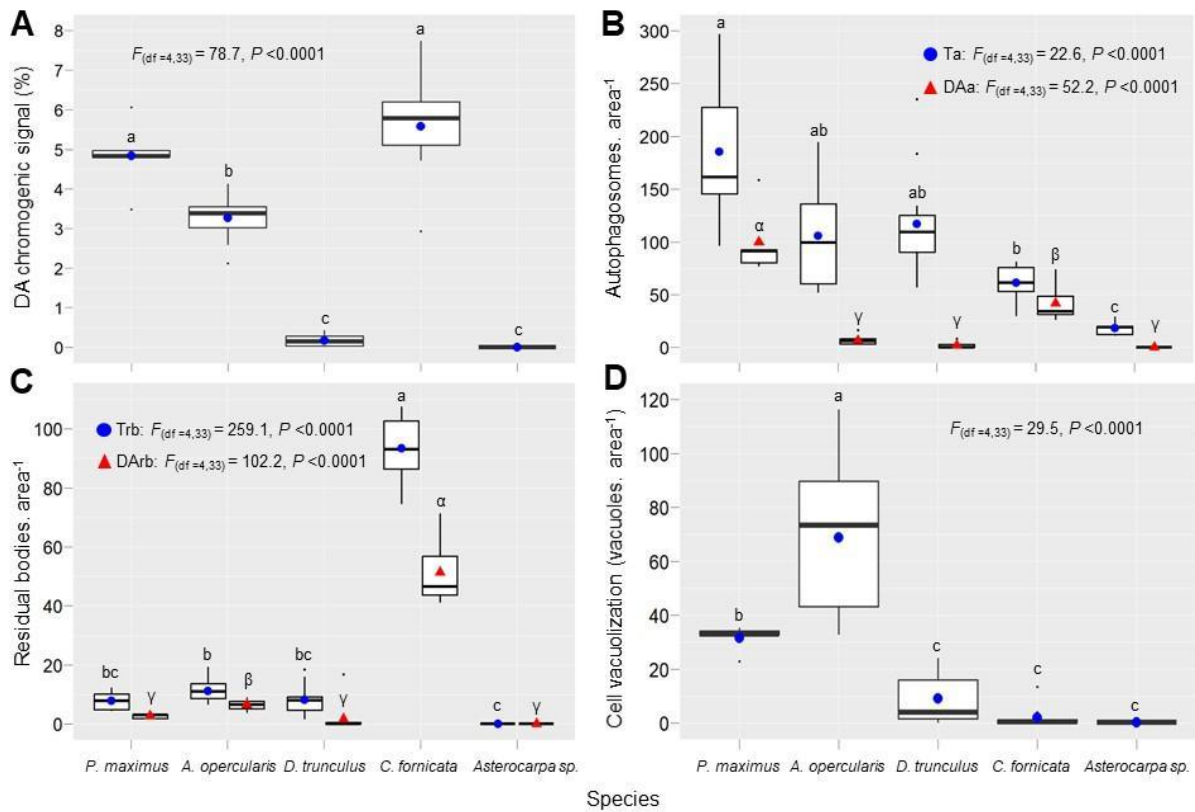
838 **Figure 2.** Total domoic acid (tDA) concentration in the digestive glands of the scallops *P.*
839 *maximus* (n =5) and *A. opercularis* (n = 10), the clam *D. trunculus* (n =11), the slippersnail *C.*
840 *fornicata* (n =7), and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa sp.* (n =5) contaminated during *P. australis*
841 blooms in the northwest coast of Brittany, France between on the 30th of March (for the
842 scallops *P. maximus*, *A. opercularis*, the slippersnail *C. fornicata*, and the sea squirt
843 *Asterocarpa sp.*) and on the 8th of April, 2021 (for the clam *D. trunculus*). The upper and
844 lower limits of the boxes are the quartiles, the middle horizontal line is the median, the
845 extremes of the vertical lines are the upper and lower limits of the observations, and black
846 dots are the individual observations. The blue dots are the means for each species. Data were
847 analyzed using species (five levels) as factor using a one-way ANOVA ($P < 0.05$). The F-test
848 statistic and degrees of freedom (df) are reported. Different superscript letters indicate
849 significant differences between species. The level of statistical significance was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

850



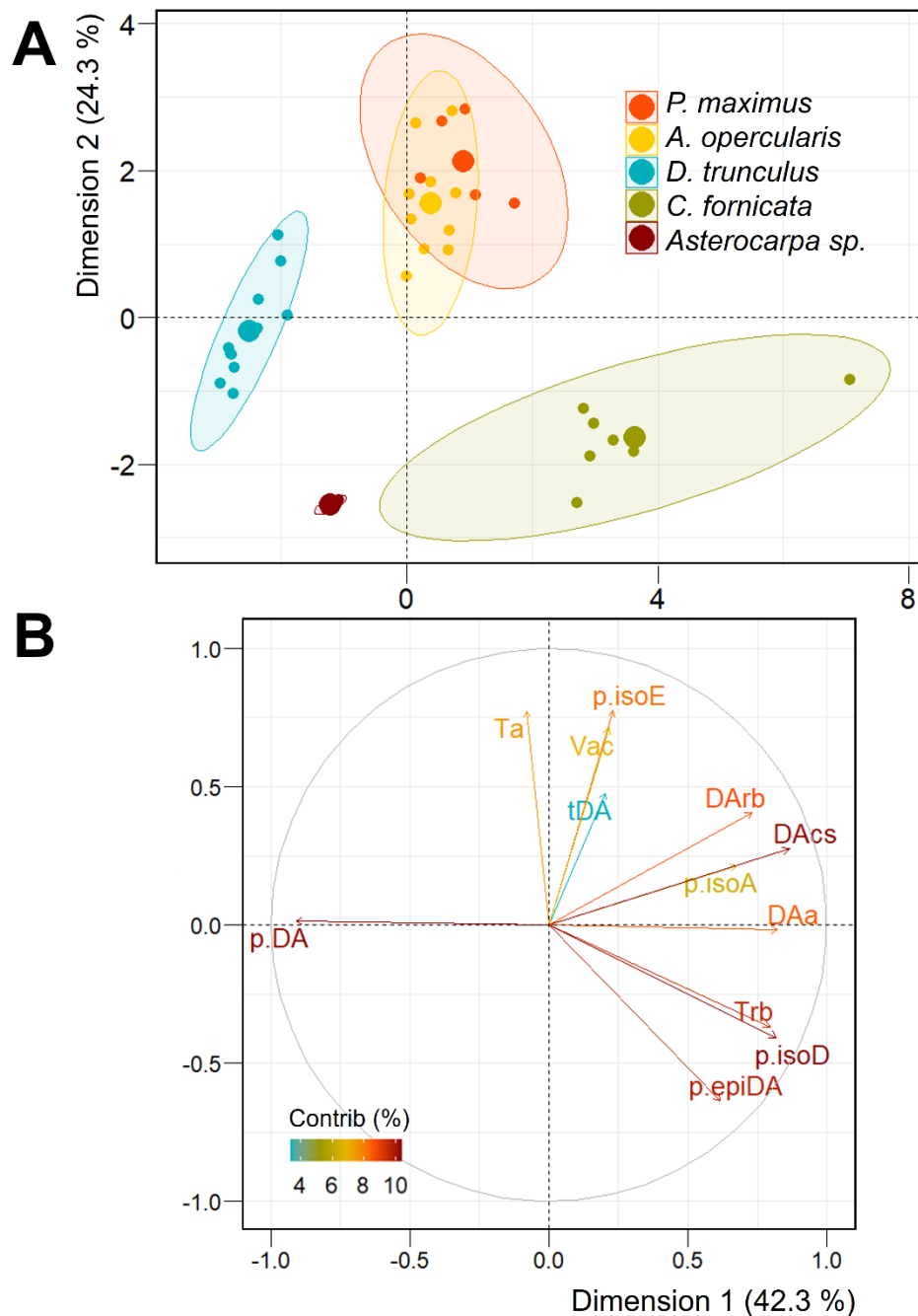
851

852 **Figure 3.** Microphotographs of digestive glands of the scallops *P. maximus* (A, B, C), *A.*
 853 *opercularis* (D, E, F), the slipper snail *C. fornicata* (G, H, I), the clam *D. trunculus* (J, K, L),
 854 and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa* sp. (M, N, O) contaminated with domoic acid (DA) during *P.*
 855 *australis* blooms in the northwest coast of Brittany, France in March-April, 2021. IHC (A, D,
 856 G, J, M) = Immunohistochemical detection of DA using specific anti-DA antibody (0.08 mg.
 857 mL⁻¹); MC (B, E, H, K, N) = multichromic histochemical staining of neutral carbohydrates
 858 (violet-magenta dyes), acid glycoconjugates (blue hues), and proteins (yellowish tones); H&E
 859 (C, F, I, L, O) = conventional histological Hematoxylin-Eosin staining. a = autophagosomic-
 860 like vesicles, al = adipocyte-like cell, ar = acinar region, Ba = blind ampulla, bl = basal
 861 lamina, cs = DA chromogenic signal, ct = connective tissue, dc = digestive cells, dd =
 862 digestive diverticulum, hc = hemocytes, ld = lipid droplets, mc = mucus, mv = microvilli, pse
 863 = pseudostratified epithelium, rb = residual bodies, rc = residual concretions, tr = tubular
 864 region, v = vacuoles. Scale bar: 63 × = 30 μm.



865

866 **Figure 4.** Quantitative analysis of DA localization and subcellular features in the digestive
 867 glands of the scallops *P. maximus* (n =5) and *A. opercularis* (n =10), the clam *D. trunculus* (n
 868 =11), the slipper snail *C. fornicata* (n =7) and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa* sp. (n =5)
 869 contaminated with DA during *P. australis* blooms in the northwest coast of Brittany, France,
 870 in March-April, 2021. (A) DA chromogenic signal (%); (B) Autophagy (autophagosomes. 1.3
 871 mm², Ta = total autophagy, DAa = DA autophagy); (C) Residual bodies (residual bodies. 1.3
 872 mm², Trb = total residual bodies, Darb = DA in the residual bodies); (D) Cell vacuolization
 873 (vacuoles. 1.3 mm²). The upper and lower limits of the boxes are the quartiles, the middle
 874 horizontal line is the median, the extremes of the vertical lines are the upper and lower limits
 875 of the observations, and black dots are the outliers (values that deviate from the median more
 876 than 1.5 times the interquartile range). The blue dots and red triangles are the means of each
 877 variable. Data were analyzed using species (five levels) as factor in separate one-way
 878 ANOVA's ($P < 0.05$). The F-test statistic and degrees of freedom (df) are reported. Different
 879 superscript letters indicate significant differences between species. The level of statistical
 880 significance was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.



881

882 **Figure 5.** Principal component analysis (PCA) summarizing data from the scallops *P.*
 883 *maximus* (n =5) and *A. opercularis* (n =10), the clam *D. trunculus* (n =11), the slippersnail *C.*
 884 *fornicata* (n =7), and the sea squirt *Asterocarpa sp.* (n =5) contaminated with domoic acid
 885 (DA) during *P. australis* blooms in the northwest coast of Brittany, France, between March-
 886 April 2021. Dimension 1 and dimension 2 together describe 66.6 % of the total variance. (A)
 887 Scatter plot of individuals from each species. Larger symbols are the barycenter of each
 888 group, confidence ellipses level was fixed at $\alpha =0.05$. (B) Variable contribution plot. The
 889 direction of the arrows shows the correlations of variables (tDA = total DA, DAcs = DA
 890 chromogenic signal, Ta = total autophagy, DAa = DA autophagy (%), Trb = total residual
 891 bodies, DArb = DA in the residual bodies (%), Vac = cell vacuolization, and the percentages
 892 (p) of DA isomers, p.DA = untransformed DA, p.isoE = isoE, p.isoD = isoD, p.isoA = isoA,

893 p.epiDA = epiDA) with given PCs, and its color intensity shows their contribution (Contrib
894 %) to the explained variance.