

Développement d'indicateurs chimiques et biologiques pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contaminés.

Maxime Louzon

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Par

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Développement d'indicateurs chimiques et biologiques pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contaminés.

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Avant-propos

La présente thèse vise à acquérir des connaissances fondamentales et appliquées pour le développement d'indicateurs chimiques et biologiques avec le bioindicateur de la qualité des sols *Cantareus aspersus*. La thèse combine donc un volet fondamental nécessaire à l'acquisition de connaissances manquantes pour le développement d'un deuxième volet, un volet appliqué visant à développer des indicateurs répondant aux besoins des gestionnaires des sites et sols pollués (SSP). La thèse est organisée en trois axes scientifiques complémentaires :

- Le développement d'indicateurs pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des contaminants (métal(loïde)s, hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP) et polychlorobiphényles (PCB)) transférés au bioindicateur *C. aspersus*.
- 2. L'acquisition de connaissances toxicologiques à différents niveaux d'organisation (molécules, cellules, individus) pour une interprétation plus spécifique des indicateurs de risques développés dans le premier axe. Parmi les cibles moléculaires, l'étude de la pertinence de la dynamique des télomères en toxicologie environnementale pour l'identification d'altérations de l'état de santé des individus a été initiée.
- 3. Le couplage de méthodologies d'évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE) et sanitaires (ERS) pour le développement de méthodologies intégratives d'évaluations des risques via l'étude de liens entre la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et la bioaccumulation pour l'escargot, et les indicateurs de risques sanitaires de la méthodologie nationale de gestion des sites et sols pollués et environnementaux développés dans les deux axes précédents.

La structure du manuscrit de thèse est la suivante : une introduction générale synthétique suivie par des chapitres et sous chapitres qui correspondent à des articles de recherches (ou synthèses bibliographiques spécifiques) acceptés, soumis ou en préparation (en anglais avec le résumé traduit en français). Chacun de ces chapitres est pourvu d'une introduction qui complète les connaissances mentionnées dans l'introduction générale, d'une section spécifique de matériels et méthodes, d'une partie résultat et discussion et d'une conclusion. Enfin, la dernière partie du manuscrit propose une discussion et une conclusion générale, les chapitres de la thèse. Une bibliographie générale qui concerne à la fois l'introduction générale, les chapitres et la discussion termine le manuscrit afin de faciliter la lecture et la recherche de l'ensemble des références (y compris celles des publications).

Liste des publications de la thèse

Articles acceptés dans des revues indexées au Journal Citation Report (JCR) de l'International Scientific Index (ISI) :

- Louzon M, Pauget B, Pelfrêne A, Gimbert F, de Vaufleury A., <u>2021</u>. Combining human and snail indicators for an integrative risk assessment of metal(loid)-contaminated soils. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* In Press. DOI: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2020.124182.
- Louzon M, Devalloir Q, Gimbert F, Pauget B, Rieffel D, de Vaufleury A., <u>2021</u>. From bioavailability to risk assessment of polluted soil using snail: link between excess transfer and inhibition of sexual maturation. Environmental Science and Pollution Research In Press. DOI: 10.1007/s11356-020-11556-8.
- <u>Louzon M</u>, Zahn S, Capelli N, Massemin S, Coeurdassier M, Pauget B, Gimbert F, de Vaufleury A., <u>2020</u>. **Impact of ageing and soil contaminants on telomere length in the land snail.** *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 201:110766. DOI: 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.110766.
- Louzon M, Pelfrêne A, Pauget B, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, Douay F, de Vaufleury A., 2020.
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- <u>Louzon M</u>, Pauget B, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, de Vaufleury A., <u>2020</u>. *Ex situ* environmental risk assessment of polluted soils using threshold guide values for the land snail Cantareus aspersus. *Science of the Total Environment* 721:137789. DOI: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.137789.
- <u>Louzon M</u>, Coeurdassier M, Gimbert F, Pauget B, de Vaufleury A., <u>2019</u>. **Telomere dynamic in humans and animals: Review and perspectives in environmental toxicology.** *Environment International* 131:105025. DOI:10.1016/j.envint.2019.105025.

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- Louzon M, Gimbert F, Pauget B, Morin-Crini N, Maly S, Rieffel D, Devalloir Q, Amiot C, de Vaufleury A. <u>2019</u>. Thirty nine threshold guide values (TGV-ex situ) for environmental risk assessment of contaminated soils with Cantareus aspersus. SETAC EUROPE 2019, Helsinki (FI), Communication affichée sous la forme d'un poster.
- Louzon M, Pelfrêne A, Pauget B, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, Rieffel D, Amiot C, Douay F, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Assessment of metal(loid) bioavailability for land snails and human bioaccessibility: A new pathway to build bridges between ecotoxicological and human health risk assessment of contaminated soils. SETAC EUROPE 2019, Helsinki (FI), Communication orale.

Nationales :

- Louzon M, Pauget B, Pelfrêne A, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, Rieffel D, Amiot C, Douay F, de Vaufleury A. <u>2019</u>. Couplage de la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et de la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot. 4EME RENCONTRES NATIONALES DE LA RECHERCHE SUR LES SITES ET SOLS POLLUES DE L'ADEME, Paris (FR), Communication orale.
- Louzon M, Gimbert F, Pauget B, Morin-Crini N, Rieffel D, Amiot C, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Valeurs guides chez l'escargot pour une évaluation ex situ de la biodisponibilité environnementale. 4EME RENCONTRES NATIONALES DE LA RECHERCHE SUR LES SITES ET SOLS POLLUES DE L'ADEME, Paris (FR), Communication affichée sous la forme d'un poster.
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- Louzon M, Zahn S, Capelli N, Coeurdassier M, Gimbert F, Massemin S, Pauget B, Criscuolo F, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Les télomères en écotoxicologie : Etat de l'art et premiers essais sur un invertébré terrestre. COLLOQUE DE LA SOCIETE FRANCAISE D'ECOTOXICOLOGIE FONDAMENTALE ET APPLIQUEE 2019, Lyon (FR), Communication orale.
- Louzon M, Devalloir Q, Gimbert F, Pauget B, Morin-Crini N, Amiot C, Rieffel D, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Hiérarchisation des risques environnementaux de sols contaminés par des éléments métalliques avec l'escargot: De la biodisponibilité environnementale à la biodisponibilité toxicologique. COLLOQUE DE LA SOCIETE FRANCAISE D'ECOTOXICOLOGIE FONDAMENTALE ET APPLIQUEE 2019, Lyon (FR), Communication affichée sous la forme d'un poster.
- Louzon M, Pauget B, Gimbert F, Pelfrêne A, de Vaufleury A. <u>2019</u>. COMBINE : Coupler des indicateurs chimiques et biologiques pour une évaluation intégrative des risques sanitaires et environnementaux. JOURNEE TECHNIQUE AXELERA/ADEME : PRISE EN COMPTE DES FONCTIONS ECOSYSTEMIQUES DU SOL ET DU SOUS-SOL EN CONTEXTE DE REAMENAGEMENT URBAIN, Lyon (FR), Communication orale.

A destination de jeunes chercheurs :

- Louzon M, Zahn S, Capelli N, Coeurdassier M, Gimbert F, Massemin S, Pauget B, Criscuolo F, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Impact of ageing and contaminants in soils on Cantareus aspersus: growth, sexual maturity and telomere length. FORUM DES JEUNES CHERCHEURS EN ENVIRONNEMENT SANTE DE BOURGOGNE FRANCHE COMTE 2019, Dijon (FR), Communication orale.
- Louzon M, Pauget B, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, Rieffel D, Devalloir Q, Amiot C, de Vaufleury A. 2019. Valeurs guides en contaminants chimiques pour évaluer la qualité de la chair des escargots de consommation et les risques environnementaux des sites et sols contaminés. CEREMONIE DE REMISE DE LA BOURSE DUFRENOY-CREDIT AGRICOLE MECENAT ILE DE FRANCE 2019, Paris (FR), Communication orale.
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- Louzon M, Pauget B, Pelfrêne A, Gimbert F, Morin-Crini N, Rieffel D, Amiot C, Douay F, de Vaufleury A. 2018. Evaluation de la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot et de la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme de l'arsenic, du cadmium et du plomb : une voie pour concilier l'évaluation des risques environnementaux et sanitaires des sites et sols contaminés ? JOURNEE DES DOCTORANTS DU LABORATOIRE CHRONO-ENVIRONNEMENT 2018, Besançon (FR), Communication orale.
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- Louzon M, Gimbert F, Pauget B, de Vaufleury A. <u>2017</u>. Contribution à l'évaluation des risques des sites et sols pollués. JOURNEE DES DOCTORANTS DU LABORATOIRE CHRONO-ENVIRONNEMENT 2017, Besançon (FR), Communication affichée sous la forme d'un poster.

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Table des matières

| PARTIE I – II | NTRODUCTION GENERALE | 22 |
|---------------------|---|-----|
| Ι. | La contamination des sols | 23 |
| 1.1. | Enjeux passés, présents et futurs | 23 |
| 1.2. | Etat de la contamination des sols | 24 |
| ١.3. | Impact de la contamination des sols et concept One Health | 27 |
| 1.3.1. | Impacts environnementaux | 27 |
| 1.3.2. | Impacts sanitaires | 29 |
| 1.3.3. | Le concept One Health | 29 |
| 2. | L'escargot bioindicateur de la pollution des sols | 31 |
| 2.1. | Le Petit-gris : bioindicateur à l'interface air-plante-sol | 3 I |
| 2.2. | Eléments de biologie, de physiologie et d'écologie du Petit-gris | 33 |
| 3. | L'exposition des organismes aux contaminants des sols | 38 |
| 3.1. | La disponibilité environnementale | 39 |
| 3.1.1. | Définition | 39 |
| 3.1.2. | Méthodes d'évaluations | 41 |
| 3.2. | La biodisponibilité environnementale | 41 |
| 3.2.1. | Définition | 41 |
| 3.2.2. | Méthodes d'évaluations | 43 |
| 3.2.3. | L'escargot pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale | 45 |
| 3.3. | La bioaccessibilité orale et l'exposition de l'homme | 46 |
| 3.3.1. | Définition | 46 |
| 3.3.2. | Méthodes d'évaluations | 48 |
| 4. | Les risques des sites et sols contaminés | 5 I |
| 4.1. | La biodisponibilité toxicologique | 52 |
| 4.1.1. | Définition | 52 |
| 4.1.2. télomères | Effets au niveau moléculaire : stress oxydant, stabilité du génome et dynamique des 54 | |
| 4.1.3. | Effets au niveau individuel : croissance et maturité sexuelle | 57 |
| 4.1.4. | Méthodes d'évaluations de la biodisponibilité toxicologique | 59 |
| 4.1.5. | L'escargot pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité toxicologique | 60 |
| 4.2. | Risques environnementaux | 61 |
| 4.2.1. | Méthodes d'évaluations | 61 |
| 4.2.2. | L'escargot pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contami 67 | nés |

| 4.3. | Risques sanitaires | 69 |
|---------------------------------|--|-------------|
| 4.3.1. | Méthodes d'évaluations | 69 |
| 4.3.2. sanitaires | Intégration de la bioaccessibilité orale dans les méthodes d'évaluation des risques 73 | |
| 5. | Objectifs | 75 |
| PARTIE II – IN ET SOLS COI | NDICATEURS POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES NTAMINES AVEC L'ESCARGOT | SITES 76 |
| l. de référence _l | Evaluation ex situ des risques environnementaux de sols pollués avec des valeurs gu pour l'escargot <i>Cantareus aspersus</i> | ides 77 |
| 1.1. | Introduction | 80 |
| 1.2. | Material and methods | 82 |
| 1.2.1. | Soils | 82 |
| 1.2.2. | Snails: Cantareus aspersus (Müller, 1774) | 83 |
| 1.2.3. | Exposure | 85 |
| 1.2.4. | Chemical analysis | 85 |
| 1.2.5. | Ex situ threshold guide value calculation | 86 |
| 1.2.6. | Accumulation quotient, risk coefficient and index calculation | 87 |
| 1.2.7. | Statistical analysis | 88 |
| 1.3. | Results and discussion | 88 |
| 1.3.1. | Ex situ threshold guide values | 88 |
| 1.3.2. | Application to contaminated soils | 89 |
| 1.3.3. | Influence of soil physico-chemical properties on the accumulation quotient | 95 |
| 1.4. | Conclusion | 97 |
| 2. environnemer | Bioessais in situ et ex situ avec Cantareus aspersus pour l'évaluation des risques ntaux des sols contaminés par les métal(loïde)s et les HAP | 99 |
| 2.1. | Introduction | 102 |
| 2.2. | Material and methods | 103 |
| 2.2.1. | Study site | 103 |
| 2.2.2. | Snails | 104 |
| 2.2.3. | In situ exposure | 106 |
| 2.2.4. | Ex situ exposure | 106 |
| 2.2.5. | End of exposure | 107 |
| 2.2.6. | Measurement of internal concentrations | 107 |
| 2.2.7. | Inter-laboratory validation | 108 |
| 2.2.8. | Data analysis and indice calculations with TGV | 109 |
| 2.3. | Results and discussion | 110 |
| 2.3.1. | In situ approach: inter-laboratory ring test | 110 |

| 2.3.2. land snails | In situ and ex situ approaches to assess bioavailability and risk of metal(loid)s and PAHs to II4 | |
|-----------------------------|---|---------------|
| 2.3.3. | Implication for environmental risk assessment | 117 |
| 2.4. | Conclusions | 118 |
| PARTIE III – E TOXICOLOG | DE LA BIODISPONIBILITE ENVIRONNEMENTALE A LA BIODISPONIBILITE GIQUE | 120 |
| Ι. | De la biodisponibilité à l'évaluation du risque des sols pollués avec l'escargot : lien | s entre |
| les excès de t | ransferts et l'inhibition de la maturité sexuelle | 121 |
| 1.1. | Introduction | 124 |
| 1.2. | Materials and methods | 125 |
| 1.2.1. | Soils | 125 |
| 1.2.2. | Snails | 126 |
| 1.2.3. | Exposure | 127 |
| 1.2.4. | Measurements of biological endpoints | 127 |
| 1.2.5. | Chemical analysis | 128 |
| 1.2.6. | Indice calculation: SET and ERITME | 128 |
| 1.2.7. | Statistical analysis | 129 |
| 1.3. | Results | 130 |
| 1.3.1. | Metal(loid) bioavailability and indice calculation | 130 |
| 1.3.2. indices | Relationships between biological endpoint disruption at 28 days and the SET or El I 30 | RITME |
| 1.3.3. | Ranking SET and ERITME indices with the SLS | 132 |
| 1.3.4. | SLS kinetics during 28 days of exposure | 132 |
| 1.4. | Discussion | 135 |
| 1.4.1. on land sna | Relationships between the SET and ERITME values and specific ecotoxicological e | ffects 135 |
| 1.4.2. | SET and ERITME indices as integrative tools to summarize the transfer and specifi | C 136 |
| | | |
| ו.ש. ר | De la biodise enibilité environnementele des métal/loïde)s à leurs effets | |
| z. écogénotoxic | ologiques pour l'escargot | 138 |
| 2.1. | Introduction | 141 |
| 2.2. | Materials and methods | 142 |
| 2.2.1. | Snails | 142 |
| 2.2.2. | Soils | 143 |
| 2.2.3. | Exposure | |
| 2.2.4 | Survival and growth inhibition | |
| 2.2.5 | Cytogenotoxicity assessment with the micronucleus assay | |
| 2.2.6. | Genomic stability assessment with the RAPD-HRS protocol | 145 |

| 2.2.7. | Bioaccumulation and accumulation quotient | 146 |
|----------------------|--|------|
| 2.2.8. | Statistical analysis | 147 |
| 2.3. | Results | 147 |
| 2.3.1. | Determination of the environmental bioavailability with the accumulation quotient | 47 |
| 2.3.2. | Relationships between survival or growth inhibition and the level of accumulation | 48 |
| 2.3.3. | Links between micronuclei or genomic stability and bioaccumulation | 49 |
| 2.3.4. | Physiological integration of the ecotoxicological responses | 50 |
| 2.4. | Discussion | 5 |
| 2.4.1. | Genotoxicity of arsenic and cadmium to land snails | 5 |
| 2.4.2. | Genotoxicity of mercury to land snails | 153 |
| 2.4.3. | From ecogenotoxicological bioavailability to environmental bioavailability | 153 |
| 2.5. | Conclusion | 155 |
| 3. perspectives o | Dynamique des télomères pour l'homme et les animaux : état des connaissances et en toxicologie environnementale | 156 |
| 3.1. | Introduction | 161 |
| 3.2. | Structure variability of telomeres in the animal kingdom | 162 |
| 3.3. | Maintenance of telomeres | 164 |
| 3.3.1. | Roles of telomerase | 164 |
| 3.3.2. | Roles of alternative lengthening telomeres | 165 |
| 3.3.3. | DNA repair of telomeres | 66 |
| 3.4. | Causes and consequences of telomere attrition | 66 |
| 3.4.1. | Ageing | 166 |
| 3.4.2. | Other causes | 68 |
| 3.4.3. | Consequences of telomere attrition on organism and population | 172 |
| 3.5. | Contaminants and effects on telomere dynamic | 173 |
| 3.5.1. | In humans | 173 |
| 3.5.2. | In animals | 180 |
| 3.6. | Perspectives for the assessment of telomere dynamic in environmental toxicology | 183 |
| 3.7. | Conclusion | 185 |
| 4. l'escargot | Effet du vieillissement et de la contamination des sols sur la longueur des télomères 187 | pour |
| 4.1. | Introduction | 190 |
| 4.2. | Material and methods | 191 |
| 4.2.1. | Snails | 191 |
| 4.2.2. | Soils | 192 |
| 4.2.3. | Exposure modalities | 192 |
| 4.2.4. | Growth and attainment of sexual maturity assessments | 193 |

| 4.2.5. | Bioaccumulation measurement | 194 |
|---|---|--------------|
| 4.2.6. | DNA extraction from haemocytes | 194 |
| 4.2.7. | Telomere length measurement | 194 |
| 4.2.8. | Data analysis | 195 |
| 4.3. | Results and discussion | 196 |
| 4.3.1. | Relationships between ageing and telomere length | 196 |
| 4.3.2. | Lethal and sublethal effects of contaminants | 197 |
| 4.3.3. | Bioaccumulation | 198 |
| 4.3.4. | Effects of contaminants on telomere length in haemocytes | 199 |
| 4.4. | Conclusions | 200 |
| PARTIE IV – C EVALUATION SOLS CONTA | COUPLAGE D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR UNE I INTEGRATIVE DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX ET SANITAIRES DES SITES MINES | ET 201 |
| l. pour l'escargo | Bioaccessibilité des métal(loïde)s dans les sols pour les humains et leurs biodisponibi t : une voie pour associer l'évaluation des risques sanitaires et environnementaux ? | lités 202 |
| 1.1. | Introduction | 205 |
| 1.2. | Experimental | 206 |
| 1.2.1. | Soils | 206 |
| 1.2.2. | UBM test | 210 |
| 1.2.3. | Snail test | 210 |
| 1.2.4. | Statistical analysis | 211 |
| 1.3. | Results and discussion | 212 |
| 1.3.1. | Oral bioaccessible fractions for humans and bioavailability to snails | 212 |
| l .3.2. bioavailabilit | Influence of soil parameters on oral bioaccessible concentrations for humans and y to snails | 215 |
| 1.3.3. | Relationships between oral bioaccessibility and bioavailability of metal(loid)s | 217 |
| 1.4. | Conclusion | 220 |
| 2. évaluation inté | Combiner les indicateurs sanitaires et environnementaux avec les escargots pour un grative des risques de sols contaminés par des métal(loïde)s | e 221 |
| 2.1. | Introduction | 224 |
| 2.2. | Experimental | 225 |
| 2.2.1. | Soils | 225 |
| 2.2.2. | Human health risk assessment | 225 |
| 2.2.3. | Environmental risk assessment | 229 |
| 2.2.4. | Statistical analysis | 229 |
| 2.3. | Results and discussion | 230 |
| 2.3.1. | Human health risk assessment | 230 |
| 2.3.2. | Environmental risk assessment | 234 |

| | 2.3.3. | Correlations between human health and environmental risk indicators | 235 |
|-----------|------------------------|--|---------------|
| | 2.3.4. | Integrative risk assessment | 237 |
| • | 2.4. | Conclusion | 241 |
| PA | RTIE V – DI | SCUSSION ET CONCLUSION GENERALE | .242 |
| ۱. env | vironnement | De la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique à l'évaluation des risques aux | .244 |
| I | I.I. référence ex | Evaluation des transferts et des risques environnementaux avec des valeurs guides de situ (TGV ex situ) | 244 |
| I | 1.2. pioaccessibili | Influence des facteurs du sol sur la biodisponibilité des contaminants pour l'escargot é ité pour l'homme | et la .248 |
| i | I.3. mplications | Approches <i>in situ</i> et <i>ex situ</i> : influence des spécificités environnementales du site et en ERE | .249 |
| | 1.4. | Liens entre transferts de contaminants et effets écotoxiques spécifiques pour l'escarg 252 | ot |
| (| I.5. des télomère | Biomarqueurs d'effets de la stabilité du génome (micronoyaux, profils RAPD, longueu es) pour des escargots sub-adultes : apports fondamentaux et pour l'ERE | ır .254 |
| 2. | | Vers des méthodologies d'évaluation intégrative des risques des sites et sols contamin 259 | nés |
| | 2.1. | Bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme | 259 |
| | 2.1.1. | Impact de la considération de la phase gastrique ou de la phase gastro-intestinale | 259 |
| | 2.1.2. | Impact du facteur de sécurité pour le plomb | 261 |
| | 2.1.3. | Application à l'évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires | 262 |
| | 2.2. Dour l'homm | Couplage de l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot et de la bioaccessibilité | .263 |
| | 2.3. | Gestion des sites et sols pollués avec une évaluation intégrative des risques | .265 |
| PA | RTIE VI – A | NNEXES | 271 |
| PA | RTIE VII – B | IBLIOGRAPHIE | .293 |

Liste des tableaux

| Tableau I : Principaux contaminants des SSP en France : sources d'émissions et incidences. | р. 25 |
|--|--------------|
| Tableau 2 : Propriétés physico-chimiques des 16 HAP et des 7 PCB indicateurs. | р. 26 |
| Tableau 3 : Principales voies d'exposition de la faune du sol aux contaminants des sols. | р. 42 |
| Tableau 4 : Quelques cibles toxicologiques moléculaires et cellulaires à l'origine | р. 53 |
| d'altérations des fonctions physiologiques pour les organismes de la faune du sol. | |
| Tableau 5 : Soil guide values (SGVs) in the soils, toxicity points (TPs) for each contaminant, | р. 84 |
| concentrations of the contaminants in the visceral mass before exposure, in lettuce, and in | • |
| Helixal®, and transfer guide values (TGVs) calculated from the visceral mass of Cantareus | |
| aspersus sub-adults after 28 days of exposure to uncontaminated soils. | |
| Tableau 6 : Accumulation quotient (AO) and SET index and Risk coefficient (RC) and | р. 90 |
| ERITME index based on the concentration of metallic elements (MEs) in the visceral mass | P |
| of snails after 28 days of exposure to soils | |
| Tableau 7 · Accumulation quotient (AO) risk coefficient (BC) and SET ERITPAH indexes | р 92 |
| based on the visceral mass of snails after 28 days of exposure to polycyclic aromatic | P. 72 |
| based on the viscel at mass of shalls after 20 days of exposure to polycyclic atomatic bydrocarbons (PAHs) | |
| Tableau 9 A commutation quatient $(A \cap)$ with coefficient (BC) and SET EDITECE indexed | - 07 |
| hased on the viscome mass of ansile often 29 days of eventure to polychlorineted hishervi | p. 72 |
| based on the visceral mass of shalls after 28 days of exposure to polychlorinated biphenyl | |
| indicators (PCBs). | 0.4 |
| Tableau 9: Total concentrations of the contaminants in the soils, global sum of the excess | p. 94 |
| of transfer (GSET) and global evaluation of the risk of the toxicological elements | |
| (GERITOXE) in soils. | |
| Tableau 10 : Influence of total metal(loid) concentrations and soil parameters on the | р. 96 |
| accumulation quotient (AQ>I). | |
| Tableau 11 : Influence of total metal(loid) concentrations and soil parameters on | р. 96 |
| accumulation quotient (AQ <i).< td=""><td></td></i).<> | |
| Tableau 12 : Physico-chemical characteristics of the five plots (A to E) of this study, SGV, | р. 105 |
| concentrations of contaminants in sub-adult snails before the tests, lettuce used for the ex | |
| situ assay, threshold guide values (in situ and ex situ) and toxicity points (TP). | |
| Tableau 13 : Certified material for metal(loid)s analysis: TORT-3 (lobster hepatopancreas), | p. 108 |
| calculation of the percentage of recovery of the laboratories and calculation of the z-score | |
| for measurements of different laboratories. | |
| Tableau 14 : Median concentration in the visceral mass of metal(loid)s for the different | p. |
| laboratories for the <i>in situ</i> exposure. | • |
| Tableau 15 : Accumulation quotient (AO) and risk coefficient (RC) for each metal(loid)s. | р. 113 |
| plot (A B C D and E) and laboratory (CZ FRA PT and SP) given as AOIRC | P |
| Tableau 16 : From SET- (ME or PAH) and ERIT-(ME or PAH) to GSET and GERITOXE in | р 113 |
| situ: comparison for laboratories that analysed metal/loid)s (without Sn) and PAHs | p. 115 |
| Tableau 17 : Accumulation quotient $(A \cap)$ and risk coefficient $(B \cap)$ for each contaminant | D 115 |
| Tableau 17 . Accumulation quotient (AQ) and Tisk coefficient (AC) for each containinant (motal/loid)s and $PAHc$) plot (A, B, C, D, and E) and exposure approach (in situ or existin) | p. 115 |
| riven as AOIPC | |
| given as AQIKC. | - 124 |
| Tableau 18 : Physico-chemical properties of soils and metal(loid) concentrations. | p. 126 |
| Tableau 19 : AQ and RC for each of the 7 metal(loid)s and SET and ERITME indexes for | p. 130 |
| the 38 soils in this study. | |
| l ableau 20 : Final cluster and optimized classes obtained from univariate regression trees | p. 132 |
| of the SET and ERITME indexes for the 7 metal(loid)s as a function of SLS. | |
| Tableau 21 : Parameters of the logistic model between the kinetics of sexual maturity | р. 134 |
| attainment and the value of the classes of the SET and ERITME indexes for the 7 | |
| metal(loid)s studied. | |

| Tableau 22 : Measured concentrations of metal(loid)s in soils and associated AQ to snails | р. 148 |
|---|--------------------|
| Tableau 23 : ΔOx for the survival and the growth | ь I/Q |
| Tableau 25 . AQX for the survival and the growth. | p. 147 |
| Tableau 24. No-exhaustive list of telomere sequences of biomulcator taxa in | p. 162 |
| Environmental toxicology. | - 144 |
| Tableau 25 : Roles of the six telomere binding proteins: TRF1, TRF2, RAF1, TFF1, TIN2, | р. т оч |
| TOTI. Tableau 26 : Links between telemers shortening and againg with others biologicals | - 14Q |
| Tableau 26. Links between telomere shortening and ageing with others biologicals | p. 167 |
| Tablesu 27 : Polationship between telemere dynamics and environmental contamination | - 17E |
| by contaminants in humans | p. 175 |
| Tableau 28 : Relationship between telemere dynamics and environmental contamination | <u>ь 181</u> |
| by contaminants in animal | p. 101 |
| Tableau 29 : Concentration of Cd. Hg and sum of the 16 PAHs in uncontaminated | D 193 |
| commercial food (Helival®) soils and snails before exposure (t0) and after 1 month (t1) | p. 175 |
| and 2 months (t2) exposure to Cd. Hg or PAHs in soils | |
| Tableau 30 : Soil types and physicochemical parameters | р 208 |
| Tableau 30 : Son types and physicochemical parameters. Tableau 31 : Bioaccessible concentrations and fractions for humans and bioaccumulated | р. 200 р. 213 |
| concentrations and bioaccumulation factors (BAFs) for snails for each soil | p. 215 |
| Tableau 32 : Influence of total metal(loid) concentrations and soil parameters on oral | D. 216 |
| bioaccessibility and bioaccumulation | p. 210 |
| Tableau 33 : Relationship between concentrations accumulated in visceral mass of snails | р. 218 |
| and in the UBM test phases G and GI for gastric and gastro-intestinal phases, respectively. | P. = . • |
| Tableau 34 : Equations of the internal cross-validated models assessing the bioaccessible | р. 220 |
| concentrations according to the accumulated concentrations in snails and physicochemical | P |
| parameters of soils. | |
| Tableau 35 : Concentrations of As, Cd and Pb in soils and their bioaccessible fractions | р. 226 |
| (gastric and gastro-intestinal) measured using the UBM test and the concentrations | • |
| bioaccumulated over 28 days in the viscera of snails. | |
| Tableau 36 : Toxicological reference values (TRV) for As, Cd and Pb (ingestion) for no | р. 227 |
| carcinogenic risks (with threshold) and carcinogenic risk (CR), toxicity point (TP) and ex | • |
| situ threshold guide values (TGV) for snails. | |
| Tableau 37 : Interpretation of values of hazard quotient (HQ), cancer risk (CR) and risk | р. 228 |
| coefficient (RC). | • |
| Tableau 38: Assessment of human health risk with hazard quotient (HQ), cancer risk (CR) | р. 232 |
| and interpretation the state of the environment (ISE) (when HQ or CR were in the area of | • |
| uncertain risk, they were weighted (HQ adj. or CR adj.) by bioaccessible fraction. | |
| Tableau 39 : Assessment of the environmental risk with risk coefficient (RC) and | р. 236 |
| evaluation of the risk of transferred metallic elements (ERITME) index. | |
| Tableau 40 : Spearman correlation coefficients (ρ) for each metal(loids) and each risk index | р. 237 |
| (adjusted or not adjusted with bioaccessible fraction if indicators were in the area of | |
| uncertainty risk). | |
| Tableau 41 : Pourcentage de sols dans chaque classe de risques en fonction des différents | р. 260 |
| ajustements possibles pour chaque contaminant lorsque les QD et les ERI sont en zone | |
| d'incertitude (avec les grilles d'interprétation de l'IEM). | |
| Tableau 42 : Pourcentages de sols dans chaque classe de risques pour une EQRS (QD ERI) | р. 263 |
| en considérant les différents ajustements du tableau 41. | |
| Tableau 43 : Inconvénients et avantages des différentes méthodes de gestion. | р. 2 69 |

Table des figures

| Figure I : Contribution d'activités anthropiques à la contamination des sols dans l'UE. | р. 23 |
|---|---------------|
| Figure 2 : Interactions entre risques infectieux et toxiques à l'interface humain-animal- | р. 28 |
| écosystème. | |
| Figure 3 : Sources et voies d'exposition de l'escargot aux contaminants des sols. | р. 30 |
| Figure 4 : Anatomie du Petit-gris. | р. 33 |
| Figure 5 : Anatomie du tube digestif du Petit-gris et pH luminal des différents segments. | р. 33 |
| Figure 6 : Anatomie de l'appareil reproducteur du Petit-gris. | р. 34 |
| Figure 7 : La biodisponibilité des contaminants est un processus dynamique. | р. 36 |
| Figure 8 : Processus physico-chimiques dans les sols affectant la disponibilité | р. 38 |
| Figure Quille a preserve ADME (charaction distribution métabolisation evenétion) | - 41 |
| Figure 9: Le processus ADME (absorption, distribution, metabolisation, excretion). | p. 41 |
| Figure 10 : Convergences et divergences entre les approches chimiques et biologiques | p. 42 |
| pour l'evaluation de la biodisponibilite. | |
| Figure 11: Des concentrations internes aux exces de transferts des metal(loide)s. | p. 44 |
| Figure 12 : De la biodisponibilite a la bioaccessibilite orale. | p. 45 |
| Figure 13 : Protocole du test UBM. | p. 48 |
| Figure 14 : Les éléments constitutifs du schéma conceptuel. | p. 49 |
| Figure 15 : Sources des dommages à l'ADN et voies de réparations impliquées. | р. 54 |
| Figure 16 : Exemple de schéma conceptuel d'exposition dans le cadre d'une ERE. | р. 60 |
| Figure 17 : Définition schématique des fonds pédo-géochimiques anthropisés et naturels. | p. 61 |
| Figure 18 : L'approche TRIADE. | р. 64 |
| Figure 19 : Des concentrations internes aux risques écotoxicologiques des métal(loïde)s. | р. 66 |
| Figure 20 : Schéma conceptuel adapté pour une ERS d'un ancien site industriel. | р. 67 |
| Figure 21 : Du schéma conceptuel au plan de gestion. | р. 68 |
| Figure 22 : Domaine d'emploi des terres excavées du niveau 1. | р. 69 |
| Figure 23 : Diversity of the physico-chemical parameters of the soils. | р. 80 |
| Figure 24 : Concentrations of the MEs in the viscera of snails exposed to uncontaminated | p. 87 |
| soils for the determination of the ex situ TGVs. | |
| Figure 25 : Relations between the sum of the concentration of the fifteen MEs in the soils | р. 9 1 |
| and SET or ERITME indice values. | |
| Figure 26 : Maps of the soil type, and vegetation of the site, locations of the defined plots | р. 102 |
| (A, B, C, D and E) in the map from IGN, and <i>in situ</i> versus ex situ exposure. | |
| Figure 27 : Metal(oid) indexes of the sum of excess of transfers (SET-ME) and of evaluation | р. 110 |
| of the risk of transferred metal(oid) elements (ERITME) values in situ for each participants. | |
| Figure 28 : SET-ME, SET-PAH, GSET, ERITME, ERITPAH and GERITOXE index values | p. 114 |
| obtained after an ex situ and an in situ exposure of snails to interpret the levels of risk. | |
| Figure 29 : Sperman correlation matrix between biological endpoints measured at 28 days | p. 131 |
| of exposure (SLS, shell volume and snail's fresh mass) and values of the SET and ERITME | |
| indices. | |
| Figure 30 : Linear relationships between SLS measured at 28 days of exposure (and values | р. 131 |
| of the SET and ERITME indices. | |
| Figure 31 : Univariate regression trees of the SLS at the end of exposure as a function of | р. I33 |
| the values of the SET and ERITIME indexes for the 7 metal(ioid)s studied. | 124 |
| ERITME classes. | p. 134 |
| Figure 33 : Relationships between the median concentrations of metal(loid)s in snails | р. I47 |
| exposed for 28 days and the concentrations in contaminated ISO substrate. | r · · · · |
| Figure 34 : Relationships between the survival or the growth inhibition and the AOr values | р. 149 |
| of As, Cd and Hg. | r · · · · |

| Figure 35 : Relationships between the induction of the micronuclei in haemocytes and the AQi for As. Cd and Hg | р. 150 |
|---|----------------|
| Figure 36 : RAPD-HRS profiles and the GTS (%) associated for the two considered primers (OPG17 and X19) as function of the AQ of As, Cd and Hg | p. 151 |
| Figure 37 : Relationships between the AQ and the level of biomarkers investigated (survival, growth inhibition (GI), genomic template stability (GTS, for OPG17 and X19) and MN assay) for each metal(loid)s. | р. 152 |
| Figure 38 : Human TL structure and six TL binding proteins: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TPP1, TIN2, POT1. | р. 163 |
| Figure 39 : Some causes of TL attrition. | р. 167 |
| Figure 40 : The investigated <i>C. aspersus</i> age classes. | p. 191 |
| Figure 41 : Relationship between the relative telomere length (RTL) in haemocytes and age of <i>C. aspersus</i> . | р. 197 |
| Figure 42 : Percentage of mortality of snails, of growth and of sexual maturity inhibition after exposure to contaminated (Cd, Hg, PAHs) or uncontaminated soils (ISO) for 1 and 2 months. | р. 1 98 |
| Figure 43 : Relative telomere length (RTL) in the haemocytes of snails exposed to contaminated (Cd, Hg, PAHs) or uncontaminated soils (ISO) for 1 and 2 months. | р. 200 |
| Figure 44 : Map of soil locations. | р. 207 |
| Figure 45 : Relationship between bioaccessible concentrations obtained with the UBM test and bioaccumulated concentrations for snails. | р. 217 |
| Figure 46 : Relationship between bioaccessible concentrations measured with the UBM test and estimated concentrations from snails. | р. 21 9 |
| Figure 47 : Relationships between the ratio of [metal(loid)s]soils/SGV(metal(loid)s) and the ratio of [metal(loid)s]snails/TGV(metal(loid)s). | р. 235 |
| Figure 48 : Summary of the HHRA with ISE and ISE adj. and the ERA with ERITME for each of the soils in the study. | р. 238 |
| Figure 49 : Development of a management plan combining HHRA and ERA. | р. 240 |
| Figure 50 : Synthèse graphique de la conclusion générale. | р. 242 |
| Figure 51 : Complémentarité des approches chimiques, biologiques et de bioaccumulation dans les méthodes d'évaluation de la biodisponibilité. | р. 244 |
| Figure 52 : Cas de la détermination de la TGV ex situ du cobalt. | р. 245 |
| Figure 53 : Concentrations viscérales pour 3 escargots sub-adultes non exposés en terres rares et limites de quantification. | р. 246 |
| Figure 54 : Des concentrations internes aux indices de risques environnementaux. | р. 247 |
| Figure 55 : Sensibilité des réponses à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique pour l'As, le Cd et le Hg. | р. 255 |
| Figure 56 : Vers un indice de stabilité du cyto-génome pour l'évaluation de la génotoxicité environnementale avec l'escargot. | р. 256 |
| Figure 57 : Phases de gestion d'un SSP dans lesquelles les bioindicateurs apportent des éléments d'aides à la décision. | р. 266 |
| Figure 58 : Insertion de la bioaccessibilité et de la norme TRIADE pour coupler ERS et ERE dans le cadre d'IEM et d'EQRS. | р. 266 |
| Figure 59 : Coupler ERE et ERS en fonction des questions de gestion. | р. 268 |

PARTIE I – INTRODUCTION GENERALE

PARTIE I – INTRODUCTION GENERALE

I. La contamination des sols

I.I. Enjeux passés, présents et futurs

Une pollution est une dégradation de l'environnement d'origine naturelle (e.g., éruption volcanique) ou anthropique (e.g., déchets chimiques enfouis sous terre). Les premières pollutions d'origines anthropiques remontent aux époques préhistoriques dès l'acquisition de la maîtrise du feu où la suie retrouvée au fond des grottes témoigne d'un niveau élevé de pollution de l'air ambiant en lien avec une ventilation insuffisante de l'habitat (SPENGLER ET SEXTON, 1983). C'est le développement de la métallurgie à l'Âge du bronze qui esquissa les premiers épisodes de pollution chimique environnementale d'origine anthropique (LEYPOLD, 1996).

Le développement des métropoles à partir du Moyen Âge augmenta les épisodes de pollution (URBINATO, 1994), jusqu'au développement de l'industrie chimique durant la révolution industrielle. Ces activités industrielles ont été accompagnées par une exploitation considérable des ressources naturelles, notamment, sous l'influence du dogme « *Better life through chemistry*! » de la firme Union Carbide, responsable de la catastrophe de Bhopal en 1984 (BOUDIA ET JAS, 2019). Les conséquences délétères des pollutions chimiques sur les écosystèmes ont été de plus en plus prises en considération suite à l'apparition de faits historiques sensibilisateurs des opinions en raison des conséquences sanitaires qui en découlèrent, tels que la description tardive en 1953 de la maladie de Minamata qui causa 900 morts et 20 000 victimes en raison d'une intoxication massive de la population japonaise vivant dans la baie de Minamata au méthylmercure (hydrargyrisme) via la chaîne alimentaire (DAVIES, 1991; FUJIKI ET TAJIMA, 1992; UNEP, 2013; OMS, 2018).

Les actions menées afin de limiter l'impact de la pollution chimique sur les écosystèmes et la santé humaine ne semblent pas avoir été suffisantes puisqu'en 2015, la pollution chimique des écosystèmes a été responsable de neuf millions de décès prématurés dans le monde (LANDRIGAN ET AL., 2018; LELIEVELD ET AL., 2020). Comme démontré par BOUDIA ET JAS (2019), les problèmes sanitaires et environnementaux découlant des pollutions environnementales ne sont pas aujourd'hui à l'aube de leur extinction, puisque ces risques sont soumis à un « gouvernement de l'économie et de ses effets », c'est-à-dire que « gouverner un monde toxique, c'est avant tout gouverner une économie dont deux des clés de voute sont le recours toujours plus massif à des produits chimiques et la production toute aussi exponentiellement massive de déchets ». De plus, la Terre est un espace physique fini et le principe de dilution de la pollution ne peut pas s'appliquer indéfiniment comme souligné lors de la conférence de Stockholm en 1972 où la première résolution, afin d'éviter la survenue de dommages irréversibles dans les écosystèmes, avait été adoptée. L'intensification des réglementations visant à évaluer les effets *a priori* et *a posteriori* pour protéger la santé humaine et les

écosystèmes dans le monde, telles que le règlement européen n°1907/2006 REACH (UE, 2006A) ou la méthodologie française de gestion des sites et sols pollués (MEEM, 2017), pourrait à terme contrebalancer les effets délétères des pollutions. Plus précisément à l'échelle communautaire, pour les milieux aquatiques continentaux (UE, 2000), les eaux souterraines (UE, 2006B), les milieux marins (UE, 2008A) et la qualité de l'air (UE, 2008B), des directives européennes cadres ont été adoptées et ont été des moteurs à l'origine d'améliorations significatives de la qualité de ces compartiments lorsqu'ils présentaient des altérations (MTES, 2019A). La directive cadre sur les sols (UE, 2004) qui visait à lutter contre la régression et la dégradation des sols n'a jamais abouti, ce qui limite le développement de moyens internationaux harmonisés pour l'identification, la gestion et la remédiation des sols dégradés. Et pourtant depuis la conférence de Rio+20 en 2012 (et puisque les sols occupent une place centrale dans la sécurité alimentaire, l'accès à l'eau potable, la régulation du climat, le développement d'énergies renouvelables et la préservation de la biodiversité), la maîtrise des risques et des impacts des pollutions terrestres pour les préserver et les restaurer sont devenus des objectifs prioritaires intégrés dans la définition du Zero Net Land Degradation (GRAND ET AL., 2018).

I.2. Etat de la contamination des sols

Les activités anthropiques en évolution constante sont à l'origine de nombreux sites et sols pollués (SSP). 650 000 sont répertoriés dans l'Union européenne (UE) d'après PAYA PEREZ ET RODRIGUEZ EUGENIO (2018), dont notamment 6 971 en France (MTES, 2019B). Parmi ces sites français, 49,4 % ont un impact avéré sur l'homme et/ou son environnement via : des captages d'alimentation en eau potable, des effets sur la santé humaine, des teneurs anormales en contaminants dans les eaux souterraines, superficielles, les sédiments, les végétaux destinés à la consommation animale ou humaine, les animaux destinés à la consommation humaine (MTES, 2019B). Les activités industrielles et commerciales sont responsables à 37 % des contaminations des sols en UE (PANAGOS ET AL., 2013; AEE, 2019) (FIGURE 1). 52 % des contaminations des SSP en France sont causées par des métal(loïde)s (TABLEAU 1). Une part de ces métal(loïde)s est d'origine naturelle car ils proviennent de la dégradation du matériau parental (GIRARD ET AL., 2005), des feux de forêts et des éruptions volcaniques (GARRETT, 2000), et l'autre fraction majoritaire est d'origine anthropique. Généralement, les SSP présentent une pollution causée essentiellement par d'anciens dépôts de déchets, d'anciennes activités agricoles utilisant des produits phytosanitaires, par l'infiltration de substances chimiques ou des retombées atmosphériques (TABLEAU I).



FIGURE I : CONTRIBUTION D'ACTIVITES ANTHROPIQUES A LA CONTAMINATION DES SOLS DANS L'UE (ADAPTE D'APRES AEE, 2019).

TABLEAU I : PRINCIPAUX CONTAMINANTS DES SSP EN FRANCE : SOURCES D'EMISSIONS ET INCIDENCES (ADAPTE D'APRES KOLLER, 2009; AEE, 2019; MTES, 2019B).

| Contaminants chimiques | Principales sources | Incidence (%) |
|---|--|---------------|
| Métal(loïde)s | Dégradation du matériau parental, feux de forêts, éruptions volcaniques, biocides, engrais, trafic routier, incinération et stockage de déchets, métallurgie, rejets industriels atmosphériques, peintures anticorrosives, anciens remblais de mâchefer | 52 |
| Hydrocarbures | Rejets et stockage de déchets industriels, trafic routier, stations de carburants, fuites de cuves à fuel | 20 |
| Solvants halogénés et non halogénés | Rejets et stockage de déchets industriels | 9 |
| Hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP) | Feux de forêts et de prairie, éruptions volcaniques, combustion de carburant automobile, combustion domestique (charbon, bois), rejets industriels (aciéries, alumineries), rejets atmosphériques des centrales électriques au pétrole ou au charbon, incinérateurs de déchets | 9 |
| Polychlorobiphényles (PCB), dioxines (PCDD), furanes (PCDF), polychloroterphényles (PCT) | Accidents industriels, incinération des déchets industriels et d'ordures ménagères, rejets de l'industrie du papier, résidus dans les biocides, activités industrielles passées (transformateurs et condensateurs électriques, huiles de coupe, encres, peintures) | 3 |
| Cyanures | Rejets et stockage de déchets industriels | 3 |
| Benzène, Toluène, Ethylbenzène, Xylènes (BTEX) | Rejets et stockage de déchets industriels, trafic routier | 2 |
| Produits phytosanitaires | Agriculture, protection des populations contre des pathogènes, régulation des populations d'espèces indésirables ou envahissantes, traitements passés des espaces vertes et des routes | I |
| Trichloroéthylène (TCE) | Rejets et stockage de déchets industriels | I |

Les travaux de cette thèse seront concentrés sur trois familles de composés chimiques fortement présents dans les sols : les métal(loïde)s, les HAP et les PCB. Ces composés, notamment les PCB anciennement utilisés dans les transformateurs électriques, interdits depuis 1987 en France (MOTELAY-MASSEI ET AL., 2004) restent préoccupants, en raison de leur persistance (MTES, 2018A; SANTE PUBLIQUE FRANCE, 2019) et de leur toxicité. En effet, les HAP et les PCB sont des composés qui sont, à faible dose, embryotoxiques, cancérigènes et perturbateurs endocriniens (BRUNSTRÖM ET AL., 1990; LINDENAU ET FISCHER, 1996; HARDELL ET AL., 2003; LUDEWIG ET ROBERTSON, 2013; BELL, 2014; KRISHNAN ET AL., 2014; ABDEL-SHAFY ET MANSOUR, 2016; LEE ET AL., 2017a; PINSON ET AL., 2017; KUBINCOVA ET AL., 2019).

Pour les 16 HAP prioritaires définis par l'United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) (KEITH ET TELLIARD, 1979) et les 7 PCB indicateurs (GANDHI ET AL., 2015), on distingue des caractéristiques communes telles que des points de fusion et d'ébullition élevés, une faible volatilité, une forte capacité à être adsorbés à la matière organique (Log Koc), une forte lipophilie (Log Kow) et une faible hydrosolubilité (TABLEAU 2). Il est possible de classer les 16 HAP en trois catégories :

- Les HAP légers (de faible poids moléculaire, possédant entre 2 et 3 noyaux aromatiques) qui ont la plus forte volatilité et hydrosolubilité.
- Les HAP intermédiaires (de poids moléculaire moyen, *i.e.*, entre 178 et 228 g.mol⁻¹ et ayant 4 noyaux aromatiques).
- Les HAP lourds (avec un poids moléculaire supérieur à 228 g.mol⁻¹ et ayant 5 ou 6 noyaux aromatiques) qui ont la plus faible hydrosolubilité.

| Contaminants Organiques | | Nombre de noyaux (HAP) ou d'atomes de chlore (PCB) | Poids moléculaire (g.mol ⁻¹) | Solubilité à 25 °C (mg.L ⁻¹) | Constante d'Henry à 25 °C (atm.m ⁻ ³ .mol ⁻¹) | Log Koc | Log Kow |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|---|--|--|--|------------|------------|
| | Naphtalène (NAP) | 2 | 128,2 | 31,0 | 0,424 | 3,2 | 3,3 |
| | Acénaphtylène (ACY) | 3 | 152,2 | 16,1 | I,I.I0 ⁻⁴ | 3,7 | 3,9 |
| | Acénaphtène (ACE) | 3 | 154,2 | 3,9 | I,8.I0 ⁻⁴ | 3,7 | 3,9 |
| | Fluorène (FLU) | 3 | 166,2 | ١,7 | 9,6.10 ⁻⁵ | 3,9 | 4,2 |
| • | Phénanthrène (PHE) | 3 | 178,2 | 1,2 | 4,2.10 ⁻⁵ | 4,2 | 4,5 |
| | Anthracène (ANT) | 3 | 178,2 | 4,3.10 ⁻² | 5,6.10 ⁻⁵ | 4,2 | 4,5 |
| AF | Fluoranthène (FLT) | 4 | 202,3 | 2,6.10 ⁻¹ | 8,9.10 ⁻⁶ | 4,7 | 5,2 |
| I | Pyrène (PYR) | 4 | 202,3 | I,4.10 ⁻¹ | I,2.I0 ⁻⁵ | 4,7 | 4,9 |
| | Benzo[a]anthracène (BaANT) | 4 | 228,3 | 9,4.10 ⁻³ | 1,2.10 ⁻⁵ | 5,3 | 5,8 |
| | Chrysène (CHY) | 4 | 228,3 | 2,0.10 ⁻³ | 5,2.10 ⁻⁶ | 5,3 | 5,8 |
| | Benzo[b]fluoranthène (BbFLT) | 5 | 252,3 | 1,5.10 ⁻³ | 6,6.10 ⁻⁵ | 5,8 | 5,8 |
| | Benzo[k]fluoranthène (BkFLT) | 5 | 252,3 | 8,0.10 ⁻⁴ | 5,8.10 ⁻⁷ | 5,8 | 6, I |
| | Benzo[a]pyrène (BaPYR) | 5 | 252,3 | 1,6.10-3 | 4,6.10-7 | 5,8 | 6, I |

TABLEAU 2 : PROPRIETES PHYSICO-CHIMIQUES DES 16 HAP ET DES 7 PCB INDICATEURS (D'APRES EPA, 2019).

| | Dibenzo[a,h]anthracène (dBahANT) | 5 | 278,3 | 1,0.10-3 | I,4.10 ⁻⁷ | 6,3 | 6,8 |
|-----|-------------------------------------|---|-------|------------------------------|----------------------|------|------|
| | Benzo[g,h,i]pérylène (BghiPL) | 6 | 276,3 | 2,6.10-4 | 3,3.10 ⁻⁷ | 6,3 | 6,6 |
| | Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrène (IcdPYR) | 6 | 276,3 | 1,9.10-4 | 3,5.10-7 | 6,3 | 6,7 |
| PCB | PCB28 | 3 | 257,6 | 3,4.10 ⁻¹ | 2,0.10 ⁻⁴ | 4,7 | 5,6 |
| | PCB52 | 4 | 292,0 | 8,6.10 ⁻² | 2,0.10 ⁻⁴ | 4,9 | 6, I |
| | PCB101 | 5 | 326,4 | 1,5.10 ⁻² | 9,0.10 ⁻⁵ | 5, I | 5,7 |
| | PCB118 | 5 | 326,4 | 7,1.10 ⁻³ | 2,9.10 ⁻⁴ | 5, I | 7, I |
| | PCB138 | 6 | 360,9 | 1,5.10 ⁻³ | 2,1.10 ⁻⁵ | 5,3 | 7,4 |
| | PCB153 | 6 | 360,9 | 9 ,5.10 ⁻⁴ | 2,3.10 ⁻⁵ | 5,3 | 6,3 |
| | PCB180 | 7 | 395,3 | 2,8.10-4 | 1,0.10-5 | 5,5 | 8,3 |
| | | | | | | | |

Il est également possible de classer les PCB en fonction du nombre d'atomes de chlore contenus dans la molécule car l'augmentation du nombre d'atome de chlore diminue la solubilité et la constante de Henry, et augmente les Koc et Kow (TABLEAU 2).

I.3. Impact de la contamination des sols et concept One Health

1.3.1. Impacts environnementaux

Les contaminations des sols concourent à la dégradation des sols au même titre que l'érosion, la salinisation, le tassement, la diminution de la biodiversité, l'imperméabilisation, l'acidification ou la perte de matière organique (CHENU ET AL., 2016). En effet, les contaminants chimiques causent des perturbations dans la structure des communautés (SAPIJANSKAS ET AL., 2016; AMOSSE ET AL., 2020; MARIET ET AL., 2020) et peuvent altérer les fonctions des sols de façon plus ou moins réversible (e.g., séquestration du carbone, cycle des éléments nutritifs, habitat, patrimoine culturel) (WALTER ET AL., 2014; BAVEYE ET AL., 2016; BLANCHART ET AL., 2017). Les contaminations des sols engendrent des risques écotoxicologiques en raison des conséquences associées sur la santé des organismes et la dynamique des populations (SAPIJANSKAS ET AL., 2016; BEAUDOUIN ET AL., 2017; CAPOWIEZ, 2017; STEFFAN ET AL., 2017). Ces conséquences environnementales sont mises en évidence depuis les travaux de CARSON (1962), principalement, en considérant l'évaluation des effets sur la santé des organismes en relation avec les niveaux de contamination des milieux, les transferts aux organismes (DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2013), les interactions pathogènes-contaminants (EOUZAN ET AL., 2017; SANCHEZ ET AL., 2017), les perturbations dans la dynamique des populations, l'altération des services écosystémiques (COMPTON ET AL., 2011) et des paysages (FRITSCH, 2010). Connaître ces relations est essentiel pour mieux appréhender les impacts et

limiter les altérations de l'état de santé de la faune et les extinctions locales de populations (MOUGIN ET FABURE, 2017).

Toutes les populations d'organismes terrestres peuvent être affectées par les contaminations des sols, y compris les bactéries, les champignons et les végétaux (MAILA ET CLOETE, 2002; BANKS ET SCHULTZ, 2005; REN ET AL., 2015; SAPIJANSKAS ET AL., 2016; BOROWIK ET AL., 2017; ZHAO ET AL., 2018). A titre d'exemple, il a été montré que des contaminations polymétalliques de sols peuvent causer une chute importante (99.9%) de la diversité bactérienne (GANS ET AL., 2005) et contraindre les communautés ectomycorhiziennes (FOULON ET AL., 2016).

Concernant la faune du sol, de nombreuses études ont recensé des altérations de l'état de santé et de la dynamique des populations de vertébrés et d'invertébrés consécutivement à une exposition à des contaminants présents dans les sols (DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2013). Plus particulièrement, MIGLIORINI ET AL. (2004) ont montré qu'une contamination des sols en Pb et en Sb causait une perturbation des communautés de microarthropodes des sols avec une augmentation du nombre de collemboles, de protoures, de diploures et une diminution de symphyles. Concernant l'altération des fonctions physiologiques des organismes, par exemple, les vers de terre impliqués dans les mécanismes de bioturbation voient leurs capacités à croître et à se reproduire diminuer après une exposition à des sols contaminés en métal(loïde)s, en HAP et en pesticides (VAN GESTEL ET AL., 1993; BONNARD ET AL., 2009; BONNARD, 2010; PELOSI ET AL., 2014). Au même titre que pour les vers de terre, les sols contaminés en métal(loïde)s induisent des altérations physiologiques dans la croissance et la reproduction des escargots (GOMOT, 1997; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2000; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY ET KERHOAS, 2000; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016). Ces altérations de l'état de santé des organismes de la faune du sol à l'origine d'effets négatifs à l'égard de la dynamique des populations naturelles et des interactions trophiques sont relativement ubiquitaires. Elles dépendent de la sensibilité de chaque espèce en lien avec les voies d'exposition et l'existence de mécanismes physiologiques de résistance aux contaminants (POSTHUMA ET SUTER, 2010; PAUWELS ET AL., 2013), impliquant par exemple les métallothionéines (DALLINGER ET AL., 1997).

C'est pourquoi, dans le cadre d'évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE), il est nécessaire de considérer les divers organismes de la faune du sol dans l'identification des liens entre la contamination, les caractéristiques du milieu, les transferts, les effets infra-individuels (molécules, cellules, tissus, organes), les effets populationnels et les effets écologiques (MOUGIN ET FABURE, 2017; GRAND ET AL., 2018).

I.3.2. Impacts sanitaires

Concernant les impacts sanitaires (i.e., pour la santé humaine), ils varient en fonction de la toxicité du contaminant (ou du mélange), de la vulnérabilité des individus, et de la voie d'exposition. Selon le type de contaminants, les vecteurs sont variés. Parmi les plus fréquents, on trouve le sol par contact cutané ou par ingestion notamment par les jeunes enfants, l'ingestion d'aliments contaminés, l'inhalation et l'ingestion de poussières ou de composés volatiles (MTES, 2018A), tels qu'un HAP, le naphtalène (NAP) en raison d'une pression de vapeur à 25 °C de 10,4 Pa (SONNEFELD ET AL., 1983). Les effets sur la santé sont souvent chroniques (CE, 2013), par exemple, des concentrations en As de 30 g.kg⁻¹ dans des sols contaminés en lien avec des activités minières ont été retrouvées à Cornwall (Royaume-Uni) et ont été associées à une augmentation de l'incidence de cancers de la peau dans les populations locales (PHILIPP ET AL., 1983). Il a aussi été montré des effets impactant la fitness des individus où des sols contaminés par des sites de stockage de déchets ont causé des troubles de la reproduction et des malformations à la naissance au sein des populations habitant à proximité de ces sites (DOR ET AL., 2013). Concernant, les effets subaiguës, se manifestant dans le cas d'une très forte contamination, des maladies systémiques peuvent apparaître dans les populations, telles que le saturnisme (maladie systémique consécutive à une intoxication au plomb). Par exemple, des cas de saturnisme ont été recensés dans des zones industrielles fortement polluées en plomb par des activités de fonderies et de fabrique de batteries à Noyelles-Godault, Saint-Laurent le Minier et Pontchardon (CICCHELERO, 2006) et qui, au-delà de symptômes généralisés (coliques, asthénie, déficiences intellectuelles, céphalées, etc.) (KLEIN ET AL., 1994; SEATON, 2014), peut induire divers problèmes socio-comportementaux (NEVIN, 2000; BRAUN ET AL., 2006; BELLINGER, 2008; WRIGHT ET AL., 2008; MIELKE ET ZAHRAN, 2012).

I.3.3. Le concept One Health

Les réglementations sur les SSP ignorent actuellement le concept « One Health » qui a émergé en 2004 afin de mettre en place une stratégie globale et transdisciplinaire face aux risques sanitaires grandissants de pandémies d'origines zoonotiques favorisées par les activités humaines, dont celles à l'origine de la libération dans l'environnement de contaminants chimiques (DESTOUMIEUX-GARZON ET AL., 2018; HARRISON ET AL., 2019). En effet, ce concept considère l'interface humain-animal-écoystème dans un tryptique où la santé humaine est directement liée à la santé des écoystèmes (LEBOV ET AL., 2017). En conséquence, lorsque les risques toxiques et infectieux augmentent alors les risques de déséquilibres écologiques et de perte de biodiversité augmentent également, concourant consécutivement à altérer la santé des organismes et les interactions inter- et intra-spécifiques (AGUIRRE ET AL., 2016; DESTOUMIEUX-GARZON ET AL., 2018) (FIGURE 2).



FIGURE 2 : INTERACTIONS ENTRE RISQUES INFECTIEUX ET TOXIQUES A L'INTERFACE HUMAIN-ANIMAL-ECOSYSTEME (D'APRES DESTOUMIEUX-GARZON ET AL., 2018).

Considérant le concept « One Health », un des défis actuels de l'écotoxicologie consiste à proposer des évaluations intégrées des risques et de l'état des milieux associant santé humaine et santé des autres organismes de l'écosystème (human health, veterinary health, wildlife health, etc.) (AGUIRRE ET AL., 2016). Ces dernières pourraient permettre de limiter la dominance des évaluations des risques pour la santé humaine (sanitaires, ERS) sur celles des risques environnementaux (ERE) pour des raisons historiques où les approches sanitaires ont été développées en première tandis que les approches environnementales sont apparues plus tardivement en lien avec la prise de conscience de l'importance de la qualité de l'environnement pour préserver la santé humaine (RICOUR ET LALLEMAND-BARRES, 1994; MEDD, 2007A; BILLET, 2016; MEEM, 2017). Sur la base du constat que l'ensemble des espèces terrestres en interactions entre elles au sein des communautés peuvent être exposées et impactées par les contaminations des sols avec des conséquences pouvant aller jusqu'à des extinctions locales de populations, la nécessité de coupler les approches environnementales et sanitaires simultanément pour des gestions intégratives des risques des sites et sols contaminés s'avère nécessaire, autant sur des aspects de **l'exposition** caractérisation de des organismes que d'évaluation des risques écotoxicologiques consécutifs aux transferts.

2. L'escargot bioindicateur de la pollution des sols

2.1. Le Petit-gris : bioindicateur à l'interface air-plante-sol

Plusieurs organismes des sols peuvent être utilisés pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE) des SSP, tant dans des approches *a priori* qu'*a posteriori*, si l'espèce respecte les caractéristiques d'un bon bioindicateur (HOPKIN, 1993; HODKINSON ET JACKSON, 2005) :

- Organisme ubiquiste et sédentaire
- Participation au fonctionnement de l'écosystème
- Biologie et écophysiologie connues
- Intégration des contaminations biotiques et abiotiques de l'environnement pour générer des informations sur la qualité de l'environnement, en présentant des altérations de l'état de santé et bioaccumulant les contaminants
- Tolérance aux fortes contaminations environnementales

Parmi, les bioindicateurs utilisés en ERE des SSP (ISO 19204, 2017), le Petit-gris est employé pour évaluer la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique des contaminants des sols (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY ET PIHAN, 2000; BEEBY ET RICHMOND, 2002; DE VAUFLEURY, 2006; ISO 15952, 2018; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO 19204, 2017). Cette espèce a historiquement été utilisée dès 1976 pour l'étude de la bioaccumulation des contaminants (COUGHTREY ET MARTIN, 1976) et dès 1981 pour évaluer la toxicité des contaminants (RUSSEL ET AL., 1981), avant de combiner les deux approches en 2000 (COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2000), jusqu'à la création d'un indice intégrateur *in situ* pour l'ERE des éléments métalliques transférés (ERITME) qui intègre les transferts et une toxicité aspécifique des contaminants accumulés (PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015).

L'ensemble de ces caractéristiques, ainsi que les connaissances écotoxicologiques suivantes font de *Cantareus aspersus* un bon bioindicateur de la qualité des sols à l'interface air-sol-plante. Il intègre trois voies d'expositions et diverses sources d'expositions aux contaminants des sols (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2002A; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY ET PIHAN, 2002; ISMERT ET AL., 2002; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002A; REGOLI ET AL., 2006; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006; PAUGET, 2012) (FIGURE 3) :

- Digestive par ingestion de végétaux contaminés et de particules de sols
- Cutanée par diffusion des contaminants à travers l'épithélium du pied
- Pulmonaire, par inhalation de poussières et de gaz





Actuellement, *C. aspersus* peut être utilisé en écotoxicologie (avec d'autres bioindicateurs pertinents) pour évaluer les risques environnementaux, en considérant :

- Une substance chimique ou une préparation, par exemple, dans le cadre d'une demande d'autorisation de mise sur le marché
- Une matrice plus complexe, par exemple, dans le cadre de l'évaluation du devenir d'une matrice contaminée potentiellement écotoxique (boue, compost, terres excavées, etc.)

Les évaluations *a priori* se concentrent sur des approches de laboratoires, incluant des bioessais d'écotoxicité, tels que le bioessai d'inhibition de la croissance des escargots juvéniles (ISO 15952, 2018) ou par exemple des bioessais pertinents non normalisés sur les embryons, la reproduction, le cycle de vie et/ou l'évaluation de la génotoxicité (BAURAND ET AL., 2013; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; DRUART ET AL., 2017). Pour les matrices, des tests d'évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale par la mesure des concentrations bioaccumulées peuvent être effectués afin de renseigner sur l'exposition des organismes aux contaminants (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Des essais en microcosme peuvent également être conduits, notamment pour tester l'effet pour l'escargot d'organismes génétiquement modifiés ou d'amendements pour la remédiation des sols contaminés (DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2007; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2010).

Dans un contexte de biosurveillance *a posteriori*, d'évaluation des performances d'une action de remédiation, d'évaluation de la qualité des sols, etc., l'escargot peut être utilisé en combinant (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) :

- Des approches de biosurveillance passive pour le dosage des concentrations internes en contaminant dans les organismes et l'évaluation de l'état de santé par des mesures de biomarqueurs (pour renseigner sur les risques d'altération de l'état de santé des populations naturelles et de l'état des transferts dans les chaînes trophiques),
- Des approches de biosurveillance active par encagement pour évaluer les fractions environnementalement et toxicologiquement biodisponibles.

L'intérêt d'utiliser *C. aspersus* pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité des contaminants est sa forte capacité de bioaccumulation pour divers contaminants (VIARD ET AL., 2004; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) dans la masse viscérale (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008B), par exemple, 68 % du Cd et 90 % du Cu ingérés sont bioaccumulés (LASKOWSKI ET HOPKIN, 1996). La tolérance de l'organisme à la toxicité des contaminants est également un atout important pour ce type d'approche (DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2013). D'autant que ces tolérances peuvent être à l'origine d'empoisonnements secondaires des prédateurs (BEEBY, 1985; LASKOWSKI ET HOPKIN, 1996; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B), dont l'homme.

2.2. Eléments de biologie, de physiologie et d'écologie du Petit-gris

Le Petit-gris est classé dans l'ordre des stylommatophores, de la famille des *helicidae*. Anciennement dénommé *Helix aspersa* par le naturaliste danois Otto Friedrich Müller pour « hélice tachetée » (MÜLLER, 1774), sous l'impulsion du malacologiste Robert Cowie, les systématiciens de l'International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature (ICZN) ont renommé en 2015 l'espèce sous le nom *Cornu aspersum* (COWIE, 2011; ICZN, 2015) car de nombreux éléments génétiques et morphologiques s'opposent au fait que le Petit-gris est apparenté aux autres escargots du genre *Helix* (KOENE ET SCHULENBURG, 2005; MANGANELLI ET AL., 2005; NEUBERT ET BANK, 2006; WADE ET AL., 2007). *Cornu* était un nom de genre valide et correspond à *Cornu copiae* (BORN, 1778), la description d'un Petitgris tératologique, mais Born ne savait pas que l'individu était tératologique, donc d'après les règles de l'ICZN du fait que Born ignorait ce fait, le nom de genre Cornu peut être utilisé (DAHIREL, 2014). Pour autant, deux synonymes sont fréquemment utilisés tels que *Cantareus aspersus* (MÜLLER, 1774), en raison de la proximité morphologique du Petit-gris avec l'espèce *Cantareus apertus* (MANGANELLI ET AL., 2005), et *Crymptomphalus aspersus* pour ceux refusant les deux noms précédents et considérant que la nouvelle description du Petit-gris sous ce nom par Jean de Charpentier en 1837 (DE CHARPENTIER, 1837) est une alternative (ALTABA, 2011; DAHIREL, 2014).

Le Petit-gris possède une coquille dextre, de couleur brun-jaune avec un diamètre moyen de 3 cm (LAZARIDOU-DIMITRIADOU ET AL., 1998). Elle est constituée entre 98 et 99 % de carbonate de calcium sous forme de calcite et d'aragonite (METREF ET AL., 2003) et entre 1 et 2 % d'un complexe de macromolécules organiques (protéines fibreuses chitinoïdales et polysaccharides) sécrétées par le bord du manteau formant la conchyoline (BONNET ET AL., 2019). La coquille constitue la première barrière de défense de l'organisme et les cellules de la coquille sont impliquées dans l'encapsulation de parasites, tels que les nématodes (RAE, 2017).

Le corps est composé de deux parties distinctes (FIGURE 4) : le pied et la masse viscérale. La partie antérieure du pied est la tête (bouche, deux tentacules oculaires, deux tentacules tactiles, orifice génital, cerveau), tandis que la partie postérieure est la sole pédieuse qui est impliquée dans le déplacement par glisse aidée par du mucus. Le pied est constitué essentiellement de tissu nerveux et musculaire. Il contient également la partie antérieure du tube digestif et un prolongement du tissu reproducteur. En région antérieure, la masse viscérale est entourée du manteau qui forme la cavité palléale dont le plafond correspond au poumon. La zone du manteau au contact du péristome de la coquille forme le bourrelet palléal. Sur le bord du bourrelet palléal droit s'ouvre l'anus et l'orifice respiratoire (pneumostome). La masse viscérale contient les organes interne à la coquille, c'est-à-dire, le rein (organe de Bojanus), le cœur, et sur la partie postérieure la glande digestive et l'appareil génital hermaphrodite.

La masse viscérale est baignée d'hémolymphe qui est un liquide circulatoire constitué du pigment respiratoire, l'hémocyanine (RAYNOVA ET AL., 2013) et d'hémocytes produits dans la cavité péricardiaque antérieure (PILA ET AL., 2016). Des fonctions immunitaires ont été mises en évidence dans les hémocytes des gastéropodes pulmonés terrestres incluant des activités phagocytaires et enzymatiques diverses (e.g., sécrétion d'agglutinines, de phenoloxydase) (RENWRANTZ ET CHENG, 1977). Le tube digestif forme une boucle ramenant le rectum vers la face postérieure en raison de la torsion à 180° du corps de l'escargot au cours du développement embryonnaire. La bouche est prolongée par un bulbe buccal entourant la langue recouverte d'une lame cornée, la radula qui a pour rôle de broyer les aliments (KERTH, 1979; KESLER ET AL., 1986). Le bulbe buccal est prolongé par deux glandes salivaires, un estomac et un intestin formant une double circonvolution autour de la glande digestive et aboutissant à l'anus. La glande digestive a des rôles de sécrétion enzymatiques, de métabolisme, de détoxication, de réparation de la coquille et de stockage principalement (ALMENDRROS ET PORCEL, 1992; PORCEL ET AL., 1994; DIMITRIADIS, 2001). La digestion est principalement effectuée à pH neutre (FIGURE 5) (CHARRIER ET BRUNE, 2003).


FIGURE 4 : ANATOMIE DU PETIT-GRIS (D'APRES BONNET ET AL., 2019).



FIGURE 5 : ANATOMIE DU TUBE DIGESTIF DU PETIT-GRIS ET PH LUMINAL DES DIFFERENTS SEGMENTS (ADAPTE D'APRES CHARRIER ET BRUNE, 2003).

Le Petit-gris est un hermaphrodite protandre simultané (BRIDE ET GOMOT, 1991), ainsi l'appareil reproducteur comporte trois parties : hermaphrodite, femelle et mâle (FIGURE 6). Les parties femelles et mâles ont plutôt des rôles d'organe d'accouplement, tandis que la partie hermaphrodite est impliquée dans la gamétogénèse via l'ovotestis. Les activités reproductrices sont sous le contrôle en partie du mésocérébrum notamment avec le nerf intestinal qui le relie au canal de l'ovotestis (GEOFFROY ET AL., 2005) L'innervation sensorielle et motrice reliée au mésocérébrum est impliquée dans la détection et le transport des ovocytes en vitellogenèse via des mouvements péristaltiques (CHASE ET AL., 2004; GEOFFROY

ET AL., 2005). Lorsque les escargots atteignent la maturité sexuelle, une bordure péristomiale apparaît, les individus sont dits bordés (LUCARZ ET GOMOT, 1985) et pourront commencer à s'accoupler en général 3 à 4 semaines plus tard (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A).



FIGURE 6 : ANATOMIE DE L'APPAREIL REPRODUCTEUR DU PETIT-GRIS (ADAPTE D'APRES KOENE ET CHASE, 1998; KOENE ET SCHULENBURG, 2005).

Le Petit-gris est une espèce ubiquiste, très répandue dans le monde, parfois considérée comme envahissante, qui fréquente les zones cultivées, les jardins et les forêts (BARKER ET WATTS, 2002 ; MADEC ET AL., 2003; KERNEY ET CAMERON, 2006; GUILLER ET MADEC, 2010; SHERPA ET AL., 2018). C'est un consommateur primaire herbivore (CHEVALIER ET AL., 2001) qui a un comportement géophage notamment pour les apports en calcium nécessaire à la formation de sa coquille (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; DALLINGER ET AL., 2001). La durée de vie moyenne en milieu naturel est de 5 ans (COMFORT, 1957).

Le cycle de vie est dépendant des conditions environnementales (BAILEY, 1975) et les éléments de physiologie du vieillissement de l'escargot sont peu connus. En effet, la photopériode, l'humidité relative, la disponibilité en ressource végétale et la température sont des facteurs qui régulent le cycle de vie activement, tant le développement et la croissance que la reproduction, oscillant entre activité la nuit et en période humide, et estivation ou hibernation dans les périodes sèches, chaudes et froides (GOMOT ET AL., 1982; GOMOT ET DERAY, 1987; GOMOT ET GRIFFOND, 1987; AUPINEL, 1990; GOMOT, 1990; GOMOT, 1994; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY, 2001). En cas de jours secs, l'escargot se fixe contre un matériel (e.g., minéral, bois) tandis que l'hiver, il s'enterre ou s'abrite derrière des matériaux (e.g., murs, minerais). Dans

les deux cas, il obture sa coquille par un voile qui le protège de la dessiccation, l'épiphragme (MARASCO ET MURCIANO, 2003).

Pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité, le protocole d'encagement *in situ* d'escargot est validé pour 14 métal(loïde)s (PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Cette approche n'est actuellement pas validée pour le Mn, le Se et les contaminants organiques, tels que les HAP ou les PCB. Enfin, comme l'outil escargot peut être prédictif d'effets à l'encontre de la santé des populations locales en caractérisant des excès de transferts du sol au biote et qu'il a montré sa pertinence comme potentiel signal d'alarme pour les populations (dont humaines) exposées à des paléopollutions métalliques (MARIET ET AL., 2017A), il pourrait constituer un levier pour identifier des ponts entre la santé humaine et la santé environnementale.

3. L'exposition des organismes aux contaminants des sols

L'exposition des organismes aux contaminants présents dans les sols est un facteur important qui conditionne les risques écotoxicologiques des sols pollués. Elle dépend de leur écophysiologie, des caractéristiques physico-chimiques des contaminants (e.g., volatilité, solubilité, spéciation, Kow...), de ceux des sols (e.g., pH, granulométrie...) et du temps de séjour du composé dans les sols avant sa biodégradation ou son transfert vers un autre compartiment environnemental (COEURDASSIER, 2001; UHER ET AL., 2018). L'exposition module donc la biodisponibilité des contaminants qui correspond à la fraction de contaminants présents dans les sols qui pourra être absorbée par l'organisme, distribuée dans la circulation systémique et qui pourra engendrer consécutivement des effets toxiques (ISO 17924, 2018). La biodisponibilité dépend des organismes cibles et des contaminants, elle inclut donc les aspects suivants : le temps d'exposition, le transfert des contaminants entre le sol et les organismes, leur absorption et assimilation, leur excrétion et les effets toxiques inhérents (ISO 17402, 2008). La biodisponibilité peut donc être définie en termes de flux ou de quantité, c'est un processus dynamique (FIGURE 7) qui peut être compartimenté en trois processus inter-reliés (LANNO ET AL., 2004) : la disponibilité environnementale, la biodisponibilité environnementale et la biodisponibilité toxicologique. Ainsi, il ne peut y avoir une unique méthode pour la mesurer.



FIGURE 7 : LA BIODISPONIBILITE DES CONTAMINANTS EST UN PROCESSUS DYNAMIQUE (MODIFIE D'APRES LANNO ET AL., 2004; ISO 17402, 2008).

Le choix des méthodes employées dans la stratégie d'évaluation va dépendre des organismes cibles, des propriétés physico-chimiques des contaminants recherchés et de la question initiale.

3.1. La disponibilité environnementale

3.1.1. Définition

La disponibilité environnementale décrit l'ensemble des processus physico-chimiques qui conditionnent la mobilité des contaminants dans le sol. Selon les contaminants, la localisation et la mobilité peuvent être influencés par des facteurs différents, par exemple pour les métal(loïde)s la spéciation joue un rôle important. La spéciation chimique définit l'état de valence d'un élément ou son association avec les constituants du sol (DENYS ET AL., 2009; CABOCHE ET AL., 2010; PAUGET, 2012), et est influencée par les paramètres physico-chimiques des sols tels que le pH ou les conditions redox (GIRARD ET AL., 2005; MIRSAL, 2008; GIACOMINO ET AL., 2010; LUKMAN ET AL., 2014).

Les contaminants résident dans les trois phases du sol (solide, liquide, gazeuse). Dans la phase liquide, la spéciation est une des variables qui va moduler la localisation des contaminants dans cette phase car elle influence leur solubilité, ils sont plus solubles lorsqu'ils sont sous forme ionique et donc plus disponibles (VAN STRAALEN ET VAN GESTEL, 1998; RUBY ET AL., 1999). Par exemple, le Cr (VI) très toxique par rapport au Cr (III) va être présent majoritairement dans la phase aqueuse des sols contrairement à son congénère trivalent (BUR, 2008; PAUGET, 2012). Dans la phase liquide, les cations tels que les ions Cu²⁺ forment notamment des aquacomplexes (MIRSAL, 2008). Concernant les contaminants organiques tels que les HAP ou les PCB qui présentent des coefficients de partage carbone organique/eau (Koc) et octanol/eau (Kow) très élevés (TABLEAU 2) ils sont majoritairement liés aux phases organiques du sol (EPA, 2019). Les contaminants organiques sont présents dans la phase aqueuse du sol lorsqu'ils sont suffisamment solubles ou lorsqu'ils sont complexés avec des matières solubles telles que les acides humiques et fulviques. De plus, certains composés organiques légers tels que le naphtalène (NAP) ont une pression de vapeur supérieure à 1 (Pa à 25 °C pour le NAP = 10,4) en lien avec la volatilité de ces contaminants. Ainsi, ces composés peuvent également être présents à l'état gazeux dans une troisième phase, la phase gazeuse des sols, entre les particules de sol et l'eau. Tous les paramètres physico-chimiques des sols connus affectent la mobilité des contaminants chimiques de façon plus ou moins importante (pH, capacité d'échange cationique (CEC), cations échangeables, granulométrie, carbonates, taux de matière organique, etc.) notamment en influençant la spéciation et la localisation des contaminants (FIGURE 8). Globalement, ces influences sont contaminants dépendantes. Par exemple, le Zn sera fortement lié à la matière organique qui est associée aux particules d'argiles tandis que le Pb intéragira directement avec les surfaces minérales (QUENEA ET AL., 2009).



FIGURE 8 : PROCESSUS PHYSICO-CHIMIQUES DANS LES SOLS AFFECTANT LA DISPONIBILITE ENVIRONNEMENTALE D'UN METAL (M) (D'APRES BROWN ET AL., 1999).

À titre d'exemple, les contaminants peuvent former des complexes polymériques avec des particules de kaolin (argiles) qui les immobilisent (BROWN ET AL., 1999). De façon plus spécifique, par exemple, pour le Cd, d'après PAUGET ET AL. (2012), sa disponibilité environnementale est influencée par le pH, les oxydes de fer échangeable et la quantité de matière organique dans les sols. Globalement, les metal(loïde)s sont liés aux particules des sols et sont fortement mobiles (donc solubles) lorsqu'ils sont adsorbés à de l'argile, des oxydes de fer et de manganèse et des carbonates de calcium, moyennement mobiles lorsqu'ils sont complexés avec de la matière organique, faiblement mobiles lorsqu'ils sont précipités sous la forme de phosphates, de sulfures, d'hydroxydes, de sels organiques et très faiblement mobiles lorsqu'ils sont inclus dans des minéraux tels que les silicates (JUSTE, 1995). Certains organismes des sols, notamment les vers de terre, peuvent augmenter la disponibilité et la mobilité des contaminants via des processus de bioturbation, en augmentant la concentration des contaminants dans la phase aqueuse du sol et dans les turricules (TOMLIN ET AL., 1993; SIZMUR ET HODSON, 2009; SIZMUR ET AL., 2011; LEVEQUE ET AL., 2019). Avec le vieillissement des pollutions des sols, les contaminants peuvent être parfois moins disponibles et donc consécutivement moins biodisponibles pour les organismes en raison de l'implication des trois processus suivants : séquestration dans les micropores du sol, augmentation du pH et liaison des contaminants avec la matière organique dissoute et la fraction minérale (ALEXANDER, 2000; REID ET AL., 2000; LAURENT ET AL., 2020). Ce processus d'influence du vieillissement sur la biodisponibilité des

métal(loïde)s et des HAP a, par exemple, été mis en évidence dans l'étude de VASSEUR ET AL. (2008A) qui recommande d'utiliser des outils biologiques pour l'évaluation des risques des SSP car la disponibilité peut être modulée par les paramètres exposés ci-dessus et l'âge de la pollution. Toutefois, une pollution très ancienne ne signifie pas pour autant que les contaminants ne seront pas disponibles. En effet, il a été montré que des pollutions causées par des activités minières au paléolithique et aux XVe et XVIe siècles sont une source de transferts de contaminants (majoritairement Ag, As, Cd, Ni, Pb et Sb) entre le sol et la faune, notamment les escargots (MARIET ET AL., 2016; MARIET ET AL., 2017A).

3.1.2. Méthodes d'évaluations

Les méthodes chimiques sont aspécifiques des cibles biologiques et peuvent renseigner sur la disponibilité environnementale par extraction neutre en solution aqueuse (NaNO₃, KNO₃, NH₄NO₃, CaCl₂, DTPA) ou avec des membranes (e.g., DMT), par extraction de l'eau interstitielle et par des essais de lixiviation (ISO 14870, 2002; ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19730, 2008; KUMPIENE ET AL., 2017; ISO 21268-1, 2019). Ces approches consistent *in fine* à mesurer des fractions qualifiées de « mobiles », « mobilisables » ou « facilement échangeables » (BERT ET AL., 2017), et peuvent être complétées par des méthodes d'extractions chimiques séquentielles pour la caractérisation du fractionnement des contaminants dans les sols et l'identification des phases porteuses (MARIET ET AL., 2017B).

3.2. La biodisponibilité environnementale

3.2.1. Définition

La biodisponibilité environnementale est la fraction de contaminants disponibles qui va être absorbée et assimilée par les organismes cibles. Elle est donc conditionnée par l'écophysiologie des organismes cibles (habitat, voies d'exposition, morphologie, mobilité, nutrition, physiologie digestive, respiratoire, tégumentaire, etc.). Ainsi, un contaminant présent dans un sol ne possède pas la même biodisponibilité pour deux organismes différents tels que l'escargot terrestre *C. aspersus* ou le vers de terre *Aporrectodea tuberculata* (COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2007). En effet, elle sera plus élevée pour une espèce plus inféodée au sol. Plus précisément, une espèce vivant dans le sol sera exposée plus longtemps et avec des contributions des voies d'expositions différentes où, par exemple, les transferts à travers le corps mou pourront être importants (PEAKALL ET BURGER, 2003; SMITH ET AL., 2007; PAUGET, 2012). Les voies d'exposition des organismes aux contaminants présents dans les sols répertoriées dans le TABLEAU 3 affectent également la biodisponibilité environnementale de ces derniers. Elles sont étroitement liées à la biologie des organismes, chacune des voies intervient donc en fonction des caractéristiques écophysiologiques de l'espèce.

TABLEAU 3 : PRINCIPALES VOIES D'EXPOSITION DE LA FAUNE DU SOL AUX CONTAMINANTS DES SOLS (ADAPTE D'APRES WALKER ET AL., 1996 ET COEURDASSIER, 2001).

| Voies | Sources d'exposition aux contaminants des sols |
|--------------|---|
| Digestive | Ingestion de particules de sols, d'eau et de nourriture |
| Respiratoire | Inhalation de contaminants gazeux, de poussières de sols ou de gouttelettes d'eau |
| Cutanée | Transfert à travers les téguments et/ou l'épithélium des contaminants présents |
| | dans le sol, l'eau et la nourriture |

La biodisponibilité est influencée par la capacité d'un organisme à prélever les contaminants dans les sols puis à les assimiler. Par exemple le pH du tube digestif de l'escargot est relativement neutre (CHARRIER ET BRUNE, 2003) tandis que le pH de l'estomac humain est très acide, ainsi pour une même quantité de sol absorbé, la biodisponibilité des contaminants présents dans le sol ne sera pas identique entre ces deux organismes car le pH acide de l'estomac humain favorisera davantage de phénomènes de désorption des contaminants sur les particules de matières organiques (OTTOSEN ET AL., 2009). La biodisponibilité environnementale des contaminants est donc en lien direct avec les processus toxicocinétiques (FIGURE 9), *i.e.*, absorption, distribution, métabolisme et excrétion (ADME).

Lorsque le contaminant est absorbé, il est diffusé dans la circulation systémique de façon plus ou moins importante en fonction de son affinité avec les protéines circulantes, tissulaires, du débit de perfusion de l'organe concerné et des « barrières » naturelles de l'organisme comme la barrière hématoencéphalique qui empêche le passage de certains contaminants vers le cerveau tels que les composés ayant une masse supérieure à 500 Da (MEHRING ET MENU, 2015). Les contaminants chimiques notamment organiques nécessitent d'être métabolisés afin de favoriser leur excrétion en les rendant plus hydrophiles. La métabolisation des composés intervient donc après l'absorption et en tandem avec les phases de distribution et de stockage (FIGURE 9). En effet, lorsqu'ils sont distribués et/ou métabolisés, ils peuvent ensuite être stockés dans l'organisme (bioaccumulation). La bioaccumulation est le reflet de la disponibilité environnementale des contaminants et de leur biodisponibilité. De nombreux contaminants sont bioaccumulables : des contaminants organiques lipophiles possédant des Kow élevés jusqu'aux métal(loïde)s. Par exemple GIMBERT ET AL. (2008B) ont montré que les escargots Petit-gris bioaccumulent les contaminants dans divers compartiments de l'organisme (i.e., 80 % du Cd absorbé est accumulé dans la masse viscérale) sous différentes localisations intra-cellulaires (majoritairement la fraction cytosolique pour le Cd). Ces capacités d'accumulation des contaminants peuvent être mises en relation avec les fonctions des protéines de détoxication (i.e., métallothionéines (MT) ou phytochélatines d'origine animale) qui sont induites pour séquestrer des métaux, tels que le Cd ou le Cu (BAURAND ET AL., 2015A; BAURAND ET AL., 2015B; DVORAK ET AL., 2020).



FIGURE 9: LE PROCESSUS ADME (ABSORPTION, DISTRIBUTION, METABOLISATION, EXCRETION).

Les contaminants chimiques après absorption, distribution et métabolisation peuvent être excrétés. L'excrétion est un processus d'évacuation de la molécule mère et de ses éventuels métabolites de l'organisme. Les molécules peuvent donc être excrétées sous forme inchangées ou après biotransformation, sous forme de métabolites. Les principales voies d'excrétion dépendent de la physiologie des organismes, pour l'homme il s'agit notamment des urines après filtration glomérulaire et pour l'escargot des fèces (HOPKIN, 1989). Par exemple, après 84 jours d'exposition d'escargots à des sols contaminés par du Cd à 100 mg.kg⁻¹, des processus d'excrétion surviennent pendant une phase de dépuration, sans pour autant que la concentration interne en Cd ne revienne à son niveau initial car une fraction non négligeable du Cd reste accumulée dans les tissus (GIMBERT ET AL., 2006) et notamment dans la masse viscérale sous forme liée à la CdMT (DALLINGER ET AL., 1997).

Enfin, la fraction accumulée peut être trophiquement biodisponible. En effet, les consommateurs et les prédateurs ingèrent des aliments pouvant être fortement contaminés ce qui peut contribuer à la bioaccumulation et à la bioamplification des contaminants dans les chaînes trophiques terrestres (DE VAUFLEURY, 2013). Par exemple, il a été montré un transfert de Cd entre le sol et les végétaux, puis les végétaux et les escargots, et ensuite vers leurs prédateurs, tels que les carabes et les rats (SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002A; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; HISPARD ET AL., 2008A).

3.2.2. Méthodes d'évaluations

La fraction biodisponible est inférieure à la concentration totale en contaminant dans le sol et elle peut être estimée par des méthodes chimiques et biologiques complémentaires entre-elles (HARMSEN, 2007). Pour estimer la biodisponibilité environnementale, des méthodes chimiques reflétant la mobilité et donc plutôt la disponibilité environnmentale peuvent être utlisées si des relations entre la fraction extractible et l'assimilation par l'organisme ont été démontrées. Par exemple, des extractions chimiques acides (HNO₃), avec des agents chélateurs (e.g., EDTA) ou des essais utilisant des biosenseurs bioluminescents ou fluorescents (e.g., *Staphylococcus aureus* RN4420 (pl258) pour l'As) peuvent être employées pour les métal(loïde)s, tandis que pour les organiques, des oxydations, des extractions eau/solvant et des adsorptions sur phase solide (Tenax®, XAD®, cyclodextrines, MEPS) sont utilisées, notamment pour les HAP et les PCB (CORBISIER ET AL., 1993; ISO 17402, 2008; KUMPIENE ET AL., 2017). L'avantage des méthodes chimiques est qu'elles sont basées sur des extractions et qu'elles renseignent sur la fraction biodisponible absolue du contaminant dans les sols, produisant donc une information quantitative. Cependant, les relations entre les réponses biologiques et l'évaluation chimique dans la FIGURE 10 (zone B) n'ont été validées que pour un nombre limité de contaminants et ne sont pas en mesure de refléter la complexité des caractéristiques physiologiques des organismes cibles.



FIGURE 10 : CONVERGENCES ET DIVERGENCES ENTRE LES APPROCHES CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DE LA BIODISPONIBILITE (D'APRES ISO 17402, 2008).

Pour certains contaminants, dont les métal(loïde)s, la norme ISO 17402 (2008) prévoit aussi la mesure des concentrations internes pendant et/ou à l'issue d'une exposition chronique afin d'obtenir des données plus informatives sur la biodisponibilité, comme effectué par PAUGET ET AL. (2011) pour des escargots exposés à des sols contaminés par du Cd et le Pb.

Bien que l'extractant chimique universel n'existe pas, les principaux enjeux concernant l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité sont de sélectionner les tests chimiques les plus prédictifs (KUMPIENE ET AL., 2017) sans négliger en parallèle l'utilisation d'au moins un bioindicateur d'accumulation pour tenir compte des

spécificités du site et des particularités écophysiologiques des organismes (ISO 19204, 2017). La combinaison d'un bioindicateur végétal (e.g., Rhizotest (ISO 16198, 2015) ou CMT-végétaux (BERT et al., 2017; LE GUEDARD et al., 2017)) et animal (e.g., l'escargot) pourrait être pertinent pour évaluer l'exposition de deux règnes du vivant (végétal et animal) aux contaminants des sols.

À l'avenir, en raison de l'évolution grandissante de la problématique de la gestion des terres excavées, l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité des contaminants devrait également considérer à la fois la biodisponibilité *in situ* (sol végétalisé et structuré) et *ex situ* (sol excavé) des contaminants pour répondre aux questionnements des gestionnaires à propos du devenir des terres excavées (MERLE ET PERRIN, 2018). Pour une évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale sur la base des concentrations internes mesurées, la standardisation des tests *in situ* et *ex situ* avec des bioindicateurs de la qualité du sol, tels que les escargots (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A; PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) ou les vers de terre (COELHO ET AL., 2018; COELHO, 2019), est indispensable pour faciliter l'applicabilité de ces approches par les bureaux d'études.

3.2.3. L'escargot pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale

L'évaluation de la biodisponibilité en utilisant des concentrations internes mesurées requiert des essais standardisés de bioaccumulation avec une connaissance des concentrations internes « normales » après exposition à des sols où les contaminants ne sont pas biodisponibles (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). Ces concentrations telles que les TGV (ex CIRef) lorsqu'elles sont dépassées caractérisent un excès de transfert, donc la biodisponibilité pour l'organisme étudié des substances investiguées (PAUGET, 2012; PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Cette approche renseigne à la fois sur les concentrations totales accumulées dans un tissu qui peuvent être liées à une toxicité et les quantités transférables dans les réseaux trophiques (GIMBERT ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2009). L'estimation de la biodisponibilité environnementale est effectuée par le calcul de quotients d'accumulation (AQ) qui informent quantitativement sur les excès de transferts (concentrations internes anomaliques) pour chaque contaminants. Comme les sols sont souvent multi-contaminés, alors il est possible de sommer les AQ pour calculer l'indice intégrateur de sommes des excès de transferts (SET) (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A) (FIGURE 11).



FIGURE 11 : DES CONCENTRATIONS INTERNES AUX EXCES DE TRANSFERTS DES METAL(LOÏDE)S.

Ce protocole *in situ* est limité aux métal(loïde)s et est influencé par les spécificités du site (végétation, humus, conditions pédoclimatiques...) et les propriétés physico-chimiques des sols. En effet, ces dernières affectent la biodisponibilité environnementale des contaminants pour les organismes de la faune du sol dont l'escargot (PAUGET, 2012). Cette influence n'a pas été évaluée en discriminant les transferts non anomaliques (bruit de fond pédogéochimique) ou anomaliques (contaminants biodisponibles) où la spéciation des métal(loïde)s est différente en fonction de ces différents contextes, plus particulièrement pour les fractions solubles (PELFRENE, 2008).

3.3. La bioaccessibilité orale et l'exposition de l'homme

3.3.1. Définition

La bioaccessibilité orale d'un composé chimique est la fraction de contaminant ingérée qui va être solubilisée dans les organes digestifs considérés par les sucs gastro-intestinaux et donc qui va potentiellement traverser les membranes biologiques (biodisponibilité environnementale) (ISO 17924, 2018). La bioaccessibilité orale est donc au carrefour entre la disponibilité environnementale (SEMPLE ET AL., 2004) et la biodisponibilité environnementale (FIGURE 12).



FIGURE 12 : DE LA BIODISPONIBILITE A LA BIOACCESSIBILITE ORALE (D'APRES PELFRENE, 2016).

La bioaccessibilité peut s'exprimer quantitativement (fraction bioaccessible du contaminant considéré), permettant ainsi de pondérer la concentration totale utilisée pour le calcul des doses journalières d'exposition (DJE). La relation entre la fraction bioaccessible et la fraction biodisponible peut être décrite via l'équation (EQ. 1) suivante (PELFRENE, 2016) :

$$F = Fb \times Fa \times Fh$$
(EQ. 1)
Avec :

F : fraction du contaminant distribuée par la circulation systémique (*i.e.*, fraction biodisponible)
Fb : fraction libérée dans le tractus digestif (*i.e.*, fraction bioaccessible)
Fa : fraction transportée à travers l'épithélium intestinal

Fh : fraction traversant le foie sans être métabolisée

Pour que le contaminant lié au sol soit absorbé (FIGURE 12), il faut qu'il soit dissocié de la matrice (DEAN, 2007), donc que les liaisons chimiques, telles que des liaisons électrostatiques, covalentes ou hydrophobes soient rompues (SPOSITO, 1989; ALLOWAY, 1995; CABOCHE, 2009). L'absorption de contaminants dissous se produit majoritairement à travers l'épithélium de l'estomac et de l'intestin grêle par transport transcellulaire (à travers les jonctions intercellulaires) ou paracellulaire (diffusion passive, facilitée et transport actif). Les modes de transport vont dépendre des capacités des molécules à diffuser à travers les cellules (apolarité) et/ou être transportées par divers mécanismes biochimiques. Par exemple, chez l'homme, le Pb est absorbé par les mêmes mécanismes que le calcium et à la fois par voie transcellulaire selon un gradient de concentration dans le duodénum et par voie paracellulaire en impliquant les cellules de l'épithélium intestinal (FULLMER, 1992; GRØN ET ANDERSEN, 2003; CABOCHE, 2009). Quant au Cd, il s'accumule dans la muqueuse intestinale et se diffuse ensuite lentement vers l'organisme avec une

absorption qui peut être facilitée par des transporteurs spécialisés du fer et qui sont particulièrement sur-exprimés en cas de carence en fer, tels que DMTI (ELSENHANS ET AL., 1997; PARK ET AL., 2002). Tandis que l'As, particulièrement sous forme anionique ou méthylée, utilise des transports paracellulaires pour franchir l'épithélium intestinal avec des transports saturables détournés, tels que les perméases à phosphates (nécessitant un gradient Na+, H+), les perméases à glucose (i.e., GLUTI et GLUT4) et les aquaglyceroporines (i.e., AQP9) (GONZALEZ ET AL., 1995; LIU ET AL., 2006; HAMDI ET AL., 2009; ROSEN ET LIU, 2009; CALATAYUD ET AL., 2010; GARBINSKI ET AL., 2019). En fonction des organes biologiques concernés (estomac ou intestin), la fraction bioaccessible pour un même sol contaminé pourra différer en raison des mécanismes physiologiques de la digestion, impliquant des réactions enzymatiques variées (solutions salivaires, de l'estomac, biliaires, intestinales) associées à des contraintes péristaltiques et au pH (1 à 2 dans l'estomac contre 4 à 5,5 dans le duodénum, 5,5 à 7,0 dans le jéjunum et 7,0 à 7,5 dans l'iléon) (EVANS ET AL., 1988; FALLINGBORG, 1999; OOMEN ET AL., 2002; FALLINGBORG ET AL., 2007; CABOCHE, 2009), ainsi qu'à des phénomènes de compétition entre les substances en présence (GRØN ET ANDERSEN, 2003; OOMEN ET AL., 2006; JAMES ET AL., 2018). Le temps de résidence dans le compartiment cible influence également la bioaccessibilité, la durée moyenne de séjour dans un estomac à jeun est de 8 à 15 minutes contre 7 à 10 heures dans l'intestin grêle (CABOCHE, 2009). De plus, cette fraction sera également modulée par les propriétés physico-chimiques des sols par les mêmes mécanismes précédemment exposés (SARKAR ET AL., 2007; GIROUARD ET ZAGURY, 2009; SAMINATHAN ET AL., 2010; PELFRENE ET AL., 2012).

3.3.2. Méthodes d'évaluations

L'évaluation de la bioaccessibilité orale des contaminants est essentiellement effectuée pour les ERS pour évaluer la biodisponibilité car c'est l'étape limitante qui conditionne l'absorption des contaminants par l'homme et qui est modulée par les propriétés physico-chimiques des sols et des mécanismes de compétitions entre contaminants pour l'absorption (GRØN ET ANDERSEN, 2003; GRØN, 2005; OOMEN ET AL., 2006; SARKAR ET AL., 2007; GIROUARD ET ZAGURY, 2009; SAMINATHAN ET AL., 2010; PELFRENE ET AL., 2012; PELFRENE, 2016). L'évaluation de la bioaccessibilité orale peut être effectuée à partir de méthodes chimiques *in vitro* qui miment la digestion humaine (ISO 17924, 2018) et qui sont validées sur des organismes modèles, par exemple des porcelets (DENYS ET AL., 2012) ou des souris (ZHU ET AL., 2019). En raison de la diversité des propriétés physico-chimiques des contaminants, différentes procédures de test doivent être appliquées, par exemple la méthode de bioaccessibilité unifiée –ou *Unified BARGE Method* (UBM) pour l'As, le Cd et le Pb (ISO 17924, 2018) et le test FOREhST (fed organic estimation human simulation test) pourra être utilisé pour les HAP (CAVE ET AL., 2010; LORENZI ET AL., 2012; JUHASZ ET AL., 2014). En effet, les HAP peuvent être localisés différemment que les métaux dans les sols, notamment sous la forme de gouttes d'hydrocarbure, de charbon, de suie, ou adsorbées sur des

particules de sol ou d'humus (RUBY ET AL., 2016). Plus spécifiquement, pour les métal(loïde)s de nombreux tests existent mais seul le test UBM est validé et normalisé pour l'As, le Cd et le Pb. Pour les contaminants organiques, bien que des efforts de validation *in vivo* aient été effectués pour 14 HAP (JAMES ET AL., 2018), les tests *in vitro* d'évaluation de la bioaccessibilité orale nécessitent d'être étendus à plus de contaminants, d'être harmonisés et normalisés (CUI ET AL., 2016). Globalement, les méthodes chimiques *in vitro* actuellement utilisées consistent majoritairement à effectuer des extractions chimiques (FERNANDEZ-CALIANI ET AL., 2019), générant deux phases pour le test UBM, la phase gastrique (estomac) et la phase gastro-intestinale (intestin grêle) (FIGURE 13).

La bioaccessibilité orale est reconnue comme étant l'étape clé qui conditionne le transfert par voie orale des contaminants et l'apparition consécutive des effets toxiques chez l'homme. Elle pourrait être un levier pour étudier les liens entre l'exposition de l'homme et d'organismes de la faune du sol aux contaminants des sols. En effet, comme les enjeux actuels en évaluation des risques des sites et sols contaminés consistent à développer des méthodologies d'évaluation intégrative des risques (sanitaires et environnementaux) notamment dans le cadre du concept « One Health » et de la réhabilitation des sites et sols contaminés, le couplage d'outils pour l'évaluation de l'exposition des organismes pourrait répondre à ces enjeux comme démontré par RAHMAN ET AL. (2017) sur la corrélation entre la bioaccessibilité de l'As dans la phase gastrique pour l'homme et sa biodisponibilité pour *Lumbricus rubellus*.



FIGURE 13 : PROTOCOLE DU TEST UBM (D'APRES CABOCHE ET AL., 2009).

4. Les risques des sites et sols contaminés

Les approches d'évaluations du risque présentent des similarités conceptuelles entre les ERE et les ERS. En effet, les démarches pour l'évaluation des risques (ERE et ERS) visent d'une part à décrire et à quantifier l'exposition des organismes cibles aux contaminants des sols, et d'autre part à analyser les effets potentiels liés à la toxicité des substances chimiques. Ainsi, ces approches considèrent la biodisponibilité toxicologique des contaminants (section 4.1.1.). En France, la réalisation de ces approches nécessite un schéma conceptuel similaire tant en ERS qu'en ERE pour identifier les sources et les voies d'exposition des organismes. Plus précisément, le schéma conceptuel évalue les sources de pollution, les milieux de transfert et leurs caractéristiques, les voies de transferts ainsi que les enjeux à protéger (FIGURE 14), tels que les populations humaines (e.g., enfants, adultes, travailleurs, résidents), les ressources naturelles, la biodiversité ou encore les ouvrages du génie civil (MEEM, 2017; ISO 21365, 2019). La réalisation de ce schéma conceptuel permet également d'orienter les investigations complémentaires à mener pour lever des manques de connaissances.



FIGURE 14 : LES ELEMENTS CONSTITUTIFS DU SCHEMA CONCEPTUEL (D'APRES MEEM, 2017).

Depuis la publication de la norme TRIADE (ISO 19204, 2017) qui décrit une procédure d'évaluation site-spécifique des risques écologiques liés à la contamination des sols, le calcul d'indicateurs (et d'indices de risques) pour l'ERE des sites contaminés sur la base d'analyses chimiques, biologiques et écologiques est proposé, sous la forme d'un triptyque. Ces indicateurs reflètent une information

élaborée qui traduit synthétiquement l'état du système et ont été développés en lien avec les caractéristiques d'un bon indicateur : pertinent et fiable (validé scientifiquement), sensible, synthétique, partageable et interprétable (y compris par des non spécialistes), disponible sur une durée significative dans le respect d'exigences de faisabilité technico-économique. La norme TRIADE (ISO 19204, 2017) complète la méthodologie nationale de gestion des SSP (MEEM, 2017) qui ne présentait pas clairement les différentes étapes de la méthodologie d'ERE à l'échelle des sites et plus précisément la combinaison des approches écotoxicologiques et écologiques. Bien que cette approche ait récemment été déployée dans une étude de cas à Saint-Laurent-le-Minier (PUCHEUX ET AL., 2017), elle reste récente et son application manque encore de recul, notamment dans des contextes de gestion des friches urbaines.

4.1. La biodisponibilité toxicologique

4.1.1. Définition

L'organe cible, la quantité et la vitesse d'absorption des contaminants sont les principaux facteurs qui modulent les effets toxiques pour un organisme (RAINBOW, 2002; VAN STRAALEN ET AL., 2005; RAINBOW ET AL., 2007). La biodisponibilité toxicologique correspond à la fraction de contaminants qui occasionnera des effets toxiques (LANNO ET AL., 2004) et est à la base des méthodes d'évaluation des risques où l'identification de l'exposition et des effets toxiques est effectuée. Les contaminants occasionnent des dommages sur l'ensemble des niveaux d'organisation biologique en interagissant avec l'ensemble des macromolécules du vivant. Le TABLEAU 4 présente les différents niveaux qui peuvent être à l'origine des altérations des fonctions physiologiques observées au niveau individuel. L'altération des performances individuelles, telles que la croissance, la maturation sexuelle, la reproduction, le vieillissement (COEURDASSIER, 2001) est à l'origine des effets écologiques au niveau populationnel des contaminants lorsqu'ils touchent au moins une fraction significative des individus qui composent la population (MUNKITTRICK ET MCCARTY, 1995). Les altérations populationnelles sont à l'origine d'altérations des communautés où les espèces les plus sensibles peuvent disparaître, entraînant des réductions de la richesse spécifique, de l'abondance de certaines espèces, des modifications de dominance et de distribution de la biomasse (VERNEAUX ET TUFFERY, 1967; VERNEAUX, 1995; FRITSCH ET AL., 2017; MARCHAND ET AL., 2017; PESCE ET AL., 2017). Enfin, ces perturbations qui se manifestent à l'échelle des écosystèmes terrestres entraînent des dégradations des fonctions écosystémiques en affectant les processus biogéochimiques, tels que la minéralisation du carbone et de l'azote par la biomasse microbienne des sols (DAI ET AL., 2004).

TABLEAU 4 : QUELQUES CIBLES TOXICOLOGIQUES MOLECULAIRES ET CELLULAIRES A L'ORIGINE D'ALTERATIONS DES FONCTIONS PHYSIOLOGIQUES POUR LES ORGANISMES DE LA FAUNE DU SOL.

| Cibles toxicologiques | Exemple d'effets de contaminants des sols sur ces cibles |
|-----------------------|---|
| | L'arsenic (III) cause des cassures à l'ADN dans les spermatozoïdes |
| Génome | d'Eisenia fetida concourant à la baisse de la fertilité des vers de terre |
| | exposés (WANG ET AL., 2018) |
| Fnigénome | Le cadmium augmente le taux de méthylation globale des cytosines |
| Epigenome | chez C. aspersus (NICA ET AL., 2017) |
| | Les nanoparticules d'argent modifient le transcriptome du |
| Transcriptome | collembole, F. candida (surexpression des transcrits codant pour la |
| Transcriptome | metallothionein-like containing protein et une dérégulation du |
| | transcrit codant pour la GST) (SILLAPAWATTANA ET AL., 2016) |
| | Le cadmium induit des changements dans le protéome du foie de rats |
| Protéomo | en augmentant des activités enzymatiques et en diminuant la |
| Troteome | production de phosphatidylethanolamine binding protein (HISPARD ET |
| | AL., 2010) |
| Linidome | Les molluscicides perturbent la composition en acides gras d'Helix |
| сприотте | pomatia (KOWALCZYK-PECKA ET AL., 2017) |
| | La roténone inhibe le complexe I de la chaîne respiratoire |
| Mitochondries | mitochondrial et supprime le gradient transmembranaire à l'origine |
| | de la production d'ATP (SHERER ET AL., 2003) |
| | Les nanoparticules de titane causent chez Lumbriculus terrestris une |
| Cellules | augmentation du taux d'apoptose dans la cuticule, l'épithélium |
| | intestinal et le tissu chloragogène (LAPIED ET AL., 2011) |

La recherche de liens entre la biodisponibilité environnementale via l'étude des concentrations internes et la biodisponibilité toxicologique à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique constitue une nécessité pour mieux comprendre les mécanismes de toxicité (ESCHER ET HERMENS, 2004), tels que l'a par exemple montré GIMBERT ET AL. (2016) en reliant la bioaccumulation du Hg à l'altération de la croissance et de la reproduction pour *C. aspersus*. Une meilleure connaissance des mécanismes toxiques permet également de déterminer des adverse outcome pathway (AOP). Ces AOP sont une représentation structurée des évènements biologiques en cascade qui entraînent des effets négatifs à l'échelle de l'organisme (ANKLEY ET AL., 2010) et des populations (KRAMER ET AL., 2011; OCDE, 2020). Afin de mieux comprendre ces mécanismes, des approches d'évaluation des effets écotoxiques à des niveaux d'organisation biologique (moléculaires ou cellulaires) peuvent être employées en reposant sur l'hypothèse formulée par GARRIC ET AL. (2010) que le temps de réponse biologique augmente avec le niveau d'organisation biologique. Cette hypothèse a été validée par de nombreuses études notamment celle de DEVAUX ET AL. (2011) qui montre que des changements précoces dans le taux de cassures à l'ADN dans les spermatozoïdes de *Salmo trutta* sont à l'origine d'effets délétères majeurs au niveau populationnel. Parmi les approches moléculaires couramment employées, figure l'étude des effets sur

les traits d'histoire de vie (e.g., maturité sexuelle, croissance), intégrateur d'une altération de l'état de santé de l'organisme et de sa fitness et l'étude d'effets génotoxiques. Ces effets génotoxiques sur le long terme sont en liens avec des processus de cancérogénèse lorsque les dommages affectent les cellules somatiques et des effets sur la reproduction quand le génome des cellules de la lignée germinale est altéré. De plus, les effets génotoxiques des contaminants chimiques sur les mollusques se manifestent souvent à des concentrations inférieures aux doses recommandées ou aux concentrations seuils dans les milieux, par exemple BAURAND ET AL. (2015C) a montré par amplification aléatoire d'ADN polymorphe (RAPD) que le glyphosate entraînait des altérations génomiques des embryons d'escargots, *C. aspersus*, à des concentrations inférieures aux doses recommandées pour les traitements de la vigne.

4.1.2. Effets au niveau moléculaire : stress oxydant, stabilité du génome et dynamique des télomères

Les contaminants chimiques peuvent avoir des effets moléculaires indirects dus à la formation d'espèces réactives à l'oxygène (ERO). Pour lutter contre ces ERO, des systèmes antioxydants des organismes sont activés (WINSTON ET GIULIO, 1991; GUTTERIDGE ET HALLIWELL, 2018). Le stress oxydant est défini comme étant la perturbation de la balance entre production d'ERO et capacités de défenses antioxydantes (BETTERIDGE, 2000), en conséquence, le stress oxydant correspond à l'ensemble des effets délétères causés par les ERO. Les contaminants inorganiques peuvent accroître le stress oxydant en causant une rupture au niveau de la liaison O-O du peroxyde d'hydrogène (AUST ET AL., 1985; WINSTON ET GIULIO, 1991). De plus, les contaminants organiques sont à l'origine d'ERO lors de la métabolisation au cours de la première phase car la liaison du CYP450 avec le contaminant nécessite un atome d'oxygène pour former un oxy-complexe qui sera réduit en peroxy-complexe en permettant l'acceptation de deux H⁺ et la production d'une molécule d'eau (BANERJEE ET GHOSH, 2016). La production des ERO durant cette phase est effectuée via la production continue de NADPH par la chaîne de transfert des électrons qui est oxydée et qui produit aussi des ERO en absence de substrat (BONDY ET NADERI, 1994; ZANGAR ET AL., 2004; MANDUZIO ET AL., 2005). Les dommages moléculaires du stress oxydant sur les molécules du vivant concernent majoritairement les lipides (peroxydation lipidique), les protéines (peroxydation protéique) et les acides nucléiques (oxydation des bases azotées de l'ADN et de l'ARN). D'après LETENDRE ET AL. (2012), la résistance cellulaire au stress oxydatif dépend de l'intensité de ce dernier. Lorsque les dommages provoqués par les ERO submergent les voies de réparation des macromolécules impactées alors des voies pro-apoptotiques sont stimulées notamment p38 MAPK et p53, chez les mollusques, ce qui sera à l'origine d'effets à des niveaux d'organisation biologique supérieurs (LETENDRE ET AL., 2012).

Lorsque les oxydations de bases provoquées par le stress oxydatif et notamment le radical hydroxal ne sont pas réparées alors des mutations surviennent lors de la réplication de l'ADN. Par exemple la 8-oxodG (8-oxo-7-hydro-2'-désoxyguanosine) est une forme très répandue d'oxydation des guanines (VALAVANIDIS ET AL., 2009) qui peut, lors de sa réplication être à l'origine de mutagénèse via des transversions de type GC \rightarrow TA et GC \rightarrow CG (WOOD ET AL., 1990; CHENG ET AL., 1992; KINO ET SUGIYAMA, 2001). Si la base mutée est située dans une portion codante de l'ADN, elle peut conduire à des dommages physiologiques importants en altérant la synthèse de l'ARN-messager. Lorsque les dommages à l'ADN ne sont pas réparés et que les mutations délétères se propagent dans les cellules somatiques alors des cancers peuvent apparaître dans les populations et causer des effondrements de populations. En effet, les mutations peuvent altérer l'expression des gènes suppresseurs de tumeurs et activer les proto-oncongènes (WISEMAN ET HALLIWELL, 1996; COOMBER ET AL., 2003). Comme chez les mollusques bivalves où la génotoxicité induit un syndrome génotoxique (Genotoxic Disease Syndrome) qui est à l'origine de perturbation des fonctions enzymatiques, d'une augmentation de la rapidité du renouvellement des protéines, d'une inhibition de la croissance, de la fertilité, d'un vieillissement prématuré (KURELEC, 1993; DEPLEDGE, 1994) et probablement une cause, comme suggéré par plusieurs études, des néoplasies disséminées qui déciment certaines populations de mollusques bivalves, tels que Mya arenaria (VAN BENEDEN, 1997; MCGLADDERY ET AL., 2001; WOLOWICZ ET AL., 2005; PARISEAU ET AL., 2009; PARISEAU ET AL., 2011; WALKER ET AL., 2011; AGUILERA ET AL., 2017; ODINTSOVA, 2020).

Les effets du stress oxydant provoqués par les contaminants des sols sur les macromolécules du vivant sont à la base d'effets génotoxiques par oxydation des acides nucléiques et d'effets physiologiques par la perturbation des grandes fonctions. Les effets génotoxiques agissent sur tous les niveaux organisationnels du vivant, de la molécule à la population (VAINIO ET AL., 1992). En effet, le génome via la mémoire génétique conditionne les fonctions cellulaires mais également la fitness d'un organisme, c'est-à-dire sa capacité adaptative et sa probabilité de reproduction (AMIARD-TRIQUET ET AMIARD, 2008). Les perturbations génotoxiques peuvent donc affecter la dynamique des populations (VASSEUR ET AL., 2008B; LACAZE ET AL., 2011; SUKUMARAN ET GRANT, 2013; MATIC ET AL., 2016) et transmettre des informations génotoxiques de manière transgénérationnelle (YAUK ET QUINN, 1996; DUBROVA ET AL., 2000; SOMERS ET AL., 2002; DEVAUX ET AL., 2011; KELLY, 2014).

D'après WÜRGLER ET KRAMERS (1992) et ANDERSON ET WILD (1994), la génotoxicité environnementale peut conduire à une perte de diversité génétique des populations (surtout dans les populations de petite taille) causée par une hausse de l'homozygotie pour l'ensemble des gènes, car les pressions génotoxiques induisent la survie et la reproduction de quelques individus ayant acquis des profils de résistance (AMIARD-TRIQUET ET AMIARD, 2008). Les dommages à l'ADN, support du code génétique, peuvent être exogènes et générés directement après exposition à un agent génotoxique ou

indirectement après activation métabolique comme pour le benzo(a)pyrène qui forme des adduits à l'ADN lors de sa métabolisation (DENISSENKO ET AL., 1996). De nombreux dommages à l'ADN sont générés consécutivement à des erreurs de réplication, de réparation, des instabilités en condition physiologique de certaines liaisons, de l'accumulation ou de la production de métabolites et de la génération au niveau des mitochondries et du réticulum endoplasmique d'ERO et à l'azote ERA (LEMIERE, 2004 ; DEXHEIMER, 2013) et une grande diversité de dommages à l'ADN sont spécifiques de contaminants (FIGURE 15).



FIGURE 15 : SOURCES DES DOMMAGES A L'ADN ET VOIES DE REPARATIONS IMPLIQUEES (MODIFIE D'APRES LEONARD ET AL. (1990), HOEIJMAKERS (2001) ET DEXHEIMER (2013)).

Les lésions à l'ADN provoquées par les agents génotoxiques peuvent être regroupées en quatre catégories (ORSIERE ET AL., 2005; BAURAND, 2014) :

- Lésions primaires de l'ADN : cassures, adduits, oxydations, alkylations, pontages, intercalations, dimérisations
- 2. Lésions à mutations géniques : additions, délétions, substitutions, mésappariements, incorporation d'uracile
- 3. Lésions clastogènes à mutations chromosomiques quantitatives : cassures doubles brins entraînant des réarrangements ou des translocations
- 4. Lésions aneugènes à mutations chromosomiques qualitatives : altérations de protéines (kinétochores, centrosomes, tubulines, lamina,...)

Si les dommages ne sont pas réparés et n'engendrent pas de mutations létales ou que la cellule n'est pas entrée en apoptose ou que le système immunitaire n'élimine pas la cellule ayant subi une mutation non-létale, les conséquences physiologiques dépendront du type cellulaire concerné. Les cellules somatiques endommagées pourront être à l'origine de cancers, de vieillissement prématuré, de maladies génétiques ou inflammatoires, tandis que les cellules germinales pourront être altérées et induire une diminution de la fertilité. Elles pourront aussi transmettre des anomalies héréditaires, du développement, engendrant des processus de tératogénèse et d'embryotoxicité (WISEMAN ET HALLIWELL, 1996; FRELON, 2001; WU ET AL., 2004; VALAVANIDIS ET AL., 2009; BERNSTEIN ET AL., 2013; SHIMADA ET FUJII-KURIYAMA, 2004; BOITEUX ET AL., 2016). De plus, l'altération par des processus génotoxiques directs et indirects des télomères situés à l'extrémité des chromosomes par une large diversité de contaminants organiques et inorganiques peut être en lien avec un vieillissement cellulaire prématuré des organismes, notamment chez l'homme (LOUZON ET AL., 2019). L'étude de la dynamique des télomères en toxicologie environnementale considère en parallèle des effets génotoxiques intégrateurs d'effets sur la santé et la longévité des organismes (LOUZON ET AL., 2019). Pour autant, bien que les mécanismes soient de plus en plus identifiés et connus pour l'homme, l'impact des polluants transférés aux organismes bioindicateurs de la qualité des sols sur la dynamique de leurs télomères reste à ce jour non étudié.

4.1.3. Effets au niveau individuel : croissance et maturité sexuelle

La croissance est un trait d'histoire de vie qui peut être altéré consécutivement à des troubles métaboliques, comportementaux et des perturbations neuro-endocrines (COEURDASSIER, 2001). Des contaminants tels que le Cr, le Cu, le Zn, le diméthoate, le 5-fluorodeoxyuridine, le 4-nonylphénol et le pentachlorophénol présents dans les sols altèrent la croissance de l'escargot *C. aspersus*, du vers de terre *E. fetida* et du nématode *Caernohabditis elegans* (HOSONO, 1978; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2000; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY, 2000; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2001; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2002; WU ET AL., 2011; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016; TEJEDA-BENITEZ ET AL., 2016). La mesure d'une inhibition de la croissance est donc un paramètre intégrateur qui révèle une altération de l'état de santé des individus via éventuellement une perturbation du système neuroendocrinien et/ou du métabolisme énergétique. En effet, une réallocation énergétique pour les processus de métabolisation, d'excrétion et de détoxication peut être engagée et a été conceptualisée au travers du dynamic energy budget (KOOIJMAN, 2009; KOOIJMAN ET AL., 2009).

Les conséquences d'un retard de croissance peuvent être un retard de maturité sexuelle des individus qui pour les organismes en milieu naturel soumis aux rythmes des saisons peut entraîner des conséquences délétères sur les populations. La régulation de la croissance peut être impactée au niveau neuro-endocrinien par les contaminants par exemple pour les nématodes par interaction avec le système d'hormone juvéniles (OETKEN ET AL., 2004) et pour l'escargot lorsqu'ils agissent sur l'activité des cellules dans le mésocérébrum (GOMOT ET GOMOT, 1995) car ce dernier est un des acteurs impliqués dans la régulation de la croissance avec les Cerebral Green Cells (CeGC) et des hormones de type insuline-like (GOMOT ET AL., 1992). La maturité sexuelle des organismes peut être retardée ou inhibée à cause d'effets délétères sur la croissance mais également à cause d'effets écotoxiques spécifiques. Le glyphosate ou le Hg peuvent retarder et inhiber la maturité sexuelle en fonction de l'exposition chez C. aspersus (GIMBERT ET AL., 2016; DRUART ET AL., 2017). Ces effets écotoxiques sur la maturité sexuelle peuvent être causés par un retard de la différenciation sexuelle, une influence maternelle, un affaiblissement du métabolisme énergétique et une perturbation neuro-endocrine (SCHNEIDER ET AL., 2014). Chez l'escargot la perturbation neuro-endocrine à l'origine d'un retard de maturation sexuelle peut être causée par une altération des fonctions du mésocérébrum (tout comme l'inhibition de la croissance), car ce dernier est impliqué dans la régulation de la gamétogénèse par le contrôle de la multiplication des spermatogonies (GOMOT ET GRIFFOND, 1993; GOMOT ET GOMOT, 1995). Les neurones du mésocérébrum des mollusques gastéropodes innervent le système reproducteur (pénis et canal déférent) et sécrètent de l'APGWamide (DE LANGE ET VAN MINNEN, 1998; KOENE ET AL., 2000; KOENE, 2010; DI CRISTO ET KOENE, 2017), de la conopressine (équivalent de l'ocytocine et de la vasopressine des Mammifères), le neuropeptide tyrosine, LyNPY (CROLL ET VAN MINNEN, 1992; SMIT ET AL., 1992; DE LANGE ET AL., 1997; LESSER ET AL., 1997; DUTERTRE ET AL., 2008; DI CRISTO ET KOENE, 2017). Ces neurohormones, dont l'APGWamide peuvent avoir une sécrétion modulée par une inhibition de l'activité de l'enzyme CYP aromatase 19 consécutivement à une exposition à des contaminants chimiques comme le tributylétain, TBT (MATTHIESSEN ET GIBBS, 1998; **OBERDÖRSTER ET MCCLELLAN-GREEN, 2000).**

Globalement, pour les ERE, il y a un manque d'AOP déterminés et validés au niveau de l'OCDE pour les organismes bioindicateurs de la faune du sol ce qui limite l'utilisation des biomarqueurs pour l'évaluation d'effet précoces sur la santé des organismes et leurs populations. On peut toutefois citer l'existence d'AOP en cours de validation par l'OCDE en liens avec la mortalité, tels que :

- L'inhibition de l'activité de l'acétylcholinestérase pour les Métazoaires (RUSSOM ET AL., 2014; RUSSOM ET AL., 2016).
- L'activation de canaux chlorure par le glutamate pour les hyménoptères et les lépidoptères (WOLSTENHOLME, 2012; FAY, 2016).

Les liens entre les effets écotoxiques sur les traits d'histoire de vie et la biodisponibilité environnementale ont été étudiés pour plusieurs contaminants, tels que le Cd et le Hg chez l'escargot (COEURDASSIER, 2001; GIMBERT, 2007; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016) et montrent l'intérêt du couplage de l'étude de la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique pour l'évaluation des risques écotoxiques des contaminants, par la combinaison de l'étude de l'exposition et du danger (toxicité). Ces liens pourraient être renforcés en combinant des approches écogénotoxicologiques à l'étude des traits d'histoire de vie pour l'identification d'effets précoces au niveau génomique et pour apporter des connaissances pour des constructions d'AOP spécifiques pour les invertébrés des sols (HODGES ET AL., 2018; OCDE, 2020; SASAKI ET AL., 2020).

4.1.4. Méthodes d'évaluations de la biodisponibilité toxicologique

Selon la norme ISO 17402 (2008), la biodisponibilité toxicologique peut être évaluée indirectement par les méthodes d'essais écotoxicologiques appliquées à la qualité du sol. Pour cela, il faut les sélectionner par rapport à la fonction du sol potentiellement affectée et à l'utilisation prévue, selon les spécificités de la norme ISO 15799 (2019) à propos des fonctions d'habitat et de rétention identifiables. Les essais écotoxicologiques aquatiques peuvent également être effectués sur lixiviats ou eaux interstitielles pour assurer l'évaluation des risques pour le continuum terrestre-aquatique (ISO 17402, 2008). Pour la fonction de rétention, les élutriats aqueux sont pertinents pour l'évaluation des effets causés par le transport des contaminants par l'eau interstitielle aux micro-organismes, végétaux et à la faune du sol. Alors que pour l'évaluation de la fonction d'habitat, il faut considérer les différents niveaux trophiques, groupes taxonomiques/physiologiques, les différentes voies d'expositions et rôles écologiques des organismes (ISO 17402, 2008). Bien qu'en première intention les essais normalisés soient requis, l'utilisation de méthodes validées ou approuvées qui pourraient apporter une plus-value à l'ERE est permise. Par exemple, des essais d'écotoxicités chroniques sur des organismes endémiques qui incluent des mesures de biomarqueurs pertinents peuvent être employés, tels que les dénombrements de micronoyaux pour la plante Vicia faba (ISO 29200, 2013; COTELLE ET AL., 2015) ou les escargots (DA SILVA et al., 2013; GAD et al., 2016; KHALIL, 2016; FILIPPI et al., 2018; RADWAN et al., 2019). Étant donné l'implication de la génotoxicité environnementale sur la santé et la fitness des organismes, la considération de la génotoxicité dans l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité toxicologique apparaît indispensable dans le cas des SSP mais se heurte à un manque de connaissances et de recul, notamment pour les escargots.

4.1.5. L'escargot pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité toxicologique

Des méthodes *in situ* passives (ramassage), actives (encagement) ou ex situ peuvent être employées pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité toxicologique avec l'escargot (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Elles couvrent tout le cycle de vie de l'escargot en considérant des essais d'embryotoxicité (DRUART ET AL., 2010, DRUART ET AL., 2012), de génotoxicité pour les embryons avec la technique de RAPD-HRS qui détecte des dommages primaires à l'ADN et des mutations (BAURAND ET AL., 2013), d'inhibition de la croissance (ISO 15952, 2018) et de la reproduction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2016). Ces essais peuvent être étendus à des tests avec des chaînes trophiques reconstituées comprenant un producteur primaire (végétal) et un prédateur de l'escargot, tels que des rats ou des larves de Carabidés (SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; HISPARD ET AL., 2008A; HISPARD ET AL., 2008B). En parallèle de l'évaluation des effets sur les traits d'histoire de vie, des mesures de biomarqueurs à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique, de la molécule à l'organe peuvent être effectuées pour affiner l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité toxicologique via la détection d'effets précoces, tels que par exemple des biomarqueurs de stress oxydant ou de génotoxicité (REGOLI ET AL., 2006; RADWAN ET AL., 2010; RADWAN ET AL., 2020).

Actuellement, les approches écotoxicologiques avec l'escargot manquent de liens avec les approches de caractérisation de la biodisponibilité environnementale notamment pour les effets moléculaires dans un contexte d'évaluation des risques où il est nécessaire de combiner l'évaluation de l'exposition et la toxicité. Bien que des biomarqueurs de génotoxicité aient été validés, le recours à ces approches moléculaires intégratrices de potentiels effets négatifs sur le long terme à l'échelle de la santé des organismes et de la dynamique des populations demeure actuellement limité à quelques études pour l'escargot. En effet, ces approches documentées dans la littérature scientifique ne sont pas encore totalement transférées aux gestionnaires des SSP et nécessitent pour certaines des études de faisabilité complémentaires, comme par exemple la RAPD-HRS pour l'évaluation de la génotoxicité environnementale (ATIENZAR ET JHA, 2006) avec les escargots (BAURAND et al., 2013). La technologie est développée pour l'évaluation de l'embryogénotoxicité mais pas pour la génotoxicité pour les escargots sub-adultes utilisés dans l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité des contaminants sur sites (ISO/CD 24032, 2020). De plus, plusieurs biomarqueurs utilisables en biosurveillance sanitaire tels que l'évaluation de la dynamique des télomères comme biomarqueur d'altération de l'état de santé et de vieillissement cellulaire ne peuvent pas être utilisés chez les escargots car on ignore leurs pertinences pour ces organismes en écotoxicologie (LOUZON ET AL., 2019).

4.2. Risques environnementaux

4.2.1. Méthodes d'évaluations

La récente démarche d'évaluation des risques et des impacts environnementaux de la pollution des sols est structurée par des campagnes de diagnostic spécifique à chaque site avec une priorité accordée aux mesures de terrain (LOI N° 2014-366, 2014; ISO 19204, 2017; MEEM, 2017). Cette démarche repose sur la construction d'un schéma conceptuel qui guidera les investigations à mener (FIGURE 16) (ADEME ET INERIS, 2017). Les méthodologies d'ERE doivent faire face actuellement à de nouveaux enjeux tels que la considération des modes de gestion alternatifs (e.g., la renaturation) et la revalorisation des terres excavées (MTES, 2020). À titre d'exemple, les travaux souterrains du Grand Paris Express ont généré 43 Mt de déblais dont une proportion très importante de terres contaminées (BOUILLON-DUPARC, 2020). Afin d'orienter leur devenir, une ERE est nécessaire pour vérifier que les terres valorisées n'impactent pas l'environnement, notamment en cas de recours à des usages alternatifs (e.g., remblais).

À l'échelle nationale, il n'y a pas de valeurs de gestion spécifiques pour tous les contaminants et tous les cas de figure qui concernent les risques environnementaux. Actuellement, il est possible d'interpréter les niveaux de contamination (environnementalement anomaliques ou non) par rapport aux valeurs de fonds à l'échelle du territoire (ADEME, 2018A) et du site en considérant par exemple le bruit de fond pédogéochimique naturel et/ou anthropisé (ADEME, 2018B). Ces approches permettent d'intégrer dans l'évaluation du risque la protection de la ressource « sol » (ADEME, 2018A).



FIGURE 16 : EXEMPLE DE SCHEMA CONCEPTUEL D'EXPOSITION DANS LE CADRE D'UNE ERE (D'APRES ADEME ET INERIS, 2017).

En milieu anthropisé, dans certains cas spécifiques (qui excluent notamment les activités minières et les remblais urbains), dont le cas des friches urbaines, le recours au fond pédo-géochimique anthropisé présente un certain nombre d'avantages puisqu'il intègre les concentrations diffuses liées aux activités anthropiques présentes et passées (FIGURE 17) et sa ligne de base peut être employée pour considérer des concentrations anthropiquement anomaliques (ADEME, 2018B).



FIGURE 17 : DEFINITION SCHEMATIQUE DES FONDS PEDO-GEOCHIMIQUES ANTHROPISES ET NATURELS (D'APRES ADEME, 2018b).

Dans un contexte d'évaluation écotoxicologique des sols contaminés, les approches d'évaluation des risques par substance avec le ratio PEC/PNEC (concentrations environnementales mesurées ou prédites – ou *Predicted Environmental Concentration* (PEC) sur concentrations environnementales prédites sans effets –ou *Predicted No Effect Concentration* (PNEC)) peuvent être employées (AHLERS ET AL., 1994).

Cependant, ces approches présentent des limites car les PNEC sont déterminées pour un nombre réduit de contaminants, d'organismes (majoritairement les vers de terre et les végétaux supérieurs) et de marqueurs (mortalité le plus souvent) (INERIS, 2020A), sans prendre en considération les spécificités du site (e.g., propriétés physico-chimiques des sols, interactions entre contaminants, transferts trophiques). De plus, ces approches sont également limitées en matière de représentativité car elles n'intègrent que peu les différences de sensibilités entre espèces (JÄNSCH ET AL., 2007; OORTS ET AL., 2016) avec un facteur de correction par défaut en fonction de la qualité des données d'entrées. En cas de manque de données (cas fréquent pour les invertébrés terrestres), les PNEC peuvent être

estimées sur la base des PNEC_{eau-douce} calculées avec des organismes aquatiques, le coefficient de partage sol-eau et la densité du sol (INERIS, 2014), ce qui représente une source d'incertitude.

Outre la caractérisation de l'état de la contamination par des analyses chimiques et les approches conventionnelles en première intention PEC/PNEC, la méthodologie de 2017 recommande le recours aux indicateurs biologiques, à la dendrochimie et au phytoscreening pour démontrer des transferts actifs de polluants et les impacts consécutifs. Parmi les méthodes biologiques employées en complément des approches chimiques, la norme ISO 17402 (2008) recommande l'utilisation d'essais écotoxicologiques pour caractériser la toxicité des contaminants qui est le reflet direct de leur biodisponibilité. Il est alors possible d'utiliser tous les essais pertinents normalisés ISO qualité du sol afin de considérer différentes échelles trophiques, organismes et effets écotoxiques (aiguës, chroniques), sans négliger les essais normalisés ISO qualité de l'eau pour évaluer la biodisponibilité pour le compartiment aquatique après lixiviation. Plus généralement, l'ensemble des tests écotoxicologiques développés, notamment les biomarqueurs validés, de la molécule à l'écosystème peuvent s'avérer être pertinents pour caractériser de la biodisponibilité toxicologique.

L'approche biologique permet de caractériser une relation de causalité entre la pollution et ses conséquences écosystémiques (MEEM, 2017), ce qui selon les anglo-saxons alimente le concept du poids de la preuve (weight of evidence : WOE) (DAGNINO ET AL., 2008; SUTER ET AL., 2020). Les outils biologiques peuvent être utilisés également pour (MEEM, 2017) :

- L'évaluation des interactions des contaminants avec le biote (i.e., biodisponibilité)
- L'évaluation des effets des polluants seuls ou en mélange vis-à-vis du biote (*i.e.*, évaluation de l'état biologique du sol qu'il soit issu d'un site contaminé ou d'un site remédié)
- L'orientation du choix d'un usage actuel ou futur d'un sol dégradé (e.g., réaménagement d'une friche urbaine en parc urbain) via la connaissance des fonctions biologiques assurées par le biote (e.g., habitat, recyclage des nutriments, rétention, atténuation naturelle de la pollution)

La caractérisation de l'état biologique d'un sol nécessite des approches couplées (MEEM, 2017; PUCHEUX ET AL., 2017) :

- Physico-chimiques (contamination et propriétés physico-chimique du sol) pour l'évaluation du risque lié à la présence de substances identifiées sur un site.
- Écotoxicologiques pour les organismes du sol (et aquatiques via des essais de lixiviation, par exemple) pour évaluer le risque dans différentes matrices environnementales prises dans leur globalité.

 Écologiques via l'utilisation de bioindicateurs (intégrant l'ensemble des facteurs environnementaux via des organismes sentinelles) pour évaluer le risque par une mesure de la biodiversité.

Ces approches sont combinées au sein de la méthode TRIADE pour des ERE en tenant en compte les spécificités de chaque site (ISO 19204, 2017). Brièvement, la norme prévoit une évaluation sur trois niveaux, avec une progression vers le niveau supérieur (outils de complexité croissante) en cas de différence entre des scores d'effets pour les différentes approches, chimiques, écotoxicologiques, et écologiques (ISO 19204, 2017; PUCHEUX ET AL., 2017). Le comité de normalisation a placé l'évaluation des excès de transferts avec l'escargot dans l'approche chimique en raison de la mesure de concentrations bioaccumulées mais cet outil qui caractérise la biodisponibilité environnementale, à l'interface donc entre la chimie et la toxicologie, aurait également pu être positionné dans le volet écotoxicologie. Pour chaque approche, cette évaluation est effectuée selon une approche graduée par « niveaux » de complexité analytique et de réalisme écologique (FIGURE 18).

- Niveau I (dépistage simple) :
 - Chimie : mesures de la contamination des sols, calcul d'une pression toxique.
 - Écotoxicologie : méthode de laboratoire incluant des essais d'inhibition de l'activité déshydrogénase d'Arthrobacter globiformis (ISO 18187, 2016), essai d'évitement des vers de terre E. fetida ou E. andrei (ISO 17512-1, 2008) et des collemboles Folsomia candida (ISO 17512-2, 2011), test Microtox© ISO 11348-3, 2011).
 - Écologie : étude des habitats (BISSARDON ET GUIBAL, 1997) et du recouvrement végétal.
- <u>Niveau 2 (investigation détaillée)</u> :
 - Chimie : évaluation de la biodisponibilité réelle et potentielle avec des extractions chimiques (CaCl₂, HNO₃, Tenax©, cyclodextrine et micro-extraction en phase solides) et l'étude des transferts aux plantes (LE GUEDARD ET AL., 2017) et aux escargots via des approches *in situ* (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A ; ISO/CD 24032, 2020).
 - Écotoxicologie : approches de laboratoire concernant les essais d'inhibition de la reproduction des vers de terre *E. fetida* ou *E. andrei* (ISO 11268-2, 2012), des enchytréidés *Enchytraeus sp.* (ISO 16387, 2014) et des collemboles *F. candida* (ISO 11267, 2014), essais d'inhibition de la croissance, de la fertilité et de la reproduction du nématode *C. elegans* (ISO 10872, 2010) et les essais d'inhibitions de l'émergence et de la croissance de deux végétaux supérieurs (ISO 11269-2, 2012).
 - Écologie : test d'évaluation des activités alimentaires des organismes du sol Bait-Lamina (ISO 18311, 2016), de la minéralisation du carbone et de l'azote (ISO 14238, 2012), de

la respiration induite par les sols (ISO 17155, 2012) et de l'abondance et de la diversité des différents groupes trophiques composant la nématofaune (ISO 23611-4, 2007).

- Niveau 3 (évaluation approfondie) :
 - o Chimie : utilisation de modèles et de simulations chimiques.
 - Écotoxicologie : essais en mésocosmes avec reconstitution de chaîne trophiques et/ou de communautés (e.g., acariens, enchytréidés et collemboles, d'après JENSEN et SCOTT-FORDSMAND (2012), essais de laboratoire chroniques sur végétaux supérieurs (ISO 22030, 2005) incluant des tests d'émergence et de croissance sur six espèces (ISO 11269-2, 2012).
 - Écologie : diversité microbienne et fongique dans les sols (ADEME, 2012; ISO 11063, 2012; ISO 17601, 2016; LE GUEDARD ET AL., 2017; ADEME, 2017) et d'acides gras phospholipidiques (ISO/TS 29843-2, 2011), diversité des communautés d'invertébrés et de végétaux (ADEME, 2012; LE GUEDARD ET AL., 2017; GRAND ET AL., 2018; ISO 21286, 2019), modélisation de chaîne alimentaire et estimer les transferts dans les chaînes trophiques avec le risque d'empoisonnement secondaire.



FIGURE 18 : L'APPROCHE TRIADE (D'APRES BERT ET AL., 2017).

Actuellement, l'évaluation des risques écotoxicologiques et/ou écologiques repose encore majoritairement sur la caractérisation physico-chimique des sols (GRAND ET AL., 2018) alors que le contexte réglementaire depuis 2017 a évolué et recommande le recours à des approches plus spécifiques, notamment celles incluant des bioindicateurs de la qualité du sol (MEEM, 2017). La norme TRIADE (ISO 19204, 2017) propose notamment de tels outils pour compléter les procédures d'ERE

réglementaires des SSP et s'ajoute au protocole H14 qui présente quelques tests d'écotoxicité (ISO 22030, 2005; ISO 20666, 2008; ISO 11348-3, 2011) pour la classification réglementaire des déchets en fonction de la dangerosité et qui peut être utilisé pour déterminer le devenir de sols hautement contaminés (INERIS, 2016). A ce jour, les terres excavées (où le sol n'est plus structuré et les polluants peuvent être remobilisés) ne disposent pas d'indicateurs biologiques spécifiques pour caractériser leurs risques et orienter leurs devenirs. Elles sont utilisées hors sites dans des espaces verts sous une couche de terres végétales (30 cm minimum), sous des bâtiments ou dans des aménagements routiers revêtus (MTES, 2020). Cependant, en cas d'absence de risques environnementaux et sanitaires caractérisés (transferts et effets vers le biote), notamment pour les terres excavées faiblement contaminées, leur devenir pourraient avoir de plus larges possibilités (e.g., remblais sur site) et plus particulièrement si la ressource en eau souterraine n'est pas affectée (MTES, 2018B).

Si de nombreux travaux dans la littérature ont porté sur le développement et l'étude de la faisabilité de la mesure de biomarqueurs pour les bioindicateurs de la qualité des sols (VASSEUR ET BONNARD, 2014; BAURAND ET AL., 2015C; ITZIOU ET AL., 2018), la standardisation des méthodes de la mesure de biomarqueurs sur les espèces modèles présente un retard expliquant la quasi-absence de la mesure de biomarqueur d'exposition a cependant franchi une étape supplémentaire vers son utilisation par les gestionnaires, il s'agit de l'étude de l'induction des métallothionéines chez les vers de terre par certains métaux (BRULLE ET AL., 2006 ; BRULLE ET AL., 2008). Ce biomarqueur est proposé dans une fiche outil de l'ADEME pour les gestionnaires des SSP (VANDENBULCKE ET AL., 2011). À ce jour, le développement d'indicateurs spécifiques pour l'ERE des terres excavées en complément des tests d'écotoxicité standardisés (mortalité, croissance, reproduction...) est nécessaire pour considérer la biodisponibilité environnementale des contaminants dans ces terres.

4.2.2. L'escargot pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contaminés

L'escargot peut être utilisé pour l'ERE à l'interface air-sol-plante à la fois comme bioindicateur d'accumulation (biodisponibilité environnementale) pour l'évaluation de l'exposition des organismes via la méthode impliquant les TGV *in situ* (section 3.2.3.) et comme bioindicateur d'effets écotoxicologiques (biodisponibilité toxicologique) en pondérant les AQ par des toxicity point (TP) génériques (ATSDR, 2015) des éléments transférés pour le calcul de coefficient de risque (RC)

(PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) (FIGURE 19). Dans le but d'identifier des effets spécifiques à l'escargot et impactant la fitness des individus, en complément de l'approche visant à calculer des RC, le couplage d'évaluations d'altérations de traits de vie, telles que l'évaluation d'une inhibition de la croissance ou de la reproduction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2016; ISO 15952, 2018) peuvent être employés (section 4.1.5.). À cela des approches multi-biomarqueurs (REGOLI ET AL., 2006; MLEIKI ET AL., 2020) peuvent être ajoutées pour identifier des effets infra-individuels à l'origine d'altération de l'état de santé des organismes et de leurs fitness, tels que des effets génotoxiques. Les AQ et les RC peuvent respectivement être sommés lorsque les sites sont multi-contaminés sur le même principe que pour l'évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires (EQRS) en ERS (section 4.3.) en considérant une additivité des transferts et des effets dans le cadre d'un indice de somme des excès de transferts (SET) et d'évaluation des risques environnementaux des éléments métalliques transférés (ERITME), respectivement (FIGURE 19).



FIGURE 19 : DES CONCENTRATIONS INTERNES AUX RISQUES ECOTOXICOLOGIQUES DES METAL(LOÏDE)S.

Pour une meilleure applicabilité par les gestionnaires, outre la nécessité d'une normalisation via l'ISO de la méthodologie « TGV-SET-ERITME », il apparait donc nécessaire de discerner respectivement les intérêts et les limites des approches *in situ* et *ex situ* dans un contexte d'ERE avec l'escargot en fonction des différents contextes (e.g., terres excavées, site végétalisé). En effet, l'utilisation de tests de laboratoire sur des terres excavées pour l'évaluation des risques de sites contaminés végétalisés, recouverts d'humus et soumis aux conditions pédoclimatiques pose question quant au réalisme écologique. Ainsi, que ce soit pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale ou toxicologique, et des risques environnementaux consécutifs, des approches sites spécifiques et terres excavées spécifiques nécessitent d'être clairement définies, tout en recherchant s'il est possible ou non de les mutualiser à travers l'identification des facteurs qui les modulent. Parmi, ces facteurs qui influencent les transferts des contaminants, des caractéristiques environnementales ont été identifiées, telles que la végétation, l'humus et les poussières (PAUGET ET AL., 2016; MARIET ET AL., 2017A; PELFRENE ET DOUAY, 2018; OZAKI ET AL., 2019). Ainsi, une comparaison simultanée entre les niveaux de transferts entre des approches de laboratoires sur des terres excavées et des essais par encagement d'escargot sur site pourrait permettre de discerner leurs intérêts respectifs en accord avec les questions de gestion posées.

4.3. Risques sanitaires

4.3.1. Méthodes d'évaluations

À la base des ERS, à l'issu de diagnostics, le schéma conceptuel est effectué (FIGURE 20). Il est évolutif. En effet, il est systématiquement amené à être modifié, complété au regard des résultats des études complémentaires qu'il aura suscité (MEEM, 2017).



FIGURE 20 : SCHEMA CONCEPTUEL ADAPTE POUR UNE ERS D'UN ANCIEN SITE INDUSTRIEL (D'APRES MEDD, 2007b).

Les ERS sont à la base des plans de gestion (PG) (FIGURE 21). Ces derniers ont pour vocation de respecter les objectifs internationaux visant à restaurer les sols dégradés, et plus spécifiquement en (MEEM, 2017) :

- maîtrisant les sources et les impacts des contaminants.
- proposant deux scénarios de gestion au minimum.
- définissant des essais à réaliser dans le cadre du plan de conception des travaux (PCT) (si nécessaire et non intégré dans le PG).



FIGURE 21 : DU SCHEMA CONCEPTUEL AU PLAN DE GESTION (D'APRES CHRYSAE, 2020).

Parmi ces scénarios de gestion, une valorisation des terres excavées hors site peut être mise en œuvre, (e.g., sous 30 cm minimum de terre végétalisée dans des parcs, incorporation dans du revêtement routier) (FIGURE 22) telle que définie dans le guide MTES (2020). Cette valorisation hors site dépendra des niveaux de contamination (MTES, 2020). Mis à part l'incoporation dans du revêtement routier (*i.e.,* asphalte et enrobés bitumineux), les scénarios de gestion actuels des terres excavées ne proposent pas d'usages alternatifs tels que le remblai si les contaminants sont non biodisponibles pour l'homme.


FIGURE 22 : DOMAINE D'EMPLOI DES TERRES EXCAVEES DU NIVEAU I (E.G., < 150 PPM DE ZN DANS LE SOL, AEP : CAPTAGE EN ALIMENTATION D'EAU POTABLE, D'APRES MTES, 2020).

La démarche d'évaluation des risques sanitaires (ERS) des sites et sols contaminés, consiste sur la base du schéma conceptuel (FIGURE 20), à distinguer deux situations qui seront à l'origine de deux procédures distinctes (LOI N° 2014-366, 2014; MEEM, 2017) :

- 1. Projets de réhabilitation ou d'aménagement où des usages sont choisis : nécessitant une évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires (EQRS).
- 2. Évaluation de la compatibilité entre les usages d'un site et les risques sanitaires : nécessitant une interprétation de l'état des milieux (IEM).

Dans les deux cas, pour chacune des voies d'exposition définies par le schéma conceptuel (ingestion et inhalation majoritairement) le risque est calculé par deux indicateurs (MEDD, 2007b) :

- I. Les quotients de danger (QD) pour les substances à seuil d'effets de dose.
- 2. Les excès de risques individuels (ERI) pour les substances sans seuils d'effets de dose (risques cancérigènes).

En effet, depuis les travaux de Druckrey sur le yellow butter, le dogme « la dose fait le poison » de Paracelse est modéré par le fait que pour les substances cancérigènes directes une dose seuil pouvant être considérée comme sans danger n'existe pas (DRUCKREY, 1957). De ce fait, les ERI (ou CR pour carcinogenic risk) prennent tout leur sens pour évaluer les effets carcinogènes. Ces indices sont également utilisés à travers le monde à différents degrés d'obligation réglementaire comme le montre par exemple JIA ET AL. (2018) en Chine. Les QD et les ERI sont basés sur le calcul de doses journalières d'expositions (DJE, ou de CI pour les concentrations moyennes inhalées) et sur l'utilisation de valeurs toxicologiques de référence (VTR) spécifiques pour chaque contaminant et chaque voie d'exposition (validées sur la base d'une méta-analyse des études toxicologiques) (ANSES, 2017; INERIS, 2018; ANSES, 2019; ANSES, 2020). Les scénarios de calcul des DJE et des CI sont basés sur le schéma conceptuel (consommation accidentelle de sols par des enfants durant x années, etc.).

Dans le cadre de l'IEM, l'ERS est effectuée en considérant chacune des substances (pour ne pas occulter la hiérarchisation des substances et les voies d'exposition), tandis que pour l'EQRS, l'additivité des risques (donc la somme des QD et des ERI) est retenue (pour les QD la somme est possible uniquement si les VTR sont disponibles pour le même organe cible) (INERIS, 2013; MEEM, 2017).

Ces évaluations des risques sont basées uniquement sur les concentrations totales en contaminant dans les sols, ignorant donc le principe de biodisponibilité où les propriétés physico-chimiques des sols modulent les transferts des contaminants aux organismes (ALLEN, 2002; PAUGET, 2012; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). Ainsi, à l'échelle d'un territoire, en accord avec ce concept, ce ne sont pas les sites les plus contaminés qui présentent nécessairement le plus de risque et donc pour lesquels il est le plus urgent de mettre en œuvre des mesures afin de protéger les enjeux sanitaires et environnementaux. En outre, il a été montré que la concentration totale d'un élément présent dans une matrice donnée n'est pas un bon indicateur du potentiel d'exposition de la population (FREEMAN ET AL., 1994; FREEMAN ET AL., 1996; CASTEEL ET AL., 1997). Lorsque les QD et les ERI ne permettent pas de statuer clairement sur l'absence de risque (zone d'incertitude), ils peuvent être pondérés par la fraction bioaccessible des contaminants pour l'homme (INVS, 2012; INERIS, 2013; MEEM, 2017) pour affiner l'évaluation de l'exposition humaine et diminuer les incertitudes (SABA ET AL., 2019; INERIS, 2020).

Les ERS (pour la santé humaine) et ERE sont toujours réalisées indépendamment les unes des autres avec des méthodologies qui présentent des convergences (indicateurs d'expositions, prise en considération des effets toxiques, schéma conceptuel) et des divergences (pas de classes de risques pour l'ERE car les organismes potentiellement affectés présentent des sensibilités différentes en liens avec leurs caractéristiques écophysiologiques). Ces évaluations effectuées séparément ne prennent pas en considération les interactions entre la santé de l'homme et de son environnement. En tant que bioindicateur de la qualité des sols spécifique des ERE, l'escargot pourrait être utilisé pour rechercher des ponts entre les niveaux de réponse des ERE et des ERS en combinant l'évaluation de l'exposition et des effets toxiques. À terme en connaissant mieux les convergences et les divergences en matière de niveaux de risques pour l'environnement et la santé humaine, leurs associations permettraient le développement de méthodologie d'évaluation intégrative des risques en adéquation avec le concept One Health.

4.3.2. Intégration de la bioaccessibilité orale dans les méthodes d'évaluation des risques sanitaires

Afin d'affiner l'estimation de l'exposition des individus aux contaminants, la bioaccessibilité (fraction massique d'un polluant mise en solution dans le tractus digestif ou les voies aériennes) peut être quantifiée via des tests in vitro (ISO 17924, 2018; PELFRENE ET DOUAY, 2018), notamment lorsque les valeurs des indicateurs de risques sont dans des zones d'incertitude (i.e., dans le cadre d'une IEM entre 0,2 et 5 pour les QD et 10⁻⁶ à 10⁻⁴ pour les ERI) (INVS, 2012; INERIS, 2013; MEEM, 2017). Comme l'ingestion orale de sol par adhérence aux mains et aux légumes non lavés est une voie d'exposition (DUGGAN ET INSKIP, 1985; WIXSON ET DAVIES, 1994; OLIVER, 1997; HOUGH ET AL., 2004; BERMUDEZ ET AL., 2011), l'évaluation de la bioaccessibilité orale est recommandée (MTES, 2017). En outre, la bioaccessibilité orale permet d'appréhender le comportement de Pica chez les jeunes enfants qui consiste en une ingestion répétée de substances non comestibles (comme les sols) (FEDERMAN ET AL., 1997; YOUNG, 2011; ADVANI ET AL., 2014; MIAO ET AL., 2015). Pour les jeunes enfants exposés aux sols, la consommation quotidienne peut varier entre 50 à 200 mg en cas d'adhérence aux mains (VAN WIJNEN ET AL., 1990; DOYLE ET AL., 2012) et 50 g en cas de comportement de Pica (CALABRESE ET AL., 1997; MOYA ET PHILLIPS, 2014). En France, c'est la fraction bioaccessible orale la plus majorante entre l'estomac et l'intestin qui est considérée pour l'ajustement des QD et des ERI en zone d'incertitude (INVS, 2012). Pour autant, pour des raisons physiologiques, l'absorption d'un grand nombre de contaminant par voie orale, notamment les métal(loïde)s, se déroule principalement à travers l'épithélium intestinal (MUSHAK, 1991; DIAMOND ET AL., 1998; MUSHAK, 2011). La considération de la bioaccessibilité pulmonaire et dermique peuvent être également pertinente pour les autres voies d'exposition des organismes (BOISA ET AL., 2014; RUBY ET AL., 2016; CHAPARRO LEAL ET AL., 2018; ZHONG ET AL., 2020). Notamment en raison du fait que la bioaccessibilité pulmonaire des métaux tels que le Cd et le Pb, peut être approximativement deux fois plus importante que la bioaccessibilité orale (PELFRENE ET DOUAY, 2018).

En intégrant les fractions bioaccessibles à l'ERS, que ce soit dans le cas d'IEM ou d'EQRS, la diminution de l'incertitude dans l'interprétation des indicateurs de risque permet *in fine* de mieux

hiérarchiser les priorités de gestion des sols contaminés en fonction des risques toxicologiques et d'adapter plus précisément les usages en fonction des risques (INVS, 2012). Enfin, l'ERS peut recourir dans certains cas où les ERI sont en zone d'incertitude à l'utilisation de tests toxicologiques complémentaires afin de considérer plus précisément les potentiels effets cancérigènes, tels que des tests *in vitro* de mutagénicité et/ou de génotoxicité (PLAZA ET AL., 2005; JADCZYK ET KOLWZAN, 2013).

L'impact de la considération de la fraction bioaccessible gastrique ou gastrointestinale sur les évaluations des risques de type IEM ou EQRS n'a pas été confrontée avec les résultats d'ERE sur des sols identiques. Ces recherches seraient essentielles afin de mieux comprendre les liens entre les niveaux de risques sanitaires et environnementaux sur la base d'évaluation fine de l'exposition des organismes (en considérant les organes dans lesquels l'absorption des contaminants est importante) et des effets écotoxiques associés à la biodisponibilité.

5. Objectifs

Afin de combler les manques de connaissances et d'indicateurs identifiés dans l'introduction, les objectifs de la thèse sont les suivants :

- Déterminer des valeurs guides de référence (TGV) pour un bioindicateur d'accumulation (l'escargot) pour l'évaluation ex situ des excès de transferts (SET) et des risques écotoxicologiques consécutifs aux transferts des métal(loïde)s, HAP et PCB. Ces travaux visent à permettre l'élaboration d'indicateurs globaux pour la caractérisation des transferts et des risques associés pour ces trois familles de contaminant.
- Caractériser l'influence des propriétés physico-chimiques des sols sur la variabilité des transferts sols-escargots.
- Discerner les intérêts respectifs des méthodes d'ERE in situ et ex situ, en comparant la biodisponibilité des métal(loïde)s et des HAP pour des escargots exposés in situ à des sols structurés et végétalisés ou au laboratoire aux terres excavées de ces sols.
- Etudier les liens entre la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique des contaminants pour l'escargot pour mieux comprendre les mécanismes écotoxiques et interpréter les indicateurs de risque. Ces recherches sont effectuées à la fois en considérant des effets sur les traits d'histoire de vie et sur des échelles moléculaires pour la caractérisation d'effets génotoxiques.
- Entreprendre une étude exploratoire portant sur l'intérêt de l'étude de la dynamique des télomères en toxicologie environnementale chez l'escargot.
- Identifier les relations entre ERE et ERS pour proposer des méthodologies d'évaluation intégratives des risques des SSP associant la santé humaine et la santé des écosystèmes. Ces recherches portent sur l'étude des liens entre la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et la biodisponibilité environnementale pour l'escargot, et entre les niveaux de réponse des indicateurs de risques spécifiques de l'ERE développés avec l'escargot (coefficients de risques et évaluation des risques environnementaux des éléments métalliques transférés) et de l'ERS (quotient de danger et excès de risques individuels) dans un contexte d'IEM.

PARTIE II – INDICATEURS POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES AVEC L'ESCARGOT

I. Evaluation ex situ des risques

environnementaux de sols pollués avec des valeurs guides de référence pour l'escargot *Cantareus aspersus*

Titre en anglais : Ex situ environmental risk assessment of polluted soils using threshold guide values for the land snail Cantareus aspersus

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Résumé

L'évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE) des sols contaminés doit être idéalement effectuée en combinant des approches complémentaires (chimiques et biologiques) à la fois in situ et ex situ. Alors que les méthodes biologiques basées sur l'évaluation d'effets et de la bioaccumulation pour les bioindicateurs existent pour les organismes de la faune du sol, tels que les escargots terrestres, les méthodologies sont actuellement limitées aux approches d'encagement sur le terrain pour 14 éléments métalliques (EM). Pour produire de nouveaux outils pertinents pour les gestionnaires des sites et sols pollués, l'objectif de cette étude est de déterminer les valeurs guides de référence ex situ (TGV ex situ) pour 15 EM, 16 hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP) et 7 polychlorobiphényles (PCB). Ces nouvelles TGV ex situ sont des concentrations normales en contaminant trouvées dans les viscères du bioindicateur Cantareus aspersus après 28 jours d'exposition à des sols non contaminés. Le deuxième objectif de cette étude était d'évaluer et de valider la pertinence de ces TGV ex situ pour l'interprétation des niveaux de contaminations de divers sols européens contaminés sur la base de calcul d'indices globaux : i) la somme des excès de transferts (SET) et ii) la pondération de SET sur la base de toxicity points généraux pour chaque contaminant pour évaluer le risque des EM, HAP et PCB transférés (ERITME, ERITPAH et ERITPCB, respectivement). De plus, l'influence des propriétés physico-chimiques des sols sur l'accumulation a été modélisée pour mieux comprendre leurs influences pour la biodisponibilité. Les TGV ex situ présentées et les indicateurs associés (la somme globale des excès de transferts et les risques écotoxicologiques globaux, GSET et GERITOXE) constituent un outil pour les gestionnaires des sites et sols pollués afin de prioriser la gestion des sols pollués en fonction du risque qu'ils représentent. Les TGV ex situ des composés organiques et inorganiques constituent de nouveaux outils pour caractériser les excès de transferts des contaminants, et ils pourront permettre une meilleure utilisation de l'escargot dans les ERE, notamment pour les polluants les plus communs, tels que les HAP et les PCB pour lesquels des valeurs guides n'étaient pas disponibles.

Abstract

Environmental risk assessment (ERA) of contaminated soils should ideally be carried out with complementary approaches (chemical and biological) conducted in situ and ex situ. While biological methods based on the assessment of effect and bioaccumulation in bioindicators exist for soil fauna organisms, such as land snails, the methodology is currently limited in the field to 14 metallic elements (MEs). To provide new relevant tools to the stakeholders polluted fields, the aim of this work is to determine ex situ threshold guide values (ex situ TGVs), for 15 MEs, 16 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and 7 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs). These ex situ TGVs are the usual concentration of contaminants found in the viscera of the bioindicator Cantareus aspersus after 28 days of exposure to uncontaminated soils. The second objective was to assess and validate the relevance of these ex situ TGVs for the interpretation of contamination levels in various European contaminated soils based on global index calculations: i) The sum of the excess of transfers (SETs) and ii) the weighted SETs based on the general toxicity points of each contaminant used to evaluate the risk of transferred MEs, PAHs and PCBs (ERITMEs, ERITPAHs and ERITPCBs, respectively). In addition, the influence of soil physico-chemical properties on accumulation was modelled to better understand their roles in bioavailability. The presented ex situ TGV and the associated indicators (the global sum of the excess of transfers and global ecotoxicological risk) provide a basis by which stakeholders can prioritize the management of polluted soils depending on the risk they may represent. The determination of ex situ TGVs for organic and inorganic compounds provides new tools to characterize excess contaminant transfers, and it will also allow the use of snails for ERAs, notably for common pollutants, such as PAHs and PCBs for which guide values are not available.

I.I. Introduction

Anthropogenic activities are at the origin of 2.5 million polluted fields in the European Union (EEA, 2019). Contaminated soils are still a subject of concern, as they can cause health problems (EEVA ET AL., 2000), notably cancers for humans (NAWROT ET AL., 2006) and the collapse of animal populations (LASKOWSKI AND HOPKIN, 1996) and disturb community structures (MIGLIONIRI ET AL., 2004; CÉBRON ET AL., 2011). For the environmental risk assessment (ERA) of polluted soils and sites, a combination of chemical, biological and ecological measurements can be used in situ and ex situ, as described in the TRIAD methodology (ISO 19204, 2017). Understanding the relationship between soil pollution and environmental effects is essential for the establishment of management plans, and this relationship can only be assessed by measuring bioavailability through a combination of chemical and biological methods (LANNO ET AL., 2004). Indeed, bioavailability is a dynamic three steps process (environmental availability, environmental bioavailability, and toxicological bioavailability, ISO 17402, 2008). Thus, the measurement of bioavailability prevents the misinterpretation of the environmental risk level of contaminated soils. Therefore, the ERA of contaminated soils must take into account not only the total concentration of pollutants in soils but also the transfer of pollutants modulated by soil characteristics (e.g., pH, clay content, organic matter content) (ALLEN, 2002; PAUGET ET AL., 2011; PAUGET ET AL., 2016).

The in situ methodology developed with the land snail Cantareus aspersus by PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015) allows the assessment of environmental risk in the field of soil contaminated for 14 metallic elements (MEs). To accomplish this, the environmental bioavailability is estimated by the accumulation quotient (AQ) after 28 days of snail caging on a site and with a global index of the sum of excess transfers (SETs), which integrates the transfers of the 14 MEs to the snails. Based on the bioavailability assessment with the AQ, the toxicological risk can be estimated by weighting the AQ with the intrinsic toxicity of each transferred contaminant (toxicity point (TP) from ATSDR, 2015). This allows the evaluation of the environmental risks with the calculation of a risk coefficient (RC) for each contaminant. Then, the sum of each RC gives an index of the evaluation of the risk of transferred metallic elements (ERITME). The SET and ERITME index have been shown to be relevant for identifying the environmental risk of contaminated soils, e.g., resulting from past mining activities (MARIET ET AL., 2017A). Until now, it has not been possible to apply this methodology to organic compounds due to the lack of basic data, such as the usual internal concentration of these molecules in snail tissues. A total of 55.3 % of identified soil contaminations in France are caused by MEs (44.7 %), but polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are also frequently found in polluted sites (8.1 % and 2.6 %, respectively) (MTES, 2019B). The choice of C. aspersus was made for several reasons, among which are its worldwide repartition, its particular position at the soil-air-plant

interface (DALLINGER ET AL., 2001), and it non-negligible ecological role (IGLESIAS AND CASTILLEJO, 1999). Indeed, C. aspersus is a primary consumer phyto- and saprophagous which also ingest soil) (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; CHEVALIER ET AL., 2001; DALLINGER ET AL., 2001). It is also usable as a bioindicator in ERAs of polluted soils (NICA ET AL., 2013; LARBA AND SOLTANI, 2014; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO 15952, 2018). Furthermore, due to the accumulation abilities of the land snail species, they can be involved in the trophic bioavailability of MEs, i.e., transfer in food webs (BEEBY ET AL., 1985; LASKOWSKI AND HOPKIN, 1996; HISPARD ET AL., 2008A). The in situ methodology enables snail exposure to various transfer sources, including not only the soil source but also, e.g., plants, humus, and air. Currently, no ex situ assay with threshold guide values exists with the land snail to assess the environmental bioavailability of contaminants in soils. Ex situ exposure should facilitates the comparison of several soils by avoiding the influence of confounding factors, such as pedoclimatic conditions and site specific parameters, such as the diversity of plants. In the proposed ex situ bioassay, the soil constitute the main source of exposure of snails, which is relevant, in the context of the ERA of excavated soils, e.g., reused in embankments. Such ex situ approach will contribute to the ERA of destructured soils and guide management decisions for polluted soil stakeholders (e.g., the rehabilitation of excavated polluted soils, considering the transfer of pollutants to biota). Therefore, the in situ approach characterizes the risk of transferring contaminants from structured sites to biota, and the ex situ approach characterizes the risk of transferring contaminants from destructured soil to biota.

The assessment of the environmental risk of contaminated soils has to help stakeholders of polluted sites to elaborate appropriate decisions for sustainable soil management. For this purpose, some (predicted methodologies including the ratio called environmental risk quotient concentrations/predicted no effect concentrations; PEC/PNEC) exist (AHLERS, 2001). Calculation of PNEC require disposing of toxicity data (NOEC and ECx values) to which assessment factors are then applied. Among other risk assessment methods, the species sensitivity distribution (SSD) can be applied but it requires a lot of ecotoxicity data for numerous species (JÄNSCH ET AL., 2007). As for many soils bioindicators, ecotoxicity metrics for snails are not available for all the contaminants considered in the present study, thus neither the ratio risk nor the SSD approaches can be applied. Furthermore these methods are applied to each contaminant separately and here the aim was to provide global indices of the fate and potential effect of several contaminants at the same time. Other methodologies are proposed for the risk assessment of contaminated soils, such as the TRIAD method (ISO 19204, 2017). Among the parameters that are recommended in the TRIAD method, is the bioavailability that can be estimated notably with the snail, as bioindicator of the soil quality (ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19204, 2017).

The aim of our study is to develop an *ex situ* approach for the main substances in contaminated soils, *i.e.*: 15 MEs (As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Mo, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Sn, Sr and Zn), 16 PAHs and 7 PCBs.

Almost all of these contaminants are ranked in the substance priority list (except for Mo and Sn; ATSDR, 2017). First, the present study determined the *ex situ* TGVs (threshold guide values) of the land snail for 15 MEs, 16 PAHs and 7 PCBs in a bio-assay with 68 soils from Europe. These soils have various physico-chemical properties that are representative of the natural soil variability. Then, this study presents the application of this *ex situ* assay to perform an ERA for various soils contaminated by MEs and PAHs, and one polluted soil by PCBs. Third, this study examines the relationships between the AQ of metal(loid)s and the influence of soil physico-chemical properties to better understand the role of soil parameters on contaminant transfers to snails.

I.2. Material and methods

I.2.I. Soils

The soils used in this study originate from various European locations (France, Germany and Czech Republic) (ANNEXE 1). The soils were sieved at 4 mm, and the physico-chemical parameters were measured with the appropriate ISO standard protocols (granulometry, pH_{water}, etc.; FIGURE 23). To be applicable to various types of potentially contaminated soils from various soil locations, the TGV calculations are based on soil representing a wide range of physico-chemical properties (e.g., forest, farming or grassland), as presented in TABLE 5. The min and max values for clay, silt, sand, pH_{water}, OM, C_{org}, CaCO₃ contents, CEC, Alox and Feox were 6.8 and 63.0 %, 7.5 and 73.4 %, 2.9 and 83.7 %, 3.64 and 8.30, 12 and 360 g.kg⁻¹, 4.1 and 207 g.kg⁻¹, < 0.5 and 277 g.kg⁻¹, 4.30 and 1218 cmol.kg⁻¹, 0.02 and 5.64 cmol.kg⁻¹ and 0.005 and 5.14 cmol.kg⁻¹, respectively.



FIGURE 23: DIVERSITY OF THE PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PARAMETERS OF THE SOILS (CLAY, SILT, SAND, OM, C_{ORG}, AND CACO3 ARE IN G.KG⁻¹; CEC, ALOX AND FEOX ARE IN CMOL.KG⁻¹).

For the analysis of MEs in the soils, 500 mg of the soils (dry weight (dw)) was sampled, and after aqua regia digestion (HNO₃:HCl 2:5, v:v ultratraces, Optima®, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France), the concentrations of MEs were measured by ICP-MS (inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry, Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France) (ANNEXE 2). A certified reference material (loamy clay I, CRM052, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) was employed and gave recovery rates of 80 % to 120 % for all the MEs. The concentrations of the PAHs and PCBs in the soils were measured by GC-MS/MS (ANNEXES 3 AND 4) according to MORIN-CRINI ET AL. (2014). Briefly, pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) was performed on 5 g dried samples with hexane using a Büchi (Rungis, France) SpeedExtractor E-914 system. After the concentration of the samples, sample extracts were analysed in the GC-MS/MS apparatus (Agilent, Massy, France), which included a 7890A GC system, a 7000 GC triple quadrupole mass spectrometer and an 80 GC Combipal autosampler and a (5% phenyl)methylpolysiloxane (HP5MS) column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness, Agilent 19091J-433). The injection volume was 1 µl, the injector temperature was 300 °C, and injection was performed in splitless mode under a constant flow of He (purity of 99.9999 %) at 1.5 mL.min⁻¹ followed by a purge flow to the split vent after 0.5 min. The temperature of the transfer line, ion source and quadrupole were 300 °C, 300 °C, and 150 °C, respectively. An electron-impact ionization source at 70eV was utilized. Nitrogen with a purity of 99.9 % was produced by a NiGen LC-MS 40-1 Claind generator (Gengaz, Wasquehal, France) and used as the collision gas at 1.5 mL.min⁻¹. For PAH, the temperature gradient was from 45°C (held for 0.5 min) to 100 °C at 30 °C min-1 and then from 100 °C to 325 °C at 10 °C min-1. The total run time was 30 min. The abbreviations for the PAHs used in this study are as follows: NAP (naphthalene), ACY (acenaphthylene), ACE (acenaphthene), FLU (fluorene), PHE (phenanthrene), ANT (anthracene), FLT (fluoranthene), PYR (pyrene), BaANT (benzo(a)anthracene), (benzo(b)fluoranthene), BkFLT (benzo(k)fluoranthene), CHY (chrysene), BbFLT BaPYR (benzo(a)pyrene), dBahANT (dibenzo(a,h)anthracene), BghiPL (benzo(ghi)perylene), and IcdPYR (indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene). For PCB, the temperature gradient was from 120 °C (held for 1 min) to 220 °C at 3 °C min⁻¹ and then from 220 °C to 280 °C at 6 °C min⁻¹. The total run time was 49 min. The PCBs analysed were indicators 28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153 and 180. The soils were classified as contaminated on the basis of the soil guide values (SGVs) of MEs according to PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015) and ADEME (2018A) for PAHs and PCBs (ANNEXES I TO 4, TABLE 5).

1.2.2. Snails: Cantareus aspersus (Müller, 1774)

Snails were bred in our laboratory from individuals originating from a snail farm (CFPPA of Châteaufarine, 25000 Besançon, France). The species has been verified by DNA barcoding (Allgenetics, I 5008 A Coruña, Spain). Juvenile land snails were reared in the laboratory under controlled conditions (20 °C, 80 % relative humidity, photoperiod of 18 h light and 6 h dark) until the sub-adult stage (7-9

weeks), as described by GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY (2000). The sub-adult stage was selected to avoid confounding factors related to growth and reproduction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). At the beginning of exposure (t0), the sub-adult snails weighed 4.98 ± 0.76 g and the internal concentrations of the MEs, PAHs and PCBs were measured in the visceral mass from twelve sub-adult snails (TABLE 5). The snails were fed during the growth period with uncontaminated commercial food, Helixal[®] (Berthon S.A., France) and during the exposure period with uncontaminated fresh lettuce (from an organic farm, France) (TABLE 5).

TABLE 5: SOIL GUIDE VALUES (SGVS) IN THE SOILS; TOXICITY POINTS (TPS) FOR EACH CONTAMINANT; CONCENTRATIONS OF THE CONTAMINANTS IN THE VISCERAL MASS BEFORE EXPOSURE (CT0, N=12), IN LETTUCE, AND IN HELIXAL®; AND TRANSFER GUIDE VALUES (TGVS) CALCULATED FROM THE VISCERAL MASS OF *C. ASPERSUS* SUB-ADULTS AFTER 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE TO UNCONTAMINATED SOILS (SOURCES FOR SGVS ARE 1: PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015), 2: BAIZE (2000), 3: VILLANNEAU ET AL. (2008), 4: ADEME (2018A). THE TOXICITY POINTS USED ARE FROM ATSDR (2015). THE CT0 ARE MEDIAN (MIN|MAX) FOR MES AND MEAN \pm STANDARD DEVIATION POUR PAHS AND PCBS. THE CONCENTRATIONS AND TGVS FOR THE ME ARE IN MG.KG⁻¹ DRY WEIGHT (DW) AND THOSE FOR THE PAHS AND THE PCBS ARE IN μ G.KG⁻¹ FRESH MASS (FM) POOLED FROM TWO INDIVIDUALS).

| Conta | minants | SGV (mg.kg ^{.1} dw) | ТР | Concentrations in snails (Ct0) | Concentrations in lettuce | Concentrations in Helixal® | TGV |
|-------|---------|---------------------------------|-----|--------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------|
| | As | 25 ² | 600 | 0.11 (0.09 0.13) | 0.13 | 0.72 | 0.364 |
| | Cd | 0.45 ² | 400 | 1.49 (1.08 1.62) | 0.65 | 0.43 | 5.60 |
| | Co | 23 ² | 400 | 1.22 (0.90 1.76) | 0.07 | 0.66 | 8.12 |
| | Cr | 90 ² | 10 | 0.93 (0.66 3.66) | 0.05 | 7.77 | 0.653 |
| | Cu | 20 ² | 10 | 55.9 (34.9 84.4) | 10.1 | 7.99 | 173 |
| | Hg | 0.1 ² | 600 | 0.02 (0.01 0.03) | 0.01 | 0.49 | 0.089 |
| | Mn | 754 ² | 10 | 208 (80.7 348) | 46.4 | 69.5 | 1355 |
| ME | Mo | 1.59 ³ | 53 | 2.76 (1.85 3.38) | 0.21 | 1.01 | 2.31 |
| | Ni | 60 ² | 178 | 5.11 (3.63 7.42) | 0.37 | 3.10 | 6.10 |
| | Pb | 62.3 ³ | 400 | 0.42 (0.26 1.21) | 0.11 | 0.78 | 9.06 |
| | Sb | 2.01 | 10 | 0.05 (0.04 0.08) | 0.12 | 0.07 | 0.360 |
| | Se | 0.70 ² | 178 | 1.51 (1.18 1.80) | 0.05 | 0.11 | 1.25 |
| | Sn | 4.31 ¹ | 53 | 0.04 (0.01 0.07) | 0.04 | 0.02 | 0.048 |
| | Sr | 224 ¹ | I | 28.0 (17.8 39.5) | 27.0 | 223 | 71.0 |
| | Zn | 100 ² | 53 | 459 (298 634) | 37.0 | 51.6 | 581 |
| | NAP | 0.114 | 178 | 21.0 ± 6.10 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 26.1 |
| | ACY | 0.23 ⁴ | 10 | <16.9 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 16.9 |
| | ACE | 0.114 | 178 | < 3.7 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 13.7 |
| | FLU | 0.114 | 10 | <6.45 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 6.45 |
| ГАП | PHE | 0.40 ⁴ | 10 | 6.88 ± 5.95 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 4.20 |
| | ANT | 0.60 ⁴ | 10 | <9.63 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 9.63 |
| | FLT | 1.22⁴ | 178 | 6.27 ± 2.96 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 1.92 |
| | PYR | I.02 ⁴ | 10 | 8.72 ± 5.03 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 1.83 |

| | BaANT | 0.63 ^₄ | 400 | <1.44 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 1.44 |
|-----|---------|--------------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|------|
| | CHY | 0.7I ^₄ | 178 | 3.99 ± 1.18 | <1.00 | <1.00 | I.47 |
| | BbFLT | 0.9I ^₄ | 600 | <2.28 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 2.28 |
| | BkFLT | 0.40 ⁴ | 400 | <2.01 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 2.01 |
| | BaPYR | 0.75⁴ | 600 | <6.45 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 6.45 |
| | dBahANT | 0.34 ^₄ | 600 | <4.08 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 4.08 |
| | BghiPL | 0.56⁴ | 10 | <5.31 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 5.31 |
| | IcdPYR | 0.58 ^₄ | 178 | <5.25 | <1.00 | <1.00 | 5.25 |
| | PCB28 | 0.024 ⁴ | 600 | <0.16 | <0.16 | <0.16 | 0.12 |
| | PCB52 | 0.0244 | 600 | <0.26 | <0.26 | <0.26 | 0.18 |
| | PCB101 | 0.022 ⁴ | 600 | <0.27 | <0.27 | <0.27 | 0.18 |
| РСВ | PCB118 | 0.022 ^₄ | 600 | <0.28 | <0.28 | <0.28 | 0.24 |
| | PCB138 | 0.026 ⁴ | 600 | <0.57 | <0.57 | <0.57 | 0.51 |
| | PCB153 | 0.022 ⁴ | 600 | <0.42 | <0.42 | <0.42 | 0.36 |
| | PCB180 | 0.022 ^₄ | 600 | <0.58 | <0.58 | <0.58 | 0.23 |
| | | | | | | | |

I.2.3. Exposure

The snails were exposed to the soils, through digestive and cutaneous pathways for 28 days. For each soil, six snails were exposed in triplicate in transparent polystyrene containers of $24 \times 21 \times 8$ cm. The exposure modalities are detailed in PAUGET ET AL. (2011). One week before exposure, 300 g of soil (dw) was introduced in containers and humidified (water holding capacity (WHC) adjusted to 50%) with osmotic water. The containers were cleaned every two days to remove faeces and renew the lettuce (1.5 g.day⁻¹.snail⁻¹). The lettuce was offered in a Petri dish left on the bottom of the container. At the end of the exposure, the snails were starved in clean containers (without soils) for two days (the faeces were removed every 12 h). Then, snails were frozen (-80°C).

1.2.4. Chemical analysis

After thawing, for the dissection of visceral mass from each snail, the whole soft body was removed from the shell, the foot and the anterior part of the body were separated to the visceral mass above the edge of the mantle (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2002). The visceral mass then includes the digestive gland (main storage for contaminants), the kidney, the lung and the main part of the genital tract. Two visceral masses per replicate (three replicates per soil) were freeze dried for two days before the ME analysis. The lyophilized viscera were digested between 47 °C and 98 °C for 265 minutes (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) in 7 mL of nitric acid (HNO₃ at 65 %, ultratraces Optima®, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) and the volume was brought to 50 mL with milliQ water. Then, the samples were filtred to I μ m (DigiFILTER, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) and diluted 10x for ICP-MS analysis (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France) as for soil samples. The analysis was validated with a certified reference material (TORT-2 and DOLT, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France), which had recovery rates of 107 % \pm 15. For the PAHs and PCBs, the fresh visceral mass was dissected and pooled (two snails) from each replicate. The PAHs and PCBs were extracted

with the QuECHERs (quick, easy, cheap, effective, rugged and safe) methodology (RESTEK, Lisse, France). Briefly, snail viscera samples (one pool of two animals per replicate) were weighted, mixed with equal parts of water and crushed with a ball mill until completely homogenized (25 ceramic sphere (FastPrep, MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France) for two cycles (4.0 m/sec, 20 sec), with 180-second breaks). Samples were transferred into 50 mL Teflon centrifuge tubes, acetonitrile was added. After a 15min-extraction by vortex, salts were added and samples were further vortexed for 15 min. Extracts were centrifuged and an aliquot of supernatant was transferred to d-SPE polypropylene tubes for cleanup. Concentrations were measured by GC-MS/MS (7890A GC system, 7000 GC triple quadrupole mass spectrometer, HP5MS column, Agilent, Massy, France) in the same conditions than for soil samples. When the concentrations of the MEs, PAHs or PCBs in the snails were below the quantification limit (QL), the values of the concentrations used to calculate the AQ were replaced by QL/2 as recommended BERGSTRAND AND KARLSSON (2009).

1.2.5. Ex situ threshold guide value calculation

The ex situ TGVs were calculated on the basis of the internal concentrations of contaminants in the visceral mass of snails exposed ex situ to uncontaminated soils, according to the methodology published by PAUGET ET AL. (2013A) (EQ. 2). The outliers were removed before calculation. ex situ TGVs = 75^{th} percentile + 1.5 × interquatile range (EQ. 2)

Uncontaminated soils were identified on the basis of soil guide values (SGVs, TABLE 5) which correspond to the concentrations of contaminants beyond which a soil can be considered as contaminated (ADEME, 2018A). SGVs are guidance concentrations in soils to assess if a soil is contaminated and TGVs are guidance concentrations in snails viscera after 28 days of exposure to assess if an excess of transfer of contaminants exist from the soil to the snail.

For the *ex situ* TGVs calculation of the PAHs and PCBs, the concentrations accumulated in snails exposed to 26 and 7 uncontaminated soils were used, respectively (ANNEXES 3 AND 4). For the MEs, due to the strong differences between the concentrations of each ME in soils (ANNEXE 2), the *ex situ* TGVs were calculated with the concentration accumulated in the snail viscera over 28 days from 44, 26, 66, 64, 37, 24, 51, 48, 66, 34, 37, 30, 40, 67, and 18 soils for As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Mn, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Sn, Sr and Zn, respectively (a soil can be considered uncontaminated for As but contaminated for Pb).

I.2.6. Accumulation quotient, risk coefficient and index calculation

For each snail and each category of contaminant (ME, PAH, and PCB), the accumulation quotient (AQ), SET index, risk coefficient (RC) and ERIT-ME, -PAH, -PCB indexes were calculated to assess the sum of excess transfers (exposure) and the toxicological risk, according to the methodology described by PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015). Briefly, the AQs for organic contaminants were calculated with the mean concentration in the snail tissue instead of the median concentration (EQ. 3) due to the fact that three measurements (one per replicate) were performed per soil (pool of two individuals per replicate). The SET indexes were calculated based on the sum of each AQ (EQ. 4).

According to PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015), the RCs (risk coefficient = exposure x hazard) were calculated based on the AQ (that reflects the exposure of the snails) and the toxicity points (TPs) from ATSDR (2015) as a surrogate of the hazard of each contaminant (TABLE 5; EQ. 5). Indeed, many biomarkers of ecotoxicity have been studied in land snails, such as growth and reproduction rates, the acetylcholinesterase activities, the oxidative stress management, the (epi-)genomic stability and/or the histopathologic disorders (REGOLI ET AL., 2006; RADWAN ET AL., 2010; ITZIOU ET AL., 2011; ANGELETTI ET AL., 2013; BAURAND ET AL., 2015C; MLEIKI ET AL., 2015; LEOMANNI ET AL., 2016; NICA ET AL., 2017; ISO 15952, 2018; MLEIKI ET AL., 2018). But these endpoints are not available for all the contaminants considered in the present study. Therefore, and according to PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015), the use of TP was applied here. For the PAHs and PCBs, the ERITME indexes are respectively reappointed ERITPAH and ERITPCB, respectively (EQ. 6).

| $\Delta \Omega = \frac{Median \ Concentration \ _{28 \ days}}{Median \ Concentration \ _{28 \ days}}$ | (50 3) |
|---|---------|
| TQ = TGV | (EQ: 3) |
| $SET = \sum (AQ - 1)$ | (EQ. 4) |
| $RC = (AQ - 1) \times TP$ | (EQ. 5) |
| ERITME or ERITPAH or ERITPCB = $\sum RC$ | (EQ. 6) |

The global SET index (GSET) and global evaluation of the risk of toxicological elements (GERITOXE) were integrative indexes of SET and ERIT- for all the families of compounds and were calculated with the sum of SET or ERITME, ERITPAH and ERITPCB (EQ. 7 AND EQ. 8).

$$GSET = \sum (SET ME + SET PAH + SET PCB)$$
(EQ. 7)
$$GERITOXE = \sum (ERITME + ERITPAH + ERITPCB)$$
(EQ. 8)

I.2.7. Statistical analysis

The TGV calculation and all the statistical analysis were performed with R (version 3.4.2.) (R CORE TEAM, 2019). The relationships between the total concentrations of MEs in the soils, the SET or ERITME, ERITPAH and ERITPCB indexes, were assessed by univariate linear regressions, with data transformed by log_{10} (x+1). The assessment of the relationships between the total concentrations of the MEs in soil and the excess of transfers (AQ>1) was performed by univariate linear regressions. The influence of soil physico-chemical parameters on AQ>1 was modelled with multiple linear regressions. For each set of regressions, the best model (*i.e.*, the one providing the best adjusted coefficient of determination with the lowest number of independent variables) was chosen using the corrected Akaike criterion (AICc) (BURNHAM AND ANDERSON, 2004). For statistical robustness, these assessments of the influence of soil physico-chemical parameters on anomalous transfers have been modelled only for compounds that have at least 10 soils for which AQ>1.

I.3. Results and discussion

1.3.1. Ex situ threshold guide values

The ex situ TGV based on the concentrations in the snails viscera exposed to uncontaminated soils (FIGURE 24) are presented in TABLE 5. The ex situ TGVs are benchmarks for assessing the environmental bioavailability of contaminants in soils to snails. The ex situ TGVs for the MEs proposed in this study have the same order of magnitude as those of the CiRefs in situ developed by PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015) for 14 MEs. There are some differences for a few MEs, such as Zn (in situ and ex situ: 1490 and 581 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, respectively), which may be the result of the influence of the vegetation or humus available for snails in situ and the relatively low content of this element in the commercial food (Helixal®) used for the growth of the snails (182 and 51.6 mg Zn.kg⁻¹ dw in 2013 and in 2017, respectively). These results underline the influence of ME content in the food used for snail rearing (GOMOT AND PIHAN, 1997) and the need to check the concentrations in the control snails before exposure (TABLE 5, Ct0). These new ex situ TGVs, developed with the same methodology as those used for the CiRefs in situ for land snails (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015), characterize two additional MEs, Se and Mn. Having information on these elements is essential, as Se can be responsible for soil pollution caused by the coal industry (HUANG ET AL., 2009), and Mn pollution frequently occurs as a result of past and present activities at mining and smelting sites (PETITJEAN ET AL., 2016). This study provided also new data for organic compounds frequently found in contaminated soils, but for which no guidance values for gastropods were known due to the difficulty of extracting and analysing PAHs

and PCBs with low QLs in such complex biological matrices. Concerning the PAHs (except for NAP) and PCBs, the uncontaminated soils contained only traces of these compounds, some of which were not quantifiable. Therefore, snails exposed to these soils did not accumulate enough contaminants to allow the calculation of the *ex situ* TGVs in the same way as for the MEs. Thus, the proposed *ex situ* TGVs for the PAHs (except for NAP) and PCBs were assimilated to the QL to avoid false positives, even though the concentrations of contaminants could potentially be weaker. Further technical improvements would allow a decrease in the QL and thus a more refined value of these TGVs.



FIGURE 24: CONCENTRATIONS OF THE MES IN THE VISCERA OF SNAILS EXPOSED TO UNCONTAMINATED SOILS FOR THE DETERMINATION OF THE EX SITU TGVS (IN MG.KG⁻¹ DW; TGVS ARE SHOWN BY THE DOTTED RED LINES).

1.3.2. Application to contaminated soils

The *ex situ* TGVs were used to assess the environmental risk of soils contaminated by MEs with the SET index and ERITME index (TABLE 6). The AQ calculated with the *ex situ* TGVs identifies the contaminants that are accumulated in excess in snails (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). The highest AQs were found for As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, and Sn, with maximal values of 343, 59.5, 15.2, 360, 211 and 39.2, respectively (ANNEXE 5 AND TABLE 6A). Consequently, these contaminants are the principal drivers of the SET index in this study, with a maximal value of 608 (L3 soil). Associating the AQ with the TP of each ME allows the estimation of environmental risk (RC) according to the toxicity of the transferred ME. The highest RCs were again for As, Pb, Cd, Hg, Sb and Sn, with maximal values of 205200, 143600,

23400, 8520, 2100, and 2025, respectively, and a maximal value of the ERITME index of 230664 (L3 soil) (ANNEXE 5 AND TABLE 6B).

TABLE 6: (A)-ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ) AND SET INDEX AND (B)-RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) AND ERITME INDEX BASED ON THE CONCENTRATION OF METALLIC ELEMENTS (MES) IN THE VISCERAL MASS OF SNAILS AFTER 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE TO SOILS. COLOR GRADIENT FROM GREEN TO RED AS FUNCTION OF THE LEVELS OF THE TRANSFERS AND RISKS. DETAILED RESULTS FOR ALL SOILS ARE PRESENTED IN ANNEXE 5.

- -

| Α | | | | | | | | | AQ | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|---|---|--|---|--|--|---|--|---|---|--|
| | Soils | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Mn | Mo | Ni | Pb | Sb | Se | Sn | Sr | Zn | SET |
| • | AI | I | 1 | I. | I. | I | I | 1 | 1 | I. | I | I | I | I | I | I. | 0 |
| | B2 | I. | 1 | 1 | 2.60 | 1 | 1 | 1 | I | 1 | l I | I | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1.60 |
| | C3 | I. | I. | 1.16 | I. | 1 | I. | 1.30 | I | 1 | l I | I | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.46 |
| | H2 | 7.99 | 1.26 | - I | 2.24 | 1.02 | 1.16 | 1 | I. | 1.25 | l I | I. | I. | 6.65 | I. | 1 | 14.6 |
| | L2 | 9.67 | 9.86 | I | 1 | I. | 2.25 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 74.8 | 6.33 | 1.13 | 2.10 | Т | 1.60 | 99.8 |
| | L3 | 343 | 2.05 | I. | 1 | I. | 9.39 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 45.4 | 211 | 1 | 4.13 | T | 1 | 608 |
| | M2 | 22.7 | I. | I. | 1 | I. | 1.2 | 2.06 | I. | 1 | 360 | 1.57 | I. | I | Т | 1 | 382 |
| | 01 | I. | I. | - I | 1.16 | I. | 1.62 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9.34 | 1.32 | I. | 1.90 | Т | 1.44 | 10.8 |
| | 02 | I. | 1.01 | I. | 1 | I. | I. | 1 | 1.10 | 1 | 4.78 | I. | I. | 1.46 | Т | 1.37 | 4.72 |
| | 04 | 3.54 | 10.7 | I. | 1 | I. | 6.26 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 72.0 | 13.4 | 1.15 | 1 | Т | 2.67 | 102 |
| | 015 | 1.32 | 1.08 | 1 | 11.7 | I. | I. | I | I | I. | 2.32 | 1.43 | I. | 1.08 | Т | 1.26 | 13.2 |
| | 018 | 3.82 | I. | I. | 1 | I | I. | 1 | 1 | 1 | I | I. | 1 | 1 | I. | 1 | 2.82 |
| | 024 | 2.28 | 2.21 | I. | 1.07 | I. | 1.75 | I. | I. | 1.05 | 3.93 | 1.70 | I | 1.33 | Т | 2.51 | 8.84 |
| | O25 | 1.53 | I. | I. | 1 | 1 | I. | I. | I. | I. | 1.62 | I. | I | 1.29 | I. | I | 1.44 |
| - | O30 | 3.19 | 3.64 | ļ | I | 1 | I | I | I | I | 80.6 | 1.17 | I | 3.48 | I. | 3.61 | 89.7 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| В | | | | | | | | | RC | | | | | | | | |
| В | Soils | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Mn | RC Mo | Ni | Pb | Sb | Se | Sn | Sr | Zn | ERITME |
| В | Soils A I | As 0 | Cd 0 | Co | Cr 0 | Cu 0 | Hg 0 | Mn 0 | RC Mo 0 | Ni 0 | Pb 0 | S b 0 | S e 0 | Sn 0 | Sr 0 | Zn 0 | ERITME 0 |
| В | Soils Al B2 | As 0 0 | C d 0 | Co 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 | Cu 0 | Hg 0 0 | Mn 0 0 | RC Mo 0 | Ni 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 | Sb 0 | Se 0 0 | Sn 0 0 | Sr 0 | Z n 0 0 | ERITME 0 16.0 |
| B | Soils Al B2 C3 | As 0 0 0 | Cd 0 0 | Co 0 64.0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 | Cu 0 0 | Hg 0 0 | Mn 0 3.00 | RC Mo 0 0 | Ni 0 0 | Р Ь 0 0 | Sb 0 0 | Se 0 0 | Sn 0 0 | Sr 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 | ERITME 0 16.0 67.0 |
| B | Soils Al B2 C3 H2 | As 0 0 0 4194 | Cd 0 0 104 | Co 0 64.0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 | Cu 0 0 0.200 | Hg 0 0 96.0 | Mn 0 0 3.00 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 | РЬ 0 0 0 0 | Sb 0 0 0 | Se 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 0 300 | Sr 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 | ERITME 0 16.0 67.0 4751 |
| B | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 | As 0 0 4194 5202 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 | Cu 0 0 0.200 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 | Mn 0 0 3.00 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 0 29520 | Sb 0 0 0 0 53.3 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 | Sr 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 0 31.8 | ERITME 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 |
| В | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 | As 0 0 4 194 5202 205200 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 | Cu 0 0 0.200 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 29520 17744 | Sb 0 0 0 53.3 2100 | S e 0 0 0 23.1 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 0 31.8 0 | ERITME 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 |
| В | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 | As 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 | Cu 0 0 0.200 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 0 10.6 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 29520 17744 143600 | Sb 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 31.8 0 0 | ERITME 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 |
| В | Soils A1 B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 O1 | As 0 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 0 0 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 | Cu 0 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 | Sb 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 31.8 0 0 23.3 | BRITME 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 |
| В | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI OI O2 | As 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 0 0 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 0 4.00 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 | Cu 0 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5.30 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Рь 0 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 | Sb 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 31.8 0 0 23.3 19.6 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 |
| В | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI OI O2 O4 | As 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 0 0 0 1524 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 0 4.00 3880 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 0 | Cu 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 3156 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5.30 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 28400 | Sb 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 124 | Se 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 0 26.7 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 0 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 31.8 0 0 23.3 19.6 88.5 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 37200 |
| В | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI OI O2 O4 O15 | As 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 0 0 1524 192 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 4.00 3880 32.0 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 0 1.60 0 0 107 | Cu 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 3156 0 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 0 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 28400 528 | Sb 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 124 4.30 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 26.7 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 0 4.24 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 0 31.8 0 0 23.3 19.6 88.5 13.8 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 37200 881 |
| B | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI O2 O1 O2 O4 O15 O18 | As 0 0 4194 5202 13020 13020 0 0 1524 192 1692 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 4.00 3880 32.0 0 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 0 107 0 | Cu 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 3156 0 0 0 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5.30 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Pb 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 28400 528 0 | 0 0 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 124 4.30 0 | Se 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 0 26.7 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 0 4.24 0 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 31.8 0 23.3 19.6 88.5 13.8 0 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 37200 881 1692 |
| B | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI O1 O2 O4 O15 O18 O24 | As 0 0 4194 5202 13020 13020 0 1324 192 1692 768 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 4.00 3880 32.0 0 484 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 0 107 0 0,700 | Cu 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 3156 0 0 0 1550 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5.30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Pb 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 28400 528 0 1172 | Sb 0 0 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 124 4.30 0 7.00 | Se 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 26.7 0 0 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 0 4.24 0 17.5 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Zn 0 0 31.8 0 23.3 19.6 88.5 13.8 0 80.0 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 37200 881 1692 2988 |
| B | Soils AI B2 C3 H2 L2 L3 M2 OI OI 01 O1 O15 O18 O24 O25 | As 0 0 4194 5202 205200 13020 0 13020 0 0 1524 192 1692 768 318 | Cd 0 0 104 3544 420 0 0 4.00 3880 32.0 0 484 0 | Co 0 64.0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cr 0 16.0 0 12.4 0 0 0 1.60 0 0 1.60 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Cu 0 0.200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Hg 0 0 96.0 750 5034 120 372 0 3156 0 0 156 0 0 450 0 | Mn 0 3.00 0 0 10.6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | RC Mo 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Ni 0 0 44.5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | РЬ 0 0 29520 17744 143600 3336 1512 28400 528 0 1172 248 | Sb 0 0 53.3 2100 5.70 3.20 0 124 4.30 0 7.00 0 0 | Se 0 0 0 23.1 0 0 0 0 26.7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Sn 0 0 300 58.3 166 0 47.7 24.4 0 4.24 0 4.24 0 17.5 15.4 | Sr 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | Z n 0 0 31.8 0 23.3 19.6 88.5 13.8 0 88.0 80.0 0 | 0 16.0 67.0 4751 39183 230664 156757 3784 1565 37200 881 1692 2988 581 |

The relationships between the sum of the 15 MEs in the soils and the SET or ERITME indexes are presented in FIGURE 25 and have r^2 adj. values for the linear regression models of 0.560 and 0.430, respectively. Half of the variance in the AQ is explained by the total concentration of MEs in the soils. The other part of the variance can be explained by the physicochemical properties of the soils and

biotic factors (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). The coefficient of determination (r² adj.) better explains (+0.13) the relations of the sum of the 15 MEs in the soils with the SET index values than with the ERITME index values. This is in accordance with the low accumulation (high excretion) and the low toxicity (low TP) of essential elements and with the high accumulation (sequestration and detoxification) and the high toxicity (high TP) of non-essential elements, such as Cd (BETZER AND PILSON, 1975; BERGER AND DALLINGER, 1989; GOMOT AND PIHAN, 1997; PAUGET ET AL., 2012). These results highlighted that the commonly used rule based on "the highest contaminated soil presents the highest risk" can lead to misinterpretation of risks, notably when considering the numerous SET/ERITME values that were null or close to 0 for effectively contaminated soils (FIGURE 25). For each soil, the values of SET and ERITME were not driven by the same ME; for example, for O15, the SET is mainly influenced by Cr and the ERITME, mainly by Cd and Pb, due to the value of their TP. The AQ, SET index and risk index (ERITME) showed the environmental bioavailability to snails of the contaminants in the soils investigated.

The new *ex situ* TGVs for PAHs and PCBs have been used to assess *ex situ* the environmental risk of soils moderately contaminated by PAHs and PCBs with the SET PAH and ERITPAH indexes (TABLE 7) data presented only for soils causing a SET PAH and ERITPAH > 0) and SET PCB and ERITPCB indexes (TABLE 8). With the studied contaminated soils by PAHs, the results mainly evidenced a CHY bioavailability to snails. No PAH transfers have been detected for the GI soil, which contains the highest PAH concentrations, possibly because of its high organic matter content (175 g.kg⁻¹) and the ageing of contamination, as described by VASSEUR ET AL. (2008A) and SPASOJEVIC ET AL. (2017). This could explain the highest value reached by the SET-PAH index for the KI soil (*i.e.*, 4.6) whose OM content is six times lower than the GI soil. For the PCBs, the N2 soil is highly contaminated (the sum of the PCBs in the soil is 34.9 μ g.kg⁻¹), and the PCB with the highest transference is PCB153 (AQ = 5.05). This result reveals the bioavailability of PCBs in this soil, notably PCB153, which is often bioaccumulated in biota (ATUMA ET AL., 1996; DANIS ET AL., 2006). These results also showed that the *ex situ* TGVs developed in this study are relevant for assessing the environmental bioavailability by bioaccumulation measurements of MEs, PAHs and PCBs over 28 days in low contaminated soils.

TABLE 7: ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ) RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) AND SET ERITPAH INDEXES BASED ON THE VISCERAL MASS OF SNAILS AFTER 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE TO POLYCYCLIC AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS (PAHS) (THE BOLD VALUES ARE >1 FOR AQ, >5 FOR SET, >0 FOR RC AND > 1000 FOR ERITPAH, ONLY DATA FOR SOILS FOR WHICH A SET PAH AND ERITPAH > 0 ARE PRESENTED IN THIS TABLE).

| | | | | | | | | | | AQ RC | | | | | | | |
|-------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|-----|----------|-------|---------|------------|-------|-----------|-------|---------|--------|--------|----------------|
| Soils | NAP | ACY | ACE | FLU | PHE | ANT | FLT | PYR | BaANT | СНҮ | BbFLT | BkFLT | BaPYR | dBahANT | BghiPL | IcdPYR | SET ERITPAH |
| G2 | 1 0 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 10 | 10 | 3.1 374 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | 2.1 374 |
| KI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | 1.2 35.6 | 1 0 | 1.3 120 | 4.8 676 | 1 0 | 1.3 120 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 4.6 952 |
| L2 | 1 0 | 10 | 10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.6 285 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I.6 285 |
| L4 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.1 17.8 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0.1 17.8 |
| 01 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.2 214 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I.2 214 |

TABLE 8: ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ) RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) AND SET ERITPCB INDEXES BASED ON THE VISCERAL MASS OF SNAILS AFTER 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE TO POLYCHLORINATED BIPHENYL INDICATORS (PCBS) (THE BOLD VALUES ARE >1 FOR AQ, >5 FOR SET, >0 FOR RC AND > 1000 FOR ERITPCB).

| | AQRC | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-------|-------|--------|------------------|--------|-----------|--------|---------------|--|--|--|--|
| Soils | PCB28 | PCB52 | PCB101 | PCB118 | PCB138 | PCB153 | PCB180 | SET ERITPCB | | | | |
| C2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| C3 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| C4 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| C5 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| C 6 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| C7 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 | | | | |
| N2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 4.96 2376 | 1 0 | 5.05 2430 | 1 0 | 8.01 4806 | | | | |



FIGURE 25: RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SUM OF THE CONCENTRATION OF THE FIFTEEN MES IN THE SOILS (MG.KG⁻¹ DW) AND SET OR ERITME INDEX VALUES (DATA ARE TRANSFORMED BY LOG₁₀(X+1)).

Contaminated soils are often multi-contaminated; therefore, this study developed GSET and GERITOXE indexes for an integrated risk assessment. GSET and GERITOXE provide an overall picture of the risk resulting of the contamination of the environment. On the basis of the SET and ERIT-indexes calculated for each soil and each family of contaminants analysed, GSET and GERITOXE were determined (TABLE 9). These calculations are presented for the soils for which data were available for ME and PAH (TABLE 9). The GSET and GERITOXE values vary according to the bioavailable compounds to snails as found for example for soils G2 and H2. For these soils the total concentrations of MEs (and PAHs) were 1007 – (3.56) and 985 – (0.173 mg.kg⁻¹) respectively, whereas their GSET equal 2.1 vs 14.6 and their GERITOXE equal 374 vs 4751 showing that similar ME-PAH soil contamination leads to contrasted level of risk. In term of the total contamination G2 soil was the most contaminated of the two soils, but in term of risk, according to the values of GSET and GERITOXE, H2 soils was the most risked soils (TABLE 9). These findings evidence reflects that the highest contaminated soils are not necessarily those showing the highest environmental risk.

Our original approach also provides global indexes useful for multi-contaminated sites (SET and GERITOXE) which is not possible with the ratio risk (PEC/PNEC) or the SSD methods. Finally, these indexes are the same than those used in human health risk assessments and pave the way to develop integrative methodologies that conciliate ERA and human health risk assessment (LOUZON ET AL., 2020A), such as the ISS (interpretation of the state of soils or IEM for the French acronym), which combines the assessments of exposure and the toxicological risk (MOSSMANN, 2010). Results of the "TGV-AQ-GSET-GERITOXE-ex situ method" will be helpful to orientate the further use of the excavated soils (depending on the level of risk identified: eliminated as a waste, or need to be covered, or submitted to soil remediation techniques, or used for renaturation of sites...). In the latter case,

this can, for example, limit the environmental disturbances and the cost associated to the excavation of soils.

TABLE 9: TOTAL CONCENTRATIONS OF THE CONTAMINANTS IN THE SOILS (MG.KG⁻¹ DW), GLOBAL SUM OF THE EXCESS OF TRANSFER (GSET) AND GLOBAL EVALUATION OF THE RISK OF THE TOXICOLOGICAL ELEMENTS (GERITOXE) IN SOILS (NA: DATA NOT AVAILABLE. THE COLOR GRADIENT VARIES FROM GREEN TO RED ACCORDING TO THE VALUE OF THE ME AND GERITOXE INDICES).

| Soi | [ME] | [PAH] | [PCB] | SET | SET | SET | GS | ERIT- | ERIT | ERIT- | GERIT |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|------|-----|-----|------|--------|------|-------|--------|
| ls | soils | soils | soils | ME | PAH | РСВ | EΤ | ME | -PAH | РСВ | OXE |
| JI | 112 | 0.013 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| П | 192 | 0.396 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| E2 | 586 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| FI | 688 | 0.745 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| ΑΙ | 810 | 0.205 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| A 2 | 844 | 0.270 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| A 3 | 871 | 0.502 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| A4 | 880 | 0.572 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| C5 | 1003 | 0.059 | 0.001 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| C 7 | 1089 | 0.315 | 0.001 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| C6 | 1184 | 2.54 | 0.001 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| D2 | 1280 | 0.622 | na | 0 | 0 | na | 0 | 0 | 0 | na | 0 |
| C4 | 1432 | 0.099 | 0.002 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| C2 | 1493 | 0.063 | 0.001 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| СІ | 2640 | 0.190 | 0.001 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| B 3 | 1194 | 0.081 | na | 0.02 | 0 | na | 0.02 | 0.20 | 0 | na | 0.20 |
| HI | 643 | 0.090 | na | 0.02 | 0 | na | 0.02 | 1.06 | 0 | na | 1.06 |
| F3 | 1036 | 0.275 | na | 0.45 | 0 | na | 0.45 | 4.50 | 0 | na | 4.50 |
| ΕI | 614 | 0.049 | na | 0.61 | 0 | na | 0.61 | 6.10 | 0 | na | 6.10 |
| BI | 854 | 1.43 | na | 0.79 | 0 | na | 0.79 | 7.90 | 0 | na | 7.90 |
| DI | 1302 | 0.518 | na | 1.38 | 0 | na | 1.38 | 13.8 | 0 | na | 13.8 |
| B2 | 1078 | 0.058 | na | 1.60 | 0 | na | 1.60 | 16.0 | 0 | na | 16.0 |
| 12 | 718 | 0.123 | na | 0.89 | 0 | na | 0.89 | 22.2 | 0 | na | 22.2 |
| F2 | 753 | 1.30 | na | 2.24 | 0 | na | 2.24 | 66.0 | 0 | na | 66.0 |
| C 3 | 1445 | 0.083 | 0.001 | 0.46 | 0 | 0 | 0.46 | 67.0 | 0 | 0 | 67.0 |
| GI | 544 | 11.3 | na | 0.19 | 0 | na | 0.19 | 76.0 | 0 | na | 76.0 |
| G2 | 1007 | 3.56 | na | 0 | 2.1 | na | 2.1 | 0 | 374 | na | 374 |
| ΚI | 4295 | 3.97 | na | 0 | 4.6 | na | 4.6 | 0 | 952 | na | 952 |
| LI | 1141 | 1.03 | na | 9.36 | 0 | na | 9.36 | 3232 | 0 | na | 3232 |
| ΟΙ | 1698 | 7.16 | na | 10.8 | 1.2 | na | 12 | 3784 | 214 | na | 3998 |
| H2 | 985 | 0.173 | na | 14.6 | 0 | na | 14.6 | 4751 | 0 | na | 4751 |
| L2 | 4989 | 1.96 | na | 99.8 | 1.6 | na | 101 | 39183 | 285 | na | 39468 |
| L4 | 14916 | 9.97 | na | 166 | 0.1 | na | 166 | 89384 | 17.8 | na | 89402 |
| L3 | 7389 | 2.86 | na | 608 | 0 | na | 608 | 230664 | 0 | na | 230664 |

1.3.3. Influence of soil physico-chemical properties on the accumulation quotient

The influence of soil physico-chemical properties on the accumulation quotient (AQ>I), which characterized the excess of transfer of contaminants to snails, was assessed by i) univariate linear regressions with concentrations of the compounds in the soils and by ii) multivariate linear regressions, by taking into consideration all of the physico-chemical properties that have been summarized in FIGURE 20. First, the results presented in TABLE 10 showed that anomalous transfers were mainly related to the total concentrations of metal(loid)s in the soils, with r^2 adj. for significant models of 0.56, 0.78, 0.63, 0.72 and 0.56 for As, Cd, Cr, Pb and Sb, respectively. The regressions were improved by taking account the physico-chemical characteristics of soils, only for Cd and Zn with r² adj. increased up to 0.88 and 0.34, respectively. The models underline the modulating influence of Al/Fe oxides and clay in relation with their impact on ME mobility in soils (adsorptions/desorptions) (GADDE AND LAITINEN, 1974; VIOLANTE ET AL., 2003; HAMID ET AL., 2019) and transfers to snails (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). When the concentrations of the exposure were quite low, *i.e.*, close to those of the pedogeochemical background, the influence of soil properties (pH, OM content, oxides) has been identified by multiple linear regressions for non-anomalous transfers of MEs (AQ<1) (TABLE 11). However, when the concentration of MEs increases in the soil, the influence of the soil physico-chemical properties is less significant. The anomalous transfers (AQ>1) were consequently driven by the total concentration of MEs in the soils (TABLE 10).

Finally, the interest of the methodology developed in this paper with ex situ-TGV to assess the bioavailability is to consider the influence of physico-chemical properties of the soils and the specificity of each site (e.g., ageing of the contamination) on the exposure of organisms, to estimate real risks. To estimate the exposure of organisms and consequently to take in consideration the specificity of each site, bioavailability can be assessed with the method presented here and the determination of accumulation quotient (AQ). Then using toxicity point (TP) allows estimating the resulting risk coefficient (RC) for each compound (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015).

TABLE 10: INFLUENCE OF TOTAL METAL(LOID) CONCENTRATIONS AND SOIL PARAMETERS ON THE ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ>1) (SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ARE RANKED WITH STARS AS A FUNCTION OF THE P-VALUE OBTAINED: * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001; the data are transformed by $log_{10}(x + 1)$; N: NUMBER OF SOILS ASSESSED IN THIS STUDY WITH AQ>1).

| Elements | Equations | Ν | adj. r² | p-value |
|----------|--|----|---------|---------|
| As | AQ = -0.333 + 0.700[As] _{soil} *** | 23 | 0.564 | < 0.001 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Cd | AQ = 0.034 + 0.678[Cd] _{soil} *** | 24 | 0.782 | < 0.001 |
| | AQ = -0.563* + 0.626[Cd] _{soil} *** - 2.15[Alox]** + | | 0.877 | < 0.001 |
| | 0.567[clay]** | | | |
| Cr | AQ = -1.03* + 0.895[Cr] _{soil} * | 11 | 0.631 | 0.002 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Hg | AQ = 0.458*** + 0.266[Hg] _{soil} | 19 | 0.083 | 0.123 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Pb | AQ = -0.922*** + 0.746[Pb] _{soil} *** | 34 | 0.715 | < 0.001 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Sb | AQ = 0.243* + 0.393[Sb] _{soil} *** | 26 | 0.558 | < 0.001 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Sn | AQ = 0.590*** + 0.393[Sn] _{soil} | 25 | 0.022 | 0.498 |
| | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| Zn | $AQ = 0.034 + 0.151[Zn]_{soil}$ | 21 | 0.133 | 0.058 |
| | AQ = -0.166 + 0.214[Zn] _{soil} ** + 18.6[Alox]* - 72.6[Feox]* | | 0.341 | 0.018 |

TABLE 11: INFLUENCE OF TOTAL METAL(LOID) CONCENTRATIONS AND SOIL PARAMETERS ON ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ<1) (SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ARE RANKED WITH STARS AS A FUNCTION OF P-VALUE OBTAINED: * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001, data are transformed by $log_{10}(x + 1)$, N: number of soils concerned in this study by AQ<1).

| Elements | Equations | Ν | adj. r² | p-value |
|----------|--|----|---------|---------|
| Δ | AQ = 0.181***+ 0.005[As] _{soil} | 44 | 0.023 | 0.847 |
| A3 | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | | | |
| | AQ = 0.209***+ 0.051[Cd] _{soil} | 42 | 0.029 | 0.141 |
| Ca | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 43 | | |
| | AQ = 0.037 + 0.106[Co] _{soil} *** | | 0.211 | < 0.001 |
| Co | AQ = -0.160*** + 0.065[Co] _{soil} ** + 0.038pH*** - | 66 | 0.211 | < 0.001 |
| | 0.031[CaCO ₃]** + 0.232[Feox]*** | | 0.510 | < 0.001 |
| ~ | AQ = 0.044 + 0.037[Cr] _{soil} | F7 | 0.037 | 0.083 |
| Cr | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 20 | | |
| C | AQ = 0.169*** + 0.011[Cu] _{soil} | | <0.001 | 0.318 |
| Cu | AQ = 0.155*** + 0.024[Cu] _{soil} * - 0.158[Feox]*** | 65 | 0.197 | <0.001 |
| н. | AQ = 0.150*** + 0.151[Hg] _{soil} | 40 | 0.033 | 0.115 |
| пg | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 40 | | |
| Ma | AQ = -0.023 + 0.061 [Mn] _{soil} * | () | 0.066 | 0.024 |
| MIN | AQ = 0.120* + 0.097[Mn] _{soil} *** - 0.137[OM]*** | 62 | 0.420 | <0.001 |
| Ma | AQ = 0.210*** + 0.007[Mo] _{soil} | 61 | 0.013 | 0.643 |
| PIU | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 04 | | |

| | AQ = 0.070* + 0.060[Ni] _{soil} ** | (2) | 0.102 | 0.006 |
|-----|---|-----|-------|--------|
| NI | AQ = -0.056 + 0.047[Ni] _{soil} * + 0.021pH*** | 63 | 0.321 | <0.001 |
| Dh | $AQ = -0.141 + 0.006[Pb]_{soil}$ | 22 | 0.032 | 0.924 |
| FU | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 22 | | |
| Sh | AQ = 0.103*** + 0.136[Sb] _{soil} ** | 41 | 0.205 | 0.002 |
| 30 | AQ = 0.152** + 0.131[Sb] _{soii} *** - 0.108[clay]** + 0.014pH* | 71 | 0.360 | <0.001 |
| Se | AQ = 0.221*** - 0.012[Se] _{soil} | 59 | 0.010 | 0.528 |
| 36 | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 57 | | |
| Sn | $AQ = 0.130^{***} + 0.023[Sn]_{soil}$ | 47 | 0.004 | 0.286 |
| 511 | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 74 | | |
| Sr | $AQ = 0.166^{***} + 0.012[Sr]_{soil}$ | 67 | 0.010 | 0.202 |
| 51 | AQ = no influence of soil parameters | 07 | | |
| | $AQ = -0.253^{***} + 0.170[Zn]_{soil}^{***}$ | | 0.825 | <0.001 |
| Zn | AQ = -0.176*** + 0.175[Zn] _{soi} *** - 0.113[clay]*** + | 46 | 0.025 | <0.001 |
| | 0.054[CEC]*- 0.061[Feox]* | | 0.000 | -0.001 |

I.4. Conclusion

Studies based on threshold values and bioaccumulation measurements used to assess the fate and impact of contamination have been performed by in situ caging of invertebrates in terrestrial (Cantareus aspersus: PAUGET AND VAUFLEURY, 2015) and aquatic (Gammarus fossarum: BESSE ET AL., 2013; CILIBERTI ET AL., 2017) environments. Although these studies are relevant in biomonitoring, they are currently subjected to the influence of pedoclimatic conditions and specificity of sites (e.g., plants and humus). Currently, the use of guide values and indexes of risk, such as TGV, SET and GERITOXE (ERITME, ERITPAH and ERITPCB), in ecotoxicology, initially developed in situ for snails, is of increasing interest, as evidenced by the recent application to earthworms (COELHO ET AL., 2018; COELHO, 2019). The interest of the present study is to propose guidance values for an ex situ bioassay (TGVs) using snails to assess the environmental risks, e.g., of excavated contaminated soils. The ex situ TGVs determined in this study provide new and essential data (the GSET and GERITOXE indexes) for assessing the ex situ environmental risks of soil contamination by 15 MEs, 16 PAHs and 7 PCBs and preventing misinterpretation during ERAs according to the bioavailability concept. Considering AQ instead of raw/absolute internal concentrations in organisms account for the specific ability of an organism to concentrate some compounds. Thus, misinterpretation of the transfer of the compounds from soil to biota is limited. This study provides original knowledge on the influence of the physico-chemical properties of the soil on contamination transfer to biota which was found to be variable depending on the level of the bioavailable concentration of metal(loid)s in soils. Indeed, when considering AQ>I, a low incidence of physico-chemical properties of soils has been demonstrated on the excess of transfers to organisms. Our objective was to propose the first TGVs for organic pollutants in a terrestrial organism that is currently used mainly as a bioindicator of ME accumulation. These TGVs showed bioavailability of PAHs and PCBs (mainly CHY and PCB153 in the panel of soils in this study) in

contaminated soils. To help the stakeholders of polluted soils in their make management, *ex situ* TGVs for snails are a basis for interpreting contamination levels: when *ex situ* TGVs are exceeded, the contaminant is bioavailable, and therefore, soil contamination should be managed. The presented results also provide a basis for prioritizing the management of contaminated soils for limiting the impact on the environment and by considering the risk of subsequent management measures (e.g., soil excavation and embankment use).

2. Bioessais in situ et ex situ avec Cantareus aspersus pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sols contaminés par les métal(loïde)s et les HAP

Titre en anglais : *In situ* and *ex situ* bioassays with *Cantareus aspersus* for environmental risk assessment of metal(loid) and **PAH** contaminated soils

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Résumé

L'évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE) des sols contaminés nécessite le recours à des bioindicateurs de la qualité des sols pour coupler l'évaluation de l'exposition via des essais de biodisponibilité associés à des connaissances toxicologiques. Alors que de nombreux bioessais existent pour déterminer l'écotoxicité d'échantillons de terre en laboratoire, très peu sont disponibles pour des applications sur sites. Les bioessais basés sur des valeurs guides de référence spécifiques qui existent pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité et des risques de métal(loïde)s et d'hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP) in situ et ex situ pour l'escargot Cantareus aspersus, n'ont jamais été appliqués simultanément sur les mêmes sols. Les objectifs de cette étude sont de comparer les réponses produites par ces deux bioessais et de discerner leurs intérêts respectifs en ERE. Dans le contexte de cette étude effectuée sur cinq stations présentes sur un site contaminé par des activités industrielles passées, six laboratoires ont participé à un essai inter-laboratoire international dans l'objectif de normaliser les bioessais. Les résultats démontrent l'influence de paramètres environnementaux sur la biodisponibilité des métal(loïde)s et des HAP pour les escargots exposés sur le terrain à des sols structurés et végétalisés en comparaison à ceux exposés dans des conditions de laboratoires à des terres excavées. Les coefficients de risque sont généralement plus élevés ex situ qu'in situ avec quelques exceptions (sauf pour le Cd et le Mo) en lien avec la contribution in situ des plantes comme source d'exposition des escargots et l'exposition aux contaminants modifiée en présence d'une couche d'humus et des paramètres climatiques. La comparaison inter-laboratoire montre de fortes convergences entre les laboratoires avec les mêmes niveaux de risques déterminés pour la plupart des stations. La comparaison de l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot et des risques consécutifs estimés in situ ou ex situ démontre la complémentarité entre ces deux approches pour l'ERE des sols contaminés, e.g., pour guider les décisions sur le devenir et les usages futurs des sols et des sites (e.g., excavation, phytoremédiation, remblais, renaturation).

Abstract

Environmental risk assessment of contaminated soils requires bioindicators that allow the assessment of bioavailability and toxicity of chemicals. Although many bioassays can determine the ecotoxicity of soil samples in the laboratory, very few are available for on-site application. Bioassays based on specific threshold values that assess the in situ and ex situ bioavailability and risk of metal(loid)s and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in soils to the land snail Cantareus aspersus have never been simultaneously applied to the same soils. The aims of this study were to compare the results provided by in situ and ex situ bioassays and to determine their respective importance for environmental risk assessment purposes. This study used five plots located at a former industrial site, and six laboratories participated in an international ring test with the objective of bioassay standardization. The results revealed the impact of environmental parameters on the bioavailability of metal(loid)s and PAHs to snails exposed in the field to structured soils and vegetation compared to those exposed under laboratory conditions to soil collected from the same field site (excavated soils). The risk coefficients were generally higher ex situ than in situ with some exceptions (mainly due to Cd and Mo), which might be explained by the in situ contribution of plants and humus layer as sources of exposure of snails to contaminants and by climatic parameters. The ring test showed good agreement among laboratories, which determined the same levels of risk in most of the plots. Comparison of the bioavailability to land snails and the subsequent risk estimated in situ or ex situ highlighted the complementarity between both approaches in the ERA of contaminated soils, namely, to guide decisions on the fate and future use of the soils and sites (e.g., excavation, phytoremediation, embankments, land restoration).

2.1. Introduction

Several factors affect the exposure of organisms to soil contaminants and, thus, the risk to the soil fauna. Among these factors, abiotic factors have been described; in particular, the influence of the physico-chemical properties of soils (BILLERET ET AL., 2000; PAUGET ET AL., 2012; PAUGET ET AL., 2013B; LANNO ET AL., 2019; O'CONNOR ET AL., 2019), the local pedoclimatic context (BISWAS ET AL., 2018; YI ET AL., 2020), the weather (NOORDIJK ET AL., 1992; GUSTIN AND STAMENKOVIC, 2005; HERNANDEZ-SORIANO AND JIMENEZ-LOPEZ, 2012), the presence of humus (WICHARD ET AL., 2009; MARIET ET AL., 2017A), the dust in local air (FRELON AL., 2007; BOISA ET AL., 2014; GUNEY ET AL., 2016; PELFRÊNE AND DOUAY, 2018), the gaseous phase of the soils (AZZOLINA ET AL., 2014), the ageing of the contaminants (VASSEUR ET AL., 2008A; SCHRECK ET AL., 2011) and the different components of the landscape (FRITSCH ET AL., 2011). These factors can act interact with biotic factors, such as microorganism activities (FENG ET AL., 2000; WU ET AL., 2006; PIERART ET AL., 2015; UPADHYAY ET AL., 2018) or soil bioturbation processes due to earthworm activity (LÉVÊQUE ET AL., 2019), and thus can modulate the bioavailability of compounds. In addition, the ingestion of soil particles (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; LOUZON ET AL., 2020A) and the trophic bioavailability mechanisms occurring at the soil-plant-air interface are sources of exposure of soil organisms to contaminants, such as plants for herbivores (SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006; PAUGET ET AL., 2015; PAUGET ET AL., 2016; OZAKI ET AL., 2019) and prey for omnivore predators (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; BAUDROT ET AL., 2018).

Only a few bioassays that consider these environmental drivers are available for the *in situ* environmental risk assessment (ERA) of contaminated sites. Among these methods that are based on bioindicators of soil quality as recommended by international standards (ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19204, 2017) is the caging of the land snail *Cantareus aspersus* (SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2003; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A; PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). The herbivorous, detritivorous and geophageous diet of *C. aspersus* (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; CHEVALIER ET AL., 2001; DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2006) and the multiple routes of exposure to contaminants (digestive, cutaneous and pulmonary) it integrates (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND BISPO, 2000; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2002A; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN 2002; VIARD ET AL., 2004; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006; AL-ALAM ET AL., 2019) constitute major motivations for the use of this bioindicator for the assessment of soil quality. The active biomonitoring using a caging approach involves a bioindicator of accumulation to assess the bioavailability of contaminants and subsequent environmental risk by linking exposure assessment to toxicity data (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). This approach considers the weight of evidence (WoE) (SUTER ET AL., 2020) that should support policy and decision making.

The approach to assess the transfer of contaminants from soil to the snails is performed based on a comparison of the internal concentration measured in sub-adult snails exposed for 28 days with threshold guide values (TGVs) (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). When a TGV is exceeded, an excess in transfer is characterized by an accumulation quotient higher than I (AQ > 1), which can be weighed by the toxicity point (TP) of the compound to calculate the risk coefficient (RC) (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). In the case of multi-contaminated soils, similar to the hazard quotient (and carcinogenic risk) used in quantitative human health risk assessment, the AQ and RC can be added to calculate the global indice of transfers (GSET) and the ecotoxicological risk (GERITOXE) (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). In the context of wasteland management and to guide the fate of contaminated soils under a risk-based land management strategy, this approach was recently extended to assess the risk of soil collected from the same field site (excavated soils) by performing an ex situ assay under controlled laboratory conditions (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B).

The *in situ* approach that can be applied by the caging of snails and the *ex situ* laboratory bioassay setting have never been simultaneously applied on the same soils. The study aims were to present the results in terms of transfer and risk and to compare the results provided by both bioassays and to determine their respective usefulness for ERA purposes. Moreover, the standardization process of a bioassay, which greatly promotes its use in ERA, usually requires an international ring test. For this purpose and to assess the feasibility and reproducibility of the proposed *in situ* bioassay, an international ring test involving six laboratories was organized to examine a wasteland in France.

2.2. Material and methods

2.2.1. Study site

Since 1871, the successive industrial activities of several companies (watchmaking and automobile industry) took place on the study site (wasteland Burgess-Norton, France) located at Vieux-Charmont (47°31'15.2"N, 6°50'22.1"E) (MTES, 2015). The site is currently part of a larger territory project, which has the objective to reclaim the polluted wasteland of the Burgess-Norton site located at Vieux-Charmont (Doubs, France) through the implementation of a living-lab for applied research and teaching that addresses sustainability and integrates a phytomanagement approach. This polluted wasteland is located on the edge of an urban centre, in the immediate vicinity of the Belfort-Montbéliard Greenway.

Five plots (A, B, C, D and E) were defined to cover a gradient of soil contamination (FIGURE 26, TABLE 12). The interpretation of the level of soil contamination was performed with soil guide values (SGV),

which are summarized in TABLE I. The physico-chemical properties of soils were measured with the appropriate corresponding ISO standard protocols (TABLE 12). For the *in situ* approach, four microcosms (α , β , γ and δ) per plot were set up at a close distance (~1 m) from each other. The microcosm δ was used as a supplemental and mandatory microcosm in this study due to the high number of snails needed to perform the inter-laboratory comparison (see details below). For the *ex situ* approach, the soils were sampled in three places near the three microcosms (α , β and γ) after humus removal (topsoil, 0-10 cm) and sieved at 4 mm in order to use only the soil as a source of exposure. The soil physico-chemical characteristics and PAH concentrations were measured from a composite sample formed by the four subsamples of topsoil from microcosms α , β , γ and δ that were dried at 40 °C and crushed to a 250 µm size (TABLE 12). The concentration of metal(loid)s in the soils was expressed as the median concentration of three soil samples analysed per plot and corresponding to the microcosms α , β and γ (TABLE 12). The concentrations of metal(loid)s and PAHs were measured by ICP-MS and GC-MS/MS, as described in LOUZON ET AL. (2020B).



FIGURE 26: MAPS OF THE SOIL TYPE (A), VEGETATION OF THE SITE (B), LOCATIONS OF THE DEFINED PLOTS (A, B, C, D and E) in the map from IGN (C), and *in situ* (d) versus *ex situ* (e) exposure at the wasteland of Burgess-Norton located at Vieux-Charmont (Doubs, France).

2.2.2. Snails

Juvenile brown garden snails (*Cantareus aspersus*) of a F2 laboratory generation were reared as described by GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY (2000) under controlled conditions (20 °C, 80 % relative humidity, 16 h light and 8 h dark photoperiod).

TABLE 12: PHYSICO-CHEMICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FIVE PLOTS OF THE BURGESS-NORTON WASTELAND AND SOIL GUIDANCE VALUES (SGV) OF METAL(LOID)S AND PAHS (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ADEME 2018). CONCENTRATIONS OF CONTAMINANTS IN SUB-ADULT SNAILS (T0) BEFORE THE TESTS (MEAN, N=12), IN THE LETTUCE USED FOR THE *EX SITU* ASSAY, THRESHOLD GUIDE VALUES (*IN SITU* AND *EX SITU*) AND TOXICITY POINTS (TP).

| Parameters | Α | В | с | D | E | SGV | Snail (t0) | lettuce | In situ TGV | Ex situ TGV | ТР |
|--|-------|--------|-------|--------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------|----------------|----------------|-----|
| C _{org} (g.kg ⁻¹) | 48.5 | 83.I | 150 | 86.0 | 246 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| N _{org} (g.kg ⁻¹) | 3.96 | 6.22 | 10.7 | 5.66 | 16.4 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CaCO3 (g.kg ⁻¹) | 11.0 | < 1.0 | 13.0 | 37.0 | 4.0 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| pH _{water} | 7.08 | 5.98 | 6.99 | 7.07 | 6.51 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Clay (g.kg ⁻¹) | 227 | 364 | 186 | 209 | 380 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Silt (g.kg ⁻¹) | 252 | 390 | 332 | 305 | 474 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Sand (g.kg ⁻¹) | 521 | 246 | 482 | 486 | 146 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CEC _{cobaltihexamin} (cmol.kg ⁻¹) | 27.4 | 26.3 | 53.8 | 33.0 | 75.9 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Metal(loid)s (mg.kg ⁻¹) | | | _ | _ | _ | _ | | | | | |
| As | 46.8 | 47.9 | 82.4 | 95.8 | 20.7 | 25.0 | 0.138 | 0.072 | 0.307 | 0.364 | 600 |
| Cd | 0.50 | 3.84 | 2.02 | 2.23 | 16.9 | 0.45 | 1.05 | 0.511 | 2.27 | 5.6 | 400 |
| Co | 8.34 | 14.8 | 61.8 | 64.0 | 9.41 | 23.0 | 1.45 | 0.094 | 6.68 | 8.12 | 400 |
| Cr | 32.1 | 122 | 788 | 915 | 191 | 90.0 | 0.727 | 0.482 | 2.01 | 0.653 | 10 |
| Cu | 28.8 | 84.4 | 309 | 312 | 90.7 | 20.0 | 92.7 | 7.55 | 185 | 173 | 10 |
| Hg | 0.25 | 0.82 | 1.68 | 3.38 | 1.29 | 0.10 | 0.235 | 0.026 | 0.2 | 0.089 | 600 |
| Мо | 3.70 | 147 | 360 | 566 | 518 | 1.59 | 2.32 | 0.407 | 4.43 | 2.31 | 53 |
| Ni | 16.8 | 42.7 | 808 | 796 | 59.5 | 60.0 | 3.29 | 0.680 | 5.25 | 6.1 | 178 |
| Pb | 44.6 | 1979 | 133 | 148 | 12228 | 3 62.3 | 1.41 | 0.648 | 12.9 | 9.06 | 400 |
| Sb | 3.80 | 19.0 | 8.60 | 10.0 | 36.8 | 2.01 | 0.03 | 0.015 | 0.08 | 0.36 | 10 |
| Sn | 2.45 | 1826 | 44.2 | 34.0 | 8598 | 4.31 | 0.006 | 0.252 | 0.06 | 0.048 | 53 |
| Sr | 21.2 | 20.3 | 175 | 75.7 | 30.6 | 224 | 22.5 | 17.1 | 126 | 71 | I |
| Zn | 200 | 5303 | 989 | 1014 | 29203 | 100 | 500 | 77.6 | 1490 | 581 | 53 |
| ΣI3 metal(loid)s | 409 | 9611 | 3763 | 4036 | 51004 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| PAHs (mg.kg ⁻¹ for soils and | | | | | | | | - | | | |
| <u>µg.kg⁻¹ for snails and lettuce):</u> | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Naphtalene | 0.034 | 0.064 | 0.194 | 10.215 | 0.220 | 0.11 | 21 | < 10.4 | - | 26.1 | 178 |
| Acenaphtylene | 0.061 | 0.038 | 0.121 | 0.163 | 0.059 | 0.23 | < 16.9 | < 0.589 | - | 16.9 | 10 |
| Acenaphtene | 0.010 | 0.033 | 0.610 | 0.835 | 0.194 | 0.11 | < 3.7 | < 1.10 | - | 13.7 | 178 |
| Fluorene | 0.006 | 0.029 | 0.523 | 0.618 | 0.098 | 0.11 | < 6.45 | < 0.895 | - | 6.45 | 10 |
| Phenanthrene | 0.172 | 0.379 | 11.4 | 13.0 | 0.587 | 0.40 | 6.88 | < 4.97 | - | 4.20 | 10 |
| Anthracene | 0.073 | 0.086 | 2.57 | 2.96 | 0.118 | 0.60 | < 9.63 | < 0.937 | - | 9.63 | 10 |
| Fluoranthene | 0.597 | 71.08 | 27.0 | 36.6 | 1.09 | 1.22 | 6.27 | < 2.53 | - | 1.92 | 178 |
| Pyrene | 0.41 | 50.672 | 218.3 | 25.8 | 0.834 | 1.02 | 8.72 | < 5.23 | - | 1.83 | 10 |
| Benzo[a]anthracene | 0.218 | 0.206 | 7.73 | 9.48 | 0.135 | 0.63 | < 1.44 | 6.51 | - | 1.44 | 400 |
| Chrysene | 0.225 | 0.246 | 7.94 | 9.11 | 0.158 | 0.71 | 3.99 | < 2.57 | - | 1.47 | 178 |
| Benzo[b]fluoranthene | 0.368 | 0.277 | 8.85 | 11.2 | 0.162 | 0.91 | < 2.28 | < 0.667 | - | 2.28 | 600 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES

| Benzo[k]fluoranthene | 0.2380.1786.18 | 7.46 | 0.091 | 0.40 | < 2.01 | < 2.62 | - | 2.01 | 400 |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|------|-------|------|--------|---------|---|------|-----|
| Benzo[a]pyrene | 0.283 0.111 7.61 | 9.33 | 0.148 | 0.75 | < 6.45 | 2.72 | - | 6.45 | 600 |
| Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene | 0.289 0.107 4.43 | 5.30 | 0.115 | 0.58 | < 5.25 | < 0.382 | - | 5.25 | 178 |
| Dibenzo[a,h]anthracene | 0.057 0.006 1.44 | 1.58 | 0.017 | 0.35 | < 4.08 | < 0.067 | - | 4.08 | 600 |
| Benzo[g,h,i]perylene | 0.272 0.091 4.77 | 5.99 | 0.109 | 0.56 | < 5.31 | < 0.379 | - | 5.31 | 10 |
| ΣI6 PAHs | 3.32 3.60 110 | 140 | 4.14 | - | - | - | - | - | - |

SOIL CONCENTRATIONS ARE IN BOLD WHEN THE SGVS WERE EXCEEDED, NA FOR "NOT AVAILABLE".

The snails were fed with uncontaminated commercial food Helinove Biau Gaulois (SARL Le Gastéropote, France) (concentrations in mg.kg⁻¹ dw of As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sb, Sr and Zn are 0.200, 0.049, 0.450, 2.32, 14.0, 0.033, 1.22, 1.35, 0.282, 0.030, 53.8 and 82.4, respectively). The breeding was performed until the sub-adult stage (t0) (PAUGET ET AL., 2011; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A) with snail fresh mass of 5.23 \pm 0.45 g (n= 300) and 5.11 \pm 0.40 g (n = 150) for the *in situ* and *ex situ* approaches, respectively. The concentrations of contaminants in snails (t0) before the test are summarized in TABLE 12.

2.2.3. In situ exposure

Four microcosms (noted α , β , γ and δ , 25 cm x 25 cm stainless steel cylinders developed by SCHEIFLER ET AL. (2003) for *in situ* ERA with land snails) per plot (A, B, C, D and E) were established at a close distance (~ 1 m) from one another (FIGURE 26). Fifteen snails per microcosm were exposed for 28 days from 16 May to 12 June 2019 to the soil, humus and vegetation of each plot under natural climatic conditions (the microcosms had a implemented shelter made of three clay tiles according to PAUGET ET AL. (2013A)). The temperature and brightness during the exposure were recorded with a Hobo sensor (Prosensor, Amanvilliers, France) located in plot A, which indicated a median (min|max) of 14.8 °C (2.7|33.3) and 98.5 lux (3.9|29938).

2.2.4. Ex situ exposure

A layer of 1 cm of the soil sampled from α , β and γ microcosm positions were placed into polystyrene containers (24 cm x 21 cm x 8 cm, Charles River IFFA-CREDO, L'Arbresle, France) (FIGURE 26) and moistened with osmotic water to 50 % of the water holding capacity, as detailed in PAUGET ET AL. (2011). Five sub-adult snails were exposed for 28 days under controlled conditions (20 °C, 80 % relative humidity, 16 h light and 8 h dark photoperiod). The containers were cleaned every two days to remove the faeces and to replace the fresh uncontaminated lettuce (1.5 g.day⁻¹.snail⁻¹) offered in a Petri dish at the bottom of the containers. The metal(loid) and PAH concentrations in the offered lettuce are presented in TABLE 12.
2.2.5. End of exposure

At the end of both the *in situ* and the *ex situ* exposures, the snails were starved in clean containers (without soil) for two days. During this period, the faeces were removed every 12 h. Then, the snails were frozen at -80 $^{\circ}$ C for approximately one month before metal(loid) analysis and two months before PAH analysis.

2.2.6. Measurement of internal concentrations

Frozen snails were thawed and their visceral mass was dissected. For the metal(loid) analysis, the fresh mass of two snails per microcosm (α , β and γ) or per container (corresponding to containers that contained the soil sampled close to the microcosm α , β and γ) were freeze dried in a lyophilizer for two days. For the PAH analysis, to have sufficient biological materials for the in situ exposure experiment for each laboratory, a fresh pool of two viscera per microcosm ($\alpha+\delta$, $\beta+\delta$ and $\gamma+\delta$) was generated, while for the ex situ exposure experiment, a homogeneous pool of two viscera for each container (α , β and γ) was generated using the same model as that for the metal(loid) analysis. Then, chemical analyses of the metal(loid)s and PAHs accumulated in the snail viscera were performed by ICP-MS and GC-MS/MS, respectively, according to the detailed protocols and internal quality methodologies described in LOUZON ET AL. (2020B) and MORIN-CRINI ET AL. (2020). Briefly, for the metal(loid) analysis, lyophilized viscera were digested for 265 min at temperatures ranging from room temperature to 100 °C (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) in 7 ml of 65 % nitric acid with the volume brought to 50 ml with osmotic water. Then, the samples were filtered to 1 μ m and analysed in an ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France). The analysis was validated with a certified reference material (TORT-3, lobster hepatopancreas, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) with recovery rates between 80 % and 120 % for each metal(loid). For the PAHs, an extraction and purification were performed with the QuECHERs (quick, easy, cheap, effective, rugged, and safe) methodology (RESTEK, Lisse, France). More precisely, snail viscera samples were crushed with a ball mill until completely homogenized (FastPrep, MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France), vortexed for 15 min with acetonitrile and 15 min with QuECHERs salts. Then the extracts were centrifuged for 5 min at 3000 rpm at 4 °C, and the supernatant was transferred to d-SPE polypropylene tubes for the clean-up process by vortexing for 1 min and centrifuging for 5 min at 3000 g. A volume of 450 µL of the supernatant was added to a vial containing 25 μ L of acetonitrile and 25 μ L of a mixture of 3 deuterated internal standards (ISTD, benzo[a]pyrene-d12, acenaphthene-d10 and pyrene-d10) at 2 mg.L-1, and GC-MS/MS analysis was performed (7890A GC system, 7000 GC triple quadrupole mass spectrometer, HP5MS column, Agilent, Massy, France).

2.2.7. Inter-laboratory validation

Six laboratories from five European countries (2 from France, FR (*i.e.*, FRA and FRB); Czech Republic, CZ; Switzerland, SW; Spain, SP; and Portugal, PT) participated in the ring test of the in situ approach and demonstration of the ex situ approach. FRA, CZ, PT and SP were equipped to analyse metal(loid)s. FRA and CZ also analysed the PAHs. The laboratories participated at the beginning and the end of the in situ test and analysed (when possible) the visceral mass of snails with their own methodologies. To evaluated whether the variability between laboratories notably related to their sample preparation methodologies, a certified biological reference material for which certified concentrations of metal(loid)s are known (TORT-3, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) was provided to each laboratory (TABLE 13).

The sample preparation for metal(loid) analysis by FRA, CZ, PT and SP was performed as follows: nitric acid and heating graphite block (filtration at 1 μ m), nitric acid and hydrogen peroxide digestion in a microwave, nitric acid with a Teflon bomb under pressure, and nitric acid and hydrogen peroxide digestion in a microwave (filtration at 0.45 μ m), respectively. For PT, most of the values in the TORT-3 were high (e.g., 222 % of the certified value for Co); thus, the data were corrected with the percentage of recovery (TABLE 13). Sn was not studied in the ring test section due to a discrepancy in the method validation between the different laboratories. For the PAH analysis, the CZ laboratory used the same methods as the FRA laboratory (QuECHERs, GC-MS/MS), according to MORIN-CRINI ET AL. (2020).

TABLE 13: CERTIFIED MATERIAL FOR METAL(LOID) ANALYSIS: TORT-3 (LOBSTER HEPATOPANCREAS), CALCULATION OF THE PERCENTAGE OF RECOVERY OF THE LABORATORIES AND CALCULATION OF THE Z-SCORE FOR MEASUREMENTS FROM DIFFERENT LABORATORIES (THE Z-SCORE WAS OBTAINED BY CONSIDERING THE TORT-3-CERTIFIED VALUES AND THE STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE MEAN TORT-3-CONCENTRATIONS MEASURED BY EACH LABORATORY, HIGHEST VALUES ARE IN BOLD).

| | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Мо | Ni | Pb | Sb | Sr | Zn |
|--|---------------|--------|------|------|-----|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-----------|
| TORT-3-Certified values | EO E T | 42.3 | | 1 95 | 497 | 0.292 | 3.44 | E 20 J | 0.225 | - | 24 5 4 | L 1 2 2 1 |
| ± standard deviation (sd) | 37.5 ± | ± | 1.06 | 0.24 | ± | ± | ± | 0.24 | ± | - | 16 | 6 I J O I |
| (mg.kg⁻¹ dw) | 5.0 | 1.8 | | 0.24 | 22 | 0.022 | 0.12 | 0.24 | 0.018 | | 1.0 | 0 |
| Mean TORT-3-CZ (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | 70.00 | 43.30 | 1.11 | 1.30 | 488 | 0.281 | 3.40 | 4.70 | 0.270 | 0.062 | 34.40 | 138 |
| Mean TORT-3-FRA (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | 67.09 | 42.41 | 0.95 | 1.20 | 429 | 0.303 | 3.42 | 4.27 | 0.180 | 0.058 | 3.61 | 125 |
| Mean TORT-3-PT (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | 81.85 | 54.23 | 2.36 | 5.56 | 554 | 0.670 | 5.74 | 10.77 | 6.72 | 0.090 | 43.96 | 192 |
| Mean TORT-3-SP (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | 54.92 | 33.5 I | 1.32 | 1.29 | 378 | 0.420 | - | 4.01 | < DL | 0.07 | 33.24 | 117 |
| % recovery TORT-3-CZ | 118 | 102 | 105 | 67 | 98 | 96 | 99 | 89 | 120 | - | 94 | 101 |
| % recovery TORT-3-FRA | 113 | 100 | 90 | 62 | 86 | 104 | 99 | 81 | 80 | - | 92 | 92 |
| % recovery TORT-3-PT | 138 | 128 | 222 | 285 | | 230 | 167 | 203 | 2985 | - | 120 | 141 |
| % recovery TORT-3-SP | 92 | 79 | 124 | 66 | 76 | 143 | - | 76 | < DL | - | 91 | 86 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES

| Z-TORT-3-CZ 0.95 0.12 0.08 -0.30 -0.12 -0.06 -0.03-0.19 0.01 - -0.12 0.06 Z-TORT-3-FRA 0.69 0.01 -0.17 -0.35 -0.90 0.06 -0.01-0.32 -0.01 - -1.88 -0.33 Z-TORT-3-FRA 2.02 1.41 2.05 1.68 0.75 2.12 1.71 1.69 1.73 - 0.43 1.66 Z-TORT-3-SP -0.41 -1.04 0.41 -0.31 -1.57 0.72 - -0.40 - - -0.19 -0.56 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|---|-------|-------|
| Z-TORT-3-CZ 0.95 0.12 0.08 -0.30 -0.12 -0.06 -0.03 -0.19 0.01 - -0.12 0.06 Z-TORT-3-FRA 0.69 0.01 -0.17 -0.35 -0.90 0.06 -0.01 -0.32 -0.01 - -1.88 -0.33 Z-TORT-3-PT 2.02 1.41 2.05 1.68 0.75 2.12 1.71 1.69 1.73 - 0.43 1.66 | Z-TORT-3-SP | -0.41 | -1.04 | 0.41 | -0.31 | -1.57 | 0.72 | 0.40 | - | - | -0.19 | -0.56 |
| Z-TORT-3-CZ 0.95 0.12 0.08 -0.30 -0.12 -0.06 -0.03 -0.19 0.01 - -0.12 0.06 Z-TORT-3-FRA 0.69 0.01 -0.17 -0.35 -0.90 0.06 -0.01 -0.32 -0.01 - -1.88 -0.33 | Z-TORT-3-PT | 2.02 | 1.41 | 2.05 | 1.68 | 0.75 | 2.12 | 1.71 1.69 | 1.73 | - | 0.43 | 1.66 |
| Z-TORT-3-CZ 0.95 0.12 0.08 -0.30 -0.12 -0.06 -0.03-0.19 0.010.12 0.06 | Z-TORT-3-FRA | 0.69 | 0.01 | -0.17 | -0.35 | -0.90 | 0.06 | -0.01 -0.32 | -0.01 | - | -1.88 | -0.33 |
| | Z-TORT-3-CZ | 0.95 | 0.12 | 0.08 | -0.30 | -0.12 | -0.06 | -0.03-0.19 | 0.01 | - | -0.12 | 0.06 |

DL: DETECTION LIMIT; Z-TORT-3 = ((MEAN TORT-3 FOR THE CONTAMINANT AND THE LABORATORY CONSIDERED - TORT-3-CERTIFIED VALUES)/STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE MEAN TORT-3 FOR EACH LABORATORY); FOR CO, ONLY INDICATIVE VALUES WERE AVAILABLE.

2.2.8. Data analysis and indice calculations with TGV

Data analysis was performed with Microsoft Excel and RStudio software. For each chemical and soil, transfers and consecutive ecotoxicological risks were assessed with an accumulation quotient (AQ) (EQ. 9) and risk coefficient (RC) (EQ. 10), respectively, according to the threshold guide values (TGV) *in situ* reported by PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015), and *ex situ* reported by LOUZON ET AL. (2020B), and the toxicity point (TP) is summarized in TABLE 12. Since 2020, *ex situ* TGV exist for PAHs in snails, but not yet *in situ*. Consequently, the *ex situ* TGV for PAHs were considered in all the cases (TABLE 12).

$$AQ = \left(\frac{\text{median concentration for six snails}}{TGV}\right)$$
(EQ. 9)

For AQ calculation of PAHs, due to pooling of two viscera, the mean concentration was used (3 pools per condition).

According to Pauget et al. (2013a), when the AQ was below 1, it was increased to 1. $RC = (AQ - 1) \times TP$ (EQ. 10)

On the basis of the AQ obtained *in situ* or *ex situ*, integrative indices of the sum of the excess of transfers (SET) for metal(loid)s (SET-ME), PAHs (SET-PAH) and global indice of transfers (GSET) were calculated (EQ. 11). The RC was used to evaluate the risk of transferred metal(loid)s (ERITME), PAHs (ERITPAH) and the global ecotoxicological risk (GERITOXE) (EQ. 12)

$$GSET = SET - ME + SET - PAH = \Sigma(AQME - 1) + \Sigma(AQPAH - 1)$$
(EQ. 11)
$$GERITOXE = ERITME + ERITPAH = \Sigma(RCME) + \Sigma(RCPAH)$$
(EQ. 12)

The ecotoxicological risk according to the value of these indicators for each soils was determined according to risk classes for SET and ERITME presented in LOUZON ET AL. (2021A) on alterations in attaining the adult stage, which was characterized by the emergence of a lipped shell. More precisely, the three risk classes for GSET are in the following order: < 7 (no risk), between 7 and 58 (uncertain risk) and > 58 (proven risk). However, for the RC and GERITOXE, the three classes of risk are as

follows < 2574, between 2574 and 22720 and > 22720 for no risk, uncertain risk and proven risk, respectively.

2.3. Results and discussion

2.3.1. In situ approach: inter-laboratory ring test

The metal(loid) concentrations analysed by the four laboratories in the snails are presented in TABLE 14. Based on the SET indice, metal(loid) transfer from the environment (soil, humus, vegetation and air), was evidenced, except for plot A (FIGURE 27) which was the least contaminated and caused the lowest SET (except for one laboratory, due to the measurement of abnormal internal concentrations of As (4.57 mg.kg-1 dw; TABLE 14). More precisely, the results of the AQ and RC *in situ* for each metal(loid) and participant are summarized in TABLE 15 and were interpreted as a function of the risk level determined by the risk indicator values. For Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Sb, Sr, Pb, and Zn for all the plots, all the participants provided the same conclusions about the risk levels. Overall, for As, Hg and Mo, the same conclusion could be drawn with the exception of some outlier values in uncertain risk classes (A-PT for As and Hg and D-FRA for Mo, respectively).

In the FIGURE 27, for plots B and C, SP determined no risk, while CZ, FRA and PT found an uncertain risk on the basis of the SET values. This result was caused by the low values of the AQ for As, Hg and Mo for these two plots assessed by CZ, but if the RC was considered, they are all below 2574 (no risk class). For plot A, the risk levels (no risk) were the same among CZ, FRA and SP, while PT ranked this plot as an uncertain risk, due to the RC of 8340 assessed for As (TABLE 15). For plot D, CZ, PT and SP found no risk, whereas FRA ranked this plot as an uncertain risk. This result is due to the high SET indice determined by this laboratory, for which the values were mainly driven by the high excess transfer of Mo (AQ = 62.6). However, as Mo has a low toxicity (TP = 53, TABLE 12) and the values of its AQ were close to the thresholds between uncertain risk and proven risk classes, the level of ERITME stayed in the uncertain risk class. Overall, with some exceptions, especially when the values of the AQ and RC were close to the thresholds of the classes, the results of all the metal(loid)s were similar among the participants in terms of the level of transfers and risks (FIGURE 27). Indeed, a good agreement among the laboratories was found with 80 % and 85 % of the values SET and ERITME classified at identical levels of transfer and risk, respectively.

For the PAHs, except for a very low transfer of phenanthrene (AQ = 1.01) found in plot A by CZ, no *in situ* excess of transfers were found between the two laboratories (FRA and CZ) that were able to

quantify the PAHs in the snail viscera. Consequently, the values of GSET and GERITOXE for each plot and participant (TABLE 16) were driven mainly by metal(loid) excess of transfer (SET) and consecutive risk (ERITME).

TABLE 14: MEDIAN CONCENTRATIONS IN THE VISCERAL MASS OF METAL(LOID)S (MG.KG⁻¹ DW) FOR THE FOR THE *IN SITU* EXPOSURE FROM THE DIFFERENT LABORATORIES. MEAN AND STANDARD-DEVIATION (SD) FOR ALL LABORATORIES AND PLOTS ARE ALSO PROVIDED.

| Plot | Lab. | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Mo | Ni | Pb | Sb | Sr | Zn |
|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-----|------|--------|------|--------|------|-------|------|
| Α | CZ | 0.24 | 1.49 | 1.10 | 1.99 | 119 | 0.32 | 9.20 | 5.93 | 1.41 | 0.04 | 31.88 | 605 |
| | FRA | 0.31 | 1.87 | 0.60 | 0.31 | 123 | 0.51 | 13.73 | 2.03 | 1.46 | 0.05 | 20.66 | 357 |
| | РТ | 4.57 | 1.80 | 0.69 | 1.66 | 207 | 1.19 | 10.56 | 4.73 | 0.99 | 0.11 | 26.07 | 559 |
| | SP | 0.32 | 1.27 | 0.76 | 0.37 | 105 | <0.3 | 3.45 | 1.67 | 1.10 | 0.05 | 54.70 | 393 |
| | Mean | 1.36 | 1.61 | 0.79 | 1.08 | 139 | 0.67 | 9.24 | 3.59 | 1.24 | 0.06 | 33.33 | 479 |
| | SD | 2.14 | 0.28 | 0.22 | 0.87 | 46 | 0.46 | 4.30 | 2.07 | 0.23 | 0.03 | 14.97 | 122 |
| В | CZ | 0.36 | 2.53 | 0.87 | 15.31 | 114 | 0.61 | 62.58 | 4.55 | 12.67 | 0.08 | 22.89 | 996 |
| | FRA | 0.36 | 3.46 | 0.62 | 0.44 | 118 | 0.27 | 70.90 | 2.68 | 10.86 | 0.11 | 19.54 | 902 |
| | РТ | 0.81 | 3.39 | 0.62 | 1.80 | 200 | 0.39 | 60.74 | 4.85 | 3.29 | 0.16 | 25.66 | 1031 |
| | SP | 0.28 | 1.68 | 0.53 | 0.56 | 83 | <0.3 | 18.35 | 1.92 | 7.62 | 0.09 | 35.96 | 859 |
| | Mean | 0.45 | 2.77 | 0.66 | 4.53 | 129 | 0.42 | 53.14 | 3.50 | 8.61 | 0.11 | 26.01 | 947 |
| | SD | 0.24 | 0.84 | 0.15 | 7.21 | 50 | 0.17 | 23.61 | 1.43 | 4.12 | 0.04 | 7.09 | 80 |
| С | CZ | 0.18 | 2.08 | 0.90 | 1.03 | 141 | 0.39 | 34.51 | 4.95 | 2.33 | 0.04 | 46.98 | 522 |
| | FRA | 0.04 | 2.52 | 0.81 | 0.84 | 104 | 0.51 | 47.74 | 3.24 | 2.59 | 0.04 | 33.17 | 638 |
| | РТ | 0.31 | 2.87 | 0.82 | 1.97 | 226 | 0.34 | 44.83 | 5.97 | 1.38 | 0.06 | 47.60 | 654 |
| | SP | 0.14 | 1.50 | 0.80 | 0.65 | 95 | <0.3 | 24.22 | 3.31 | 1.87 | 0.04 | 60.12 | 477 |
| | Mean | 0.17 | 2.24 | 0.83 | 1.12 | 142 | 0.41 | 37.83 | 4.37 | 2.04 | 0.05 | 46.97 | 573 |
| | SD | 0.11 | 0.59 | 0.05 | 0.59 | 60 | 0.09 | 10.70 | 1.33 | 0.53 | 0.01 | 11.01 | 87 |
| D | CZ | 0.19 | 2.11 | 1.26 | 1.50 | 117 | 0.28 | 199.55 | 4.88 | 2.91 | 0.05 | 27.14 | 392 |
| | FRA | 0.11 | 3.02 | 1.28 | 1.18 | 106 | 0.56 | 277.45 | 6.00 | 2.97 | 0.06 | 28.80 | 519 |
| | РТ | 0.26 | 1.98 | 1.58 | 2.50 | 208 | 0.23 | 210.56 | 7.10 | 1.39 | 0.09 | 39.17 | 386 |
| | SP | 0.20 | I.48 | 0.87 | 0.76 | 76 | <0.3 | 136.95 | 3.44 | 1.99 | 0.06 | 39.11 | 321 |
| | Mean | 0.19 | 2.15 | 1.25 | 1.49 | 127 | 0.36 | 206.13 | 5.36 | 2.32 | 0.07 | 33.56 | 405 |
| | SD | 0.06 | 0.64 | 0.29 | 0.74 | 57 | 0.18 | 57.55 | 1.57 | 0.76 | 0.02 | 6.48 | 83 |
| E | CZ | 0.15 | 3.16 | 0.58 | 0.78 | 116 | 0.32 | 28.17 | 2.59 | 123.87 | 0.09 | 18.01 | 2430 |
| | FRA | 0.04 | 3.91 | 0.74 | 0.52 | 98 | 0.25 | 37.16 | 2.44 | 117.37 | 0.10 | 16.14 | 2598 |
| | РТ | 0.24 | 4.08 | 0.84 | 1.67 | 204 | 0.21 | 33.04 | 4.36 | 114.95 | 0.13 | 27.53 | 2115 |
| | SP | 0.17 | 2.44 | 0.62 | 0.52 | 93 | <0.3 | 20.48 | 1.75 | 110.72 | 0.10 | 51.66 | 1679 |
| | Mean | 0.15 | 3.40 | 0.70 | 0.87 | 128 | 0.26 | 29.71 | 2.79 | 116.73 | 0.11 | 28.34 | 2206 |
| | SD | 0.08 | 0.75 | 0.12 | 0.55 | 52 | 0.06 | 7.17 | 1.11 | 5.50 | 0.02 | 16.33 | 404 |

For laboratory PT, the data were revised with the % of recovery that was obtained by substraction of the values in the blank to the value in μ G.L⁻¹ in the certified material (TORT-3), except for Hg because for this element negative values were obtained (thus the % recovery used was 230 %, *i.e.*, uncorrected by the blank) and for Pb at the highest concentration (plot E).

During the ring test, all the participants easily handled the snails at the different steps. The separation of the visceral mass after thawing of frozen snails was performed with no particular difficulty by the four laboratories. Despite the temperature variation (2.7 °C to 33.3 °C) observed in the field, the survival was acceptable and homogeneous among plots (> 78 %). The results obtained by the participants who performed chemical analyses were consistent and provided evidence of the current bioavailability of metal(loid)s and PAHs to snails on site and consequently the environmental risks with the ERITME, ERITPAH and GERITOXE indices.



FIGURE 27: METAL(LOID) INDICES OF THE A- SUM OF EXCESS OF TRANSFER (SET-ME) AND B- EVALUATION OF THE RISK OF TRANSFERRED METAL(LOID) ELEMENTS (ERITME) VALUES *IN SITU* (WITHOUT SN) FOR EACH LABORATORY (WITH THRESHOLD LINES IN ORANGE (UNCERTAIN RISK) AND IN RED (PROVEN RISK) TO INTERPRET THE LEVELS OF RISKS ACCORDING TO LOUZON ET AL. (2021)).

Due to some differences in the preparation of samples for chemical analysis and the equipment used, some discrepancies appeared among laboratories, thereby highlighting the importance of sharing a common certified reference material. These discrepancies allowed interpretation of the differences between laboratories on the basis of the recovery rates and the z-score (TABLE 13). Such variations among chemical analyses are often encountered in inter-laboratory comparisons (ROSS ET AL., 2015). Moreover, it should be noted that after z-score calculations to determine the proficiency testing of the samples, the overall values were between -2 and +2, indicating a satisfactory result. When the case values were above +2 (As, Co and Hg for PT, TABLE 13), which were indicative of questionable values, the cases were very close to the satisfactory limit (EURACHEM, 2011).

Table 15: Accumulation quotient (AQ = first number) and risk coefficient (RC = second number) for each metal(loid), plot (A, B, C, D and E) and laboratory (CZ, FRA, PT and SP) given as AQ|RC (cells are in grey for uncertain risk).

| Plot | Laboratory | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Mo | Ni | Pb | Sb | Sr | Zn |
|------|------------|-----------|----------|-----|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------|-----------|
| Α | CZ | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.58 348 | 2.08 57.2 | 1.13 23.1 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | FRA | 1.02 12.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.55 930 | 3.10 111 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| | РТ | 14.9 8340 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.12 1.20 | 7.45 3870 | 2.38 73.1 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.38 3.80 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| | SP | 1.05 30.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| В | CZ | 1.18 108 | 1.11 44 | 1 0 | 7.62 66.2 | 1 0 | 3.07 1242 | 4. 694 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| | FRA | 1.17 102 | 1.52 208 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.36 216 | 16.0 795 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.32 3.20 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| | РТ | 2.64 984 | 1.49 196 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.08 0.80 | 1.95 570 | 13.7 673 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.00 10.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | SP | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 4.14 166 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.14 1.40 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| С | CZ | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.96 576 | 7.79 360 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | FRA | 1 0 | 1.11 44 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.54 924 | 10.8 518 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | РТ | 1 0 | 1.26 104 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.23 2.30 | 1.70 420 | 10.1 483 | 1.14 24.9 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | SP | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 5.47 237 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| D | CZ | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.38 228 | 45.1 2337 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | FRA | 1 0 | 1.33 132 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.80 480 | 62.6 3265 | 1.14 24.9 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 |
| | РТ | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.24 2.40 | 1.13 1.30 | 1.15 90 | 47.5 2465 | 1.35 62.3 | 1 0 | 1.13 1.30 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| | SP | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 30.9 1585 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Е | CZ | 1 0 | 1.39 156 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.60 360 | 6.36 284 | 1 0 | 9.60 3440 | 1.14 1.40 | 1 0 | 1.63 33.4 |
| | FRA | 1 0 | 1.72 288 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.27 162 | 8.39 392 | 1 0 | 9.10 3240 | 1.27 2.70 | 1 0 | 1.74 39.2 |
| | РТ | 1 0 | 1.80 320 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.11 1.10 | 1.05 30 | 7.46 342 | 1 0 | 8.91 3164 | 1.63 6.30 | I 0 | 1.42 22.3 |
| | SP | 1 0 | 1.08 32 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 4.62 192 | I 0 | 8.58 3032 | 1.20 2.00 | I 0 | 1.13 6.89 |

TABLE I6: FROM SET- (ME OR PAH) AND ERIT- (ME OR PAH) TO GSET AND GERITOXE IN SITU: COMPARISON OF LABORATORIES THAT ANALYSED METAL(LOID)S (WITHOUT SN) AND PAHS (CELLS ARE IN GREY OR IN YELLOW, FOR UNCERTAIN RISK AND PROVEN RISK, RESPECTIVELY).

| Plot | Laboratory | SET-ME | ERIT-ME | SET-PAH | ERIT-PAH | GSET | GERITOXE |
|------|------------|--------|---------|---------|----------|------|----------|
| Α | CZ | 1.79 | 636 | 0.01 | 0.1 | 1.80 | 636 |
| | FRA | 3.67 | 1053 | 0 | 0 | 3.67 | 1053 |
| В | CZ | 22.1 | 2750 | 0 | 0 | 22.1 | 2750 |
| | FRA | 16.4 | 1324 | 0 | 0 | 16.4 | 1324 |
| С | CZ | 7.75 | 936 | 0 | 0 | 7.75 | 936 |
| | FRA | 11.5 | 1486 | 0 | 0 | 11.5 | 1486 |
| D | CZ | 44.5 | 2565 | 0 | 0 | 44.5 | 2565 |
| | FRA | 63.9 | 3902 | 0 | 0 | 63.9 | 3902 |
| E | cz | 15.7 | 4275 | 0 | 0 | 15.7 | 4275 |
| | FRA | 17.5 | 4124 | 0 | 0 | 17.5 | 4124 |

Tissues of distinct snails were used by the four laboratories to analyse metal(loid)s as it was not possible (due to limited tissue mass) to share the tissues for such a purpose; therefore, the differences may also be the result of inter-individual variability originating from individual differences on a genetic and behavioural level (feeding, movement, etc.) on site. The ring test was designed to run the methods from start to the finish (chemical analysis) to allow any potential user to obtain diagnostic results from a contaminated site. Finally, plot E, which was highly contaminated and at risk (TABLES 12 AND 16) was not the plot that had the highest excess of transfers (FIGURE 27) due mainly to the high transfer of Mo with low TP (53, TABLE 12) in D plot (TABLE 15), confirming the relevance of using *in situ* bioassays to couple bioavailability and risk indices for the ERA of polluted sites.

2.3.2. In situ and ex situ approaches to assess bioavailability and risk of metal(loid)s and PAHs to land snails

Mortality was low in the *in situ* and *ex situ* exposures (ISO 24032, 2020). Indeed, the survival (mean per plot) was between 78 % to 90 % and 87 % to 100 % in the *in situ* and *ex situ* exposures, respectively. The mean mass loss was between 15 % to 30 % per microcosm in the *in situ* exposure (ISO 24032, 2020); whereas in the *ex situ* exposure, a mass gain between 14 % and 21 % was observed. The weight loss in the *in situ* exposure and the weight gain in the *ex situ* exposure were within the range of expected levels, indicating that environmental factors did affect snails. These differences in the mass between the *in situ* and *ex situ* exposures may be related to the ecophysiology of snails. More precisely, under laboratory conditions, the growth conditions were optimized, while on site, snail growth was dependent on the climatic conditions and food availability.

The AQ and RC values for each plot determined by FRA, the exposure approach and the contaminant are summarized in TABLE 17. For Co, Cr, Cu, Sb and Sr, the AQ values were low and no RC values higher than 100 were observed, suggesting a low toxicological bioavailability of these metal(loid)s to the snails in both approaches and/or the ability of snails to excrete them. Overall for As, Hg, Ni, Pb, Sn and Zn, the AQ and RC values were higher *ex situ* than *in situ*, while for Cd and Mo, the opposite pattern was observed. Indeed, the risk transfer of Mo was highlighted in situ for plot D (AQ = 62.6) (TABLE 17), due to high internal concentrations that were measured (TABLE 14). Although it has been reported that Mo can be strongly accumulated by earthworms, this was the first time, to the best of our knowledge, that these abilities were observed in land snails (VAN GESTEL ET AL., 2011). Among other factors, these divergences are likely related to the contribution from plants and humus as the sources of exposures to snails *in situ* (WICHARD ET AL., 2009; PAUGET ET AL., 2016). Notably, Mo can be strongly accumulated in plants (MCGRATH ET AL., 2010) with the help from a specific molybdate

transporter (e.g., MOT1 from Arabidospsis thalina) (TOMATSU ET AL., 2007; BAXTER ET AL., 2008). For PAHs, no differences between the two approaches with no or low transfers (e.g., AQ of 1.60 for the fluoranthene for the plot C *ex situ*) were observed, probably due to the influence of the high content of soil organic carbon (SPASOJEVIC ET AL., 2018; MARTZ ET AL., 2019) (TABLE 12). In addition, the high *ex situ* RC values of some contaminants can result from a higher activity of the snails under laboratory conditions (constant humidity and temperature) and a higher exposure to the soil (by oral and contact exposure) due to the absence of the humus layer.

TABLE 17: ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ = FIRST NUMBER) AND RISK COEFFICIENT (RC = SECOND NUMBER) FOR EACH CONTAMINANT, PLOT (A, B, C, D AND E) AND EXPOSURE APPROACH (*IN SITU* OR *EX SITU*) GIVEN AS AQ|RC (METAL(LOID)S AND PAHS) (CELLS ARE IN GREY FOR UNCERTAIN RISK, AND THE VALUES OF THE AQ AND RC ARE THOSE FROM THE FRA LABORATORY).

| Contaminants | A-in situ | A-ex situ | B-in situ | B-ex situ | C-insitu | C-ex situ | D-in situ | D-ex situ | E-in situ | E-ex situ |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| As | 1.02 12.0 | 5.64 2785 | 1.17 102 | 1.23 136 | 1 0 | 2.29 773 | 1 0 | 2.90 1141 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Cd | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.52 208 | 1.02 6.90 | 1.11 44 | 1 0 | 1.33 132 | I 0 | 1.72 288 | 1.75 300 |
| Co | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.03 12.8 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Cr | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 4.18 31.8 | 1 0 | 3.74 27.4 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Cu | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.24 2.36 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Hg | 2.55 930 | 2.28 766 | 1.36 216 | 1.95 573 | 2.54 924 | 3.97 1785 | 2.80 480 | 4.62 2170 | 1.27 162 | 4.41 2044 |
| Мо | 3.10 111 | 1 0 | 16.0 795 | 1.77 41.1 | 10.8 518 | 3.12 112 | 62.6 3265 | 4.23 171 | 8.39 392 | 1.92 48.9 |
| Ni | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 3.36 420 | 1.14 24.9 | 3.45 437 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Pb | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 16.1 6036 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 9.10 3240 | 31.0 12004 |
| Sb | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.32 3.20 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.27 2.70 | 1 0 |
| Sn | I 0 | 1 0 | 5.50 292 | 18.9 947 | 1 0 | 5.77 253 | 1 0 | 4.69 196 | 10.5 557 | 45.0 2331 |
| Sr | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Zn | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 3.22 118 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.74 39.2 | 7.26 332 |
| Naphtalene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Acenaphtylene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Acenaphtene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Fluorene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Phenanthrene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Anthracene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Fluoranthene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.60 107 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Pyrene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.36 3.62 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Benzo[a]anthracene | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.02 9.26 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Chrysene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.01 180 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Benzo[b]fluoranthene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.33 198 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Benzo[k]fluoranthene | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.53 213 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Benzo[a]pyrene | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Dibenzo[a,h]anthracene | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Benzo[g,h,i]perylene | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES



FIGURE 28 : A- SET-ME, B- SET-PAH, C- GSET, D- ERITME, E-ERITPAH, F- GERITOXE INDICE VALUES OBTAINED AFTER *EX SITU* (BLUE) OR *IN SITU* (GREEN) EXPOSURE OF SNAILS (WITH THRESHOLD LINES IN ORANGE (UNCERTAIN RISK) AND IN RED (PROVEN RISK) TO INTERPRET THE LEVELS OF RISK ACCORDING TO LOUZON ET AL. (2021 A)).

For the integrative indices (GSET and GERITOXE), the levels of transfer and risk were higher *ex situ* than *in situ* in most cases (FIGURE 28), except for D plot due to the *in situ* Mo transfer (TABLE 17). The overall lower levels of the integrative indices *in situ* support the relevance of an *in situ* depollution of the contaminated soils. Therefore, a more detailed study of the plants inhabiting the wasteland could be carried out in order to select the most appropriate plants based on their ability to accumulate toxic compounds in the context of phytomanagement (SUMAN ET AL., 2018; CIADAMIDARO ET AL., 2019), while also considering the adverse risk to herbivores in case of leaf ingestion (GRIGNET ET AL., 2020). However, this would require further investigation including the measurement of the metal(loid) concentration in plants.

2.3.3. Implication for environmental risk assessment

The combined use of the *in situ* and *ex situ* approaches to assess the level of transfer and, therefore, the environmental risk, of metal(loid)s and PAHs to the bioindicator of accumulation used in this study demonstrated some differences among the contaminants (especially Mo) and the plots. These differences were related to the contributions from the sources of exposure (soils, plants, humus, air *in situ* versus excavated soil *ex situ*) and their physico-chemical properties that were associated with the influence of the pedoclimatic conditions on site. Indeed, although in 98 % of the cases the risk classes were the same *in situ* and *ex situ* according to the interpretation of the RC threshold for each compound and plot (metal(loid)s and PAHs) (see TABLE 17), the convergences between the approaches decreased to 40 % if GERITOXE levels were compared among each plot and approach (FIGURE 28F).

Considering the differences between the risk assessment in excavated soils in the laboratory, we suggest that the *in situ* approach is preferred to assess the environmental bioavailability and, therefore, the ecotoxic potential of the environment if the question related to land management is whether a site presents an environmental risk. Indeed, the *in situ* approach represents less alteration of the area being studied, thereby giving more integrated information on the bioavailability of contaminants and reflecting a more realistic situation in the ERA. In addition, according to the higher transfer of Cd and Mo observed *in situ* than *ex situ*, the use of laboratory tests on excavated soils can cause discrepancies in terms of the risk assessment regarding the response to this question. However, these approaches are not interchangeable and can be used alone or in combination depending on the management question. The *in situ* approach can be applied to assess the risk on site in order to propose solutions for site management to limit the loss of natural ecosystems and increase national contributions with land restoration according to MARON ET AL. (2020) or simply survey the evolution of the site by performing biomonitoring (MARIET ET AL., 2017A). These field solutions can be, for example, used for *in situ*

bioremediation technologies (CHALOT ET AL., 2012; BOURCERET ET AL., 2018; KHAN ET AL., 2019; CHALOT ET AL., 2020). This risk assessment, which takes the specificity of the site into consideration with the help of the land snails, can be used in the TRIAD approach (ISO 19204, 2017) as bioindicators of accumulation are required in the chemical line of evidence to assess bioavailability (ISO 17402, 2008). This approach allows a decrease in the uncertainty between the chemical and ecotoxicological approaches with the GERITOXE indice, which combines the exposure of contaminants with toxicity data. The ex situ approach could be more relevant to assess the transfer of contaminants and, therefore, the risk that excavated soils present, and as a tool to guide the reuse of soils regarding the environmental risk that they pose to soil fauna (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). For example, if a soil (such as the soil from plot B of this study) shows no in situ risk (GERITOXE < 2574) but a high ex situ risk, the management of the pollution through the use of phytoremediation practices on site could be a better solution in terms of environmental risk than the excavation and reuse of this soil on embankments. These approaches, which were validated with the ring test that was performed, reinforce the interest in the GSET and GERITOXE indices to optimize the transfer of research and in their applicability for stakeholders; thereby, contributing to better management of contaminated soils by considering the bioavailability of the contaminants in addition to the total contamination of the soils. Currently, if the SET and ERITME approaches already started to be used with other invertebrates in addition to C. aspersus (COELHO ET AL., 2018; MLEIKI ET AL., 2020), the methodologies used to calculate the GSET and GERITOXE indices could be extended in the future to other contaminants that are frequently found in soils, such as lantanides or polybrominated compounds, which shall be associated with the development of the new TGV, because these values are currently only validated for metal(loid)s, PAHs and PCBs (PAUGET ET AL., 2013B; PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B).

2.4. Conclusions

The comparison of the bioavailability to land snails and the subsequent ecotoxicological risk of the metal(loid)s and the PAHs estimated *in situ* or *ex situ* highlighted the complementarity between the field and laboratory approaches to assess the environmental risk of contaminated soils. Based on the new knowledge and patterns provided in this study on inorganic and organic contaminants, both methods can contribute to improving the implementation of informed decisions by stakeholders on the fate and future use of contaminated soils and sites (e.g., excavation, phytoremediation, embankments, incorporation into road surfacing, land restoration).

All the participants in the ring test easily managed the different steps of the in *situ* bioassay and, overall, their conclusions were consistent and allowed the determination of the current bioavailability of the contaminants to the snails on site. Although some differences among laboratories were observed, all

the participants showed that plot D, which was not the most contaminated plot, had the highest transfer of metal(loid)s (mainly Mo) to the snails, whereas the contaminants in the most polluted plot (plot E) were less bioavailable to the snails. This is also an important information for characterizing the exposure of consumers of land snails. If the toxicity of transferred contaminants were considered in order to assess the risk, for three of the four laboratories plot E would be characterized as having the highest risk. On the basis of this work, the method is now submitted as an ISO standard (ISO 24032). This standardization process should promote the use of the presented bioassays in regulatory methodologies by stakeholders for the management of contaminated soils and its routine implementation in accredited ecotoxicological laboratories.

PARTIE III – DE LA BIODISPONIBILITE ENVIRONNEMENTALE A LA BIODISPONIBILITE TOXICOLOGIQUE

I.De la biodisponibilité à l'évaluation du risque des sols pollués avec l'escargot : liens entre les excès de transferts et l'inhibition de la maturité sexuelle

Titre en anglais : From bioavailability to risk assessment of polluted soil using snails: link between excess transfer and inhibition of sexual maturation

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Résumé

Une évaluation précise des risques environnementaux des sols contaminés par les métal(loïde)s nécessite la quantification de l'exposition et la connaissance de la toxicité des contaminants transférés au biote. Dans ce but, deux indices ont été développés avec le bioindicateur Cantareus aspersus pour évaluer l'exposition (SET : somme des excès de transferts) et le risque (ERITME : évaluation des risques des éléments métalliques transférés) de sols multi-contaminés. Si les indices SET et ERITME permettent de caractériser l'exposition et le risque sur la base d'indices de toxicité ("toxicity points") aspécifiques, les liens entre ces indices et des effets réels sur quelques marqueurs toxicologiques, comme la croissance ou la maturité sexuelle restent à démontrer. Dans ce but, les escargots sub-adultes ont été exposés pendant 28 jours à 38 sols contaminés par des métal(loïde)s. Les relations entre les indices SET et/ou ERITME et l'altération de la santé de C. aspersus ont été analysées par des régressions linéaires, des arbres de régressions univariés et des modèles cinétiques. Les relations ont été déterminées entre les valeurs des indices SET et ERITME, la bioaccumulation comme un indicateur de la biodisponibilité des métal(loïde)s et l'altération de marqueurs physiologiques, tels que le développement de la coquille utilisé comme un substitut non-létal d'évaluation pour la maturation sexuelle. Les résultats permettent la détermination de trois niveaux de risque en fonction des niveaux d'acquisition de la maturité sexuelle : pas de risque, risques incertains ou risques prouvés, selon que les valeurs d'ERITME soient inférieures, comprises ou au-delà de l'intervalle [2 574 - 22 720], respectivement. Cette étude fournit les premières valeurs repères avec les indices SET et ERITME pour interpréter les risques de sols contaminés pour l'escargot et pour relier la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologiques de métal(loïde)s en mélanges.

Abstract

An accurate assessment of the environmental risk of soils contaminated by metal(loid)s (MEs) requires quantifying exposure and knowing the toxicity of contaminants transferred to biota. For this purpose, two indices have been developed with the bioindicator Cantareus aspersus to assess exposure (SET: sum of the excess of transfer) and risk (ERITME: evaluation of the risk of the transferred metal elements) of multi-contaminated soils. If the SET and ERITME indices allow characterization of exposure and risk based on unspecific toxicity points, then the link between these indices and real effects on some toxicological endpoints, such as growth or sexual maturation, remains to be demonstrated. For this purpose, sub-adult snails were exposed for 28 days to 38 ME-contaminated soils. Relationships between the SET and/or ERITME indices and health alterations in C. aspersus were determined using linear regressions, univariate regression trees and kinetic models. Relationships were determined between the values of the SET and ERITME indices, bioaccumulation as an indicator of ME bioavailability and the alteration in physiological endpoints, such as the shell development used as a non-invasive indicator of sexual maturation. The results enabled the determination of three levels of risk according to the differences in reaching sexual maturity: no risk, uncertain and proven risk depended on whether the value of ERITME was below, in or beyond the interval [2574 - 22720], respectively. This study provides the first benchmarks with the SET and ERITME indices to interpret the risk of contaminated soils to snails and to relate the environmental and toxicological bioavailability of ME mixtures.

I.I. Introduction

Of the 2.5 million estimated polluted sites in Europe, 34.8 % are contaminated by metal(loid)s (MEs) (EEA, 2019). These contaminants can affect the individual health status of organisms (GOMOT, 1997; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2000; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016), notably in their reproductive capacity (GOMOT AND KERHOAS, 2000). This consecutively leads to the alteration of population dynamics and their collapse (LASKOWSKI AND HOPKINS, 1996; EEVA AND LEHIKOINEN, 2000; LARISON ET AL., 2000; WHITNEY AND CRISTOL, 2018), which in turn, has consequences at the community level (MIGLIONIRI ET AL., 2004; GANS ET AL., 2005). Knowing the causal relationship between contamination exposure and effects is necessary to develop relevant management plans (HALL ET AL., 2017; ISO 19204, 2017; REGOLI ET AL., 2019; SUTER ET AL., 2020). A relevant assessment of this cause-effect connection relies on a combination of chemical and biological approaches allowing to consider both the environmental availability, environmental bioavailability and toxicological bioavailability of chemical substances (LANNO ET AL., 2004; ISO 17402, 2008).

To perform an environmental risk assessment (ERA) considering the bioavailability of contaminants, some bioindicators of the soil quality can be used (DE VAUFLEURY, 2006). Among these indicators is the land snail species Cantareus aspersus (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO 15952, 2018; BAROUDI ET AL., 2020), which appears in the list of effects and accumulation bioindicators as additional tools for site-specific ecological risk assessment in the TRIAD approach (ISO 19204, 2017). This ubiquitous organism living at the soil-plant-air interface (DE VAUFLEURY 2015) has an important ecological assignment as primary consumer(IGGLESIAS AND CASTILLEJO, 1999). Land snails integrate multiple sources and pathways of contamination (digestive, cutaneous and respiratory) (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2000; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2002A; REGOLI ET AL., 2006; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A), which contribute to the relevance of this bioindicator for the ERA of contaminated sites and soils (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; AL-ALAM ET AL., 2019). Moreover, land snail species are involved in ME transfer in food webs (LASKOWSKI AND HOPKIN, 1996; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2002; ALLEN, 2004), notably Cd transfers that have been characterized in snail predators, such as carabid larvae and rat (SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B; HISPARD ET AL., 2008A). The use of land snails as bioindicators of soil quality has received growing interest for the last decade, notably with the development of indices that stakeholders can use to assess the bioavailability of MEs in contaminated soils (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO CD 24032, 2020; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B) and to link human health and ecotoxicological risk assessments (LOUZON ET AL., 2020A). Conducted in situ or ex situ, these approaches are based on the determination of an accumulation quotient (AQ) which is a ratio of the threshold guide value (TGV) and the internal concentration of MEs of snails exposed to the studied soil or site (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; LOUZON ET AL. 2020B). When TGVs are exceeded, an

excess of transfer is characterized for each chemical. Based on the AQ, the environmental risk (risk coefficient, RC) is calculated by considering an unspecific toxicity value (*i.e.*, toxicity point of ATSDR) (ATSDR, 2015). Then, the AQ and RC can be used to calculate the sum of excess transfer (SET) and evaluate the risk of the transferred MEs, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and/or polychlorinated biphenyl (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). These indices enable the risk of multi-contaminated soils to be determined, and if needed, site management priorities to be ranked (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). The SET and ERITME indices have been used to identify the environmental risk of contaminated soils and should used as an early warning system for local animal and human populations (MARIET ET AL., 2017A). If these indices allow the characterization of risk based on no species-specific toxicity of MEs (using toxicity point), then the demonstration of the link between ERITME and real effects on physiology still needs to be conducted, especially for life history-related endpoints, such as somatic growth and time of sexual maturation..

The aim of this study is to determine the relationships between environmental bioavailability (based on the SET indice) and toxicological bioavailability (based on the ERITME indice) by monitoring the bioaccumulation of MEs, growth and timing of sexual maturation in snails exposed to soils contaminated by multiple MEs. The objective is to determine, in the same way as for human risk assessment (HHRA) (MEEM, 2017), various classes of risk as a function of the values of the SET/ERITME indices and therefore to propose the first benchmarks to interpret the risk of contaminated soils to snails.

I.2. Materials and methods

I.2.I. Soils

Thirty-eight contaminated soils corresponding to the A horizon were sampled in France. Then, the soils were dried (< 40 °C) and sieved at 250 µm. The physiochemical properties of the soils were measured according to ISO standard protocols of soil quality, and the ME concentrations in the soils were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France), as described by MARIET ET AL. (2017A). Briefly, 500 mg of dry weight (dw) soils was digested in *aqua regia* (HNO₃:HCl 2:5 v/v, ultratraces, Optima®, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). A certified reference material (loamy clay I, CRM052, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) was employed and gave recovery rates of 80 % to 120 % for all MEs studied. The selected soils represented a large range of physico-chemical properties and ME concentrations (As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, Sn and Zn) to reflect the diversity of anthropogenically contaminated soils (TABLE 18).

TABLE 18: PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF SOILS AND METAL(LOID) CONCENTRATIONS (OM: ORGANIC MATTER, WHC: WATER HOLDING CAPACITY, CEC: CATIONIC EXCHANGE CAPACITY, ALOX: ALUMINIUM OXIDE EXCHANGEABLES AND FEOX: IRON OXIDE EXCHANGEABLES).

| Parameters | Min | Median | Mean | Max |
|-------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| Clay (%) | 6.8 | 16.6 | 17.8 | 41.6 |
| Silt (%) | 7.5 | 41 | 39 | 73.4 |
| Sand (%) | 6.6 | 41.9 | 43.2 | 83.7 |
| pH _{water} | 4.3 | 7.6 | 7.12 | 8.3 |
| OM (g.kg ⁻¹) | 15.4 | 60.4 | 89.8 | 360 |
| CaCO₃ (g.kg ⁻¹) | 0.6 | 28.6 | 42 | 169 |
| WHC (g.kg ⁻¹) | 479 | 699 | 746 | 1218 |
| CEC (cmol.kg ⁻¹) | 4.3 | 12.9 | 15.6 | 38.8 |
| Alox (cmol.kg ⁻¹) | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.07 | 0.425 |
| Feox (cmol.kg ⁻¹) | 0.005 | 0.005 | 0.233 | 5.14 |
| As (mg.kg ⁻¹) | 2.37 | 29.3 | 191 | 3285 |
| Cd (mg.kg [.]) | 0.144 | 2.9 | 16.5 | 196 |
| Hg (mg.kg ⁻¹) | 0.059 | 0.31 | 1.88 | 28 |
| Pb (mg.kg ⁻¹) | 19.7 | 455 | 1818 | 14298 |
| Sb (mg.kg ⁻¹) | 0.339 | 3.86 | 252 | 5680 |
| Sn (mg.kg ⁻¹) | 1.11 | 9.93 | 17.2 | 86.2 |
| Zn (mg.kg [.] ') | 40.3 | 403 | 886 | 9087 |

I.2.2. Snails

Individuals of the snail species Cantareus aspersus (O. F. Müller, 1774) originated a FI laboratory generation stemming from genitors from a snail farm (CFPPA of Châteaufarine, 25000 Besançon, France) and were used at the sub-adult stage (7-9 weeks old).). Conditions of growth before exposure are summarized in DE VAUFLEURY (2015) and ISO 15952 (2018). Briefly, from hatching to 1 g (nursery step), snails were breaded indoor per 50 individuals (from the same clutch) in crystal polystyrene containers. Then, snails were randomly selected in each container (to mix snails from various clutches) and distributed in breeding cages during the growth per group of thirty individuals as presented in DE VAUFLEURY (2015) for approximately three to four weeks until subadulthood (5 g). This methodology permits to assess if a clutch presents a problem during the nursery step, in which case (abnormalities, low growth, mortality) all snails from the clutch were excluded from the experiment. During the growth step from 1 to 5 g, snails from different families were mixed up, such as to avoid confounding factors related to genetic variability. From hatching until the sub-adult stage, snails were fed ad libitum with uncontaminated food, Helixal®. The ME concentrations in Helixal® were 0.72 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.43 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.49 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.78 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.07 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.02 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 51.6 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, Sn and Zn, respectively. At the beginning of the experiment, the average individual fresh mass was 4.96 ± 0.68 g (n = 684 snails), and the internal concentration of MEs in the viscera of

the snails was measured from six sub-adults chosen randomly; the median concentrations were 0.09 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 1.42 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.02 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.35 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.05 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.04 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 420 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, Sn and Zn, respectively.

I.2.3. Exposure

For each soil, six snails of 5-gram weight were randomly chosen and exposed in triplicate in crystal polystyrene containers, (24×21×8 cm, ref E1DBBAC001, IFFACREDO, L'Arbresle 69, France). More precisely, with this experimental design a total of eighteen snails were exposed for each soil per group of six snails (n = 684). One week before exposure, containers were filled with 300 g of dry soil, sieved at 2 mm and then humidified at 50 % of the water holding capacity. Snails were exposed for 28 days under controlled conditions: a temperature of 20 °C, photoperiod of 18 h L/6 h D and relative humidity of 80 % (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY, 2000; DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2006). The cleaning of the boxes (faeces removal) and the feeding of snails with uncontaminated lettuce (1.5 g/days/snail) were performed every two days. The concentrations of MEs in lettuce were 0.09 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.48 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.02 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.24 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.25 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.77 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 40.1 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, Sn and Zn, respectively. At the end of the exposure, snails were placed in empty containers for two days (with faeces removal every 12 h) for starvation. Then, snails were weighed and frozen (-80 °C).

1.2.4. Measurements of biological endpoints

Mortality was monitored every two days. The selected biological endpoints were measured after exposure (day 28) for all living snails: shell volume (cm³), snail fresh mass (g) and shell-lipped snails (or SLS) (%). Soft body, shell mass and shell dimensions were measured by weighing and by using callipers, respectively. The shell volume (V) was calculated according to the formula (EQ. 13) proposed by ATANASOFF ET AL. (2014).

$$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi \left(\left(\frac{GW}{2}\right)^2 \times GL + \left(\frac{SW}{2}\right)^2 \times SL \right)$$
(EQ. 13)

where:

GW: the greatest width that is the distance between the two sides of the shell, GL: the greatest length that is the distance between the dorsal area and the caudal suture, SL: the distance from the caudal bead to the caudal suture (at the level of peristome), SW: the distance between the lateral areas of the peristome (perpendicular to SL at the level of the peristome).

Adult size was assessed by the end of the diametrical growth of the shell. The monitoring of the curling over of the shell edge can be used as a non-lethal indicator of the sexual maturity of snails (LUCARZ AND GOMOT, 1985; MADEC ET AL., 2003) and was carried out every two days. The number of shell-lipped snails (SLS) was monitored at each cleaning of the boxes (*i.e.*, every two days) during exposure and was expressed for each soil as the percentage of shell-lipped snails at x days per soil.

I.2.5. Chemical analysis

After thawing, soft tissues were dissected and the visceral masses were lyophilized to measure the ME bioaccumulation as described in GIMBERT ET AL. (2008B). ME concentration was measured in the visceral masses of two individuals per replicate (six per soil). Briefly, dried visceral masses (on average 0.36 \pm 0.09 g dw) were digested in 7 mL of nitric acid (HNO₃ at 65 %, Optima ultra trace purity, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). Acidic digestion was performed from 47 °C to 98 °C for 265 minutes (20 °C to 47 °C 15 min, 47 °C 30 min, 47 °C-70 °C 20 min, 70 °C 30 min, 70 °C-98 °C 50 min, and 98 °C 120 min) in DigiPREP MS (SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France). Then, samples were diluted with Milli-Q water (final volume of 50 mL), filtered at 1 µm (Hydrophilic Teflon©, DigiFILTER 1.0 µm, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) and diluted 10x for analysis by ICP-MS. Measurements were validated using the biological reference material TORT-2 (lobster hepatopancreas, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) with recovery rates between 80 % and 120 %. The mean (\pm standard deviation) limit of quantification (LOQ) for these analysis were 0.372 \pm 0.219 µg.L-1, 0.001 \pm 0.0004 µg.L-1, 0.013 \pm 0.002 µg.L-1, 0.004 \pm 0.0004 µg.L-1, 0.006 \pm 0.004 µg.L-1, 0.016 \pm 0.010 µg.L-1 and 1.207 \pm 1.345 µg.L-1 for As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, Sn and Zn, respectively.

1.2.6. Indice calculation: SET and ERITME

The accumulation quotient (AQ) and risk coefficient (RC) for each ME were used in calculating the SET and ERITME indices for the 7 MEs in this study according to the formula in PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015) with the *ex situ* TGV determined by LOUZON ET AL. (2020B) and toxicity point (TP) from ATSDR (2015) (EQ. 14 and EQ. 15). TP was established based on toxicity hazard score for each substance that combines multiple parameters, such as physical, chemical and toxicological (aquatic and mammalian toxicity) parameters, and was used as a surrogate for toxicity values (ATSDR 2015; PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY 2015).

 $SET_{7 metal(loid)s} = \sum AQ - 1 = \sum \frac{Median \ Concentration \ of \ contaminant_{28 \ days}}{TGV \ of \ contaminant_{ex \ situ-28 \ days}} - 1$ (EQ. 14) $ERITME_{7 \ metal(loid)s} = \sum RC = \sum (AQ - 1) \times TP$ (EQ. 15)

I.2.7. Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with R version 3.4.2. (R CORE TEAM, 2019), using the RStudio interface. Normality and variance homogeneity of the analyzed data and residuals were checked using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Bartlett tests, respectively. Biological variables (SLS, shell volume, snail fresh mass) were analyzed for correlations (Spearman correlation matrix) and regressed on SET and ERITME indices values, with log10 (x+1) transformed data (ggplot 2 package).

A ranking of SLS at day 28 based on the SET and ERITME indices was performed by discretization using univariate regression trees (URT). The URT were used to identify the optimal splitting point that determine contiguous intervals. The package 'rpart' (recursive PARTitioning) developed by THERNEAU ET AL. (2011) allowed the building of URT models. For tree analyses, models were validated by 10 fold cross-validation with 50 permutations. A tree pruning fixed the complexity parameter at 0.2 for both trees (SET and ERITME trees) enabled us to trim an optimal number of 8 splits. Statistical quality of models was determined with the "relative error" (rel error) that is the error in the observations used to estimate the model, the "x error" (CV error) and the "xstd" that reflected the mean and the standard deviation of the errors, respectively. In addition, the quality of the tree models (for SET and ERITME indices) was assessed with the "root mean square error" (RMSE) giving the standard deviation of the residuals (in %) and the coefficient of determination R² given by 1- rel error (caret package). Optimization of data clusters was carried from the tree splits with leave pools under the same node in order to obtain an even distribution in three SET and ERITME classes (no risk, uncertain risk and proven risk).

The kinetics of sexual maturation over the 28 days of exposure were described by a logistic growth model (VERHULSTE, 1838; VOGELS ET AL., 1975) (EQ. 16):

$$B(t) = \frac{A}{1 + e^{(-kg(t-l))}}$$
 (EQ. 1

where:

B(t): percentage of mature individuals (%) at time t (days),

A: upper asymptotic percentage of mature individuals (i.e., the maximal number of mature individuals, in %),

Kg: growth constant in days-1,

I: time at the inflection point in days.

This model was adjusted using the nlme (nonlinear mixed effect) procedure (LINDSTROM AND BATES, 1990) with the SET or ERITME values as a fixed effect factor and individuals of each replicate as a random effect factor (nlme package). The model was adjusted to the three sets of data identified according to the URT analyses. The comparisons of the modeled parameters for each class of SET and ERITME values were done using their 95 % confidence interval.

6)

I.3. Results

I.3.1. Metal(loid) bioavailability and indice calculation

For the 38 soils studied, a wide range of AQs and RCs were calculated for each ME studied (TABLE 19). Overall, the highest transfers (AQ) and associated risks (RC) concerned Pb, As and Cd, and the lowest were calculated for Zn. In accordance with the bioavailability and toxicity of these MEs, SET and ERITME indices reached values up to 608 and 230 663, respectively (TABLE 19).

TABLE 19: AQ AND RC FOR EACH OF THE 7 METAL(LOID)S AND SET AND ERITME INDICES FOR THE 38 SOILS IN THIS STUDY.

| | | | | AQ RC | | | | SET | EDITME |
|--------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------|--------|
| | As | Cd | Hg | Pb | Sb | Sn | Zn | JEI | |
| Min | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | 1.91 543 | 1.81 324 | 1 0 | 9.29 3316 | I.44 4.40 | 1.22 11.7 | 1.10 6 | 20.5 | 6846 |
| Mean | 19.2 10890 | 6.18 2071 | 2.30 782 | 34.7 13488 | 8.91 79.1 | 2.54 81.9 | 1.67 35.6 | 68.5 | 27428 |
| Max | 343 205200 | 59.5 23400 | 15.2 8520 | 360 143600 | 211 2100 | 39.2 2025 | 4.48 184 | 608 | 230663 |

1.3.2. Relationships between biological endpoint disruption at 28 days and the SET or ERITME indices

Low mortality was observed during the exposure period (3.28 %), and no significant mortality occurred in snails exposed to the most contaminated soils (data not shown). Matrix of Spearman correlation was performed on risk indices (SET and ERITME) and biological endpoints measured at the end of exposure (FIGURE 29). It shows, when the levels of exposure and risk indices increase, a significant decrease of the SLS (ρ = -0.36 and -0.33 for SET and ERITME, respectively), of the shell volume (ρ = -0.18 and -0.19 for SET and ERITME, respectively) and of snail mass (ρ = -0.11 and -0.15 for SET and ERITME, respectively). In addition, these correlations reveal a general trend for which shell volume, SLS and snail mass increase together with significant ρ comprised between 0.07 and 0.32 (FIGURE 29). Based on these correlations, linear regressions of biological endpoints on exposure risk indices measured at the end of the exposure were performed. The slopes of the regression between the SLS and SET or ERITME indices suggest a decrease in the SLS when the transfer of MEs increases, as shown by the obtained r² adj. values of 0.085 (p-value = 0.040) and 0.102 (p-value = 0.028), respectively (FIGURE 30). No significant linear relationships (p-values > 0.05) were found between the shell volume and the snail fresh mass as a function of the values of the SET and ERITME indices. Consequently, although low correlations were evidenced with the shell volume and the snail mass

(FIGURE 29), SLS appears to be the most sensitive biological endpoint in this study and its kinetic will be studied in the following sections.



Figure 29: Spearman correlation matrix between SET and ERITME values and biological endpoints values at 28 days (SLS, shell volume and snail mass) (all ρ are statistically significant with p-value < 0.001),



Figure 30: Linear relationships between shell-lipped snails (%) measured at 28 days of exposure and values of the A-SET and B-ERITME indices (data are $log_{10}(x+1)$ transformed).

I.3.3. Ranking SET and ERITME indices with the SLS

Univariate regression tree (URT) was first used to determine how the SET and ERITME levels may be related to disrupted sexual maturation attainment and second to rank values of indices (FIGURE 31). The data clustering of the SET and ERITME indices showed their statistical relevance with the calculated error quotients. The rel error was 0.622 and 0.619, and the CV error was 0.945 \pm 0.131 and 0.911 \pm 0.126 for the SET and ERITME indices, respectively. An elevated CV error may be influenced by a large tree size. Nevertheless, the parameters of the models accounted for 38 % of the variance (R² = 0.38), and an RMSE of 15 % for both indices showed an acceptable ability of the URT approach to discriminate risk classes as a function of SLS. Data clusters were optimized from the tree by pooling leaves under the same node to obtain an average number of soils for each class of the SET (from 12 to 14) and ERITME (between 12 and 13) indices (TABLE 20).

TABLE 20: FINAL CLUSTER AND OPTIMIZED CLASSES OBTAINED FROM UNIVARIATE REGRESSION TREES OF THE SET AND ERITME INDICES FOR THE 7 METAL(LOID)S AS A FUNCTION OF SLS (N: NUMBER OF CONCERNED SOILS PER CLASS).

| SET tree classes | n | Optimized classes | n | ERITME tree classes | n | Optimized classes | n |
|------------------|---|--------------------------|----|---------------------|----|--------------------------|----|
| [495; 608] | Ι | FEQ 1. 2001 | 12 | [193 704; 230 663] | Ι | [22 720, 220 442] | 12 |
| [58.1; 495] | 9 | [56.1, 606] | 12 | [22 720; 193 704] | 11 | [22 / 20, 250 665] | 12 |
| [23.7; 58.1] | 8 | | | [9 982; 22 720] | 5 | | |
| [18.9; 23.7] | 2 | | | [6 847; 9 982] | 2 | | |
| [10; 18.9] | 2 | [6.78; 58.1] | 14 | [3 507; 6 847] | 3 | [2 574; 22 720] | 13 |
| [9.03; 10] | I | | | [3 223; 3 507] | I. | | |
| [6.78 ;9.03] | 3 | | | [2 574; 3 223] | 2 | | |
| [1.06; 6.78] | 8 | FO. (701 | 12 | [309; 2 574] | 9 | FO: 2 F741 | 12 |
| [0; 1.06] | 4 | [0; 6.78] | 12 | [0; 309] | 4 | [0; 2 574] | 13 |

The first cluster was considered as no risk, the second was considered as uncertain risk and the third was considered as proven risk (FIGURE 31 AND TABLE 20). The no risk, uncertain risk and proven risk classes were in the interval [6.78-58.1] and [2574-22720] for the SET and ERITME indices, respectively (TABLE 20).

I.3.4. SLS kinetics during 28 days of exposure

Kinetic monitoring of the SLS as a function of the SET and ERITME classes obtained with URT was performed through a logistic growth model (FIGURE 32). TABLE 21 presents the estimated parameters of the logistic modelling. For the SET indice, the SLS reached, over the exposure duration, more than 40 % of sexually mature individuals for the lowest range of the SET indice. The curve

representing the highest range of the SET indice ended in less than 31.8 % of mature individuals at 28 days of exposure (corresponding to 28 % SLS inhibition).



FIGURE 31: UNIVARIATE REGRESSION TREES OF THE SLS AT THE END OF EXPOSURE AS A FUNCTION OF THE VALUES OF THE SET AND ERITME INDICES FOR THE 7 METAL(LOID)S STUDIED.



FIGURE 32: KINETICS OF THE SLS DURING 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE RANKED BY THE SET OR THE ERITME CLASSES (DOTS ARE MODELLED VALUES OF THE SLS FOR EACH DURATION OF EXPOSURE).

TABLE 21: PARAMETERS OF THE LOGISTIC MODEL BETWEEN THE KINETICS OF SEXUAL MATURITY ATTAINMENT AND THE VALUE OF THE CLASSES OF THE SET AND ERITME INDICES FOR THE 7 METAL(LOID)S STUDIED (A: UPPER ASYMPTOTIC PERCENTAGE OF MATURE INDIVIDUALS (%), KG: GROWTH CONSTANT (DAYS⁻¹), I: TIME AT THE INFLECTION POINT (DAYS), A AND B: SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CLASSES AND SE: STANDARD ERROR).

| Index | Environmental risk | A (± SE) | kg (± sd) | l (± sd) | R ² |
|--------|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|
| | Νο | 44.3 ± 8.40 ^a | 0.207 ± 0.081ª | 13.6 ± 2.28 ^a | 0.732 |
| SET | Uncertain | 43.9 ± 9.21 ^{ab} | 0.182 ± 0.066ª | 15.6 ± 3.35ª | 0.775 |
| | Proven | 31.8± 6.39⁵ | 0.222 ± 0.077 ^a | 13.7 ± 2.30^{a} | 0.900 |
| | Νο | 46.4 ± 7.04ª | 0.189 ± 0.068^{a} | 14.9 ± 3.21ª | 0.716 |
| ERITME | Uncertain | 42.9 ± 7.54 ^{ab} | 0.189 ± 0.071ª | 14.7 ± 2.64ª | 0.789 |
| | Proven | 31.8 ± 6.31 ^b | 0.221 ± 0.077^{a} | 13.7 ± 2.33^{a} | 0.900 |

The same trend occured for the ERITME indice, with a more marked difference between the uncertain risk and the no risk classes. A significant difference between the superior asymptote (A) of the kinetics of the SLS and SET and ERITME levels was found (TABLE 21), validating the provided risk classes summarized in TABLE 20. These results suggest that the proposed classes for the SET and ERITME indices are relevant to estimating the impact on snail sexual maturity.

I.4. Discussion

I.4.1. Relationships between the SET and ERITME values and specific ecotoxicological effects on land snails

The SET and ERITME indices are complementary and holistic tools to manage contaminated sites and soils by considering the bioavailability of MEs rather than chemical measures that often lead to unsatisfactory assessments of transfer (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Although the ERITME index is calculated with a non-species-specific toxicity point (i.e., TP), it allows us to link environmental and toxicological bioavailability with specific biological endpoints for the bioindicator of soil fauna, C. aspersus. The exposure concentrations, even for the most contaminated soils, did not lead to acute effects on snails, making mortality a non-adapted endpoint for the aim of our study. Regarding the parameters studied (survival, shell volume, snail fresh mass and SLS), the SLS described by the sexual maturity attainment of the snails (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016; DRUART ET AL., 2017) was the only significant and sensitive ecotoxicological marker linked with the SET and ERITME levels. In fact, when the SET or ERITME values (for the seven MEs studied in mixture) increased the SLS decreased. The growth of land snails and consecutive increases in shell volume are divided into three phases (infantile phase (1 to 19 days), juvenile and sub-adult phase (19 to 91 days) and adult phase (beyond 91 days)) (GOMOT AND ENEE, 1980). Ecotoxicological assays performed on juveniles primarily focus on acute toxicity and growth inhibition assessment (COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2000; ISO 15952, 2018), while the adult stage is commonly used to assess reproduction inhibition (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A). Between these two stages, the sub-adult phase is relevant and sensitive for assessing certain endocrine effects (related to sexual maturation) and alterations in Ca physiology (involved in the constitution of the shell and reserves in the albumen gland). Moreover, monitoring the SLS is simple and measurable after one month exposure for the SET and ERITME assays (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). As Ca^{2+} is a fundamental cation involved in the physiology and metabolism of snails (GOMOT DE VAUFLEURY, 2001; BEEBY AND RICHMOND, 2007), its interaction with bioavailable MEs (e.g., Cd, Pb) can be a source of alteration in shell growth (LINS-KROGIS, 1958; BEEBY, 1993; NICA ET AL., 2015). The overall pattern showed a decrease in SLS when the bioavailability of MEs increased, which can be explained by alterations in the development of the shell by damages to energy metabolism (decrease in general metabolism pathway performances and behavioural alterations) that can contribute to a decrease in the scope for growth (disturbance in energetic allocation for growth and reproduction) and/or damage to (epi)-genetic material (decreases in fertility and fecundity) and endocrine disruption (FORBES AND FORBES, 1994; AMIARD AND AMIARD-TRIQUET, 2017; NICA ET AL., 2017). Indeed, a disruption in the neuroendocrine regulation of the body and shell growth may be implied in the observed effect (i.e.,

decreasing of the SLS), especially by the modulation of the activity of the cerebral green cells of the mesocerebrum (GOMOT ET AL., 1992; GOMOT AND GOMOT, 1995) and/or of the periostracal gland located in the epithelium of the mantle (GOMOT DE VAUFLEURY, 2001). The monitoring of the SLS during 28 days provides an interesting information regarding the delay in attaining the reproductive stage of snail populations exposed to contaminated soils. Although it cannot be ruled that snails could mature a little later, this kind of delay has previously be related to a delay in the laying dynamic in *C. aspersus* snails chronically exposed to Cd-contaminated soils (GIMBERT ET AL. 2008A). The combined monitoring of growth (fresh mass or shell volume) and reproduction (sexual maturation, SLS) may be of value in an ecological perspective (STEARNS 2000; ERNANDE ET AL. 2004). Indeed, it was demonstrated that pollutants can alter the trade-off between growth and reproduction in mollusks in relation with phenotypic adaptation in favor of survival and reproductive efficiency (LIU AND MORTON 1998).

I.4.2. SET and ERITME indices as integrative tools to summarize the transfer and specific effects of several metal(loid)s on snails

Assessing an indicator of the alteration in the sexual maturity (number of shell-lipped snails: SLS) based on measurements of shell development alterations is relevant to ERA as this endpoint is involved in the Darwinian fitness of the organisms (fecundity, fertility and therefore dynamics of the populations), and this approach is non-lethal, inexpensive and routinely usable. The SET and ERITME indices can be used to compare and rank polluted soils and sites in the context of their management by stakeholders to define the potential reuses of polluted soils and sites (e.g., remediation, land restoration, and excavation) based on the identified risks to the soil fauna (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). On the basis of the relationships determined in this study in a subchronic duration (28 days of exposure) and considering some simple endpoints (e.g., mass of snails, shell volume and SLS), the proposed statistical approach (tree analysis) allowed the determination of three ranges for the SET and ERITME indices according the risk they represent (no risk, uncertain risk, and proven risk). For the SET, the 3 classes of risk were proven risk, uncertain risk and no risk, when the values of the indice were > 58, between 7 and 58, <7, respectively. For the ERITME, the following classes can be used: > 22 720, between 2 574 and 22 720, < 2 574, for proven risk, uncertain risk and no risk, respectively. Such a classification can be used in future studies to prioritize management strategies for polluted soils according to the environmental risk, notably by providing relevant criteria for using this bioaccumulation assay in the TRIAD methodology (ISO 19204, 2017) and in weight of evidence approach (SUTER ET AL., 2017; REGOLI ET AL., 2019). More specifically for the TRIAD approach,

this classification can help determine the environmental risk when important differences between effect scores occur for the chemical, ecological and ecotoxicological approaches, *i.e.*, in levels 2 and 3 (refined screening and detailed assessment, respectively) (ISO 19204, 2017; PUCHEUX ET AL., 2017). In addition, in the TRIAD method, a chemical approach may be based on the measurement of the total concentration of contaminants in soils, which may not be a good indicator of their potential transfer. Instead, the use of a bioindicator of accumulation (such as the land snail) would be of interest for considering the environmental and toxicological bioavailability of contaminants. This approach would help to refine the link among the chemical, ecotoxicological and ecological lines of evidence and therefore decrease the uncertainty in ecological risk assessments of contaminated sites and soils (PUCHEUX ET AL., 2017). For this purpose, the SET and ERITME indices could be implemented as part of the chemical approach as indicators of (i) the transfers (SET) that reflect the bioavailability of contaminants in soils and (ii) the subsequent risk (ERITME). Moreover, the statistical methodology applied here opens new perspectives to consider other relevant ecotoxicological biomarkers in the future to predict alterations in health status and/or individual fitness with long-term exposure. Based on hazard quotients, the classes of indices presented here follow similar approaches to those used in human health risk assessment of contaminated soils, particularly those in the current methodology for the interpretation of the state of the environment and/or the quantitative evaluation of human health risks (MEEM, 2017). Thus, the SET and ERITME indices can also be used to identify convergence and divergence between methodologies for human health and environmental risk assessment, e.g., for land snails (LOUZON ET AL., 2020A) or earthworms (RAHMAN ET AL., 2017) by modelling the bioavailability to soil fauna organisms and for humans by oral bioaccessibility of metal(loid)s.

I.5. Conclusion

SLS inhibition following ME exposure in soils appears to be an interesting biological endpoint to link environmental and toxicological bioavailability to the land snail *C. aspersus* and the synthetic tools (SET and ERITME indices) available for the management of contaminated sites and soils. The present study reinforces interest in the exposure (SET) and ecotoxicity assessment (ERITME) indices for risk assessments of polluted soils, as we succeeded in defining biologically relevant benchmarks reflecting the impairment of a sensitive physiological endpoint. From an applied perspective, these classes of risk (no risk, uncertain risk, and proven risk) are proposed to prioritize management strategies of soils according to their environmental risks as performed in HHRA methodologies. This approach should facilitate the joint implementation and interpretation of ERA and HHRA.

2. De la biodisponibilité environnementale des métal(loïde)s à leurs effets écogénotoxicologiques pour l'escargot

Titre en anglais : From environmental bioavailability of metal(loid)s to their ecogenotoxicological effects in land snail

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Résumé

De nombreux contaminants dans les sols comme les metal(loïde)s sont à l'origine d'effets écogénotoxicologiques. Parmi les organismes affectés, les escargots terrestres sont des bioindicateurs ubiquitaires utilisés en évaluation des risques environnementaux (ERE) pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité environnementale des contaminants dans les sols sur la base de valeurs internes guides de références et de quotient d'accumulation (AQ). Jusqu'à présent, aucune étude n'a établi de lien entre la biodisponibilité environnementale et la biodisponibilité écogénotoxicologicologique des contaminants pour les escargots au stade sub-adulte, dans le but de mieux comprendre les mécanismes écotoxicologiques spécifiques allant de la bioaccumulation à la génotoxicité, pour mieux les associer dans les ERE. Par conséquent, les objectifs de cette étude sont de rechercher les relations entre les concentrations accumulées d'As, de Cd et de Hg chez des escargots sub-adultes et d'évaluer les effets écotoxicologiques à des niveaux physiologiques (survie et croissance) et molécule (stabilité du génome). Cette étude combine l'amplification aléatoire d'ADN polymorphe (RAPD) couplée avec un système à haut débit d'électrophorèse capillaire (HRS) et le test des micronoyaux (MN) sur des hémocytes pour considérer divers types de dommages cytogénomiques, comme des aberrations chromosomiques, des cassures, des adduits et des mutations. Les résultats montrent une altération de marqueurs physiologiques aux AQ élevés, et particulièrement une diminution de la survie avec l'As. De plus, les effets génotoxiques sont observés avec une augmentation de l'occurrence de MN dans les hémocytes pour les trois métal(loïde)s testés (R² compris entre 0,53 et 0,61 en fonction du métal(loïde)s). Une diminution de la stabilité du génome de façon non concentration dépendante a été mise en évidence avec la RAPD-HRS pour les escargots exposés à l'As et au Cd, mais pas pour le Hg. Les résultats démontrent la complémentarité de la RAPD-HRS et du test des MN pour comprendre différent mécanismes génotoxiques pour les escargots terrestres des trois métal(loïde)s étudiés. Les convergences qui ont été mises en évidences entre la bioaccumulation de métal(loïde)s dans les viscères et les effets génotoxiques dans les hémocytes constituent une voie pour mieux évaluer la biodisponibilité des contaminants dans les sols pour les escargots et les risques environnementaux consécutifs.

Abstract

To date, no study has linked the environmental and ecogenotoxicological bioavailability of contaminants to land snails at the sub-adult stage to better understand specific ecotoxicological mechanisms from bioaccumulation to genotoxicity and to associate them with environmental risk assessment methodologies. Consequently, the aims of our study are to look for relationships between accumulated concentrations of As, Cd and Hg in sub-adult snails and ecotoxicological effects at the individual (survival and growth) and molecular (genomic stability) levels. This study combines random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) coupled with high-resolution capillary electrophoresis system (HRS) and micronucleus (MN) assay on haemocytes to consider various types of cytogenomic damage, such as chromosomal aberrations, breakages, adducts and mutations. The results showed alteration of the individual endpoints at higher AQs, especially with decreased survival for As. In addition, genotoxic effects were observed with an increased occurrence of MN in haemocytes for the three meta(loid)s considered (R² from 0.53 to 0.61 as a function of the meta(loid)s). No concentration-dependent decrease in genome stability was highlighted by RAPD-HRS in snails exposed to As and Cd but not Hg. Our results demonstrate the complementarity of the RAPD-HRS and the MN assay for understanding the different genotoxic mechanisms of the three metal(loid)s studied in land snails. Convergences highlighted here between the bioaccumulation of metal(loid)s in viscera and genotoxic effects in haemocytes constitute a way to better assess the bioavailability of contaminants in soils to the land snail and the subsequent environmental risk.

2.1. Introduction

A strong diversity of chemicals and hazardous materials has been introduced into terrestrial ecosystems, including metal(loid)s in all historical periods, from protohistory to anthropocene (MARIET ET AL., 2016). The effects of these contaminants on organisms of the soil fauna depend on the exposure of organisms to the chemicals, according to the bioavailability concept (LANNO ET AL., 2004; VAN GESTEL ET AL., 2009). Indeed, exposure is linked to the fraction of contaminants in soils that can be absorbed in organisms, distributed in the systemic circulation and cause toxicological effects (EHLERS AND LUTHY, 2003). Bioavailability is a dynamic process involving three steps that condition the occurrence of ecotoxic effects, from the molecular to the organismal scale, and then to the ecosystem (ISO 17402, 2008). More precisely, the bioavailability of chemicals is first modulated by the mobility of compounds (i.e., environmental availability), which is influenced by the source of exposure (e.g., soil, humus, dust, plant), the physico-chemical properties of the soil and the pedo-climatic conditions (PONS AND BARRIUSO, 1999; PAUGET ET AL., 2012; BAGHERIFAM ET AL., 2019). Then, the contaminant can be absorbed (environmental bioavailability), distributed, excreted, accumulated and transferred in the food chain (i.e., trophic bioavailability) as a function of the ecophysiology of organisms (PEIJNENBURG ET AL., 1999; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B; HISPARD ET AL., 2008A; SKRYNETSKA ET AL., 2018). Finally, one part of the environmentally bioavailable fraction can cause ecotoxic effects (i.e., toxicological bioavailability) on the toxicological sites of action (LANNO ET AL., 2004; ANDERSON AND HILLWALKER, 2008; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016).

Most contaminants in soils, such as metal(loid)s, are the origin of ecogenotoxicological effects, which constitute an early warning of chronic effects (KNASMÜLLER ET AL., 1998; VASSEUR AND BONNARD, 2014; KAYUMOV ET AL., 2019). These genotoxic effects can cause health alterations (including cancers and reproductive disorders, and possibly neoplasia of the Mollusca *Mya arenaria*) and the collapse of animal populations (HAGGER ET AL., 2006; PARISEAU ET AL., 2011; DEVAUX ET AL., 2011; BÖTTGER ET AL., 2013; FASSBENDER AND BRAUNBECK, 2013; TARASKA AND BÖTTGER, 2013; DEVAUX ET AL., 2015), but these relationships between molecular alterations and effects on populations are often reported in aquatic toxicology and rarely for bioindicators of soil quality, such as land snails. BAURAND ET AL. (2014) showed that after embryos of *Cantareus aspersus* were exposed to Cd, there was an increase in the genotoxic damage (DNA fragmentation) in relation to fitness alterations (decrease hatching success, decrease proportions of large embryos in clutches and 2x-fold decrease in the heartbeats of embryos) concomitantly with bioaccumulation. This study highlights the existing relationships between genotoxic damage and alterations in health (e.g., cardiovascular function) and the fitness of snails at the embryonic stage.

For ecological risk assessment, the consideration of bioavailability is growing in interest with the use of bioindicators to prioritize the management of contaminated soils according to excess transfers and subsequent ecotoxicological risks (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO 19204, 2017; COELHO ET AL., 2018; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). Currently, most terrestrial ecotoxicological assays are focused on the relationships between acute and/or chronic ecotoxicological effects and the concentration of contaminants in soils (VAN GESTEL, 2012). For this, the ubiquitous land snail C. aspersus allows the assessment of the environmental and toxicological bioavailability of soil pollutants (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ISO 15952, 2018; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). In addition, genotoxicity biomarkers were measured to assess the environmental genotoxicity of chemicals, mostly in the embryos (BAURAND ET AL., 2013; BAURAND ET AL., 2014; BAURAND ET AL., 2015c) and in haemocytes of land snails after *in vitro* (ITZIOU ET AL., 2011; ANGELETTI ET AL., 2013), *in vivo* (SIDIROPOULO ET AL., 2018; RADWAN ET AL., 2019; KALOYIANNI ET AL., 2020; LOUZON ET AL., 2020A) or *in situ* (REGOLI ET AL., 2006; IANISTCKI ET AL., 2009; SEBBIO ET AL., 2014; FILIPPI ET AL., 2018) exposure because they are involved in immune function of Mollusca (PILA ET AL., 2016).

The Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD) coupled with high-resolution capillary electrophoresis system (HRS) was developed in snail embryos to assess the genotoxicity (BAURAND ET AL., 2013). However, this useful technology has never been applied to snails post-hatching and combined with the micronucleus (MN) assay adapted for land snails, which has been shown to have relevance in various studies (FILIPPI ET AL., 2018). Thus, considering the consequences of environmental genotoxicity and the interest of land snails in assessing the bioavailability of chemicals in the terrestrial compartment, the goals of screening for a large range of aneugenic and clastogenic damage with land snails, including breakages, mutations and chromosomal aberrations, by coupling the RAPD-HRS and micronucleus assays appears interesting (ATIENZAR AND JHA, 2004; LUZHNA ET AL., 2013). The aims of this study are to analyse the relationships between accumulated concentrations of As, Cd and Hg in sub-adult snails and ecotoxicological effects at the individual (survival and growth) and molecular (genomic stability and micronuclei induction) levels.

2.2. Materials and methods

2.2.1. Snails

Breeding snails used to produce a F2 laboratory generation originating from a snail farm (CFFPA of Châteaufarine, Besançon, France). *Cantareus aspersus* species verification was carried out by AllGenetics & Biology SL (www.allgenetics.eu, A Coruña, Spain). Juvenile land snails were reared under laboratory controlled conditions (20 °C \pm 1, 80 % \pm 10 of relative humidity (RH), photoperiod of 18h for light and 6h for dark) until the sub-adult stage (7-9 weeks, 4.60 \pm 0.38 g), as described by GOMOT-
DE VAUFLEURY (2000). Snails were fed *ad libitum* during reproduction and growth with uncontaminated commercial food, Helinove® (SARL Le Gastéropote, Saint-Paul-en-Pareds, France) with concentrations of As mg.kg⁻¹ dry weight (dw), Cd mg.kg⁻¹ dw and Hg of 1.32 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.425 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 0.397 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, respectively (analysis by ICP-MS, as described in LOUZON ET AL. (2020)B). At the beginning of exposure (t0), uncontaminated sub-adult snails weighted 4.60 \pm 0.38 g and concentrations of As, Cd and Hg were 0.208 \pm 0.039 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 2.05 \pm 0.252 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 0.02 \pm 0.01 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, respectively (for measurement of metal(loid)s in snails, see section 2.2.4).

2.2.2. Soils

ISO artificial substrate was prepared according to the OCDE (1984) guidelines (mixture of 70 % fine sand, 20 % kaolin clay and 10 % coarse ground sphagnum peat) and the pH was adjusted to 6.7 ± 0.1 with powdered calcium carbonate (99.5 %, Sigma Aldrich, Lyon, France). The cation exchange capacity was 13.5 cmol.kg-1 and the organic matter content (estimated on the basis of the loss of ignition) was 12 %. Seven days before exposure of snails, the ISO artificial substrate was spiked with increasing concentrations of As, Cd or Hg solutions based on sodium arsenate heptahydrate (Na₂HAsO_{4.7}H₂O, 98 %, Prolabo, Briare, France), mercury chloride (HgCl₂, 99.5 %, Sigma Aldrich, Lyon, France) and cadmium chloride (CdCl₂, 99.9 %, Sigma Aldrich, Lyon, France). The volume of the solution used to contaminate the soil contained the necessary quantities of As, Cd or Hg in osmotic water to achieve 50 % of the soil water holding capacity (PAUGET ET AL., 2011). The theoretical concentrations of metal(loid)s in soils were 0, 70, 100, 200, 400, 900, 6000 and 13000 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for As; 0, 3, 70, 100, 650, 900, 1000 and 1500 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for Cd; and 0, 3, 50, 80, 300, 500, 7000 and 18000 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for Hg. Soil samples were collected for analysis at the beginning of the experiment (day 0) to determine exposure concentrations of metal(loid)s in soils. 500 mg dw of the soils were sampled and digested (aqua regia, HNO3:HCI 2:5, v:v ultratraces, Optima®, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). The concentrations of metal(loid)s were measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France). A certified reference material (loamy clay I, CRM052, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) was used and provided recovery rates for As, Cd and Hg of 106 %, 113 % and 95 %, respectively. The experimental concentrations of metal(loid)s in soils were 7.2, 69, 114, 194, 413, 938, 5938 and 13140 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for As; 1.1, 3.2, 65, 117, 654, 936, 974 and 1366 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for Cd; and 0.029, 3.5, 47, 80, 341, 502, 6857 and 17934 mg.kg⁻¹ dw for Hg.

2.2.3. Exposure

The sub-adult snails were exposed to contaminated soils for 28 days. For each of the soil concentrations, five snails were exposed in triplicates (n = 15 individuals per soil conditions) in transparent polystyrene containers of $24 \times 21 \times 8$ cm. One week before exposure, 300 g of soil spiked was introduced in containers. Snails were exposed under controlled conditions to the soils: 20 °C ± 1, 80 % ± 10 of RH, photoperiod of 18 h for light and 6 h for dark. The containers were cleaned every two days to remove faeces and renew the uncontaminated lettuce offered in a Petri dish on the bottom of the polystyrene boxes (1.5 g.day⁻¹.snail⁻¹) as described in PAUGET ET AL. (2011). Concentrations of metal(loid)s in lettuce were 0.019 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 0.132 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 0.026 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, for As, Cd and Hg, respectively. At the end of exposure, the snails were starved in clean containers without soils for two days. During this time, the faeces were removed every 12 h. The haemolymph of two snails per replicate was collected intra-cardiacally with a needle of 18 G. Haemolymph samples were homogenized, used for the MN assay, and the rest were frozen at -80 °C immediately after sampling in sterile DNase, RNase, and endotoxin-free 1.5 mL microtubes (VWR, Créteil, France). Then, the snails were stored at -80 °C.

2.2.4. Survival and growth inhibition

During exposure, survival was monitored every two days. At the end of exposure, after starvation, snails were weighed. The growth inhibition (GI) for each replicate and concentration was calculated according to the mean mass of snails in the control (uncontaminated) containers (EQ. 17).

$$GI = 100 - \left(\frac{\text{mean mass of exposed snails}}{\text{mean mass of snails exposed to the uncontaminated ISO soil}}\right) \times 100$$
(EQ. 17)

2.2.5. Cytogenotoxicity assessment with the micronucleus assay

Optimizations of the MN assay (OCDE, 2014) on haemocytes were performed on the basis of the protocols of DAILIANIS ET AL. (2003) and BOLOGNESI AND FENECH (2012). 12 drops of 10 μ L of fresh haemolymph were placed on SuperFrost slides (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). Then, slides were incubated in a humid box (RH of 80 %) for 30 min. The remaining liquid was gently dried with absorbent paper. After brief drying at room temperature (20°C ± 1), the haemolymph slides were ready to stain in sequential bath of May Grunwald at 5 % (Dominique Dutscher SAS, Brumath, France)

for 3 min, distilled water for 1 min and Giemsa at 5 % (Dominique Dutscher SAS, Brumath, France) for 10 min. Finally, slides were washed delicately with distilled water, dried at room temperature and fixed with Eukitt (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). The number of cells for 1000 cells with micronuclei were counted in optic microscope (Imager M2, Zeiss, Marly le Roi, France).

2.2.6. Genomic stability assessment with the RAPD-HRS protocol

After rapidly thawing of haemolymph samples at 4 °C in the dark, haemocyte DNA was extracted by using a preliminarily optimized method involving salting out precipitation (Gentra Puregene Blood Kit, Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) to isolate DNA with a sufficient amount and quality (LOUZON ET AL., 2020C). The concentration and purity of extracted DNA were checked with a NanoVue Plus spectrophotometer (Dominique Dutscher SAS, Brumath, France). The quality and integrity of 100 ng of DNA extracted per sample were confirmed by electrophoresis on 1 % agarose normal melting point (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) gels stained with Sybr Safe (Invitrogen, ThermoFisher Scientific, Les Ulis, France). For each concentration and each metal(loid), a pool of 50 ng of DNA per snail was used to avoid inter-individual variability. The RAPD assay was prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions for the RTG RAPD Analysis Beads Kit (GE Healthcare© Biosciences, Pittsburgh, USA). The protocol was validated with the following methodological standards: E. coli (BL21 (DE3) and C1a) and the primer 5'-GTTTCGCTCC-3'. The kit provides sterile microtubes (DNAse, RNAse free) with lyophilized beads containing the buffer, dNTPs, BSA and the polymerase AmpliTaqTM. According to the methodological developments of BAURAND ET AL. (2013) on snail embryos, two primers were used: X19 (5'-CCACCGCCAG-3') and OPG17 (5'-ACGACCGACA-3'). RAPD reactions were performed with a blank and in duplicate for each pool and primers. For these, 9 μ L of primers at 5 μ M was added to microtubes with 50 ng of DNA in a final volume of 25 μ L adjusted with sterile DNAse, RNAse, endotoxin-free water (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). PCR amplification was performed in a Mastercycler thermal cycler (Eppendorf, Le Pecq, France) as follows: one initial denaturation step of 5 min at 95 °C followed by 45 cycles for 1 min at 95 °C (denaturation), 1 min at 36 °C (annealing) and 2 min at 72 °C (extension). The RAPD reaction products were stored at -20 °C prior to use. Briefly, RAPD profiles were analysed via HRS using a QIAxcel apparatus (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) as described in BAURAND ET AL. (2013) with the OM800 methodology and a time of injection of 20 s to obtain a better pattern after migration (clear profile with distinct fragments). The size of the amplified fragments was determined automatically by referring to the calibration with QX DNASize Marker (100 bp - 2.5 kbp, Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France). For each condition, the presence (1) or the absence (0) of the reference bands in the amplification patterns was noted. Digital gel images and electropherograms were used to visually confirm the results given by the binary function of the QIAXcel software (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France). The genomic template stability (GTS) was calculated for each primer according to the formula (EQ. 18) in BAURAND ET AL. (2015C).

(EQ. 18)

$$GTS(\%) = \left(1 - \frac{a}{n}\right) \times 100$$

Where:

a is the average number of changes in a DNA profile, n is the number of bands selected in the DNA control profile. Changes were calculated as a percentage of their control (set to 100%).

2.2.7. Bioaccumulation and accumulation quotient

Two snails per soil replicate were thawed and dissected (n = 6 snails dissected per concentration and metal(loid)s). Then, the visceral mass of each snail was freeze dried for two days before digestion between 20 °C and 98 °C for 265 minutes (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) in 7 mL of nitric acid (HNO₃, 65 %, ultratraces Optima®, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) that was diluted with MilliQ water (up to 50 mL). The samples were filtered to 1 μ m (DigiFILTER, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) and diluted between 10 to 20000x for ICP-MS analysis (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France). The validity of the analysis was assessed with two certified reference material, TORT-3 (Lobster Hepatopancres) and DOLT-5 (Dogfish Liver) (LGC Standards, Molsheim, France), which gave recovery rates for As, Cd and Hg of 101 % ± 8, 102 % ± 3 and 106 % ± 5. Based on the median of concentrations of metal(loid)s for snails with the same concentration of exposure in soils, the accumulation quotient (AQ) was calculated according to the formula (EQ. 19) of PAUGET ET AL. (2013A) and threshold guide values (TGV) developed *ex situ. Ex situ* TGVs were 0.364 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, 5.60 mg.kg⁻¹ dw and 0.089 mg.kg⁻¹ dw, for As, Cd and Hg, respectively (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B).

$$AQ = \frac{Median\ Concentration\ _{28\ days}}{TGV}$$
(EQ. 19)

To look for the relationships between AQ and others biological endpoints, AQ can also be calculated with mean internal concentrations for each replicate (EQ. 20) or with individual concentrations (EQ. 21).

$$AQr = \frac{Mean Concentration per replicats _{28 days}}{TGV}$$
(EQ. 20)
$$AQi = \frac{Internal individual Concentration _{28 days}}{TGV}$$
(EQ. 21)

2.2.8. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis were performed with R (version 3.4.2.) (R CORE TEAM, 2019). Normality was assessed with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Dose response models were performed with the Weibull model to calculate AQx, where x is the percentage linked with biological endpoints disturbance (survival, growth). More precisely, for example, an AQ10 for the survival endpoint is the value of AQ for the contaminant considered that cause 10 % of mortality. Point clouds and associated models were drawn with Microsoft Excel software.

2.3. Results

2.3.1. Determination of the environmental bioavailability with the accumulation quotient

The relationships between the measured concentrations of metal(loid)s in soils and the median of the concentration of metal(loid)s in snails after 28 days of exposure to soils were evidenced with adj. r^2 of the Naperian logarithmic models for As, Cd and Hg of 0.93, 0.99 and 0.83, respectively (FIGURE 33).



FIGURE 33: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE MEDIAN CONCENTRATIONS OF METAL(LOID)S IN SNAILS EXPOSED FOR 28 DAYS AND THE CONCENTRATIONS IN CONTAMINATED ISO SUBSTRATE.

For the three metal(loid)s studied, a stationary phase of accumulation is shown at higher concentrations in the ISO soils spiked (FIGURE 33). The calculated AQ for each concentration is presented in TABLE

22, with maximal AQs of 3376, 90 and 20247 for As, Cd and Hg, respectively. Overall, AQ increased with the exposure concentration except at the highest level for the three metal(loid)s due to maximal accumulation abilities of snails.

TABLE 22: MEASURED CONCENTRATIONS OF METAL(LOID)S IN SOILS (MG.KG-I DW) AND ASSOCIATED AQ TO SNAILS IN 28 DAYS.

| [As]soil | AQ As | [Cd]soil | AQ Cd | [Hg] soil | AQ Hg |
|----------|-------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| 7.2 | I | 1.1 | I | 0.029 | |
| 69 | 126 | 3.2 | 4 | 3.5 | 71 |
| 114 | 363 | 65 | 37 | 47 | 1225 |
| 194 | 615 | 117 | 55 | 80 | 3876 |
| 413 | 876 | 654 | 90 | 341 | 8517 |
| 938 | 1151 | 936 | 68 | 502 | 11404 |
| 5938 | 3376 | 974 | 76 | 6857 | 20247 |
| 13140 | 1591 | 1366 | 85 | 17934 | 15348 |

2.3.2. Relationships between survival or growth inhibition and the level of accumulation

A strong effect of As on survival was modelled in relation to the bioaccumulation of As (FIGURE 34A). Indeed, the relationships between the decrease in survival and AQ were 721 ± 370 , 931 ± 352 and 1703 ± 407 , for AQ10, AQ20 and AQ50, respectively (TABLE 23). For Cd and Hg, even if it was not possible to find statistical relationships with AQx for the survival endpoints, survival decreased from AQ around 50 (FIGURE 34B AND FIGURE 34C). Plotting the growth inhibition at 28 days and the internal concentrations of the metal(loid)s studied (FIGURE 34D, FIGURE 34E AND FIGURE 34F) allowed us to determine the AQ50 for As and Hg (767 \pm 8.85 and 1455 \pm 391, respectively) (TABLE 23), while for Cd, the Weibull growth models were non-significant. Overall, when AQ increases, the growth inhibition increases with values of 100 % in most of the high AQs (including Cd).



FIGURE 34: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE SURVIVAL OR THE GROWTH INHIBITION (%) AND THE AQR VALUES OF AS (A), CD (B) AND HG (C). EMPTY CIRCLES WERE REPLICATE VALUES AND FILLED CIRCLES WERE AVERAGE VALUES FOR THE THREE REPLICATES.

TABLE 23: AQX ± SD FOR THE SURVIVAL AND THE GROWTH ("ND" IS USED WHEN THE MODELS WERE NOT STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT AND DO NOT ALLOW DETERMINING AQX).

| Endpoint | As | Cd | Hg |
|----------|--|----|--|
| Survival | AQ10= 721 ± 370 AQ20= 931 ± 352 AQ50= 1703 ± 407 | nd | Nd |
| Growth | AQ10= 750 ± 46.3 AQ20= 757 ± 29.3 AQ50= 767 ± 8.85 | nd | AQ10= 642 ± 435 AQ20= 890 ± 413 AQ50= 1455 ± 391 |

2.3.3. Links between micronuclei or genomic stability and bioaccumulation

Overall, with the increase in AQi, the induction of micronuclei increased in the haemocytes, as indicated by the R² values of the models (from 0.53 to 0.61 in the FIGURE 35) as a function of the metal(loid)s studied. RAPD-HRS was performed for each concentration of exposure, and the results are presented in the FIGURE 36. For the two highest concentrations of As, it was not possible to perform the analysis due to the mortality of snails, which limits this test (see materials and methods section). The first concentration of exposure to Cd was no presented due to an analytical variability in term of the number of distinct amplifications found in technical duplicates. This was only modality for which a difference between technical duplicates was found.

De la biodisponibilité environnementale des métal(loïde)s à leurs effets écogénotoxicologiques pour l'escargot



FIGURE 35: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE INDUCTION OF THE MICRONUCLEI IN HAEMOCYTES AND THE AQI FOR AS, CD AND HG.

The intensity of the induction of MN varies according to the contaminants (Cd > As > Hg) (FIGURE 35) and with the same ranking as the RAPD-HRS (Cd > As > Hg) but with a low level of GTS disturbance for snail exposure to Hg (FIGURE 36). The GTS for Cd decreased of 30 % to 67 %, depending on the primer used. Considering As, the GTS decrease was mainly evidenced by the OPG17 primer with no clear relation to AQ. For As and Cd, the OPG17 primer was more sensitive to detect genotoxicity than the X19 primer (FIGURE 36). Overall, for Hg, the GTS stayed elevated regardless of whether the values of AQ were between 1 and 15348 with an exception of 8517, which showed a decrease in the GTS (FIGURE 36).

2.3.4. Physiological integration of the ecotoxicological responses

The survival, growth inhibition, MN induction and GTS results were integrated as functions of the AQ values in the FIGURE 37. Overall, the main pattern for the three metal(loid)s followed increased AQ and decreased survival and growth in association with disturbance of cytogenomic stability (MN increase and GTS decrease) in haemocytes (FIGURE 37). This pattern is relatively different in terms of the intensity for each endpoint and contaminant in relation to the toxicological mechanisms of the metal(loid)s studied.



Figure 36: RAPD-HRS profiles and the GTS (%) associated for the two considered primers (OPG17 and X19) as function of the AQ of As, CD and Hg (TX or TO = control, B = blank). AQ were ranked as function of the concentration of metal(loid)s in soils (table 22).

2.4. Discussion

2.4.1. Genotoxicity of arsenic and cadmium to land snails

For As and Cd, our study revealed an increase in the level of micronuclei associated with an overall high alteration of the GTS in haemolymph. These patterns are related to the increased of the bioaccumulation in snails. Although dose-response models for the micronuclei were evidenced, this was not apparently the case for the GTS, which highlights the overall genotoxic effects without thresholds, probably due to the mutagenic potential of these metal(loid)s. Indeed, the genotoxic potential of As is related to the reactive oxygen species (ROS) production that induces adducts and breakages, which are difficult to remedy due to alterations of the DNA repair pathways. Consequently this damage induces mutations, aneuploidy and micronuclei (HEI ET AL., 1998; MO ET AL., 2006; FAITA ET AL., 2013; BACH ET AL., 2015; SALAZAR AND OSTROSKY-WEGMAN, 2015; ROY ET AL., 2018).



FIGURE 37: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE AQ AND THE LEVEL OF BIOMARKERS INVESTIGATED (SURVIVAL, GROWTH INHIBITION (GI), GENOMIC TEMPLATE STABILITY (GTS, FOR OPG17 AND X19) AND MN ASSAY) FOR EACH METAL(LOID)S (A, B AND C FOR AS, CD AND HG, RESPECTIVELY).

Studies on earthworms exposed to As have confirmed these mechanisms by demonstrating an increase in oxidative damage and of DNA breakages (BUTTON ET AL., 2010; WANG ET AL., 2016). The same mechanisms are involved with Cd (HARTWIG, 1994; BERTIN AND AVERBECK, 2006; LOPES ROCHA ET AL., 2014) as notably demonstrated in embryos and haemocytes of land snails (ITZIOU ET AL., 2011; BAURAND ET AL., 2013; BAURAND ET AL., 2014) in association with an increase in epigenomic alterations measured with cytosine methylation (NICA ET AL., 2017).

2.4.2. Genotoxicity of mercury to land snails

The patterns demonstrated showed an induction of the micronuclei with the increase in the AQ but no strong effects on the GTS, suggesting different genotoxicological mechanisms for Hg than for As and Cd to land snails. Indeed, although Hg can induce ROS, it is known that Hg is able to bind to sulfhydryl groups in proteins and to inhibit the polymerization of tubulin, which can lead to chromosomal aberrations measured as an increase in micronucleus levels (SANCHEZ-GALAN ET AL., 1999; DE FLORA ET AL., 1994; THIER ET AL., 2003; BONACKER ET AL., 2004; SILVA-PEREIRA ET AL., 2005; CAVAS, 2008; CRESPO-LOPEZ ET AL., 2009).

2.4.3. From ecogenotoxicological bioavailability to environmental bioavailability

As demonstrated by BEASLEY ET AL. (2015) in *Daphnia* chronic toxicity testing, EC10 is better than NOEC or EC20 to interpret the sensitivity of the various biological markers investigated. Consequently, the AQ10 for the survival and growth in TABLE 22 reflects the benchmark of the excess transfer that leads to alteration of the health status of snails and shows the ability of As to cause death within 28 days for sub-adults. Here, combining the methodology to calculate ECx from the AQ permits us to look for bridges between environmental bioavailability and toxicological bioavailability of contaminants to snails (FIGURE 34). Indeed, by assessing the ecotoxicological risk on the basis of the bioavailable concentrations (AQx) and not the total concentrations in soils (ECx), this methodology permits consideration of the influence of the physico-chemical properties of soils on the bioavailability and the consequent ecotoxicological effects (PAUGET ET AL., 2015; PAUGET ET AL., 2016). For genomic stability measured by RAPD-HRS, the GTS at 90 % (GTS90) is the equivalent of AQ10. Overall, for As, Cd and Hg, genotoxic markers measured in haemocytes (number of micronuclei or instability of the genome) showed a higher sensitivity than endpoints measured at the individual levels, such as growth or survival (FIGURE 37). Indeed, this is related to the precocity of the response of genotoxicity markers in comparison to life history biomarkers, such as the disruption of growth ability (JHA, 2008; ZELLER ET AL., 2018; GAJSKI ET AL., 2019). This study reveals that the combination of the RAPD-HRS and MN assay allows to better assessment of environmental genotoxicity by coupling the assessment of clastogenic and aneugenic effects (ATIENZAR AND JHA, 2004; LUZHNA ET AL., 2013). Indeed, there are no evident relations between the concomitant inductions of the MN and the GTS according to the ecogenotoxicological mechanisms. More precisely, the induction of cytogenotoxicity and the instability of the genome in haemocytes caused by As, Cd and Hg do not show a similar pattern between these two approaches to assess genotoxicity, as indicated in FIGURE 37. For the first time, the efficiency of RAPD-HRS to explore the genotoxicity potential in sub-adult snails was assessed and showed that an increase in micronuclei is not consecutively followed by a decrease of the GTS for the two considered primers (OPG17 and X19). These patterns are related to the type of damage detected by the micronucleus assay (e.g., double strand breaks, chromosomic aberrations) and the RAPD-HRS (e.g., double or single strand breaks, adducts, mutations) (ATIENZAR AND JHA, 2004; LUZHNA ET AL., 2013).

Coupling two assays of genotoxicity to assess genotoxicity does not appear to be redundant in this study due to the consideration of the different types of damage induced by various ecogenotoxicological mechanisms. These results pave the way for the development of an indice of the global stability of the genome of land snails that combines relevant biomarkers of genotoxicity and can be linked with AQ or other relevant parameters (e.g., enzymatic activities and metabolite concentrations for organic compounds) to improve the assessment of the bioavailability of contaminants. This indice can be built on the same model as the one used for integrated biomarkers are available to land snails (MLEIKI ET AL., 2020; RADWAN ET AL., 2020).

Finally, to better assess the bioavailability by considering the environmental bioavailability and the genotoxicological bioavailability, combining AQ with the biomarkers investigated in this study could supply valuable data to answer, for example, some questions regarding the environmental risk assessment of contaminated soils that include the use of land snails (ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19204, 2017; ISO CD 24032, 2020).

Based on the responses provided by both genotoxicity approaches used, these results can stimulate the development of new specific adverse outcome pathways (AOP) applied to the genotoxic mode of action as recommended by SASAKI ET AL. (2020) with land snails.

2.5. Conclusion

This study provides the first results on the coupling of the RAPD-HRS and MN assays in haemocytes of sub-adult snails to assess cytogenotoxic effects of metal(loid)s. Our results demonstrate the relevance of combining these two assays in the genotoxicity assessment of contaminated soils to snails, taking into consideration numerous and various ecogenotoxicological mechanisms and associated types of damage (e.g., micronuclei, breakages, adducts, mutations) that can cause physiological alterations leading to negative effects on natural populations.

Convergences and divergences in terms of responses between the RAPD-HRS and MN assays in haemocytes were highlighted, and metal-specific patterns were highlighted according to their genotoxicological potential and effects on snails. This study demonstrates existing links between environmental bioavailability and toxicological bioavailability for biological endpoints at the individual to molecular levels, with no concentration-dependent relations between bioaccumulation and GTS.

3. Dynamique des télomères pour l'homme et les animaux : état des connaissances et perspectives en toxicologie environnementale

Titre en anglais : Telomere dynamic in humans and animals: Review and perspectives in environmental toxicology

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Résumé

Les télomères (TL) jouent des rôles majeurs de stabilisation du génome et sont généralement raccourcis avec le vieillissement. La maintenance des télomères est assurée par deux mécanismes impliquant l'enzyme télomérase (TA) et la voie d'allongement alternative des télomères (ALT). Le raccourcissement des TL et ou l'inhibition de TA sont en liens avec des effets sur la santé des organismes (conduisant à une réduction de la durée de vie reproductive et de la survie), suggérant qu'ils pourraient être des processus clés dans les mécanismes de toxicité (à des niveaux moléculaires et cellulaires) et pertinents comme des signaux d'alarmes précoces d'exposition et d'effet des contaminants sur la dynamique des populations animales et humaines. Par conséquent, une analyse critique des connaissances sur les relations entre la dynamique des TL et la pollution environnementale est essentielle pour mettre en évidence la pertinence de la mesure des TL en toxicologie environnementale.

Le premier objectif de cette synthèse est de résumer les connaissances générales au sujet de la structure des TL, leurs rôles, les mécanismes de maintenance associés et les causes de raccourcissement à la fois chez les vertébrés (dont l'homme) et chez les invertébrés. Globalement, la longueur des TL diminue avec le vieillissement avec quelques exceptions (e.g., chez des espèces avec des durées de vies différentes comme le nématode *Caenorhabiditis elegans* et le crustacé *Homarus americanus*). Des résultats contradictoires au sein de même groupe biologique même pour des espèces du même genres (e.g., les microcrustacés *Daphnia sp.*) indiquent que la relation usuellement proposée de raccourcissement des TL et de diminution de l'activité TA ne peut pas être généralisée car elle est dépendante de l'espèce, du stade de développement et de la durée de vie. Bien que la littérature scientifique ait produit de nombreux constats de l'effet du vieillissement sur le raccourcissement des TL, l'influence d'autres facteurs endogènes et environnementaux dont l'exposition à des polluants chimiques, sont disponibles, et plus spécialement pour les invertébrés.

Le deuxième objectif de la synthèse était de connecter les connaissances sur la dynamique des TL avec l'exposition à des contaminants. La plupart des études publiées en toxicologie environnementale pour l'homme concernent des approches épidémiologiques corrélatives et quelques expérimentations *in vitro*. Elles ont montré une attrition des TL en lien avec une exposition à des contaminants chimiques, comme par exemple les hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (HAP), les polychlorobiphényles (PCB), les pesticides ou les éléments métalliques (EM). Chez les autres vertébrés, les études trouvées concernent dans la plupart des cas les oiseaux et, dans l'ensemble, font état d'une altération de la

dynamique des TL consécutivement à l'exposition aux contaminants (EM et composés organiques). Chez les invertébrés, peu de données sont disponibles et le potentiel de l'évaluation de la dynamique des TL pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux reste à explorer.

Sur la base des principaux manques de connaissances identifiés, quelques perspectives de recherche (e.g., impact de facteurs endogènes et environnementaux, effets doses-réponses, liens entre longueur des TL, activité de la TA, longévité et vieillissement) sont proposés pour mieux comprendre le potentiel de la mesure de la longueur des TL et de l'activité TA chez les humains et les animaux en toxicologie environnementale.

Abstract

Telomeres (TLs) play major roles in stabilizing the genome and are usually shortened with ageing. The maintenance of TLs is ensured by two mechanisms involving telomerase (TA) enzyme and alternative lengthening telomeres (ALT). TL shortening and/or TA inhibition have been related to health effects on organisms (leading to reduced reproductive lifespan and survival), suggesting that they could be key processes in toxicity mechanisms (at molecular and cellular levels) and relevant as an early warning of exposure and effect of chemicals on human health and animal population dynamics. Consequently, a critical analysis of knowledge about relationships between TL dynamic and environmental pollution is essential to highlight the relevance of TL measurement in environmental toxicology.

The first objective of this review is to provide a survey on the basic knowledge about TL structure, roles, maintenance mechanisms and causes of shortening in both vertebrates (including humans) and invertebrates. Overall, TL length decreases with ageing but some unexpected exceptions are reported (e.g., in species with different lifespans, such as the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* or the crustacean *Homarus americanus*). Inconsistent results reported in various biological groups or even between species of the same genus (e.g., the microcrustacean *Daphnia sp.*) indicate that the relation usually proposed between TL shortening and a decrease in TA activity cannot be generalized and depends on the species, stage of development or lifespan. Although the scientific literature provides evidence of the effect of ageing on TL shortening, much less information on the relationships between shortening, maintenance of TLs, influence of other endogenous and environmental drivers, including exposure to chemical pollutants, is available, especially in invertebrates.

The second objective of this review is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and exposure to contaminants. Most of the studies published on humans rely on correlative epidemiological approaches and few *in vitro* experiments. They have shown TL attrition when exposed to contaminants, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), pesticides and metallic elements (ME). In other vertebrates, the studies we found deals mainly with birds and, overall, report a disturbance of TL dynamic consecutively to exposure to chemicals, including metals and organic compounds. In invertebrates, no data are available and the potential of TL dynamic in environmental risk assessment remains to be explored.

On the basis of the main gaps identified some research perspectives (e.g., impact of endogenous and environmental drivers, dose response effects, link between TL length, TA activity, longevity and ageing)

are proposed to better understand the potential of TL and TA measurements in humans and animals in environmental toxicology.

3.1. Introduction

Telomeres (TLs) are repetitive, non-coding DNA sequences located at the ends of chromosomes. TLs were identified in the 1930s by MCCLINTOCK (1941) and MÜLLER (1938), who described their potential functions in maintaining chromosome stability by observing the chromosomes of corn and drosophila. It was postulated that cells were not able to divide themselves into "infinity" (WEISMANN, 1889). This theory was confirmed in the 1960s (HAYFLICK AND MOORHEAD, 1961; HAYFLICK, 1965) on a human foetal cell culture (division ability between 40 and 60 times before entrance in a senescence phase). Olovnikov theorized the Hayflick limit, which postulates that somatic cells have a limited number of divisions in connection with the loss of DNA sequences at the extremities of chromosomes, i.e., TLs. When this limit is exceeded, cells enter senescence (OLOVNIKOV, 1971). The popularity of TLs grown over the last four decades since the discovery of a repeated sequence of six telomeric nucleotides of a ciliated protozoan, Tetrahymena thermophila (CCCCAA), and of the protective role of this sequence against chromosome degradation (YAO ET AL., 1981; SZOSTAK AND BLACKBURN, 1982; SHAMPAY ET AL., 1984). TLs are mainly known to protect and stabilize DNA by protecting chromosomes from degradation (end-to-end fusion and erosion), stabilizing broken chromosome ends, modulating the DNA repair machinery of double strand break (DSB) damage with non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), counting the number of cell divisions (replicative potential of cells), participating in mitotic and meiotic chromosome segregation and the attachment of chromosomes to the nuclear envelope (HABER, 1999; DE LANGE, 2005; OESEBURG ET AL., 2010; GRACH, 2013). For humans, TL length decreases with ageing (AUBERT AND LANSDORP, 2008) and TL attrition is recognized as a biomarker of the nine hallmarks of ageing (LOPEZ-OTIN ET AL., 2013). Mechanisms of TL maintenance limit fast TL attrition and are closely associated with the activities of some enzymes, the most well known being telomerase, or TA (GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1985; GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1989).

If TL attrition occurs naturally, some studies report that it can be accelerated by various biological (e.g., infections) and environmental (e.g., chemical substances) stressors known for their toxicological effects. However, there is a lack of knowledge of various stressors (e.g., contaminants, biotic and abiotic factors) and species, including invertebrates. Furthermore, data regarding the actions of these stressors on TL maintenance pathways that are key to protecting and stabilizing the genome against various stressors, including pollutants, are lacking. Based on data showing that chemicals are able to induce human premature ageing and decrease lifespan (CHEN ET AL., 2013; PURI ET AL., 2017), it appears relevant to investigate on TL dynamic to search for bridges between molecular and cellular effects (impact on TL length and/or TL maintenance), health effects (e.g., survival, reproductive lifespan) and consequences on populations (e.g., density, growth).

The aim of this review is to identify research questions on TL dynamic in vertebrates and invertebrates in relation to ageing, lifespan and environmental toxicology. The main question concerns the potential use of TL measurement as a relevant biomarker, especially in the framework of the One Health concept, to assess the effects of multiple stressors at the human-animal-ecosystem interface (DESTOUMIEUX-GARZÓN ET AL., 2018). Thus, the first objective of this review is to report basic knowledge about the structure, roles and maintenance mechanisms of TLs and causes of TL shortening in the animal kingdom. On the basis of this premise, the second objective is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and exposure to contaminants. Finally, based on the lack of knowledge of TL dynamic in environmental toxicology, some perspectives are proposed.

3.2. Structure variability of telomeres in the animal kingdom

In animals, TL sequences (TTAGGG)_n are highly conserved (MEYNE ET AL., 1989; TRAUT ET AL., 2007), with slight variations in phyla such as Arthropoda (GOMES ET AL., 2010). Sequence conservation results, for example, in similar TL sequences for a heterothermic invertebrate (the snail *Cantareus aspersus*) and a homeothermic vertebrate (*Homo sapiens*), while most insects possess a pentameric motif (TTAGG), with the exception of Coleoptera (FRYDRICHOVÀ ET AL., 2004; VITKOVÀ ET AL., 2005; GOMES ET AL., 2011). TL sequences have been determined in various species (TABLE 24), among which some are used as bioindicators in environmental toxicology (e.g., *Daphnia pulex, Eisenia foetida, C. aspersus*).

TABLE 24: NO-EXHAUSTIV LIST OF TELOMERE SEQUENCES OF BIOINDICATOR TAXA IN ENVIRONMENTAL TOXICOLOGY

| Sequences | Species | Sources | |
|-----------------------|--|---------------------------------------|--|
| | Vertebrates (Fishs, Birds, Mammals, Amphibians), | MEYNE ET AL., 1989, VITTURI ET AL., | |
| (TTAGGG) _N | Invertebrates (Snails as Cantareus aspersus, | 2000, VITTURI ET AL., 2005, KOROLEVA | |
| | Earthworms as Eisenia fetida, Planaria) | et al., 2013, Tasaka et al., 2013. | |
| (TTAGG) _N | Invertebrates (Daphnia sp., Chironomus sp., Bombyx | Okazaki et al., 1993, Rosen et | |
| | mori) | Edstrom, 2000, Schumpert et al., 2015 | |
| (TTAGGC) _N | Invertebrates (Nematod, Caenorhabditis elegans) | WICKY ET AL., 1996 | |

The repetition number of TL sequences is variable according to species or age and can frequently reach several thousands of nucleotides in Metazoa. For instance, in human lymphocytes, the size ranges between 2.5 to 15 kilo base pairs (kbp) depending on the patient (O'CALLAGHAN AND FENECH, 2011). The end of the TL is commonly called a loop because it looks like a hairpin structure (GRIFFITH ET AL., 1999). Loops are formed by double-stranded TL repeats, the T-loop and the D-loop (GREIDER, 1999).

The terminal region of the TL is a single-stranded overhang that is 3' G-rich and is known as the G-tail (guanine-rich hairpin tail). This region forms G-quadruplexes, where each guanine base participates in hydrogen bond formation (LIPPS AND RHODES, 2009) in a square planar arrangement that is stabilized by central cations (WILLIAMSON ET AL., 1989; MOYE ET AL., 2015). TL functions are dependent on G-quadruplexes that are associated with proteins (PAESCHKE ET AL., 2005). In humans, TLs bear a protein complex, the shelterin complex, which is mainly composed of six different proteins: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TIN2, TPP1 and POT1 (PALM AND DE LANGE, 2008; OESEBURG ET AL., 2010) (FIGURE 38). This DNA-protein complex is essential to protect TLs by the implication of TL maintenance machinery, as it avoids the inhibition of various DNA damage response (DDR) and DNA repair machinery (DE LANGE, 2009; LU ET AL., 2013). Some proteins in humans associated with the shelterin complex have also been found in several animal species, such as POT1 in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (FERREIRA ET AL., 2013) or in *Daphnia sp* (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015). All these proteins play various roles in TL maintenance (MARTINEZ AND BLASCO, 2010) and are summarized in TABLE 25.



FIGURE 38: HUMAN TL STRUCTURE AND SIX TL BINDING PROTEINS: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TPP1, TIN2, POT1 (MODIFIED FROM BLASCO, 2005, MARTINEZ AND BLASCO, 2010, LU ET AL., 2013, SANDIN AND RHODES, 2014).

Although the structure presented in FIGURE 38 is accepted as the most commonly found in animal kingdom, some studies have shown that it is not ubiquitous, notably for insects, such as, *Chironomus sp., Drosophila melanogaster* and *Bombyx mori* (LOUIS, 2002; FUJIWARA ET AL., 2005; GEORGE ET AL., 2006; MASON ET AL., 2008; PARDUE AND DEBARYSHE, 2008). For *D. melanogaster*, the shelterin complex is replaced by a same architecture, the terminin complex (RAFFA ET AL., 2013), composed by five proteins (HOAP, HIPHOP, MOI, VER and TEA) and the function of terminin for diptera is mainly to protect

telomere from fusion events or DNA damage response (RAFFA ET AL., 2013; ZHANG ET AL., 2016; CICCONI ET AL., 2017).

TABLE 25: ROLES OF THE SIX TELOMERE BINDING PROTEINS: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TPP1, TIN2, POT1 (ADAPTED FROM IWANO ET AL., 2004, OKAMOTO ET AL., 2008, MARTINEZ AND BLASCO, 2010).

| Roles of proteins | TIN2 | RAPI | TPPI | TRF2 | TRFI | ΡΟΤΙ |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Bridging shelterin | х | | х | | | |
| Capping shelterin | | | х | х | х | |
| G-strand protection | | | | | | х |
| Interactions with DNA damage responses (DDR) | | х | | х | x | X |
| Interactions with mitosis regulation | | | | | х | |
| Prevention of TL fragility | | х | х | | х | |
| Prevention of TL recombination and end-to-end fusion | | х | | х | | х |
| Stimulating subtelomeric silencing | | х | | | | |
| Allows TA recruitment | | | Х | | | |
| TL accesibility for TA inhibition | | | | | | х |
| Telomeric localization of other sheltering components regulation | x | | | | х | |

3.3. Maintenance of telomeres

Various mechanisms operate to limit TL attrition (i.e., TA, ALT) and/or to repair TLs when they are damaged.

3.3.1. Roles of telomerase

Telomerases are a group of enzymes coupled to RNA that synthesize *de novo* the extremities of the TL to limit its fast attrition in proliferative cell types (GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1985; GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1989). For example, a single TA enzyme able to synthesize 74 telomeric nucleotides per minute *in vitro* has been described in the ciliated protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila* (GREIDER, 1991). To synthetize TLs, TA uses a catalytic component, TERT (telomerase reverse transcriptase; NAKAMURA ET AL., 1997), that has been characterized in many animals (e.g., *Xenopus laevis* and *Bombyx*

mori) (KURAMOTO ET AL., 2001; OSANAI ET AL., 2006). The activation of TERT requires its binding with two proteins of the shelterin complex, TPP1 and POT1 (SANDIN AND RHODES, 2014). Then, TERT fosters the *de novo* synthesis of TLs by using the second subunit of TA, an RNA template (TERC or telomerase RNA component). In addition, TA can interact with G-quadruplexes to allow TL extension (MOYE ET AL., 2015).

TA stability and activity can be reduced by the actions of hormone (e.g., corticosterone; GOPALAKRISHNAN ET AL., 2013; ANGELIER ET AL., 2018) and/or altered genes (e.g., DKC1, dyskerin pseudouridine synthase 1; BERTUCH, 2016). The instability and inactivity of TA are a cause of diseases such as dyskeratosis congenita (Zinsser-Cole-Engman syndrome), a telomeropathy leading to premature ageing (DRACHTMAN AND ALTER, 1992; VULLIAMY ET AL., 2001; ARMANIOS AND BLACKBURN, 2012; ARMANIOS ET AL., 2013). If TA limits the shortening of TLs by adding small repeated segments of DNA at the ends of chromosomes at each cell division, their overexpression can be detrimental to individuals by causing diseases, such as cancer. In 80 % to 90 % of all cancers, cancer cells often have high TA activity (JAFRI ET AL., 2016) due to mutations in the core promoter region of TERT (HORN ET AL., 2013; GRÜNER ET AL., 2018; LIU ET AL., 2018) which is considered a key factor for tumour development.

3.3.2. Roles of alternative lengthening telomeres

The ALT pathway, an alternative pathway used to synthetize TLs, has been reported in immortal human cell lines (BRYAN ET AL., 1995; BRYAN ET AL., 1997). The ALT pathway can be activated after epigenetic aberrations and mutations in genes encoding proteins involved in chromatin remodelling at TLs and other genomic sites or tumour suppressors, such as p53 (CHUNG ET AL., 2012; CESARE AND REDDEL, 2008; CONOMOS ET AL., 2013; NADERLINGER AND HOLZMANN, 2017). There are various mechanisms involved in the ALT pathway (e.g., TL elongation performed by homologous recombination) (NATARAJAN AND MCEACHERN, 2002; NATARAJAN ET AL., 2003; TOPCU ET AL., 2005; CESARE AND REDDEL, 2008; CESARE AND REDDEL, 2010; CONOMOS ET AL., 2013). Some proteins are associated with the ALT pathway and are involved in the restart of telomeric DNA replication, such as HR protein complexes (MRN, MREII, RAD50, NSBI, NBN), proteins located on chromosome 5 for the structural maintenance of TLs (SMC5, SMC6), Fanconi anaemia proteins (FANDCD2, FANCA) and endonucleases (FENI) (CESARE AND REDDEL, 2010). The ALT pathway was evidenced in human somatic cells (especially those that lose tumour protein 53 (TP53), which are genetically unstable) and promotes proliferative cancer cells in humans (15 % of cancers) (HENSON ET AL., 2002; CESARE ET AL., 2009; LOVEJOY ET AL., 2012; CONOMOS ET AL., 2013; NEUMANN ET AL., 2013; ROAKE AND ARTENDI, 2016; CHEN ET AL., 2017; MIN ET AL., 2017).

3.3.3. DNA repair of telomeres

The maintenance of functional TLs is critical for genome stability. When damages affect TL extremities, TA or the ALT pathway is recruited for maintenance. However, damage (e.g., breaks, oxidation of nucleotides, alkylations) can also take place at various locations in the TL sequence. In this case, other mechanisms, *i.e.*, DNA repair pathways are mobilized. These pathways are the same as those that watch over the rest of the genome, such as base excision repair (BER), nucleotide excision repair (NER), homologous recombination (HR), non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) and mismatch repair (MMR) (WEBB ET AL., 2013; JIA ET AL., 2015). The DNA BER pathway involves endonucleases (such as APE1) and is a major way to protect genomes from oxidative stress in association with the shelterin complex through, for instance, interaction with TRF2 to stabilize telomeric DNA (MADLNER ET AL., 2013). Moreover, DNA repair mechanisms are also essential when damage occurs in genes encoding proteins involved in TL dynamic (e.g., TERT, POT1, MRN).

3.4. Causes and consequences of telomere attrition

3.4.1. Ageing

Several causes of TL shortening have been identified (FIGURE 39). The main one, ageing is natural and is due to cell division (BLACKBURN, 2005), because at each division, chromosomes lose telomeric patterns. TLs have a critical minimal size that, when reached, induces an inhibition of cell division cycles and cellular senescence processes (HARLEY ET AL., 1990; BLACKBURN, 1991; AMANIONS AND BLACKBURN, 2012; REICHERT ET AL., 2017).

In various animal groups, it has been reported that TLs shorten with ageing (TABLE 26). The relation between ageing and shortened TLs has been evidenced mainly for vertebrates (*i.e.*, mammals, fish and birds), for example in cats (MCKEVITT ET AL., 2003) and rodents (COVIELLO-MCLAUGHLIN ET AL., 1997). However, for some vertebrates (e.g., long-lived species like the bird, *Oceanodroma leucorhoa*, or the water python, *Liasis fuscus*), no relationship between the age of individuals and TL length has been highlighted, probably due to reduced oxidative damage (HAUSSMAN ET AL., 2003) or high TA activity stimulated by hormones notably estrogens (UJVARI AND MASDEN, 2009). TABLE 26 shows a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic as a function of age in invertebrates and the mechanism of ageing. Based on the few data available with a sufficient number of individuals by age group, three patterns can be identified regarding relationships between TLs, TA and ageing: increase, decrease and no variation. In the Baikal gastropod *Kobeltocochlea martensiana*, an enlargement of TLs with ageing has been demonstrated (MAXIMOVA ET AL., 2017). Studies on the planaria *Schmidtea mediterranea*, which has an

apparently limitless regenerative capacity, showed that TLs decrease with age in sexual animals, while asexual planaria can maintain TL length during fission or regeneration (TAN ET AL., 2012). In the aquatic arthropod *Daphnia sp.*, no relationship between age and TL length was found in *D. pulex* while *D. pulicaria*, whose life cycle is twice as long as that of *D. pulex*, showed TL attrition with ageing (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015). In both species, TL dynamic appears to be correlated with TA activity. These different patterns underline that phylogenetic proximity does not mean similar patterns between TLs or TA responses and ageing. For the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (which can be described as a short-lived species with a temperature-dependent lifespan between 5 and 100 days), no correlation between ageing and TL length was detected (RAICES ET AL., 2005). The same observation was made for the long-lived arthropod, *Homarus americanus* (lifespan from 50 and 100 years), which was unexpected regarding its special longevity in an optimal environment. Ageing phenomena are absent in this species, and mortality is often caused by the increased weight of individuals that preclude moult (KLAPPER ET AL., 1998; KRUPP ET AL., 2000).



FIGURE 39: SOME CAUSES OF TL ATTRITION.

In humans (AUBERT AND LANSDORP, 2008) and mice (RUDOLPH ET AL., 1999; TOMAS-LOBA ET AL., 2008), TL attrition is considered one of the nine hallmarks of ageing (LOPEZ-OTIN ET AL., 2013) and is a marker of cellular senescence (BERNADOTTE ET AL., 2016). A relationship between the shortening of TLs in human leukocytes and all causes of death has been demonstrated (BOONEKAMP ET AL., 2013; OPRESKO ET AL., 2017). However, according to FARZANEH-FAR ET AL. (2008), death cannot be predicted with a simple measure of TL length, and depends also on disease advancements or genotype. For example, it

has been found that in humans, the heterozygous genotype for some genes, including SERPINE, is associated with a longer TL length, a longer lifespan (7 or more years on average), better cardiovascular capabilities, lower fasting insulin levels, and a lower incidence of diabetes mellitus (KHAN ET AL., 2017). Hence, although a correlation between TL attrition, decrease in TA activity and ageing has been often reported, it does not seem to be generalizable throughout the animal kingdom.

3.4.2. Other causes

Various mechanisms (e.g., genotoxicity, oxidative stress) can impact TL length (FIGURE 39). DNA damage such as a single strand break (SSB) or a double strand break (DSB) can be a source of TL attrition (POTTIER ET AL., 2013; GRACH, 2013), notably when the DNA repair machinery is inefficient (WEBB ET AL., 2013; JIA ET AL., 2015). Deficiencies in enzymes supported by the BER pathway (e.g., OGG1 and UNG) can contribute to TL shortening by altered TL sister chromatid exchanges, an increased number of SSBs and DSBs, preferential TL G-strand losses, accumulation of uracil on TLs, increased TL fragility and aberrant TL recombination (OIKAWA AND KAWANISHI, 1999; WANG ET AL., 2010; VALLABHANENI ET AL., 2013; WEBB ET AL., 2013; AN ET AL., 2015; JIA ET AL., 2015; VALLABHANENI ET AL., 2013; WEBB ET AL., 2013; AN ET AL., 2015; JIA ET AL., 2015; VALLABHANENI ET AL., 2015).

Telomeric DNA is highly susceptible to oxidative-induced DNA damage because of its high guanine content (KAWANISHI AND OIKAWA, 2004). Among oxidative lesion bases at TLs, 8-oxo-dG is the most frequent (ZHOU ET AL., 2017). Therefore, TLs can also be indirectly altered by mutagenicity when reactive oxygen species (ROS) induce mutations (e.g., 8-oxo-dG induces a transversion G:C to T:A) in genes coding for TL structure and maintenance or the DNA repair of TLs (WOOD ET AL., 1990; HENLE ET AL., 1999; VON ZGLINICKI, 2002; CHANG ET AL., 2003; VASSEUR AND COSSU-LEGUILLE, 2003; HOUBEN ET AL., 2008; COLUZZI ET AL., 2017; STAUFFER ET AL., 2018). A disorder in protein recruitment in the TL complex shelterin can also be the cause of TL attrition because the T-loop cannot be easily formed, making the end of the chromosome unprotected. This phenomenon can also be at the origin of apoptosis or senescence via activation of the p53 or p16ink4a pathways (OESEBURG ET AL., 2010). In addition, the absence or deficiency of TA may also be a cause of premature TL shortening (ZIEGLER ET AL., 2017).

| Biological species | Studied ages | n | Biological tissues | Effects of ageing on TL dynamics | Effects of ageing on others biological markers | Sources |
|--|---------------------------------|---|---|---|--|---------------------------|
| | | | | Invertebrates | | |
| Strongylocentrotus franciscanus (Sea urchin) | 4 to > 100 years | ? | Some tissues (Aristotle's lantern muscle, ampullae, | \downarrow TL lengths, O TA activity | ↑ body size | Francis et al., 2006 |
| Lytechnius variegatus (Sea urchin) | > 3 years | ? | esophagus, intestine, gonad) | \downarrow TL lengths, O TA activity | ↑ body size | Francis et al., 2006 |
| Schmidtea mediterranea (Planaria) | 7 days to 3 years | 73 (min. 7 per ages) | Somatic cells | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Tan et al., 2012 |
| Daphnia pulex (Daphnia) | Embryos, I, 2 and 3 weeks | 25 to 30 individuals in pools/age | Body | O TL lengths, \uparrow TA activity | ↑ mortality | SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015 |
| Daphnia pulicaria (Daphnia) | Embryos, I, 4 and 8 weeks | 25 to 30 individuals in pools/age | Body | \downarrow TL lengths, \downarrow TA activity | ↑ mortality | SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015 |
| Drosophila melanogaster (Vinegar fly) | 0 to 100 days | 2000 (100 per 5 days) | Body | O TL lengths | \downarrow fecundity, \downarrow fertility | Walter et al., 2007 |
| Benedictia fragilis (Baikal gastropods) | 0 to 8 years | 95 | Foot | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Maximova et al., 2017 |
| Benedictia baicalensis (Baikal gastropods) | 0 to 8 years | 121 | Foot | ↑ TL lengths | - | Maximova et al., 2017 |
| Kobeltocochlea martensiana (Baikal gastropods) | 0 to 8 years | 111 | Foot | ↑ TL lengths | - | Maximova et al., 2017 |

TABLE 26: LINKS BETWEEN TELOMERE SHORTENING AND AGEING WITH OTHERS BIOLOGICALS MARKERS IN VARIOUS BIOLOGICAL GROUPS OF ANIMALS.

| | Eiska | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|------------------------------------|---|--|--|---|--|
| | | | | FISHS | | | |
| Oryzias melastigma (Medaka) | 4, 8, 12 months | 15 (5/age) | Liver | ↓ TL lengths, Δ TA activity, Δ TERT mRNA expression in liver | In liver: \uparrow 8-OH-dG level, \uparrow protein carbonyl level, Δ omER α mRNA expression, in plasma: Δ testosterone (T) and Δ estrogen (E2) levels | YIP ET AL., 2017 | |
| Danio rerio (Zebrafish) | 8 days to 24 months | 140 (~5/age, ~100 at 8 days) | Some tissues (testis, gut, head kidney, muscle, skin) | ↓ TL lengths, ↑/↓ TA activity (Δ f(tissues)) | - | Henriques et al., 2013, Henriques et al., 2017 | |
| Reptiles | | | | | | | |
| Alligator sinensis (Chinese alligator) Alligator | 3 to 10 years | 30 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Xu et al., 2009 | |
| mississippiensis (American Alligator) | 0 to 7 years | 34 | Erythrocytes | ↓ TL lengths | ↑ body size | SCOTT ET AL., 2006 | |
| Liasis fuscus (Water python) | 0 to 20 years | 70 | Erythrocytes | ↑ TL lengths | - | Ujvari et Masden, 2009 | |
| | | | | Birds | | | |
| Taeniopygia guttata (Zebra finch) | l to 7 years | 99 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Heidinger et al., 2012 | |
| Taeniopygia guttata | 0 to 8 years | 25 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Haussman et al., 2003 | |
| Tachycineta bicolor (Tree swallow) | 0 to 7 years | 42 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Haussman et al., 2003 | |
| Pygoscelis adeliae (Adélie penguin) | l to 14 years | 22 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Haussman et al., 2003 | |
| Sterna hirundo (Common tern) | 0 to 25 years | 41 | Erythrocytes | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Haussman et al., 2003 | |
| Branta leucopsis (Barnacle goose) | 2 to 26 years | 30 | Whole blood | \downarrow TL lengths | - | Pauliny et al., 2012 | |

| Oceanodroma leucorhoa (Leach's petrel) | 0 to 35 years | 33 | Erythrocytes | ↑ TL lengths | - | Haussman et al., 2003 |
|--|---|----------------|--|--|--|---|
| Phalacrocorax aristolelis (European shag) | 0 to 20 years | 144 | Whole blood (chicks), erythrocytes (adults) | \downarrow TL lengths | - | HALL ET AL., 2004 |
| Diomedea exulans (Wandering albatross) | 0 to 42 years | 92 | Whole blood (chicks), erythrocytes (adults) | ↓ TL lengths | - | Hall et al., 2004 |
| Acrocephalus arundinaceus (Great reed warbler) | 0 to 6 years | 174 | Whole blood | ↓ TL lengths | - | Asghar et al., 2015 |
| | | | | Mammals | | |
| Canis lupus familiaris (Dogs) | 0 to 15 years | 175 | Whole blood | \downarrow TL lengths | ↑ probability of death from cardiovascular disease | FICK ET AL., 2012 |
| Felis catus | | | | | | |
| (Cats) | cohort | 32 | Whole blood | \downarrow TL lengths | - | McKevitt et al., 2003 |
| (Cats) <i>Mus spretus</i> (Western Mediterranean mouse) | cohort 0 to 2,5 years | 32 20 | Whole blood Some tissues (testes, kidney, liver, spleen, brain) | ↓ TL lengths ↓ TL lengths | - | McKevitt et al., 2003 Coviello- McLaughlin et al., 1997 |
| (Cats) Mus spretus (Western Mediterranean mouse) Homo sapiens (Humans) | cohort 0 to 2,5 years 0 to 82 years | 32 20 72 | Whole blood Some tissues (testes, kidney, liver, spleen, brain) Leukocytes | ↓ TL lengths ↓ TL lengths ↓ TL lengths | - | MCKEVITT ET AL., 2003 COVIELLO- MCLAUGHLIN ET AL., 1997 FRENCK ET AL., 1998 |

LEGENDS: Δ = VARIATIONS, \uparrow = INCREASING, \downarrow = DECREASING, O = NO EFFECTS

TL shortening in human populations is related to psychological stress, diseases, infections, diets and lifestyles including smoking, as reported for example by VALDES ET AL. (2005), LANSDORP (2009) and MIRABELLO ET AL. (2009). Similar studies have been performed on mammals (ILLMONEN ET AL., 2008), showing that repeated infection by *Salmonella enterica* can cause TL attrition in house mice (*Mus musculus*). Many biotic and abiotic factors, such as nutrient (e.g., folate and selenium) deprivation, can accelerate TL attrition. Indeed, the antioxidant activity of these nutrients has a protective effect against oxidative DNA telomeric damage (LIU ET AL., 2004; BOCCARDI ET AL., 2013). Among other factors that can influence TL dynamic, food availability, number of breeding events and antioxidant capabilities have been described in birds (HALL ET AL., 2004; FOOTE ET AL., 2011; HEIDINGER ET AL., 2012; BEBBINGTON ET AL., 2016; SLETTEN ET AL., 2016; ANGELIER ET AL., 2018).

3.4.3. Consequences of telomere attrition on organism and population

TL shortening and short TL length is associated with various diseases including diabetes (SAMPSON ET AL., 2006; UZIEL ET AL., 2007), cardiovascular diseases (FITZPATRICK ET AL., 2007), obesity (VALDES ET AL., 2005), cancers (SRINIVAS ET AL., 2019) and pathologies of the female reproductive tract (KALMBACH ET AL., 2013). These studies focusing on humans support that TL length alteration can affect individual fitness in relation to a reduced lifespan for various animal species (MONAGHAN AND HAUSSMAN, 2006). Interspecies comparisons provide additional information to understand relations between TL dynamic and lifespan. Higher rates of TL loss are associated with a shorter lifespan when comparing different bird (TRICOLA ET AL., 2018) or mammal species. For instance, in humans, the rate of TL loss is 20-40 bp/year for a lifespan of 75 years while, it is 360 bp/year in dogs with a lifespan of 12 years (UNRYN ET AL., 2015). Generally, in vertebrates, TL length is inversely correlated with the lifespan of a species (GOMES ET AL., 2011).

If TLs length is predictive of the longevity of individuals of species as demonstrated for Acrocephalus arundinaceus or Daphnia pulicaria (ASGHAR ET AL., 2015; SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015), an accelerated attrition of TLs within a population may cause a decrease of the mean reproductive lifespan and of individual fitness, so reduce fertility rate, which should lead to changes in population dynamics (REICHERT, 2013). However, if theoretical links between TL dynamic, individual life-history traits and population dynamic seems obvious, the published literature dealing with the ecological repercussion of accelerated TL shortening remains very limited.

3.5. Contaminants and effects on telomere dynamic

Besides ageing and the other factors influencing TL dynamic we listed above, effects of toxic contaminants released by anthropogenic activities on individual health, life-history traits and population dynamic have been widely reported in the scientific literature. The interactions between a toxic compound and a biological system occurred first at the molecular and cellular levels. Then, ecological processes may also act, for instance when a predator suffers a decrease in prey availability because of poisoning. According to the mechanism(s) of action and depending on the sensitivity of the exposed species, this usually involves that the compound reaches one (or several) molecular target(s) and/or induces oxidative stress to express its toxicity at higher levels of biological organization. As reported above, TL dynamic is related to life-history traits and potentially to population dynamic. Thus, it can be assume that changes in TL dynamic is among the key processes linking toxic compounds, molecular/cellular disturbances and consequences on individual health, fitness and population.

3.5.1. In humans

Currently, most of the studies questioning the impact of contaminants on TL length and TA activity concern humans, especially leukocytes. The general trend is that TL length and TA activity decrease concomitantly when cells or humans are exposed to contaminants (TABLE 27). This premise fits well with the commonly proposed hypothesis that exposure to pollutants causes cell damage together with a decrease in TL length and TA activity.

Exposure to metallic elements (ME) has been related to TL length changes, two patterns can be distinguished: decrease or increase (TABLE 27). For example, cadmium (Cd) can cause TL attrition, as shown in placenta from newborns (LIN ET AL., 2013), in saliva from adolescents (FILLMAN ET AL., 2016) and in leukocytes from adults (ZOTA ET AL., 2015; PATEL ET AL., 2017). Similar trends were reported for lead (Pb) (POTTIER ET AL., 2013; PAWLAS ET AL., 2015; PAWLAS ET AL., 2016), arsenic (As) (FERRARIO ET AL., 2009; SRINIVAS ET AL., 2019) and the combination of As, Cd and/or tungsten (W) (WAI ET AL., 2018; GRAU-PEREZ ET AL., 2019). Organic chemicals, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) and air pollutants (e.g., benzene, toluene and fuel smoke) can lead to TL attrition (TABLE 27). Some PCBs and PBDEs induced a decrease in TL length, TA activity and the expression of fundamental genes implicated in TL maintenance and stability (XIN ET AL., 2016; ZIEGLER ET AL., 2017; YUAN ET AL., 2018).

Toxicologists have also paid special attention to carcinogenic compounds such as ME (e.g., As), some persistent organic pollutant (POP) or air contaminants (NO_x, NO₂, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) (DIONI ET AL., 2011; GAO ET AL., 2015; HOU ET AL., 2015; JOYCE AND HOU, 2015; MITRO ET AL., 2016; JIMENEZ VILLARREAL ET AL., 2018; ZHAO ET AL., 2018). A study conducted by GAO ET AL. (2015) on leukocytes from 167 participants demonstrated that a higher As urinary concentration was associated with increased TL length, overexpression of WRN (a gene involved in the ALT pathway), and decreased expression of TERF2, TERF2IP (shelterin complex), DKCI (upregulation of TA), and OBFCI (upregulation of TA). A similar trend was reported on leukocytes that presented an elongation of TL and an increase of the level of two proteins of the shelterin complex (TRFI and TRF2) following As exposure (CHATTERJEE ET AL. 2015). As previously stated, abnormal TL elongation should not necessarily be considered as positive, since strong activities of TA or ALT can be related to tumour development. In the study of GAO ET AL. (2015), the WRN gene, implicated in ALT pathway, was upregulated in leukocytes and TL were lengthened after exposure to As. Moreover, it was demonstrated that methylation of CHKI or PML genes may activate ALT pathway in human or mouse (NADERLINGER AND HOLZMANN, 2017), especially after exposure by PCBs and PCDEs (YUAN ET AL., 2018). Therefore, for carcinogenic contaminants, a possible mechanism of action could be an increase in TL length caused by TA and/or ALT upregulation rather than TL attrition (FINNON ET AL., 2000; JAFRI ET AL., 2016; DAGG ET AL., 2017). A pathway explaining an overactivation of the ALT pathway could be epigenetic alterations, such as methylations, induced by some contaminants (REICHARD AND PUGA, 2010; NICA ET AL., 2017).

TABLE 27: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TELOMERE DYNAMICS AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONTAMINATION BY CONTAMINANTS IN HUMANS.

| Biological materials | Experimental conditions | Contaminants | Effects on TL dynamic | Others biological effects and association with internal concentrations | Sources |
|--|----------------------------------|---|--|--|--|
| | | | In vitro studies | | |
| HL-60 cells | 6 and 30 days in vitro | PCB126 and PCB153 (5 µM) | ↓ TL length, ↓ Telomerase activity, ↓ hTERT, ↓ hTR, Δ POT1, Δ TRF1, Δ TRF2 expressions | ↑ phases G0/G1 cells | Xin et al., 2016 |
| Primary cultured lymphocytes | 2, 7, 42 and 70 days in vitro | 3-OH-CB28 (metabolite of PCB28) (1-50 μM) | \downarrow TL length, \downarrow TA activity, \downarrow TA gene expressions | O lymphocytes numbers, O TREC (T-cell receptor excision circle) levels | ZIEGLER ET AL., 2017 |
| Cells of umbilical cord blood (huUCB) | 30 minutes – 14 days | As inorganic (0,1 nM, 1 and 10 µM) | \downarrow TL length, \downarrow hTERT expression | ↑ ROS | Ferrario et al., 2009 |
| Cells of carcinoma cell line (Clone B3, EJ30 bladder cell) | l day | Pb(NO₃)₂ (0-1000 μM) | ↓ TL length | ↑ chromosomal abnormalities | POTTIER ET AL., 2013 |
| | | S | tudies on cohorts or patients | | |
| | | | Metal(loid)s | | |
| Placenta from 320 newborns | patients | Placental Cd and Pb concentration | \downarrow TL length | Association with $[Cd]_{placental}$ | Lin et al., 2013 |
| Leukocytes from 6796 adults | cohort | Cd and Pb in blood and urines | ↓ TL length | Association with [Cd] _{blood} | Zota et al., 2015, Patel et al., 2017 |
| Leukocytes from 334 smealters | cohort | Cd and Pb in blood (occupational exposure by air) | \downarrow TL length | Association with [Pb] _{blood} | PAWLAS ET AL., 2016 |
| Leukocytes from 365 children | cohort | Pb in blood | \downarrow TL length | Association with [Pb] _{blood} | Pawlas et al., 2015 |

developpement d'indicateurs chimiques et biologiques pour l'evaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contamines

| Salivary cells from adolescents (12-16 years olds, n=351) | patients | As and Cd in urines | \downarrow TL length | Association with [Cd] _{urinary} | Fillman et al., 2016 |
|---|----------|---------------------|--|--|------------------------------------|
| Leukocytes from 73 female university students | cohort | Cd in urines | O TL length | - | MIZUNO ET AL., 2019 |
| blood leukocytes from 410 mother- newborn pairs | cohort | Cd in urines | ↓ TL length | Association with [Cd] _{urinary} | ZHANG ET AL., 2019 |
| Leukocytes from 167 participants | patients | As in urines | ↑ TL length, ↑ Expression of WRN (ALT), ↓ Expressions of genes including TERF2 (shelterin complex), DKCI (up- regulation of TA), TERF2IP (sheltering complex), OBFCI (up-regulation of TA) | Association with [As] _{urinary} | GAO ET AL., 2015 |
| Leukocytes from 188 male participants (76 exposed in drinking water > 10 µg.L ⁻¹ , 112 control group | cohort | As in urines | ↑ TL length | Association with [As] _{drinking water} and [As] _{urinary} | JIMENEZ VILLARREAL et al., 2018 |
| Leukocytes from 1061 patiens (528 with skin cancers, 533 hospital-based controls aged 30- 79 years) | patients | As in urines | ↓ TL length | Association with [As] _{urinary} and skin cancer | Srinivas et al., 2019 |
| Leukocytes from 1380 participants | cohort | As in urines | O/↓ TL length | Association with [As] _{urinary} /greater risk of subsequent skin lesion | Zhang et al., 2018 |

| Leukocytes from 180 participants (60 unexposed, 120 exposed) | cohort | As in urines | ↑ TL length, O TA activity, ↑ levels of TRFI and TRF2 (shelterin complex) | Association with [As] _{urinary} , ↑ percentage of senescent cells, ↑ expression of cytokines (IL-6 and IL-8), ↑ expression of metalloproteases (MMP-1 and MMP-3), ↑ levels of p21 and p53, ↓ p16 level | Chatterjee et al., 2015 |
|--|----------|---|---|---|----------------------------|
| Leukocytes from 120 children (5 to 15 years) participants (68 exposed in drinking water > 10 µg.L ⁻¹ , 52 control group) | cohort | As in drinking water and in urines | O TL length | Association with [As] _{urinary} , ↑ micronucleus in buccal, urothelial cells and lymphocytes, | Chatterjee et al., 2018 |
| Leukocytes from 460 newborn | cohort | As, Cd and Pb in maternal urines | \downarrow TL length | Association with [As] or [Cd] _{urinary} | WAI ET AL., 2018 |
| Leukocytes from 1702 participants | cohort | As, Cd and W in urines | \downarrow TL length | Association [As], [Cd] and [W] _{urinary} | GRAU-PEREZ ET AL., 2019 |
| | | | Alcohol | | |
| Leukocytes from 404 participants | patients | Alcohol | ↓ TL length | Asscoiation with alcohol abusers | PAVANELLO ET AL., 2011 |
| | | | Atmospheric pollution | | |
| Leukocytes from 333 schoolchildren | cohort | NO _x , NO ₂ , PM _{2.5} , PM ₁₀ | ↑ TL length | Association with annual air pollution exposure | WALTON ET AL., 2016 |
| 120 truck drivers and 120 office workers | cohort | NO _x , NO ₂ , PM _{2.5} , PM ₁₀ | ↑ TL length | Association with $PM_{2.5}$, PM_{10} | Hou et al., 2012 |
| Leukocytes from 264 patients | patients | Solid fuel combustion | ↓ TL length | Association with solid fuel combustion for three decades | LIN ET AL., 2017 |

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| Leukocytes from | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------|--|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------|
| 63 steel workers | | | | | |
| (3 days | cohort | PM ₁ , PM ₁₀ | ↑ TL length, \downarrow hTERT mRNA | Association with PM_1 and PM_{10} | DIONI ET AL., 2011 |
| postexposure | | | | | |
| during I day) | | | | | |
| Loukoostos from | | Respirable dust | | | |
| | | (between 1,2 mg/m ³ | | O 8-oxodG levels, O/↓ DNA | |
| | patients | to 3,3 mg/m ³ , control: | | methylation | LIETAL., ZUIJA |
| 127 controis | | 0,1 mg/m ³) | | | |
| Leukocytes from | | | | | |
| 50 pregnant | | Atmospheric | | | |
| women living in | | pollution and intense | | | |
| polluted area vs 50 | cohort | environmental | \downarrow TL length, \downarrow hTERT mRNA | Association with polluted area | DE FELICE ET AL., |
| in a non-polluted | | pressure due to | | | 2012 |
| area | | wastes | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Buccal cells and | | | | | |
| placenta cells from | cohort | Residential traffic | TI length | Association with residential traffic | BIJNENS ET AL., |
| 233 patients | conore | exposure | | exposure | 2017 |
| | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from | | Personal airborne | | | |
| workers (77 street | | benzene exposure (0 | | | |
| traffic officers and | cohort | to 300 µg/m^3) and | ∣ TI length | Association with benzene and | HOXHA ET AL., |
| 57 office workers | conore | | | toluene exposure | 2009 |
| (referents)) | | $(12.5 \text{ to } 1000 \text{ ug/m}^3)$ | | | |
| | | (12.5 to 1000 µg/m) | | | |
| Leukocytes from | | Workers exposed to | | Association with benzene | |
| workers (43 and | cohort | benzene (31 ppm in 5 | ↑ TL length | exposure (> 31 ppm in 5 days) | BASSIG ET AL., 2014 |
| 43 in controls) | | days) | | | |
| Leukocytes from | | Workers exposed to | | Association with nitrosamines | |
| 157 rubber | cohort | pyrene and | \downarrow TL length | exposure | LI ET AL., 2011 |
| workers | | nitrosamines | | | |
| | | | | | |
| PAHs, PCBs and PBDEs | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|--|---------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Cells of cord blood on 255 newborns | patients | РАН | ↓ TL length | Association with PAH-DNA adducts | PERERA ET AL., 2018 | | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from 14 children | patients | РАН | ↓ TL length | Association with PAH exposure | LEE ET AL., 2017B | | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from 1330 adults | cohort | 18 PCBs, 7 dioxins, 9 furans | ↑ TL length | Association with TEQ (Toxic Equivalency) | MITRO ET AL., 2016 | | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from 452 adults (136 in controls, 316 exposed) | 25 PCBs and 11 cohort PBDEs | | ↓ TL length, ↑ frequences of TL loss and multiple separate TL at the ends of chromosomes, ↑ ALT activities, | \uparrow [PCBs] _{lipids} , \uparrow [PBDEs] _{lipids} , \uparrow abortion, stillborn, hypertension, diabetes and autoimmune diseases, \uparrow relative expression of p53 and Rb in plasma, \uparrow p16ink4a and p14-arf level in plasma, \uparrow interleukines levels in plasma (IL- 2, IL-6, IL-10), | Yuan et al., 2018 | | | | | | |
| | | | Pesticides | | | | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from 30 farmers and 30 townsfolk | patients | 17 pesticides | O TL length | ↑ micronuclei, ↑ nucleoplasmic bridges (correlation with [pesticides]) | ZELJEZIC ET AL., 2015 | | | | | | |
| Leukocytes from 568 cancer-free male farmers | cohort | 57 pesticides | ↓ TL length | Association with exposure of 2,4- D, diazinon, butuylate, malathion (except for alachlor it's opposite) | Andreotti et al., 2015 | | | | | | |

Legends: Δ = variations, \uparrow = increasing, \downarrow = decreasing, O = NO effects

179

3.5.2. In animals

There is a growing interest in ecology to measure TLs in various organisms, including vertebrates and invertebrates, with approximately five publications in 1995 vs one hundred in 2015 (ANGELIER ET AL., 2018). However, in ecotoxicology, studies are limited to vertebrates and mainly birds (TABLE 28), but no studies on invertebrates has been published. In some of the few studies that assessed with the impact of contaminants on TLs or TA in animals, TL attrition was related to high exposure. STAUFFER ET AL. (2017) showed inconsistent trends when investigating the interaction between exposure to ME, oxidative stress and TL length in wild populations of two birds (Parus major and Ficedula hypoleuca). They demonstrated that great tit nestlings exposed to ME had shorter TLs than those living in unpolluted areas. However, this correlation was not found when investigating pied flycatcher nestlings or adult females of two species. The authors investigated whether the redox status that varied among species and age groups may explain these differences but no link with TL length was found. For Rissa tridactyla, an arctic seabird species, BLÉVIN ET AL. (2016) showed that TL attrition was higher in wild adult females exposed to the major metabolite of chlordane mixture (oxychlordane) than in males. More expectedly, oxidative stress could accelerate TL attrition, as shown experimentally in wild-caught house mice (Mus musculus musculus), for which an inhibition of superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was related to TL attrition (STAUFFER ET AL., 2018). A study on the fish Epinephelus coiodes showed a concomitant decrease in TA activity with high exposure to benzo(a)pyrene (a PAH) (PETERSON ET AL., 2015). As reported in FIGURE 39, potential relationships between TL attrition and increases of DNA damages has been shown on Ctenomys torquatus exposed to PAH and ME from coal (MATZENBACHER ET AL., 2019). All these studies show that TL length and TA activity can be altered by contaminants in various vertebrate species, including birds, fishes and mammals.

However, other studies have not revealed that TL attrition is associated with chemical exposure. White-tailed eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*) nestlings sampled from a site contaminated by organohalogenated compounds did not exhibit TL shortening but reduced SOD activity (SLETTEN ET AL., 2015). BLÉVIN ET AL. (2017) measured an increase in TL length in both sexes of *Rissa tridactyla* (Black-legged kittiwake) exposed to perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAs). The impact of pollutants on TLs and TA is still a new field of research in environmental toxicology; on the basis of the recent data published, it remains difficult to identify general trends. This could be partly due to a lack of knowledge about the influence of various individual (e.g., gender, age, species) and/or environmental (e.g., weather conditions, food availability, pathogens, pollutions) factors on TL dynamic.

| Biological materials | Experimental conditions Contaminants | | Effects on telomere dynamic | Other biological effects | Sources | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|---|--------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Fishs | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Epinephelus coioides (Orange-spotted grouper) Muscle (n=5) | Bio-assays | B[a]P : 12.5 μg/g fish/days since I, 2 and 4 weeks | ↓ TA activity | Association with B[a]p exposure | Peterson et al., 2015 | | | | | | |
| Birds | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Haliaeetus albicilla (White-tailed eagle) nestlings Red blood cells (n=35) | Biomonitoring in situ (Troms County, Northern Norway) | 9 PCBs, p,p'DDE, HCB, oxy- chlordane, cis-chlordane, trans- nonachlor, cis-nonachlor | O TL length | ↓ SOD activity, ∆ IgY levels | Sletten et al., 2016 | | | | | | |
| Parus major (Great tit) nestlings and adults females Livers cells (n=24 and n=21) | Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Cu/Ni smelter in Harjavalta, Finland) | ME (Cu, Ni, As, Pb, Cd maj.) | ↓ TL length (nestlings), O TL length (adults females) | ↑ [As, Pb], ↓ SOD activity (nestlings), ↑ GPx activity, ↑ [Ca], ↓ lipoperoxidation | Stauffer et al., 2017 | | | | | | |
| Ficedula hypoleuca (European pied flycatcher) nestlings and adults females Livers cells (n=22 and n=23) | Biomonitoring in situ (Cu/Ni smelter in Harjavalta, Finland) d | ME (Cu, Ni, As, Pb, Cd maj.) | O TL length | ↑ [As, Pb], ↓ Gr and GST activities, ↓ lipoperoxidation (nestlings), | Stauffer et al., 2017 | | | | | | |
| Rissa tridactyla (Black-legged kittiwake) Red blood cells (n=38) | Biomonitoring in situ (Krvkkiefiellet colony of Kongsfjorden, Svalbard) Biomonitoring in situ | PCBs, p,p'DDE, HCB, cis- nonachlor, trans-nonachlor, [Oxychlordane] between 2000 to 7000 pg/g ww | ↓ TL length (adults females), O TL length adults males) | Association with [oxychlordane] | Blévin et al., 2016 | | | | | | |
| Rissa tridactyla Red blood cells (n=55) | (Krvkkiefiellet colony of Kongsfjorden, Svalbard) | PFAs | \uparrow TL length (in both sexes) | Association with [PFAs] | BLÉVIN ET AL., 2017 | | | | | | |

TABLE 28: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TELOMERE DYNAMICS AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONTAMINATION BY CONTAMINANTS IN ANIMAL.

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES

| Mammals | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|--|------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Rattus norvergicus (Sprague-Dawley rats) Fibroblast-type cell line (ADIPO-P2) | 18h to 15 days in vitro | Sodium citrate (20 mM) and Streptozotocin (2 mM) | ↓ TL length ↑ TL duplication, ↑ Translocation of telomeric sequences, ↑ Additional telomeric FISH signals, ↑ extra-chromosomal telomeric FISH signals | Association with chromosomic aberrations | Paviolo et al., 2015 | | | | | |
| Ctenomys torquatus (Collared tuco-tuco) kidney, muscle and skin tissues (n=30 control, n=36 exposed) | Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Butia, Candiota and Pelotas in Brazil) | Coal (PAH, ME) | ↓ TL length | ↑ DNA damage, O global DNA methylation | Matzenbacher et al., 2019 | | | | | |

182

In the following section, we propose several lines of research to improve knowledge on the impact of pollutants on TLs and TA in environmental toxicology for humans and animals (mainly those used as bioindicators for ecotoxicological purposes).

3.6. Perspectives for the assessment of telomere dynamic in environmental toxicology

Environmental toxicology concerns the toxic effects of environmental contaminants on living organisms in their environments. Gaining more knowledge on the impact of contaminants on TL dynamic could be relevant to understand these effects and possibly to propose adverse outcome pathways (AOP), which would impact life traits and population, as recommended by the OCDE (2020). This review showed that the level of knowledge on TLs, in general and particularly in environmental toxicology, is quite different for humans, vertebrates and invertebrates. Thus, perspectives for the possible use of TL length and TA activity as biomarkers in environmental toxicology depend on the considered group; they will be briefly developed for each of these groups of organisms, before moving to more specific consideration (either technical or biological).

For humans, although TLs are already used as biomarkers (TABLE 27), further studies are necessary to better fulfil some specifications (e.g., the link between TL variation and biological consequence or between TL lengthening and exposure to compounds with carcinogenic properties). For other vertebrates (TABLE 28), with the possible exception of birds, the use of TL length and TA activity as biomarkers appears far from ready in routine use for ecotoxicological purposes. This review highlights a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic in almost all bioindicator species: for the majority, the relation between ageing and TL length remains to be characterized, as well as the influence of many endogenous and environmental factors (acting possibly in interactions) on TL dynamic. This is also true for invertebrates, for which this area of research is virtually untouched.

The basic question here is whether early TL shortening could be a biomarker to reveal the impact of stress (physical, chemical and biological) on premature ageing and thus organism health and longevity. For this purpose, TL length and TA activity must satisfy some specifications: good sensitivity, knowledge about biological consequences for interpreting the responses of the biomarker, feasibility, field application, knowledge about variations in the amplitudes of responses, and the identification of confounding factors (*i.e.,* capacities to discriminate variations that could be caused by pollutants or environmental factors) (GARRIC ET AL., 2010). According to these specifications, many technical and

biological issues must be better considered for reliable TL length and TA activity assessments in environmental toxicology:

- The choice of analytical technique to assess TL length and TA activity. Currently, many methods exist to measure TLs (qPCR, flow-fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH), qFISH, single TL length analysis (STELA), terminal restriction fragment by southern blot or in-gel hybridization, dot blot) and detect TA activity (ddPCR). The choice of methods depends on scientific questions and technical considerations (see, for example, the reviews of MONTPETIT ET AL., 2014 and NUSSEY ET AL., 2014). For example, for the same sample, qPCR provides an estimate of the average TL length in a DNA extract but the diversity of the TL size for each cells cannot be determined. Molecular biology kits exist and have often used (e.g., by SCHUMPERT ET AL. (2015) to measure TA activity on two *Daphnia sp*). For reasons related to quickness, simplicity, robustness and cost, the qPCR TL measurement technique seems well appropriate and is widely used (CAWTHON ET AL., 2002; SHAY AND WRIGHT, 2019), even if the results are semiquantitative (but sufficient to identify variations between various exposures to contaminants).
- Influence of the quality of DNA extraction. In terms of measurement techniques and TL size, different kits can be preferred. It is important to use the same extraction method during all the studies (NUSSEY ET AL., 2014; RASCHENBERGER ET AL., 2016).
- Influence of storage conditions of the sample that can impact measurements. For example, FTA cards (*Flinders Technology Associates cards*) are not recommended for long-term storage (REICHERT ET AL., 2017) and repeated cycles of freezing/thawing can cause DNA alterations.
- Influence of the choice of biological tissue or cell type (GARDNER ET AL., 2007; KESÄNIEMI ET AL., 2019) according to physiological characteristics (*i.e.*: TA activity, ALT, cell division properties) and toxicological characteristics (*i.e.*: target, storage or metabolism of xenobiotics) is important to be considered. For example, YIP ET AL. (2017) chose to measure TLs on Medaka fish liver cells because of the regulatory functions of metabolism and homeostasis. For small organisms (e.g., arthropods) the recourse of pools and whole body may be relevant.
- Experiments must use of a sufficient number of individuals by age and/or environmental condition class to make reliable statistical comparisons to account for interindividual variations.
- The link between TL length, TA activity, longevity and ageing needs to be investigated in a wide range of animals, including invertebrates (notably those commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessment, e.g., crustacean, earthworms and mollusks, for which no data are available). Indeed, interspecific comparison to estimate variation of TL length or TA activity with ageing for species for which the dynamic of TLs is unknown is difficult because various patterns have been demonstrated for phylogenetically close species (e.g., between various bird species). For

example, a relation between TL length and ageing for *Daphnia pulicaria* has been evidenced (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015) and suggests that it could be interesting to assess the sublethal effects of contaminants or other stressors on this taxon with TL length measurements. However, this relation is not the same for *Daphnia pulex* where TL length does not evolve with ageing. Understanding the reason for the differences observed in phylogenetically close species, offers an exciting challenge.

- Many studies concerning the impact of contaminants on TL dynamic are correlative. To better evaluate the relevance of TL dynamic studies in environmental toxicology and to highlight by which mechanisms TL changes are related to exposure to chemicals, it is essential to develop more laboratory approaches. Some experiments conducted under controlled conditions should address the following questions:
 - What is the influence of environmental and individual factors on TL dynamic such as, gender, hormones, food source, crowding, disturbance, noise, infection, pathogens, parasites, and climatic factors, as described by ANGELIER ET AL. (2018)? For example, in female Medaka fish, oestradiol may be involved in TL maintenance by i) increasing TA activity (TERT mRNA upregulation, TERT phosphorylation) and ii) limiting oxidative DNA damage at the level of TLs (antioxidant gene upregulation) (YIP ET AL., 2017).
 - What are the consequences of TL attrition on survival or reproductive abilities and consequently on population dynamic?
 - What is the pattern(s) of the relationship between TL length and contaminant exposure? This question is supported by the fact that some carcinogenic compounds could lead to an elongation of TLs and because dose-reponse relationships have not been established even for the most prevalent pollutants either single or in mixture. This should be done considering acute but also subchronic and chronic exposure scenario.
 - What are the main mechanisms, including direct (DNA damages) and indirect ones (modulation of maintenance processes, oxidative stress...), linking chemical exposure and the alteration of the natural TL dynamic?

3.7. Conclusion

TLs are highly conserved in the animal kingdom, ubiquitous and appear "universal" in living organisms. However, many studies are still needed, as noted in the present review, before TLs can be used as a relevant biomarker (in species belonging to many biological groups) to predict the effects of various stressors (e.g., chemical contaminants) on health for humans and animal populations in the wild.

More data on TL dynamic could help build new AOP for chemical risk assessment based on mechanistic reasoning. TL dynamic studies could improve environmental monitoring and our understanding of the impact of disrupted anthropic ecosystems (on the health status, lifespans and dynamic of populations) and could reduce disciplinary borders in the One Health concept, because epidemiologists, ecotoxicologists, veterinarians and economists look for universal information concerning an organism's health.

4. Effet du vieillissement et de la contamination des sols sur la longueur des télomères pour l'escargot

Titre en anglais : Impact of ageing and soil contaminants on telomere length in the land snail

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Résumé

Les télomères (TL) sont des séquences d'ADN non-codantes qui raccourcissent généralement avec le viellissement et/ou l'exposition à des contaminants chimiques. Les bioindicateurs comme les escargots terrestres peuvent être utilisés pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sols contaminés. Comme pour la plupart des invertébrés, l'évolution des TL avec le vieillissement ou l'exposition à des contaminants est inconnue chez ce mollusque. L'objectif de notre étude est d'explorer les relations entre vieillissement, exposition à des contaminations, effets sub-létaux et longueur des TL chez le gastéropode terrestre Cantareus aspersus. La longueur des TL a été étudiée dans les hémocytes de C. aspersus provenant de cinq classes d'âge. L'impact des contaminants pour des escargots sub-adultes exposés à des sols contaminés par du Cd, du Hg et des HAP pendant un ou deux mois a été étudié. La bioaccumulation, la croissance, l'acquisition de la maturité sexuelle et les TL ont été mesurés. L'attrition des TL est significative entre les stades juvéniles et sub-adultes, mais pas après. L'exposition à du Cd augmente la mortalité (de près de 30 %). L'exposition aux sols pollués de l'étude inhibe la croissance (19 à 40 %) et l'acquisition de la maturité sexuelle (6 à 100 %). Bien que la santé des escargots exposés au Cd, Hg et aux HAP soit altérée, la longueur des TL dans les hémocytes n'a pas été perturbée, suggérant de fortes capacités de cette espèce d'escargot à maintenir ses TL sous stress chimique. Ces résultats décrivent pour la première fois la longueur des TL chez l'escargot Petitgris et révèlent que la relation communément proposée pour les vertébrés entre le racourcissement des TL et le vieillissement ou l'exposition à des contaminants ne peut pas être généralisée.

Abstract

Telomeres (TLs) are non-coding DNA sequences that are usually shortened with ageing and/or chemical exposure. Bioindicators such as the land snail can be used to assess the environmental risk of contaminated soils. As for most invertebrates, the evolution of TLs with ageing or exposure to contaminants is unknown in this mollusc. The aims of this study were to explore the relationships between ageing, contaminant exposure, sublethal effects and TL length in the terrestrial gastropod *Cantareus aspersus*. TL length was investigated in haemocytes from five age classes of *C. aspersus*. The impact of contaminants on sub-adult snails exposed to Cd, Hg or a mixture of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in soils for one or two months was studied. Bioaccumulation, growth, sexual maturity and TLs were measured. TL attrition was significant for the juvenile and sub-adult stages, but not later. Exposure to Cd increased the mortality (around 30 %). Exposure to polluted soils inhibited growth (19 % to 40 %) and sexual maturity (6 % to 100 %). Although the health of the snails exposed to Cd, Hg and PAHs was altered, TL length in haemocytes was not disturbed, suggesting a high capacity of this snail species to maintain its TLs in haemocytes under chemical stress. These results first address TL length in snails and reveal that the relationship commonly proposed for vertebrates between TL shortening and ageing or exposure to contaminants cannot be generalized.

4.1. Introduction

Telomeres (TLs) are highly conserved, repetitive and non-coding DNA sequences located at the ends of eukaryotic chromosomes (BLACKBURN, 1991; TRAUT ET AL., 2007). Their main function is to protect the ends of chromosomes from loss during cell division and degradation (BLACKBURN, 2005; OESEBURG ET AL., 2009). Telomeric DNA is progressively lost in most vertebrates during ageing due to the inability of linear chromosomes to be completely replicated by DNA polymerases (BLACKBURN, 1991). This loss can be accelerated by endogenous and exogenous factors, such as infections (GIRAUDEAU ET AL., 2019) or environmental contaminants (metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), etc.) (PERERA ET AL., 2018; LOUZON ET AL., 2019; MATZENBACHER ET AL., 2019). Indeed, contaminants can induce TL alterations according to several mechanisms of action such as DNA strand breakage at the TL level, deficiencies in DNA repair machinery, oxidative stress, mutations in genes encoding proteins related to TL maintenance and disturbances in the regulation of participants in TL maintenance (e.g., telomerase activity or alternative lengthening of TLs pathway) (LOUZON ET AL., 2019).

Data from longitudinal studies in vertebrates showed a TL loss within individuals with age (ZEICHNER ET AL., 1999; BRÜMMENDORF ET AL., 2002; SCOTT ET AL., 2006; BAERLOCHER ET AL., 2007; SALOMONS ET AL., 2009) with some exceptions (UJVARI AND MADSEN, 2009), although great variability exists depending on the biological tissue (PAROLINI ET AL., 2019) and on TL length and loss between age-matched individuals (HALL ET AL., 2004). The relationship between TL length and ageing is unknown for most invertebrates as concluded following a comparative approach between biological groups and the few studies on this topic have shown various patterns: either shortening, or no variation or lengthening (LOUZON ET AL., 2019). For example, for two species of *Daphnia*, two different patterns have been reported: the attrition in TLs with ageing in *D. pulicaria* and no variation in TL length in *D. pulex* (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015). These differences were related to the high telomerase activity that maintains TLs during the life cycle of *D. pulex* (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2015). Surprisingly, for the gastropod of Baïkal Lake, *Kobeltocochlea martensiana*, which has a lifespan of eight years (vs months for some *Daphnia spp.*), a lengthening of TLs with ageing was shown, probably due to the high activity of TL maintenance mechanisms (MAXIMOVA ET AL., 2017).

For terrestrial snails, the relationships between TL dynamics and ageing are unknown, especially for the soil quality bioindicator, *Cantareus aspersus*, which have an average life of five years and which belongs to various food chains at the air-soil-plant interface. It is consumed by predators and integrates various routes of exposure of contaminants in soils (digestive, cutaneous, respiratory) (COMFORT, 1957; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2002B; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006). For these ecological reasons, this ubiquitous

species is often used in environmental risk assessment of contaminated soils (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) by combining assessments of bioavailability (PAUGET ET AL., 2013) and health effects (BAURAND ET AL., 2014).

Based on data showing that chemicals are able to induce premature ageing and decrease the lifespan of humans (CHEN ET AL., 2013; PURI ET AL., 2017), it is relevant to explore the relationships among TL dynamics, health effects and contaminant exposure in *C. aspersus*. This could contribute to filling the gap between the molecular and individual effects of contaminants. Considering this objective, the first aim is to describe how TL dynamics in haemocytes is affected by ageing in snails living in a safe environment. This study also aimed to investigate the relationships between the exposure to contaminants in soils (cadmium, mercury or PAHs), the alteration in health status (by monitoring survival, growth and the attainment of sexual maturity) and TL length in *C. aspersus*.

4.2. Material and methods

4.2.1. Snails

Breeding snails from a snail farm (CFPPA of Châteaufarine, 25000 Besançon, France) were used to produce a FI laboratory generation. The species (*C. aspersus*) verification was carried out by AllGenetics & Biology SL (www.allgenetics.eu, 15 008 A Coruña, Spain). After incubating eggs, hatchlings were reared in the laboratory under controlled conditions (20 °C, 80 % relative humidity, photoperiod of 16 h of light and 8 h of dark) (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2000) for two years. Snails reared of I month old were classified as juveniles, 3 months old as sub-adults, 4 months old as young adults, 5 months old as young reproducers and 2 years old as old reproducers (FIGURE 40). Eight snails of each age class were selected to investigate the relationships between ageing and TL length.

| eniles Sub-adults (1 1 month ~5 g - 3 mon | (t0) Young adults (t1 nths ~9 g - 4 months | .) Young reproducers (t2) s ~11 g - 5 months | Old reproducers ~14 g – 24 months |
|--|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| | | | |
| | × | × | |

FIGURE 40: THE INVESTIGATED C. ASPERSUS AGE CLASSES.

To study the effect of exposure to contaminants, only sub-adult snails were used to avoid confounding factors related to growth and reproduction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A). Two groups of sub-adults were exposed in quadruplicate to different contaminants for I and 2 months. Snails were fed with uncontaminated commercial food (TABLE 29) Helixal[®] (Berthon S.A., France) *ad libitum* during growth and exposure.

4.2.2. Soils

Snails were exposed to four different soil conditions (ISO, Cd, Hg and PAHs). An artificial ISO soil was prepared according to the OCDE (1984) guidelines (mixture of 70 % fine sand, 20 % kaolin clay, and 10 % coarse ground sphagnum peat, and the pH was adjusted to 6.7 ± 0.1 with powdered calcium carbonate, 99.5 %, Sigma Aldrich, Lyon, France). The cation exchange capacity (CEC) was 13.5 cmol kg⁻¹, and the organic matter content (estimated on the basis of the loss of ignition) was 12%. The ISO substrate was spiked at 13 000 mg.kg Hg.kg⁻¹ dry weight (dw) with a mercury chloride solution (HgCl₂, 99.5 %, Sigma Aldrich) or at 1500 mg.kg⁻¹ dw with a cadmium chloride solution (CdCl₂, 99.9 %, Sigma Aldrich), in both cases diluted in a volume of osmotic water needed to achieve 50% of the soil water holding capacity (PAUGET ET AL., 2012). The soils were then allowed to stabilize for 5 days prior to the experiment. An anthropogenic French soil (Vieux Charmont, France) contaminated with PAHs due to past industrial activities of the automobile sector (BASOL 25.0020, 2015) was used under the same preparation conditions (except spiking). Concentrations were measured by ICP-MS for Cd and Hg (MARIET ET AL., 2017A) and by GC-MS/MS for the 16 PAHs listed by the US EPA (MORIN-CRINI ET AL., 2014) (TABLE 29).

4.2.3. Exposure modalities

Sub-adult snails (3-months old snails) were exposed to Cd or Hg contaminated substrate, PAHs contaminated soils and or uncontaminated ISO substrate for 1 and 2 months. For each of the 4 substrates/soils, six snails were exposed in quadruplicate in transparent polystyrene containers (4032 cm³) (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY, 2000). Two snails per replicate (n = 8 individuals per exposure conditions) were sampled randomly after 1 and 2 months for analysis of the visceral concentrations of contaminants and assessment of TL length. Briefly, Helixal® food was provided in a petri dish left on the bottom of the container, the day/night cycle photoperiod was 18/6 h, the temperature was 20 °C \pm 1, and the air relative humidity was 80 \pm 10 %. Three times a week, the containers were cleaned, the faeces were removed, survival was monitored, and the food was renewed. At the beginning of exposure (t0), sub-adult snails weighed 5.22 g \pm 0.58, and the internal concentrations of Cd, Hg and PAHs were measured in the visceral mass from six sub-adult snails (TABLE 29).

TABLE 29: CONCENTRATION OF CD, HG AND SUM OF THE 16 PAHS IN UNCONTAMINATED COMMERCIAL FOOD (HELIXAL®), SOILS AND SNAILS BEFORE EXPOSURE (T0) AND AFTER 1 MONTH (T1) AND 2 MONTHS (T2) EXPOSURE TO CD, HG OR PAHS IN SOILS (MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR CD, HG AND PAHS CONCENTRATIONS, EXPRESSED IN MG KG⁻¹ DRY WEIGHT (DW) FOR CD OR HG IN THE SOILS, FOOD AND SNAILS; WHILE PAHS ARE EXPRESSED IN MG KG⁻¹ FRESH WEIGHT (FW) OF SNAILS AND DW OF THE FOOD AND SOILS).

| | | | Cd (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | Hg (mg.kg ⁻¹ dw) | Σ PAHs (mg.kg ⁻¹) |
|--------|-----------|----|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Food | Helixa | R | 0.430 | 0.490 | < 1.00 |
| | ISO soil | | 0.315 | 0.029 | 0.044 |
| C.il | Cd soi | I | 1508 | - | - |
| 3011 | Hg soil | | - | 13410 | - |
| | PAHs soil | | - | - | 9.36 |
| | Т0 | t0 | 3.57 ± 4.83 | 0.017 ± 0.014 | 0.016 ± 0.003 |
| | ISO | tl | 1.84 ± 0.021 | 0.009 ± 0.000 | 0.017 ± 0.002 |
| | | t2 | 4.08 ± 1.72 | 0.009 ± 0.000 | 0.017 ± 0.002 |
| | Cd | tl | 654 ± 275 | - | - |
| Snails | Cu | t2 | 781 ± 243 | - | - |
| | ш., | tl | - | 2136 ± 754 | - |
| | пg | t2 | - | 2458 ± 714 | - |
| | PAHs | tl | - | - | 0.035 ± 0.021 |
| | | t2 | - | - | 0.026 ± 0.01 I |

4.2.4. Growth and attainment of sexual maturity assessments

Growth was assessed monthly by weighing the fresh mass (whole body) of snails. The growth inhibition (GI) was calculated as follows (after validation of the absence of abnormal mortality of snails exposed to the ISO soil) (Eq. 21):

$$GI = 100 - \left(\frac{\text{mean mass of exposed snails}}{\text{mean mass of snails exposed to uncontaminated ISO soil}}\right) \times 100$$
(EQ. 21)

Sexual maturity was assessed monthly by counting the snails exhibiting a shell with a curled edge, which can be used as an indicator of the attainment of sexual maturity in snails (LUCARZ AND GOMOT, 1985; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016). The inhibition of the attainment of sexual maturity (SLSI) was calculated by the EQ. 22.

$$SLSI = 100 - \left(\frac{number \ of \ exposed \ snalls \ having \ acquired \ sexual \ maturity}{number \ of \ snalls \ on \ ISO \ soil \ having \ acquired \ sexual \ maturity}\right) \times 100$$
(EQ. 22)

4.2.5. Bioaccumulation measurement

Internal concentrations of Cd and Hg were measured according to the methodology detailed in PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY (2015). Snails were frozen at -80 °C. After thawing, the visceral mass was dissected for each snail and lyophilized for two days before Cd and Hg analyses. Viscera were digested between 47 °C and 98 °C for 265 min (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) in 7 mL of nitric acid (HNO₃, 65 %, ultratraces Optima®, FisherScientific, Illkirch, France) that was diluted with 43 mL of Milli-Q water. Then, samples were filtered through a 1 µm filter and diluted as a function of concentration between 10 to 100x for Cd and 10 to 10000x for Hg analyses in ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France). Analyses were validated with a certified material (TORT2, lobster hepatopancreas, Canada). The recovery rates were 98 % and 116 % for Cd and Hg, respectively. For the PAHs analysis, two fresh visceral masses per replicate were dissected and pooled. Then, pooled samples were mashed with 25 ceramic sphere mills (FastPrep, MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France) for two cycles (4.0 m/s, 20 s) interrupted by a pause time of 180 s. PAHs were extracted with QuECHERs methodology from RESTEK (Lisse, France), and concentrations of the 16 PAHs (SUN ET AL., 1998) were measured by GC-MS/MS (7890A GC system, 7000 GC triple quadrupole mass spectrometer, HP5MS column, Agilent, Massy, France). The bioaccumulated concentrations in the snails and the soil concentrations were used to calculate the bioaccumulation factors (BAF).

4.2.6. DNA extraction from haemocytes

The haemolymph of snails was collected by individually puncturing the heart with a needle (18 G) and was frozen at -20 °C in sterile 1.5 mL microtubes (DNase, RNase, endotoxin free, VWR). After quick thawing at 4 °C, DNA extractions were performed using a preliminary optimized method to isolate DNA with a sufficient amount and quality from haemolymph. Salting out was the selected methodology (Gentra Puregene Blood Kit, Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France). The concentration and purity of extracted DNA were checked with a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific, Illkirch, France) and by fluorescence (Quantifluor® ONE dsDNA System, Promega, Charbonnière-les-Bains, France). The quality and the integrity of DNA were confirmed by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide.

4.2.7. Telomere length measurement

For quickness and robustness (NUSSEY ET AL., 2014), TLs were measured by quantitative realtime PCR amplification (qPCR) (CAWTHON, 2002) using the method described by CRISCUOLO ET AL. (2009) and adapted to land snails. This method amplified telomeric DNA and expressed its quantity as a T/S ratio, where T was the quantity of telomeric DNA and S was the quantity of a gene used as a reference (gene that is non-variable in copy number in the study species) (REICHERT ET AL., 2017). Primers used for the telomeric DNA of snails were the same as those used for humans (forward: 5'-CGGTTTGTTTGGGTTTGGGTTTGGGTTTGGGTTTGGGTT-3', reverse: 5'-GGCTTGCCTTACC CTTACCCTTACCCTTACCCT-3') because the TL sequences of C. aspersus are the same as those of humans (VITTURI ET AL., 2005). To identify the most appropriate reference gene, we conducted preliminary analyses considering a variety of candidate reference genes and primer pairs. The most consistent amplification profile and cleanest melting curve was obtained using Eurofins Genomics primers targeting the β -actin gene, which we selected as our reference gene (forward: 5'-GCTGGTCGTGACCTCACAGAT-3', reverse: 5'-AGCTTCTCCTTGATGTCACGAAC-3'). The TL and β -actin primers were used at a concentration of 4 pmol for a final volume of 10 μ L containing 5 µL of GoTaq[®] qPCR master mix (Promega, Charbonnière-les-Bains, France). Real-time amplification of TL and β -actin sequences was performed in separate 384 well plates filled by an automated liquid handling workstation (epmotion, Eppendorf, Montesson, France). The TL thermal profile was 2 min at 95 °C, followed by 27 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 56 °C and 30 s at 72 °C. The β-actin thermal profile was 2 min at 95 °C, followed by 40 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C. Both assays were followed by melting curve analysis (60-95 °C; I °C/5 s ramp). Due to the different thermal profiles between TL and β -actin, two 384 well plates were used in our study to measure TL length of all our samples. The first is for the amplification of TL and the second is for the amplification of the β-actin gene. Each DNA extract was tested in duplicate due to the use of the calibrated automated liquid handling workstation and to the fact that mean coefficient of variation intra-run were 0.51 % \pm 0.05 and 1.07 % \pm 0.09 for Cq- β -actin and Cq-TL, respectively. Moreover, the intraclass correlation coefficient intra plate for the T/S ratio was ranked excellent, 0.949 (CICCHETTI, 1994; NETTLE ET AL., 2019). Relative TL length (RTL) was calculated for each sample by the ratio of T/S. DNA from the same reference snail was used as a golden sample and to generate a reference curve to control for the amplifying efficiency of the qPCR between various 384 well plates (based on a standard range of 7 points, the amplification efficiencies for TL and β -actin amplification were 99.3 % and 99.7 %, respectively).

4.2.8. Data analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with R (version 3.4.2.). Normality and homogeneity of variances were checked with Shapiro-Wilk and Bartlett tests, respectively. The relationship between ageing and TL length was fitted with a non-linear model using the nlme (nonlinear mixed effect)

procedure (LINDSTROM AND BATES, 1990) (package nlme). The adequacy and quality of the model were compared (package pgirmess) according to the Akaike information criterion (AICc) (AKAIKE, 1998) to select the best model. Then, differences in TL length between age classes or control (ISO) vs contaminated soils were assessed with a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the multiple pairwise comparison test (MAGNIEZ ET AL., 2018). The Wilcoxon test was used to distinguish significant differences of mortality, growth inhibition and the inhibition of the attainment of the sexual maturity between the different soils (control ISO vs contaminated) after transforming data with log₁₀ (x+1).

4.3. Results and discussion

4.3.1. Relationships between ageing and telomere length

TLs were studied in the haemocytes of a C. aspersus population because they are involved in immune functions of gastropods (PILA ET AL., 2016) and haemolymph sampling is a non-lethal way in snails. The relationship between TL length in haemocytes and ageing in C. aspersus was studied for five age classes, from juveniles to old adults (FIGURE 40). The attrition in TLs in haemocytes (p-value < 0.001, r² adjusted = 0.364) (FIGURE 41A) was significant between juveniles and all other stages (p-values < 0.05) (FIGURE 41B). Indeed, TL length decreased rapidly in C. aspersus haemocytes during the first phase of growth before the maturation of the genital tract (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008A) and then, was stable from sub-adults to old reproducers (FIGURE 41B). TL attrition is one of the nine hallmarks of ageing identified in most organisms (LOPEZ-OTIN ET AL., 2013) because chromosomes lose telomeric patterns (HARLEY ET AL., 1992; MURAKI ET AL., 2012) at each cell division. This attrition in TLs was detected at a different magnitude in the foot of the freshwater mollusc Benedictia fragilis, in which TL length decreased progressively during approximately 0 to 5 years for males (studied over 8 years) (MAXIMOVA ET AL., 2017). However, for two other long-lived freshwater molluscs studied from 0 to 8 years, Benedictia baicalensis and K. martensiana, the patterns were different and sex-specific, with an increase in TL length in the foot with ageing (MAXIMOVA ET AL., 2017). Notably, the influence of gender is irrelevant to study for C. aspersus due to its protandrous hermaphroditic reproductive system (BRIDE AND GOMOT, 1991). These various patterns can possibly be explained by a higher telomerase activity in tissues that maintain TL length (GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1985; GREIDER AND BLACKBURN, 1989) during ageing (GOYNS AND LAVERY, 2000; SHAY, 2016), as demonstrated by SCHUMPERT ET AL. (2015) for the aquatic arthropod Daphnia pulex and for the marine bivalve Arctica islandica (GRUBER ET AL., 2014). Although rapid attrition during growth seems not to be a general rule for invertebrates excepted for some organisms such as the Sydney rock oyster (Saccostrea glomerata) (GODWIN ET AL., 2012), this pattern is often found in vertebrate species (ANGELIER ET AL., 2018; DUGDALE ET AL., 2018) (e.g., Acrocephalus sechellensis, SPURGIN ET AL. (2018)). The stability of TL length after the initial growth of land snails is similar to the TL dynamics described in invertebrates that have a long lifespan and high telomerase activity, such as lobster (KLAPPER ET AL., 1998). This finding is also consistent with the hypothesis of SCHUMPERT ET AL. (2015) who assumed that the differences in TL length dynamics with ageing between the short and long lifespans of *Daphnia* spp. were associated with an enhanced ability to protect individuals from proteotoxicity with chaperone HSP70 (SCHUMPERT ET AL., 2014).



FIGURE 41: A: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RELATIVE TELOMERE LENGTH (RTL) IN HAEMOCYTES AND AGE OF *C. ASPERSUS* (N=8 SNAILS PER AGE CLASS REPRESENTED BY BLACK DOTS); B: RTL IN HAEMOCYTES OF C. ASPERSUS OF DIFFERENT AGE CLASSES (STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES ARE INDICATED BY LETTERS WHEN P-VALUES < 0.05).

4.3.2. Lethal and sublethal effects of contaminants

The mortality rates we measured in the snails exposed to the uncontaminated ISO substrate, 4.25 % and 8.50 % after one and two months of experiment, respectively, were closed to that reported for snails reared on uncontaminated ISO substrates for 168 days (*i.e.*, 4 %) in the study of GIMBERT ET AL. (2016). For the soils contaminated with Hg and PAHs (TABLE 29), the survival rates were similar to those of the ISO groups (p-values > 0.05), while it was lower for Cd-exposed snails compared to controls (p-value = 0.011), reaching 20.5 % after two months of exposure (FIGURE 42A). This high mortality of Cd exposed snails is in accordance with the literature, notably after Cd ingestion (GOMOT, 1997). Snail growth was inhibited after one and two months of exposure to all of the contaminated soils, with inhibitions of 34.4 % \pm 10.5, 39.3 % \pm 4.95, and 18.5 % \pm 5.04 for snails in Cd, Hg and PAHs substrates/soils, respectively (FIGURE 42B). Such inhibition in the sub-adults was in the same range as that reported for juvenile *C. aspersus* (COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2002A; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016). Some contaminants, such as Cd or Hg, are also known to cause reproductive disorders in snails (DE VAUFLEURY AND KERHOAS, 2000; GIMBERT ET AL., 2016), especially Cd, which is an endocrine disruptor (SABIR ET AL., 2019) for pulmonate molluscs (LAGADIC ET AL., 2007). All the studied contaminants inhibited sexual maturity after one and two months of exposure, whereas 100 % of snails were sexually mature after one month of exposure on the control substrate (ISO). No snail exposed to Cd or Hg was mature after one month of exposure, while only a few individuals matured (12.5%) on Cd substrate after two months of exposure (FIGURE 42C). In PAHs soil, maturity was also strongly inhibited after one and two months of exposure but was significantly lower than the inhibition of maturity in the snails exposed to the Cd and Hg soils (FIGURE 42C).



FIGURE 42: A: PERCENTAGE OF MORTALITY OF SNAILS (MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION), B: PERCENTAGE OF GROWTH AND C: SEXUAL MATURITY INHIBITION (MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION) AFTER EXPOSURE TO CONTAMINATED (CD, HG, PAHS) OR UNCONTAMINATED SOILS (ISO) FOR I AND 2 MONTHS (STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES ARE INDICATED BY LETTERS WITH P-VALUE < 0.05).

The disruption of growth and sexual maturity can be the result of the reallocation of energy to excretion and repair systems, a decrease in metabolic performance, behaviour alterations for food intake and neuro-endocrine disruption (GOMOT ET AL., 1992; GOMOT AND GOMOT, 1995; MATTHIESSEN AND GIBBS, 1998; LAGADIC ET AL., 2007; DRUART ET AL., 2017; SABIR ET AL., 2019). Because the concentration of Hg-contaminated substrate reflects those of contaminated soils found in anthropic areas as the mining district of Almaden (Spain) (MOLINA ET AL., 2006), the inhibition of growth and sexual maturity can impact the snail population size and dynamic. The sub-lethal effects we measured showed that the health status of snails exposed to contaminated substrates/soils in this study was strongly altered.

4.3.3. Bioaccumulation

Bioaccumulation measurements at 0, 1 and 2 months are presented in TABLE 29. The results showed high internal concentrations of Cd, Hg and PAHs after exposure to contaminated substrates/soils, while they remained low in the control snails (TABLE 29). Bioaccumulation factors (BAFs) at 1 and 2 months for Cd- and Hg-contaminated soils were 0.434, 0.518, 0.159, and 0.183,

respectively. These results were in accordance with those obtained by COEURDASSIER ET AL. (2002A) after exposing juvenile snails to 1000 mg.kg⁻¹ Cd for 28 days in artificial ISO substrate (BAF = 0.290). BAFs were lower for PAHs (for one and two months: 0.004 and 0.003, respectively) than for Cd and Hg, probably due to the low contamination of the soil used (9.36 mg.kg⁻¹) and possible metabolization of PAHs (ISMERT ET AL., 2002; SVERDRUP ET AL., 2006). Measured internal concentrations may result of the digestive and cutaneous exposure of snails to metals and PAHs in soils (GOMOT ET AL., 1989; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2000; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; BAMZE ATTOUMANI ET AL., 2020). The results reveal bioaccumulation of the studied compounds associated to damage on some physiological endpoints (survival, growth).

4.3.4. Effects of contaminants on telomere length in haemocytes

Based on the bioaccumulation level and the sub-lethal effects we measured, the health status of snails exposed to contaminated substrates/soils was altered. Additionally, some molecular markers can be used as early indicators of the alteration in health status (MLEIKI ET AL., 2018), TLs are commonly proposed as good candidates to reveal exposure and deleterious effects of environmental contaminants on individuals and their populations (LOUZON ET AL., 2019). However, no significant difference (p-value > 0.05, FIGURE 43) in RTLs was detected between the snails exposed to contaminated substrates/soils and the snails exposed to uncontaminated substrates for one or two months.

Snails have been previously described as sensitive to oxidative stress and have exhibited genotoxic damages notably on haemocytes when exposed to soils contaminated with inorganic and organic compounds, such as Cd, glyphosate, and PAHs (REGOLI ET AL., 2006; ITZIOU ET AL., 2011; ABDEL-HALIM ET AL., 2013; ANGELETTI ET AL., 2013; BAURAND ET AL., 2014; BAURAND ET AL., 2015C). However, *C. aspersus* seems to have a strong ability to maintain its TL length in haemolymph even under chemical stress. This can possibly be linked to telomerase activity and alternative lengthening of TLs pathway activities or to the induction of other mechanisms to protect and repair TLs, such as DNA repair mechanisms. In any case, the mechanisms underlying sublethal effects observed on the growth or sexual maturation of snails exposed to Cd, Hg and PAHs (at least at the tested concentrations and durations of exposure) do not indicate TL alteration in haemocytes of surviving snails. Moreover, although the lifespan and TL length of vertebrates can be modified (shortened or lengthened) by chemicals (LOUZON ET AL., 2019), some studies have shown that TL length is not altered by pollutants, despite cytotoxic and genotoxic damages occurred, notably for soybean farmers exposed to various pesticides (DE OLIVEIRA ET AL., 2019). Nevertheless, as it has been shown that TL length varied across somatic tissues

suggesting independent TL dynamics (PAROLINI ET AL., 2019), further measurements of TLs on other biological tissues may be considered in the future.



FIGURE 43: RELATIVE TELOMERE LENGTH (RTL) IN THE HAEMOCYTES OF SNAILS (N=8 PER CONDITION) EXPOSED TO CONTAMINATED (CD, HG, PAHS) OR UNCONTAMINATED SOILS (ISO) FOR I AND 2 MONTHS (NO STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SOILS AND/OR EXPOSURE DURATIONS).

4.4. Conclusions

This study provides the first results on the TL length dynamic in terrestrial gastropods according to ageing or chemical exposure to contaminated soils. TL attrition was observed only during the first phase of growth suggesting that TL length in the haemocytes of *C. aspersus* is not a specific marker of ageing for this invertebrate. The health of the snails exposed to Cd, Hg or PAHs was altered (survival, growth and sexual maturity) but TL length in haemocytes was not changed, suggesting the high capacity of this snail species to maintain its TLs in haemocytes under chemical stress. Present results first address TL length in land snails and reveal that the relationship proposed for vertebrates between TL shortening and ageing or exposure to contaminants cannot be generalized to the terrestrial gastropods.

PARTIE IV – COUPLAGE D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR UNE EVALUATION INTEGRATIVE DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX ET SANITAIRES DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES

I.Bioaccessibilité des métal(loïde)s dans les sols pour les humains et leurs biodisponibilités pour l'escargot : une voie pour associer l'évaluation des risques sanitaires et environnementaux ?

Titre en anglais : Bioaccessibility of metal(loid)s in soils to humans and their bioavailability to snails: A way to associate human health and ecotoxicological risk assessment?

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Résumé

Les évaluations des risques sanitaires (ERS) et environnementaux (ERE) des sols contaminés sont fréquemment effectuées séparément sur la base des concentrations totales en contaminants dans les sols, sans considération des concepts de mobilité, bioaccessibilité et biodisponibilité. Cependant, plusieurs essais chimiques et biologiques rarement combinés peuvent être employés pour une évaluation plus précise de l'exposition des organismes aux métal(loïde)s et ainsi pour mieux évaluer les liens entre la contamination du sol et les effets. Pour l'homme, la méthode de bioaccessibilité unifiée (UBM) évalue la bioaccessibilité orale, tandis que pour la faune du sol comme les escargots terrestres, les tests de bioaccumulation reflètent la biodisponibilité des contaminants. L'objectif de cette étude est d'explorer les relations entre la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot de l'arsenic, du cadmium et du plomb présents dans vingt-neuf sols contaminés. Les résultats montrent une modulation de la bioaccumulation et de la bioaccessibilité des métal(loïde)s par les paramètres physico-chimiques des sols (matière organique par exemple). Pour les trois métal(loïde)s étudiés, de fortes relations ont été modélisées entre le test UBM et le test escargot ($0,77 < r^2$ aj. < 0,95), en fonction des paramètres des régressions linéaires (contaminants et phases du test UBM). Les modèles originaux proposés montrent la faisabilité de lier la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme avec la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot des contaminants dans les sols et la pertinence de cette association pour les évaluations intégratives des risques des sites et sols contaminés.

Abstract

Human health risk assessment (HHRA) and ecotoxicological risk assessment (ERA) of contaminated soils are frequently performed separately and based on total soil concentrations without considering the concepts of mobility, bioaccessibility and bioavailability. However, some chemical and biological assays rarely used in combination can be applied to more accurately assess the exposure of organisms to metal(loid)s and thus to better estimate the links between soil contamination and effects. For humans, the unified bioaccessibility method (UBM) assesses oral bioaccessibility, while for soil fauna such as land snails, the bioaccumulation test reflects the bioavailability of contaminants. The aim of this study is to explore the relationship between oral bioaccessibility and the bioavailability of arsenic, cadmium and lead in twenty-nine contaminated soils. The results show a modulation of bioaccumulation and bioaccessibility of metal(loid)s by soil physicochemical parameters (organic matter especially). For the three metal(loid)s studied, strong relationships were modelled between the UBM and snail tests (0.77 < $r_{adj.}^2$ < 0.95), depending on the parameters of the linear regressions (contaminant and phases of the UBM test). The original models proposed demonstrate the feasibility of linking bioaccessibility to humans and bioavailability to snails and the relevance of their association for an integrative risk assessment of contaminated soils.

I.I. Introduction

Human health risk assessment (HHRA) and ecotoxicological risk assessment (ERA) of contaminated soils are challenging because they involve a mixture of scientific, regulatory and budgetary requirements. In the current context of contaminated soils (CE, 2015), HHRA and ERA are often conducted independently and are mainly based on the measurement of total contaminant concentrations (MEEM, 2017; SONG ET AL., 2017). Considering that the total amount of a contaminant in the soil is mobile and available for organisms could lead to discrepancies between the real and estimated mobility of contaminants. Indeed, contaminants could be highly mobile in slightly contaminated soil and relatively low mobile in highly contaminated soil. To prevent misinterpretation, risk assessment of contaminated soils should consider bioavailable concentrations, which may be modulated by the physicochemical properties of soils (e.g., pH, clays content, and organic matter (OM) content) (ALLEN, 2002; PAUGET ET AL., 2011; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A; ISO 19204, 2017). In this context, bioavailability assessment based on oral bioaccessibility (i.e., the fraction of an ingested contaminant that is soluble in digestive fluids) to humans and bioaccumulation by soil organisms are relevant surrogates for evaluating the exposure of organisms to contaminants in soils (ISO 17402, 2008). In addition, assessment of organism exposure can be required for polluted soil management to determine the cause-and-effect relationships (toxicological bioavailability) (ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19204, 2017). The oral bioaccessibility of contaminants in soils can be assessed with in vitro assays (RUBY ET AL., 1996; OOMEN ET AL., 2002), such as the unified bioaccessibility method (UBM) for arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb) (WRAGG ET AL., 2011; DENYS ET AL., 2012). The principle of the UBM is to mimic the human digestive process with chemical extractions simulating gastric and gastro-intestinal phases (ISO 17924, 2018). The UBM has been shown to be relevant in estimating human exposure in various contexts, such as mining soils (CABOCHE ET AL., 2010), kitchen gardens and lawns (WATERLOT ET AL., 2017), old town soils (CAVE ET AL., 2018) and the influence of earthworm bioturbation (LEVÊQUE ET AL., 2019). The bioavailability of contaminants in soils can also be assessed using ex situ (e.g., in laboratory) bioaccumulation studies with bioindicators (ISO 17402, 2008), such as the terrestrial gastropod Cantareus aspersus (PAUGET ET AL., 2013B; PAUGET ET AL., 2017; DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2006). This land snail integrates three pathways of exposure: digestive (ingestion of soil particles, up to 40% to satisfy its physiological needs), cutaneous (transfer from the soil to the snail foot) and pulmonary (inhalation of soil particles) (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2000; DE VAUFLEURY ET AL., 2006; SCHEIFLER ET AL., 2006; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; PAUGET ET AL., 2012; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). For this ubiquitous soil invertebrate, relationships between total concentration, bioavailability, bioaccumulation, and the influence of various factors (sources of exposure, physicochemical parameters of soils, etc.) have been investigated in several studies, specifically for metallic elements in soils (GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND

PIHAN, 2000; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; PAUGET ET AL., 2012; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015), making this organism a relevant candidate to explore possible the convergence between HHRA and ERA.

Currently, HHRA and ERA approaches have rarely been conducted together on contaminated soils to offer an integrative risk assessment despite the growing interest in associating them in recent years (RAHMAN ET AL., 2017; YU ET AL., 2019). Toxicological data for humans and ecotoxicological data are available but seldom associated, except in safety data sheets for chemical compounds. Surprisingly, their association for the evaluation of polycontaminated environmental matrices, e.g., in an *a posteriori* ERA approach, is infrequent (RAHMAN ET AL., 2017). However, such an association needs to be developed for the preservation of both human and environmental health, e.g., to promote the One Health concept to assess the effects of multiple stressors at the human-animal-ecosystem interface (DESTOUMIEUX-GARZON ET AL., 2018). For the time being, integrative risk assessment has focused on a few contaminants, such as nonylphenol (OMS, 2004), but rarely on polycontaminated matrices, as is often the case with soils. However, some recent soil quality indices developed with land snails have been shown to be relevant to highlighting the potential transfer of metals to living organisms, including human populations (MARIET ET AL., 2017A). The potential of such indices for the development of methodologies for an integrative risk assessment of contaminated soils remains to be explored. In this context, the aim of this study is to confront assessment methodologies for exposure to metal(loid)s in soils for humans (UBM test) and for a soil fauna organism living at the air-soil-plant interface (snail test). Using a wide range of soils, we also aim to estimate the influence of the physicochemical parameters of soils (e.g., texture, pH and OM content) on the metal(loid)s in soils that can potentially be absorbed by humans (i.e., bioaccessibility) and on the metal(loid)s absorbed and accumulated in snails (i.e., bioavailability).

I.2. Experimental

I.2.I. Soils

Twenty-nine soils were sampled from contaminated fields in France after humus removal (A horizon) (FIGURE 44), and the samples were dried ($<40^{\circ}$ C) and sieved at 250 µm. The physicochemical parameters were then measured with the appropriate ISO standard protocols (TABLEAU 30). The pH_{water} ranged from 4.3 to 8.3, and the OM contents ranged from 15.4 to 360 mg kg⁻¹. The As, Cd and Pb concentrations were obtained by hot block system-assisted digestion (Environmental Express® SC100, Charleston, SC, USA) and determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, 7900, Agilent Technology, Les Ulis, France). More specifically, 300 mg of soil sample was digested in a mixture of 1.5 mL HNO₃ (70 %) and 4.5 mL HCl (37 %) at 95 °C for 1 h and 30 min. After

mineralization, digestion products were brought to 25 mL with ultrapure water (resistivity of 18.0 M Ω cm⁻¹) and stored at 4 °C prior to analysis. The recovery rates as determined with a certified standard (ERM CC141, Loam soil, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) for all metal(loids) were 115 ± 7 %.



FIGURE 44: MAP OF SOIL LOCATIONS (FROM MAP BACKGROUND OF OPENSTREETMAP©).

TABLEAU 30: SOIL TYPES AND PHYSICOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS (OM: ORGANIC MATTER, CORG: ORGANIC CARBON, CEC: CATION EXCHANGE CAPACITY, ALOX AND FEOX ARE EXCHANGEABLE CATIONS IN SOILS, EMBA: EMBANKMENT, FARM:: FARMING, GRAS.: GRASSLAND, INDUS.: INDUSTRIAL, U: UKNOWN, URB.: URBAN).

| | Sito | Clay | | Sand | | ОМ | C | C2C0 | CEC | Alox | Feox | As | Cd | Pb |
|-------------|-------|------|----------|------|-----------------------|---------|---------|----------|-------|-------|-------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Soils | JILE | | Silt (%) | | \mathbf{pH}_{water} | | | $CaCO_3$ | (cmol | (cmol | (cmol | (mg kg [·] | (mg kg [.] | (mg kg ⁻ |
| | use | (%) | | (ڥ) | | (g кg) | (g kg) | (g кg) | kg⁻') | kg⁻') | kg⁻¹) | ') | ') | ') |
| 01 | Urb. | 15.2 | 41.4 | 41.9 | 7.7 | 161 | 92.7 | 15.0 | 20.9 | 0.023 | 0.005 | 13.4 | 1.32 | 430 |
| 02 | Ind. | 16.1 | 47.4 | 36.5 | 7.4 | 71.1 | 40.9 | 1.3 | 17.5 | 0.035 | 0.006 | 11.5 | 1.91 | 320 |
| O 3 | Ind. | 23.1 | 47.8 | 29.1 | 8.0 | 61.1 | 35.1 | 84.0 | 18.0 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 228 | 257 | 6256 |
| O 4 | Ind. | 16.6 | 41.0 | 42.4 | 7.8 | 304 | 175 | 22.3 | 12.3 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 74.4 | 48.0 | 5224 |
| 05 | Ind. | 12.3 | 35.0 | 52.7 | 6.8 | 360 | 207 | 3.6 | 11.7 | 0.054 | 0.007 | 108 | 85.7 | 8971 |
| 06 | Ind. | 29.1 | 45.9 | 25.0 | 8.1 | 24.3 | 14.0 | 91.2 | 24.6 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 139 | 109 | 2184 |
| 07 | Ind. | 21.5 | 44.0 | 34.5 | 8.3 | 112 | 64. I | 145 | 22.3 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 12.8 | 4.2 | 385 |
| 08 | Ind. | 22.8 | 70.6 | 6.6 | 8.3 | 27.1 | 15.6 | 162 | 16.5 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 5.64 | 0.640 | 30.7 |
| 09 | Ind. | 20.0 | 56.9 | 23.1 | 8.0 | 111 | 63.9 | 38.6 | 17.3 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 23.3 | 7.34 | 534 |
| 010 | Ind. | 23.7 | 48.2 | 28.1 | 5.7 | 205 | 118 | 1.6 | 31.2 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 48.6 | 27.8 | 2233 |
| 011 | Ind. | 16.2 | 55.I | 28.7 | 6.8 | 72.9 | 41.9 | <1.0 | 18.2 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 27.9 | 18.2 | 1260 |
| 012 | Ind. | 15.7 | 52.I | 32.2 | 4.3 | 46.8 | 26.9 | <1.0 | 10.2 | 0.028 | 0.005 | 7.74 | 1.42 | 222 |
| 013 | Ind. | 16.8 | 46.9 | 36.3 | 5.2 | 59.3 | 34.1 | <1.0 | 18.4 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 12.6 | 6.50 | 484 |
| 014 | Ind. | 33.3 | 59.3 | 7.4 | 8.0 | 75.2 | 43.2 | 40.7 | 38.8 | 0.030 | 0.008 | 23.4 | 15.4 | 719 |
| 015 | Ind. | 13.5 | 42.6 | 43.9 | 7.9 | 30.6 | 17.6 | 37.5 | 10.9 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 13.5 | 1.30 | 177 |
| 016 | U | 16.7 | 73.4 | 9.6 | 7.6 | 18.2 | 10.5 | 3.0 | 12.4 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 5.52 | 0.640 | 17.8 |
| 017 | U | 30.2 | 34.9 | 34.2 | 5.7 | 51.4 | 29.6 | 1.0 | 16.2 | 0.027 | 0.005 | 17.8 | 0.200 | 33.7 |
| 018 | Farm. | 41.6 | 21.5 | 36.3 | 8.0 | 35.8 | 20.6 | 27.0 | 28.4 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 74.4 | 0.520 | 46.6 |
| 019 | Ind. | 16.9 | 54.8 | 28.5 | 7.2 | 33.5 | 19.3 | 3.6 | 12.3 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 10.1 | 4.49 | 117 |
| O 20 | Ind. | 22.0 | 29.5 | 48.5 | 8.1 | 15.9 | 9.1 | 17.9 | 10.2 | 0.035 | 0.005 | 26.0 | 0.370 | 150 |
| O21 | Gras. | 8.0 | 10.0 | 82.0 | 7.6 | 43.5 | 25.0 | 31 | 11.1 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 11.3 | 2.32 | 288 |
| O 22 | U | 8.8 | 7.5 | 83.7 | 8.2 | 15.4 | 8.9 | 18 | 6.5 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 3.28 | 0.235 | 19.7 |
| O23 | Farm. | 16.3 | 38.1 | 45.6 | 6.8 | 28.3 | 16.3 | 3.2 | 7.2 | 0.020 | 0.007 | 57.0 | 0.102 | 660 |

| 024 | Farm | 183 | 42.0 | 39.7 | 76 | 55.9 | 32.2 | 106 | 181 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 12.0 | 3 57 | 303 |
|-------------|-----------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|------|-------|------|
| 024 | 1 ai iii. | 10.5 | 12.0 | 57.7 | 7.0 | 55.7 | 52.2 | 100 | 10.1 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 12.0 | 5.57 | 505 |
| 026 | Ind. | 11.3 | 16.9 | /1.8 | 7.5 | 41./ | 24.0 | 169 | 4.3 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 13.3 | 0.450 | 312 |
| O 27 | Emb. | 6.8 | 20.2 | 73.0 | 7.9 | 134 | 77.0 | 51.5 | 8.6 | 0.020 | 0.007 | 28.5 | 7.43 | 1882 |
| O 28 | Emb. | 9.1 | 30.3 | 60.6 | 7.8 | 230 | 132 | 16.9 | 12.1 | 0.020 | 0.007 | 25.8 | 2.60 | 467 |
| O29 | Emb. | 7.6 | 30.8 | 61.6 | 7.9 | 185 | 106 | 29.9 | 9.0 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 36.1 | 27.2 | 5258 |
| O30 | Emb. | 9.0 | 22.0 | 69.0 | 8.1 | 179 | 103 | 27.2 | 10.1 | 0.042 | 0.005 | 28.3 | 12.8 | 3241 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Min. | | 6.8 | 7.5 | 6.6 | 4.3 | 15.4 | 8.9 | <1.0 | 4.30 | 0.020 | 0.005 | 3.28 | 0.102 | 17.8 |
| Max. | | 41.6 | 73.4 | 83.7 | 8.3 | 360 | 207 | 169 | 38.8 | 0.054 | 0.008 | 228 | 257 | 8971 |

209

I.2.2. UBM test

The bioaccessibility was measured in triplicate for each soil sample with an in vitro validated extraction method: the UBM test (WRAGG ET AL., 2011; DENYS ET AL., 2012; ISO 17924, 2018) adapted by PELFRÊNE AND DOUAY (2018) and PELFRÊNE ET AL. (2011). Briefly, 0.6 g of dry soil was placed in a centrifuge tube and mixed with 9 mL of simulated saliva fluid. After quick manual shaking (10 s), 13.5 mL of simulated gastric fluid was added, and the pH of the solution was adjusted to 1.2 ± 0.05 with HCl (37 %). The tubes were shaken end-over-end at 37 °C for 1 h and centrifuged at 4500 x g for 5 min. The supernatant constitutes the gastric-only phase (UBM G). Then, the gastro-intestinal (GI) phase was prepared from the gastric phase, by adding 27 mL of simulated duodenal fluid and 9 mL of simulated bile solution. The final pH ranged from 5.8 to 6.8 by adjustment with NaOH (10 M). Tubes were shaken end-over-end at 37 °C for 4 h and centrifuged at 4500 x g for 5 min (UBM GI). Bioaccessible concentrations of As, Cd and Pb in the supernatants of the UBM G and UBM GI phases were measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, 7900, Agilent Technology, Les Ulis, France). To evaluate analytical recovery, a blank and a NIST standard reference material (SRM2710a) were used. The recovery rates of SRM2710a (n=3) were 93.2 ± 4 % on average for all metal(loid)s and UBM phases. For each metal(loid) and each phase of the UBM test, the percentage of the bioaccessible fraction was the ratio between the bioaccessible and soil concentrations.

I.2.3. Snail test

Juvenile land snails (*Cantareus aspersus*, Müller, 1774) were reared in the laboratory under controlled conditions (20 °C, 80 % relative humidity, and a photoperiod of 18 h of light and 6 h of dark) until the sub-adult stage (7-9 weeks), as described by GOMOT-DE-VAUFLEURY (2000). The sub-adult stage was selected to avoid marked mass changes related to growth and reproduction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). At the beginning of exposure, sub-adult snails weighed 4.95 \pm 0.666 g, and the internal concentrations of As, Cd and Pb were measured in visceral mass from six sub-adult snails (0.127 \pm 0.001, 1.53 \pm 0.175, 0.510 \pm 0.332 mg kg⁻¹ dw, respectively). Snails were fed during growth with uncontaminated (As, Cd and Pb contents: 0.718, 0.430 and 0.784 mg kg⁻¹ dw, respectively) commercial food (Helixal®, Berthon S.A., France) and were fed during the exposure stage with uncontaminated (As, Cd and Pb contents: 0.127, 0.648 and 0.108 mg kg⁻¹ dw, respectively) fresh lettuce (organic farm, France). For each soil, six snails were exposed for four weeks (28 days) in triplicate in transparent polystyrene containers of 4032 cm³ (24 x 21 x 8 cm). Exposure modalities are detailed in PAUGET ET AL. (2012). One week before exposure, 100 g of soil (DW, < 250 µm) was introduced to the containers and humidified (water holding capacity (WHC) adjusted to 50 %) with demineralized

water (with a pH of 6.5). Every two days, the containers were cleaned to remove faeces, and the lettuce was renewed. Snail food was offered *ad libitum* (corresponding to 1.5 g lettuce day⁻¹ snail⁻¹) in a Petri dish left on the bottom of the container. At the end of exposure, snails were starved in clean containers (without soil) for two days (the faeces were removed every 12 h). Then, the snails were frozen (-80 °C). After thawing, the visceral mass of each snail was dissected. Six visceral masses (2 per container x 3 replicates) per soil were freeze dried for two days before As, Cd and Pb analysis. Lyophilized viscera were digested between 47 °C and 98 °C for 265 min (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) in 7 mL of nitric acid (HNO₃ at 65 %, Optima ultra trace purity, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) that was diluted with MilliQ water (43 mL). Then, samples were filtered at 1 μ m (Hydrophilic Teflon©, DigiFILTER 1.0 μ m, SCP Science, Courtaboeuf, France) for ICP-MS analysis (Thermo Scientific X Series II, Courtaboeuf, France). Analyses were validated with a certified standard (TORT-2, lobster hepatopancreas, LGC Standards, Molsheim, France) with recovery rates of 114 ± 9 % on average for all metal(loid)s. The bioaccumulated metal(loid) concentrations in the snails and the soil metal(loid) concentrations were used to calculate the bioaccumulation factors (BAF).

I.2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with R (version 3.4.2) (R CORE TEAM, 2019). The data (except pH) were transformed by $log_{10}(x+1)$ to fulfil the residual normality and variance homogeneity requirements (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Bartlett tests). Assessment of the relationships between metal(loid) concentrations in the soil and/or bioaccessible concentrations and/or bioaccumulated concentrations in viscera was performed by simple linear regression. Then, the influence of soil physicochemical parameters on bioaccessible concentrations and/or bioaccumulated concentrations in viscera was modelled with multiple linear regression. Based on the best models obtained, the bioaccessible concentrations were estimated from the concentrations in snails and soil physicochemical parameters. It is possible to test the efficiency of models on a subset of data when data from another experiment with other soils are not available by performing an internal cross-validation test (STONE, 1974; GIMBERT ET AL., 2006). In this approach, the proposed models were considered valid if the differences between adjusted q² and adjusted r² ($r_{adj.}^2$) do not exceed 0.3 (OCDE, 2017). All the models were validated with an internal cross-validation test (STONE, 1974; GIMBERT ET AL., 2006). For this internal verification step, one-third (n = 10) of samples were randomly chosen, and multiple regressions were re-modelled. Comparisons between q² (determination coefficient of the cross-validation test) and r^2 (models proposed) allowed for model validation. For each set of regressions, the best model (i.e., the one providing the best adjusted coefficient of determination with the lowest number of

independent variables) was chosen using the corrected Akaike criterion (AICc) (BURNHAM AND ANDERSON, 2004).

I.3. Results and discussion

I.3.1. Oral bioaccessible fractions for humans and bioavailability to snails

The bioaccessible fractions for humans and bioaccumulated concentrations for snails are presented in TABLE 31. The in vitro bioaccessibility of As, Cd and Pb measured in the twenty-nine soil samples ranged from 0.508 to 245 mg kg⁻¹, 0.082 to 321 mg kg⁻¹ and 10.7 to 10730 mg kg⁻¹ of soil for the G phase and from 0.583 to 89.1 mg kg⁻¹, 0.035 to 142 mg kg⁻¹ and 0 to 2460 mg kg⁻¹ of soil for the GI phase, respectively (TABLE 31). The mean ratios/percentages of the bioaccessible fractions of As, Cd and Pb in the G phase were 37 ± 23 %, 84 ± 15 % and 78 ± 23 %, respectively, of the pseudo-total concentrations in the soils. In the GI phase, the bioaccessible fractions of As, Cd and Pb decreased to 30 ± 16 %, 38 ± 13 % and 11 ± 14 %, respectively. Overall, for the twenty-nine soils studied, bioaccessible fractions of Cd and Pb were higher (2.3 and 4.6 times, respectively) in the G phase than in the GI phase. These results are explained by the pH of the simulated fluids, which are more acidic in the G phase and lead to higher solubilization of metals (RUBY ET AL., 1996; WRAGG ET AL., 2011). However, this is much less marked for As, which showed similar bioaccessible fractions, in most cases, in both phases with average values of 37 % vs 30 % (i.e., 1.2-fold less), for G and GI phases, respectively (TABLE 31). This difference could be related to the particular geochemical behaviour of As in the simulated fluid conditions (WRAGG ET AL., 2011; RAHMAN ET AL., 2017), which may lead to reduced adsorption and precipitation reactions at the neutral pH in the GI phase for As than for Cd and Pb (RUBY ET AL., 1996; WRAGG ET AL., 2011). These results for the three studied metal(loid)s are in accordance with those in other studies (RUBY ET AL., 1996; ROBERTS ET AL., 2007; LU ET AL., 2011; WRAGG ET AL., 2011), especially those of DENYS ET AL. (2012), in an in vivo validation of the UBM test on juvenile swine.

TABLE 31: BIOACCESSIBLE CONCENTRATIONS AND FRACTIONS FOR HUMANS AND BIOACCUMULATED CONCENTRATIONS AND BIOACCUMULATION FACTORS (BAFS) FOR SNAILS FOR EACH SOIL (RESULTS ARE PRESENTED IN MG KG⁻¹ DW FOR CONCENTRATIONS (MEAN FOR BIOACCESSIBILITY AND MEDIAN FOR BIOACCUMULATED CONCENTRATIONS FOR SNAILS) AND IN % FOR BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTIONS AND BAF IS THE RATIO BETWEEN CONCENTRATIONS IN SNAILS AND CONCENTRATIONS IN SOILS. G AND GI: GASTRIC AND GASTRO-INTESTINAL PHASES OF THE UBM TEST, RESPECTIVELY).

| Soile | | As | | | | Cd | | | Pb | | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|---------------|-------------|-------|-------|--|--|
| 30115 | G Phase | GI Phase | Snail | BAF | G Phase | GI Phase | Snail | BAF | G Phase | GI Phase | Snail | BAF | | |
| 01 | 5.05 (38 %) | 5.08 (38 %) | 0.298 | 0.022 | 1.25 (95 %) | 0.413 (31 %) | 5.02 | 3.80 | 349 (81 %) | 111 (26 %) | 84.6 | 0.197 | | |
| 02 | 3.69 (32 %) | 3.39 (29 %) | 0.298 | 0.026 | I.40 (73 %) | 0.407 (21 %) | 5.63 | 2.95 | 217 (68 %) | 7.93 (2 %) | 43.3 | 0.135 | | |
| O 3 | 245 (108 %) | 112 (49 %) | 21.9 | 0.096 | 321 (125 %) | 142 (55 %) | 333 | 1.29 | 6542 (105 %) | 2460 (39 %) | 856 | 0.137 | | |
| O 4 | 42.4 (57 %) | 28.5 (38 %) | 1.29 | 0.017 | 41.2 (86 %) | 11.9 (25 %) | 60.0 | 1.25 | 3964 (76 %) | 342 (7 %) | 652 | 0.125 | | |
| O 5 | 64.5 (60 %) | 52.7 (49 %) | 2.25 | 0.021 | 75.9 (89 %) | 29.0 (34 %) | 73.6 | 0.859 | 10730 (120 %) | 1801 (20 %) | 731 | 0.081 | | |
| O 6 | 111 (80 %) | 89.I (64 %) | 19.2 | 0.138 | 104 (96 %) | 48.8 (45 %) | 307 | 2.83 | 2034 (93 %) | 100 (5 %) | 783 | 0.359 | | |
| 07 | 4.49 (35 %) | 3.25 (25 %) | 0.298 | 0.023 | 3.85 (92 %) | I.04 (25 %) | 18.6 | 4.43 | 337 (88 %) | 9.52 (2 %) | 267 | 0.694 | | |
| 08 | 1.19 (21 %) | 1.19 (21 %) | 0.298 | 0.053 | 0.541 (85 %) | 0.250 (39 %) | 5.33 | 8.33 | 20.4 (66 %) | 3.11 (10 %) | 5.21 | 0.169 | | |
| 09 | 10.4 (45 %) | 9.72 (42 %) | 3.93 | 0.169 | 6.15 (84 %) | 2.75 (37 %) | 32.0 | 4.36 | 514 (96 %) | 11.8 (2 %) | 208 | 0.389 | | |
| 010 | 35.3 (73 %) | 25.4 (52 %) | 2.31 | 0.048 | 31.1 (112 %) | 11.2 (40 %) | 71. 9 | 2.58 | 2330 (104 %) | 973 (44 %) | 503 | 0.225 | | |
| 011 | 14.0 (50 %) | l 3.6 (49 %) | 3.78 | 0.135 | I 5.4 (85 %) | 6.48 (36 %) | 52.5 | 2.91 | 1104 (88 %) | 124 (10 %) | 43 I | 0.342 | | |
| 012 | 1.09 (14 %) | 1.25 (16 %) | 0.298 | 0.039 | 1.04 (73 %) | 0.478 (34 %) | 12.5 | 8.80 | 198 (89 %) | 101 (45 %) | 171 | 0.769 | | |
| 013 | 3.36 (27 %) | 3.67 (29 %) | 0.262 | 0.021 | 4.82 (74 %) | 1.10 (17 %) | 28.3 | 4.35 | 457 (94 %) | 42.8 (9 %) | 162 | 0.335 | | |
| 014 | 9.00 (38 %) | 15.2 (65 %) | 2.02 | 0.086 | 13.3 (87 %) | 8.72 (57 %) | 46.7 | 3.04 | 609 (85 %) | 14.4 (2 %) | 271 | 0.377 | | |
| 015 | 5.05 (38 %) | 3.64 (27 %) | 0.482 | 0.036 | 1.02 (78 %) | 0.814 (63 %) | 6.04 | 4.65 | 114 (64 %) | 0.745 (0 %) | 21.0 | 0.119 | | |
| 016 | 0.841 (15 %) | 0.910 (16 %) | 0.098 | 0.018 | 0.544 (85 %) | 0.203 (32 %) | 4.80 | 7.50 | 10.7 (60 %) | 0.000 (0 %) | 4.12 | 0.232 | | |
| 017 | 1.95 (11 %) | I.50 (8 %) | 0.098 | 0.006 | 0.154 (77 %) | 0.120 (60 %) | 2.56 | 12.8 | 13.7 (41 %) | 0.733 (2 %) | 1.42 | 0.042 | | |
| 018 | 5.97 (8 %) | 5.58 (8 %) | 1.39 | 0.019 | 0.344 (66 %) | 0.135 (26 %) | 3.20 | 6.15 | 15.3 (33 %) | 0.391 (1 %) | 2.56 | 0.055 | | |
| 019 | 1.30 (13 %) | 1.39 (14 %) | 0.098 | 0.010 | 3.20 (71 %) | I.26 (28 %) | 12.1 | 2.70 | 84.8 (72 %) | 2.36 (2 %) | 37.4 | 0.320 | | |
| O 20 | 5.94 (23 %) | 6.08 (23 %) | 1.98 | 0.076 | 0.261 (71 %) | 0.126 (34 %) | 4.59 | 12.4 | 105 (70 %) | 2.30 (2 %) | 38.9 | 0.259 | | |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 213

| 021 | 5.50 (49 %) | 4.96 (44 %) | 2.23 | 0.008 | I.93 (83 %) | 0.721 (31 %) | 11.5 | 4.96 | 243 (84 %) | 3.03 (1 %) | 83.7 | 0.291 |
|--------------------|--------------|--------------|-------|-------|---------------|--------------|------|------|-------------|-------------|------|-------|
| O22 | 0.508 (16 %) | 0.583 (18 %) | 0.098 | 0.030 | 0.199 (87 %) | 0.132 (57 %) | 4.24 | 18.4 | 14.2 (72 %) | 3.54 (18 %) | 12.1 | 0.615 |
| O23 | 17.3 (30 %) | 14.1 (25 %) | I.48 | 0.026 | 0.082 (82 %) | 0.035 (35 %) | 2.53 | 25.3 | (7 %) | 19.2 (3 %) | 39.1 | 0.059 |
| O24 | 4.02 (34 %) | 2.90 (24 %) | 0.829 | 0.069 | 3.41 (96 %) | 1.03 (29 %) | 12.4 | 3.47 | 259 (86 %) | 5.47 (2 %) | 35.6 | 0.118 |
| O26 | 5.68 (43 %) | 3.70 (28 %) | 0.098 | 0.007 | 0.490 (109 %) | 0.275 (61 %) | 3.20 | 7.11 | 275 (88 %) | 8.19 (3 %) | 58.0 | 0.186 |
| O27 | 6.73 (24 %) | 4.48 (16 %) | 0.098 | 0.003 | 5.43 (73 %) | 2.86 (38 %) | 8.81 | 1.19 | 1281 (68 %) | 137 (7 %) | 137 | 0.073 |
| O28 | 7.36 (29 %) | 5.84 (23 %) | 0.098 | 0.004 | 2.18 (84 %) | 0.716 (28 %) | 5.52 | 2.12 | 292 (63 %) | 41.6 (9 %) | 25.5 | 0.055 |
| 029 | 8.58 (24 %) | 5.92 (16 %) | 0.379 | 0.011 | l 3.3 (49 %) | 9.17 (34 %) | 28.3 | 1.04 | 5196 (99 %) | 1667 (32 %) | 820 | 0.156 |
| O30 | 7.69 (27 %) | 6.29 (22 %) | 1.16 | 0.041 | 10.3 (81 %) | 5.28 (41 %) | 20.4 | 1.60 | 3136 (97 %) | 783 (24 %) | 730 | 0.225 |
| Mean | 21.9 (37 %) | 14.9 (30 %) | 2.38 | 0.043 | 22.9 (84 %) | 9.91 (38 %) | 40.8 | 5.63 | 1399 (78 %) | 303 (11 %) | 249 | 0.246 |
| Standard-deviation | 48.9 (22 %) | 26.3 (16 %) | 5.16 | 0.044 | 62.1 (15 %) | 27.4 (13 %) | 80.3 | 5.55 | 2447 (22 %) | 632 (14 %) | 295 | 0.188 |
The *in vivo* bioavailability of As, Cd and Pb measured with the bioaccumulation test after *C. aspersus* in 28 days ranged from 0.098 to 21.9 mg kg⁻¹, 2.53 to 333 mg kg⁻¹ and 1.42 to 856 mg kg⁻¹ of dry weight (dw) viscera, respectively (TABLE 31). The comparison between bioaccessible and bioaccumulated concentrations of As and Pb for each soil showed that the concentrations in snails were lower than the bioaccessible phase concentrations (e.g., the As and Pb concentrations in snails were approximately 9 and 6 times lower than those in the G phase, respectively). In contrast, for Cd, the concentrations were 2 times higher in snails than in the G phase of the UBM test due to the snail physiology and internal management of metal(loid)s; specifically, Pb is highly excreted with cell debris, while Cd is stored and associated with metallothionein in the cytosolic fraction (GIMBERT ET AL., 2008B; DE VAUFLEURY, 2015). Hence, elevated BAFs were recorded for Cd (ranging from 0.859 and 25.3), and low BAFs were recorded for As and Pb (ranging from 0.004 to 0.169 or 0.055 to 0.769, respectively) (TABLE 31). These BAFs are in accordance with those reported in various studies in which *C. aspersus* was classified as a deconcentrator of As and Pb and a macroconcentrator of Cd (DALLINGER, 1993; GOMOT-DE VAUFLEURY AND PIHAN, 2000; GIMBERT ET AL., 2008C; COEURDASSIER ET AL., 2010; PAUGET ET AL., 2012).

We observed substantial inter-soil variability in bioaccessible fractions and bioaccumulated concentrations in snails (TABLE 31). This variability highlights the influence not only of soil contamination (concentration of metal(loid)s and mixture) but also of the physicochemical parameters of soils (e.g., pH and OM content) on metal(loid) mobility and transfer.

1.3.2. Influence of soil parameters on oral bioaccessible concentrations for humans and bioavailability to snails

The relationships between the bioaccessibility of As, Cd and Pb and their total concentrations in soils were investigated. The modulating influence of the physicochemical parameters of soils was also examined because soil parameters can influence metal(loid) availability and bioavailability (MASSCHELEYN ET AL., 1991; REDMAN ET AL., 2002; PELFRÊNE ET AL., 2012; FENG ET AL., 2013; DOUSOVA ET AL., 2015). Strong relationships between total concentrations of contaminants in soil and their extractible concentrations observed in the UBM test were evidenced by $r_{adj.}^2$ values ranging from 0.63 to 0.99, according to the contaminant and bioaccessible phase (G or GI) considered (TABLE 32). For As, very close relationships were found for the G and GI phases, while the r_{adj}^2 values in the G phase were always higher for Cd and Pb. These results are related to the differential solubilization,

precipitation and therefore absorption potential of the stomach and intestine, as discussed above. The consideration of soil parameters rather than just the total concentrations of metal(loid)s (TABLE 30) can improve the regression models (TABLE 32). For As in G and GI phases, the content of silt increased the $r_{adj.}^2$ values up to 0.71 and 0.72, respectively, and for Cd in the GI phase, the OM content increased the $r_{adj.}^2$ up to 0.96. No influence of soil physicochemical parameters was observed for Cd in the G phase or Pb in either phase. It is likely that the strong acidic pH of the first gastric solution of the UBM test prevented the influence of the soil physicochemical parameters on Cd and Pb bioaccessibility. For the GI phase, OM content negatively influenced the Cd bioaccessibility. The neutral pH of the intestinal phase might have led to readsorption of Cd to OM particles of soil (YUAN ET AL., 2007; LOGANATHAN ET AL., 2012). For both phases, As bioaccessibility was positively modulated by the silt content of the soils. Hence, the As of this granulometric fraction seemed to be transferred to the simulated solutions of UBM tests.

TABLE 32: INFLUENCE OF TOTAL METAL(LOID) CONCENTRATIONS AND SOIL PARAMETERS ON ORAL BIOACCESSIBILITY AND BIOACCUMULATION (SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ARE RANKED WITH STARS AS A FUNCTION OF P-VALUE OBTAINED: * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001, data are transformed by $log_{10}(x + 1)$).

| Elements | Equations | r² _{adj.} | p-value |
|----------|--|--------------------|---------|
| As | [As] _{UBM-G} = -0.422* + 0.952[As] _{soil} *** | 0.650 | <0.001 |
| | $[As]_{UBM-G} = -2.09^{**} + 1.00[As]_{soil}^{***} + 0.623[silt]^{*}$ | 0.714 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{UBM-GI} = -0.337 + 0.851[As] _{soil} *** | 0.631 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{UBM-GI} = -2.06** + 0.905[As] _{soil} *** + 0.644[silt]** | 0.717 | <0.001 |
| | $[As]_{snail} = -0.463^{**} + 0.553[As]_{soil}^{***}$ | 0.505 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{snail} = -1.38** + 0.665[As] _{soil} *** + 0.492[silt]** - 0.276[OM]* | 0.646 | <0.001 |
| Cd | [Cd] _{∪BM-G} = -0.054* + 0.996[Cd] _{soii} *** | 0.987 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{UBM-G} = no influence of soil parameters | - | <0.001 |
| | $[Cd]_{UBM-GI} = -0.144^{***} + 0.833[Cd]_{soil}^{***}$ | 0.947 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{UBM-GI} = 0.160 + 0.893[Cd] _{soil} *** - 0.193[OM]** | 0.959 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{snail} = 0.563*** + 0.802[Cd] _{soil} *** | 0.917 | <0.001 |
| | $[Cd]_{snail} = 1.08^{***} + 0.869[Cd]_{soil}^{***} - 0.052pH^{*} + 0.300[CEC]^{*} - 0.052pH^{*} + 0.000[CEC]^{*}$ | 0.961 | <0.001 |
| | 0.293[OM]*** | | |
| Pb | [Pb] _{UBM-G} = -0.350* + 1.07[Pb] _{soil} *** | 0.945 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-G} = no influence of soil parameters | - | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-GI} = -1.68*** + 1.18[Pb] _{soil} *** | 0.748 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-GI} = no influence of soil parameters | - | <0.001 |
| | $[Pb]_{snail} = -0.540^* + 0.928 [Pb]_{soil}^{***}$ | 0.846 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{snail} = no influence of soil parameters | - | <0.001 |

A similar approach was carried out with As, Cd and Pb concentrations accumulated in snails as an indicator of their bioavailability (TABLE 32). For each element, the total concentration in soils appeared as an important explanatory variable ($r_{adj.}^2 = 0.51$, 0.92 and 0.85 for As, Cd and Pb, respectively); although physicochemical parameters of soils did not improve the regression model for Pb, some parameters improved the regression models for As and Cd (TABLE 32). Hence, for As, the content of OM and silts increased the $r_{adj.}^2$ up to 0.65, and for Cd, the OM content, pH and cation exchange capacity (CEC) increased the r^2adj . up to 0.96. These results are in accordance with previous laboratory experiments with snails and are related to the low lability of Pb in soils and the reactivity of As and Cd to soil pH and components such as OM (PAUGET ET AL., 2012).

1.3.3. Relationships between oral bioaccessibility and bioavailability of metal(loid)s

We first looked for relationships between extractible concentrations in the UBM test and accumulated concentrations in the snail tissues of As, Cd and Pb (FIGURE 45).



FIGURE 45: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BIOACCESSIBLE CONCENTRATIONS OBTAINED WITH THE UBM TEST AND BIOACCUMULATED CONCENTRATIONS FOR SNAILS (DATA ARE TRANSFORMED BY LOG₁₀(X+I); GREY BANDS ARE 95 % CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF THE LINEAR REGRESSION MODELS THAT ARE REPRESENTED BY BLACK LINES).

The related regressions revealed, regardless of the digestive compartment considered (G or GI), strong and positive relationships, particularly for Cd and Pb and to a lesser extent for As (TABLE 33). As previously described, the potential influence of soil parameters was also investigated in a new modelling step to better connect the oral bioaccessible concentrations to humans with the bioaccumulated concentrations for snails. The obtained regressions were then strongly improved, especially when considering the soil OM content, with a rise of 17 % and 15 % of variance explained (r_{adj}^2) for As in the G and GI phases, respectively and to a lesser extent for Pb (+4 % and +6 %) and Cd (+2 %) (TABLE 33).

TABLE 33 : RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONCENTRATIONS ACCUMULATED IN VISCERAL MASS OF SNAILS AND IN THE UBM TEST PHASES G AND GI FOR GASTRIC AND GASTRO-INTESTINAL PHASES, RESPECTIVELY (SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ARE RANKED WITH STARS AS A FUNCTION OF THE P-VALUE OBTAINED: * < 0.05, **< 0.01, *** < 0.001, data are transformed by $log_{10}(x + 1)$. Models in bold are used in table 34 to PERFORM AN INTERNAL CROSS-VALIDATION).

| Elements | Equations | r² _{adj.} | p-value |
|----------|--|--------------------|---------|
| As | $[As]_{UBM-G} = 0.523^{***} + 1.27[As]_{snail}^{***}$ | 0.678 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{UBM-G} = -0.513* + 1.28[As] _{snail} *** + 0.567[OM]*** | 0.845 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{UBM-GI} = 0.493*** + 1.18[As] _{snail} *** | 0.715 | <0.001 |
| | [As] _{UBM-GI} = -0.403* + 1.19[As] _{snail} *** + 0.490[OM]*** | 0.867 | <0.001 |
| Cd | [Cd] _{UBM-G} = -0.647*** + 1.15[Cd] _{snail} *** | 0.924 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{UBM-G} = -1.07*** + 1.08[Cd] _{snail} *** + 0.282[OM]** | 0.946 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{UBM-GI} = -0.637*** + 0.963[Cd] _{snail} *** | 0.882 | <0.001 |
| | [Cd] _{UBM-GI} = no influence of soil parameters | - | <0.001 |
| Pb | [Pb] _{UBM-G} = 0.510** + 1.04[Pb] _{snail} *** | 0.887 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-G} = -0.183 + 0.872[Pb] _{snail} *** + 0.553[OM]*** | 0.928 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-GI} = -0.735* + 1.14[Pb] _{snail} *** | 0.704 | <0.001 |
| | [Pb] _{UBM-GI} = -1.83*** + 0.879[Pb] _{snail} *** + 0.875[OM]** | 0.766 | <0.001 |

This improvement in estimating the bioaccessible concentrations can be explained by the limited ability of snails to access the metal(loid) fraction associated with organic particles in soils. Indeed, the pH in the snail digestive tract ranges between 6.1 and 7.5 (CHARRIER AND BRUNE, 2003), which is probably not sufficient to reach the desorption capacities achieved by the very acidic pH in the human stomach (OTTOSEN ET AL., 2009). The robustness of the improved models was checked using a cross-validation approach. The small differences (< 0.17) between the $r_{adj.}^2$ (TABLE 32) and $q_{adj.}^2$ (TABLE 34) values testify to the efficiency of the proposed models for assessing metal(loid) bioaccessibility to humans using a bioavailability assessment with snails. Finally, we verified the estimation potential of these validated models by comparing measured and estimated values of bioaccessible concentrations (FIGURE 46). For each digestive phase and metal(loid) studied, the slopes were relatively close to 1 (ranging from 0.78)

to 0.95), demonstrating that bioavailability to snails may be an efficient way to estimate oral bioaccessibility for humans.

Our objective was not to oppose or to prioritize the UBM test and the bioassay with snails but to demonstrate their complementarity, both in terms of response and use. Indeed, to our knowledge, studies that try to link chemical approaches for bioaccessibility assessment and biological tests to estimate bioavailability with soil invertebrates are rare. The majority of the studies concerning the discovered relationships with mammals, such as mice, have shown that the UBM assay can estimate the bioavailability of As, Cd and Pb in contaminated soils (LI ET AL., 2015B; LI ET AL., 2015C; LI ET AL., 2016; ZHU ET AL., 2019). To date, only the study of RAHMAN ET AL. (2017) has reported correlations ($r^2 = 0.95$) between bioaccumulation factors in earthworms (*Lumbricus rubellus*) and the human bioaccessible fraction (gastric phase) of As in six aged pesticide-contaminated soils. Thus, for these two bioindicators of soil quality (*L. rubellus* and *C. aspersus*), strong relationships between bioaccumulation and oral bioaccessibility to humans exist for As. Similarity between these results and ours was not necessarily expected because of the differences between the considered organisms (*i.e.*, humans and soil invertebrates) in terms of sources, routes of exposure and physiology.



FIGURE 46: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BIOACCESSIBLE CONCENTRATIONS MEASURED WITH THE UBM TEST AND ESTIMATED CONCENTRATIONS FROM SNAILS (WITH EQUATIONS IN TABLE 33, DATA ARE TRANSFORMED BY $LOG_{10}(X+1)$; GREY BANDS ARE 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF THE LINEAR REGRESSION MODELS THAT ARE REPRESENTED BY BLACK LINES).

TABLE 34: EQUATIONS OF THE INTERNAL CROSS-VALIDATED MODELS ASSESSING THE BIOACCESSIBLE CONCENTRATIONS ACCORDING TO THE ACCUMULATED CONCENTRATIONS IN SNAILS AND PHYSICOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS OF SOILS (DATA ARE TRANSFORMED BY $LOG_{10}(X+1)$; SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ARE RANKED WITH STARS AS A FUNCTION OF P-VALUE OBTAINED: * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001).

| Elements | Internal cross-validation equations | q ² adj. | p-value |
|----------|---|----------------------------|---------|
| ٨٩ | [As] _{UBM-G} = -0.973 + 1.24[As] _{snail} ** + 0.800[OM]* | 0.800 | <0.01 |
| AS | [As] _{UBM-GI} = -0.815 + 1.03[As] _{snail} *** + 0.742[OM]** | 0.843 | <0.001 |
| Cd | [Cd] _{UBM-G} = -1.61** + 1.37[Cd] _{snail} *** + 0.286[OM] | 0.921 | <0.001 |
| Cu | [Cd] _{UBM-GI} = -1.18** + 1.27[Cd] _{snail} *** | 0.859 | <0.001 |
| Ph | [Pb] _{UBM-G} = -0.374 + 0.959[Pb] _{snail} * + 0.534[OM] | 0.789 | <0.01 |
| Pb | [Pb] _{UBM-GI} = 2.66* + 1.93[Pb] _{snail} ** - 0.012[OM] | 0.714 | <0.01 |

I.4. Conclusion

This study provides effective methods to establish links between the bioaccessibility to humans and the bioavailability to snails, and new evidence confirming that HHRA and ERA methodologies may converge to reinforce risk assessment procedures for both sanitary and environmental perspectives. Hence, in the case where only physicochemical properties of soils and environmental data for ERA are available, we propose a way to approach, in a first attempt, HHRA at least for As, Cd and Pb; similarly, HHRA data could be used to approach ERA. In HHRA procedures, daily doses of exposure based on total concentrations of contaminants in soils are used to estimate a hazard quotient (HQ) (MEEM, 2017). As discussed in the study of JIA ET AL. (2018) on a rapidly urbanization area of Yangtze (China), the measurements of oral bioaccessible and bioaccumulated concentrations can be used to refine HQs to provide a more accurate estimation of the exposure and consequently a better interpretation of the environmental state. However, these data and models are available for a limited number of contaminants and soil quality bioindicators.

The original findings we provide in this study rely on the establishment of relationships connecting the oral bioaccessibility to humans and bioavailability to snails for As, Cd and Pb. In the current context of increasing sanitary and environmental crises, these results constitute a useful contribution to coordinated risk assessment strategies. As exposure assessment is a key factor in assessing the risk of contaminated soil, this contribution joins the current trend of the One Health concept, associating humans and other organisms in an integrative risk assessment.

2. Combiner les indicateurs sanitaires et environnementaux avec les escargots pour une évaluation intégrative des risques de sols contaminés par des métal(loïde)s

Titre en anglais : Combining human and snail indicators for an integrative risk assessment of metal(loid)-contaminated soils

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Résumé

Avec les nouveaux usages des sols comme la renaturation et pour protéger la vie sauvage, les évaluations des risques sanitaires (ERS) et environnementaux (ERE) doivent être combinées. Sur la base des relations précédemment démontrées entre l'exposition d'un indicateur de la qualité des sols, l'escargot, et l'exposition humaine, l'objectif de cette étude est d'examiner les indicateurs de risques pour l'escargot et l'homme pour vingt-neuf sols contaminés par des métal(loïde)s. L'ERS a été effectuée avec à la fois des quotients de risques (QD) et les excès de risque individuels (ERI). Quand les indicateurs sanitaires produisaient des valeurs classant les sols en risque incertain, ils ont été ajustés par la bioaccessibilité orale pour affiner l'évaluation du risque. L'ERE a été réalisée avec les coefficients de risques (RC) pour l'escargot. Les résultats montrent de fortes relations entre les indicateurs de risques sanitaires et environnementaux, ce qui n'avait jamais encore été montré. Pour 62 % des sols, les deux indicateurs révèlent soit un risque confirmé ou un niveau de risque incertain. Globalement les polluants présentent un risque plus important pour l'homme que l'environnement, avec 55 % versus 28 % des sols étudiés classés à risques, respectivement. L'évaluation des risques intégratives des sols pollués proposée dans cette étude pourra contribuer à mettre en place des stratégies pertinentes pour gérer les sols contaminés en tenant compte non seulement des indicateurs de risques humains mais aussi environnementaux.

Abstract

With the new soil uses such as land restoration and to protect wilderness, the human health risk assessment (HHRA) and environmental risk assessment (ERA) should be combined. Based on the relationships demonstrated between an indicator of soil quality, the land snail, and human exposure, the aim of this study is to examine the snail and human risk indicators for twenty-nine soils contaminated by metal(loid)s. HHRA was evaluated by both hazard quotient and carcinogenic risk. When the human health indicators were ranked as uncertain, they were weighted by bioaccessibility to refine the risk assessment. The ERA was performed with risk coefficient after *ex situ* snail exposure. The results showed strong and novel relationships between human health and environmental risk indicators that had never been found before. For 62 % of the soils, both indicators revealed either a confirmed risk or an uncertain level of risk. Overall pollutants present greater risk for human than for environment, with 55 % vs 28 % of the studied soils classified in the proven risk, respectively. An original integrative risk assessment of polluted soils has been proposed, that shall help setting up relevant strategies to manage contaminated soils considering not only human but also environmental indicators of risk.

2.1. Introduction

The One Health concept demonstrates that human, animal and ecosystem health are interrelated, notably concerning infectious diseases and chemical contamination (AGUIRRE ET AL., 2016; LEBOV ET AL., 2017; DESTOUMIEUX-GARZON ET AL., 2018; HARRISON ET AL., 2019). This concept is not currently applied to the management of contaminated soils in France, in verifying the compatibility of soil uses (e.g., community gardens, recreational areas), or in assessing the environmental risk (MEEM, 2017). Moreover, the remediation of industrial and urban wastelands requires the assessment of both the human and ecological health risks in the context of increasing alternative uses to both limit urban sprawl and protect the wilderness (such as through land restoration approaches). In most cases, only the total concentration of contaminants in soil is considered (JIA ET AL., 2018), although according to the bioavailability concept, only a fraction of these contaminants is available and may therefore be assimilated by organisms, leading to adverse effects (ALLAN, 2002; ISO 17402, 2008; ISO 19204, 2017).

To determine an accurate assessment of risk, there is a real need to refine human health and environmental risk assessments (HHRA and ERA, respectively) to account for the bioavailable concentrations of contaminants and to combine these assessments to propose an integrative risk assessment (IRA) of contaminated soils (ALVARENGA ET AL., 2018; LOUZON ET AL., 2020A). This IRA aims associating HHRA and ERA in the frame of the One health concept applied to the management of terrestrial pollutions. Nowadays, HHRA is very often the driving endpoint in the risk assessment of contaminated soils, while the ERA is not systematically carried out in the current methodology for the management of these soils. Yet, usually HHRA and ERA are in most of the cases studied separately. In France, the method to assess the compatability of the toxicological risks with the current uses of the site, that is called "the interpreting the state of the environment" (ISE) may be used to perform the HHRA (MEEM, 2017). These toxicological risks are assessed by the comparison of hazard quotients (HQ) and carcinogenic risk (CR) to toxicological reference values (TRV). To refine the method of exposure and risk assessment (especially when the values of HQ and CR showed uncertain levels of risk), the bioaccessible concentrations of pollutants measured in soils according to validated and standardized protocols may be used (PELFRÊNE ET AL., 2013; MEEM, 2017; ISO 17924, 2018). In this case, total soil concentrations are weighted by the bioaccessible fraction determined using the UBM (unified bioaccessibility method) test (MEEM, 2017). Some terrestrial bioassays and bioindicators can be utilized to perform an ERA using for example the risk coefficient (RC) based on the identification of excess transfers and toxicity of contaminants to the land snail (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). As previously determined in soils contaminated by As, Cd and Pb, strong relationships exist between oral bioaccessibility to humans and bioavailability to snails (LOUZON ET AL., 2020A),

making these methodologies relevant candidates to perform an IRA for these metal(loid)s. The IRA methodology requires established amplitudes of the responses of indicators used and the convergences and/or divergences between them. The goals of this study were to examine indicators of human health and environmental risks of contaminated soils using the land snail, *Cantareus aspersus*, as a bioindicator of soil quality (DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; ITZIOU ET AL., 2018; CARBONE AND FAGGIO, 2019; BAROUDI ET AL., 2020; RADWAN ET AL., 2020), to evaluate their complementarity and propose a way to combine them to perform IRA of contaminated soils. This novel evaluation was conducted in accordance with the French ISE methodology (MEEM, 2017), which is based on comparisons of the state of the environment (*i.e.*, the risk of soil contamination) and the current anthropic uses (HHRA) and the transfers to organisms of the soil fauna (ERA).

2.2. Experimental

2.2.1. Soils

Twenty-nine soils contaminated with different mixtures and concentrations of As, Cd and Pb were sampled (0–25 cm deep) in France after humus removal (TABLE 35). Next, these soils were dried (< 40°C) and sieved through 250 μ m. The physicochemical parameters of these soils (clay, silt, sand, organic matter (OM), carbonate (CaCO₃) contents, pH_{water}, cationic exchange capacity (CEC), and the oxidizable cations of aluminium (Alox) and iron (Feox)) were previously characterized by LOUZON ET AL. (2020A). The minimal and maximal values of the physicochemical parameters were 4.3 and 8.3 for pH_{water}, 4.3 cmol kg⁻¹ and 38.8 cmol kg⁻¹ for CEC, 0.020 cmol kg⁻¹ and 0.054 cmol kg⁻¹ for Alox, 0.005 cmol kg⁻¹ and 0.008 cmol kg⁻¹ for Feox, < 1.00 g kg⁻¹ and 169 g kg⁻¹ for CaCO₃ content, 15.4 g kg⁻¹ and 360 g kg⁻¹ for OM content, 68.0 g kg⁻¹ and 416 g kg⁻¹ for clays, 75.0 g kg⁻¹ and 734 g kg⁻¹ for silts and 66.0 g kg⁻¹ and 837 g kg⁻¹ for sands. The degree of soil contamination (TABLE 35) were previously characterized in LOUZON ET AL. (2020A), and the min and max concentrations were 3.28 mg kg⁻¹ dry weight (dw) and 228 mg kg⁻¹ dw for As, 0.10 mg kg⁻¹ dw and 257 mg kg⁻¹ dw for Cd and 17.8 mg kg⁻¹ dw and 8971 mg kg⁻¹ dw for Pb.

2.2.2. Human health risk assessment

HHRA was performed in accordance with the French methodology (MEEM, 2017). On the basis of the concentration of each of the metal(loid)s in the soils, the average daily dose ((ADD) in mg

kg⁻¹ of body weight day⁻¹) was calculated according to the ingestion of soil particles (LIANG, 2017; JIA ET AL., 2018) with generic input data from the ISE calculation grid (MEDD, 2007C).

TABLE 35: CONCENTRATIONS OF AS, CD AND PB IN SOILS AND THEIR BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTIONS (GASTRIC AND GASTRO-INTESTINAL) MEASURED USING THE UBM TEST AND THE CONCENTRATIONS BIOACCUMULATED OVER 28 DAYS IN THE VISCERA OF SNAILS (MG.KG⁻¹ DW). TOTAL CONCENTRATIONS OF METAL(LOID)S IN SOILS AND THEIR MEASURED BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTIONS ARE NOTED AS FOLLOWS FOR EACH SOIL: CSOIL(G PHASE|GI PHASE).

| Soil | [As]soil | [As]snail | [Cd]soil | [Cd]snail | [Pb]soil | [Pb]snail |
|-------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 01 | 3.4 (38 % 38 %) | 0.298 | 1.32 (95 % 31 %) | 5.02 | 430 (81 % 26 %) | 84.6 |
| O 2 | I I .5 (32 % 29 %) | 0.298 | 1.91 (73 % 21 %) | 5.63 | 320 (68 % 2 %) | 43.3 |
| O 3 | 228 (100 % 49 %) | 21.9 | 257 (100 % 55 %) | 333 | 6256 (100 % 39 %) | 856 |
| O 4 | 74.4 (57 % 38 %) | 1.29 | 48.0 (86 % 25 %) | 60.0 | 5224 (76 % 7 %) | 652 |
| O 5 | 108 (60 % 49 %) | 2.25 | 85.7 (89 % 34 %) | 73.6 | 8971 (100 % 20 %) | 731 |
| O 6 | 39 (80 % 64 %) | 19.2 | 109 (96 % 45 %) | 307 | 2184 (93 % 5 %) | 783 |
| 07 | 12.8 (35 % 25 %) | 0.298 | 4.20 (92 % 25 %) | 18.6 | 385 (88 % 2 %) | 267 |
| 08 | 5.64 (21 % 21 %) | 0.298 | 0.64 (85 % 39 %) | 5.33 | 30.7 (66 % 10 %) | 5.21 |
| 09 | 23.3 (45 % 42 %) | 3.93 | 7.34 (84 % 37 %) | 32.0 | 534 (96 % 2 %) | 208 |
| 010 | 48.6 (73 % 52 %) | 2.31 | 27.8 (100 % 40 %) | 71.9 | 2233 (100 % 44 %) | 503 |
| 011 | 27.9 (50 % 49 %) | 3.78 | 18.2 (85 % 36 %) | 52.5 | 1260 (88 % 10 %) | 431 |
| 012 | 7.74 (14 % 16 %) | 0.298 | 1.42 (73 % 34 %) | 12.5 | 222 (89 % 45 %) | 171 |
| 013 | 12.6 (27 % 29 %) | 0.262 | 6.50 (74 % 17 %) | 28.3 | 484 (94 % 9 %) | 162 |
| 014 | 23.4 (38 % 65 %) | 2.02 | 15.4 (87 % 57 %) | 46.7 | 719 (85 % 2 %) | 271 |
| 015 | 3.5 (38 % 27 %) | 0.482 | 1.30 (78 % 63 %) | 6.04 | 177 (64 % 0 %) | 21.0 |
| 016 | 5.52 (15 % 16 %) | 0.098 | 0.64 (85 % 32 %) | 4.80 | 17.8 (60 % 0 %) | 4.12 |
| 017 | 7.8 (% 8 %) | 0.098 | 0.200 (77 % 60 %) | 2.56 | 33.7 (41 % 2 %) | 1.42 |
| 018 | 74.4 (8 % 8 %) | 1.39 | 0.520 (66 % 26 %) | 3.20 | 46.6 (33 % 1 %) | 2.56 |
| 019 | 10.1 (13 % 14 %) | 0.098 | 4.49 (71 % 28 %) | 12.1 | 7 (72 % 2 %) | 37.4 |
| O 20 | 26.0 (23 % 23 %) | 1.98 | 0.370 (71 % 34 %) | 4.59 | 150 (70 % 2 %) | 38.9 |
| O21 | I I .3 (49 % 44 %) | 2.23 | 2.32 (83 % 31 %) | 11.5 | 288 (84 % 1 %) | 83.7 |
| O 22 | 3.28 (16 % 18 %) | 0.098 | 0.235 (87 % 57 %) | 4.24 | 9.7 (72 % 8 %) | 12.1 |
| O23 | 57.0 (30 % 25 %) | 1.48 | 0.102 (82 % 35 %) | 2.53 | 660 (17 % 3 %) | 39.1 |
| O 24 | 12.0 (34 % 24 %) | 0.829 | 3.57 (96 % 29 %) | 12.4 | 303 (86 % 2 %) | 35.6 |
| O 26 | 3.3 (43 % 28 %) | 0.098 | 0.450 (100 % 61 %) | 3.20 | 312 (88 % 3 %) | 58.0 |
| O 27 | 28.5 (24 % 16 %) | 0.098 | 7.43 (73 % 38 %) | 8.81 | 1882 (68 % 7 %) | 137 |
| O 28 | 25.8 (29 % 23 %) | 0.098 | 2.60 (84 % 28 %) | 5.52 | 467 (63 % 9 %) | 25.5 |
| O29 | 36.1 (24 % 16 %) | 0.379 | 27.2 (49 % 34 %) | 28.3 | 5258 (99 % 32 %) | 820 |
| O30 | 28.3 (27 % 22 %) | 1.16 | 12.8 (81 % 41 %) | 20.4 | 3241 (97 % 24 %) | 730 |
| Min. | 3.28 (8 % 8 %) | 0.098 | 0.102 (49 % 17 %) | 2.53 | 17.8 (17 % 0 %) | 1.42 |
| Med. | 23.4 (32 % 25 %) | 0.656 | 3.89 (84 % 34 %) | 12.3 | 426 (84 % 5 %) | 110 |
| Max. | 228 (100 % 65 %) | 21.9 | 257 (100 % 63 %) | 333 | 8971 (100 % 45 %) | 856 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 226

More precisely, the data considered that 91 mg of soil (STANEK ET AL., 2001; MEEM, 2017) could be consumed daily by a child (15 kg) over 340 days for 6 years of theoretical exposure (EQ. 23).

$$ADD = \frac{CS \times IR \times EF \times ED}{BW \times AT} \times 10^{-6}$$
(EQ. 23)

where:

CS: concentration of contaminant in soil (mg kg⁻¹) IR: ingestion rate of soil (mg day⁻¹) EF: exposure frequency (day year⁻¹) ED: exposure duration (years) BW: body weight (kg) AT: averaging time (days) for non-carcinogenic contaminants: ED (years) x 365 days year⁻¹ (BEVAN AND HARRISON, 2017) or for carcinogenic contaminants: 70 years (*i.e.*, lifetime) x 365 days year⁻¹.

With ADD, both the threshold effects by calculating the hazard quotient (HQ) and the non-threshold effects by calculating the carcinogenic risk (CR) were considered by using the toxicological reference values (TRV) of each contaminant (TABLE 36) recommended by ANSES (2020) and INERIS (2018) (EQ. 24 AND EQ. 25) (MEDD, 2007B; LIANG ET AL., 2017; JIA ET AL., 2018), where TRV is expressed in mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹ for threshold chemicals and in (mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹)⁻¹ for carcinogens.

TABLE 36: TOXICOLOGICAL REFERENCE VALUES (TRV) FOR AS, CD AND PB (INGESTION) IN MG KG⁻¹ DAY⁻¹ (ANSES, 2020; INERIS, 2018) FOR NO CARCINOGENIC RISKS (WITH THRESHOLD) AND CARCINOGENIC RISK (CR), TOXICITY POINT (TP) (ATSDR, 2015) AND *EX SITU* THRESHOLD GUIDE VALUES (TGV) FOR SNAILS IN MG KG⁻¹ (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B).

| Soil | TRV with threshold | Toxicological target | TRV for CR | Ex situ TGV | ТР |
|------|---------------------------|----------------------|------------|--------------------|-----|
| As | 0.00045 | Skin | 1.5 | 0.364 | 600 |
| Cd | 0.00036 | Kidney | ND | 5.60 | 400 |
| Pb | 0.00063 | Kidney | 0.0085 | 9.06 | 400 |
| | | | | | |

ND: NOT DETERMINED

| $HQ = \frac{ADD}{TRV}$ | (EQ. 24) |
|------------------------|----------|
| $CR = ADD \times TRV$ | (EQ. 25) |

The interpretation of HQ and CR for As, Cd and Pb was ranked into three levels: no risk, uncertain risk and potential risk (TABLE 37). When values of HQ and/or CR are uncertain (TABLE 37), ADD can be weighted by the percentage of bioaccessible fraction measured with UBM (ISO 17924, 2018;

LOUZON ET AL., 2020A). The bioaccessible fractions (expressed in %) of the metal(loid)s corresponded to the ratio between the measured concentrations and soil concentrations (expressed in mg kg⁻¹ dw).

TABLE 37: INTERPRETATION OF VALUES OF HAZARD QUOTIENT (HQ), CANCER RISK (CR) (MEEM, 2017) AND RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) (LOUZON ET AL., SUBMITTED).

| Risk | HQ | CR | RC |
|-----------|-------|-----------|------------|
| No | <0.2 | <10-6 | <2574 |
| Uncertain | 0.2-5 | 10-6-10-4 | 2574-22720 |
| Proven | >5 | >10-4 | >22720 |

To refine the exposure assessment, bioaccessibility can be introduced into HHRA by using a relative bioavailability factor (RB) to quantify the difference in bioavailability of a metal(loid) between the soil matrix and the reference matrix (on which the TRV was built). This factor can be then used in the calculation of ADD (EQ. 26).

$$ADD_{adjusted} = ADD \times RB = \frac{ADD \times RB_{soil}}{RB_{TRV}} = ADD \times \frac{BA_{soil} \times fa_{soil}}{BA_{TRV} \times fa_{TRV}}$$
(EQ. 26)

where:

 RB_{soil} and RB_{TRV} are the absolute bioavailability of the metal(loid) in the soil matrix and the reference matrix, respectively (unitless)

 BA_{soil} and BA_{TRV} are the absolute bioaccessibility of the metal(loid) in the soil matrix and the reference matrix, respectively (unitless)

 fa_{soil} and fa_{TRV} are the absorbed fraction of the metal(loid) extracted from the soil matrix and the reference matrix, respectively (unitless).

Based on INVS (2012), it was found that for As and Cd: (i) fa_{soil} and fa_{TRV} were similar, and (ii) the absolute bioaccessibility in the gastric (G) phase (*i.e.*, stomachal phase) of these elements in drinking water (*i.e.*, fa_{TRV}) was close to 100 %. Thus, for As and Cd, the bioaccessible fraction was directly used to weight the ADD (EQ. 27).

$$ADD_{adjusted} (As \text{ or } Cd) = ADD \times BA_{soil}$$
 (EQ. 27)

A similar approach was used for Pb. The TRV established by WHO was calculated considering all sources of Pb (water, air, and food) with the aim of not exceeding a blood level of 50 μ g L⁻¹ in a child. The calculation was performed on the basis of: (i) a Pb uptake of 20 to 80 % in children's diets (ZIEGLER ET AL., 1978; DEMICHELE, 1984) and (ii) a Pb retention of 30 % in the body. According to OOMEN ET AL. (2006), the absolute bioavailability of Pb in the reference matrix can be estimated to average 40 %. Thus, the adjusted ADD for Pb can be determined by considering the maximum value of the absorption (80 %) for all soils (EQ. 28) (INVS, 2012).

$$ADD \ adjusted \ (Pb) = ADD \ \times \frac{BA_{soil} \times 0.8}{0.4} = ADD \times 2 \times BA_{soil}$$
(EQ. 28)

For a conservative estimate, the phase (gastric or gastro-intestinal, *i.e.*, G or GI) in which oral bioaccessibility is the highest was used to weight the ADD (INVS, 2012). Finally, the ISE was performed for each soil to obtain the HHRA by considering the worst interpretation of risk indicators for all contaminants (e.g., if HQ and CR for As and Pb rank a soil as no risk, but its HQ for Cd rank the soil as proven risk, the soil is then considered to have risk due to the Cd) using the criteria summarized in TABLE 37.

2.2.3. Environmental risk assessment

The RCs for environmental risk assessments were obtained using the snail *ex situ* test over 28 days (LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). Sub-adult snails (*Cantareus aspersus*) were exposed as described in LOUZON ET AL. (2020A). To assess environmental risk by RC calculation based on bioaccumulated concentrations, the following formula was used with the toxicity point (TP) from ATSDR (2015) and *ex situ* threshold guide values (TGV) according to LOUZON ET AL. (2020B) and TABLE 35 (EQ. 29).

$$RC = \left(\left(\frac{Median \ concentration \ of \ contaminant \ in \ snail \ viscera \ at \ 28 \ days}{TGV} \right) - 1 \right) \times TP$$
(EQ. 29)

The ERA was performed for each soil by the evaluation of the risk of transferred metallic elements (ERITME) index based on the sum of the RCs (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) (EQ. 30). The interpretation of the level of risk as a function of RC and/or ERITME values is possible on the basis of ecotoxic effects on the kinetics of sexual maturity (LOUZON ET AL., SUBMITTED) (TABLE 37).

 $ERITME = RC_{AS} + RC_{Cd} + RC_{Pb}$ (EQ. 30)

2.2.4. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was performed with R (version 3.4.2) (R CORE TEAM, 2019). The assessment of the relationships between the indicators of human health and environmental risks were performed using Spearman's correlation. The relationships between the total concentrations of metal(loid)s in the soils and the excess metal(loid) transfers to snails ($C_{28 days} > TGV$) were evaluated

by comparisons of the identity line (y = x) of the ratio between the total concentration in the soils and the SGV (soil guide values) (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A) as a function of the ratio between the internal concentration in the snails after 28 days of exposure and the TGV.

2.3. Results and discussion

2.3.1. Human health risk assessment

HQ and CR were calculated for each soil to estimate human health risk (TABLE 38). By considering the total concentrations of metal(loid)s in the twenty-nine soil samples, the HQ ranged from 0.04 to 2.86 for As, from 0 to 4.04 for Cd and from 0.16 to 80.5 for Pb, respectively. The CR ranged from 2.38 x 10⁻⁶ to 1.65 x 10⁻⁴ for As and 7.33 x 10⁻⁸ to 3.69 x 10⁻⁵ for Pb. Overall, for the HHRA, the HQ and CR indicators demonstrated divergence in several cases for the same metal(loid)s. Values of these indicators were uncertain for 16, 9 and 16 soils for the HQ of As, Cd and Pb, respectively, and 27 and 20 soils for the CR of As and Pb, respectively (in TABLE 37, the uncertainty area concerns values between 0.2 to 5 for HQ and 10⁻⁶ to 10⁻⁴ for CR).

According to INVS (2012), to refine the risk assessment, the HQ adjusted and the CR adjusted were calculated on the basis of the highest bioaccessible fraction obtained between the G and the GI phases (TABLE 38). The adjustment of ADD for Pb can be made by considering the maximum value of the absorption (80 %) and the mean bioavailability (40 %). For As, the bioaccessible fractions were higher in the GI phase than in the G phase for 9 soils (OI, OI2, OI3, OI4, OI6, OI8, OI9, O20 and O22), whereas for Cd and Pb, the bioaccessible fraction was systematically higher in the G phase than in the GI phase (TABLE 35). For these metals, the higher bioaccessibility in the G phase is explained by the acidic pH of the stomach-simulated fluids, which contributes to higher solubilization of metals (RUBY ET AL., 1996; WRAGG ET AL., 2011). For As, the relatively similar level of bioaccessibility between the G and GI phases could be explained by the reduced adsorption and precipitation reactions caused by the particularly geochemical behaviour of this metalloid in the simulated fluid conditions at a neutral pH (RUBY ET AL., 1996; WRAGG ET AL., 2011; RAHMAN ET AL., 2017). For As, after adjustments of the values in the uncertainty area, the HQ and CR adjusted ranged from 0.02 to 2.86 and 4.23 \times 10⁻⁷ to 1.65 \times 10-4, respectively, leading to decreased numbers of soils (7 and 23, respectively) with uncertain risk (TABLE 38). In the current management of As polluted soils, it is shown that no-negligible CR can be calculated for very low ceoncentrations of As in soils, notably at the SGV of in soils (25 mg kg⁻¹). Indeed, the soil O7 for example, presented a measured concentration of As of 12.8 mg kg⁻¹ (TABLE 35), and the unadjusted and adjusted CRs were 9.27×10^{-6} and 3.25×10^{-6} , respectively (TABLE 38), despite the low bioaccessible fractions (35 % and 25 %, respectively for the G and the GI phases). In this

example, the adjustment of the CR by bioaccessibility is not sufficient to reduce the uncertainty of the risk to the level of "no risk" (TABLE 38). The adjustment of the HQ in the area of uncertain risk for Cd by bioaccessibility provides an HQ ranging from 0 to 4.04 with a decrease of 3 % in the number of soils with uncertain risk (i.e., 31% and 28 % of the soils with uncertain risk for HQ and HQ adj., respectively) (TABLE 38). The decrease in the number of soils with uncertain risk for the HQ of As was higher than for Cd in relation to the lower gastric bioaccessibility of As versus Cd in the soils of this study (G bioaccessible median fraction for As and Cd of 32 % and 84 %, respectively) (TABLE 35). For As, and to a lesser extent for Cd, these results validated the inclusion of bioaccessibility to improve the interpretation of human health risks, both in terms of toxicological threshold effects and carcinogenic effects. For Pb, the adjusted HQ and CR ranged from 0.16 to 80.5 and from 7.33 x 10-8 to 7.38×10^{-5} , respectively (TABLE 38). However, due to the correction applied to obtain a better ADD consideration for Pb, the use of an orally bioaccessible fraction to refine the HQ or CR of Pb seems inefficient, unless the bioaccessible fraction was smaller than 50 % (see EQ. 28 in 2.2. Experimental section). The results of the ISE showed that none of the studied soils presented no risk to human health, notably due to the contamination of these soils by Pb. However, after the soils with uncertain risk were ranked based on adjustments of HQ and CR, two soils became no risk (O16 and O22). For an ISE based on results that were risk adjusted or non-risk adjusted with bioaccessibility, the results showed that 11 and 18 soils, respectively, had uncertain risk, leading to a soil status modification of 24 % (TABLE 38). The relevance of adjusting HQ and CR with the bioaccessible fraction to decrease the uncertainty regarding the risks of contaminated soils (carcinogenic or not) to human health was observed, particularly for soil contaminated by As (TABLE 38). However, because Pb and its adjustment with EQ. 28 mainly drive the ISE, the bioaccessibility fraction in this study was not sufficient to decrease the global risk for HHRA for most of the soils. The use of the bioaccessible G fraction is questionable for physiological reasons. Indeed, metal(loid) absorption mainly occurs in the intestine (MUSHAK, 1991; DIAMOND ET AL., 1998). Currently, in the regulations (INVS, 2012), the most penalizing phase (often the G phase) is considered. Consequently, by considering the G phase, which is in most of the cases, the most penalizing to be more protective and decrease the uncertainty regarding risk, the risk can be overestimated. Due to the consideration of the absorption abilities of Pb in the human digestive tract (EQ. 28), the oral bioaccessibility fraction improved the HHRA and demonstrated human health risks in 5 additional soils (TABLE 38). However, the G phase is the main phase considered to decrease the uncertainty caused by Pb in relation to the stronger bioaccessibility of Pb in the stomach (TABLE 35). For physiological reasons, if the gastro-intestinal phase is considered (i.e., the main site of contaminant assimilation), the results could be different. Indeed, the median (min, max) of the bioaccessible fractions of Pb in the gastric and gastrointestinal phases was 84 % (17 %, 100 %) and 5 % (0 %, 45 %), respectively (TABLE 35).

TABLE 38: ASSESSMENT OF HUMAN HEALTH RISK WITH HAZARD QUOTIENT (HQ), CANCER RISK (CR) AND INTERPRETATION THE STATE OF THE ENVIRONMENT (ISE) (WHEN HQ OR CR WERE IN THE AREA OF UNCERTAIN RISK, THEY WERE WEIGHTED (HQ ADJ. OR CR ADJ.) BY BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTION. THE RESULT OF THE ISE IS THE MOST CONSERVATIVE LEVEL OF RISK FOR ALL THE METAL(LOID)S STUDIED ACCORDING TO THE ISE GRID OF INTERPRETATION SUMMARIZED IN TABLE 37).

| | As | | | | Cd | | | | Pb | | | | ISE | |
|-------------|------|-------------------------|----------|-------------------------|------|--------|---------|---------|-------|-------------------------|---------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Soil | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | risk | risk adj. |
| 01 | 0.17 | 9.76 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 3.71 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 3.86 | I.77 x I0⁻ ⁶ | 6.25 | 2.87 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | proven |
| O 2 | 0.15 | 8.36 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 2.68 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.87 | 1.32 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 3.90 | 1.80 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O 3 | 2.86 | 1.65 x 10 ⁻⁴ | 2.86 | no adj. | 4.04 | no TRV | 4.04 | no TRV | 56.09 | 2.57 x 10 ⁻⁵ | no adj. | 5.14 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| O 4 | 0.93 | 5.40 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.53 | 3.08 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.75 | no TRV | 0.65 | no TRV | 46.82 | 2.15 x 10 ⁻⁵ | no adj. | 3.27 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| O 5 | 1.36 | 7.85 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.82 | 4.71 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 1.35 | no TRV | 1.20 | no TRV | 80.49 | 3.69 x 10 ⁻⁵ | no adj. | 7.38 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| O 6 | 1.75 | 1.01 x 10 ⁻⁴ | 1.40 | no adj. | 1.71 | no TRV | 1.64 | no TRV | 19.61 | 9.02 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 1.68 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| 07 | 0.16 | 9.27 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 3.24 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 3.45 | I.59 x I0⁻ ⁶ | 6.07 | 2.80 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | proven |
| 08 | 0.07 | 4.10 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 8.61 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.27 | 1.27 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.36 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 09 | 0.29 | 1.70 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.13 | 7.65 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.79 | 2.20 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 9.20 | 4.22 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | proven |
| 010 | 0.61 | 3.53 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.45 | 2.58 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.44 | no TRV | 0.44 | no TRV | 20.02 | 9.18 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 1.84 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| 011 | 0.35 | 2.03 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.18 | 1.02 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.29 | no TRV | 0.25 | no TRV | 11.33 | 5.19 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 9.13 x 10 ⁻⁶ | proven | proven |
| 012 | 0.10 | 5.63 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 9.01 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.99 | 9.10 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 3.54 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 013 | 0.16 | 9.18 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 2.66 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.10 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.34 | 1.99 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 8.20 | 3.74 x 10⁻ ⁶ | uncertainty | proven |
| 014 | 0.30 | 1.70 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.20 | 1.11 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.24 | no TRV | 0.21 | no TRV | 6.45 | 2.96 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 5.03 x 10 ⁻⁶ | proven | proven |
| 015 | 0.17 | 9.84 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 3.74 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.59 | 7.29 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 2.04 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 016 | 0.07 | 4.01 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 6.42 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.16 | 7.33 x 10 ⁻⁸ | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk |
| 017 | 0.22 | 1.29 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.02 | 1.42 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.31 | 1.39 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.25 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 018 | 0.93 | 5.40 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.07 | 4.32 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.42 | 1.92 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.28 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 019 | 0.12 | 7.34 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 1.03 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.05 | 4.81 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 1.51 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O 20 | 0.33 | 1.89 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.08 | 4.35 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.35 | 6.18 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 1.89 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 021 | 0.14 | 8.21 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 4.02 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.58 | 1.18 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 4.33 | 1.98 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O 22 | 0.04 | 2.38 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 4.28 x 10 ⁻⁷ | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.17 | 8.11 x 10 ⁻⁸ | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 232

| O23 | 0.72 | 4.14 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.22 | 1.24 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 5.92 | 2.71 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 9.21 x 10 ⁻⁷ | proven | proven |
|-------------|------|-------------------------|----------|-------------------------|------|--------|---------|--------|-------|-------------------------|---------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| O24 | 0.15 | 8.69 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 2.95 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.06 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.72 | 1.25 x 10⁻ ⁶ | 4.68 | 2.15 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O26 | 0.17 | 9.68 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no. adj. | 4.16 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.80 | 1.28 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 4.93 | 2.25 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O 27 | 0.36 | 2.07 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.09 | 4.97 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 16.88 | 7.75 x 10 ⁻⁶ | no adj. | 1.05 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| O 28 | 0.32 | 1.88 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.09 | 5.45 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.04 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.19 | I.92 x I0⁻ ⁶ | 5.24 | 2.42 x 10 ⁻⁶ | uncertainty | proven |
| O29 | 0.46 | 2.62 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.11 | 6.29 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.43 | no TRV | 0.21 | no TRV | 47.15 | 2.17 x 10 ⁻⁵ | no adj. | 4.30 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |
| O 30 | 0.36 | 2.06 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 0.10 | 5.56 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.20 | no TRV | 0.16 | no TRV | 29.04 | 1.33 x 10 ⁻⁵ | no adj. | 2.58 x 10 ⁻⁵ | proven | proven |

THE LEVEL OF RISK IS INTERPRETED ACCORDING TO THREE CATEGORIES: NO RISK, UNCERTAIN RISK AND PROVEN RISK, LABELLED AS GREEN, ORANGE AND RED, RESPECTIVELY.

2.3.2. Environmental risk assessment

The snail *ex situ* test was used to assess the environmental risk of these contaminated soils by measuring the bioaccumulated concentrations of metal(loid)s in the visceral mass (TABLE 34). The results showed that the concentrations of metal(loid)s ranged from 0.098 to 21.9 mg kg⁻¹ of dw viscera for As, from 2.53 to 333 mg kg⁻¹ for Cd and from 1.42 to 856 mg kg⁻¹ for Pb. An inter-soil variability of bioaccumulated concentrations in *C. aspersus* was found and this variability reflected the influence of the soil contamination (concentration of metal(loid)s in the soils and mixtures) and the influence of the physicochemical parameters of the soils on metal(loid) mobility and transfer, such as the silt content, the cationic exchange capacity and the organic matter content (PAUGET ET AL., 2012; LOUZON ET AL., 2020A).

On the basis of the *ex situ* threshold guide values (TGV), RCs were calculated for each soil and metal(loid) and summed for the assessment of risk by the ERITME index calculation (TABLE 36). RCs ranged from 0 to 35500 for As, 0 to 23400 for Cd and 0 to 37400 for Pb. ERITME for the three metal(loid)s studied varied from 0 to 96300 (TABLE 39). Finally, according to the bioavailability of As, Cd and Pb for the land snail, 11, 10 and 8 soils were classified as without risks, with uncertain risk and with proven environmental risk, respectively (TABLE 39).

The relationships between the ratio of the concentrations of metal(loids) in the soils with the soil guide values (SGV) and the ratio of the concentration of metal(loid)s in the viscera of snails after 28 days of exposure to the threshold guide value (when the ratios between the internal concentrations and TGV are higher than I, a bioavailability of contaminant is characterized) are shown in FIGURE 47. Soils below the identity line (y = x) showed a high bioavailability of metal(loids)s in snails based on internal concentrations of the metal(loid)s measured in the snails, while soils above the line showed low bioavailability of excess metal(loids)s in the soils to snails (FIGURE 47). This inter-soil variability according to the total concentrations in soils and in the snail is related to the concept of the bioavailability. More precisely, for As transfer to snails, this variability results from the positive influence of silt and the negative influence of organic matter content in soils (LOUZON ET AL., 2020A).

The values of RCs and the ERITME index constituted a basis to prioritize the management of polluted soils (e.g., remediation, adjustment of use) according to the environmental risk on the basis of the toxicity of metal(loid)s transferred to snails (PAUGET AND DE VAUFLEURY, 2015; MARIET ET AL., 2017A; LOUZON ET AL., 2020B). For example, by considering the ERITME values for soils O28 and O7 (724 and

12328, respectively), the O7 soil presented a higher environmental risk than O28, and its management should be prioritized to limit environmental risk, although the soil O7 was less contaminated (TABLE 39).



FIGURE 47: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE RATIO OF [METAL(LOID)S]SOILS/SGV(METAL(LOID)S) (MG KG⁻¹ DW) AND THE RATIO OF [METAL(LOID)S]SNAILS/TGV(METAL(LOID)S) (MG KG⁻¹ DW) (SGV AND TGV WERE SUMMARIZED IN LOUZON ET AL. (2020B); DOTTED LINE REPRESENTS THE IDENTITY LINE Y = X).

Considering the variability of the values of RC that reflect the soil contamination and their physicochemical properties (TABLES 35 AND 39), the bioavailability assessment is a way to refine environmental impact assessments according to the specificity of each site in terms of physicochemical parameters (BRADHAM ET AL., 2006; PAUGET ET AL., 2013A).

2.3.3. Correlations between human health and environmental risk indicators

Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) (p-values < 0.001) was calculated between human health risk indicators (HQ or CR) either adjusted or not adjusted for bioaccessibility if the values were in the area of uncertain risk and the environmental risk indicator assessed with land snails (RC) and are summarized in TABLE 40. Strong correlations were demonstrated between RC and values of human health risk indicators with significant ρ between 0.57 and 0.93. For HQ, the adjustment with bioaccessibility increased the correlations with RC for Pb (+ 2 %) but not for Cd, and it decreased the correlations with RC for As (- 10 %). For CR, the adjustment with bioaccessibility increased the correlations with RC for As (+ 13 %) and for Pb (+ 3 %) (TABLE 40).

TABLE 39: ASSESSMENT OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL RISK WITH RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) AND EVALUATION OF THE RISK OF TRANSFERRED METALLIC ELEMENTS (ERITME) INDEX.

| Soil | RC As | RC Cd | RC Pb | ERITME |
|------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| 01 | 0 | 0 | 3336 | 3336 |
| O2 | 0 | 4 | 1512 | 1516 |
| O3 | 35520 | 23400 | 37400 | 96320 |
| O4 | 1524 | 3880 | 28400 | 33804 |
| O5 | 3108 | 4840 | 31880 | 39828 |
| O6 | 31080 | 21520 | 34160 | 86760 |
| 07 | 0 | 928 | 11400 | 12328 |
| O8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 09 | 5880 | 1884 | 8800 | 16564 |
| 010 | 3210 | 4720 | 21800 | 29730 |
| 011 | 5640 | 3352 | 18640 | 27632 |
| 012 | 0 | 492 | 7160 | 7652 |
| 013 | 0 | 1620 | 6760 | 8380 |
| 014 | 2730 | 2936 | 11560 | 17226 |
| 015 | 192 | 32 | 528 | 752 |
| 016 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 017 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 018 | 1692 | 0 | 0 | 1692 |
| 019 | 0 | 464 | 1252 | 1716 |
| O20 | 2664 | 0 | 1316 | 3980 |
| O21 | 3078 | 420 | 3296 | 6794 |
| O22 | 0 | 0 | 136 | 136 |
| O23 | 1842 | 0 | 1328 | 3170 |
| O24 | 768 | 484 | 1172 | 2424 |
| O26 | 0 | 0 | 2160 | 2160 |
| O27 | 0 | 228 | 5640 | 5868 |
| O28 | 0 | 0 | 724 | 724 |
| O29 | 24 | 1620 | 35800 | 37444 |
| O30 | 1314 | 1056 | 31840 | 34210 |

THE LEVEL OF RISK IS INTERPRETED ACCORDING TO THREE CATEGORIES: NO RISK, UNCERTAIN RISK AND PROVEN RISK, LABELLED AS GREEN, ORANGE AND RED, RESPECTIVELY.

Overall, the correlations between human health and environmental risk indicators were improved by considering oral bioaccessibility for humans. On the basis of the correlations obtained, the relationships discovered between oral bioaccessibility and the bioavailability of metal(loid)s in soils as bioindicators of soil quality by RAHMAN ET AL. (2017) and LOUZON ET AL. (2020A) can be extended between human health (non-carcinogenic and carcinogenic) and environmental health risk indicators.

TABLE 40: SPEARMAN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (ρ) FOR EACH METAL(LOIDS) AND EACH RISK INDEX (ADJUSTED OR NOT ADJUSTED WITH BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTION IF INDICATORS WERE IN THE AREA OF UNCERTAINTY RISK. SIGNIFICANCE OF P WAS ASSESSED WITH P-VALUES AND SIGNIFIED WITH STARS: "*", "**" AND "***" FOR < 0.05, < 0.01 AND < 0.001, RESPECTIVELY).

| | RC As | RC Cd | RC Pb |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| HQ | 0.67*** | 0.93*** | 0.90*** |
| HQ adj. | 0.57** | 0.93*** | 0.92*** |
| CR | 0.67*** | ND | 0.90*** |
| CR adj. | 0.80*** | ND | 0.93*** |

HQ: HAZARD QUOTIENT, HQ ADJ.: HAZARD QUOTIENT ADJUSTED, CR: CARCINOGENIC RISK, CR ADJ.: CARCINOGENIC RISK ADJUSTED, RC: RISK COEFFICIENT, ND: NOT DETERMINED BECAUSE NO TRV FOR CR OF CD EXIST.

2.3.4. Integrative risk assessment

According to the strong correlations observed, the interpretation of the assessment of the human health, whether adjusted or not adjusted with oral bioaccessible fraction and environmental risk was compared for each soil to evaluate similarities and discrepancies (FIGURE 48). In FIGURE 48, on the basis of the values used to interpret the indicators of risk (TABLE 37), the worst level of human health risk with HQ and/or CR was used to rank the soils.

The comparison between HHRA or HHRA adj. and ERA showed that 52 % and 45 % of the soils, respectively, had the same level of risks (FIGURE 48). These differences can be related to the parameters used to consider the absorption of Pb (see EQ. 28 in subsection 2.2. of the Experimental section) that increases the values of HQ and CR adjusted. For example, without adjustment, the HQ for Pb of soil O1 was 3.86 (uncertain risk), while with adjustment, the HQ was 6.25 (proven risk) (TABLE 38).

☆ Risk Uncertain risk No risk 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 026 027 028 029 030 ■ ISE ■ ISE adj. ■ ERITME

Combiner les indicateurs sanitaires et environnementaux avec les escargots pour une évaluation intégrative des risques de sols contaminés par des métal(loïde)s

FIGURE 48: SUMMARY OF THE HHRA WITH ISE AND ISE ADJ. AND THE ERA WITH ERITME FOR EACH OF THE SOILS IN THE STUDY (ISE WERE ADJUSTED WITH THE ORAL BIOACCESSIBLE FRACTION WHEN HQ OR CR WERE IN THE AREA OF UNCERTAIN RISK USING THE CLASSIFICATION IN THE TABLE 37. YELLOW STARS INDICATE SOILS WHERE HUMAN HEALTH RISK IS EVIDENCED OR IS UNCERTAIN AND THE LEVEL OF ENVIRONMENTAL RISK IS NO RISKED. THE RESULT OF THE RISK RANKING FOR ISE IN THIS FIGURE IS BASED ON THE MOST NEGATIVE INTERPRETATION OF THE RISK FOR HQ AND CR FOR ALL OF THE METAL(LOID)S STUDIED. ISE, ISE ADJ. AND ERA WITH ERITME ARE PRESENTED BY COLORED BAR PLOTS IN BLUE, ORANGE AND GREEN, RESPECTIVELY).

These results demonstrated convergences and some differences in terms of interpretation between the conclusions of the ERA and the HHRA of the soils. For example, existing human activities at the site of soil O28 appear inappropriate due to the state and the fate of the soil contamination, while this does not seem to be the case for the soil fauna organisms. Indeed, the RC of Pb in the O28 and O14 soils differed greatly (724 and 11560, respectively) with various environmental risk interpretations (no risk and uncertain risk), while their total soil concentrations were higher (467 mg kg⁻¹ and 719 mg kg⁻¹). Their human health risk was also higher (HQ for Pb of 4.19 and 6.45 for O28 and O14 soils, respectively). The HQ of the Pb in these soils was close to 5, and classifying the soil as having high uncertain and proven risks, respectively (TABLE 38). This example illustrates the different conclusions that can be drawn between HHRA and ERA. For HHRA, these two soils are classified as high uncertain and proven risks, which is in agreement with the alert threshold of saturnism risk (300 mg kg⁻¹) and its vigilance threshold (100 mg kg⁻¹) (HCSP, 2014), which implies management of soil pollution (notably by considering the G phase). For soil fauna, soils O14 and O28 were classified as either having uncertain risk and no risk, respectively.

The overall assessment of the environmental risk cannot be performed only on the basis of the response of one bioindicator. However, the use of an accumulation bioindicator that shows the transfer and the bioavailability of contaminants provides essential data regarding risk. This information constitutes the necessary elements of decisions-making to help manage the pollution of the contaminated soils. The IRA was performed for each soil by considering the worst interpretation of the risk to be the most protective for the health of the ecosystem including humans (One Health).

Finally, of the twenty-nine investigated soils, often highly contaminated with As, Cd and Pb (in terms of mixture and concentration), sixteen soils presented risks and thirteen were of uncertain risk (FIGURE 48). For these last thirteen soils, supplementary investigations are required to refine the level of risk, potentially by using others bioindicators such as earthworms (FRÜND ET AL., 2011) and specific assays, to assess for example the carcinogenic (VASSEUR AND BONNARD, 2014; DE SOUZA ET AL., 2015; LIU ET AL., 2015) and endocrine disruptor (HÖSS AND WELTJE, 2007; MERTL ET AL., 2014; DRUART ET AL., 2017) potentials of these soils (ISO 19204, 2017). These approaches that would possibly involve integrated biomarker responses (IBR) can be coupled with the ERITME index as demonstrated by MLEIKI ET AL. (2020) for another snail species, *Cantareus apertus*. According to the cost of the decontamination (LOMBI AND HAMON, 2005), the prioritization of the remediation of the soils could be ranked as function of the values of the risk index (HQ adj., CR adj. and ERITME) to better assess the adequacy between the uses of the soils and the risks (MEEM, 2017) and to protect terrestrial ecosystems (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A).

Currently, the management of contaminated soils is predominantly based on HHRA. When HHRA concludes that a risk to humans exists, decontamination or other management methodologies should be used. When remediation solutions are too much expensive or when the economic balance of the site redevelopment project does not cover the management overhead, the project can be abandoned and the site remains unclaimed. The assessment of the environmental risk and the pollutant transfers in the environment developed in this study reveal that, although a risk to humans was identified, the contaminants were not necessarily bioavailable (environmental and/or toxicological bioavailability) to an organism of the soil fauna (see yellows stars in FIGURE 48). Consequently, the anthropic uses of soil and the risks can be assessed by considering the bioaccessibility to humans and the bioavailability to snails (FIGURE 49). In certain cases, if the IRA shows a higher risk for human health with the current use (ISE>thresholds) but not for the environment (ERITME < threshold), in the future, through developing this methodology to establish a management plan (by using quantitative human health risk assessment), certain sites can be managed by avoiding human activities (e.g., restricting access). In cases such as urban wastelands, the pollutants remain in place to promote land restoration that can increase the biodiversity and/or other alternative uses, such as the production of renewable energy from ecological compensation.



FIGURE 49: DEVELOPMENT OF A MANAGEMENT PLAN COMBINING HHRA AND ERA (ACCORDING TO RESULTS OF THIS STUDY AND ADAPTED FROM THE GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT IN LOUZON ET AL. (2020A)).

2.4. Conclusion

This study provides essential knowledge to begin building bridges between human health and environmental risk indicators in the context of the One Health approach and the increasing global environmental crisis. For the first time, methodologies to determine the level of risk for both risk indicators were applied simultaneously to polluted soils.

Strong correlations are found between the values of risk indicators for human and environmental health for the three metal(loid)s studied, but in most cases, their interpretation does not indicate the same level of risk. Unexpectedly, for about two-third of the studied soils both indicators revealed either a confirmed risk or an uncertain level of risk. Another development is that we found that overall polluted soils present greater risk for human than for the environmental bioindicator, with 55 % versus 28 % of the studied soils classified in the proven risk, respectively.

The methodology we presented in FIGURE 49 is one way to assess the integrative risk of polluted soils by considering bioaccessibility for humans and bioavailability for bioindicators to better consider the specificity of each site and to protect the health of the ecosystem that encompasses humans and all other life forms.

PARTIE V – DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION GENERALE



FIGURE 50 : SYNTHESE GRAPHIQUE DE LA CONCLUSION GENERALE.

Bien que dans la méthodologie nationale d'avril 2017 de gestion des sites et sols pollués (MEEM, 2017) et la norme ISO TRIADE (ISO 19204, 2017), les ERE sites spécifiques soient encouragées avec la combinaison d'approches chimiques, biologiques (écotoxicologiques) et écologiques, l'utilisation de ces méthodes manque de recul car elles sont récentes. De plus, les ERE des SSP se heurtent encore à un manque d'outils standardisés pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité des contaminants inorganiques et organiques notamment avec des bioindicateurs d'accumulation tant *in situ*, qu'ex situ. Afin de mieux considérer le concept de biodisponibilité dans les ERE, les approches *in situ* avec des TGV pour des métal(loïde)s proposées dans la thèse de Benjamin Pauget (PAUGET, 2012) pour calculer des indicateurs de risques sur la bases de transferts anomaliques ont contribué à répondre à ces manques.

Dans la continuité de ces travaux, la présente thèse visait à acquérir les connaissances fondamentales et appliquées pour développer des TGV avec une exposition en laboratoire (exposition aux terres seules afin de répondre aux besoins de caractérisation des terres excavées) aux métal(loïde)s, aux HAP et aux PCB, en incluant la considération de l'influence des propriétés physico-chimiques des sols. Sur la base de ces recherches, un autre objectif était d'intégrer l'évaluation de la toxicité spécifique des contaminants transférés pour le bioindicateur d'accumulation utilisé avec des approches de mesures de biomarqueurs à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique. Des cibles moléculaires innovantes ont été explorées pour l'évaluation des altérations de la santé des escargots (telle que la dynamique des télomères en lien avec la sénescence). En outre, la santé humaine et la santé environnementale étant inter-reliées et pour répondre aux enjeux actuels évoqués notamment dans le concept One Health, le couplage de méthodologies d'ERE et d'ERS pour le développement d'approches intégratives d'évaluations des risques a été entrepris via l'étude de liens entre la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et la bioaccumulation pour l'escargot, et les indicateurs de risques sanitaires de l'IEM et environnementaux avec l'approche GERITOXE (FIGURE 50).

Dans cette discussion générale, les principales avancées scientifiques sont présentées de même que les limites de la thèse et des perspectives de recherches associées. Concernant les retombées appliquées à l'ERE et à l'ERS des résultats obtenus, des voies possibles pour le couplage de l'ERE et l'ERS sont proposées. Basées sur les outils développés dans la thèse, elles se doivent d'être adaptables aux questions initiales des parties prenantes impliquées dans la gestion des SSP.

I. De la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique à l'évaluation des risques environnementaux

I.I. Evaluation des transferts et des risques environnementaux avec des valeurs guides de référence ex situ (TGV ex situ)

La biodisponibilité environnementale est un flux de contaminants de la matrice contaminée vers un organisme et correspond à la quantité de substances chimiques dans la matrice qui sont présentes sous des formes que les organismes cibles absorbent au cours de leur vie (HARMSEN, 2007; ISO 17402, 2008). Parmi les méthodes pour l'évaluer, des approches statiques peuvent être utilisées pour les contaminants bioaccumulables en accord avec les recommandations des normes ISO 17402 (2008) pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité et ISO 19204 (2017) pour l'évaluation des risques écologiques. Ces méthodes statiques proposent l'utilisation de bioindicateurs d'accumulation pour l'évaluation des transferts (FIGURE 51), tels que les escargots pour la biodisponibilité à l'interface sol-plante-atmosphère (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A).



FIGURE 51 : COMPLEMENTARITE DES APPROCHES CHIMIQUES, BIOLOGIQUES ET DE BIOACCUMULATION DANS LES METHODES D'EVALUATION DE LA BIODISPONIBILITE (D'APRES ISO 17402, 2008).

A la différence des méthodes d'extraction chimique conventionnelles proposées pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité, l'accumulation mesurée dans les organismes après exposition à un sol contaminé considère : l'influence des paramètres du sol, l'influence de l'âge de la contamination, la physiologie de l'organisme ciblé, l'induction de mécanismes de détoxication, les interactions entre contaminants et pour les approches *in situ*, également l'influence de la végétation sur site, de l'humus et de toutes les autres spécificités du site (microclimat, présence de végétaux hyper-accumulateurs). Les fractions bioaccumulées pourront également servir de base pour la modélisation de la biodisponibilité trophique et des risques pour les prédateurs (BAUDROT, 2016), tels que l'homme. Ces approches présentent quelques limites notamment pour les xénobiotiques rapidement métabolisés et/ou peu accumulés, où la recherche des métabolites apparaît être une perspective de recherche nécessaire pour mieux évaluer leurs biodisponibilités (WESSEL ET AL., 2010; BROERSE ET AL., 2012; BAALI ET AL., 2016).

A l'image des critical body residues (CBR) qui sont les concentrations internes sans effets toxiques chez des individus à un stade de développement défini (MA ET AL., 2005), les approches d'encagement *in situ* et d'essais en laboratoire *ex situ* pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité à partir de tests *in vivo* de bioaccumulation requièrent la détermination de valeurs seuils pour la caractérisation de concentrations internes normales (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A). Lorsque ces concentrations (ou TGV pour Threshold Guide Values) sont dépassées un excès de transfert est mis en évidence en lien avec une biodisponibilité des contaminants du sol pour le bioindicateur cible (FIGURE 52).



FIGURE 52 : CAS DE LA DETERMINATION DE LA TGV EX SITU DU COBALT (D'APRES LOUZON ET AL., 2020B).

Les TGV déterminées *ex situ* dans le cadre de cette thèse complètent les TGV *in situ* (ex CiRefs; PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) et constituent un apport original pour des approches en laboratoire applicables notamment aux terres excavées et hors influence des conditions pédoclimatiques et de la végétation du site. Elles apportent également les premières valeurs seuils pour le Mn, le Se et des contaminants organiques (HAP et PCB) chez l'escargot.

A l'avenir, ces TGV pourront être complétées en considérant :

- d'autres contaminants des sols problématiques et ou émergents (tels que les COHV, HCT, biocides, pharmaceutiques, TABLEAU I) ou les terres rares, pour lesquels les premières données pour des escargots non exposés indiquent des concentrations variées selon l'élément considéré (FIGURE 53).
- les mécanismes de métabolisation des organiques et la détermination de TGV pour les molécules mères et pour leurs métabolites (cas des formes hydroxylées par exemple),
- la biodisponibilité comme processus dynamique et donc des TGV non pas comme des concentrations après 28 jours d'exposition mais comme des vitesses d'accumulation en considérant les flux d'absorption (a, mg_{contaminant}.g_{tissu}-1.jour-1) et les taux d'excrétion (k, jour-1),
- la spéciation des contaminants bioaccumulés et la fraction liée à des ligands organiques (e.g., métallothionéines, phytochélatines) (PEDRINI-MARTHA ET AL., 2017; BEIL ET AL., 2019; DVORAK ET AL., 2020).



FIGURE 53 : CONCENTRATIONS VISCERALES POUR 3 ESCARGOTS SUB-ADULTES NON EXPOSES (MOYENNE ± ECART-TYPE) EN MG.KG⁻¹ (MS) EN TERRES RARES ET LIMITES DE QUANTIFICATIONS (LQ).

L'estimation de la biodisponibilité avec les TGV nécessite le calcul du quotient d'accumulation (AQ) pour un sol donné (FIGURE 54) et l'évaluation des risques (RC) consécutifs aux excès de transferts caractérisés est effectuée avec les toxicity points (TP). Cette méthode permet le calcul d'un indicateur de risque environmental basé sur le même modèle (exposition x toxicité) que les quotients de danger (QD) et les excès de risque individuels (ERI) en ERS pour l'interprétation de l'état des milieux (IEM) ou l'évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires (EQRS). Mis à part que les QD et les ERI sont calculés initialement sur la base de concentrations totales dans les sols (pouvant être pondérés par la fraction bioaccessible), alors que les RC sont calculés sur la base de concentrations bioaccumulées avec les AQ. Etant donné que les SSP sont dans de nombreux cas multi-contaminés (cas de pratiquement tous les sols anthropiques étudiés dans cette thèse) en composés inorganiques et organiques, un des apports de cette thèse repose sur la proposition d'un élargissement des indices SET et ERITME (PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY, 2015) via des indices synthétiques considérant les différentes familles de contaminants, applicables *in situ* et *ex situ* : les indices de somme globale des excès de transferts (GSET) et des risques écotoxicologiques qui en découlent (GERITOXE) (FIGURE 54).



FIGURE 54 : DES CONCENTRATIONS INTERNES AUX RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX.

L'indice de risque GERITOXE intègre les indices de risques spécifiques à chaque famille de contaminant, tels que les élément métalliques (ERITME), les hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (ERITPAH) et les polychlorobiphényles (ERITPCB). Concrètement ces indices permettent de prioriser et d'orienter la gestion des SSP sur la base des risques écotoxiques des contaminants transférés à l'escargot avec la possibilité de promouvoir des usages alternatifs (e.g., remblais, renaturation, phytomanagement, sous bâtiment industriel, revêtements routiers, sous une couverture de terre végétale, zone de stockage de déchets...). L'avenir de ces approches est prometteur puisque leur application a été élargie à une autre espèce d'escargot (*Cantareus* apertus, MLEIKI ET AL., 2020) et d'autres invertébrés du sol, les vers de terre (*Eisenia fetida*, COELHO ET AL., 2018).

Les valeurs guides de référence (ou TGV ex situ) développées dans le cadre de cette thèse pour l'ERE de terres excavées contaminées par des métal(loïde)s, des HAP et des PCB ont montré leur pertinence pour hiérarchiser les sols mono- et multi-contaminés en fonction du risque écotoxique causé par les transferts de contaminants avec le calcul des nouveaux indices (GSET et GERITOXE). L'intérêt de cette approche « TGV-GSET-GERITOXE » est d'évaluer les risques non pas sur la base des concentrations totales mais sur les concentrations biodisponibles qui pourront être à l'origine d'effets délétères sur la santé des individus et leurs populations. En effet, plusieurs données de cette thèse démontrent que ce ne sont pas nécessairement les sols les plus contaminés qui présentent le plus de risques, en lien avec le concept de biodisponibilité. Cette approche est proposée dans le tier 2 et le tier 3 du protocole TRIADE pour le volet chimie, ainsi, elle peut permettre de diminuer les incertitudes entre les trois volets (chimie, écologie et écotoxicologie) car GERITOXE lie les concentrations dans les sols avec les concentrations biodisponibles et les effets écotoxicologiques.

1.2. Influence des facteurs du sol sur la biodisponibilité des contaminants pour l'escargot et la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme

Jusqu'à présent les modélisations de l'influence des facteurs du sol sur la biodisponibilité des métal(loïde)s pour l'escargot ont été effectuées sur la base des concentrations internes (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A; PAUGET ET AL., 2015). Cette approche a été employée également dans cette thèse pour la comparaison de l'influence des propriétés physico-chimiques *ex situ* des sols sur la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme et la bioaccumulation par l'escargot d'As, de Cd et de Pb (TABLEAU 32). Cela a permis de montrer qu'en fonction de l'organisme cible considéré et de ses particularités écophysiologiques (e.g., pH du tube digestif), ce ne sont pas les mêmes paramètres qui modulent la biodisponibilité. Dans cette thèse, il a également été recherché si les transferts de métal(loïde)s de terres excavées vers les escargots étaient modulés par des paramètres physico-chimiques des sols identiques, que ces transferts proviennent principalement du bruit de fond pédogéochimique ou de contaminants non biodisponibles pour l'escargot (AQ < 1), ou que ces transferts soient en excès et en lien avec des concentrations biodisponibles pour l'escargot varie en fonction des valeurs des AQ (< 1 ou > 1). Quand les concentrations d'exposition sont faibles et proches du bruit de fond pédo-géochimique, l'influence des paramètres du sol (pH, teneur en matière organique, oxydes de fer et d'aluminium échangeable

principalement) est identifiée (TABLEAU II). Alors que lorsque les concentrations d'exposition de métal(loïde)s augmentent dans le sol pour des raisons anthropiques (dans le cadre de notre étude), l'influence des propriétés physico-chimique des sols devient moins significative (TABLEAU I0). Ainsi, globalement, les transferts anomaliques de métal(loïde)s pour l'escargot sont majoritairement influencés par la concentration totale en contaminant dans le sol.

Comme souligné dans l'étude de l'INERIS (2020B), il est nécessaire de valider les modèles de cette thèse sur l'influence des paramètres du sol sur la biodisponibilité des métal(loïdes) pour l'escargot et leurs bioaccessibilité pour l'homme sur un nombre plus important de données en fonction des différents contextes environnementaux (e.g., sites miniers). Cette validation permettrait de pouvoir utiliser ces modèles dans un but de prédiction des concentrations biodisponibles dans le cadre des ERE et des ERS. Cependant, dès à présent, les paramètres physico-chimiques identifiés influençant les transferts peuvent être considérés comme outils d'orientation de choix des échantillons destinés aux tests (INERIS, 2020B). Par exemple, pour un sol contaminé par du Cd et qui présente de fortes teneurs en argiles ou peu de matière organique, étant donné les modèles produits (TABLEAUX 10 ET 32), la biodisponibilité du Cd dans ce sol pour l'escargot et pour l'homme pourrait être très élevée. Ainsi des mesures de biodisponibilité pour l'escargot et de bioaccessibilité pour l'homme du Cd pourraient être fortement recommandées.

1.3. Approches *in situ* et *ex situ* : influence des spécificités environnementales du site et implications en ERE

L'ERE des sites et sols contaminés avec l'outil escargot comme bioindicateur d'accumulation peut être effectuée à la fois par des approches actives d'encagement *in situ* et par des expositions *ex situ* en conditions contrôlées en laboratoire (CHAPITE II.1). Sur le terrain, les escargots sont soumis à l'influence des conditions pédoclimatiques et les transferts des contaminants ne proviennent pas uniquement de la source sol (via ingestion et contact cutané) mais aussi de végétaux et de l'humus ingérés ainsi que de poussières de sols dans l'air inhalée (PAUGET ET AL., 2013A; MARIET ET AL., 2016). Les évaluations *in situ* permettent de caractériser les risques écologiques de sols structurés mais lorsqu'il devient nécessaire d'excaver ces terres, le recours aux essais *ex situ* permet de caractériser uniquement les risques de transferts liés à la source sol et ainsi mieux définir leurs potentielles réutilisation, notamment sur site en remblais. Afin de répondre aux besoins des gestionnaires des sites (biosurveillance, état des milieux, proposer des usages alternatifs en fonction des risques...), nous avons, dans le cadre de cette thèse, cherché à comparer les réponses *in situ* et *ex situ* de l'indicateur escargots via les RC et les indices ERITME et ERITPAH pour des sols diversement contaminés. Dans un premier temps, la comparaison a été réalisée à partir de données existantes *in situ* pour 7 sols contaminés (L1, L2, L3, L4, M1, M2 et M3) par 8 métal(loïde)s (As, Cd, Co, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, Zn) provenant des thèses de Benjamin PAUGET (2012) et d'Anne-Lise MARIET (2016) pour lesquels des expositions *ex situ* ont été réalisées en complément dans le cadre de cette thèse (ANNEXE 6). Les résultats montrent un niveau de risque équivalent quand les sols (L1, M1, M3) sont faiblement contaminés ou plus élevés *ex situ* quand les sols sont hautement contaminés (L2, L3, L4 et M2) (ANNEXE 6), ce qui est notamment en lien avec une très forte biodisponibilité de l'As et du Pb dans les terres excavées, ou à une exposition plus faible *in situ* car il y a la couche d'humus (PAUGET ET AL., 2015).

Cette étude comparative a été confirmée dans l'expérimentation menée simultanément ex situ et in situ pour 5 sols en 2019 (afin de s'affranchir de l'influence du stockage des terres excavées sur la biodisponibilité des contaminants). Les résultats obtenus sur une friche industrielle diversement contaminée par des métal(loïde)s et des HAP (TABLEAU 17; FIGURE 28) ont montré un transfert très limité des HAP in situ et ex situ soulignant leur faible biodisponibilité pour l'escargot. Concernant les métal(loïde)s, les résultats montrent également une plus forte sensibilité des approches ex situ, en lien avec de forts transferts d'As et de Pb dans les terres excavées. Cependant, les RC du Cd et du Mo se sont révélés plus importants in situ en lien probablement avec un transfert trophique impliquant les végétaux du site (WICHARD ET AL., 2009). Ces derniers peuvent par exemple stocker le Mo en très forte quantité, e.g., jusqu'à 1000 ppm de Mo (MCGRATH ET AL., 2012) qui peut ensuite transféré par voie trophique aux escargots (PAUGET ET AL., 2016). Peu de données existaient encore avant ces résultats sur le Mo chez les escargots. En effet, PAUGET ET DE VAUFLEURY (2015) avaient obtenus des RC faibles in situ de 74, soulignant de faibles transferts alors que dans le TABLEAU 17 un RC de 3 268 a été calculé pour une station, ce qui démontre de fortes capacités des escargots à bioaccumuler le Mo. En perspectives, la toxicité du Mo pour C. aspersus reste à déterminer car la majorité des informations concernant l'écotoxicité du molybdène pour les mollusques sont disponibles pour des espèces aquatiques (HEIJERICK ET CAREY, 2017).

Ces approches « TGV-GSET-GERITOXE » in situ et ex situ ont font l'objet d'une normalisation ISO CD (ISO 24032, 2020) pour favoriser leur mise en œuvre par les gestionnaires au sein des méthodologies spécifiques à l'ERE (e.g., TRIADE). Cela a été possible via la réalisation d'un essai interlaboratoire pour l'approche *in situ* où les participants de l'étude ont dans la grande majorité des cas obtenus des RC et des indices SET similaires et qui indiquaient le même niveau de risque en terme d'interprétation pour les sols investigués (partie II.2). Les approches spécifiques aux sites peuvent intervenir en complément de celles basées sur le calcul d'indice de risque avec le rapport PEC/PNEC
(ALHERS, 2001) ou des méthodes de species sentistivity distribution (JÄNSCH ET AL., 2007) classiquement utilisées. Pour certains contaminants lorsque des informations sont manquantes (NOEC et CEx, données souvent non disponibles pour les invertébrés terrestres dont les escargots), le ratio PEC/PNEC ainsi que l'évaluation des SSD ne peuvent pas être effectués, la méthode "TGV-GSET-GERITOXE" s'avère donc être un outil utile.

Enfin, le couplage des approches in situ et ex situ permet de prioriser la gestion des terres contaminées et d'orienter leur devenir en identifiant les risques écotoxicologiques associés aux transferts de contaminants sur site et en cas d'excavation. Par exemple, pour le sol fortement contaminé M2 (ANNEXE 6), l'indice ERITME est très élevé et indique un risque avéré sur site et ex situ, les terres ne peuvent pas être laissées sur site et ne peuvent pas bénéficier d'usages alternatifs en raison des forts transferts après excavation. En revanche, pour les sols A, B et C (FIGURE 28), laisser les terres en place ne présente pas de risque pour l'environnement (ERITME < 2574) alors que les excaver causerait un reclassement de leur risque environnemental vers la classe « zone d'incertitude ». Ainsi les sols A, B et C peuvent faire l'objet de renaturation (afin de promouvoir la biodiversité ou le développement de la trame verte et bleue) et/ou de dépollution in situ avec des outils de phytomanagement par exemple. L'approche ex situ fournit un outil d'aide à la décision pour le devenir des terres excavées afin d'évaluer les risques environnementaux des usages alternatifs proposés (e.g., remblais sur site), notamment lorsqu'elles sont faiblement contaminées (cas du sol KI dans cette thèse qui contient 7,98 mg.kg-1 de Cd (SGV Cd = 0.45 mg.kg^{-1}) mais pour lequel le Cd n'est pas biodisponible pour l'escargot, AQ Cd ex situ = 1, ANNEXE 5). L'outil escargot étant un outil d'aide à la décision parmi d'autres, avec ses particularités et une sensibilité aux contaminants spécifiques, il conviendra, afin de confirmer ces propositions pour l'ERE, de confronter ces résultats avec d'autres bioessais impliquant d'autres organismes de la faune (tels que les vers de terre, les nématodes ou les collemboles) et de la flore des sols.

La confrontation des approches *in situ* et *ex situ* a révélé une forte sensibilité de l'approche *ex situ* avec généralement de plus forts transferts (ou équivalent) du fait que les escargots sont dans des conditions d'exposition optimales d'activités et stables en laboratoire et que le sol est excavé, dépourvu de sa couche d'humus et ajusté à 50 % de sa capacité de rétention en eau.

Ces différences de sensibilité entre les deux approches en terme de niveau de risques détectés questionnent sur la représentativité écologique des bioessais standardisés classiquement utilisées pour l'évaluation écotoxicologique des sols contaminés en laboratoire, d'autant que l'influence de la végétation sur site semble également être importante car elle pourrait contribuer à augmenter les transferts de Cd et de Mo sur site. Les approches ex situ et in situ ne sont donc pas inter-changeables mais elles peuvent être appliquées de façon complémentaire pour répondre à des questions scientifiques et de gestion différentes. Les approches ex situ peuvent être privilégiées pour l'évaluation des risques d'un sol nu ou excavé tandis que les approches in situ peuvent être employées pour l'évaluation des risques d'un sol sur site et végétalisé. Ces approches combinées permettent in fine d'orienter le devenir des sols contaminés (e.g., remblais, renaturation). Les approches in situ et ex situ qui ont été utilisées dans le cadre de cette thèse font l'objet d'une norme ISO/CD 24032 (2020) qui devrait promouvoir leur utilisation par les parties prenantes impliquées dans la gestion des SSP.

1.4. Liens entre transferts de contaminants et effets écotoxiques spécifiques pour l'escargot

Lier l'exposition des organismes aux effets écotoxiques à différents niveaux d'organisation revêt un intérêt fondamental pour l'étude des mécanismes écotoxicologiques impliqués et le développement d'adverse outcome pathways (AOP) pour l'ERE. Cela présente également un intérêt appliqué pour la caractérisation fine des risques par la mise en évidence de relation de causes à effets (de la concentration dans les sols et du transfert à l'altération de l'état de santé des organismes). Par exemple, c'est parce que le mercure dans le sol était environnementalement biodisponible pour l'escargot (caractérisé par sa bioaccumulation) que des effets écotoxiques se sont manifestés sur la croissance de Petit-gris juvéniles dans l'étude de GIMBERT ET AL. (2016). Ces relations nommées weight of evidence (WOE) ont pour but de faciliter les décisions par la production d'évaluations reproductibles et transparentes des données à travers différentes exigences réglementaires (HALL ET AL., 2017; SUTER ET AL., 2020). Dans le cas présent, ces WOE combinant exposition et effets peuvent être déterminées en accord avec les spécifications de la norme ISO 17402 (2008) pour l'évaluation de la disponibilité environnementale, de la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique des contaminants dans les sols. A partir des indices d'évaluation des excès de transferts (GSET) et de risques environnementaux (GERITOXE), il est possible de contribuer à décrypter ces WOE à l'échelle des sites (de la contamination du sol, aux transferts et à la toxicité). Cependant, pour le calcul des indices GERITOXE (FIGURE 54) et ERITME spécifiques aux métal(loïde)s, les transferts (indice SET) sont pondérés par la toxicité intrinsèque de chaque contaminant par les toxicity points (TP) de l'ATSDR (2017). Sur la base de 38 sols étudiés et contaminés par de l'As, du Cd, du Hg, du Pb, du Sb, du Sn et du Zn, les modèles que nous avons établis avec des arbres de régressions univariés montrent qu'il existe une relation significative entre la valeur des indices SET et ERITME et un retard dans la maturité sexuelle (apparition de la bordure péristomiale de la coquille) d'escargots sub-adultes exposés durant 28 jours (FIGURE 32). Ces relations ont été confirmées et affinées en considérant la cinétique d'apparition de la bordure péristomiale durant les 28 jours d'essais *ex situ* où pour les valeurs les plus élevées de SET et d'ERITME, une inhibition de la maturité sexuelle de près de 25 % des escargots est modélisée (FIGURE 32).

Quand bien même les TP soient non spécifiques de l'escargot, cette approche souligne que leur utilisation est pertinente pour relier l'accumulation et les effets sur les traits d'histoire de vie (maturation de la coquille en tant qu'indicateur non létale de la maturation sexuelle).

En effet, ces TP sont des valeurs génériques de toxicités basées sur une combinaison de paramètres physico-chimiques et écotoxicologiques pour différents phyla et milieux (e.g., réactivité, DL_{50} en écotoxicologie aquatique, effets en toxicologie chronique principalement pour les mammifères et classification du potentiel cancérogène de l'EPA ou de l'IARC) (ATSDR, 2013). Les résultats de la thèse tendent à montrer que cette généricité peut s'appliquer à l'escargot.

Trois classes de risques ont été identifiées pour une interprétation des valeurs des indices SET et ERITME par les gestionnaires des SSP, notamment dans le cadre de l'utilisation de l'outil escargot pour l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité dans les tiers 2 et 3 de la norme ISO TRIADE (19204, 2017). Dans une logique de développement de méthodologie pour une évaluation intégrative des risques, les trois classes de risques ont été définies sur le même modèle que pour les ERS : pas de risque, zone d'incertitude et risque avéré. Pour les indices SET et ERITME, les bornes des valeurs de la zone d'incertitude sont entre 7 et 58 et entre 2 574 et 22 720, respectivement.

Ces relations ont été déterminées via l'étude d'altérations des traits d'histoire de vie après 28 jours d'exposition (principalement l'acquisition de la bordure péristomiale en lien avec l'acquisition de la maturité sexuelle). Elles nécessiteront donc d'être affinées à l'avenir en considérant d'autres effets écotoxiques écologiquement pertinents, par exemple des biomarqueurs à des niveaux d'organisation biologique plus faibles (échelle cytonucléaire et génomique), tels que ceux qui ont été étudiés pour évaluer des effets moléculaires précoces à l'origine d'altérations des fonctions physiologiques. Cette approche pourrait s'employer lorsque les risques sont en zone d'incertitude pour la santé de l'escargot (*i.e.*, ERITME compris entre 2 574 et 22 720) afin de diminuer l'incertitude du risque en associant des réponses de biomarqueurs physiologiquement et écologiquement pertinents. De plus, lorsque des transferts non négligeables (SET > 7) de contaminants ayant des propriétés toxicologiques spécifiques sont évalués (*e.g.*, génotoxicité) alors ces outils permettraient également de préciser les risques en

considérant mieux les mécanismes écotoxicologiques. D'autres mécanismes toxicologiques pourraient à l'avenir être considérés dans ces approches multi-biomarqueurs afin d'affiner les ERE avec l'escargot, tels que, à titre d'exemple, l'immunotoxicité, la perturbation endocrinienne ou la neurotoxicité.

I.5. Biomarqueurs d'effets de la stabilité du génome (micronoyaux, profils RAPD, longueur des télomères) pour des escargots sub-adultes : apports fondamentaux et pour l'ERE

La recherche de liens entre la biodisponibilité environnementale (sur la base des concentrations accumulées) et toxicologique a été approfondie via des approches étudiant les effets de l'exposition à des métal(loïde)s (As, Cd et Hg) ou des HAP sur la stabilité du génome des hémocytes d'escargots. Ces approches ont été combinées avec l'étude des effets sur les traits d'histoire de vie afin de considérer des réponses au niveau individuel. L'intérêt de coupler une analyse sur les traits d'histoire de vie afier de vie avec la quantification de biomarqueurs de génotoxicité est de rechercher des altérations moléculaires qui peuvent être à l'origine d'effets précoces sur les traits d'histoire de vie (DEVAUX ET AL., 2011; FASSBENDER ET BRAUNBECK, 2013; MATEO ET AL., 2016), ainsi qu'évaluer la génotoxicité environnementale des matrices contaminées (VASSEUR ET BONNARD, 2014; KAYUMOV ET AL., 2019).

Les résultats ont montré des niveaux de réponses génomiques et physiologiques contaminants dépendant en fonction de leurs propriétés toxicologiques avec des effets sans seuils marqués pour l'As et le Cd en RAPD-HRS (FIGURES 37 ET 55). Dans le cas du Hg, le paramètre d'inhibition de la croissance des sub-adultes est le marqueur le plus sensible en lien avec les propriétés peu génotoxiques du Hg pour l'escargot (sauf à de très fortes doses) avec un AQ10 de 642 et un AQ20 de 890. Les bornes des AQ et des RC proposées devront être affinées en considérant des doses d'exposition plus faibles car mis à part pour le Cd, les bornes des AQ et des RC obtenues pour l'As et pour le Hg sont très élevées et déterminées à des concentrations rarement rencontrées dans les SSP. Ces bornes et ces concentrations d'exposition soulignent également les fortes capacités de résistance et d'adaptation des escargots ainsi que de leur génome, et le fait que le spiking d'un substrat ISO avec des métal(loïde)s sous forme de sels inorganiques cause une forte biodisponibilité des métal(loïde)s pour l'escargot (en lien avec la spéciation des métal(loïde)s introduit dans le substrat).



FIGURE 55 : SENSIBILITE DES REPONSES A DIFFERENTS NIVEAUX D'ORGANISATIONS BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'AS, LE CD ET LE HG.

La combinaison de la technique de RAPD-HRS et du test des micronoyaux permet d'avoir une vue globale de la diversité des effets génotoxiques causés sur les tissus par différents mécanismes (cassures, adduits et mutations principalement pour le test de RAPD-HRS et cassures, mutations, hypométhylations, modification des histones et RNAi pour le test des micronoyaux) (ATIENZAR ET JHA, 2004; LUZHNA ET AL., 2013) et agents (clastogènes et aneugènes). A l'avenir la combinaison de ces deux tests sur hémocytes dans une approche non létale pourrait servir de base au développement d'un indice de stabilité du cyto-génome pour l'escargot (FIGURE 56) en ajoutant aussi des biomarqueurs d'épigénotoxicité, tel que le taux de méthylation des cytosines (WANG ET WANG, 2013; NICA ET AL., 2017), d'oxydation des bases (en raison des implications dans la mutagénèse), et plus particulièrement la proportion de guanine oxydées (GIELAZYN ET AL., 2003; VALAVANIDIS ET AL., 2009), et les capacités de réparation de l'ADN. Ces capacités peuvent être évaluées soit par analyses transcriptomiques pour les transcrits codants pour des enzymes clés, tels que l'ADN glycosylase OGGI ou via le cellular repair assay pour les voies BER et NER (AZQUETA ET COLLINS, 2013; AZQUETA ET AL., 2014; GOLATO ET AL., 2017). L'étude de l'épigénotoxicité pourrait permettre de mieux comprendre les mécanismes clés à l'origine des micronoyaux observés (i.e., hypométhylation) comme l'a montré LUZHNA ET AL. (2013) et d'identifier des conséquences populationnelles (KUCHARSKI ET AL., 2008). Comme les mécanismes de réparation peuvent être inhibés par des contaminants (CANDEIAS ET AL., 2010), l'étude des capacités de réparation de l'ADN apparaît complémentaire pour comprendre la dynamique entre la survenue de dommages et leurs réparations, les réponses cellulaires et les altérations consécutives de l'état de santé et de la population.



FIGURE 56 : VERS UN INDICE DE STABILITE DU CYTO-GENOME POUR L'EVALUATION DE LA GENOTOXICITE ENVIRONNEMENTALE AVEC L'ESCARGOT.

Enfin, la synthèse rédigée sur l'intérêt de l'étude de la dynamique des télomères en toxicologie environnementale pour l'évaluation d'alérations de la santé des individus en liens avec des processus de sénescence cellulaire accélérés (partie III.3.) a été à l'origine des premiers essais sur le modèle escargot dans un contexte de recherche de nouveaux biomarqueurs physiologiquement et écologiquement pertinents. Dans un premier temps la relation entre la longueur des télomères dans l'hémolymphe et l'âge des escargots Petit-gris a été évaluée et a montré un raccourcissement des télomères avec l'âge mais uniquement entre le stade juvénile (1 g, 1 mois) et sub-adulte (5 g, 3 mois). Une décroissance rapide durant les premières semaines de croissance (et avant la maturation du tractus génital), suivie d'un maintien de la longueur durant 2 ans à l'âge adulte. Ces résultats suggèrent donc de fortes capacités des Petit-gris à maintenir leurs télomères à l'âge adulte notamment en lien avec des processus enzymatiques, tels que l'activité télomérase (GREIDER ET BLACKBURN, 1985; GREIDER ET BLACKBURN, 1989; GOYNS ET LAVERY, 2000; SHAY, 2016). Bien qu'un raccourcissement des télomères rapide durant la croissance ne semble pas être une généralité chez les invertébrés, cette tendance est souvent retrouvée chez les vertébrés avec une diminution de la taille qui continue toutefois à l'âge adulte (ANGELIER ET AL., 2018; DUGDALE ET AL., 2018; SPURGIN ET AL., 2018). Ces motifs originaux soulignent que les mécanismes cellulaires du vieillissement ne sont pas ubiquitaires dans le règne animal et apportent les premières connaissances pour les mollusques terrestres gastéropodes Pulmonés. En effet, seuls quelques motifs ont été mis à jour pour des mollusques bivalves et gastéropodes aquatiques dans de l'ADN extrait de branchies ou de muscles (GODWIN ET AL., 2012; MAXIMOVA ET AL., 2017) avec des tendances qui sont espèces et tissus dépendants (attrition, pas de changement, élongation). De plus, ces variations de motifs entre les tissus ont principalement été démontrées chez les oiseaux

dans l'étude de PAROLINI ET AL. (2019) et chez les rongeurs (SHEKHIDEM ET AL., 2019). Chez les mollusques, GRUBER ET AL. (2014) n'ont pas montré d'évolution significative de la longueur des télomères avec le viellissement de la praire d'Islande (Arctica islandica) mais des différences inter-tissus en terme d'activité télomérase (peu d'activité dans le manteau et une activité jusqu'à 500x plus importante dans le pied). Après exposition d'escargot sub-adulte à des substrats ISO fortement contaminés en Cd et en Hg et par un cocktail de HAP, aucun raccourcissement des télomères n'a été identifié après 1 et 2 mois d'exposition, alors que pourtant à ces doses de métaux (1 et 10 g.kg-1 de Cd et de Hg dans le sol, respectivement) des effets génotoxiques ont été identifiés dans les hémocytes (partie II.2.). Bien que les dommages télomériques puissent être à l'origine de chromosomes dicentriques et in fine de micronoyaux (FOUQUEREL ET AL., 2019), ces résultats indiquent donc que dans les hémocytes de Petit-gris sub-adulte, les télomères sont des régions chromosomiques protégées des effets génotoxiques. En outre, il apparait qu'ils ne sont pas à l'origine de l'induction de micronoyaux observés, probablement via une forte induction des voies de réparation de l'ADN et de maintenance des télomères (télomérase, ALT). En effet, cela peut être en lien avec des interactions possibles dans ce type cellulaire avec des protéines spécialisées du shelterin complex et les voies de réponses aux dommages à l'ADN, tels que p53 (IWANO ET AL., 2004; OKAMOTO ET AL., 2008; MARTINEZ ET BLASCO, 2010; MADLENER ET AL., 2013; TUTTON ET LIEBERMAN, 2017; TOUFEKTCHAN ET TOLEDO, 2018).

Les indicateurs développés dans cette thèse pourraient être mobilisés dans des approches de type « réponse intégrée des biomarqueurs (IBR) » (BELIAEFF ET BURGEOT, 2002; GUERLET, 2007) en considérant d'autres biomarqueurs pertinents notamment endocriniens, immunitaires et métaboliques pour l'évaluation de l'état de santé des escargots exposés aux sols contaminés (MLEIKI ET AL., 2020).

Les apports originaux de cette thèse en connaissances fondamentales sur la biologie de l'escargot Petit-gris, montrent une dynamique de raccourcissement des télomères rapides dans les hémocytes durant la croissance du stade juvénile au stade subadulte, suivis d'un maintien de la longueur durant la vie adulte. Ces mécanismes clés peuvent être mis en relation avec une capacité importante des hémocytes à protéger leurs chromosomes, potentiellement en lien avec de fortes capacités de divisions de ces cellules face à un stress immunitaire afin d'assurer des activités phagocytaires et de productions de ROS. Enfin, bien que la santé des populations d'escargots (survie, croissance, maturation sexuelle) et le génome des hémocytes puissent être lourdement altérés (micronoyaux, instabilité génomique mesurée en RAPD-HRS) par certains contaminants bioaccumulés, notamment le Cd et le Hg, nous avons mis en évidence que les télomères n'en sont pas raccourcis aux stades sub-adultes et adultes. Ces résultats suggèrent l'existence de mécanisme efficients pour protéger les régions télomériques, tels que potentiellement une forte activité télomérase dans les hémocytes. L'identification de ces mécanismes pour expliquer les motifs obtenus est une perspective de cette thèse. Des liens fondamentaux entre la biodisponibilité environnementale des métal(loïde)s dans des sols pour l'escargot et leurs biodisponibilité écogénotoxicologique, avec des effets sans seuils pour le Cd ont été révélés en RAPD-HRS sur hémocytes. Ces effets à l'échelle du génome ont été mis en lien avec des effets sur les traits d'histoire de vie, tels que l'inhibition de la croissance et de la maturation sexuelle du nombre d'escargots au sein d'une population exposée. La complémentarité du test des micronoyaux et de la RAPD-HRS sur hémocytes a été mise en évidence dans le cadre de cette thèse sur le modèle hémocyte afin de caractériser une large variété de dommages génotoxiques (d'origine aneugénique et clastogénique), ce qui ouvre la porte vers la création d'un indice stabilité du cytogénome pour l'escargot utilisable en biosurveillance (active et passive) ou pour l'évaluation des risques écotoxicologiques (substances et matrices). Ces résultats renforcent l'émulation autour de l'étude des hémocytes sur le modèle Petit-gris qui présentent l'avantage de pouvoir être étudiés dans une approche non létale et de considérer l'intégrité du génome des cellules immunocompétentes dans un contexte d'interaction polluants-pathogènes.

Vers des méthodologies d'évaluation intégrative des risques des sites et sols contaminés

2.1. Bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme

L'intérêt d'inclure la bioaccessibilité orale de l'As, du Cd et du Pb dans le cadre des ERS a été étudié dans cette thèse en considérant les incertitudes qui font encore l'objet de débats importants (considération de la phase gastrique ou gastro-intestinale et l'utilisation d'un facteur de sécurité de 2 pour l'ajustement des QD et des ERI du Pb). Dans cet objectif, une ERS a été effectuée pour 29 sols contaminés en As, Cd et Pb (INVS, 2012; MEEM, 2017). L'objectif était de mettre en évidence la contribution de la prise en compte de la bioaccessibilité orale de l'As, du Cd et du Pb pour ajuster les indicateurs de risques (QD et ERI) lorsqu'ils sont en zone d'incertitude et donc préciser les niveaux des risques. La confrontation des niveaux de risques sanitaires avec et sans ajustement pour chaque sol de l'étude a été effectuée sur la base de la grille d'interprétation de l'IEM pour les risques sanitaires (risques avérés : QD > 5 pour les effets à seuils et ERI > 10-4 pour les effets sans seuils). Le niveau de risque le plus conservateur entre les ERI et les QD a été utilisé pour l'ERS (TABLEAU 38; FIGURE 48). Les résultats obtenus ont montré la pertinence de la bioaccessibilité orale pour diminuer les incertitudes notamment pour les QD de l'As dans le cadre du jeu de données utilisé (TABLEAU 38).

2.1.1. Impact de la considération de la phase gastrique ou de la phase gastro-intestinale

Le recours à la fraction gastrique pour la pondération des QD et/ou des ERI en zone d'incertitude afin de diminuer l'incertitude concernant le risque sanitaire est questionnable pour des raisons physiologiques. En effet, l'absorption des métal(loïde)s se déroule majoritairement dans l'intestin (MUSHAK, 1991; DIAMOND ET AL., 1998). Actuellement, l'INVS (2012) recommande d'utiliser la fraction la plus pénalisante et c'est souvent la fraction gastrique (concerne tous les sols contaminés en Cd et Pb et la majorité des sols contaminés en As dans notre étude d'après le TABLEAU 41). En considérant donc la phase gastrique dans la plupart des cas pour être le plus protecteur vis-à-vis de la santé humaine lors de l'ajustement des QD et des ERI en zone d'incertitude, le risque peut être mal interprété. En effet, le nombre de sols en zone d'incertitude a été diminué de 7 (5 vers la classe risque avéré et 2 vers la classe absence de risque) (FIGURE 48). Cependant, si la phase gastro-intestinale avait été considérée pour des raisons physiologiques, les résultats auraient été différents (ANNEXE 7). Principalement pour les QD du Cd où 5 sols supplémentaires en zone d'incertitude deviennent classifiés sans risques (QD ajusté < 0.2) et pour les QD du Pb où 4 QD ajustés qui devenaient supérieurs à la limite restent en zone d'incertitude (QD ajusté < 5) et 11 QD ajustés qui restaient en zone d'incertitude deviennent inférieurs à la limite sans risque (TABLEAU 41, ANNEXE 7). Des motifs similaires sont mis en évidence pour les ERI du Pb où en considérant la phase GI systématiquement, 12 ERI ajustés supplémentaires qui étaient en zone d'incertitude deviennent sans risques (TABLEAU 41, ANNEXE 7). Ces résultats influencés en partie par le Pb, sont liés à l'utilisation d'un facteur x2 lors des ajustements des QD et des ERI par la fraction bioaccessible (voir le justificatif de l'utilisation de ce facteur dans les sections IV.2.2.2. et V.2.1.2.).

TABLEAU 41 : POURCENTAGES DE SOLS DANS CHAQUE CLASSE DE RISQUES (QD|ERI, SAUF PAS D'ERI POUR LE CD) EN FONCTION DES DIFFERENTS AJUSTEMENTS POSSIBLES (FRACTIONS LA PLUS CONSERVATIVE, OU GI, AVEC ET PUIS SANS LE FACTEUR 2 DU PB POUR IEM AJ., IEM AJ. GI, IEM AJ. Ø2 PB ET IEM AJ. GI & Ø2 PB, RESPECTIVEMENT) POUR CHAQUE CONTAMINANTS LORSQUE LES QD ET LES ERI SONT EN ZONE D'INCERTITUDE (AVEC LES GRILLES D'INTERPRETATIONS DE L'IEM).

| Méthode de calcul du risque | Pas de risque | Zone d'incertitude | Risque avéré | Bilan de la prise en compte de la bioaccessibilité orale |
|--------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|--|
| As | | | | |
| IEM | 45 0 | 55 93 | 0 7 | Reclassement de 31 % des sols en absence de risque. |
| IEM aj. | 76 14 | 24 79 | 0 7 | Pas de forte influence de la prise en compte de la phase Gl |
| IEM aj. GI | 83 14 | 7 79 | 0 7 | |
| IEM aj. Ø2 Pb | - | - | - | |
| IEM aj. GI & Ø2 Pb | - | - | - | |
| Cd | | | | |
| IEM | 69 | 31 | 0 | Reclassement de 3 % des sols en absence de risque. La |
| IEM aj. | 72 | 28 | 0 | prise en compte de la phase GI permettrait de reclasser 18 % de sols supplémentaires |
| IEM aj. GI | 90 | 10 | 0 | reclasser to 70 de sols supplemental es. |
| IEM aj. Ø2 Pb | - | - | - | |
| IEM aj. GI & Ø2 Pb | - | - | - | |
| Pb | | | | |
| IEM | 7 31 | 55 69 | 38 0 | Reclassement de 3 % des sols en absence de risque. |
| IEM aj. | 7 34 | 38 66 | 55 0 | La prise en compte de la phase GI permettrait de |
| IEM aj. GI | 45 76 | 17 24 | 38 0 | reclasser 42 % supplementaire. La non prise en compte du facteur 2 permettrait de reclasser 10% des |
| IEM aj. Ø2 Pb | 17 41 | 45 59 | 38 0 | sols en absence de risque et 38 % supplémentaires en |
| IEM aj. GI & Ø2 Pb | 48 79 | 14 21 | 38 0 | considérant la phase Gl. |

Finalement, comme illustré dans le TABLEAU 41, la considération de la phase GI permet de mieux estimer l'exposition et l'utilisation de QD et d'ERI ajustés sur la base de la phase GI pourrait servir d'aide à la décision quand les QD et ERI calculés avec la phase G sont encore en zone d'incertitude. Des études physiologiques supplémentaires seraient nécessaires pour valider la pertinence et la représentativité de l'utilisation de la phase GI systématiquement. En l'absence de ces études, la phase la plus protectrice (*i.e.*, où la bioaccessibilité est la plus importante) est privilégiée en ERS (INVS, 2012). En ce qui concerne le Pb qui a causé des sur-interprétations des risques en lien avec l'ajustement des QD et des ERI avec le facteur de sécurité x2, il faudrait probablement revoir la VTR du Pb car elle intègre les mécanismes de la bioaccessibilité qui sont variables en fonction des types de sols. Plusieurs résultats obtenus dans le cadre de cette thèse identifient un véritable paradoxe qui est d'évaluer un risque supérieur quand on considère la fraction bioaccessible du Pb par rapport à la concentration totale en Pb dans le sol.

2.1.2. Impact du facteur de sécurité pour le plomb

Pour les QD et les ERI du Pb, un facteur multiplicateur x2 de la fraction bioaccessible qui ne fait pas l'objet d'un consensus absolu est ajouté lors de l'ajustement de la dose journalière d'exposition (ADD) (EQ. 28). La raison est que la VTR établie par l'OMS a été calculée en considérant toutes les sources de Pb (eau, air, nourriture) dans le but que la plombémie dans le sang des jeunes enfants n'excède pas les 50 µg.L⁻¹ (PELFRENE, 2016). Ce calcul a été effectué sur la base d'une absorption de Pb de 20 % à 80 % dans l'alimentation des enfants (ZIEGLER ET AL., 1978; DEMICHELE, 1984) et d'une rétention de Pb de 30 % dans le corps (INERIS, 2020B). Néanmoins, selon OOMEN ET AL. (2006), la biodisponibilité absolue du Pb dans une matrice de référence peut être estimée à 40 % et, en complément, l'ajustement de la dose journalière d'exposition (DJE) pour le Pb peut être effectué en considérant la valeur d'absorption maximale (INVS, 2012).

Bien qu'en considérant la phase G ou la phase GI, sans le facteur 2 du Pb, des QD et des ERI changent de classe (risque avéré à zone d'incertitude et/ou à la catégorie sans risque; TABLEAU 41; ANNEXE 8), les conclusions de l'étude ne sont pas globalement modifiées notamment en liens avec les ERI en zone d'incertitude de l'As pour de nombreux sols (ANNEXE 8). En effet, pour l'As, les ERI sont pratiquement tous en zone d'incertitude alors que dans un certain nombre de cas les concentrations en As étaient inférieures aux concentrations « normales » (SGV = 25 mg.kg⁻¹ ou fond pédogéochimique urbain), dans ces cas, usuellement, les bureaux d'études concluent à une absence de risque. En perspectives, outre

le facteur x2 du Pb, il pourrait donc être pertinent d'étudier l'impact de l'utilisation de l'actuelle VTR sans seuil de l'As dans ce contexte, et de préciser les liens entre la spéciation de l'As provenant du bruit de fond pédogéochimique et les effets toxiques sans seuils (e.g., cancers).

L'influence du facteur x2 pour l'ajustement des QD et des ERI du Pb apparaît dans cette étude importante pour la phase gastrique mais pas pour la phase gastro-intestinale en lien avec une faible bioaccessibilité du Pb dans cette phase. En outre, les relations obtenues dans le cadre de cette étude ne sont pas énormement influencées par le facteur du Pb en raison des ERI majoritairement en zone d'incertitude pour l'As. Face aux différents constats présentés pour l'As et le Pb ici, l'évaluation de la pertinence de l'utilisation de la phase GI et de leurs VTR dans ce contexte est requis à l'avenir pour améliorer l'évaluation de l'exposition humaine.

2.1.3. Application à l'évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires

Lorsqu'un nouveau projet d'aménagement d'un site va y amener de nouveaux usages, il est nécessaire d'effectuer une évaluation quantitative des risques sanitaires (EQRS) (MEEM, 2017). Ces EQRS traduisent les risques sanitaires encourus par une population soumise à une contamination pour une exposition déterminée. L'EQRS est effectuée en sommant les valeurs des QD et des ERI pour les différents contaminants et peut faire intervenir la bioaccessibilité orale pour pondérer les QD et les ERI en zone d'incertitude. Par comparaison avec la méthodologie de l'IEM, la limite pour avérer un risque est réduite à 1 et 10-5, pour la somme des QD et des ERI, respectivement (DE GIUDICI, 2014) et la zone d'incertitude n'existe pas. Ces limites plus strictes des bornes de l'EQRS sont liées au fait qu'un QD inférieur ou égal à 1 signifie que l'exposition de la population n'atteint pas le seuil de dose à partir duquel peuvent apparaître des effets indésirables pour la santé humaine et un ERI de 10-5 est la probabilité supplémentaire, par rapport à une personne non exposée, de développer un cancer pour 100 000 personnes exposées durant la vie entière. Il n'existe pas d'ERI universellement acceptable mais la circulaire du 8 février 2007 (MEDD, 2007A), relative aux sites et sols pollués et aux modalités de gestion et de réaménagement, considère le risque retenu au niveau international par les organismes en charge de la protection de la santé de 10-5 acceptable. L'objectif de cette partie est d'étudier l'intérêt de la bioaccessibilité pour ajuster les QD et les ERI en zone d'incertitude d'après la grille de l'IEM et/ou également quand ils sont inférieurs à 5 et 10-4 (i.e., en zone d'incertitude et en classe sans risque car la somme est effectuée des QD et des ERI dans une EQRS, et donc même les valeurs sans risques peuvent contribuer à un changement de classe), respectivement. Les résultats de l'EQRS des 29 sols sont

présentés dans le TABLEAU 42 et montrent que les ajustements, qu'ils soient effectués pour les QD ou les ERI en zone d'incertitude (cas I) ou en zone d'incertitude et classifiés sans risques (cas 2), permettent de moduler considérablement la classification à risque ou non des sols.

TABLEAU 42 : POURCENTAGES DE SOLS DANS CHAQUE CLASSE DE RISQUES POUR UNE EQRS (QD|ERI) EN CONSIDERANT LES DIFFERENTS AJUSTEMENTS DU TABLEAU 41 (CAS I : AJUSTEMENT UNIQUEMENT DANS LE CAS DE QD ET ERI EN ZONE D'INCERTITUDE SELON LA GRILLE DE L'IEM, CAS 2 : AJUSTEMENT DES QD ET DES ERI EN ZONE D'INCERTITUDE ET EN CLASSE SANS RISQUE SELON LA GRILLE DE L'IEM).

| Méthode de calcul du | Pas de | Risque | Bilan de la prise en compte de la bioaccessibilité |
|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|--|
| risque | risque | avéré | orale |
| Cas I : ajustement un | iquement da | ans le cas de O | QD et d'ERI en zone d'incertitude |
| EQRS | 14 28 | 86 72 | Reclassement de 3 % des sols en absence de risque en |
| EQRS aj. | 17 59 | 83 41 | considération la phase la plus conservative. La prise en |
| EQRS aj. GI | 55 66 | 45 34 | compte de la phase GI permettrait de reclasser 38 % de |
| EQRS aj. Ø2 Pb | 21 62 | 79 38 | sols supplémentaires. L'impact du facteur 2 du Pb |
| EQRS aj. GI & Ø2 Pb | 59 69 | 41 31 | comparativement à la phase GI apparait ici mineur. |
| Cas 2 : ajustement da | ns le cas de | QD et d'ERI s | sans risques et en zone d'incertitude |
| EQRS | 14 28 | 86 72 | Comparativement au cas I, le cas 2 permet d'augmenter le |
| EQRS aj. | 17 59 | 83 41 | nombre de sols sans risques de 4 % uniquement en |
| EQRS aj. GI | 59 66 | 41 34 | considérant la phase Gl. |
| EQRS aj. Ø2 Pb | 21 62 | 79 38 | |
| EQRS aj. GI & Ø2 Pb | 62 69 | 38 31 | |

Ainsi, la considération de la phase GI entraîne une forte diminution (/2) du nombre de sols classifiés en zone de risque, notamment en lien avec une faible bioaccessibilité du Pb dans l'intestin (partie IV.2.3.), cette influence apparaît bien supérieure à celle du facteur 2 utilisé pour le calcul des QD et des ERI ajusté du Pb (TABLEAU 42). Ces résultats soulignent la nécessité de conduire des recherches sur la pertinence de l'utilisation de la phase GI car, si elle était considérée, les résultats des EQRS ajustées (lorsque c'est nécessaire) par la bioaccessibilité seraient différentes et conduiraient à une augmentation du nombre sols classés comme étant sans risques. Au-delà de proposer des EQRS plus précises, ces perfectionnements permettraient d'affiner les modalités de gestion des SSP, par exemple, en limitant le coût de la dépollution tout en préservant la santé humaine.

2.2. Couplage de l'évaluation de la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot et de la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme

La recherche de relations entre les concentrations bioaccessibles évaluées via le test *in vitro* UBM (ISO 17924, 2018) et les concentrations bioaccumulées *ex situ* par l'escargot en 28 jours a été effectuée

pour 29 sols contaminés. Les modèles obtenus par régression multiple montrent de fortes relations entre la bioaccessibilité orale de ces métal(loïde)s (As, Cd et Pb) pour l'homme et leurs biodisponibilités pour l'escargot, et ces modèles sont significativement plus explicatifs lorsqu'ils prennent en considération la teneur de matière organique dans les sols (TABLEAU 33). Cette prise en considération de la matière organique dans les modèles s'est avérée indispensable et significative pour effectuer cette comparaison (exposition de l'homme versus de l'escargot par voie orale) car le pH dans le tube digestif de l'escargot est compris entre 6,4 et 7,3 (avec un pH de 7,1 dans la glande digestive) alors que le pH dans l'estomac humain est compris entre 1,0 et 2,5 (contre 5,7 à 7,5 dans l'intestin) (EVANS ET AL., 1988; FALLINGBORG, 1999; CHARRIER ET BRUNE, 2003). En effet, en comparaison avec l'homme, ces pH neutres en continu sur toute la longueur du tube digestif de l'escargot limitent les mécanismes de désorption des métal(loïde)s associés aux particules de matière organique dans le sol (OTTOSEN ET AL., 2009). Les modèles obtenus ont même permis d'estimer avec des r² ajustés compris entre 0,78 et 0,95 (et des pentes proches de 1) la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme avec les concentrations internes dans l'escargot et les teneurs en matière organique dans les sols (FIGURE 46). Ainsi, les études de bioaccumulation avec les escargots pourraient produire des éléments indicatifs pour l'estimation de la bioaccessibilité orale pour l'homme pour des métal(loïde)s pour lesquels il n'existe ni protocole validé ni méthode normalisée. Enfin, ces modèles encouragent l'émulation scientifique autour de l'association des méthodologies d'évaluation des risques environnementaux et sanitaires dans le cadre de l'applicabilité du concept One Health (ESSACK, 2018) aux SSP par l'étude de l'exposition aux contaminants d'organismes terrestres ayant des différences physiologiques importantes. De plus, les relations décrites convergent avec les premières corrélations ($r^2 = 0.95$) identifiées par RAHMAN ET AL. (2017) pour six sols agricoles contaminés par de l'As entre la biodisponibilité pour le vers de terre Lumbricus rubellus et la bioaccessibilité orale dans la phase gastrique pour l'homme.

Le couplage de la bioaccessibilité orale et de la biodisponibilité environnementale pour l'évaluation de l'exposition des organismes et des risques dans l'élaboration des plans de gestion pourrait permettre à terme le développement de plan de gestion qui considèrent à la fois les risques sanitaires et les risques environnementaux (FIGURE 49). Une ERS (sur la base des critères de l'IEM et en ajustant les QD et les ERI en zone d'incertitude par la fraction bioaccessible la plus conservatrice) et une ERE (RC et ERITME *ex situ*) ont été réalisées pour 29 sols contaminés issus du programme de recherche ODESSA (INVS, 2012; MEEM, 2017) et ont révélé des corrélations significatives comprises entre 0,57 et 0,93 (TABLEAU 40). A partir de ces fortes corrélations obtenues, la confrontation des niveaux de risques sanitaires et environnementaux pour chaque sol de l'étude a été effectuée sur la base de la grille d'interprétation de l'IEM pour les risques sanitaires (risques avérés : QD > 5 pour les effets à seuils et ERI > 10-4 pour les effets sans seuils) et des modèles issus de cette thèse pour l'interprétation des valeurs d'ERITME

(risque avéré : > 22 720). Le niveau de risque le plus conservateur entre les ERI et les QD a été utilisé pour l'évaluation des risques sanitaires. La comparaison entre l'ERS (interprétation de l'état des milieux ou IEM) ou l'ERS ajusté (IEM ajusté) et l'ERE montre que 52 % et 45 % des sols, respectivement, ont le même niveau de risque (FIGURE 48) (et 62 % si l'IEM ajusté avec la fraction GI est considéré, ANNEXE 7). Ces relations nécessitent à l'avenir d'être élargies et affinées en considérant d'autres contaminants, bioindicateurs et des biomarqueurs d'effets pour l'ERE (pour affiner l'interprétation des RC notamment pour les effets écotoxicologiques survenant sur le long terme).

Bien que des corrélations aient été identifiées entre l'augmentation des valeurs des indices de risques environnementaux (RC) et sanitaires (QD et ERI), la confrontation entre les niveaux de risques sanitaires (d'après la grille d'interprétation de l'IEM) et environnementaux dans cette étude montre qu'il existe des sols pour lesquels aucun risque environnemental n'est identifié alors que des risques sanitaires le sont de manière avéré ou incertain (étoiles sur la FIGURE 48), ce qui offre des perspectives de gestions alternatives discutées dans la partie suivante.

2.3. Gestion des sites et sols pollués avec une évaluation intégrative des risques

Sur la base des avancées scientifiques de la thèse présentées dans les parties précédentes, tant sur la comparaison entre les approches in situ qu'ex situ, le développement des indices GSET et GERITOXE ex situ, le développement de valeurs seuils pour interpréter les valeurs de l'indice ERITME et la mise en évidence des convergences et des divergences entre les ERE et les ERS, il devient possible de les coupler pour une meilleure gestion des sites et sols pollués en accord avec la méthodologie nationale de gestion des sites et sols pollués (MEEM, 2017), la norme ISO TRIADE (ISO 19402, 2018) et le guide portant sur la valorisation hors site des terres excavées (MTES, 2020). Considérant ces préconisations, pour introduire l'ERE dans les méthodologies de gestion des SSP, le recours aux bioindicateurs et notamment de la nouvelle norme ISO CD 24032 (2020) peut s'effectuer dans le cadre des études spécifiques pour le diagnostic de l'état des milieux, du schéma conceptuel, de l'IEM, du plan de gestion, du bilan quadriennal et de la phase de travaux (FIGURE 57). Ainsi, les bioindicateurs peuvent être utilisés pour l'établissement du plan de gestion (en phase de diagnostic) et aussi en aval pour la surveillance et la validation de l'efficacité des mesures de gestion et des travaux. Plus précisémment, dans le cadre d'une IEM le couplage de la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme et de la norme TRIADE (dont le bioindicateur escargot) permettrait la gestion de la pollution en adéquation avec les usages actuels et la protection de l'environnement (FIGURE 58), tandis que dans le cadre d'une EQRS (d'une reconversion de friches par exemple) ce couplage peut être utilisé pour définir les usages futurs en fonction des risques pour la santé humaine et l'environnement dans une approche hiérarchique (FIGURE 58).



FIGURE 57 : PHASES DE GESTION D'UN SSP DANS LESQUELLES LES BIOINDICATEURS (ETOILES VERTES) APPORTENT DES ELEMENTS D'AIDES A LA DECISION (MODIFIE D'APRES CHRYSAE, 2020).



FIGURE 58 : INSERTION DE LA BIOACCESSIBILITE ET DE LA NORME TRIADE POUR COUPLER ERS ET ERE DANS LE CADRE D'IEM ET D'EQRS.

Ce couplage en fonction des questions de gestion et avec l'utilisation du bioindicateur *C. aspersus* et de la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme (FIGURE 58) présente l'avantage d'être très opérationnel pour les acteurs de la gestion des SSP, et plus particulièrement des maîtres d'ouvrages lorsqu'ils sont confrontés à des friches pour lesquelles il n'y a pas de projet de reconversion déjà défini. Cependant, il conditionne la mise en œuvre de l'ERE (TRIADE) à la détection d'un problème identifié par les approches d'ERS. Il pourrait être envisagé autrement. En effet, la crise environnementale et les extinctions de masses qui se déroulent actuellement sont liées en partie au fait que les intérêts économiques puis sanitaires sont considérés en priorité, et l'environnement après. De plus, comme la santé des écosystèmes est interreliée avec la santé de l'homme comme illustré d'ailleurs par le concept One Health (partie I.1.2), il est proposé un couplage en FIGURE 59 également opérationnel en fonction des questions de gestion et qui permettra de considérer les différents enjeux (sanitaires et environnementaux) sans notions hiérarchiques et d'adapter les mesures de gestion en fonction des risques pour l'homme et son environnement.

Dans le contexte des questions de gestions auxquelles est confronté un maître d'ouvrage, les approches sites spécifiques avec la norme TRIADE peuvent être utilisées pour l'ERE. Dans le contexte d'une ERE visant à étudier la possibilité de revalorisation sur site et hors site des terres excavées pour un projet d'aménagement, des essais écotoxicologiques pertinents en fonction du contexte de revalorisation (remblais, etc.) sur organismes terrestres (et aquatiques pour les lixiviats) qui considèrent différents marqueurs en liens avec l'état de santé et la fitness des organismes à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique et stades de vies peuvent être employés avec l'indice GERITOXE *ex situ* développé dans le cadre de cette thèse.

Dans les trois cas de figures présentés dans la FIGURE 59, l'indice GERITOXE permet de lier les concentrations totales en contaminants dans le sol avec les effets écotoxicologiques pour l'escargot. En accord avec le guide du ministère (MTES, 2020), actuellement, les terres excavées doivent être recouvertes même pour un critère libératoire de niveau I (e.g., supérieur ou égal à 25 ppm d'As ou à 150 ppm de Zn). Cependant, l'évaluation des transferts de polluants de ces terres recouvertes qui pourraient poser des risques environnementaux reste pertinent (en lien avec les processus physico-chimiques qui peuvent transporter à la surface des sols les contaminants enfouis sous 30 cm de sol, notamment les composés volatiles, et les processus biologiques comme la bioturbation par exemple via les vers de terre anéciques). De plus, bien que ce critère soit restrictif d'utilisation, il pourrait y avoir des impacts environnementaux au-delà des concentrations seuils de niveau I (MTES, 2020), notamment pour des terres ayant des concentrations proches du bruit de fond pédogéochimique mais des caractéristiques physico-chimiques qui favorisent les transferts (e.g., peu de matière organique, pH acide).

Vers des méthodologies d'évaluation intégrative des risques des sites et sols contaminés



FIGURE 59 : COUPLER ERE ET ERS EN FONCTION DES QUESTIONS DE GESTION.

Cette approche permet également de considérer une nouvelle piste de recherche visant à évaluer l'impact de la gestion des terres excavées qui sont au-delà des critères libératoires mais qui ne présenteraient pas d'impact pour l'environnement (e.g., si les paramètres physico-chimiques des terres limitent la biodisponibilité des contaminants). Par exemple la terre O1 présente une concentration en Cd (1,44 mg.kg⁻¹) trois fois au dessus du seuil (SGV Cd = 0,45 mg.kg⁻¹) alors que l'AQ *ex situ* est de 0 (ANNEXES 2 ET 5). Si uniquement le Cd était problématique pour cette terre alors elle pourrait être réutilisée sur site en remblais paysagers avec une couverture végétale pour limiter les envols de poussières et en limitant l'accès à l'homme.

Enfin, le couplage ERE et ERS constitue également un enjeu pour mieux gérer les contaminations des sites et prioriser la mobilisation de fonds vers les sites et les terres qui posent le plus de risques à l'égard de la santé humaine et de l'environnement. En effet, en affinant les évaluations, les moyens pourraient être mieux dirigés vers les situations les plus problématiques car les coûts de traitement sur site (pouvant être plus facilement employées pour les cas moins complexes et/ou présentant moins de risques) sont d'après le rapport CHATEAU ET AL. (2018) 2 fois moins élevés que les coûts de traitements hors site (environ 100 €/m³ sur site vs 220 €/m³ hors site) (TABLEAU 43).

| Modes de traitement | Durée de traitement | Surface traitée | Volume traité | Corrélation du coût avec | Coût du traitement médian |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| In situ (sans excavation) | Longue (30 mois) | Importante (17 846 m²) | Elevé | Durée du traitement | ~ 100 €/m³ |
| Sur site (avec excavation) | Intermédiaire (15 mois) | Intermédiaire (9 017 m²) | Intermédiaire | Durée du traitement | ~ 100 €/m³ |
| Hors site | Courte (4 mois) | Faible (3 938 m²) | Faible | Volume traité | ~ 220 €/m³ |

TABLEAU 43 : INCONVENIENTS ET AVANTAGES DES DIFFERENTES METHODES DE GESTION (D'APRES CHATEAU ET AL., 2018).

En fonction des résultats obtenus par ce couplage ERE/ERS, des solutions alternatives de gestion pourront être mises en œuvre telles que celles résumées par IDfriches Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes en 2019 : l'urbanisme transitoire durant le projet (IDFRICHES AUVERGNE-RHONE-ALPES, 2019A), la construction de centrale photovoltaïque au sol (IDFRICHES AUVERGNE-RHONE-ALPES, 2019A), la construction de centrale photovoltaïque AUVERGNE-RHONE-ALPES, 2019A), la construction de centrale photovoltaïque au sol (IDFRICHES AUVERGNE-RHONE-ALPES, 2019B) ou la renaturation (IDFRICHES AUVERGNE-RHONE-ALPES, 2019C). Pour ces deux dernières propositions, les activités humaines peuvent être exclues du site notamment quand l'ERE conclut à une absence de risque et l'ERS à un risque avéré. Ces évaluations intégratives des risques permettent ainsi une gestion raisonnée des SSP à l'échelle d'un territoire en allouant principalement les crédits de dépollution vers les friches présentant à la fois des risques environnementaux et sanitaires.

Les ponts recherchés dans cette thèse entre la santé humaine et la santé d'un organisme composant la faune du sol sont fondamentaux afin de faire face aux considérations scientifiques et citoyennes grandissantes pour mieux évaluer les risques pour la santé ou l'environnement, et ainsi, mieux préserver les écosystèmes soumis aux changements globaux imposés par l'Anthropocène (MAGNY, 2019). Finalement, ces ponts se situent également dans les tendances actuelles pour inscrire l'ERS et l'ERE dans un cadre institutionnel de plus en plus structuré, basé sur les acteurs scientifiques, économiques et politiques, mais également tourné vers les citoyens. C'est en tout cas ce que pointe le récent rapport de l'office parlementaire d'évaluation des choix scientifiques et technologiques (OPECST, 2019), en soulignant la défiance des citoyens face à l'expertise des risques, la nécessité de perfectionner les connaissances et les dispositifs d'évaluation des risques et les besoins de développer la compréhension des risques par les citoyens. PARTIE VI – ANNEXES

PARTIE VI – ANNEXES

ANNEXE I: ORIGIN AND PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF SOILS (OM: ORGANIC MATTER, C_{org}: Organic Carbon, WHC: Water Holding Capacity, CEC: CATION-EXCHANGE CAPACITY, ALOX AND FEOX ARE EXCHANGEABLE AL AND FE CATIONS IN SOILS, U: UNKNOWN).

| Soils | Location | Country | Soil occupation | Clay (%) | Silt (%) | Sand (%) | pH_{water} | OM (g.kg ^{.l}) | C _{org} (g.kg ⁻¹) | CaCO₃ (g.kg⁻¹) | WHC (ml.kg ^{.l}) | CEC (cmol.kg ^{.1}) | Alox (cmol.kg ^{.1}) | Feox (cmol.kg ^{.l}) |
|------------|----------------------------------|---------|--------------------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|--------------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| ΑΙ | Yvetot | France | Grassland | 14 | 66.5 | 19.6 | 5.58 | 19.2 | 11.1 | <0.5 | 512 | 5.4 | 0.208 | 0.008 |
| A 2 | Yvetot | France | Grassland | 12.8 | 66.5 | 21 | 6.03 | 24.8 | 14.4 | <0.5 | 661 | 6.9 | 0.066 | 0.009 |
| A3 | Yvetot | France | Grassland | 14.2 | 65.5 | 20.4 | 6.25 | 23.9 | 13.8 | <0.5 | 724 | 7.7 | 0.058 | 0.01 |
| A 4 | Yvetot | France | Grassland | 16.3 | 63.4 | 20.3 | 5.48 | 44.6 | 25.8 | <0.5 | 490 | 8.6 | 0.255 | 0.008 |
| BI | St-Marcel- lès-Valence | France | Farming | 20.4 | 26.1 | 53.3 | 7.13 | 21.4 | 12.3 | <0.5 | 643 | 9.3 | 0.11 | 0.023 |
| B 2 | St-Marcel- lès-Valence | France | Farming | 18.6 | 28.6 | 52.8 | 7.35 | 24.9 | 14.4 | <0.5 | 556 | 9.4 | 0.139 | 0.027 |
| B 3 | St-Marcel- lès-Valence | France | Farming | 16.2 | 29.7 | 54 | 6.89 | 23.9 | 13.8 | <0.5 | 522 | 6.9 | 0.082 | 0.16 |
| CI | ANDRA (Meuse/Ha ute-Marne) | France | Farming | 39.8 | 33.8 | 26.4 | 6.25 | 36 | 20.8 | <0.5 | 457 | 13 | 0.052 | 0.024 |
| C2 | ANDRA (Meuse/Ha ute-Marne) | France | Farming | 45.3 | 46.8 | 7.9 | 6.92 | 39.9 | 23.1 | <0.5 | 328 | 22 | 0.031 | 0.008 |
| C3 | ANDRA (Meuse/Ha ute-Marne) | France | Farming | 22.6 | 33.9 | 43.5 | 5.83 | 20.9 | 12.1 | <0.5 | 298 | 6.8 | 0.111 | 0.031 |
| C4 | ANDRA (Meuse/Ha ute-Marne) | France | Farming | 42.7 | 49.3 | 8 | 7.65 | 43 | 24.8 | 2.5 | 479 | 23.2 | 0.045 | 0.009 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 272

PARTIE VI – ANNEXES

| <u> </u> | | Eranco | Forest | 20.2 | 45.0 | 1 | E 24 | 25.7 | 20.4 | <0 E | E20 | 12.2 | 1.00 | 0.01 |
|------------|-------------|----------|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| CS | | France | Forest | 30.2 | 05.0 | 7 | 5.20 | 35.7 | 20.6 | <0.5 | 200 | 12.2 | 1.00 | 0.01 |
| | (Meuse/Ha | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ute-Marne) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| C6 | ANDRA | France | Grassland | 42.8 | 49.4 | 7.8 | 7.94 | 94.9 | 54.8 | 93.5 | 719 | 38.7 | 0.34 | 0.064 |
| | (Meuse/Ha | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ute-Marne) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| C7 | | France | Forest | 56 | 411 | 29 | 661 | 137 | 79 3 | 15 | 611 | 38.7 | 0 199 | 0.038 |
| ••• | | | | | | | | | | | ••• | | •••• | |
| | Marna) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| D 1 | -Marne) | F | F | 7.0 | 25.4 | F// | 2 77 | 100 | 104 | -0 F | (1) | 7.1 | 1.07 | 0.050 |
| וס | Forest of | France | Forest | 7.8 | 35.4 | 56.6 | 3.// | 180 | 104 | <0.5 | 643 | 7.1 | 1.87 | 0.059 |
| | Brotonne | _ | _ | | | | | | | | | | | |
| D2 | St-Gènes | France | Forest | 25.7 | 41.1 | 32.6 | 4.87 | 269 | 156 | 1.4 | 1020 | 9.4 | 5.64 | 0.046 |
| | Champanell | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | е | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| EI | Thil | France | Farming | 14.3 | 23.5 | 61.7 | 8.13 | 27.7 | 16 | 201 | 527 | 9.8 | 0.036 | 0.007 |
| E2 | Thil | France | Farming | 10 | 18.1 | 72 | 8.28 | 19.8 | 11.4 | 214 | 460 | 6.6 | 0.05 | 0.01 |
| FI | Brno | Czech | U | 27.7 | 55.5 | 19 | 6.75 | 50.6 | 15.1 | 3 | 667 | 17.3 | 0.036 | 0.006 |
| | | republic | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| F2 | Brno | Czech | U | 25 1 | 592 | 141 | 821 | 37 5 | 114 | 26 | 684 | 185 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| • - | Billo | ropublic | 0 | 23.1 | 37.2 | | 0.21 | 57.5 | | 20 | 001 | 10.5 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| E2 | Prno | Crach | | 25.2 | 22.2 | 22.2 | 74 | 42.0 | 20.6 | F | 624 | 22.4 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| ГЈ | ыпо | Czech | 0 | 35.5 | 52.5 | 52.7 | 7.4 | 03.7 | 20.6 | 3 | +60 | 23.0 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| . | | republic | | | | | | | | | 710 | | | |
| GI | Schmallenb | Germany | U | 13 | 58.5 | 29 | 3.64 | 176 | 10.6 | 13.4 | /19 | 15.2 | 0.639 | 0.019 |
| | erg | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| G2 | Schluttenba | Germany | U | 23 | 45 | 32 | 5.43 | 60.6 | 4.I | 42.4 | 674 | 7.8 | 0.166 | 0.018 |
| | ch | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| HI | Brno | Czech | Farming | 16 | 22 | 56 | 5.71 | 35.4 | 12.7 | 49.I | 522 | 13.2 | 0.256 | 0.006 |
| | | republic | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| H2 | Brno | Czech | Farming | 19 | 44 | 41 | 8 | 43.3 | 13.6 | 20.1 | 512 | 17.9 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | - | republic | . 0 | | | | - | | | | | | | |
| п | Spever - | Germany | U | 8 | 15.8 | 76.2 | 5.49 | 39.5 | 16.1 | 31.3 | 427 | 7.4 | 0.086 | 0.006 |
| •• | | Connarry | ~ | J | | , | 0.17 | 07.0 | | 00 | | | 0.000 | 5.000 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 273

| 12 | Speyer - LUFA 2.4 | Germany | U | 25.8 | 41.1 | 33.1 | 7.46 | 54.8 | 19.9 | 127 | 457 | 21.2 | 0.021 | 0.005 |
|----|------------------------------------|-------------------|------------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|
| JI | Besançon - ISO | Internation al | Artificial | 13 | 13 | 74 | 6 | 12 | 6.9 | 9 | 1008 | 13.8 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| KI | Bergbieten | France | Farming | 35.I | 39.5 | 25.4 | 8.08 | 29 | 16.8 | 277 | 434 | 20.3 | 0.029 | 0.005 |
| LI | METALEU ROP (Evin | France | Industrial | 18.1 | 36.6 | 45.2 | 7.9 | 29.3 | 16.9 | 33.5 | 575 | 13.2 | 0.078 | 0.02 |
| L2 | METALEU ROP (Evin Malmaison) | France | Industrial | 29.8 | 60. I | 10.1 | 7.99 | 83.5 | 48.3 | 69.2 | 641 | 29.3 | 0.038 | 0.014 |
| L3 | Auzon | France | Industrial | 9.9 | 16.7 | 75.7 | 5.81 | 76.5 | 44.2 | 0.6 | 537 | П | 0.41 | 0.017 |
| L4 | Auzon | France | Industrial | 23.8 | 42.7 | 34.6 | 5.41 | 103 | 59.6 | 3.1 | 570 | 19.1 | 0.425 | 0.015 |
| MI | Sainte- Marie-Aux- Mines | France | Mining | 18.7 | 32.6 | 48.7 | 5.7 | 60.4 | 34.9 | 33.5 | 604 | 13 | 0.391 | 1.51 |
| M2 | Sainte- Marie-Aux- Mines | France | Mining | 13.3 | 24.2 | 62.5 | 4.3 | 90.2 | 52.3 | 31.3 | 627 | 15.5 | 0.314 | 5.14 |
| M3 | Sainte- Marie-Aux- Mines | France | Mining | 9.9 | 30.5 | 59.5 | 5 | 33.2 | 19.2 | 31.3 | 615 | 8.6 | 0.263 | 1.77 |
| NI | Thann | France | Industrial | 12.4 | 39.8 | 47.8 | 7.41 | 28.8 | 16.6 | 25.3 | 540 | 11.8 | 0.048 | 0.007 |
| N2 | Saint Cyprien | France | Industrial | 63 | 12.8 | 79.4 | 6.2 | 15 | 8.6 | 17.9 | 610 | 6.1 | 0.033 | 0.005 |
| 01 | Lille | France | Urban | 15.2 | 41.4 | 41.9 | 7.7 | 161 | 92.7 | 15 | 699 | 20.9 | 0.023 | 0.005 |
| 02 | Marcq-en- Baroeul | France | Industrial | 16.1 | 47.4 | 36.5 | 7.4 | 71.1 | 40.9 | 1.3 | 773 | 17.5 | 0.035 | 0.006 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 274

PARTIE VI – ANNEXES

| O 3 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 23.1 | 47.8 | 29.1 | 8 | 61.1 | 35.1 | 84 | 1218 | 18 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
|------------|-------------|--------|------------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|
| | ROP | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Courcelle- | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Les-Lens) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| O 4 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 16.6 | 41 | 42.4 | 7.8 | 304 | 175 | 22.3 | 791 | 12.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP (Evin | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Malmaison) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| O 5 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 12.3 | 35 | 52.7 | 6.8 | 360 | 207 | 3.6 | 1031 | 11.7 | 0.054 | 0.007 |
| | ROP (Evin | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Malmaison) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 06 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 29.1 | 45.9 | 25 | 8.I | 24.3 | 14 | 91.2 | 1090 | 24.6 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Courcelle- | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Les-Lens) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 07 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 21.5 | 44 | 34.5 | 8.3 | 112 | 64.I | 145 | 871 | 22.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Auby) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 08 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 22.8 | 70.6 | 6.6 | 8.3 | 27.1 | 15.6 | 162 | 772 | 16.5 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Dourges) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 09 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 20 | 56.9 | 23.I | 8 | 111 | 63.9 | 38.6 | 844 | 17.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | (Dourges) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 010 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 23.7 | 48.2 | 28.1 | 5.7 | 205 | 118 | 1.6 | 974 | 31.2 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP (Evin | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Malmaison) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 011 | METALEU | France | Industrial | 16.2 | 55.I | 28.7 | 6.8 | 72.9 | 41.9 | <1.0 | 942 | 18.2 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| | ROP (Evin | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Malmaison) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| 012 | METALEU ROP (Ostricourt) | France | Industrial | 15.7 | 52.1 | 32.2 | 4.3 | 46.8 | 26.9 | <1.0 | 666 | 10.2 | 0.028 | 0.005 |
|-------------|------------------------------------|--------|------------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|
| 013 | METALEU ROP (Evin Malmaison) | France | Industrial | 16.8 | 46.9 | 36.3 | 5.2 | 59.3 | 34.1 | <1.0 | 699 | 18.4 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| 014 | METALEU ROP (Evin Malmaison) | France | Industrial | 33.3 | 59.3 | 7.4 | 8 | 75.2 | 43.2 | 40.7 | 916 | 38.8 | 0.03 | 0.008 |
| 015 | Lille | France | Industrial | 13.5 | 42.6 | 43.9 | 7.9 | 30.6 | 17.6 | 37.5 | 917 | 10.9 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| 016 | Lille | France | U | 16.7 | 73.4 | 9.6 | 7.6 | 18.2 | 10.5 | 3 | 668 | 12.4 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| 017 | Lille | France | U | 30.2 | 34.9 | 34.2 | 5.7 | 51.4 | 29.6 | I | 1029 | 16.2 | 0.027 | 0.005 |
| 018 | Loiret | France | Farming | 41.6 | 21.5 | 36.3 | 8 | 35.8 | 20.6 | 27 | 901 | 28.4 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| 019 | Lille | France | Industrial | 16.9 | 54.8 | 28.5 | 7.2 | 33.5 | 19.3 | 3.6 | 569 | 12.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O 20 | Lille | France | Industrial | 22 | 29.5 | 48.5 | 8.I | 15.9 | 9.1 | 17.9 | 706 | 10.2 | 0.035 | 0.005 |
| 021 | Pierrelaye | France | Grassland | 8 | 10 | 82 | 7.6 | 43.5 | 25 | 31 | 515 | 11.1 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O22 | Lille | France | U | 8.8 | 7.5 | 83.7 | 8.2 | 15.4 | 8.9 | 18 | 479 | 6.5 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O23 | Nantes | France | Farming | 16.3 | 38. I | 45.6 | 6.78 | 28.3 | 16.3 | 3.2 | 501 | 7.2 | 0.02 | 0.007 |
| O 24 | Amiens | France | Farming | 18.3 | 42 | 39.7 | 7.55 | 55.9 | 32.2 | 106 | 718 | 18.1 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O25 | Bordeaux | France | U | 23.5 | 31.1 | 45.4 | 7.77 | 59.4 | 34.I | 86.5 | 707 | 12.9 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O26 | Sud Paris | France | Industrial | 11.3 | 16.9 | 71.8 | 7.49 | 41.7 | 24 | 169 | 681 | 4.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O 27 | Tourcoing | France | Embankment | 6.8 | 20.2 | 73 | 7.85 | 134 | 77 | 51.5 | 870 | 8.6 | 0.02 | 0.007 |
| O 28 | Tourcoing | France | Embankment | 9.1 | 30.3 | 60.6 | 7.81 | 230 | 132 | 16.9 | 650 | 12.1 | 0.02 | 0.007 |
| O29 | Tourcoing | France | Embankment | 7.6 | 30.8 | 61.6 | 7.94 | 185 | 106 | 29.9 | 572 | 9 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
| O30 | Tourcoing | France | Embankment | 9 | 22 | 69 | 8.1 | 179 | 103 | 27.2 | 681 | 10.1 | 0.042 | 0.005 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 276

| Min | - | - | - | 6.8 | 7.5 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 12 | 4.1 | <0.5 | 298 | 4.3 | 0.02 | 0.005 |
|-----|---|---|---|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| Med | - | - | - | 17.5 | 41.1 | 36.4 | 7.4 | 44.I | 20.7 | 17.9 | 646.5 | 12.7 | 0.034 | 0.006 |
| Max | - | - | - | 63 | 73.4 | 83.7 | 8.3 | 360 | 207 | 277 | 1218 | 38.8 | 5.64 | 5.14 |

ANNEXE 2: METALLIC ELEMENTS (ME) IN SOILS (MG.KG-I DW) (VALUES ARE IN BOLD WHEN HIGHER THAN SGV SUMMARIZED IN TABLE 5 OF THE ARTICLE)

| Soils | As | Cd | Co | Cr | Cu | Hg | Mn | Mo | Ni | Pb | Sb | Se | Sn | Sr | Zn |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|
| ΑΙ | 6.93 | 0.236 | 7.24 | 66.3 | 10.3 | 0.060 | 569 | 0.365 | 14.6 | 21.0 | 0.930 | 0.473 | 2.14 | 67.5 | 42.7 |
| A2 | 6.76 | 0.243 | 6.94 | 49.0 | 14.4 | 0.100 | 603 | 0.361 | 13.9 | 30.6 | 0.820 | 0.459 | 3.06 | 67.6 | 47.0 |
| A3 | 8.57 | 0.217 | 7.47 | 51.3 | 14.8 | 0.080 | 621 | 0.388 | 15.7 | 27.9 | 0.860 | 0.660 | 2.48 | 68.4 | 50.7 |
| A 4 | 9.48 | 0.198 | 7.43 | 53.8 | 13.4 | 0.090 | 632 | 0.435 | 16.9 | 26.3 | 0.780 | 0.428 | 2.48 | 65.I | 51.5 |
| BI | 12.3 | 0.147 | 9.79 | 53.6 | 24.4 | 0.040 | 566 | 0.624 | 28.5 | 23.7 | 1.90 | 0.549 | 2.31 | 82.4 | 47.4 |
| B 2 | 10.6 | 0.148 | 10.3 | 48.2 | 19.5 | 0.040 | 80 I | 0.531 | 25.7 | 26.5 | 2.01 | 0.560 | 4.05 | 81.8 | 46.6 |
| B 3 | 10.4 | 0.182 | 10.4 | 46.4 | 19.8 | 0.060 | 925 | 0.528 | 24.2 | 31.1 | 1.58 | 0.423 | 2.68 | 79.0 | 42.2 |
| СІ | 92.6 | 0.636 | 25.9 | 128 | 15.4 | 0.061 | 2070 | 9.11 | 54.7 | 49.6 | 1.16 | 0.590 | 2.97 | 63.6 | 126 |
| C2 | 25.7 | 0.439 | 22.9 | 57.I | 9.95 | 0.061 | 1180 | 1.71 | 22.5 | 28.9 | 0.552 | 0.330 | 0.84 | 16.4 | 126 |
| C3 | 15.3 | 0.472 | 14.5 | 38.8 | 7.44 | 0.049 | 1210 | 1.56 | 17.8 | 18.4 | 0.415 | 0.450 | 0.745 | 35.2 | 84.0 |
| C4 | 21.3 | 0.520 | 13.8 | 48.4 | 13.5 | 0.068 | 1130 | 1.29 | 29.6 | 25.7 | 0.504 | 0.290 | 1.29 | 21.8 | 124 |
| C5 | 9.34 | 0.572 | 9.67 | 34.7 | 9.23 | 0.094 | 764 | 0.827 | 23.2 | 25.2 | 0.489 | 0.290 | 0.935 | 16.1 | 108 |
| C6 | 12.2 | 0.671 | 9.12 | 50.0 | 14.8 | 0.071 | 877 | I.49 | 30.1 | 28.2 | 0.592 | 0.390 | 1.16 | 28.0 | 130 |
| C7 | 11.3 | 0.495 | 14.9 | 32.7 | 7.24 | 0.115 | 84 I | 0.979 | 24.2 | 31.8 | 0.543 | 0.420 | 0.923 | 15.7 | 107 |
| DI | 2.91 | 0.063 | 0.500 | 17.7 | 3.48 | 0.110 | 1205 | 0.370 | 5.53 | 21.9 | 0.890 | 0.374 | 1.61 | 28.1 | 13.5 |
| D2 | 12.8 | 0.414 | 17.9 | 55.0 | 14.1 | 0.160 | 919 | 1.85 | 20.2 | 49.7 | 1.07 | 1.18 | 1.43 | 71.7 | 113 |
| EI | 6.55 | 0.212 | 4.74 | 43.3 | 8.22 | 0.010 | 247 | 0.350 | 20.0 | 14.6 | 0.490 | 0.336 | 2.24 | 224 | 41.9 |
| E2 | 5.67 | 0.189 | 3.97 | 36.5 | 7.57 | 0.020 | 240 | 0.370 | 16.6 | 12.8 | 0.480 | 0.348 | 2.15 | 224 | 35.3 |
| FI | 7.57 | 0.262 | 8.05 | 59.8 | 23.3 | 0.077 | 433 | 1.10 | 33.7 | 20.3 | 0.610 | 0.610 | 1.44 | 27.8 | 70.6 |
| F2 | 8.73 | 0.185 | 9.05 | 43.4 | 19.5 | 0.057 | 426 | 0.642 | 29.4 | 16.9 | 0.606 | 0.815 | 1.44 | 45.4 | 151 |
| F3 | 0.262 | 0.430 | 12.1 | 75.5 | 25.3 | 0.208 | 700 | 10.5 | 47.7 | 19.8 | 2.14 | 3.55 | 13.6 | 30.0 | 94.9 |
| GI | 8.82 | 0.290 | 2.95 | 12.5 | 12.0 | 0.420 | 307 | 2.20 | 8.21 | 117 | 2.48 | 1.10 | 4.23 | 6.05 | 58.6 |
| G2 | 8.40 | 0.647 | 13.0 | 44.0 | 19.5 | 0.132 | 677 | 0.461 | 35.8 | 51.1 | 0.950 | 0.777 | 1.40 | 8.46 | 145 |
| HI | 18.4 | 0.285 | 7.17 | 39.4 | 12.5 | 0.101 | 397 | 1.55 | 22.4 | 27.4 | 1.01 | 0.850 | 2.33 | 33.I | 79.8 |
| H2 | 29.2 | 1.12 | 10.7 | 52.8 | 105 | 0.419 | 446 | 2.41 | 32.9 | 50.2 | 1.18 | 0.750 | 11.2 | 74.7 | 166 |
| П | 10.9 | 0.156 | 1.70 | 12.4 | 3.90 | 0.081 | 93.5 | 0.167 | 5.38 | 18.3 | 0.564 | 0.409 | 1.20 | 13.4 | 30.4 |
| 12 | 9.70 | 0.264 | 6.31 | 30.9 | 18.5 | 0.067 | 432 | 0.440 | 23.1 | 18.8 | 0.458 | 0.479 | 1.34 | 118 | 58.I |
| JI | 3.30 | 0.035 | 0.33 | 1.22 | 1.33 | 0.029 | 5.03 | 0.125 | 0.592 | 62.0 | 0.457 | 0.282 | 1.07 | 26.8 | 8.92 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 278

| KI | 15.8 | 7.98 | 11.3 | 421 | 44.6 | 0.290 | 452 | 51.0 | 124 | 34.1 | 4.21 | 9.75 | 8.70 | 135 | 2975 |
|-------------|--------------|-------|-------|------|------|--------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|-------------|
| LI | 8.67 | 3.12 | 7.37 | 49.4 | 15.1 | 0.100 | 609 | 0.510 | 13.0 | 143 | 2.33 | 0.950 | 2.07 | 60.3 | 226 |
| L2 | 39.3 | 34.4 | 9.39 | 48.6 | 68.4 | 1.50 | 210 | 0.770 | 23.5 | 2485 | 36.1 | 2.54 | 10.3 | 134 | 1885 |
| L3 | 1087 | 6.73 | 12.0 | 52.3 | 140 | 2.90 | 411 | 0.900 | 25.7 | 1834 | 3510 | 3.27 | 17.6 | 113 | 173 |
| L4 | 3285 | 9.97 | 20.2 | 76.5 | 159 | 28.0 | 672 | 1.69 | 41.4 | 4575 | 5680 | 1.45 | 33.0 | 108 | 225 |
| MI | 48. I | 0.327 | 8.82 | 39.5 | 39.7 | 0.115 | 306 | 1.14 | 24.4 | 360 | 2.71 | 1.96 | 39.5 | 39.5 | 162 |
| M2 | 1275 | 0.332 | 18.3 | 33.6 | 321 | 0.153 | 1995 | 1.31 | 49.6 | 14298 | 58.8 | 2.07 | 33.6 | 33.6 | 143 |
| M3 | 201 | 0.374 | 11.8 | 30.7 | 55.6 | 0.273 | 385 | 4.55 | 27.2 | 1083 | 5.78 | 2.39 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 132 |
| NI | 17.4 | 0.434 | 7.93 | 45.2 | 12.6 | 0.323 | 480 | 2.00 | 29.5 | 36.0 | 1.72 | 1.83 | 13.6 | 30.0 | 104 |
| 01 | 15.3 | 1.44 | 11.3 | 34.6 | 89.5 | 0.629 | 229 | 2.22 | 27.0 | 419 | 3.60 | 0.787 | 12.0 | 108 | 744 |
| O 2 | 15.0 | 2.01 | 13.7 | 31.9 | 84.8 | 0.211 | 1398 | 2.88 | 33.3 | 323 | 3.08 | 1.31 | 26.7 | 96.9 | 712 |
| O 3 | 167 | 196 | 1.23 | 2.93 | 8.5 | 0.75 I | 65 I | 0.208 | 3.28 | 4774 | 3.79 | 1.21 | 1.73 | 13.4 | 550 |
| 04 | 41.6 | 26.7 | 13.0 | 21.1 | 132 | 3.89 | 280 | 1.98 | 30.4 | 2800 | 35.5 | 0.616 | 21.5 | 77.3 | 2114 |
| O 5 | 43.9 | 55.3 | 1.61 | 2.06 | 16.5 | 0.260 | 433 | 0.370 | 4.00 | 4780 | 4.41 | 0.336 | 4.19 | 8.03 | 305 |
| O 6 | 179 | 113.4 | 12.9 | 37.6 | 61.9 | 6.88 | 456 | 1.29 | 27.5 | 2570 | 27.0 | 0.447 | 9.56 | 147 | 3123 |
| 07 | 14.5 | 3.91 | 8.58 | 24.2 | 62.4 | 0.184 | 820 | 1.40 | 18.5 | 490 | 4.91 | 1.34 | 5.71 | 74.I | 958 |
| 08 | 6.26 | 0.651 | 6.61 | 24.4 | 13.2 | 0.067 | 725 | 0.520 | 19.0 | 28.1 | 0.649 | 0.737 | 1.19 | 140 | 95.9 |
| 09 | 49.4 | 8.36 | 10.1 | 30.6 | 60.I | 0.253 | 421 | 1.61 | 25.0 | 919 | 14.3 | 1.00 | 35.0 | 84.9 | 1674 |
| 010 | 50.2 | 33.3 | 9.02 | 36.2 | 105 | 3.28 | 363 | 2.07 | 22.8 | 2622 | 54.8 | 4.07 | 21.6 | 48.9 | 2107 |
| 011 | 69.3 | 26.4 | 9.77 | 31.3 | 73.7 | 0.788 | 582 | 3.48 | 22.1 | 2064 | 35.2 | 0.551 | 10.5 | 39.6 | 2088 |
| 012 | 7.92 | 1.45 | 4.69 | 22.1 | 10.7 | 0.221 | 411 | 0.571 | 6.79 | 263 | 3.87 | 1.27 | 1.78 | 8.15 | 110 |
| 013 | 15.0 | 8.14 | 5.58 | 28.0 | 23.8 | 0.369 | 428 | 0.904 | 9.88 | 638 | 7.91 | 1.11 | 2.91 | 18.5 | 487 |
| 014 | 29.3 | 16.2 | 8.94 | 36.0 | 31.0 | 0.472 | 220 | 0.758 | 23.8 | 803 | 14.7 | 7.49 | 3.19 | 109 | 9 81 |
| 015 | 14.2 | 1.26 | 9.57 | 175 | 127 | 0.287 | 216 | 1.51 | 25.0 | 154 | 5.46 | 4.02 | 23.6 | 96.0 | 380 |
| 016 | 6.32 | 0.721 | 6.40 | 26.3 | 17.2 | 0.132 | 161 | 0.488 | 15.1 | 19.9 | 0.452 | 1.20 | 1.88 | 20.9 | 84.4 |
| 017 | 21.4 | 0.196 | 20.8 | 37.1 | 19.0 | 0.153 | 170 | 1.22 | 20.0 | 36.9 | 0.821 | 0.380 | 1.53 | 51.2 | 135 |
| 018 | 94.0 | 0.595 | 17.2 | 51.0 | 20.1 | 0.059 | 329 | 1.28 | 25.0 | 51.4 | 1.70 | 1.94 | 2.53 | 11.7 | 128 |
| 019 | 12.9 | 5.31 | 12.0 | 32.0 | 25.8 | 0.297 | 196 | 1.20 | 26.2 | 138 | 1.49 | 0.766 | 1.90 | 10.9 | 426 |
| O 20 | 34.2 | 0.353 | 9.92 | 43.I | 37.9 | 0.120 | 347 | 0.850 | 18.4 | 147 | 9.23 | 0.480 | 3.20 | 24.2 | 154 |
| 021 | 13.5 | 2.46 | 6.5 I | 49.3 | 153 | 2.66 | 154 | 1.16 | 23.7 | 316 | 3.85 | 0.149 | 39.5 | 93.7 | 690 |
| O 22 | 2.37 | 0.235 | 2.92 | 13.7 | 7.99 | 0.163 | 231 | 0.257 | 5.04 | 19.7 | 0.339 | 0.634 | 2.22 | 7.25 | 40.3 |
| O23 | 59.I | 0.144 | 3.82 | 15.8 | 30.I | 0.141 | 262 | 1.56 | 7.11 | 725 | 1.46 | 2.08 | 5.16 | 14.5 | 61.2 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 279

| O24 | 14.9 | 3.68 | 9.22 | 43.8 | 78.7 | 0.695 | 879 | 1.23 | 26.3 | 354 | 3.23 | 1.22 | 36.5 | 152 | 1008 |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|
| O25 | 21.9 | 0.259 | 8.52 | 24.3 | 31.2 | 1.95 | 286 | 1.25 | 21.1 | 97.5 | 1.72 | 3.50 | 7.94 | 71.2 | 142 |
| O26 | 10.2 | 0.373 | 4.05 | 9.70 | 132 | 2.94 | 440 | 2.34 | 10.6 | 195 | 3.69 | 1.38 | 86.2 | 312 | 255 |
| O 27 | 18.9 | 16.7 | 1.31 | 3.09 | 8.66 | 0.091 | 616 | 0.231 | 3.62 | 2824 | 0.702 | 1.34 | 1.36 | 17.7 | 544 |
| O 28 | 29.3 | 2.67 | 14.3 | 28.9 | 125 | 0.916 | 910 | 2.83 | 33.6 | 409 | 12.2 | 0.590 | 38.7 | 145 | 840 |
| O29 | 117 | 23.4 | 18.9 | 20.3 | 188 | 8.70 | 329 | 3.71 | 52.6 | 7846 | 20.I | 6.69 | 61.6 | 74.4 | 9087 |
| O30 | 107 | 18.1 | 1.87 | 2.31 | 11.7 | 0.436 | 777 | 0.461 | 5.31 | 7429 | 1.06 | 0.912 | 1.11 | 12.9 | 612 |
| Min | 0.262 | 0.035 | 0.330 | 1.22 | 1.33 | 0.010 | 5.03 | 0.125 | 0.592 | 12.8 | 0.339 | 0.149 | 0.745 | 6.05 | 8.92 |
| Med | 15.0 | 0.572 | 9.12 | 37.1 | 19.5 | 0.153 | 446 | 1.16 | 23.2 | 62.0 | 1.72 | 0.777 | 2.91 | 51.2 | 135 |
| Max | 3285 | 196 | 25.9 | 421 | 321 | 28.0 | 2070 | 51.0 | 124 | 14298 | 5680 | 9.75 | 86.2 | 312 | 9087 |

ANNEXE 3: POLYCYCLIC AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS (PAH) IN SOILS (MG.KG-I DW) (VALUES ARE IN BOLD WHEN HIGHER THAN SGV IN TABLE 5)

| Soils | NAP | ACY | ACE | FLU | PHE | ANT | FLT | ΡΥR | BaANT | СНУ | BbFLT | BkFLT | BaPYR | dBahAN T | BghiPL | lcdPYR | Sum |
|------------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------------|--------|--------|-------|
| ΑΙ | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | < 0.005 | 0.020 | <0.005 | 0.044 | 0.039 | 0.018 | <0.050 | 0.026 | 0.013 | 0.022 | <0.020 | <0.005 | 0.021 | 0.205 |
| A 2 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.029 | 0.007 | 0.058 | 0.046 | 0.027 | <0.050 | 0.033 | 0.016 | 0.029 | <0.020 | <0.005 | 0.024 | 0.270 |
| A 3 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.017 | <0.005 | 0.363 | 0.031 | 0.015 | <0.050 | 0.023 | 0.011 | 0.020 | <0.020 | <0.005 | 0.021 | 0.502 |
| A4 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.034 | <0.005 | 0.101 | 0.089 | 0.042 | 0.052 | 0.059 | 0.029 | 0.054 | <0.020 | 0.063 | 0.050 | 0.572 |
| BI | 0.076 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.116 | 0.031 | 0.239 | 0.225 | 0.111 | 0.108 | 0.106 | 0.055 | 0.126 | 0.033 | 0.121 | 0.081 | 1.43 |
| B2 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.015 | 0.015 | <0.010 | <0.051 | 0.011 | 0.005 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.051 | 0.011 | 0.058 |
| B 3 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.013 | <0.005 | 0.018 | 0.017 | <0.010 | <0.051 | 0.014 | 0.006 | 0.012 | <0.020 | <0.051 | <0.010 | 0.081 |
| СІ | 0.010 | 0.015 | 0.005 | 0.003 | 0.015 | 0.003 | 0.013 | 0.012 | 0.005 | 0.051 | 0.010 | 0.003 | 0.005 | 0.010 | 0.026 | 0.005 | 0.19 |
| C 2 | <0.021 | <0.031 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.015 | <0.005 | 0.020 | 0.014 | <0.010 | <0.052 | 0.016 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.052 | <0.010 | 0.063 |
| C 3 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.011 | <0.005 | 0.020 | 0.016 | <0.010 | <0.051 | 0.016 | 0.006 | 0.013 | <0.020 | <0.051 | <0.010 | 0.083 |
| C4 | <0.021 | <0.031 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.019 | <0.005 | 0.025 | 0.018 | <0.010 | <0.052 | 0.018 | 0.005 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.052 | 0.015 | 0.099 |
| C5 | <0.020 | <0.031 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.011 | <0.005 | 0.017 | 0.013 | <0.010 | <0.051 | <0.010 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.051 | 0.017 | 0.059 |
| C 6 | <0.021 | <0.031 | <0.010 | 0.008 | 0.174 | 0.015 | 0.486 | 0.368 | 0.182 | 0.249 | 0.241 | 0.131 | 0.256 | 0.089 | 0.168 | 0.172 | 2.54 |
| C 7 | 0.037 | <0.031 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.051 | <0.005 | 0.057 | 0.052 | 0.018 | <0.052 | 0.035 | 0.016 | 0.027 | <0.020 | <0.052 | 0.024 | 0.315 |
| DI | <0.020 | <0.031 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.082 | <0.005 | 0.082 | 0.068 | 0.028 | 0.060 | 0.080 | 0.030 | 0.029 | 0.029 | <0.051 | 0.033 | 0.518 |
| D2 | 0.039 | <0.033 | <0.011 | <0.006 | 0.030 | <0.006 | 0.036 | 0.257 | 0.012 | <0.056 | 0.044 | 0.134 | 0.015 | <0.020 | <0.056 | 0.056 | 0.622 |
| EI | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.005 | 0.014 | 0.013 | <0.010 | <0.050 | 0.011 | <0.050 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.005 | 0.011 | 0.049 |
| E2 | <0.020 | <0.030 | <0.010 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.005 | <0.010 | <0.010 | <0.010 | <0.050 | <0.010 | <0.050 | <0.010 | <0.020 | <0.005 | <0.010 | 0.000 |
| FI | 0.037 | 0.002 | 0.007 | <0.003 | 0.017 | 0.007 | 0.145 | 0.113 | 0.061 | 0.079 | 0.069 | 0.057 | 0.049 | 0.017 | 0.038 | 0.049 | 0.745 |
| F2 | 0.038 | 0.003 | 0.014 | 0.006 | 0.053 | 0.012 | 0.262 | 0.199 | 0.098 | 0.123 | 0.119 | 0.090 | 0.096 | 0.026 | 0.072 | 0.084 | 1.30 |
| F3 | 0.043 | <0.002 | 0.013 | 0.016 | 0.021 | 0.003 | 0.034 | 0.026 | 0.015 | 0.019 | 0.021 | 0.010 | 0.019 | <0.001 | 0.018 | 0.016 | 0.275 |
| GI | <0.031 | 0.041 | 0.013 | 0.012 | 0.356 | 0.055 | 1.730 | 1.013 | 0.670 | 1.556 | 1.950 | 1.080 | 0.850 | 0.276 | 0.700 | 1.006 | 11.3 |
| G2 | <0.031 | <0.002 | <0.003 | <0.003 | 0.073 | 0.012 | 0.365 | 0.259 | <0.005 | 0.576 | 0.619 | 0.297 | 0.324 | 0.096 | 0.230 | 0.283 | 3.56 |
| ні | <0.031 | <0.002 | <0.003 | <0.003 | <0.149 | <0.003 | 0.015 | 0.014 | 0.006 | 0.011 | 0.009 | 0.007 | 0.006 | 0.007 | 0.007 | 0.008 | 0.090 |
| H2 | <0.031 | <0.002 | <0.003 | <0.003 | <0.149 | <0.003 | 0.027 | 0.032 | 0.015 | 0.020 | 0.018 | 0.013 | 0.014 | 0.008 | 0.012 | 0.014 | 0.173 |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 281

PARTIE VI – ANNEXES

| 11 | <0.031 | 0.004 | < 0.003 | < 0.003 | <0.149 | 0.005 | 0.042 | 0.040 | 0.031 | 0.051 | 0.056 | 0.037 | 0.041 | 0.013 | 0.037 | 0.039 | 0.396 |
|----|--------|--------|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 12 | <0.031 | <0.002 | <0.003 | <0.003 | <0.149 | <0.003 | 0.017 | 0.016 | 0.007 | 0.013 | 0.014 | 0.012 | 0.012 | 0.008 | 0.011 | 0.013 | 0.123 |
| JI | <0.031 | <0.002 | <0.003 | <0.003 | <0.149 | <0.003 | <0.008 | <0.005 | <0.001 | <0.003 | <0.002 | <0.003 | 0.001 | 0.005 | 0.003 | 0.004 | 0.013 |
| ΚI | <0.031 | 0.059 | <0.003 | <0.003 | 0.194 | 0.056 | 0.884 | 0.564 | 0.265 | 0.352 | 0.367 | 0.351 | 0.319 | 0.075 | 0.220 | 0.262 | 3.97 |
| LI | <0.024 | <0.036 | <0.012 | 0.006 | 0.101 | 0.013 | 0.158 | 0.124 | 0.083 | 0.105 | 0.114 | 0.045 | 0.076 | 0.045 | 0.094 | 0.063 | 1.03 |
| L2 | 0.033 | <0.041 | <0.014 | 0.022 | 0.210 | 0.030 | 0.282 | 0.221 | 0.164 | 0.200 | 0.218 | 0.084 | 0.138 | 0.088 | 0.167 | 0.104 | 1.96 |
| L3 | 0.049 | <0.030 | <0.010 | 0.023 | 0.239 | 0.022 | 0.405 | 0.344 | 0.206 | 0.256 | 0.294 | 0.137 | 0.228 | 0.138 | 0.299 | 0.218 | 2.86 |
| L4 | 0.131 | <0.031 | 0.021 | 0.091 | 1.02 | 0.097 | 1.70 | 1.31 | 0.743 | 1.02 | 0.959 | 0.416 | 0.715 | 0.257 | 0.895 | 0.591 | 9.97 |
| 01 | 0.053 | 0.025 | 0.019 | 0.029 | 0.504 | 0.103 | 1.09 | 0.848 | 0.559 | 0.819 | 0.924 | 0.513 | 0.583 | 0.138 | 0.434 | 0.511 | 7.16 |

Annexe 4: Polychlorinated biphenyls indicators (PCB) in soils (μ G.KG⁻¹ DW) (values are in bold when higher than SGV in table 5)

| Soils | 28 | 52 | 101 | 118 | 138 | 153 | 180 | Sum |
|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| СІ | 0.074 | 0.084 | 0.092 | 0.040 | 0.131 | 0.146 | 0.066 | 0.633 |
| C2 | 0.063 | 0.094 | 0.127 | 0.095 | 0.178 | 0.181 | 0.082 | 0.820 |
| C3 | 0.065 | 0.03 I | 0.076 | 0.075 | 0.165 | 0.167 | 0.061 | 0.640 |
| C4 | 0.055 | 0.062 | 0.145 | 0.215 | 0.586 | 0.672 | 0.266 | 2.001 |
| C5 | 0.049 | 0.026 | 0.055 | 0.038 | 0.309 | 0.329 | 0.170 | 0.976 |
| C6 | 0.035 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.076 | 0.073 | 0.224 |
| C7 | 0.088 | 0.049 | 0.074 | 0.105 | 0.260 | 0.330 | 0.192 | 1.10 |
| N2 | 0.644 | 0.173 | 2.05 | 1.64 | 10.8 | 12.0 | 8.21 | 34.9 |

ANNEXE 5: ACCUMULATION QUOTIENT (AQ) | RISK COEFFICIENT (RC) AND SET | ERITME INDEXES BASED ON THE VISCERAL MASS OF SNAILS AFTER 28 DAYS OF EXPOSURE TO METALLIC ELEMENTS (MES) (THE BOLD VALUES ARE >1 FOR AQ (AQ>1: EXCESS OF TRANSFERS ARE DETECTED), >5 FOR SET, > 0 FOR RC AND > 1000 FOR ERITME).

| Soils | As | Cd | °C | ັບ | C | ВН | Σ | δ | ïŻ | Pb | Sb | Se | Sn | Sr | Zn | SET ERITME |
|------------|-------|-------|--------------|----------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------|
| AI | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| A 2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| A3 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| A 4 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| BI | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | I.79 7.90 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | I 0 | 0.792 7.90 |
| B 2 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.60 16.0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | I 0 | 1.60 16.0 |
| B 3 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.02 0.2 00 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | I 0 | 0.017 0.200 |
| СІ | I O | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | ı o | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| C2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| C3 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.16 64.0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1.30 3.00 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | I 0 | 0.462 67.0 |

AQ RC

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 284

| C4 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
|------------|---------------|--------------|-------|----------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|-------|---------------|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|----------|-------|-----------------|
| C5 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | ן 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| C6 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | ı o | ı 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| C 7 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | ı 0 | ı 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| DI | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.38 3.8 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 1.38 13. 8 |
| D2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| EI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.61 6.10 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 0.608 6. I |
| E2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| FI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| F2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.97 19.7 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I.26 46.3 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 2.24 66. 0 |
| F3 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | l.45 4.50 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 0.450 4.50 |
| GI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.19 76.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 0.192 76.0 |
| G2 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| ні | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.02 1.06 | 0 | 1 0 | 0.021 1.06 |
| H2 | 7.99 4194 | Ⅰ.26 Ⅰ04 | 1 0 | 2.24 12.4 | 1.02 0.200 | 1.16 96.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I.25 44.5 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 6.65 300 | 0 | 1 0 | 4.6 475 |
| п | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |

285

| 12 | I O | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.58 5.80 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.31 16.4 | 0 | 1 0 | 0.890 22.2 |
|------------|------------------|----------------|-------|--------------|-------|---------------|---------------|--------------|-------|--------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------|----------------|-----------------------|
| JI | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| KI | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | I O | 0 | 1 0 | 0 0 |
| LI | 1 0 | 3.00 80 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 6.94 2376 | Ⅰ.44 4.40 | 1 0 | 1.98 51.9 | 0 | 1 0 | 9.36 3232 |
| L2 | 9.67 5202 | 9.86 3544 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2.25 750 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 74.8 29520 | 6.33 53.3 | 1.13 23.1 | 2.10 58.3 | ן ו 0 | 1.60 31.8 | 99.8 39183 |
| L3 | 343 205200 | 2.05 42 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 9.39 5034 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 45.4 7744 | 211 2100 | 1 0 | 4.13 166 | ן ו 0 | ı o | 608 230664 |
| L4 | 145 86400 | 1.13 52.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 3.13 1278 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 4.66 464 | 17.5 165 | 1 0 | l.48 25.4 | ן ו 0 | 1 0 | 166 89384 |
| MI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 4.61 444 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 3.61 1444 |
| M2 | 22.7 I 3020 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ı o | 1 0 | I.20 20 | 2.06 10.6 | I 0 | 1 0 | 360 4360 0 | 1.57 5.70 | I O | 1 0 | ו 0 | 1 0 | 382 56757 |
| M3 | 6.70 3420 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I O | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 21.4 8160 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 25.0 580 |
| NI | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 1 0 | 1.69 36.6 | 0 | 1 0 | 0.688 36.6 |
| οι | I 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.16 1.60 | 1 0 | 1.62 372 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 9.34 3336 | 1.32 3.20 | 1 0 | Ⅰ.90│ 47.7 | 0 | I.44 23.3 | 10.8 3784 |
| 02 | I O | 1.01 4.00 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ı 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.10 5.30 | I 0 | 4.78 5 2 | I O | 1 0 | I.46 24.4 | ן ו 0 | 1.37 19.6 | 4.72 1565 |
| O 3 | 60.2 35520 | 59.5 23400 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 5.78 2868 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 94.5 37400 | 8.92 79.2 | 2.03 183 | I O | 0 | 3.43 29 | 226 99589 |
| 04 | 3.54 524 | 10.7 3880 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 6.26 3156 | 1 0 | 1 0 | I 0 | 72.0 28400 | 3.4 24 | 1.15 26.7 | 1 0 | 0 | 2.67 88.5 | 102 37200 |
| O 5 | 6.18 | 13.1 | ılo | 10 | 10 | 3.69 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 80.7 | 12.9 | 1.43 | 2.38 | | 3.37 | 115 |
|------------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|----------------|----------|------|----------|-------|----------------|
| | 3108 | 4840 | 1 - | 1. | I. | 1614 | 1 - | 1 - | 1 - | 31880 | 119 | 76.5 | 73.1 | 0 | 126 | 41836 |
| 06 | 52.8 | 54.8 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 4.28 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 86.4 | 6.06 | 2.25 | 3.54 | | 2.38 | 204 |
| | 31080 | 21520 | • | I | I | 1968 | | | | 34160 | 50.6 | 223 | 135 | 0 | 73.1 | 89209 |
| 07 | 1 0 | 3.32 | 1 0 | 10 | 1 0 | 1.10 | 10 | 10 | 1 0 | 29.5 | 5.00 | 1 0 | 1.15 | | 2.20 | 36.2 |
| | | 928 | · | | • | 60.0 | | | • | 11400 | 40.0 | • | 1.95 | 0 | 03.0 | 12500 |
| 08 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.10 | 1.02 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | ין ^ | 1 0 | 2.04 |
| | 10.8 | 5 71 | | | | | 1.00 | 1.00 | | 22.0 | 4 02 | | | ı İ | 1 52 | 2.00 |
| 09 | 5880 | 1884 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 23.0 8800 | ן נט.ד ג חג | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 27.6 | 16622 |
| 01 | 6 35 | 12.8 | _ | | | 5 74 | _ | | _ | 55 5 | 8 06 | 1 14 | | ı İ | 3 91 | 85 1 |
| 0 | 3210 | 4720 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 2844 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 21800 | 70.6 | 24.9 | 1 0 | 0 | 154 | 33824 |
| Ő | 10.4 | 9.38 | | | | 1.66 | | | | 47.6 | 7.31 | 1.02 | | ١ľ | 2.10 | 71.5 |
| I | 5640 | 3352 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 396 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 18640 | 63.1 | 3.56 | 1 0 | 0 | 58.3 | 28153 |
| οι | | 2.23 | | | | | | | | 18.9 | 1.21 | | 1.35 | | | 19.7 |
| 2 | 1 0 | 492 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 10 | 10 | 110 | 1 0 | 7160 | 2.10 | 10 | 18.6 | 0 | 110 | 7673 |
| οι | | 5.05 | | | | 110 | | | | 17.9 | 1.44 | | | | 1.01 | 20.4 |
| 3 | 110 | 1620 | 110 | 110 | ΠU | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 6760 | 4.40 | 110 | 110 | 0 | 0.530 | 8385 |
| ΟΙ | 5.55 | 8.34 | | | | 1.04 | ιlο | ιlο | | 29.9 | 3.81 | 1.06 10. | | | 1.20 | 43.9 |
| 4 | 2730 | 2936 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 24.0 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 11560 | 28. I | 7 | 10 | 0 | 10.6 | 17299 |
| 01 | 1.32 | 1.08 | ιlο | 11.7 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | ιlo | 2.32 | 1.43 | 110 | 1.08 | | 1.26 | 13.2 88 |
| 5 | 192 | 32.0 | 110 | 107 | .10 | .10 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 528 | 4.30 | 110 | 4.24 | 0 | 13.8 | Ι. |
| 01 | 10 | 10 | ılo | ilo | ιlo | ιlo | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | ılo | 110 | 1.04 | | 10 | 0.042 |
| 6 | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | . • | 2.12 | 0 | . • | 2.12 |
| 01 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | | 10 | 0 0 |
| 7 | 2 02 | I | • | I | I | ľ | | | | | | | | 0 | | 2 02 1 |
| 01 | 3.82 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 10 | | 1 0 | 2.82 |
| ð Ol | 1092 | 216 | · | | • | 1.20 | • | • | • | | | • | | 1 | • | 1072 4 01 |
| 0 | 1 0 | 2.10 464 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1.30 228 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 4.13 | 1.14 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1 0 | 4.01 |
| , 02 | 5 44 | FUF | _ | | | 220 | _ | _ | _ | 4 29 | 1.10 | | 1 69 | ı l | | 8 4 2 |
| 0 | 2664 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1316 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 36.6 | י ו 0 | 1 0 | 4017 |
| • | 2001 | | | | | | | | | 1010 | | | 30.0 | v | | |

DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 287

| 02 | 6.13 | 2.05 | 10 | 2.77 | 1.62 6.2 | 15.2 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 9.24 | 2.64 | 10 | I.40 | Ι | 1.84 | 33.9 |
|--------------------|----------|---------|-------|-----------------|----------|----------|-------|---------------|----------|-------|----------|-------|------|----|-----------|-------|
| | 3078 | 420 | . • | 17.7 | 0 | 8520 | .] • | . • | . • | 3296 | 16.4 | . • | 21.2 | 0 | 44.5 | 15420 |
| O 2 | | | | | مار | | | | 110 | 1.34 | | | 39.2 | | | 38.5 |
| 2 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 136 | 110 | 110 | 2025 | 0 | 110 | 2161 |
| O 2 | 4.07 | | | | | | | | | 4.32 | | | 1.83 | | | 7.22 |
| 3 | 1842 | 1 0 | 10 | 110 | 10 | 1 0 | 110 | 110 | 1 0 | 1328 | 110 | 10 | 44.0 | ò | 1 0 | 3214 |
| O 2 | 2.28 | 2.21 | | 1.07 0.7 | | 1.75 | | | 1.05 8.9 | 3.93 | 1.70 | | 1.33 | | 2.51 | 8.84 |
| 4 | 768 | 484 | 1 0 | 00 | 1 0 | 450 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1172 | 7.00 | 1 0 | 17.5 | 0 | 80.0 | 2988 |
| 02 | 1.53 | | | | | | | | | 1.62 | | | 1.29 | Π. | | 44 |
| 5 | 318 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 248 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 15.4 | 0 | 1 0 | 581 |
| 02 | | | _ | | | | | 101 05 | | 6 40 | 1 92 | | | ı. | 1 02 | 6 35 |
| 6 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 30 | 1 0 | 2160 | 92.0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 0 | 1.02 | 2171 |
| $\hat{\mathbf{o}}$ | | 1 67 | | | | | | 50 | | | 1 57 | | 2 46 | | 2 22 | |
| 7 | 1 0 | 1.57 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 15.1 | 1.57 | 1 0 | 2.40 | 1 | 2.32 | 10.1 |
| 1 | · | 228 | • | | · | | • | | • | 5040 | 5.70 | • | //.4 | | /0.0 | 0021 |
| 02 | 110 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 1.01 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 2.81 | 2.43 | 10 | 10 | Ч | 1.28 | 3.53 |
| 8 | | | .] . | .1. | .1. | 6.00 | .1. | .1. | .1. | 724 | 14.3 | .] . | | 0 | 14.8 | 759 |
| 02 | I.04 24. | 5.05 16 | 110 | ١١٥ | 110 | I.08 48. | ιlο | 110 | ιlο | 90.5 | 1.17 | ιlο | 2.73 | | 4.48 | 99.1 |
| 9 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 110 | 0 | 110 | 110 | ·Ιν | 35800 | 1.70 | 110 | 91.7 | 0 | 184 | 37770 |
| O 3 | 3.19 13 | 3.64 10 | | | | | | | | 80.6 | 1.17 1.7 | | 3.48 | | 3.61 13 | 89.7 |
| 0 | 14 | 56 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 | ιju | ιĮυ | 31840 | 0 | 110 | 131 | 0 | 8 | 34482 |

ANNEXE 6 : COMPARAISON DES NIVEAUX DE RISQUES (RC ET ERITME) *EX SITU* ET *IN SITU* POUR 7 SOLS DIVERSEMENT CONTAMINES EN METAL(LOÏDE)S (DONNEES *IN SITU* ISSUES DES THESES DE BENJAMIN PAUGET (2012, SOLS LX) ET ANNE LISE MARIET (2016, SOLS MX), DONNEES EX SITU ISSUES DE CETTE THESE).

| Sols | Approche | As | Cd | Co | Cu | Ni | Pb | Sb | Zn | ERITME |
|------|----------|--------|------|----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|
| | Ex situ | 0 | 800 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2376 | 4.40 | 0 | 3180 |
| LI | In situ | 348 | 1884 | 0 | 1.20 | 0 | 1604 | 20.5 | 20.I | 3878 |
| 12 | Ex situ | 5202 | 3544 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 29520 | 53.3 | 31.8 | 38351 |
| LZ | In situ | 0 | 1760 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2464 | 8.3 | 0 | 4232 |
| 1.2 | Ex situ | 205200 | 420 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 17744 | 2100 | 0 | 225464 |
| LS | In situ | 2088 | 128 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 56 | 91.0 | 0 | 2363 |
| 14 | Ex situ | 86400 | 52 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1464 | 165 | 0 | 88081 |
| L4 | In situ | 3714 | 52 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 57.7 | 0 | 3824 |
| мі | Ex situ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1444 | 0 | 0 | 1444 |
| | In situ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1800 | 0.116 | 0 | 1800 |
| MO | Ex situ | 13020 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 143600 | 5.70 | 0 | 156626 |
| M12 | In situ | 2476 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 35.7 | 59439 | 16.1 | 0 | 61967 |
| MD | Ex situ | 3420 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8160 | 0 | 0 | 11580 |
| 1713 | In situ | 0 | 123 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9261 | 0 | 0 | 9273 |



ANNEXE 7 : AJUSTEMENT DE L'ERS DE LA PARTIE IV.2. AVEC LES FRACTIONS BIOACCESSIBLES GASTRO-INTESTINALE.

| | | A | As | | | (| ď | | | I | Pb | | ISE | |
|-------|------|----------|----------|----------|------|--------|---------|---------|-------|----------|---------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Soils | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | risk | risk adj. |
| 01 | 0.17 | 9.76E-06 | no. adj. | 3.70E-06 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 3.86 | 1.77E-06 | 1.99 | 9.14E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 02 | 0.15 | 8.36E-06 | no. adj. | 2.46E-06 | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.87 | 1.32E-06 | 0.14 | 6.51E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 03 | 2.86 | 1.65E-04 | 1.41 | no adj. | 4.04 | no TRV | 2.23 | no TRV | 56.09 | 2.57E-05 | no adj. | 2.02E-05 | proven | proven |
| 04 | 0.93 | 5.40E-05 | 0.36 | 2.07E-05 | 0.75 | no TRV | 0.19 | no TRV | 46.82 | 2.15E-05 | no adj. | 2.82E-06 | proven | proven |
| 05 | 1.36 | 7.85E-05 | 0.66 | 3.82E-05 | 1.35 | no TRV | 0.46 | no TRV | 80.49 | 3.69E-05 | no adj. | 1.48E-05 | proven | proven |
| O6 | 1.75 | 1.01E-04 | 1.12 | no adj. | 1.71 | no TRV | 0.77 | no TRV | 19.61 | 9.02E-06 | no adj. | 8.26E-07 | proven | proven |
| 07 | 0.16 | 9.27E-06 | no. adj. | 2.35E-06 | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 3.45 | 1.59E-06 | 0.17 | 7.86E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 08 | 0.07 | 4.10E-06 | no. adj. | 8.64E-07 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.27 | 1.27E-07 | 0.06 | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk |
| 09 | 0.29 | 1.70E-05 | 0.12 | 7.07E-06 | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.79 | 2.20E-06 | 0.21 | 9.72E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O10 | 0.61 | 3.53E-05 | 0.32 | 1.85E-05 | 0.44 | no TRV | 0.18 | no TRV | 20.02 | 9.18E-06 | no adj. | 8.00E-06 | proven | proven |
| 011 | 0.35 | 2.03E-05 | 0.17 | 9.88E-06 | 0.29 | no TRV | 0.10 | no TRV | 11.33 | 5.19E-06 | no adj. | 1.02E-06 | proven | proven |
| 012 | 0.10 | 5.63E-06 | no. adj. | 9.09E-07 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.99 | 9.10E-07 | 1.81 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 013 | 0.16 | 9.18E-06 | no. adj. | 2.68E-06 | 0.10 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.34 | 1.99E-06 | 0.77 | 3.53E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 014 | 0.30 | 1.70E-05 | 0.19 | 1.11E-05 | 0.24 | no TRV | 0.14 | no TRV | 6.45 | 2.96E-06 | no adj. | 1.19E-07 | proven | proven |
| 015 | 0.17 | 9.84E-06 | no. adj. | 2.66E-06 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.59 | 7.29E-07 | 0.01 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 016 | 0.07 | 4.01E-06 | no. adj. | 6.61E-07 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.16 | 7.33E-08 | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk |
| 017 | 0.22 | 1.29E-05 | 0.02 | 1.09E-06 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.31 | 1.39E-07 | 0.01 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 018 | 0.93 | 5.40E-05 | 0.07 | 4.05E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.42 | 1.92E-07 | 0.01 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 019 | 0.12 | 7.34E-06 | no. adj. | 1.01E-06 | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.05 | 4.81E-07 | 0.04 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O20 | 0.33 | 1.89E-05 | 0.08 | 4.42E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 1.35 | 6.18E-07 | 0.04 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 021 | 0.14 | 8.21E-06 | no. adj. | 3.60E-06 | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.58 | 1.18E-06 | 0.05 | 2.49E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 022 | 0.04 | 2.38E-06 | no. adj. | 4.23E-07 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 0.17 | 8.11E-08 | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk |
| 023 | 0.72 | 4.14E-05 | 0.18 | 1.03E-05 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 5.92 | 2.71E-06 | no adj. | 1.58E-07 | proven | proven |
| 024 | 0.15 | 8.69E-06 | no. adj. | 2.10E-06 | 0.06 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.72 | 1.25E-06 | 0.10 | 4.51E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 026 | 0.17 | 9.68E-06 | no. adj. | 2.69E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 2.80 | 1.28E-06 | 0.15 | 6.73E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 027 | 0.36 | 2.07E-05 | 0.06 | 3.26E-06 | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 16.88 | 7.75E-06 | no adj. | 1.13E-06 | proven | proven |
| 028 | 0.32 | 1.88E-05 | 0.07 | 4.26E-06 | 0.04 | no TRV | no adj. | no TRV | 4.19 | 1.92E-06 | 0.75 | 3.42E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 029 | 0.46 | 2.62E-05 | 0.07 | 4.30E-06 | 0.43 | no TRV | 0.15 | no TRV | 47.15 | 2.17E-05 | no adj. | 1.37E-05 | proven | proven |
| O30 | 0.36 | 2.06E-05 | 0.08 | 4.58E-06 | 0.20 | no TRV | 0.08 | no TRV | 29.04 | 1.33E-05 | no adj. | 6.44E-06 | proven | proven |

EN JAUNE ET VERT FLUORESCENT QUAND UN CHANGEMENT DE CLASSE DE RISQUE EST AVERE EN CONSIDERANT LA PHASE GI ALORS QUE SI LA PHASE G AVAIT ETE UTILISEE LA CLASSE DE RISQUE AURAIT ETE AVEREE (JAUNE) OU ZONE D'INCERTITUDE (VERT FLUO).



| | | | | As | | | 1 | | Cd | | | 1 | | | Pb | | | | ISE | l |
|-------|------|----------|----------|------------|----------|------------|------|--------|---------|------------|---------|-------|----------|---------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Soils | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | HQ adj. GI | CR adj. | CR adj. GI | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | HQ adj. GI | CR adj. | HQ | CR | HQ adj. | CR adj. | HQ adj. GI | CR adj. GI | risk | risk adj. | risk adj. GI |
| 01 | 0.17 | 9.76E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 3.70E-06 | 3.70E-06 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 3.86 | 1.77E-06 | 3.13 | 1.44E-06 | 1.00 | 4.57E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 02 | 0.15 | 8.36E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 2.68E-06 | 2.46E-06 | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 2.87 | 1.32E-06 | 1.95 | 8.91E-07 | 0.07 | 3.26E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 03 | 2.86 | 1.65E-04 | 2.86 | 1.41 | no adj. | no adj. | 4.04 | no TRV | 4.04 | 2.23 | no TRV | 56.09 | 2.57E-05 | no adj. | 2.57E-05 | no adj. | 1.01E-05 | proven | proven | proven |
| 04 | 0.93 | 5.40E-05 | 0.53 | 0.36 | 3.08E-05 | 2.07E-05 | 0.75 | no TRV | 0.65 | 0.19 | no TRV | 46.82 | 2.15E-05 | no adj. | 1.63E-05 | no adj. | 1.41E-06 | proven | proven | proven |
| 05 | 1.36 | 7.85E-05 | 0.81 | 0.66 | 4.68E-05 | 3.82E-05 | 1.35 | no TRV | 1.19 | 0.46 | no TRV | 80.49 | 3.69E-05 | no adj. | 3.69E-05 | no adj. | 7.41E-06 | proven | proven | proven |
| 06 | 1.75 | 1.01E-04 | 1.39 | 1.12 | no adj. | no adj. | 1.71 | no TRV | 1.64 | 0.77 | no TRV | 19.61 | 9.02E-06 | no adj. | 8.40E-06 | no adj. | 4.13E-07 | proven | proven | proven |
| 07 | 0.16 | 9.27E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 3.25E-06 | 2.35E-06 | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 3.45 | 1.59E-06 | 3.02 | 1.39E-06 | 0.09 | 3.93E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 08 | 0.07 | 4.10E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 8.64E-07 | 8.64E-07 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 0.27 | 1.27E-07 | 0.18 | no adj. | 0.03 | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk | no risk |
| 09 | 0.29 | 1.70E-05 | 0.13 | 0.12 | 7.57E-06 | 7.07E-06 | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 4.79 | 2.20E-06 | 4.61 | 2.12E-06 | 0.11 | 4.86E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 010 | 0.61 | 3.53E-05 | 0.44 | 0.32 | 2.57E-05 | 1.85E-05 | 0.44 | no TRV | 0.44 | 0.18 | no TRV | 20.02 | 9.18E-06 | no adj. | 9.18E-06 | no adj. | 4.00E-06 | proven | proven | proven |
| 011 | 0.35 | 2.03E-05 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 1.02E-05 | 9.88E-06 | 0.29 | no TRV | 0.25 | 0.10 | no TRV | 11.33 | 5.19E-06 | no adj. | 4.55E-06 | no adj. | 5.11E-07 | proven | proven | proven |
| 012 | 0.10 | 5.63E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 9.09E-07 | 9.09E-07 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 1.99 | 9.10E-07 | 1.78 | no adj. | 0.91 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 013 | 0.16 | 9.18E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 2.68E-06 | 2.68E-06 | 0.10 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 4.34 | 1.99E-06 | 4.10 | 1.88E-06 | 0.38 | 1.76E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 014 | 0.30 | 1.70E-05 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 1.11E-05 | 1.11E-05 | 0.24 | no TRV | 0.21 | 0.14 | no TRV | 6.45 | 2.96E-06 | no adj. | 2.51E-06 | no adj. | 5.93E-08 | proven | proven | proven |
| 015 | 0.17 | 9.84E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 3.69E-06 | 2.66E-06 | 0.02 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 1.59 | 7.29E-07 | 1.02 | no adj. | 0.01 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 016 | 0.07 | 4.01E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 6.61E-07 | 6.61E-07 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 0.16 | 7.33E-08 | no adj. | no adj. | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk | no risk |
| 017 | 0.22 | 1.29E-05 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 1.42E-06 | 1.09E-06 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 0.31 | 1.39E-07 | 0.12 | no adj. | 0.01 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 018 | 0.93 | 5.40E-05 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 4.34E-06 | 4.05E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 0.42 | 1.92E-07 | 0.14 | no adj. | 0.00 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 019 | 0.12 | 7.34E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 1.01E-06 | 1.01E-06 | 0.07 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 1.05 | 4.81E-07 | 0.76 | no adj. | 0.02 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O20 | 0.33 | 1.89E-05 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 4.42E-06 | 4.42E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 1.35 | 6.18E-07 | 0.94 | no adj. | 0.02 | no adj. | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 021 | 0.14 | 8.21E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 3.99E-06 | 3.60E-06 | 0.03 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 2.58 | 1.18E-06 | 2.18 | 9.98E-07 | 0.03 | 1.24E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 022 | 0.04 | 2.38E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 4.23E-07 | 4.23E-07 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 0.17 | 8.11E-08 | no adj. | no adj. | no adj. | no adj. | uncertainty | no risk | no risk |
| 023 | 0.72 | 4.14E-05 | 0.22 | 0.18 | 1.26E-05 | 1.03E-05 | 0.00 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 5.92 | 2.71E-06 | no adj. | 4.56E-07 | no adj. | 1.58E-07 | proven | proven | proven |
| 024 | 0.15 | 8.69E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 2.91E-06 | 2.10E-06 | 0.06 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 2.72 | 1.25E-06 | 2.33 | 1.07E-06 | 0.05 | 2.26E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| O26 | 0.17 | 9.68E-06 | no. adj. | no. adj. | 4.13E-06 | 2.69E-06 | 0.01 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 2.80 | 1.28E-06 | 2.47 | 1.13E-06 | 0.07 | 3.37E-08 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 027 | 0.36 | 2.07E-05 | 0.08 | 0.06 | 4.89E-06 | 3.26E-06 | 0.12 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 16.88 | 7.75E-06 | no adj. | 5.28E-06 | no adj. | 5.64E-07 | proven | proven | proven |
| 028 | 0.32 | 1.88E-05 | 0.09 | 0.07 | 5.36E-06 | 4.26E-06 | 0.04 | no TRV | no adj. | no adj. | no TRV | 4.19 | 1.92E-06 | 2.62 | 1.20E-06 | 0.37 | 1.71E-07 | uncertainty | uncertainty | uncertainty |
| 029 | 0.46 | 2.62E-05 | 0.11 | 0.07 | 6.24E-06 | 4.30E-06 | 0.43 | no TRV | 0.21 | 0.15 | no TRV | 47.15 | 2.17E-05 | no adj. | 2.14E-05 | no adj. | 6.87E-06 | proven | proven | proven |
| 030 | 0.36 | 2.06E-05 | 0.10 | 0.08 | 5.61E-06 | 4 58E-06 | 0.20 | no TRV | 0.16 | 0.08 | no TRV | 29.04 | 1.33E-05 | no adi | 1.29E-05 | no adi | 3.22E-06 | proven | proven | proven |

ANNEXE 8 : AJUSTEMENT DE L'ERS DE LA PARTIE IV.2. SANS CONSIDERER LE FACTEUR X2 DU PLOMB LORS DE L'AJUSTEMENT (ANNEXE 8) SUR CET AJUSTEMENT.

PARTIE VII – BIBLIOGRAPHIE

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DEVELOPPEMENT D'INDICATEURS CHIMIQUES ET BIOLOGIQUES POUR L'EVALUATION DES RISQUES ENVIRONNEMENTAUX DES SITES ET SOLS CONTAMINES 355



Titre : Développement d'indicateurs chimiques et biologiques pour l'évaluation des risques environnementaux des sites et sols contaminés.

Mots clés : escargots, biodisponibilité, sols, télomères, bioaccessibilité, biomarqueurs.

Résumé : Dans le cadre d'une gestion durable des sites et sols pollués (SSP), cette thèse avait pour objectif général d'améliorer les évaluations des risques environnementaux (ERE) et sanitaires (ERS). Des concentrations internes de références (TGV) ont été déterminées ex situ pour des métal(loïde)s, des hydrocarbures aromatiques polycycliques (PAH) et des polychlorobiphényles, de même que des indicateurs globaux, tels que les indices ex situ de somme des excès de transferts (GSET) et de risques écotoxicologiques (GERITOXE). Ces indicateurs ont été appliqués à 68 sols diversement contaminés et ont montré que ce ne sont pas nécessairement les sols les plus contaminés qui présentent les risques les plus élevés. Il a été montré que les excès de transferts de métal(loïde)s pour l'escargot sont, à la différence transferts non-anomaliques provenant du des fond pédogéochimique, plus influencés par la concentration totale que par les propriétés physico-chimiques des sols. Au-delà de ces influences, se posait également la question de l'influence des spécificités des sites sur la biodisponibilité des contaminants pour l'escargot. Cela a été investigué dans un essai inter-laboratoire aboutissant à la normalisation des approches in situ et ex situ (ISO 24032) avec lequel nous avons montré que les transferts sont globalement plus élevés ex situ qu'in situ, sauf pour quelques métaux (e.g., Cd et Mo). Nous avons ainsi pu discerner les intérêts respectifs des méthodes d'ERE in situ et ex situ et des réponses obtenues en fonction des questions scientifiques et des perspectives de gestion. La recherche de liens entre les concentrations biodisponibles et des effets écotoxicologiques spécifiques de l'escargot a été menée à différents niveaux d'organisation (traits d'histoire de vie et stabilité du génome) pour affiner l'interprétation des indicateurs globaux développés. La pertinence du couplage du test des micronoyaux avec la technique d'amplification aléatoire d'ADN polymorphe pour une évaluation de la génotoxicité dans les hémocytes a été mise en évidence.

L'étude de la dynamique des télomères chez l'escargot a été mise au point et a révélé des motifs originaux. Une forte attrition des télomères durant la croissance du stade juvénile au stade subadulte a été caractérisée, suivie par un maintien de la longueur des télomères durant la vie adulte. Bien que des dommages génotoxiques soient identifiés et associés à des altérations de la santé des escargots exposés à des sols contaminés par des métaux et des HAP, leurs télomères ne sont pas raccourcis dans les hémocytes. Dans le contexte d'applicabilité de l'initiative One health à la gestion des SSP considérant la santé de l'homme et la santé environnementale, l'étude des expositions via les relations entre la bioaccessibilité pour l'homme et la biodisponibilité pour l'escargot de l'As, du Cd et du Pb du sol a révélé de fortes convergences. Concernant les liens entre les niveaux de risque, il a été montré que des sols identifiés comme "à risque" pour la santé humaine pouvaient présenter de faibles ou aucun transferts de contaminants vers les escargots, et donc une absence de risque environnemental, offrant des perspectives de gestion alternatives.

En conclusion, les résultats obtenus ouvrent de nouvelles voies vers la recherche des relations fondamentales entre la biodisponibilité environnementale et toxicologique à différents niveaux d'organisation biologique et l'identification des intérêts respectifs des approches de terrain et de laboratoire dans le cadre des évaluations des risques en fonction des questions de gestion. Des approches permettant de combiner des méthodologies d'évaluation environnementale et sanitaire sont proposées afin de mieux gérer les pollutions environnementales. Enfin, les indicateurs développés dans le cadre de cette thèse renforcent le positionnement des outils chimiques et biologiques de caractérisation ciblés à l'échelle des sites.

Title: Development of chemical and biological indicators for environmental risk assessment of contaminated sites and soils.

Keywords: snails, bioavailability, soils, telomeres, bioaccessibility, biomarkers.

Abstract: In the context of the sustainable management of polluted sites and soils, the overall objective of this thesis was to improve environmental (ERA) and human health (HHRA) risk assessments. Threshold guide values (TGV) were determined ex situ in the land snail for metal(loid)s, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorobiphenyls (PCBs) as well as global indicators, such as ex situ indices of sum of excess transfer (GSET) and ecotoxicological risk (GERITOXE). These indicators were applied to 68 various contaminated soils and showed that it is not necessarily the most contaminated soils that present the highest risk. In addition, it was highlighted that excess metal(loid) transfers to snail are, unlike non-anomalous transfers from the soil geochemical background, more influenced by the total concentration than by the physico-chemical properties of the soils. Beyond these influences, the question also arose of the influence of site specificities on the bioavailability of contaminants to the snail. This was investigated in an inter-laboratory test leading to the standardization of the in situ and ex situ approaches (ISO 24032). It was evidenced that transfers are generally higher ex situ than in situ, except for few metals (e.g., Cd and Mo). This enable to discern the respective interests of in situ and ex situ ERA methods and the answers obtained according to scientific questions and management perspectives. The relationships between bioavailable concentrations and specific ecotoxicological effects for the snail were studied at different levels of organization (life history traits and genomic stability) to refine the interpretation of the global indicators developed. The relevance of the coupling of the micronucleus assay with the random amplification technique of polymorphic DNA for the assessment of genotoxicity in hemocytes was demonstrated.

The study of telomere dynamics in the land snail has been developed and has revealed novel patterns. A strong telomere attrition during growth from the juvenile to the sub-adult stage was characterized, followed by a maintenance of telomere length during adult life. Although genotoxic damage has been identified and associated with health alterations to snails exposed to metaland PAH-contaminated soils, their telomeres are not shortened in hemocytes. In the context of the applicability of the One health initiative to the management of polluted sites and soils considering both human and environmental health, the study of exposures with the relationships between bioaccessibility to humans and bioavailability to the snails of As, Cd and Pb in contaminated soils revealed strong convergences. Concerning the links between risk levels, it was shown that soils identified as "at risk" for human health could present a low or even absence of transfer of contaminants to snails and therefore an absence of environmental risk, offering alternative management perspectives.

In conclusion, the results obtained pave the way towards the research of fundamental relationships between environmental and toxicological bioavailability at different levels of biological organization and the identification of the respective interests of field and laboratory approaches in risk assessments in relation to management issues. Approaches to combine environmental and health assessment methodologies are proposed in the aim to better manage environmental pollutions. Finally, the indicators developed within the framework of this thesis strengthen the positioning of targeted chemical and biological characterization tools at the site scale.



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