



Assessing the impact of imidacloprid, glyphosate, and their mixtures on multiple biomarkers in *Corbicula largillierti*

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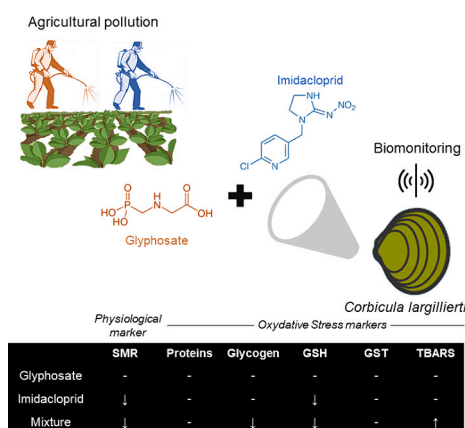
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Pesticides impact ecosystems in emerging agricultural regions worldwide.
- Invasive bivalves can be used for environmental monitoring in freshwater habitats.
- *Corbicula largillierti* show additive effects of glyphosate and imidacloprid.
- Combined biomarkers offer a more robust toxicity assessment than individual tests.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Pesticide mixtures are frequently utilized in agriculture, yet their cumulative effects on aquatic organisms remain poorly understood. Aquatic animals can be effective bioindicators and invasive bivalves, owing to their wide-spread distribution, provide an opportunity to assess these impacts. Glyphosate and imidacloprid, among the most prevalent pesticides globally, are frequently detected in freshwater systems in South America. This study aims to understand the cumulative effects of pesticide mixtures on aquatic organisms, using invasive *Corbicula largillierti* clams from a natural stream in northwestern Argentina. We conducted 48-hour exposure experiments

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Metabolism
Oxidative stress

using two concentrations of imidacloprid (20 and 200 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ a.i), two concentrations of glyphosate (0.3 and 3 mg L^{-1} a.i), and two combinations of these pesticides (both at low and high concentrations, respectively), simulating the direct contamination of both pesticides based on their agronomic recipe and observed values in Argentine aquatic environments. Clam metabolism was assessed through the examination of multiple oxidative stress parameters and measuring oxygen consumption rate as a proxy for standard metabolic rate (SMR). Our findings revealed that imidacloprid has a more pronounced effect compared to glyphosate. Imidacloprid significantly decreased clam SMR and cellular levels of reduced glutathione (GSH). However, when both pesticides were present, also cellular glycogen and thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) were affected. Proteins and glutathione S-Transferase (GST) activity were unaffected by either pesticide or their mixture at the assayed concentrations, highlighting the need to test several stress parameters to detect toxicological impacts. Our results indicated additive effects of imidacloprid and glyphosate across all measured parameters. The combination of multiple physiological and cytological biomarkers in invasive bivalves offers significant potential to enhance biomonitoring sensitivity and obtain insights into the origins and cellular mechanisms of chemical impacts. These studies can improve pollution regulatory policies and pesticide management.

1. Introduction

The health of aquatic ecosystems can be compromised by a variety of stressors arising from the numerous uses of water and the common lack of government controls and environmental protection (Ormerod et al., 2010). The massive use of pesticides has been identified as the primary source of contamination associated with the expansion of agricultural areas, impacting ecosystem and human health globally (Lykogianni et al., 2021; Nicolopoulou-Stamati et al., 2016). From 2011 to 2021, annual global pesticide usage consistently exceeded 3 million tons, with a peak of 3.5 million tons in 2021 (FAOSTAT, 2024). Studies on freshwater bodies' contamination reveal widespread and multiple chemical pollution, with herbicides being the most prevalent in the environmental mixtures (Navarro et al., 2024). Biological invasions are another growing threat to aquatic ecosystems, often occurring alongside chemical pollution. Despite impacts, some introduced species are potentially useful for ecotoxicological testing of chemical pollution due to their high abundance and biological characteristics (Sousa et al., 2008). Unfortunately, few studies simultaneously address both stressors (Sylvester et al., 2023).

In Argentina, the advance of industrial agriculture in recent decades has been accompanied by an increasing use of agrochemicals that can contaminate freshwater systems directly through air spraying and by containers washing in water bodies or indirectly by drift or runoff (De Gerónimo et al., 2014; López et al., 2006; Pérez et al., 2017). Glyphosate is known to impact freshwater Argentinian ecosystems promoting eutrophication (Pérez et al., 2007; Pizarro et al., 2016a; Vera et al., 2010; Vera et al., 2012) and pico-cyanobacteria growth (Castro Berman et al., 2020; Pizarro et al., 2016b; Zagarese et al., 2022). The use of imidacloprid has been increasing in extensive crops and horticulture (Iturburu et al., 2019), and their use particularly in combination with other agrochemical such as glyphosate represent a high ecological risk for local aquatic organisms (Pérez et al., 2021). In recent years, multiple studies have demonstrated the negative ecotoxicological impacts of both pesticides in freshwater ecosystems (Bonmatin et al., 2015; Bragança et al., 2018; Nicolopoulou-Stamati et al., 2016). Argentina holds the record for the highest environmental concentration of glyphosate in freshwater, at 105 mg L^{-1} (Brovini et al., 2021). The maximum reported concentration of imidacloprid in freshwater in the country were 18.50 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ in sediments and 0.56 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in surface water (Pérez et al., 2017). However, most of these studies have focused on the effects of these pesticides when applied separately or combined on terrestrial organisms (e.g., bees and humans; Mocellin Conte et al., 2022; Pal et al., 2022), while their combined effects on aquatic ecosystems are poorly understood.

Corbicula spp. is a genus of clams that originated in Southeast Asia. In association with human transport vectors such as transoceanic vessel ballast water, bilge water in fishing and recreational boats, live bait, and through its use as food by Asian communities, it has been introduced to and became invasive in freshwater habitats worldwide (McMahon,

2002; Sousa et al., 2008). It was introduced to Argentina ~50 years ago and has since become a dominant element in benthic communities (Ituarte, 1994). In the province of Salta, *Corbicula largillierti* (Phillipi 1844) was first detected in 1994 (Davies and Ramírez, 1997), and today it is found in many freshwater bodies in the province (Hünicken, 2020). Consequently, it provides an opportunity to be used as a bio-monitoring tool. Unfortunately, despite its potential as an indicator of aquatic pollution, studies on *C. largillierti* are rare (but see Reyna et al., 2019, 2021), and attempts to assess the effects of pesticides on this species are altogether lacking. The congener *Corbicula fluminea* (Müller 1774) has previously been used for the ecotoxicological assessment of pesticides in different continents (e.g., dos Santos and Martínez, 2014; Shan et al., 2020). Yet, this better studied clam is minoritarian or altogether lacking across extensive agricultural regions of South America (Ludwig et al., 2024; Hünicken et al., in prep.), where *C. largillierti* provides an opportunity for biomonitoring.

Biomarkers allow the spotting of chemical toxic effects well before more obvious morphological changes or population declines become apparent (Lomartire et al., 2021; Chahouri et al., 2023). For example, stress enzymes and physiological responses have often been used to identify aquatic toxicity (dos Santos and Martínez, 2014; Iummato et al., 2018). In the case of the exotic mussel *Limnoperna fortunei* (Dunker 1857), morphological variations, such as changes in the relative gill area and shell morphology, have been linked to the presence of sediment and chemical pollution (Paolucci et al., 2014). Physiological variables, including metabolic and feeding rates in introduced bivalves, have served as biomarkers for assessing environmental stress and pollution in both marine and freshwater habitats (Barrera-Escorcía et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2014; Collins et al., 2020). While the activation of cellular detoxification mechanisms offers an early warning of toxicity, effects at higher levels of organization, such as individual physiology, morphology, or behavior, have greater potential to translate into population and ecosystem impacts (Sureda et al., 2018; Lionetto et al., 2021). An applied challenge is that estimated toxicity can be highly dependent of the standards and methods used, and approaches to reconcile conclusions are needed (Hollert and Backhaus, 2019). One possible way to enhance the informativeness and sensitivity of monitoring is using a battery of biomarkers instead of single measurements (Potet et al., 2016).

This study aimed to experimentally evaluate, for the first time, the individual and combined effects of commercial formulations of glyphosate and imidacloprid on the freshwater invasive clam *C. largillierti*. To elucidate the ecotoxicological sublethal concentrations of these pesticides on aquatic organisms, we utilized glycogen content as an indicator of cellular energy status and multiple oxidative stress parameters as indicators of cellular redox status. In order to assess responses at the organism level, we measured respiration rates as a proxy for metabolic rates. Further, we hypothesized that, considering the different modes of action of the active ingredients, the combined effects would follow additive patterns on studied biomarkers of the clams. To test this, we

compared the effects of the mixtures to the algebraic sum of the effects from the clams treated with single doses.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Field methods and organism acclimation

Specimens of *C. largillierti* were sampled in an irrigation channel (length ca. 10 km, average width 1.5 m) in the town of Coronel Moldes, Salta, Argentina (25°16'25.4"S 65°28'31.2"W; see detailed map in [Liquin et al., 2023](#)) in August 2021. Individuals were collected manually. In-situ water characterization using a Hanna Edge multiparameter meter was 12.3 °C, conductivity 450 µS, pH 8.67. For dissolved nutrients, immediate determinations were done using Hach kits. Dissolved nitrogen was 3.7 mg L⁻¹ and dissolved phosphorus 0.04 mg L⁻¹. Turbidity 6.99 NTU and total alkalinity 48.5 mg L⁻¹ CaCO₃. Ca. 60 clams were transported within 2 h to the laboratory at the University of Salta, placed into small holding aquaria (10 L) supplied with dechlorinated tap water permanently aerated, and fed once per day with *Chlorella vulgaris* monoculture. Water was partially replaced, and temperature was

adjusted daily at a rate of 1 °C per day until reaching the experimental temperature (18 °C).

2.2. Exposure experiments

A total of 35 clams were exposed for 48 h to two concentrations per pesticide and two pesticide combinations: low and high imidacloprid (LI and HI, respectively); low and high glyphosate (LG and HG, respectively); and low and high mixtures treatments (LM and HM). In addition, a control treatment (C) was applied using dechlorinated and filtered tap water. For that, five days after collection, each clam was randomly assigned individually to an experimental unit with 450 mL of filtered and dechlorinated tap water without pesticides (C), 20 µg L⁻¹ (LI) or 200 µg L⁻¹ (HI) of active ingredient (a.i) imidacloprid, 0.3 (LG) or 3 mg L⁻¹ (HG) of a.i glyphosate and their mixtures 20 µg L⁻¹ I + 0.3 mg L⁻¹ G (LM) and 200 µg L⁻¹ I + 3 mg L⁻¹ G (HM) ([Fig. 1](#)). Pesticide concentrations were chosen to be representative of probable situations in natural aquatic ecosystems in Argentina using glyphosate environmental reports ([Brovini et al., 2021](#)) and within the range of previous studies for comparative purposes (e.g., [Iummato et al., 2013](#); [dos Santos and Martínez,](#)

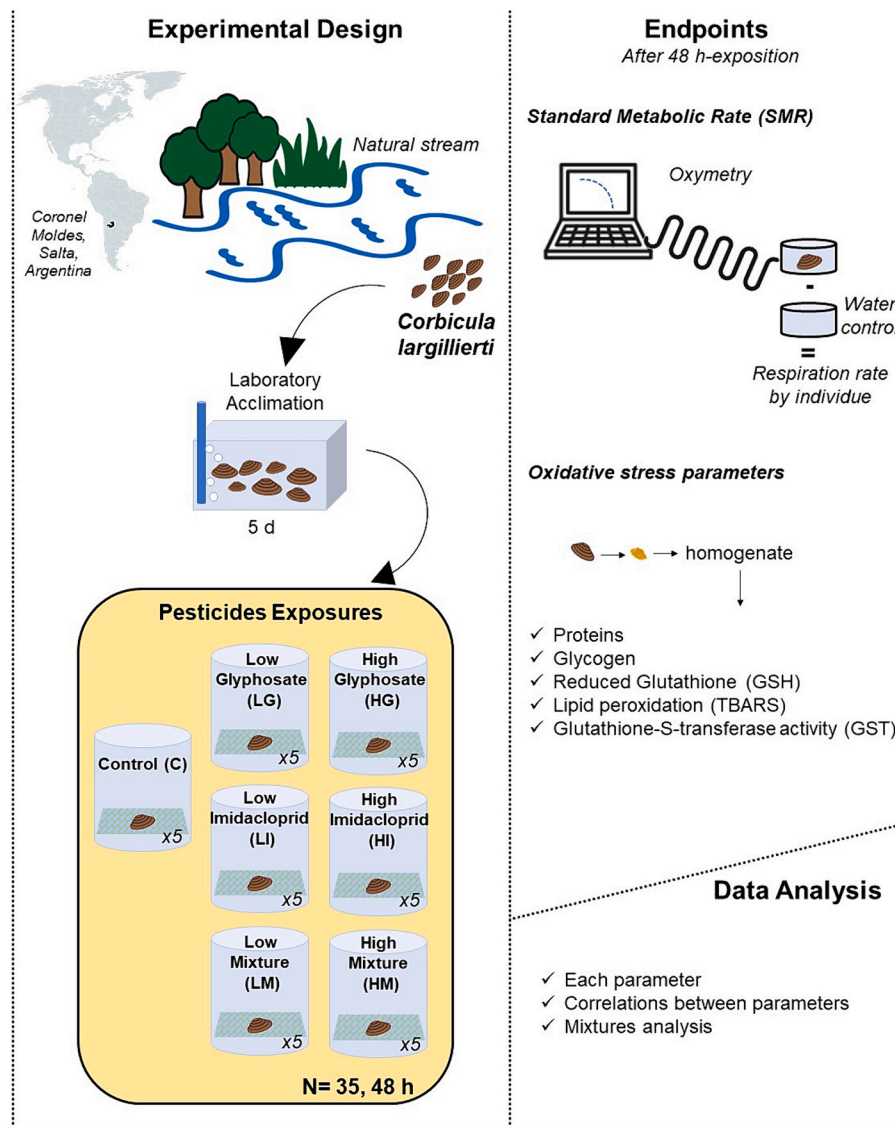


Fig. 1. General scheme of the experimental design and studied endpoints. Pesticide treatments were C (without pesticides), LG (0.3 mg L⁻¹ glyphosate), HG (3 mg L⁻¹ glyphosate), LI (20 µg L⁻¹ imidacloprid), HI (200 µg L⁻¹ imidacloprid), LM (0.3 mg L⁻¹ glyphosate + 20 µg L⁻¹ imidacloprid) and HM (3 mg L⁻¹ glyphosate + 200 µg L⁻¹ imidacloprid). Experimental units had 450 mL of filtered and dechlorinated tap water.

2014; Lozano et al., 2018; Lozano et al., 2020). For imidacloprid, the concentration in its mixture with glyphosate was estimated based on both: agronomic recipes for horticultural crops (at a ratio of 15:1 glyphosate to imidacloprid) and previous studies (Shan et al., 2020). This approach ensures relevance to real-world scenarios and enhances the ecological validity of our experimental design. Constant temperature of 18 °C, permanent aeration and natural day-night cycle were maintained throughout the experiments. The number of replicates per treatment was $n = 5$.

Stock solutions for each treatment were prepared using the appropriate volume of chemical into dechlorinated and filtered tap water. Exposure concentrations were prepared by pipetting the appropriate amount of the stock solutions into test chambers containing the additional volume of dechlorinated and filtered tap water. Each treatment had 5 replicates, a single individual per chamber was used (total 35 clams). Experiments were conducted in controlled temperature chambers at 18 °C and a natural 11.5–12.5 h day-night cycle. Clams were not fed during the exposure time. No dead individuals were recorded during or after the experiments (open valves and response to tactile stimuli were checked daily during the experiments).

2.3. Measurement of oxygen consumption and calculation of standard metabolic rates

Oxygen consumption in the experimental chambers was measured on individual specimens using planar oxygen-sensitive spot sensors and fiber optic oxygen sensitive coating (type Pst7-10) connected to an OXY-1 ST temperature-compensated single channel device (PreSens®, Regensburg, Germany). Sensor spots were glued in the internal glass face of the respiration chambers, following factory instructions, which allowed to record oxygen concentrations inside the sealed chambers approaching the fiber optic to the external face (Watson et al., 2013; Liquin et al., 2021). The combination of fiber optic and contactless oxygen sensors has proved to be a reliable method to measure oxygen concentration due to it reduces error variation, reducing drift over time, does not consume oxygen, and provides faster response time as a compared to polarographic oxygen sensors or even to chemical methods as Winkler (Papkovsky, 2004; Drown et al., 2020; Sukigara et al., 2021). Sensors were calibrated at 0 and 100 % oxygen saturation points using a 5 % sodium sulfite solution and gently stirred filtered water at 18 °C, respectively (Paolucci et al., 2022). Specimens were carefully transferred from the experimental units into the individual 30 mL glass chambers filled with treatment water at 18 °C, sealed and incubated for ~4 h, or until oxygen saturation reached a minimum of 50 %. The use of a sealed respiration chamber during a single period allows to yield an average metabolic rate based on the oxygen consumption at multiple time points for a single organism as the oxygen declines in the chamber, integrating changes on respiration activity along with natural metabolic variability (Auer et al., 2018). Measures of fourteen respiration chambers, seven with one clam each and seven using only experimental water (respiration controls) were recorded simultaneously on a personal computer through a serial connector until totalizing 35 individuals (five per treatment) and 35 water respiration control measurements. The measure of respiration in water was conducted to discard possible effects of the treatments in the water column. The use of antibiotics was avoided due to possible effects on clams' bacterial microfilms (Vargas et al., 2019), each clam's oxygen consumption rate was corrected by the respective water respiration control measurement. Oxygen concentrations were measured every 30 min in each chamber. Linear regressions of oxygen concentrations against the time were performed and the rate of oxygen consumption was estimated from the 50–80 % oxygen concentration interval.

After each respiration session, shell length (L), width (W), and height (H) were measured to the nearest 0.1 mm using a caliper in each clam (precision 0.01 mm) to estimate maximum anterior–posterior, lateral, and dorsal–ventral dimensions, respectively. These dimensions were

used to estimate shell free dry weight (SFDW) and clam's volume following equations in Coughlan et al. (2021) and Novack-Gottshall (2008), respectively. Clam standard metabolic rates (SMR) were calculated as the consumed oxygen (μmol) of each clam from the chamber and relativized to each specimen using its SFDW in grams. All clams were conserved at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ after respiration and kept for further oxidative stress analyses.

2.4. Oxidative stress parameters

Soft tissue body of each individual was homogenized separately with an agitator machine (Precytec, 1500 rpm) in 0.154-M ice-cold KCl solution (1:6 weight:volume ratio) with protease inhibitors (0.2-mM benzamidine and 0.5-mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride). Homogenates were used for determining the total glycogen content (Van Handel, 1965). The rest of each homogenate was further centrifuged for 20 min at 11,000 g and 4 °C. The supernatant was used for enzyme assays, and determination of proteins and reduced glutathione contents and acid-reactive substances by the means of molecular spectrophotometric methods (UV-160A Shimadzu Corporation).

Proteins were determined following Bradford (1976). The technique used to measure reduced glutathione (GSH) was the Anderson (1985) method. This procedure involved the deproteinization of the samples using 10 % sulfosalicylic acid. Next, GSH concentration was oxidized by 5.5-dithiobis-2-nitrobenzoic acid (DTNB) in a 0.134-M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5, 6.3 mM EDTA) and monitored at 412 nm. The results were expressed as nanomoles of GSH per milligram of protein. The levels of lipid peroxidation were determined using the modified method of Buege and Aust (1978) by estimating the concentration of thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS). Samples were incubated with 0.37 % thiobarbituric acid, 15 % trichloroacetic acid, and 0.68-mM butylated hydroxytoluene at 100 °C for 15 min. After cooling, the samples were centrifuged at 11,000g for 10 min at 4 °C, and the concentration of TBARS was measured at 535 nm. The results were expressed as micromoles of TBARS per milligram of protein. Finally, glutathione S-Transferase (GST) activity was determined following the method described by Habig et al. (1974). The assay involved monitoring changes in the absorbance of 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) at 340 nm for a duration of 90 s. A single GST unit was defined as the enzyme quantity required to catalyze the formation of 1 μmol of DNP-SG per minute at 25 °C. The results were expressed in units of GST per milligram of protein.

2.5. Data analysis

To assess the treatment effects on *Corbicula largillierti*'s metabolic parameters, ANOVA and Holm-Sidak comparisons with the control were conducted in SigmaPlot v.14. Where the ANOVA assumptions of normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Brown-Forsythe test) were not met, various transformations were tested until they were satisfied. Only SMR data was transformed using the square root. Principal Component Analysis classified by treatments was runned in InfoStat v.2020 using standardized values. Mixture effects analyses were employed to identify any antagonistic, additive, or synergistic interactions resulting from the mixture treatments (LM and HM) on all metabolic parameters. Specifically, observed effects were compared to additive expected effects using Student's *t*-test, and the 95 % confidence intervals (CI95) of the expected additivity effects were compared to the obtained and normalized CI95 for the graphical resume, following Lozano et al. (2018).

3. Results

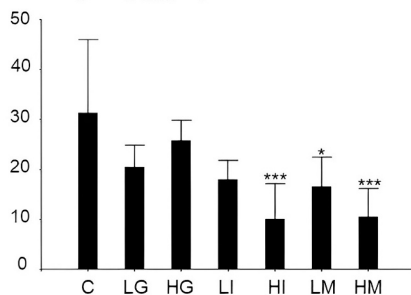
The clams used in this study ranged 12.6–19.1 mm length (average 14.4 mm) and 0.012–0.027 g_{SFDW} (average 0.019 g_{SFDW}), no significant differences in SFDW were found among pesticide treatments (ANOVA, *p*

= 0.8007).

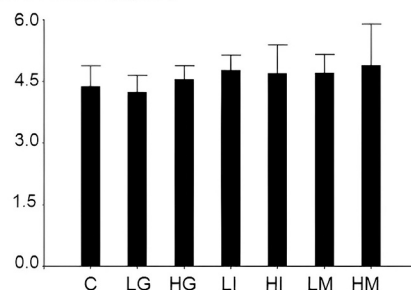
The average SMR (\pm SD) for the control clams was $31.36 \pm 13.05 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}_{\text{SFDW}}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. SMR was significantly reduced in HI, LM and HM treatments (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$, $p = 0.029$ and $p < 0.001$ respectively) (Fig. 2A). The highest and significant decreases in the metabolic rates were observed when the imidacloprid treatment was applied at the highest concentration, in which metabolic rates decreased until average values of $10.30 \pm 6.04 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}_{\text{SFDW}}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. At low imidacloprid concentrations, standard metabolic rates decreased to 18.02 ± 16.40 and $16.59 \pm 15.20 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}_{\text{SFDW}}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for the LI and LM, respectively. The oxygen variations from the water without specimens (respiration controls) did not show significant variations between treatments (ANOVA, $p = 0.951$), average was $0.05 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1}$ with a range from -0.19 to 0.18 . When glyphosate was applied as a single treatment it did not produce variations of metabolic rates values with respect to non-pesticide controls regardless of the used concentration.

Protein content showed no significant differences among any of the treatments (ANOVA, $p = 0.585$; Fig. 2B) while glycogen concentration was significantly reduced by 37–40 % in the LM and HM treatments compared to the control (ANOVA, $p = 0.0017$ and $p = 0.024$ respectively; Fig. 2C). GSH was reduced by 28–37 % in LI, LM, and HM treatments (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$) while GST activity showed no significant differences in any of the treatments (Fig. 2D and E). Finally, TBARS almost doubled in the HM treatment compared with the control (ANOVA, $p = 0.0013$) (Fig. 2E).

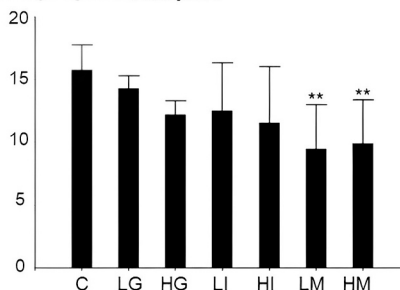
A. SMR ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}_{\text{SFDW}}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)



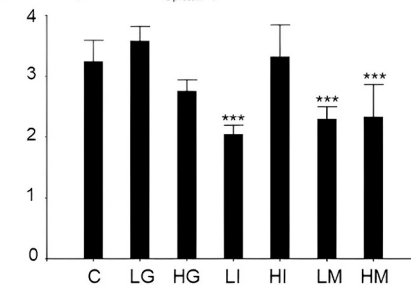
B. Proteins (mg mL^{-1})



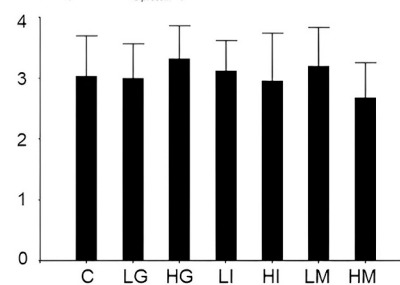
C. Glycogen ($\text{mg g}_{\text{homogenate}}^{-1}$)



D. GSH ($\text{nmol GSH mg}_{\text{protein}}^{-1}$)



E. GST ($\text{U GST mg}_{\text{protein}}^{-1}$)



E. TBARS ($\mu\text{mol MDA mg}_{\text{protein}}^{-1}$)

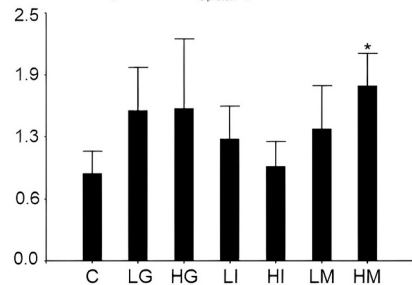


Fig. 2. Metabolic and oxidative stress parameters of *C. largillierii* after a 48-h exposure period. C (without pesticides), LG (0.3 mg L^{-1} glyphosate), HG (3 mg L^{-1} glyphosate), LI ($20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ imidacloprid), HI ($200 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ imidacloprid), LM (0.3 mg L^{-1} glyphosate + $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ imidacloprid) and HM (3 mg L^{-1} glyphosate + $200 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ imidacloprid). Asterisks show significant differences to controls (ANOVA, Holm-Sidak comparisons, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$).

The ordination of treatments using all biomarkers accounted for 76.9 % of the total variance (Fig. 3). Principal Component 1 (CP1) was

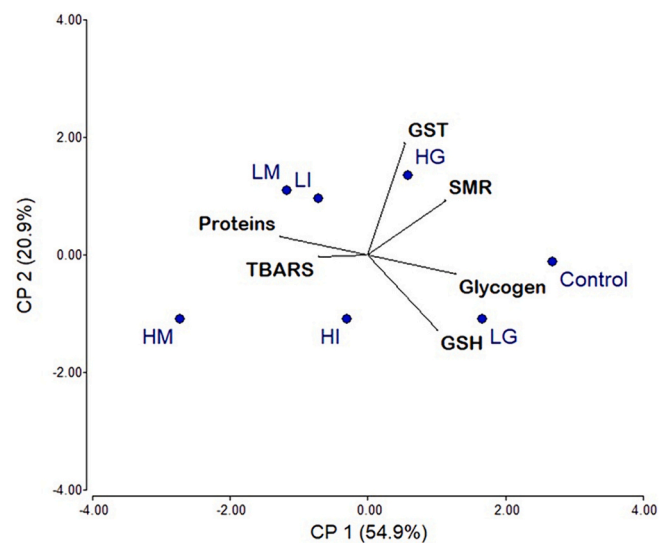


Fig. 3. Principal component analysis of all the studied biomarkers classified by treatments (5 replicates by treatment).

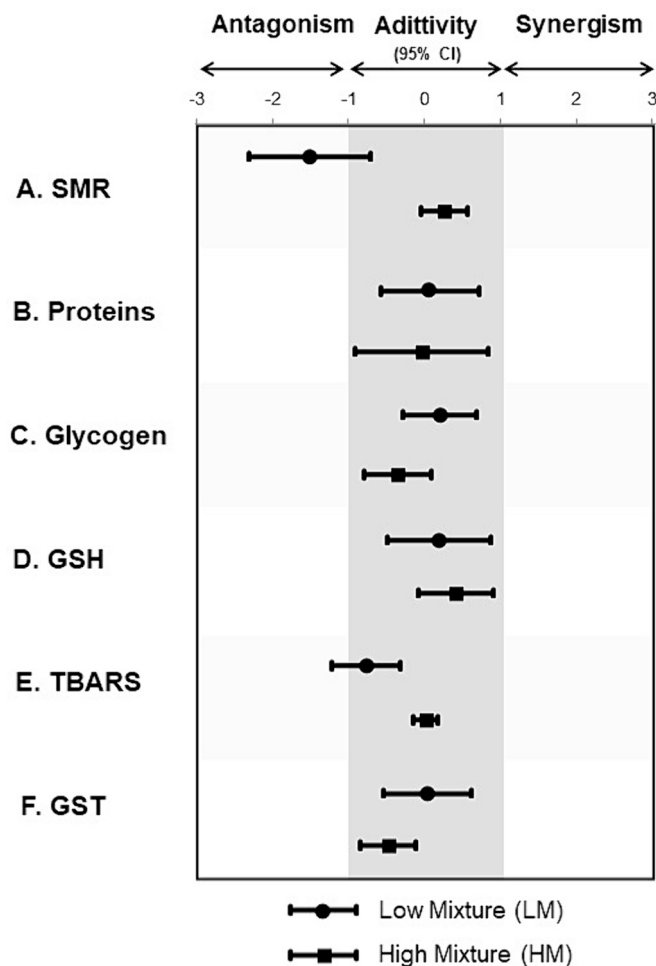


Fig. 4. Mixture's effects analysis on all the parameters. Confidence intervals inside the grey-zone are not statically significant for t-student when obtained and expected additivity results of the mixtures are compared.

positively correlated with glycogen and GSH, and inversely correlated with TBARS, explaining 54.9 % of the variance. Meanwhile, Principal Component 2 (CP2) was directly correlated with GST, explaining 20.9 % of the variance. The distribution of treatments was linked to the control group exhibiting high glycogen levels, while the LG and HI groups were associated with elevated GSH content. Treatments LI, LM, and HG were associated with GST. On the other hand, HM was linked to high TBARS values.

Mixture analysis shows that glyphosate and imidacloprid, at low and high concentrations, acts additively on all the parameters (t-student, $p > 0.05$ in all cases, Fig. 4).

4. Discussion

The present results represent the first bioassays conducted using *C. largillierti* and the first available assessment of the effects of pesticides on bivalve metabolic rates in combination with other stress biomarkers. Our experiments shows that when applied individually, imidacloprid has a significant impact on *C. largillierti* metabolism, particularly on standard metabolic rate, whereas this effect was not observed in glyphosate treatment. However, when glyphosate and imidacloprid are combined, they exhibit additive effects in all the analyzed endpoints. These combined effects account for most of the significant results, which include not only a decrease in respiration rate but also a reduction in glycogen content and changes in several indicators of non-enzymatic responses to stressful conditions.

4.1. Effects of pesticides on metabolic rates

Prior to this study, the metabolic rates of *C. largillierti* have been measured only twice. The respiration rates measured in our study fell in the range of previously reported values for unexposed *C. largillierti* (Hünicken et al., 2022a; Rodríguez et al., 2020), as well as for *Corbicula* spp. in general (reviewed in Hünicken et al., 2022b). We did not observe any significant decrease in these rates when the clams were exposed to low or high concentrations of glyphosate. However, we did observe significant decreases up to 68 % in respiration rate after a two-day exposure to imidacloprid alone (high concentration) or in combination with glyphosate (any concentration). Previous reports have shown reduced oxygen consumption rates after exposure to neonicotinoid (Thiamethoxam) and organophosphate insecticides (Chlorpyrifos, Dimethoate) in freshwater bivalves (Kumar et al., 2012; Minakshi and Mahajan, 2013; Yancheva et al., 2017). Imidacloprid has been shown to have effects on gill morphology and filtration rates in several freshwater (Ahire and Dethe, 2023; Ewere et al., 2021) and marine mollusks (Ewere et al., 2019a; Ewere et al., 2019b; Malhotra et al., 2021). In the case of *Corbicula fluminea*, significant histopathological alterations of the gills and reductions in filtration rates were observed after exposure to imidacloprid concentrations ranging 20–2000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for 30 days (Shan et al., 2020). To the best of our knowledge, our results for *C. largillierti* constitute the first direct observation of impact of imidacloprid on respiration rates, confirming the swift and significant impacts of this pesticide on non-target aquatic organisms.

4.2. Effects of pesticides on oxidative stress parameters

Our analyses of oxidative stress parameters also suggest significant impacts of pesticides on aquatic organisms. We observed significant decreases in GSH levels in clams exposed to imidacloprid alone or in combination with glyphosate. GSH is a non-enzymatic antioxidant that protects organisms against the effects of oxidative stress (Cnubben et al., 2001). GSH levels have been observed to change (either increase or decrease, depending on the substance and organism) as a response to oxidative stress induced by pesticides (Sule et al., 2022). For example, GSH levels were found to increase in the gills of the freshwater mussel *Unio mancus* when exposed to concentrations of imidacloprid at 1000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, with lower concentrations having no effects (Yoloğlu, 2019). An increase in GSH levels can be interpreted as a cellular protective response when oxidative stress agents are detected, whereas decreases could be seen as a depletion of resources as stress agents increase further and defense mechanisms get overwhelmed. GSH decreases in *C. largillierti* exposed to imidacloprid, even at concentrations that did not produce any changes in *Unio mancus*, might indicate a higher sensitivity in the former.

TBARS and glycogen also provide evidence of oxidative stress in *C. largillierti*. TBARS is one of the earlier markers developed for detecting oxidative damage to lipids (Dasgupta and Klein, 2014; Sule et al., 2022), which was significant under high-mixture conditions. Both mixture conditions showed decreases in glycogen levels. It is conceivable that reduced siphoning or valve closure occurred in these treatments, as inhibition siphoning behavior has been observed in *Corbicula* sp. clams exposed to imidacloprid at concentrations ranging 20–2000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for 30 days (Shan et al., 2020). Glycogen is a form of cellular energy storage. Anaerobic metabolic pathways used during anoxia are less efficient than aerobic pathways and can lead to its depletion.

GST is enzyme protecting against xenobiotics that has been shown to play a role in imidacloprid and glyphosate detoxification several freshwater invasive bivalves including *C. fluminea* (Yoloğlu, 2019; Shan et al., 2020; Iummato et al., 2013, 2018, 2024). The fact that it was not affected by any pesticide treatment in our study could be attribute to the short exposure time (48 h) of our experiments. Previous studies have observed increases in GST in *C. fluminea* clams exposed to imidacloprid concentrations of 20–2000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ after 30 d (Shan et al., 2020). GST

increases have been observed for other bivalve and gastropod mollusks only after 4–14 d of exposure (Yoloğlu, 2019; Cossi et al., 2020). Iummato et al. (2013, 2018) have observed GST increases in invasive *Limnoperna fortunei* golden mussels exposed to glyphosate supplied dietarily and directly at concentrations between 1 and 6 mg L⁻¹ in Buenos Aires. Yet these effects were not seen before 21–26 d. Similar results were obtained for the freshwater bivalve *Diplodon chilensis* in Patagonia exposed to 4–6 mg L⁻¹, where significant GST increases occurred after 7 d in dietary exposures and 14 d in direct exposures (Iummato et al., 2024). By contrast, shorter (96-h) exposures at 2–10 mg L⁻¹ did not have any GST effects on *C. fluminea* (dos Santos and Martínez, 2014). These comparisons suggest that our 48 h exposures were too short to observe an effect of either pesticide on GST. The delay in the effects is likely related to time needed by the cellular machinery to express and synthesize GST, which can be enhanced by the specific metabolic detoxification pathway followed for each compound. GST is primarily involved in phase II metabolism. The prime detoxification pathway for imidacloprid is phase I metabolism while phase II metabolism might be activated secondarily, after phase one has been overwhelmed (Lu et al., 2016).

4.3. Mixture effects

This is the first study on the combined action of glyphosate and imidacloprid on freshwater bivalves. Our results provide evidence of additive effects on *C. largillierti*, as mixtures of imidacloprid and glyphosate produced effects on stress markers (TBARS and glycogen) that were not observed when the individual pesticides were applied separately. Recent research has shown synergistic effects of these pesticides on human liver (HepG2) cells (Conte et al., 2022) and either synergistic or additive effects on bees, depending on pesticide concentration (Pal et al., 2022). In concordance with our own results, these studies suggest that intermediate concentrations have higher effects than high concentrations (Pal et al., 2022). In aquatic environments, it has recently been observed that pesticides mixtures including glyphosate and imidacloprid induce both oxidative stress and genotoxicity in caimans in Argentina, although the action of the two compounds appears to be independent (Odetti et al., 2023). In that study, toxicity was primarily led by imidacloprid, which is in coincidence with our results (SMR and GSH) for Asian clams.

The effects of pesticides mixtures may not be permanent, as reported in other bivalves where a reduction of imidacloprid residuals and other pesticides was observed after a depuration period in pesticide-free water (Beltran and Pocsidio, 2010; Siu et al., 2004), or even after 2–3 days of continuous exposure in bivalves (Ewere et al., 2019a). However, considering the widespread use and persistence of these chemicals and their transformation products in the water (Thuyet et al., 2011), it is expected that exposure in natural ecosystems is likely to be longer and involve a greater variety of chemical compounds than those considered in the present study.

The complexities highlighted above underscore the difficulty of predicting the effects of pesticides on aquatic ecosystems. Our results suggest on the one hand that a strongly regulatory focus on imidacloprid should be placed. On the other hand, however, it is increasingly clear that overall toxicity is not provided by one component or the other but the mixture. Even individual components behave sometimes unexpectedly when, for example, lower concentrations yield higher toxicity than higher concentrations (Yoloğlu, 2019; Pal et al., 2022; Fig. 2D). Further research on pesticides mixtures and their interaction with other stressors (e.g., invasive species, habitat destruction, and climate change) is clearly needed before we can understand these effects sufficiently to inform policy and management. This need is highlighted by the fact that chemical mixtures and multiple stressors enhancing aquatic toxicity and ecosystem impacts (Pizarro et al., 2016a) likely represent common scenarios in agroecosystems (Bonmatin et al., 2015; Ewere et al., 2019a; Ewere et al., 2019b; LeBlanc et al., 2012).

4.4. Multiple biomarker approach

Our results demonstrate the advantages of adopting a combined and multilevel approach for detecting stressors or pollution effects (Lionetto et al., 2021). Cellular markers are potentially fast and easy to measure. Yet, unless organism physiology is affected, effects at the cellular level do not necessarily translate into consequences for fitness that can scale up to impact populations, communities, and ecosystems. Here, we have established direct links between changes on oxidative stress parameters and metabolic effects in *C. largillierti*. Furthermore, while physiological endpoints provide valuable information at the organism level, oxidative stress parameters can enhance sensitivity and offer precise insights into the source and cellular mechanisms of chemical impacts. Thus, the combination of multiple endpoints significantly enhances our understanding and predictive capabilities. Our results also underscore the potential for using invasive bivalves as bioindicators to monitor pollution in freshwater ecosystems.

A potential limitation of our approach is related to the existence of multiple commercial forms of the tested pesticides in the market. These forms may have different formulations, sometimes not precisely described. They can exert distinct effects on ecotoxicological biomarkers among themselves and differ from the active ingredients due to added toxicity from additives (Maletz et al., 2015). Moreover, once released into the environment, both the active ingredients and the additives can follow various transformation pathways and interact in unexpected ways, depending on the application procedures and ambient physicochemical conditions. These conditions can substantially differ from laboratory settings (Maletz et al., 2015) and their influence cannot be adequately assessed without the use of more sophisticated and realistic experimental settings, which are not universally available in every research center (e.g., Van den Brink et al., 2005). A further complexity arises from the potential impact of the ecotoxicological markers used and the specific exposure scenario assessed. A more recent study by Benbrook (2019) clearly exposed the vastly different conclusions that can be drawn regarding the toxicity of glyphosate to humans, depending on how these factors were considered by two different regulatory frameworks. These studies underscore the challenges associated with assessing the ecological impacts of even common agrochemicals (Hollert and Backhaus, 2019).

4.5. Implications for invasion ecology

Our study holds potential implications in the field of invasion ecology, particularly concerning the prediction of invasive potential. According to our present results, chemical pollution might impose limits on the spread of freshwater invasive bivalves in some situations. It can also influence the replacement of invasive species based on their differing physiological responses to chemical stressors (Potet et al., 2016).

In the case of *C. largillierti* and *C. fluminea*, two closely related invasive species typically introduced to the same environments, various factors, such as competition (Pereira et al., 2014), differences in tolerance to environmental conditions (Rodríguez et al., 2020), and physiological differences (Hünicken et al., 2022a), have been proposed to explain coexistence in Argentina. *Corbicula largillierti* tends to prevail in low-order rivers and lakes in the northern and central part of the country, where *C. fluminea* is relatively rare (Pereira et al., 2014; Rodríguez et al., 2020; Rumi et al., 2008). *Corbicula fluminea* is usually considered the stronger competitor and replaces *C. largillierti* in more productive habitats (Hünicken et al., 2022a). However, further studies are necessary to compare the response of these species to agrochemical exposure and analyze the role of chemical pollution in species substitutions.

4.6. Conclusions and next steps

Physiological endpoints allow us to detect the effects of chemical

pollution well before more obvious morphological changes or population declines become apparent. When combined with enzymatic markers, this approach not only enhances our ability to detect these effects but also help us trace their causes. It highlights the potential use of widespread and abundant invasive bivalves as potential bioindicators to monitor the degradation of aquatic ecosystems. Contaminants in chemical mixtures can potentiate and behave in unpredictably. Future research steps should include the assessment of condition index and morphological variables to further improve the use of this species as biomarker. Since exposure times vary among studies, conducting experiments at different exposure times would be a valuable next research step to gain deeper understanding of cellular stress pathways in *C. largillierii* exposed to imidacloprid. Moreover, experimentation under more realistic conditions, which test different commercial forms and incorporate the use of increasingly complex chemical mixtures, exposure to multiple stressors, and the utilization of mesocosms, should be considered.

Compliance with ethical standards

The authors declare that she has no conflict of interest. This article does not involve any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

V.L. Lozano: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **E.M. Paolucci:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **S.E. Sabatini:** Methodology, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **T. Noya Abad:** Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **C. Muñoz:** Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **F. Liquin:** Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **H. Hollert:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **F. Sylvester:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

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

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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