

# SENSING HYDROPHILIC CONTAMINANTS:

transcriptional response of  
*Caenorhabditis elegans* as  
biosensor for water quality



Antoine Karengera

## Propositions

1. The power of *C. elegans* to withstand the exposure to raw wastewaters is a major step forward towards testing the effects of hydrophilic compounds that are hard to extract or concentrate in water sample.  
(this thesis)
2. The application of transcription-based bioanalysis in the nematode *C. elegans* will create a bridge linking the *in vitro* and *in vivo* tools for water quality assessment.  
(this thesis)
3. The best way to make the general public understand and trust scientific achievements is to support scientists in their communication efforts rather than giving this task to communication specialists.
4. RNA technology has significantly improved human health.
5. A leadership's insensitive attitude towards the needs of compatriots is the most important setback for a democratization process.
6. A major breakthrough in poverty and corruption eradication in sub-Saharan African countries will only be achieved by abandoning kinship-related systems.
7. Children who grow up in poverty can never become economically successful when trapped in the mentality of their families fate.

Propositions belonging to the thesis, entitled

"Sensing hydrophilic contaminants: transcriptional response of *Caenorhabditis elegans* as biosensor for water quality"

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Wageningen, 7 September 2022



**Sensing hydrophilic contaminants: transcriptional  
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for water quality**

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# **Sensing hydrophilic contaminants: transcriptional response of *Caenorhabditis elegans* as biosensor for water quality**

**Antoine Karengera**

## **Thesis**

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# Chapter 1

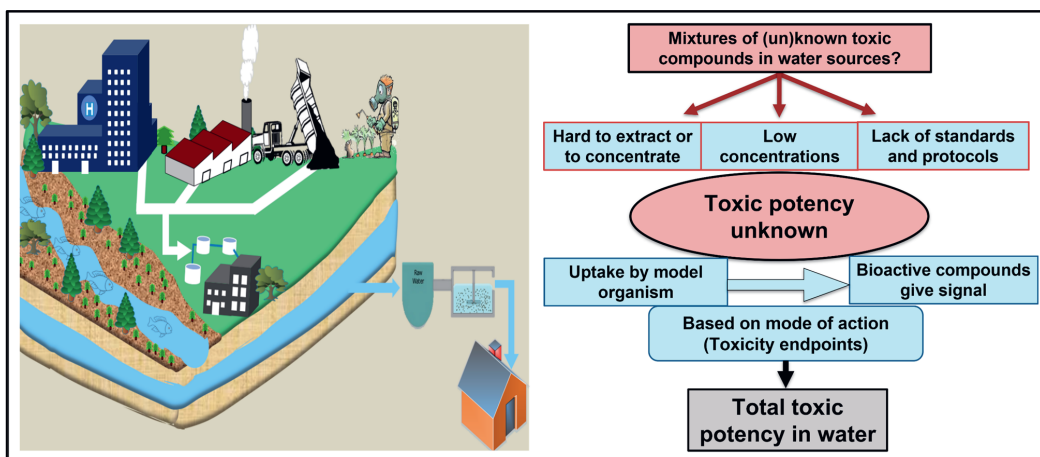
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General introduction



## 1. Water quality challenges: is your water safe?

Growing chemical and pharmaceutical use and unregulated disposal of chemicals as well as untreated or poorly treated waste waters pose a worldwide risk to sources for drinking water production and environmental water quality (Fig. 1). A large category of chemical contaminants, including many hydrophilic compounds, are frequently found in aquatic environments, especially agrochemicals [1-3] pharmaceuticals [4, 5], personal care products, industrial by-products, metabolites and many others [6-8]. Plant protection products and herbicides can enter surface waters via discharged waters from greenhouse horticultural practices [9] or as runoff from treated parcels or municipalities. Also, old chemical waste dumps present a serious environmental risk by releasing pollutants, especially the more water soluble ones, directly to ground- or surface water [10, 11]. Many compounds that are released into waste water treatment plants may survive the water treatment, whether or not as metabolites or by-products, and end up in environmental water matrices as micro-pollutants [12, 13]. So, even treated effluents may contain a wide range of natural and synthetic chemicals [14].



**Figure 1.** Possible sources of hydrophilic contaminants, their pathways to surface water and groundwater, and a summary of key water quality monitoring challenges associated with these pollutants.

Current methods for chemical monitoring of water quality mainly focus on lipophilic substances that are easy to extract and concentrate. Furthermore, the existing regulatory methods for drinking water are mostly directed towards the measurement of already known problematic or regulated chemicals [15]. This may lead to an underestimation or incorrect interpretation of human and environmental risks. The knowledge gaps on hydrophilic



substances are extensive, such as the lack of sensitive analytical chemical techniques for their concentration and identification, lack of certified reference materials, lack of data related to their fate, toxicity, and their behavior in environment, and lack of knowledge of their mixture effects [16, 17]. Contaminants which are not analyzed in the standard monitoring program could end up, for example, in drinking water without this being known since especially polar pollutants may not be removed by regular drinking water treatment [6] nor be stopped with carbon filters [18].

In addition, known substances for which chemical analytical methods do exist could exist at very low concentrations below detection limits [8]. Several other pollutants are present at detectable low concentrations that are generally considered to pose no acute risk [19-21]. However, the existing risk assessment procedures tend to overlook potential mixture effects [6, 20, 22] or long term exposure effects. Despite the low concentrations of these water pollutants there are concerns about their potential toxic effects [12, 23, 24]. The development of new chemical analysis tests for individual chemical agents including hydrophilic ones takes many years and requires huge resources, and then still the total toxic potency of the mixtures will not be known. Therefore, an efficient and cheap method is highly needed to assess the toxic potencies of hydrophilic chemical mixtures in water resources and distinguish between samples that pose reasons for concern and samples that do not. The method aimed in this thesis could be used to guide the chemical analysis to identify yet unknown toxic substances and their sources in groundwater or surface waters, before they are used for potable water production. It can also be used for monitoring the removal efficiency of (micro)pollutants during wastewater treatment and for assessing the quality of the resulting effluent and receiving waters.

## **2. Added value of a Bioassay: testing of the presence and toxicity of pollutants**

Classic techniques used for water quality assessment and characterization typically rely on identifying and quantifying individual chemicals [25]. This approach can be helpful for evaluation of the risk posed by known chemicals, but may underestimate the risk posed by mixtures of known and unknown contaminants. Unlike chemical analysis, bioassay analyses can be used to directly characterize potential cumulative effects of bioactive substances on living cells, tissues or organisms without necessarily needing to know all the components of the samples [25, 26]. Bioassays can also be used to prioritize water sources based on ecotoxicological risks and prevent unnecessary costly chemical analysis at sites that pose low (eco)toxicological risks [27]. Typically, a bioassay measures biological effects of substances rather than identifying the substances. To identify the substance(s) responsible for a particular effect detected with a bioassay, an Effect-Directed Analysis (EDA) can be performed [28-30]. This is a powerful tool combining bioassay analyses with chromatographic separation and chemical analysis to identify drivers of bioassay activity.

Several studies involving the EDA approach investigating toxicity of water samples are reported [28, 31-34].

Bioassays can be used in vitro, by monitoring responses (parts of) cells in culture [35] or in vivo, utilizing a whole living system [36]. Most of the existing in vitro and in vivo bioassays are either very specific indicators, based on one or a few biological responses (e.g., estrogenic activity [37], aryl hydrocarbon receptor activity [38], thyroid hormone disrupting activity [39], oxidative stress response [40], and others) or are non-specific indicators of general toxic effects (e.g., mortality, fertility, reproduction, and others) [25, 36]. Hence, a battery of bioassays is often required for testing various types of bioactive pollutants present in water samples as demonstrated in [41-43]. Both in vivo and in vitro bioassays can be combined in a battery of tests to assess ecotoxicological risk in water [27, 44].

Escher et al. (2014) provided insights into in vitro bioanalytical tools used for water quality assessment [25]. These assays were performed in a controlled environment (e.g., a test tube or microtiter plate) and they were carried out using isolated tissue, enzymes, or cell culture. Various in vitro bioassays for water quality monitoring are compiled in the European technical report on aquatic effect-based tools under the Water Framework Directive [36]. In that report, some advantages are credited to the in vitro assays like the possibilities to analyze many different matrixes (e.g., concentrated extracts of surface water, sediment or pore water samples, biological tissues, passive samplers and effluents). This report also acknowledges in vitro techniques to be highly sensitive and require relatively small amounts of samples and short exposure time compared to the time required for an in vivo assay. Moreover, in vitro assays provide the opportunity to conduct high throughput toxicity screening and automated applications [39, 45]. Nevertheless, the in vitro assays are usually applicable for extracts or concentrated samples, and this may be irrelevant for hydrophilic compounds. Also, the in vitro systems studies are highly simplified when compared to the complexity of whole organisms and their applications overlook potential interactions between different structures of an organism (e.g., receptors, cells and organs) [36].

Various tests involving whole organism bioassays for the assessment of water quality monitoring are available including standardized testing methods according to OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) or ISO (International Organization for Standardization). The *Daphnia* test method is designed to assess acute toxicity in *Daphnia magna* to evaluate the effects of chemicals towards daphnids or invertebrates [46]. The fish embryo acute toxicity (FET) test is another assay designed to determine the acute or lethal effects of chemicals on embryonic stages of fish and as a model for vertebrates without formally conducting animal experiments [47]. Other zebrafish bioassays similar to FET have been reviewed recently by Di Paolo and co-workers (2015) [48]. Their review paper extensively discusses the potential contribution of zebrafish-based assays for EDA approaches. Freshwater algal growth inhibition test is another OECD

method utilized to determine the effects of a chemical on the growth of freshwater microalgae and/or cyanobacteria [49]. Nematodes are another category of test organisms used as bioindicators for ecotoxicity testing [50]. These include a standardized method (ISO 10872) for determining the toxicity of environmental samples on growth, fertility and reproduction of *Caenorhabditis elegans* [51]. The advantage of using such in vivo tests is that also hydrophilic toxicants can be tested by direct exposure of the animals to the water samples where in vitro assays usually need extracts.

### 3. Toxicogenomics-based bioanalysis approaches

Typical toxicological tests assessing the adverse effects of chemicals on living organisms have traditionally focused on cytological, physiological, metabolic, and morphological endpoints. There is however a need for novel testing approaches that can help to overcome some of the existing limitations of traditional toxicity tests. Collins and colleagues (2008) advocated a shift in toxicology from observational science at the level of disease-specific animal models in vivo to predictive science focusing on broad inclusion of target-specific and mechanism-based biological observations [52]. Also, the OECD has launched a program on the development of Adverse Outcome Pathways (AOPs), which is considered as a central element of a toxicological knowledge framework to support chemical risk assessment based on mechanistic reasoning [53]. The new science of toxicogenomics combines RNA transcript (transcriptomics), protein (proteomics) and metabolite (metabolomics) profiling with conventional toxicology to investigate the interaction between genes and environmental stress fit this new approach [54, 55].

Toxicogenomic data available in literature is mainly derived from transcriptomics analyses. The organisms' genes may be "turned on" (activated) or "turned off" (deactivated) in response to external stimuli (e.g., pathological conditions or exposure to environmental agents) leading to adverse effects in their metabolism. For each gene included in the assay, the gene expression level is quantified experimentally after exposure and in a control condition in order to determine the differential expression of genes. A gene transcript is considered to be differentially expressed if the difference between the two experimental conditions (mostly reported as expression fold change) is statistically significant [56]. Several technologies exist to determine the gene expression changes of a biological system after exposures to substances. These include microarrays [57], RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) [58], or reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) analyses methods [59]. Microarrays and RNA-Seq techniques allow a genome-wide analysis of gene transcription levels enabling the simultaneous identification of a large number of genes [60, 61]. By contrast, RT-qPCR assays can only analyze a finite number of genes, but it is the most sensitive out of the three and is widely used for validation of transcriptomic data [62, 63].

Transcriptome analysis is considered as a new way of understanding biological systems and their response to toxic insult. Suter et al. (2004) explains how gene expression profiling can be used to assess the toxic potential of a compound and to understand its mechanisms of toxic action [64]. The approach consists of the identification of toxicity-related gene expression signature (fingerprint) of the suspect toxic compound and compare it to the reference transcriptomic profiles of compounds whose toxicological profile is well-established. This approach is comparable to another toxicogenomic method known as “signature matching” as explained in [56, 57], where compound-induced gene expression patterns (referred to as signatures) are evaluated against a pre-existing compound signature library in order to make predictions about their potential toxicity. Assuming that compounds inducing similar gene expression signatures will have similar effects in a biological system, transcriptomic read-outs could provide more accurate quantification of the whole mixture toxicity and provides insights into the hazards posed by chemicals in comparison to the traditional approaches like structure-activity relationships (SAR) which rely mainly on structural similarities to infer mechanisms of toxicity of suspected toxicants [65]. Nevertheless, considering the amount of chemicals in use, more transcriptomic studies are still needed to develop a reference gene expression database. Such a database can be established by following a three-part strategic approach as proposed in [55]. This strategy includes (1) the selection of chemical agents that induce specific types of toxicity, (2) the selection of several structurally and functionally diverse chemicals that produce comparable patterns of toxicity, and (3) using nontoxic isomers of toxicants to analyze effects in target and nontarget tissues.

The data derived from toxicogenomic studies can be used to assess potential hazards posed by chemical substances. There are many areas of toxicology to which transcriptomics approaches can be applied such as the prediction of the toxicological modes of action of compounds (mechanistic toxicogenomics), toxicity screening of chemical agents (predictive toxicogenomics), environmental monitoring or risk assessment [57, 66-68]. Gene expression profiling can also help to identify genes that may be candidate biomarkers for specific toxic effects [55]. Transcriptomic effect-based monitoring has been previously proposed for assessment of relative contributions of point sources to pollution and the efficacy of pollution remediation [69]. Schriks and co-workers (2014) demonstrated how transcriptomics approaches can be used to assess water quality including the concept of No Observable Transcriptional Effect Level (NOTEL) (i.e., the concentration level of a chemical below which no significant changes in gene expression occur) that might be used to investigate the impact of environmental contaminants as well as mixtures [70]. Schriks's report and other literature [56, 71], nevertheless, also admit the existence of some challenges in the application of transcriptomics technology such as limited sequence data for the organism of interest or the occurrence of confounding factors that can be difficult to be differentiated from the toxicant-induced gene expression. Likewise, Escher et al. (2021) point out the potentials of omics technologies in water quality bioanalysis, but also

acknowledge that some harmonization and methodological refinements are still necessary before adopting this approach as a reliable tool for water quality assessment [25].

#### 4. *C. elegans* as a model organism for toxicity testing

Introduced in 1960s and 1970s as model organism for biological research [72], the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has attracted increasing attention in biomedical and environmental toxicology [73]. Several studies have been carried out previously to predict the toxicity of chemical substances in *C. elegans* as a test organism [74, 75]. This soil-dwelling nematode provides particular experimental advantages such as small size, ease to handle, bacterivorous, short life cycle, and relatively cheap to maintain in an ordinary laboratory setting [76, 77]. Its culture can be conducted on solid support or in liquid, in Petri dishes, tubes, or well plates and the treatment with toxicants can be set up as an acute or chronic exposure by injection, feeding, or soaking [76]. Importantly, *C. elegans* provides the opportunity to assess transcriptional effects of toxicants using the gene expression profiling approach as described above. This is because the nematode's genome has already been fully sequenced [78] and many genes or signaling pathways are conserved in higher organisms, making it suitable as a model for risk assessments [79-81]. Additionally, there are several open access databases about the biology of *C. elegans* which provide various information related to the nematode genes and genomes, e.g. WormBase ([www.wormbase.org](http://www.wormbase.org)), WormAtlas (<https://wormatlas.org>) among others.

Leung and co-workers (2008) describe in detail the potentials of *C. elegans* as a model organism in the fields of toxicology such as neurotoxicology, genetic toxicology, and environmental toxicology [76]. The authors also present *C. elegans* as a useful test model for high-throughput experiments including genome-wide screening for molecular targets of toxicity and rapid toxicity assessment for new chemicals. The aforementioned transcriptomics approaches could be considered as part of the genome-wide screens and can be a useful tool for assessing the toxicants (and mixtures) with a poorly understood mode of action.

Like any other organism, the nematodes exposure to xenobiotics can trigger adverse effects at a molecular level. This happens due to the interactions that can take place between xenobiotics and biological targets resulting in molecular initiating events (e.g., gene activation) within the framework of adverse outcome pathways (AOP) [82]. *C. elegans* is equipped with various biological macromolecules whose functions can be influenced by chemical exposure. Take, for instance, nuclear receptors (NRs) which are capable to directly bind to DNA and regulate the expression of adjacent genes [83]. There are 284 NRs receptors in *C. elegans* and many of them are involved in several vital functions of the nematode including those comparable to the NRs of vertebrates [84, 85].



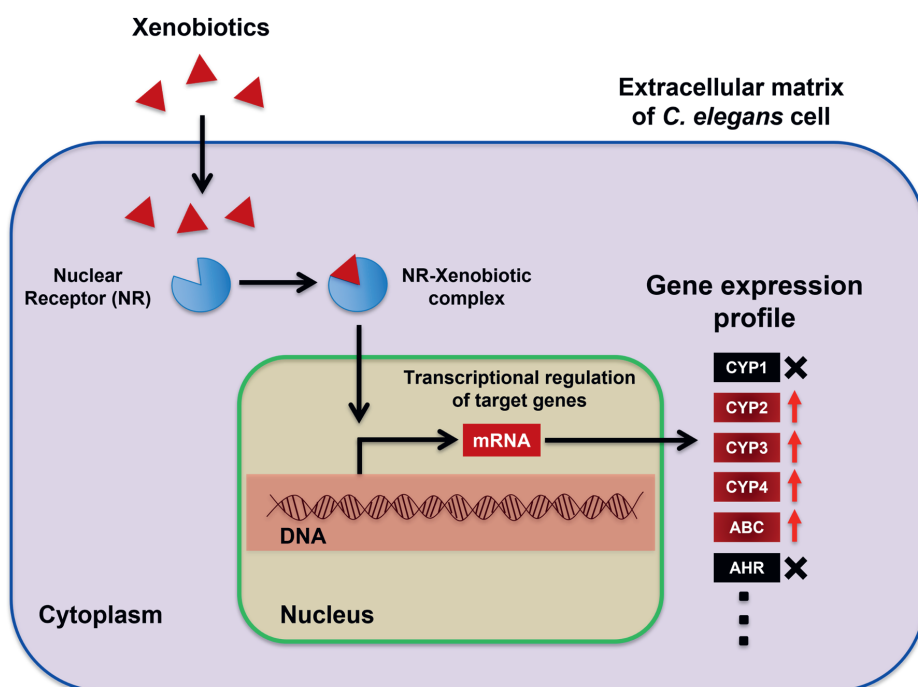
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**Figure 2.** Image of *Caenorhabditis elegans* taken with a binocular microscope. This image shows eggs, larvae and adult worms crawling on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) in Petri dish (Photo by A. Karengera).

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Fig. 3 depicts how the NR-xenobiotic interaction can influence biological functions via gene expression regulation. Another example are cell cycle checkpoint proteins which play an essential role in the maintenance of genomic stability following DNA damage. In response to DNA injuries, the activation of checkpoints can result in cell cycle arrest which allows time for DNA repair [86]. The failure to restore the DNA integrity can lead to problems such as mutations, apoptosis, among many others [87, 88]. Such molecular processes can be evaluated by using transcriptomics approaches.





**Figure 3.** Activation of a nuclear receptor (NR) in living cell. After entering the cell, the xenobiotic interacts with the NR. The formed NR-xenobiotic complex is then translocated into nuclei where it binds response elements of DNA and regulate the transcriptional levels of target genes. Red arrow pointing up (↑) indicates the upregulation of the nematode genes involved in a particular biological process by xenobiotic exposure whereas a cross (X) indicates that the process is not affected by xenobiotics.

## 5. Hydrophilic compounds still understudied

Current standards for water quality assessment focus predominantly on problematic lipophilic substances from the past which account for a small number of compounds compared to thousands of old and new industrial chemicals present in the environment. If one considers the mixture complexity of substances present in water matrices, chemical assessment is expected to reveal just a tip of the iceberg of contamination. Moreover, there is a big concern about the presence of yet unknown hydrophilic compounds that could present environmental or human health risk. Metabolization of compounds by phase 1 and phase 2 metabolism mostly render them more water soluble to enhance excretion via e.g. urine and bile [89]. Metabolism can also occasionally generate toxic metabolites via a process known as bioactivation [90, 91], especially for the substances often categorized as

“indirect-acting” in reference to the chemical agents with little or no toxicological activity, that become toxic upon metabolic activation [92, 93]. Therefore in sewage many pharmaceutical are expected to be present as relatively hydrophilic metabolites. For several practical reasons, including problems on isolating and concentrating hydrophilic compounds from water samples, current methods cannot identify or quantify all these compounds and therefore not guarantee the water quality. And again, if they could be analyzed the actual toxicological risk that these compounds or mixture thereof pose would still be unknown. In vivo bioassay methods could allow for the detection of the toxic potency of mixtures of known and unknown hydrophilic chemicals in water samples. By exposing sentinel species to the water samples the molecular response to potentially present hydrophilic toxic compounds provides a functional endpoint. Using small organisms makes the test faster as the effective body burden will be reached much faster in small than in large organisms and exposure volumes can be really small. Nematodes offer the advantage that they are invertebrates widely used as an alternative for laboratory use of animals [94]. This approach could provide an easily applicable and cost-effective method for assessing the toxicological safety of water sources.

### 6. Aim of research

This thesis concerns the development of an invertebrate bioassay that can simultaneously identify and quantify the toxic potency of multiple compounds in a water sample without the need for extraction. The aim for this thesis was to develop a bioassay based on the transcriptomic response of the nematode *C. elegans* to toxic compounds. This aim was translated into the following research objectives:

1. To evaluate the transcriptional responsiveness of *C. elegans* to the toxic effects of direct-acting model compounds by genome-wide gene expression profiling.
2. To evaluate the transcriptional inducibility of *C. elegans* biotransformation enzymes in response to indirect-acting model compounds.
3. To evaluate the applicability of the *C. elegans* bioassay for fingerprinting the toxic potency of hydrophilic contaminants present in (waste)waters.
4. To develop a fast and easy-to-use multiplex gene expression assay based on characteristic gene markers associated with the toxicants as found in the *C. elegans* model.



## 7. Outline of the thesis

Four research questions are derived from the above objectives:

- A. *Can a practical nematode bioassay method be developed for (hydrophilic) compounds?*
- B. *To what extent is the nematode transcriptionally responsive to model contaminants?*
- C. *What are the most relevant mechanisms represented among the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in nematode in response to exposure to contaminants?*
- D. *Can a dedicated multiplex gene expression assay be developed for fast and easy quantification of toxic potencies of (hydrophilic) contaminants in (water) samples?*

The question 1 – 3 are addressed in **Chapter 2 – 5**. **Chapter 2** and **Chapter 3** mainly focus on the experiments designed to fill information gaps in literature about the operating protocols for the testing of model toxicants in *C. elegans*. In **Chapter 2**, an experimental set up was designed for faster handling and easier nematode exposure in liquid medium. Non-lethal concentrations were first determined for three direct-acting genotoxic model compounds (MMS, ENU, and HCHO) to establish the appropriate dose for gene expression profiling assays in *C. elegans*. This experiment also helped identifying the potential sources of experimental and biological variation for this kind of studies. After successfully testing direct-acting toxicants, the next step was to investigate the transcriptional effects of compounds that require metabolic conversion to become active toxicants (referred to as indirect-acting chemical agents). *C. elegans* is reported to be deficient in cytochrome CYP1-like P450 metabolism and that its aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) homolog encoded by *ahr-1* purportedly does not interact with dioxins or any other known xenobiotic ligand. Therefore, gene expression profiling was carried out in the nematodes exposed to four prototypical toxicants whose biological effects are known to be mediated by CYP1 (for bioactivation) or AhR pathways (**Chapter 3**). The studied compounds include aflatoxin B1 (AFB1), benzo[a]pyrene (B(a)P), PCB mixture Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254) and 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD) as representative compounds in the toxic classes of mycotoxins, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), and dioxins. Following successful transcription-based nematode assay development with pure compounds, the new bioassay was applied to environmental polluted samples (**Chapter 4**). In this chapter, the toxic potencies of hydrophilic contaminants were determined in wastewaters before and after treatment by a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) and effluent receiving surface waters.

To make it faster and easier to answer question 4, a fluorescent bead-based multiplex assay was developed (**Chapter 5**). The method relies on branched DNA (bDNA) technology allowing a direct measurement of mRNA transcripts of 50 target genes in the tissues lysates of nematodes, so without the need for further sample preparation. The newly developed

assay was validated and applied to detect the transcriptional response of *C. elegans* to (waste)waters and mixtures of organic pollutants in extracts from swimming crab tissues.

In **Chapter 6**, the results of this research are discussed in the broader context of fingerprinting toxic potencies of hydrophilic bioactive contaminants in (waste)water. This chapter also discusses how the effect-based bioanalysis approach developed in this research can be translated to a practical method for water quality monitoring. Also, future research directions and recommendations are proposed.

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2

# Chapter 2a

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Early life developmental effects induced  
by dioxin and PCBs in novel bioassays  
with *C. elegans*

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In preparation for publication:

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**Abstract**

In this study, we assessed the effects of dioxin, 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD), two mixtures of Polychlorinated biphenyl's (PCBs, Clophen A50 and Aroclor 1254), marine sediments and swimming crab tissue extracts, on the early life stage (ELS) of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*). In the initial design, gravid *C. elegans* females were first exposed to the test chemicals mixed with agar for 72 hours. The nematodes were transferred to agar culture plates to lay eggs. The development of the hatched larva was then observed. In an improved, more practical design, the nematode eggs were isolated from gravid females and directly exposed to the test compounds in solution. In both methods, the development of nematode larvae from developmental stage L1 to L4 was observed after 72 hours of development. Field samples (marine sediment and swimming crab tissues) were tested using both nematode bioassays and an *in vitro* reporter gene assay (DR-CALUX) to quantify the dioxin equivalent potency (TEQ). Exposure to dioxin, PCBs, and field sample extracts delayed the early life development of *C. elegans*. In the maternal exposure assay, exposure to 10 pM Clophen A50 and 10 pM TCDD for 72 hours significantly inhibited or delayed larva maturation from the L3 to L4 stage with respectively 60% and 50%. In the direct egg exposure design, exposure to 5 µM Aroclor 1254, or 10 nM and 10 µM TCDD significantly delayed larva maturation from the L3 to L4 stage, but to a lesser extent (respectively 20%, 20% and 40%) and at a higher concentration. In general, both approaches demonstrated a considerable reduction in L3 to L4 development after exposure to dioxins or PCBs. All the field samples contained dioxin-like potencies (TEQ: 0.67 - 4.91 ng/kg equal to 0.2 – 1.47 pM TCDD), which reduced the L3-L4 larva development by 40% - 60%. In this study, we used two newly developed *in vivo* bioassays to quantify the effects of persistent organic pollutants on the ELS of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. The indirect exposure is more realistic and more sensitive, but the egg-exposure method facilitates rapid *in vivo* testing of many samples.



## 1. Introduction

Polychlorinated biphenyl (PCBs) and dioxins are organic pollutants that persist in the environment. Dioxins are a family of complex chemicals with similar molecular structures, and they include polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) [1]. The toxicity of dioxins is mainly mediated via the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) that requires the planar configuration [2]. The PCBs are divided into two congeners groups based on their molecular structures: “dioxin-like” PCBs (DL-PCBs) and “non-dioxin-like” PCBs (NDL-PCBs). NDL-PCBs comprise the larger proportion of PCBs in the environment [3]. In the present study, we used two comparable technical mixtures of PCBs: Aroclor 1254 and Clophen A50. Both of them mainly consist of NDL-PCBs, implying that their mechanism action is mostly not mediated via the AhR. Dioxins and PCBs belong to the persistent organic pollutants (POPs). They are recalcitrant lipophilic chemicals that accumulate in sediments and bioaccumulate in the food chain [4, 5]. POPs can be transferred vertically from the mother to their offspring [6] in egg-laying species and mammals (prenatally and via lactation) and in addition teratogenic effects are possible. Dioxins and PCBs induce numerous adverse effects, including disrupting growth and early life development, inducing hepatotoxicity, and interfering with reproduction and early development [7-9]. The effects are most severe in developing organisms (humans and wildlife) and may last the entire lifetime of an organism [10-12]. Therefore, it is important to assess the toxic potency of such POPs that are ubiquitously present in sediments or wildlife. We used *in vitro* and *in vivo* bioassays to assess the toxic potency of dioxins and PCBs in benthic aquatic and marine ecosystems because chemical methods cannot assess the combined toxic effects of such mixtures.

The DR-CALUX *in vitro* bioassay is an efficient method for quantifying the potency of dioxins and dioxin-like compounds (DLCs) in sediments and assessing their interaction with AhRs [13]. The relative toxicity in a sample is expressed as the toxic equivalency (TEQ), relative to the 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) level, the most potent congener. TEQ is calculated based on an elaborate chemical analysis of all AhR antagonists present in a sample by multiplying each concentration by their toxic equivalency factor (TEF) [14]. The DR-CALUX directly quantifies the TEQ, and the outcome often is expressed as bioanalytical equivalents (BEQ) [15]. Early developmental defects occur after non-lethal exposure of developing amphibian and fish embryos to NDL-PCBs and DL-compounds. The developmental effects of these compounds on invertebrates are less studied. Also, there is no rapid assay or method for analyzing the adverse developmental effects of NDL-PCBs and DL-PCBs together with DLCs on a small scale. Ideally, such assay is performed with small invertebrates with a short life-cycle which can also represent effects in vertebrates.

In the present study, we explored the suitability of *C. elegans*, a free-living nematode and a model organism for *in vivo* assays for PCBs' toxicity assays. The nematode was selected

because it has a short lifecycle, many progenies, and the ease of cultivation in a laboratory setting. In addition, because *C. elegans* are self-fertilizing hermaphrodites, each progeny represents a genetic clone. Although *C. elegans* is a relatively simple organism, it shares most of its developmental molecular signals with higher organisms like humans. *C. elegans* is a validated model organism for developmental studies [16]. For instance, *C. elegans* has also been used for toxicity studies in assessing the adverse effects of heavy metals [17]. The nematode genome has been fully sequenced, facilitating gene expression studies. Recent studies have shown that the effects of genotoxic compounds are concentration-dependent effects [18, 19]. For example, benzo(a) pyrene (B (a) P) and Aroclor 1254, PCB mixtures, induce the expression of toxicity-related genes in *C. elegans* genes [19].

In the present study, we describe two straightforward and inexpensive methods for analyzing the effects of direct and indirect exposure to dioxins and PCBs on the early development of *C. elegans* larvae. Gravid nematodes were either fed on the compounds, or their eggs were isolated first and directly exposed to the chemicals. The maternal exposure method mimics the natural exposure to these compounds. The exposure of gravid *C. elegans* method was developed nine years ago and has been in application since then but has never been published. The test was repeated with standard compounds to compare the effect with the egg-exposure method. The direct egg-exposure method is fast and easy, and suitable for testing many samples. In general, we analyzed the effects of dioxin (TCDD), a mixture of two PCBs (Aroclor 1254 and Clophen A50), and field samples contaminated with these compounds (sediments and edible crab) on the early life of *C. elegans* development. We found that the compounds and extracts disrupted the early life development of *C. elegans* in a consistent and dose-dependent manner.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Chemicals

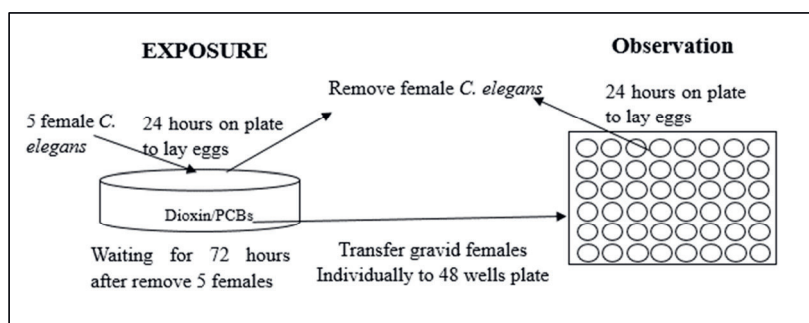
All chemical reagents used in this study were of analytical grade (purity > 99%). Nitric acid (65%) and hydrogen peroxide (70%) were purchased from Changmu company LTD (Hangzhou, China). Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254) (analytical standards grade) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Clophen A50 was purchased from Promochem (Wesel, Germany), and 2, 3, 7, 8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) was purchased from Schmidt B.V. (Amsterdam, The Netherlands).

### 2.2. Nematode strain and cultivation

*C. elegans* wild-type strain (*Bristol N2*) nematodes were obtained from the Nematology group at Wageningen University and were maintained on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) agar plates at 16 °C. The media was changed every month with fresh NGM agar seeded with *E-coli* bacteria. The *E coli*-NGM was prepared as previously described [18, 20].

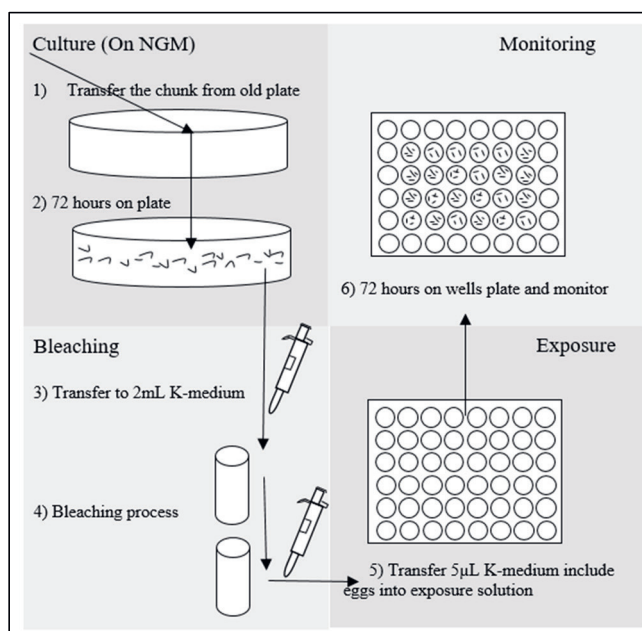
### 2.3. Experimental set-up

The effect of dioxin and PCBs on the early developmental life of *C. elegans* was assessed using two newly developed methods: 1) indirect exposure through the mother and without further exposure of the laid eggs and 2) direct exposure to the isolated eggs. Both exposure methods were performed at 20 °C.



**Figure 1.** Schematic overview of the maternal-exposure bioassay method.

For the maternal exposure method (Figure 1), dioxin, PCBs, or field sample extracts were dissolved in DMSO before dilution in pre-heated NGM. Briefly, five gravid *C. elegans* females from a clean culture plate were transferred onto NGM agar supplemented with the test compounds. After 24 hours, the gravid *C. elegans* were removed, only leaving behind the eggs. After 72 hours, newly developed and exposed gravid females were transferred to 48-well tissue culture plates (one nematode per well). Each well was filled with 130  $\mu$ l of K-medium. The exposed gravid *C. elegans* were removed from the K-medium after laying eggs. The number of offspring produced in 48-well tissue culture plates was counted, and for all larvae the L1 - L4 developmental stage was determined 72 hours later.



**Figure 2.** Schematic overview of the direct egg exposure bioassay method.

For the direct egg-exposure method (Figure 2), adult nematodes were transferred from agar-culture to liquid culture medium and, after 72 hours, concentrated in a 2 ml tube through centrifugation at 13,000 rpm. Sodium hypochlorite (1 ml; 5 %) was then added to the pellet for bleaching treatment [18] to eliminate nematodes in all developmental stages except the eggs. The pellets only containing eggs were dissolved in 0.5 ml K-medium and a mixture of deionized distilled H<sub>2</sub>O and salts (2 mM NaCl and 13 mM KCl). Thereafter, 5  $\mu$ L of eggs in K-medium was diluted with fresh 2 ml K-medium and aliquoted in 48-well tissue culture plates, ensuring that each well contained at least ten eggs. The number of eggs was

confirmed using a microscope. Dioxin, PCBs, or field sample extracts were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). The final DMSO concentration in all the plates was 0.5%, a concentration at which no significant effects on *C. elegans* were observed [21]. The eggs and subsequent nematode reproductive stages in the well-plates were monitored every 24 hours for 72 hours using a stereo microscope as previously described based on their size and activities [22].

## 2.4. Field samples

Apolar, non-organic extracts from eleven sediment samples from various places in the Netherlands were prepared, and their effect on the performance of offspring from exposed nematodes was tested using the indirect exposure nematode assay. The concentrations of polar in the agar plates were equal to that in the wet sediment samples to mimic natural exposure. Field samples (marine sediment and swimming crab samples) with dioxin and PCBs residues were collected in 1996 from the Netherlands (sediment, 2009 [23]) and China (Hangzhou Bay area sediment and crabs 2019 [24]). For the extraction of field samples, 10 g of each sample was dried overnight at 35°C and mixed with 1g of NaSO<sub>4</sub>. A hexane/acetone (1:1) liquid-liquid extraction method was used [25, 26]. The samples were de-sulphurated by adding tetrabutylammonium sulfite [27]. The samples were further cleaned using a multilayer acid-base silica column as previously described and dissolved in DMSO [28].

## 2.5. DR-CALUX bioassay

The (concentration) extracts dissolved in DMSO were analyzed using the DR-CALUX bioassay as previously described [29]. Briefly, 40 µL of the sample in DMSO was dissolved in 2 mL of the cell culture incubation medium. After 24 h, the medium was aspirated, and the cells were washed and lysed before measuring the luciferase content using a Luminometer. The residue contents were expressed as bioanalytical equivalents (BEQ) [15], calculated using the TCDD calibration curve (curve fitting of the Sigmoid dose-response variable slope) using GraphPad Prism software v 5.0.

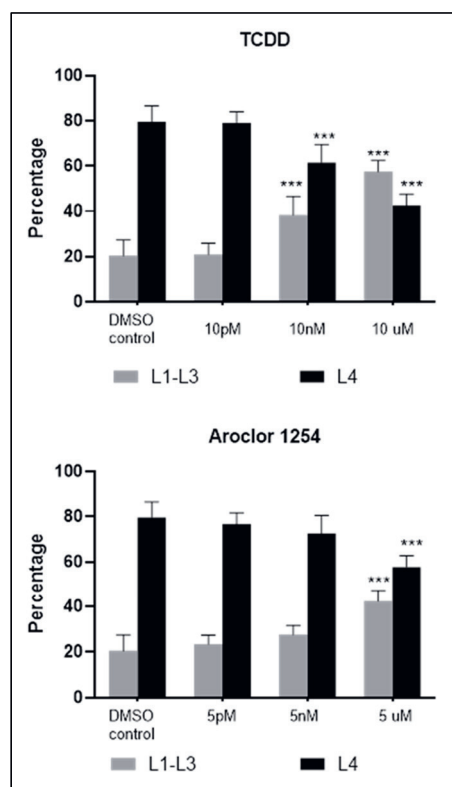
## 2.6. Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using the GraphPad PRISM 5.0 software. Comparisons between groups were performed using the unpaired t-test at a two-tailed  $P < 0.05$ .

## 3. Results

Supplementary figure C1 shows the absolute number and the relative distribution of larvae over the developmental stages per exposure and time point. There was no significant difference in the absolute number of nematode offsprings between the exposed and control groups at any time. Also, there were no visible malformations or behavioral changes under

either exposure method. However, exposure to dioxins and mixture of PCBs delayed larvae development, shown by few larvae that had reached the L4 stage within 72 hours.

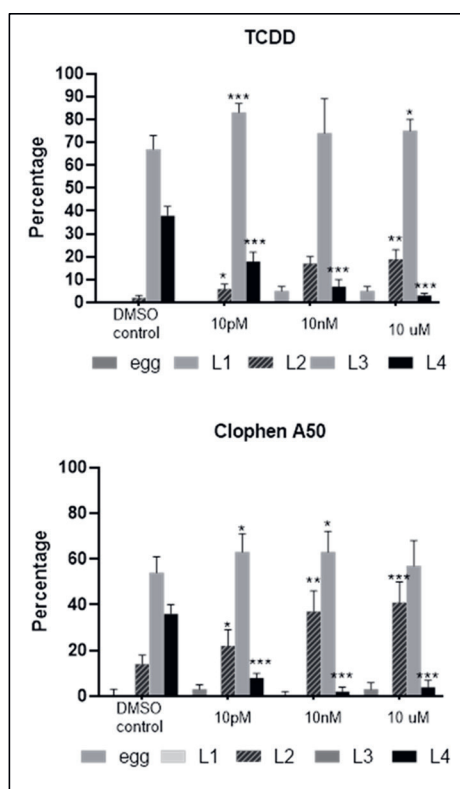


**Figure 3.** Proportional distribution in developmental stages of *C. elegans* larvae from eggs directly exposed to (a) the dioxin, 2, 3,7,8-tetrachloordibenzo-p-dioxine (TCDD), and (b) the technical PCB mixture Aroclor 1254. The larvae at stage 4 (L4) or stage 1-3 (L1 – L3) were determined after 72 hours of exposure. At least ten nematode eggs were exposed each time. \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.0001$ .

The effects of exposure to the PCB mixture Clophen A50 and TCDD in the maternal exposure method on larval development were recorded every 24 hours. As this was very time-consuming and did not yield extra relevant information, it was decided for further experiments to only observe after 72 hours. The number of larvae at a specific developmental stage (L1 - L4) at 72 hours after removing the gravid nematode from the observation wells is shown in Figure 3. Exposure to Clophen A50 and TCDD exposed groups delayed *C. elegans* development in a dose-dependent manner, particularly from the L3 to L4. The lowest Clophen A50 or TCDD concentrations of 10 pM induced significant ELS effects. Compared to the control groups, 10 pM Clophen A50 and TCDD decreased the

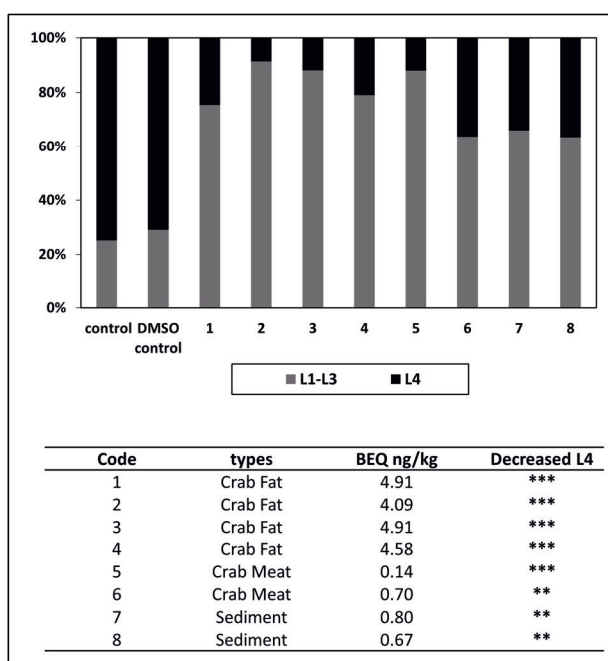
number of L4-stage larvae by 60%, whereas a 10  $\mu$ M TCDD concentration caused an 80% decrease in L4-stage larvae development. The larval development not only stalled at stage L3, but the larvae in this larval stage died in a dose-dependent manner (Figure C2). This occurred for TCDD and Clophen A50 groups.

The developmental effects of the technical PCB mixture Aroclor 1254 and TCDD were tested in the egg exposure method and the developmental progress assessed after 72 hours. In the control group, 80% of the larvae had reached stage L4 after 72 hours, which is in accordance with other studies [30]. Compared to the control group, the percentage of nematodes in L4 was significantly lower after exposure to 5  $\mu$ M Aroclor 1254 (20% less), 10 nM TCDD (20% less), and 10  $\mu$ M TCDD (40% less) (Figure 4). In addition, the nematodes in stage L3 in the 5  $\mu$ M Aroclor, 10 nM TCDD, and 10  $\mu$ M TCDD group died (Figure C3).



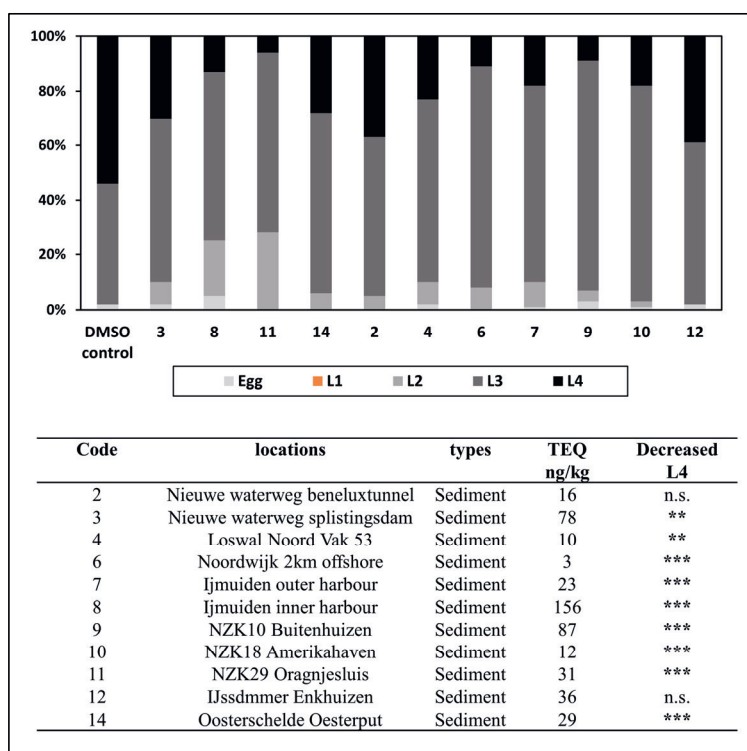
**Figure 4.** Proportional distribution in developmental stages of *C. elegans* larvae hatched from eggs laid by gravid females exposed to (a) dioxin, 2, 3,7,8-tetrachloordibenzo-p-dioxine (TCDD), and (b) a mixture of PCB (Clophen A50). The developmental stage of the larvae was recorded over 72 hours after egg-laying. At least ten nematodes were assessed for a given POP. \* represents  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.0001$ .

In the egg-exposure method, swimming crabs (fats or meat) and marine sediment extracts significantly reduced the L3 to L4 development by 40-60% (Figure 5) for the TEQ 0.67 - 4.91 ng/kg (equal to 0.2 – 1.47 pM TCDD). The maternal exposure method findings for the Dutch sediment extracts are shown in Figure 6. The reduction in L4 larvae was between 20% and 80% compared with the L1-L3 larvae exposed to 0.3 - 15.6 ng/kg TEQ, equal to 0.09 – 4.66 pM TCDD. All the TCDD-equivalent toxic potencies (expressed as BEQ or TEQ) of the samples were analyzed using the DR-CALUX bioassay. The results are shown in the tables under figures 5 and 6.



**Figure 5.** The effects of crab extracts on the ELS development of *C. elegans*. The experiment was performed by exposing *C. elegans* eggs to the extracted residues. Sample 1–4 were extracted from the fatty parts, and samples 5–6 were extracted from the meat of swimming crabs. Samples 7–8 were extracted from marine sediments. All the samples from the Hangzhou bay region in China. BEQs of the sediments and crab samples were determined using an *in vitro* reporter gene assay (DR-CALUX bioassay). \* represents  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.0001$ .





**Figure 6.** The effects of sediment extracts on the early-stage development of *C. elegans*. The gravid *C. elegans* was fed on food supplanted with sediment extracts. The effect of the compound on the ELS development of the nematode was analyzed after 72 hours of gravid *C. elegans* exposure to the compound. The compounds were extracted from 11 marine sediments obtained from the Netherlands [23]. TEQs of the sediment extracts were determined using *in vitro* reporter gene assay (DR-CALUX bioassay). \* represents  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.0001$ .

#### 4. Discussion and conclusions

The two newly developed exposure methods revealed that TCDD and PCB mixtures significantly disrupt the early life development of *C. elegans*, also when tested at environmentally relevant contamination levels. The crab samples represented the typical marine contamination with dioxin-like compounds. Our bioassays showed that the dioxin-like compounds averaged 3.73 TEQ ng/kg in crab tissues and 4.87 TEQ ng/kg in sediment samples. This is in the same range as the 3.8 TEQ ng/kg that Knutzen and colleagues (2003) found for total dioxin-like compounds in liver and hepatopancreas of crabs samples [31]. In a related study, Manning et al. (2017) reported 4.9 – 22 TEQ ng/kg in marine crab samples

in Australia [32]. Our results demonstrate the relevant sensitivity of our bioassays in detecting realistic levels of dioxin-like compounds in the marine ecosystems.

The effect of the compounds on the larvae was stronger for the maternal exposed eggs than via direct egg exposure. This could be due to a higher exposure of the females through the skin and in the food. Also, the nematode eggshell may be less permeable to the chemicals [33] and may lack specific pathways targeted by dioxin and PCBs. In addition, accumulated POPs in the lipids are deposited in the yolk and from the developmental start directly available for the developing larvae as soon as it uses the lipids. In addition, it cannot be excluded that the female nematode has experienced sublethal effects from the exposure, possibly resulting in lower quality eggs. Further it has been shown in fish that due to bioamplification, the internal PCB levels in developing larvae are the highest just before the larvae start free feeding [11].

Epidemiological studies have shown that dioxin compounds exert their toxic effects via activation of the Aryl hydrocarbon Receptor (AhR) pathway. Most sensitive are teratogenic effects and this includes early life developmental delay [18, 34]. However, in most cases, invertebrate AhR homologs do not bind dioxins and related chemicals [35]. Also dioxin-like compounds do not activate the AhR of *C. elegans* [19, 36]. Alternatively, the ELS effects of dioxin may be related to narcosis (general toxicity), a characteristic of most organic xenobiotics, which induces non-specific disruption of the integrity and functioning of cell membranes [19, 37]. Clophen A50 delays the early life development of amphibians (*Xenopus laevis* and *Rana temporaria*) by prolonging the metamorphosis which is suggested to be mediated by thyroid hormone disruption [38]. In *C. elegans*, PCBs and dioxins inhibit the vitellogenin metabolism. Nematodes produce sterols in their intestines early in life, which are transported by vitellogenins [39]. Vitellogenin is transferred into the egg by the female, which may explain why the maternal exposure route is more sensitive. PCBs and dioxins have been shown to inhibit vitellogenin metabolism also in other aquatic vertebrates like zebrafish [40], or the fish *Abramis brama* and *Cyprinus carpio* [41]. Developmental effects of PCBs in nematodes are comparable to those seen in *ahr-1* mutant strains and include regulating fatty acid synthesis and homeostasis [42]. Aroclor 1254 dysregulates the expression of lipid metabolism genes in *C. elegans* [19]. Aroclor 1254 also downregulates the *C. elegans* development, lipogenesis, or membrane fluidity like *daf-22* [43], *emb-8* [44], *fasn-1* [45], or *pcyt-1* [46] (which were upregulated), and *lips-15* [47] genes. Therefore, although the effects of dioxin or NDL-PCBs on fatty acid and vitellogenin metabolism is yet unclear, it is advisable to study this in detail further.

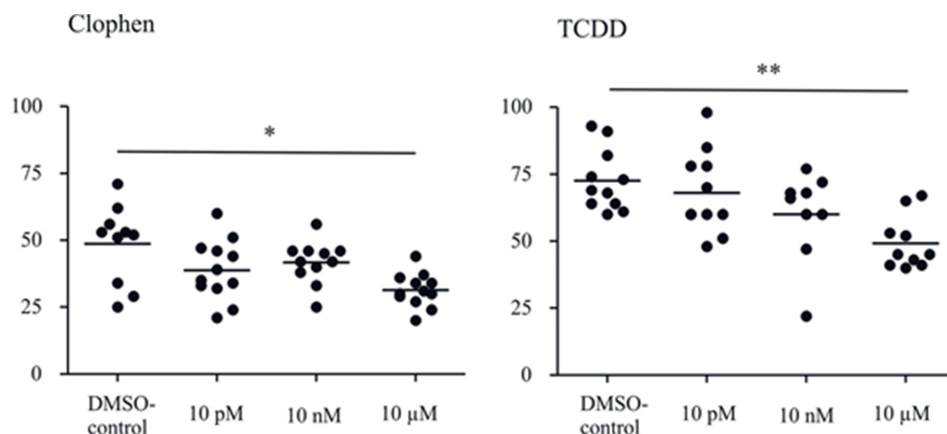
In the present study, the maternal exposure suggests that Clophen A50 could be passed to the offspring although indirect or epigenetic effects cannot be excluded either. In a side-experiment, exposure has been extended over multiple generations by having the F1 gravid females lay their eggs on new exposure plates and repeating the observations. This did not

increase the sensitivity of the assay compared to only exposing the first generation (data not shown). Interestingly, the longer exposed animals developed morphological effects. In the F3-generation, the unexposed nematodes were easy to pick up when transferring them using pig hair. Notably, the exposed animals appeared “older” than the control animals, in which their skin was softer and wrinkled and they did not show the same elasticity. Shortly after transfer to microscope slides that were covered with thin glass, the exposed animals burst, whereas those in the control group sustained the light pressure without any problem. This suggests cholesterol, fatty acids, or lipids deficiency, which is essential for maintaining the membrane rigidity [48, 49].

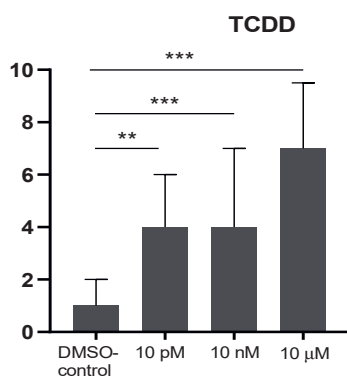
The more realistic maternal exposure route increased sensitivity to 10 pM TCDD and 10 pM – 10 nM mixture of PCBs. However, the maternal exposure method currently is more time-consuming, whereas the egg exposure method is more rapid. A faster bioassay procedure can provide the scanning tool to identify dioxin and non-dioxin-like compounds in toxicity identification evaluation study. The maternal exposure method could be used when a more detailed study is desired.

In conclusion, this study revealed that environmental (10 pM – 10 nM) or seafood residue levels (BEQ 0.7 - 4.91 ng/kg, equal to 0.2 – 1.47 pM) of dioxin and NDL-PCBs compounds disrupt the early life of *C. elegans*. The egg-exposure method showed that exposure to 10 nM and 10 µM of dioxin and NDL-PCBs significantly slowed down and inhibited L3 to L4 *C. elegans* development at 72 hours. In the maternal exposure method exposure to as low as 10 pM of dioxin and NDL-PCBs disrupted the early development of the nematodes. The maternal exposure method mimics the natural exposure and the full life cycle effects of the compounds. The egg-exposure method is more suitable as a rapid bioassay to test many samples. Both bioassays have their own added value for assessing marine, environmental, and seafood contamination with POPs. Further studies are advised to explore the mechanism underlying the effects of dioxin and NDL-PCBs on the ELS of *C. elegans*, especially at the L3 to the L4 stage and on the vitellogenin and lipid physiology.

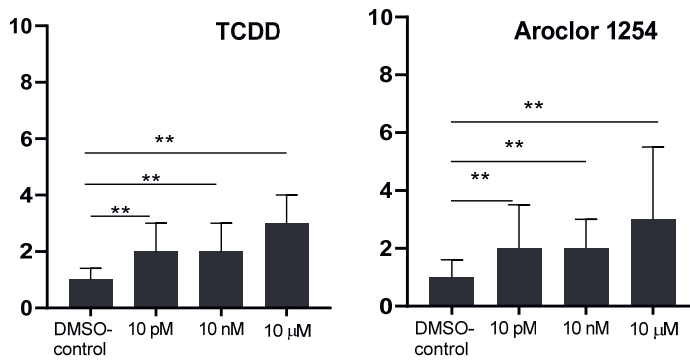
## Supporting information of chapter 2a



**Figure C1.** Number of *C. elegans* offspring exposed via maternal exposure to TCDD or Clophen A50, offspring counted after 72 hours of development . \*represents  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ .



**Figure C2** the average number of dead *C. elegans* offspring after exposure to TCDD at 72 hours by maternal exposure method. The assessment was performed after 72 hours after exposure of the mother nematodes. \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.0001$ .



**Figure C3** the average number of dead first-generation *C. elegans* offspring after exposure to TCDD at 72 hours by egg exposure method. The assessment was performed after 72 hours after exposure of the mother nematodes. \*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ .

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# Chapter 2b

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Development of a transcription-based  
bioanalytical tool to quantify the toxic  
potencies of hydrophilic compounds  
in water using the nematode  
*Caenorhabditis elegans*

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**Abstract**

Low concentrations of environmental contaminants can be difficult to detect with current analytical tools, yet they may pose a risk to human and environmental health. The development of bioanalytical tools can help to quantify toxic potencies of biologically active compounds even of hydrophilic contaminants that are hard to extract from water samples. In this study, we exposed the model organism *Caenorhabditis elegans* synchronized in larval stage L4 to hydrophilic compounds via the water phase and analyzed the effect on gene transcription abundance. The nematodes were exposed to three direct-acting genotoxins (1 mM and 5 mM): N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS). Genome-wide gene expression analysis using microarrays revealed significantly altered transcription levels of 495 genes for HCHO, 285 genes for ENU, and 569 genes for MMS in a concentration-dependent manner. A relatively high number of differentially expressed genes was downregulated, suggesting a general stress in nematodes treated with toxicants. Gene ontology and Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes analysis demonstrated that the upregulated genes were primarily associated with metabolism, xenobiotic detoxification, proteotoxic stress, and innate immune response. Interestingly, genes downregulated by MMS were linked to the inhibition of neurotransmission, and this is in accordance with the observed decreased locomotion in MMS-exposed nematodes. Unexpectedly, the expression level of DNA damage response genes such as cell-cycle checkpoints or DNA-repair proteins were not altered. Overall, the current study shows that gene expression profiling of nematodes can be used to identify the potential mechanisms underlying the toxicity of chemical compounds. *C. elegans* is a promising test organism to further develop into a bioanalytical tool for quantification of the toxic potency of a wide array of hydrophilic contaminants.

## 1. Introduction

Chemical substances in the environment may pose a risk to human and environmental health. The contamination by pollutants with potential genotoxic and mutagenic effects has been previously documented in water sources [1]. Compounds may be present as parent molecules as well as their metabolites for which no analytical techniques exist yet or for which concentration is usually too low to detect chemically [2]. Hydrophilic pollutants are even more difficult to analyze in water because methods for extraction hardly exist [3, 4]. This poses a problem, as testing the quality of drinking water sources typically involves the presence of hydrophilic compounds, of which especially genotoxic and endocrine disrupting compounds are of concern [2, 5]. The development of chemical analytical tests for known individual agents will take many years and requires huge resources, still leaving questions on the total toxic potency of mixtures of these compounds such as mutagenicity or genotoxicity. In addition, biotransformation products may occur that we are not even aware of.

Living organisms, however, respond to bioactive compounds that they are exposed to. Biologically active contaminants undetectable by chemical analyses can still leave their signature in those organisms [6]. This signature can be an alteration of gene expression patterns reflecting the mode of toxic action of the causative agent. In addition, transcriptional effects of chemical toxicants are not only mechanism-specific but could also be used to assess the toxic potency of complete mixtures [7, 8].

Several developmental and toxicological studies have been conducted with the free-living soil nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* as a model organism [9, 10]. It provides particular experimental advantages such as small size, ease to handle, short life cycle, being invertebrate and relatively cheap to maintain in an ordinary laboratory setting. Most importantly, its genome has been completely sequenced and many genes or signaling pathways, particularly the ones involved in DNA damage response (DDR), are well conserved between *C. elegans* and higher organisms, hence comparable responses between the nematode and higher organisms are to be expected [11, 12].

Several genes encoding DNA damage checkpoint proteins have been identified in *C. elegans* and are essential in sensing and responding to aberrations in their genetic material [13]. The activation of checkpoints in response to DNA injuries typically stalls cell cycle progression to allow time for repair. If checkpoints fail to restore the DNA integrity, mutations can take place, and as response cell apoptosis occurs to prevent further problems [14]. Other cellular responses that can be expected in response to genotoxic stress, include transcription regulating genes related to DNA repair, biotransformation enzymes, innate immune response and other mechanisms [15]. Previous studies in *C. elegans* have primarily concentrated on ionizing radiation [16, 17], where pro-apoptotic genes such as *egl-1* and *ced-13* were transcriptionally induced in response to DNA damage. Although, several

transcriptomics studies investigating transcriptional effects of other chemical agents have been carried out in the nematode [18, 19], to our knowledge, this is the first genome-wide transcriptome study in *C. elegans* treated with genotoxic chemicals.

The afore described information has motivated us to use the transcriptional response of *C. elegans* for developing a small-scale *in vivo* bioassay as a biodetection and early warning system for the presence of genotoxic compounds. To develop such a bioanalytical tool, we chose N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) as model compounds for determining genotoxic effects. These toxicants are known to directly react with nucleophilic sites (-NH, -OH and -SH) of macromolecules such as nucleic acids (i.e., DNA and RNA), enzymes, structural proteins, and other biological molecules [20]. It has been conclusively shown that ENU and MMS, which are monofunctional alkylating compounds, induce DNA injuries by reacting preferentially with ring nitrogen (N) and extra cyclic oxygen (O) atoms of nucleotides [21]. Exposure to HCHO induces formation of crosslinks of DNA and proteins through electrophilic attacks ultimately leading to the impairment of normal cellular functions [22].

The aim of this study was to develop an *in vivo* bioassay based on the genome-wide transcriptional response of *C. elegans* to direct-acting genotoxic compounds. Such an assay could simultaneously identify and quantify the toxic potency of single toxicants or mixtures. Gene expression profiling can provide insights in the type of toxic mechanisms involved and can be translated towards the nature of the toxicants present in a sample. Microarray analyses showed several genes in *C. elegans* whose expression level was differentially affected after 4 hours exposure to the model genotoxicants. Surprisingly, no change was found in expression of most DDR genes, including the ones encoding for checkpoints and DNA repair proteins. The bioassay was validated by gene expression analyses using quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) of selected gene targets from the microarray data.

## **2. Material and methods**

### **2.1. Handling of nematode cultures**

*C. elegans* wild-type strain (Bristol N2) nematodes were maintained on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) agar plate at 16 °C [23]. Subsequently, nematode stocks were renewed every month using fresh NGM agar seeded with *E. coli* bacteria as source of food [24]. The experiments were conducted by using a nematode population of *C. elegans* N2 larvae (L4), grown synchronously at 20 °C for 48 hours (starting from synchronized eggs) on a freshly prepared NGM agar plate seeded with *E. coli* strain OP50 to feed the nematodes. Synchronization was carried out by bleaching gravid nematodes with 5% sodium hypochlorite solution [25].



## 2.2. Chemical exposure

**Exposure media.** All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) and were used without further purification. The stock solution of formaldehyde (HCHO) was prepared using the method of Moerman and Baillie [26]. 61 mg of paraformaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich P6148-500G) was warmed in 25 mL of 65°C Milli-Q water and 0.1 M NaOH was added to clear the solution. The solution was diluted to 100 mL by adding M9 buffer, giving 20 mM solution adjusted to pH 7.04 with 0.1 M HCl. This solution was aliquoted in 1 mL, frozen, and stored at -20 °C. Methyl methanesulfonate (MMS, ≥ 99% purity) and N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU, 57% purity) were always freshly dissolved in M9 buffer to obtain 20 mM stock solutions which were further diluted to make the required concentrations. To obtain the required exposure concentration, stock solutions were further diluted in M9 buffer that was prepared according to Sulston et al. [27].

**Exposure samples.** A 4-hour exposure to the abovementioned toxicants were started in the synchronized L4 juvenile population. For microarray experiments, approximately 900 nematodes were exposed to two concentration (1 mM and 5 mM) and a control of M9 buffer in 1.5 mL Safe-Lock micro test tubes at 20°C. Special care was taken to avoid temperature and developmental stage effects as these had shown to be relevant in the pilot experiment (**Suppl. Pilot Study**). After exposure, the nematodes were immediately pelleted by spinning the tubes in microcentrifuge for 20 seconds, 18,400 x g at room temperature, followed by removal of the supernatants. Subsequently, pellets were kept in the same exposure test tubes and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute before storing them at -80 °C until extraction of RNA. Three independent biological replicates were used per treatment in microarray experiments. For toxicity tests, duplicate samples were analyzed per treatment as described below.

## 2.3. Determination of non-lethal concentration

Non-lethal concentrations were determined for MMS, ENU, and HCHO to select the appropriate dose for microarray experiments. *C. elegans* L4-stage juveniles were exposed to three concentrations (1 mM, 5 mM, & 10 mM), and a control of M9 buffer. For each exposure sample, 25 to 30 nematodes per independent test were divided in 4 wells of a 96-well tissue culture plate and treated in 135 µL of the exposure medium and control. After 4 hours exposure, the nematodes were inspected under a stereo microscope to determine morbidity and mortality. The nematodes which failed to move in response to gentle probing by a platinum-wire based worm picker [23] were counted as dead. Two independent biological replicates were used per treatment.

## 2.4. Microarray gene expression analysis

**RNA isolation.** RNA was isolated following standard protocols as previously described [28]. In short, a Maxwell® 16 AS2000 instrument with a Maxwell® 16 LEV simplyRNA Tissue Kit (both Promega Corporation, Madison, WI, USA) was used following the manufacturer's protocol only modified at the lysis step. Each sample was treated with homogenization buffer (200 µl) and lysis buffer (200 µl), additionally, 10 µl of 20 mg/ml stock solution of proteinase K was added. Thereafter, the samples were incubated at 65°C for 10 minutes to digest and remove proteins while shaking at 1,000 rpm in a Thermomixer (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Subsequently, samples were cooled on ice and loaded into the cartridges provided by the manufacturer, thereby resuming the standard protocol.

**Microarray preparation, hybridization, and scanning.** Gene expression was measured using the Agilent *C. elegans* (V2) Gene Expression Microarray 4x44K slides following a procedure described before [28]. 'Two-Color Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis; Low Input Quick Amp Labeling'—protocol, version 6.0 from Agilent (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) was followed by cDNA synthesis, labelling with cy3 and cy5 dyes, and subsequent hybridization. Scanning was done using an Agilent High Resolution C Scanner with the settings as recommended by the protocol. For retrieval of the intensities the accompanying software was used (Agilent Feature Extract, v. 10.7.1.1). The array probe annotation was updated by blasting the probes against WS258 with blast (version 2.6.0, windows x64), using nblast with parameters: word size 7, reward 1, penalty -3, and eval 1. Probes with multiple hits were flagged and ignored in the analysis of affected genes. This microarray system holds 43,803 *C. elegans* probes. Detection is possible over a 5-log expression scale. In total, we could detect expression of 18,447 genes, representing > 90 % of the nematode genome.

**Normalization and pre-processing.** Normalization of the data was done using the Limma package in "R" (version 3.4.2, x64) in RStudio (version 1.1.383). Arrays were normalized without background correction, normalization within arrays was done using the Loess method and between arrays using the quantile method [29, 30]. The obtained values were log<sub>2</sub> transformed and used for subsequent analysis. Initial analysis revealed the presence of batch- and dye-linked effects. Therefore, a batch correction was performed by fitting the gene expression to the linear model (**Suppl. Eq. S1**). After batch correction, a log<sub>2</sub> ratio with the mean was calculated (**Suppl. Eq. S2**). For further analysis, the expression values of three biological replicates were averaged. The raw data of this experiment were submitted to ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-10265), accessible at <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/experiments/E-MTAB-10264/>.

**Statistical data analysis.** We did not employ intensity thresholds: we considered all data going into the analysis. Importantly, all models were using data taken from the level of the measurement (spots). Results were post-hoc translated to genes. To detect if the arrays

were technically correct, we conducted a correlation analysis on the  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean values using the *cor* function in “R”. To identify the factors that can underlie variation in gene-expression, principal component analysis (PCA) was calculated on the  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean values using the *prcomp* function in “R”. To evaluate whether nematodes gene expression responded in a concentration-related manner a “*concentration-dependent linear model*” incorporating the compound as well as the exposure concentration (0, 1, and 5 mM) was applied to ENU, HCHO, and MMS separately (**Suppl. Eq. S3**). The resulting p-values from linear model were corrected for multiple testing using the *p.adjust* function with the Benjamini and Hochberg method [31]. To assess the differentially expressed genes (DEG) per exposure condition, we took a high significance level of  $-\log_{10}(p) > 4$  (i.e.,  $p < 0.0001$ ; FDR < 0.05). Custom written scripts for the microarray analysis are available at [https://git.wur.nl/published\\_papers/karengera\\_2021\\_bioanalytical\\_tool\\_genotox](https://git.wur.nl/published_papers/karengera_2021_bioanalytical_tool_genotox).

**Gene ontology (GO) and pathway enrichment analysis.** All DEG lists generated by microarray experiments were uploaded to the “*Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery*” (DAVID) v6.8 [32] for KEGG pathway and for GO analyses in three categories, including biological processes (BP), molecular functions (MF), and cellular components (CC). For the enrichment analysis, settings were limited to Gene Ontology (GOTERM\_BP\_ALL, GOTERM\_MF\_ALL, and GOTERM\_CC\_ALL). A threshold False Discovery Rate (FDR)  $\leq 0.05$  was considered as strongly enriched in the annotation categories. The resulting GO terms were further used as input in the online software ReViGo [33] to summarize and remove the redundant terms. All default parameters were kept unchanged during the analysis.

## 2.5. Validation of 12 gene targets from microarray data by RT-qPCR

**cDNA synthesis.** RT-qPCR analyses were conducted on samples from control and nematodes exposed to 5 mM of toxicants. The RNA samples used in these experiments were from the same batches as used in the microarrays. The complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized from RNA template via reverse transcription (RT). The Invitrogen™ SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix with ezDNase™ Enzyme was used following the manufacturer’s protocol. In short, 500 ng of total RNA was used as starting material in a 20  $\mu$ L RT reaction. Each RT reaction involved two-minute digestion of genomic DNA (gDNA) using EZ DNase enzyme provided in the kit, followed by RT reaction in a T100™ Thermal Cycler. The annealing of primers was performed by incubation of samples at 25 °C for 10 minutes, reverse transcription at 50 °C for 10 minutes and inactivation of transcriptase enzyme at 85 °C for 5 minutes. The resulting cDNA was stored at -80 °C until further analysis.

**PCR primer design and PCR reaction.** Gene-specific PCR primers (115-200 bp) were designed by using three online database tools including Primer-BLAST (National Center for Biotechnology Information), Primer3 Input v. 0.4.0, and OligoAnalyzer v3.1 (Integrated DNA

Technologies, Inc.). The specificity of primer pairs was initially checked in Primer-BLAST and confirmed by melting curve analysis. A temperature gradient qPCR (56 °C to 62 °C) was run to determine the optimal annealing temperature of each primer set. Prior to use in RT-qPCR, the cDNA stock obtained from a 500 ng RNA template was diluted 1:5 to match a 100-ng template as recommended by Invitrogen's user guide (Pub. No. MAN0015862 Rev. B.0. SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix). The 20 µL qPCR reaction mixtures were made of 6.8 µL PCR-grade (RNase-free) water, 10 µL iQ™ SYBR® Green Supermix, 0.6 µL of specific forward and reverse primers (10 µM concentrated) and 2 µL of cDNA (5 ng/µL). Three independent biological replicate samples were analyzed per treatment and three technical replicates within each sample were used. The cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 62 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s. Melting curve analysis was performed from 62 °C to 95 °C with an increment of 0.5 °C to confirm the amplification.

**Validation of housekeeping genes for normalizing RNA expression.** Eight candidate housekeeping genes were selected from our experiment and from the published studies [34]. The preliminary expression stability of these genes was further assessed in our microarray data. The expression levels of candidate housekeeping genes were measured by RT-qPCR method followed by ranking them according to expression stability, meaning that their levels were not influenced by the exposure. The selection of the most stable genes and the choice of the optimal number of housekeeping genes were computed by using geNorm algorithm according to Vandesompele et al. [35] in "R" program v 3.5.2.

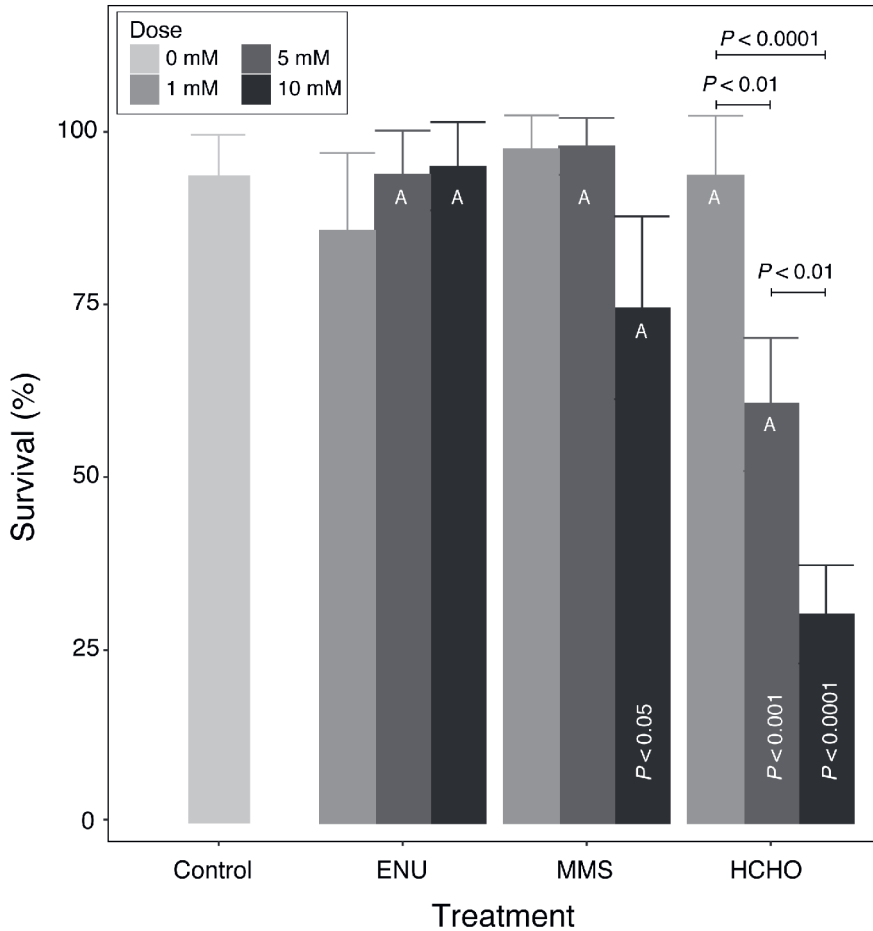
### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Concentration-response relationship for lethal toxicity to *C. elegans*

To determine the non-toxic concentration range for studying the transcriptional effects of different genotoxic compounds, we first performed a concentration-response test (**Fig. 1**). The survival in all ENU exposed nematodes was not significantly different from control, and in the MMS-exposed nematodes only the 10 mM exposure resulted in significant (26%) reduced survival. Exposure to 5 and 10 mM HCHO resulted in significant dose-related mortality of respectively 39 and 70%.

The toxicity of the compounds was also qualitatively analyzed by comparing the swimming motions of the nematodes in the exposure media versus untreated worms. The worms exposed to 1 mM ENU and 1 mM MMS were actively swimming with a typical oscillatory movement [36] similar to untreated nematodes. In contrast, most of the worms in 5 mM and 10 mM (ENU and MMS) or in 1 mM and 5 mM (HCHO) were motionless but slowly moved their bodies upon gentle touches with worm-picker probes. In 10 mM HCHO, most nematodes were lying with their bodies stretched motionless and barely moved upon

probing. Based on the toxicity tests, we selected 5 mM as the maximum exposure concentration for microarray experiments.



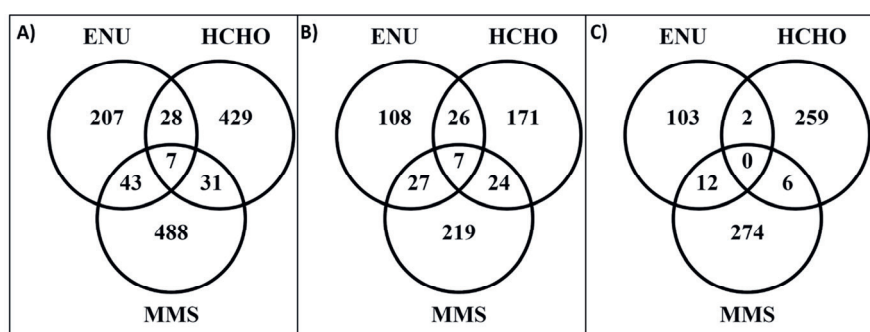
**Figure 1.** Concentration-response relationship for lethal toxicity. Survival of *C. elegans* L4 larval stage after four hours exposure to 1mM, 5mM, or 10mM of N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), methyl methanesulfonate (MMS), and formaldehyde (HCHO). Plotted values are the means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) for two independent biological replicates ( $n = 2$ ) with about 25 to 30 nematodes divided in 4 wells per test. P-values (logistic regression) displayed vertically in chart bars indicate the significance of treatment compared to the untreated (control) samples while the horizontal Bonferroni-corrected P-values (logistic regression) (above the bars) show the significance of difference between concentrations within treatment. In groups indicated with **A** the nematodes displayed abnormal (reduced) swimming behavior.

### 3.2. Transcriptional response to genotoxic compounds

Pilot study (**Suppl. Pilot Study**) revealed the need to take extra caution on the experimental set-up to reduce potential batch development variation and temperature fluctuation effects. To determine the number of DEGs we used a concentration-dependent linear model. In general, there was a relatively high proportion of downregulated transcripts, where genes whose transcription was repressed counted 59 % (for ENU), 46% (for HCHO), and 49% (for MMS) of the total DEGs in each treatment (**Table 1**). Relatively little overlap was found between gene transcripts affected by different treatments (**Fig. 2**). Only 7 genes (T20D4.12, C17C3.3, T07G12.5, K12C11.7, *ins-20*, C28G1.2, and D1086.2) overlapped between all three treatments and were all downregulated. These genes encode proteins involved in acyl-coA metabolic process (C17C3.3), transmembrane transport (T07G12.5), copper ion transmembrane transport (K12C11.7), and hormone activity (*ins-20*), whereas the function of T20D4.12, C28G1.2, and D1086.2 are not yet known.

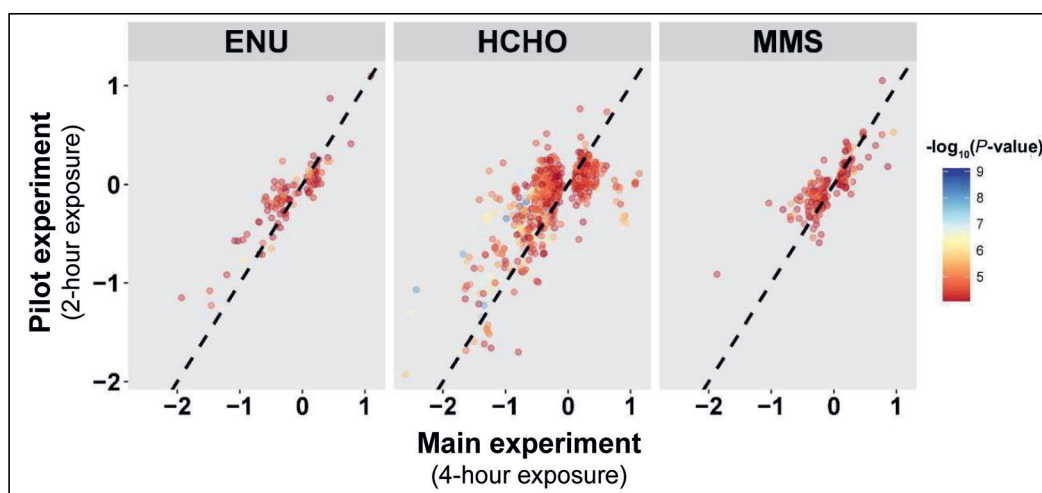
**Table 1.** The number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in *C. elegans* L4 following four-hour exposure to 1 mM and 5 mM N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS). Data were analyzed by a concentration-dependent linear model ( $-\log_{10}(p) > 4$ ; FDR < 0.05).

	Upregulation	Downregulation	Total
<b>ENU</b>	117	168	285
<b>HCHO</b>	267	228	495
<b>MMS</b>	292	277	569



**Figure 2.** Overlapping of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). Included are genes that responded to the treatments with N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) in a concentration-dependent manner, as analysed by a linear model incorporating compound as well as exposure concentration. **(A)** the overlap between all differentially expressed genes, **(B)** the overlap between down-regulated genes, and **(C)** the overlap between up-regulated genes.

To check whether these results were robust, a correlation analysis between the pilot study (2-hour exposure) and the main microarray experiment (4-hour exposure time) was conducted. We found a strong positive correlation for the array spots with the significance -  $\log_{10}(p) > 4$  (**Fig. 3**), meaning that despite differences in the exposure duration, similar transcriptional response trends were measured.



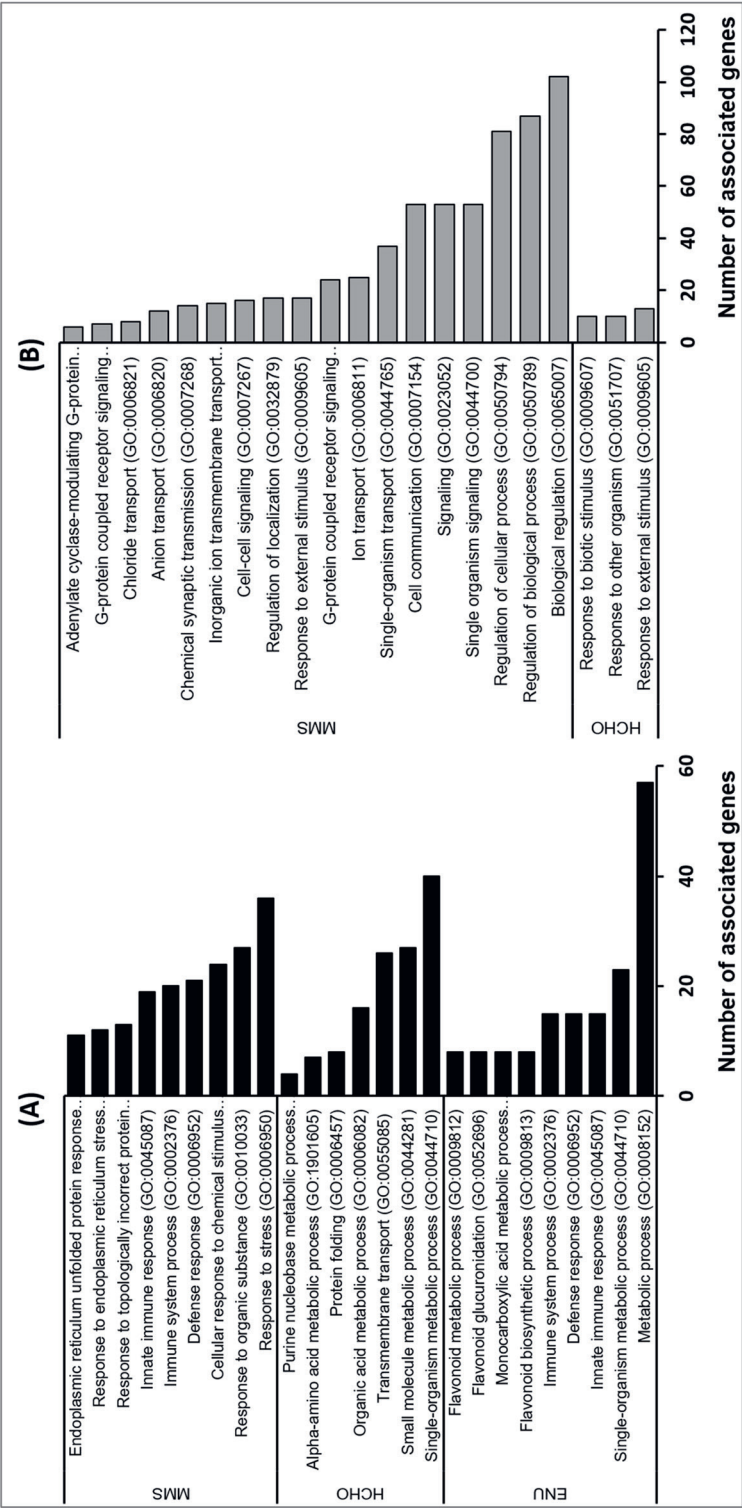
**Figure 3.** Comparison of two independent microarray experiments. The outcome of the linear model of main experiment was compared to pilot (**Supp. Pilot Study**). Genes with a significant change in the expression above  $-\log_{10}(p) = 4$  (displayed in the plot as color-coded dots based on their significance) showed a strong correlation ( $R = 0.89$ ,  $R = 0.71$ , and  $R = 0.80$ , for N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS), respectively;  $p < 1 \times 10^{-38}$ ). These results show that despite the two-fold difference in the exposure duration, transcriptional effects of the toxic compounds are robust and replicable.

### 3.3. Functional analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

In general, a significant upregulation of genes related to metabolism and xenobiotics detoxification was found. For instance, concentration-dependent linear model analysis revealed that 57 out of 117 DEGs represented nearly half (49%) of the upregulated transcripts by ENU were enriched in metabolic processes, as annotated in the DAVID software (**Fig. 4A** and **Suppl. Table S2**). The affected genes include transcription factors belonging to nuclear hormone receptor family (*nhr-106*, *nhr-201*, *nhr-203*, *nhr-202*, and *nhr-237*) regulating gene expression, cytochrome P450 enzymes of phase 1 metabolism (*cyp-13A1*, *cyp-13A10*, *cyp-13A8*, *cyp-13A9*, *cyp-14A2*, and *cyp-33C8*), and phase 2 detoxification enzymes like glutathione-S-transferase enzymes (*gst-5*, *gst-6*, *gst-7*, *gst-8*, *gst-12*, *gst-13*, *gst-14*, *gst-31*, *gst-33*, and *gst-37*) or UDP-glucuronosyltransferase (*ugt-16*, *ugt-25*, *ugt-33*, and *ugt-44*). Metabolic processes were also induced by HCHO and MMS treatment (**Suppl. Table S2**), including the expression of *ugt-21*, *ugt-47*, *ugt-63*, *ugt-65*, and *cyp-29A2* genes by HCHO or *gst-30* by MMS. The results of GO analysis also revealed an upregulation of genes related to immune system process in the nematodes treated with ENU and MMS (**Fig. 4A** and **Table 2**). KEGG pathway enrichment analysis demonstrated that both HCHO and MMS induced the upregulation of genes involved in protein processing in



endoplasmic reticulum (cel04141) (**Suppl. Table S1**). In addition, GO analysis in biological process (BP) category found that the induced transcripts by HCHO were related to protein folding (GO:0006457), while the upregulated genes by MMS were associated with response to topologically incorrect protein (GO:0035966), response to endoplasmic reticulum stress (GO:0034976), and endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response (GO:0030968) (**Suppl. Table S2**).



**Figure 4.** Gene ontology enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in *C. elegans* L4. Plotted are gene ontologies in biological process category associated with upregulated genes (A) and with downregulated gene transcripts (B) following 4 hours exposure to 1mM and 5mM N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS). The X-axis denotes number of genes significantly enriched in a gene ontology (GO) term (FDR < 0.05).

A significant downregulation of genes involved in nerve impulse transmission was found in the nematodes treated with MMS (**Fig. 4B and Table 2**). These include genes like *mgl-1*, *dop-1*, *gab-1*, *gar-3*, *gar-1*, and *ser-4*, which were enriched in neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction pathway (cel04080). Treatment with HCHO reduced the expression levels of genes encoding proteins involved in the nematode defence responses during pathogen attacks from fungi or bacteria (e.g., *cnc-2*, *cnc-5*, *cnc-11*, *atg-16.2*, *lgg-1*, *nlp-29*, *sta-2*, *elt-7*, and *vhp-1*) (**Fig. 4B and Table 2**). Additional results of KEGG pathway and GO enrichment analysis are provided as supplementary information, including pathways (**Suppl. Table S1**), biological process (BP) terms (**Suppl. Table S2**), molecular function (MF) terms (**Suppl. Table S3**), and cellular component (CC) terms (**Suppl. Table S4**).

The individual annotation of all DEGs in DAVID software resulted in a list of genes that can be linked to the modes of action expected from the tested genotoxic model compounds such as transcriptional regulation, cell cycle regulation, proteotoxic stress, apoptosis, and other mechanisms. Nevertheless, KEGG pathway and GO analysis did not reveal any of the well-characterized DDR genes encoding for cell cycle checkpoints and DNA repair proteins to be transcriptionally affected by any of the studied toxicants.

**Table 2.** Potential biological functions of genes down- or up-regulated in *C. elegans* L4 following 4 hours exposure to 1mM and 5mM N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS). Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) are shown with their corresponding expression fold change (FC) values and the statistical significance expressed as  $-\log_{10}(p)$ .

Treatment	Gene	Protein	FC in 1mM	FC in 5mM	$-\log_{10}(p)$
<b>Defense response</b>					
ENU	<i>atg-16.2</i>	Autophagic-related protein 16.2	-1.05	-1.24	5.57
HCHO	<i>atg-16.2</i>	Autophagic-related protein 16.2	-1.06	-1.40	4.07
HCHO	<i>cnc-11</i>	Caenacin (Caenorhabditis bacteriocin)	-1.74	-3.01	4.53
HCHO	<i>cnc-2</i>	Caenacin (Caenorhabditis bacteriocin)	-3.52	-19.70	6.06
HCHO	<i>cnc-5</i>	Caenacin (Caenorhabditis bacteriocin)	-1.29	-2.00	4.38
HCHO	<i>elt-7</i>	Transcription factor ELT-7	-1.10	-1.39	5.57
HCHO	<i>lgg-1</i>	Protein LGG-1	-1.05	-1.72	4.84
HCHO	<i>nlp-29</i>	QWGYGGY-amide	-2.84	-8.96	4.00
HCHO	<i>sta-2</i>	Signal transducer and activator of transcription b	-1.24	-2.28	4.38
HCHO	<i>vhp-1</i>	Tyrosine-protein phosphatase VHP-1	-1.03	-2.08	5.46
<b>Signal transmission</b>					
HCHO	<i>dop-1</i>	Dopamine receptor	-1.18	-1.45	4.09
MMS	<i>dop-1</i>	Dopamine receptor	-1.16	-1.53	6.11
MMS	<i>gab-1</i>	Gamma-aminobutyric acid receptor subunit beta	-1.05	-1.23	5.32
MMS	<i>gar-1</i>	Probable muscarinic acetylcholine receptor GAR-1	-1.03	-1.26	4.24

MMS	<i>gar-3</i>	Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor GAR-3	-1.15	-1.46	4.55
MMS	<i>mgl-1</i>	Metabotropic gLutamate receptor family	-1.07	-1.27	4.57
MMS	<i>ser-4</i>	SERotonin/octopamine receptor family	-1.13	-1.33	5.02
<b>Innate immune response</b>					
ENU	<i>cdr-4</i>	Cadmium responsive	1.43	3.48	5.47
MMS	<i>cdr-4</i>	Cadmium responsive	1.48	3.45	5.51
MMS	<i>fbxa-105</i>	F-box A protein	1.29	1.98	4.46
ENU	<i>fbxa-105</i>	F-box A protein	1.26	1.78	4.08
MMS	<i>gst-13</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.33	2.25	6.33
ENU	<i>gst-13</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.13	1.52	4.59
ENU	K08D8.4	hypothetical protein	1.24	2.51	5.07
MMS	K08D8.4	hypothetical protein	1.31	2.64	5.31
MMS	<i>lec-11</i>	Galectin	1.32	1.87	4.69
ENU	<i>lec-11</i>	Galectin	1.05	1.60	4.54
ENU	<i>ugt-44</i>	UDP-Glucuronosyltransferase	1.21	2.51	4.53
MMS	<i>ugt-44</i>	UDP-GlucuronosylTransferase	1.28	1.96	4.34
<b>Oxidative stress response</b>					
ENU	<i>gst-12</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.57	3.55	5.04
MMS	<i>gst-12</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.50	2.53	4.61
MMS	<i>gst-13</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.33	2.25	6.33
ENU	<i>gst-13</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.13	1.52	4.59
ENU	<i>gst-14</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.45	2.80	4.74
ENU	<i>gst-31</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	2.30	5.83	4.24
ENU	<i>gst-33</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.49	3.68	6.68
ENU	<i>gst-37</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.11	1.95	4.33
ENU	<i>gst-5</i>	Glutathione S-Transferase	1.56	4.43	7.39
ENU	<i>gst-6</i>	Probable glutathione S-transferase 6	1.20	1.60	4.83
ENU	<i>gst-7</i>	Probable glutathione S-transferase 7	1.14	1.78	4.59
ENU	<i>gst-8</i>	Probable glutathione S-transferase 8	1.18	1.66	5.01
<b>Proteotoxic stress response</b>					
MMS	<i>cul-6</i>	Cullin-6	1.14	2.14	4.45
MMS	<i>fbxa-158</i>	F-box A protein	1.43	3.36	7.48
MMS	<i>fbxa-75</i>	F-box A protein	1.64	6.81	6.58
MMS	<i>pals-22</i>	Protein containing ALS2cr12 (ALS2CR12) signature	1.15	1.46	5.37
MMS	<i>skr-3</i>	SKp1 Related (ubiquitin ligase complex component)	1.17	1.80	5.30
MMS	<i>skr-4</i>	SKp1 Related (ubiquitin ligase complex component)	1.10	1.58	5.87
<b>Unfolded protein stress</b>					
MMS	<i>arf-1.1</i>	ADP-ribosylation factor 1-like 1	1.17	2.18	5.21
MMS	C04F12.1	hypothetical protein	1.49	2.69	4.83
MMS	<i>ckb-2</i>	Choline kinase B2	2.30	6.74	6.08
MMS	<i>ckb-4</i>	Choline Kinase B	1.15	1.80	9.06
MMS	<i>cup-2</i>	Derlin-1	1.17	1.67	6.13

MMS	<i>dnj-7</i>	DNaJ domain (prokaryotic heat shock protein)	1.15	1.47	4.84
HCHO	<i>dnj-7</i>	DNaJ domain (prokaryotic heat shock protein)	1.10	1.36	4.70
MMS	<i>hsp-4</i>	Heat Shock Protein	1.34	2.53	6.69
MMS	<i>nsf-1</i>	Vesicle-fusing ATPase	1.05	1.35	5.41
HCHO	<i>pdi-2</i>	Protein disulfide isomerase	1.18	1.51	4.60
MMS	<i>pdi-2</i>	Protein disulfide isomerase	1.12	1.33	4.51
MMS	<i>rer-1</i>	Protein RER1 homolog	1.17	1.41	4.54
MMS	<i>sel-1</i>	Suppressor/Enhancer of LIN-12	1.03	1.27	5.34
MMS	Y54G2A.18	hypothetical protein	1.17	1.87	6.16

### 3.4. Validation of microarray data

To confirm the robustness of the results of microarray experiments, 12 gene targets selected from the main experiment were independently tested by using RT-qPCR experiment. RT-qPCR data were normalized by using four housekeeping genes including *csq-1*, *mdh-1*, and *pmp-3* selected from literature [34] and *ver-3* (from our study). The expression stability of these housekeeping genes in the exposed and unexposed nematodes was confirmed in our experimental conditions. RT-qPCR results showed similar expression trends to microarray outcomes (Suppl. Table S5).

## 4. Discussion

The nematode *C. elegans* has become an invaluable model organism in high-throughput screening assays to predict the toxicity of chemical substances [18, 19]. Despite this, very little was found in the literature on the whole-genome transcriptional effects of genotoxic compounds. In this work, we have successfully developed a bioassay based on exposure of L4 larval stage *C. elegans* as a test organism and using ENU, HCHO, and MMS as model genotoxicants. As shown by microarray results, we have established the optimal experimental conditions for generating optimal gene expression profiles of *C. elegans* in response to chemical exposure in liquid medium. Most importantly we showed that transcriptional effects were chemically specific and concentration dependent. In this assay we have also identified and validated 4 stable housekeeping genes that can be used to normalize gene expression quantitation in nematode by using RT-qPCR assay.

To our knowledge, no research has been carried out yet on genome-wide transcriptional responses of *C. elegans* to HCHO, ENU, and MMS or any comparable compounds that are known to directly induce DNA damage stress. Consequently, there was insufficient information in literature about the operating protocols including the exposure concentration for the testing of these substances in the nematodes. Therefore, we tested first the lethal toxicity of each compounds followed by the selection of the highest sublethal concentration to nematodes to maximize the occurrence of biological disturbances transcriptionally

detectable. In addition, from our pilot microarray study we learned that subtle differences in the experimental temperature and the developmental synchronization of nematode culture could be major confounding variables that can influence gene expression profiling results.

The exposure concentrations used in this study caused a significant proportion of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) to be downregulated. For HCHO-treated nematodes, transcriptional downregulation was in line with the toxicity results, where the nematodes showed the highest mortality rate and impaired mobility, suggesting a predominance of general toxicity. A similar observation was previously reported in *Daphnia magna*, where high concentrations of copper, cadmium and zinc mostly triggered the transcriptional responses of general stress-related processes [37]. Some genes among DEGs repressed by HCHO treatment have been previously characterized to have antibacterial and antifungal activity in *C. elegans* such as *nlp-29* gene [38]. This suggests that nematodes affected by HCHO may be more vulnerable to infections.

The compounds tested in this study are known to react directly with biological molecules especially DNA and proteins via alkylation [20]. Consequently, upon exposure the nematodes were expected to initiate repair mechanisms in response to various molecular damages. In accordance with the proteotoxic behaviors of HCHO and MMS, there was indeed transcriptional evidence suggestive of protein damage stress, such as the upregulation of genes involved in the response to endoplasmic reticulum stress, unfolded proteins, or topologically incorrect protein. These results match those observed in other studies, in which several genes inducible by protein damage in *C. elegans* were identified for unfolded protein stress (*ckb-2*, *ckb-4*, C04F12.1, *pdi-2*, *dnj-7*, *cup-2*, *hsp-4*, *sel-1*, *arf-1.1*, *rer-1*, *nsf-1*, and Y54G2A.18) [39] and for proteotoxic stress response (*fbxa-75*, *fbxa-158*, *pals-22*, *skr-3*, *skr-4* and *cul-6*) [40].

While we anticipated that MMS and ENU would induce comparable transcriptional effects due to their close mode of toxicity as alkylating agents, ENU treatment did not appear to induce a significant expression among genes involved in proteotoxic stress response. Instead, expression of genes related to innate immune response, especially *cdr-4*, *fbxa-105*, *gst-13*, *lec-11*, *ugt-44*, and K08D8.4 was increased by both ENU and MMS treatments. In addition, the results of this study correlated with the mode of toxicity of ENU known to induce oxidative stress, as revealed by the transcriptional upregulation of peroxisome pathway (*cel04146*) and notably glutathione S-transferase (GST) gene family, such as *gst-5*, *gst-6*, *gst-7*, *gst-8*, *gst-12*, *gst-13*, *gst-14*, *gst-31*, *gst-33*, and *gst-37*, which have been previously linked to the oxidative stress resistance in *C. elegans* in response to exposure with chemicals like paraquat and juglone [41].

Our finding showed that MMS induced transcriptional repression of genes involved in nerve impulse transmission along a neuron, including *mgl-1*, *dop-1*, *gab-1*, *gar-3*, *gar-1*, and *ser-4*. These results correlated with our toxicity tests where the nematodes treated with MMS

showed signs of the reduced motility. This is in the line with earlier literature that found an important relationship between the affected genes and locomotion in nematodes, such as dopaminergic receptor *dop-1* [42], serotonin receptor *ser-4* [43], or muscarinic receptor *gar-3* [44]. One may speculate the inactivation of neurotransmitters or receptor proteins by MMS through alkylation reaction resulted in the impairment of motor activity.

Having discussed how the exposure conditions investigated in our study induced the general stress in the nematodes, this raises the question of whether specific toxicity mechanisms may be eclipsed by the general ones as speculated by Gou *et al.* [7]. Our study suggests that the nematode might attempt to shut down parts of its gene-expression machinery to alleviate the general toxicity. In doing so, many biological processes may be affected, including processes related to the specific mode of action of the compound. Indeed, this could explain why we did not find significant changes in the transcription of genes that play a critical role in the maintenance of DNA integrity in *C. elegans* such as DNA-damage checkpoints or DNA repair proteins. Similar findings were reported upon exposure to X-ray radiation as this did not affect mRNA expression levels of DNA repair genes [16], leading to the hypothesis that DDR genes in *C. elegans* might be instead regulated through posttranscriptional modifications of checkpoint proteins. Alternatively, the increase in metabolism and detoxification processes in the nematodes may have substantially reduced the efficacy of the tested toxicants, thus protecting the nematodes from genotoxic effects.

Despite the lack of expression change in DDR genes in our study, there was neither enough evidence to be able to conclude that DNA damage stress did not take place in the nematodes upon exposure to these compounds. Such DNA damage was demonstrated in a recent study showing that MMS-exposure of *C. elegans* generated a high number of mutations via base methylations [45], and chemical mutagenesis in the nematode with ENU and HCHO is also well known [46]. Moreover, our findings showed a significant change in the expression levels of genes like *gei-17* and *cul-6*, which have been reported to be involved in DNA-damage response in *C. elegans* [47]. They were categorised differently in our study based on alternative functional descriptions and therefore not identified by either KEGG pathway or GO analyses. In addition, several genes involved in apoptosis or transcriptional regulation were expressed in this study, and data from literature has linked these processes to genotoxic response [17]. Similarly, the induction of innate immune response found in our assay is reported in literature to be also triggered upon DNA damage stress [15].

Another aim of this study was to identify candidate marker genes that can be used to detect target toxicants. Previous studies have shown the potential of gene expression analysis to specifically detect contaminants in environmental samples [8]. Based on our experimental work, several genes were found as potential candidate biomarkers for the detection of the tested compounds. In brief, each candidate gene expression biomarker complies with three criteria as proposed by Gou *et al.* [7], including: a) the genes with chemical-specific

response, b) the genes whose expression was concentration-dependent, and c) the genes which are linked to a specific mode of action related to the toxicant.

Overall, our study implies that both general as well as specific toxicity mechanisms of the tested compounds were operational in the nematodes and can be detected transcriptionally. Hence, this study will serve as a base for developing transcriptional biomarkers for detecting a wide array of bioactive contaminants, including hydrophilic ones that are hard to detect chemically. To determine reliable biomarkers, more studies like this should be carried out on several model compounds, mixtures and toxicants that require metabolic bioactivation. Our study successfully demonstrated the capability of this nematode to respond by a specific mode of action making it suitable for detection of specific compounds. It also showed that very high exposure concentrations most likely induce general stress that can mask specific effects. Further studies should focus on lower exposure concentrations to enable quantification of key transcriptional events specific to the mode of activity of a target compound. The applicability of this bioassay can be further improved by conducting transcriptomic concentration-response analysis of model compounds to define the concentration range detectable by this method and relate this to concentrations expected in field situations. The bioassay is expected to be not only mechanism-specific but also to indicate the exposure to compounds at concentrations far below those inducing physiological responses and before chronic effects become detectable. Thereby it could complement single-compound bioassays like CALUX [48] or ToxTracker assay [49].

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## Supporting information of chapter 2b

### S1. Pilot microarray analysis

#### 1. Introduction

Gene expression in *Caenorhabditis elegans* was measured by microarrays. The experiment consisted of exposure samples using three direct-acting genotoxic model compounds including N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO) and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) dissolved in M9 buffer. Pilot study was the first pass carried out with two main goals: (i) to identify the sources of experimental and biological variation, and (ii) to get preliminary results on differentially expressed genes. This study revealed that subtle differences in the experimental temperature and the developmental synchronization of nematode culture could be major confounding variables that can influence gene expression profiling results. The outcomes from this experiment were used to reduce batch variation in the main microarray experiment as described in manuscript.

#### 2. Material and Methods

**Chemical exposure.** The nematode treatment was carried out as described in the manuscript with minor adjustments. Briefly, the pilot experiment was conducted by using synchronized culture of *Caenorhabditis elegans* (L4 larval stage, 48 hours old grown at 20°C) obtained via eggs that were prepared by treating gravid nematodes with 5% sodium hypochlorite solution (Bleaching) [50]. The nematodes were exposed to 1 mM and 5 mM N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) dissolved in M9 buffer for 2 hours at 20 °C. The experiment was run in two biological replicates, and approximately 1200 animals were treated per each sample. At the end of exposure, the nematodes were immediately pelleted by spinning once in centrifuge (18,400 x g at room temperature, followed by removal of the supernatants) to collect the pellets, which were then flash frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute before storage at -80 °C until RNA extraction.

**Microarray preparation, hybridization, and scanning.** Total RNA was isolated following standard protocols, previously described in [28]. The gene-expression was measured using the Agilent *C. elegans* (V2) Gene Expression Microarray 4x44K slides. For cDNA synthesis, labelling with cy3 and cy5 dyes, and subsequent hybridization, the 'Two-Color Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis; Low Input Quick Amp Labeling'—protocol, version 6.0 from Agilent (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) was followed. Scanning was done using an Agilent High Resolution C Scanner with the settings as recommended by the protocol. For extraction of the intensities the accompanying software was used (Agilent Feature Extract, v. 10.7.1.1). The array probe annotation was updated by blasting the probes

against WS258 with blast (version 2.6.0, windows x64), using nblast with parameters: word size 7, reward 1, penalty -3, and eval 1. Probes with multiple hits were flagged and ignored in the analysis of affected genes.

**Normalization and pre-processing of microarray raw data.** Normalization of the data was carried out using the Limma package in “R” (version 3.4.2, x64) in RStudio (version 1.1.383). Arrays were normalized without background correction, normalization within arrays was done using the Loess method and between arrays using the quantile method [29, 30]. The obtained values were  $\log_2$  transformed and were used for subsequent analysis. Furthermore, a  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean (R) was calculated, where each spot was expressed as a fraction of the intensity of the same spot over all samples:

$$R_{ij} = \log_2\left(\frac{y_{ij}}{\bar{y}_i}\right)$$

where  $y$  is the intensity of spot  $i$  (1, 2, 3, ..., 45220) of sample  $j$  (1, 2, 3, ..., 12).

Data that was analysed by linear model was first batch corrected:

$$B_{ij} = y_{ij} - (\bar{y}_{batch,i} - \bar{y}_{total,i})$$

Where  $B$  is the batch corrected value, and difference between the batch average and the total average for a spot  $i$  (1, 2, 3, ..., 45220) is subtracted from the normalized intensity. The raw data of the pilot study experiment were submitted to ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-10264).

**Statistical data analysis.** To detect if the arrays were technically correct, Pearson correlations were calculated in “R” using the *cor* function (version 3.4.2, x64), where normalized intensities of each sample were compared to all other samples. To identify which factors underlying variation in gene expression, principal component analysis (PCA) was calculated on the  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean values using the *prcomp* function in “R”. To identify gene expression changes linked to the chemical treatment of nematodes, the expression was investigated using a linear model:

$$B_{ij} \sim T_j + e_j$$

where  $T$  is the treatment of sample  $j$  and  $e$  is the unexplained variation (error). The three treatments (ENU, HCHO, and MMS) were pairwise compared to the control treatment. The resulting  $p$ -values were corrected for multiple testing using the *p.adjust* function with the Benjamini & Hochberg method [31]. To assess the differentially expressed genes (DEG) per exposure condition, we took a high significant level of  $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value}) > 4$  (i.e.,  $p < 0.0001$ ; FDR < 0.05). Further, we particularly assessed the expression of four reference genes encoding for heat shock proteins (*hsp-16.2* and *hsp-16.41*) and for vitellogenin proteins (*vit-*

1 or *vit-2*), which are indicative of heat-stress [28] and the age of the nematode population [51], respectively.

### 3. Results and discussion

In this experiment all samples correlated strongly, indicating that the arrays were technically sound. The analysis also revealed a batch effect. Gene expression analysis showed some fluctuation in the expression levels of *hsp-16.2* and *hsp-16.41* genes in both exposed and unexposed nematode population. Differential expression of these genes has been previously linked to the transcriptional response to heat stress in *C. elegans* [28]. In addition, a slight developmental difference between two independent nematode culture batches was observed, as suggested by the expression levels of *vit-1* and *vit-2* genes that are indicative of the age of the nematode population [51]. This illustrated the need to take extra caution on the experimental set-up to reduce potential batch development variation and temperature fluctuation effects.

We identified 12 genes whose expression levels were significantly differentially affected by HCHO treatment, including three upregulated (*gst-23*, T07D3.4, and B0024.15) and 9 downregulated (*asic-2*, *cnc-1*, *gap-2*, *grsp-2*, C25E10.5, F40H7.12, T24E12.5, W09G12.7, and Y69H2.3) gene transcripts. No significant differential gene expression was found in the nematodes treated with ENU and MMS. From these data it was hypothesized that the exposure time of 2 hours was too short, hence explaining the small numbers of differentially expressed genes (DEG).

Overall, pilot study revealed that slight differences in the experimental temperature and the developmental synchronization of nematode culture could be major confounding variables that can influence transcriptional effects. From this study we learned two major lessons: (1) It is paramount to synchronize the nematode population to the required developmental stage. The accuracy of synchronization could be confirmed by observing the nematodes under a stereo microscope. (2) To reduce potential temperature effects, it is important to carefully maintain a constant temperature for the period of exposure time, keeping the nematodes inside an incubator as much as possible. A temperature data logger can be used to monitor the temperature in the incubator. These adjustments were applied in the full-scale experiment (as described in the manuscript) and significantly reduced batch variation in gene expression.

## S2. The analysis of main microarray experiment

### 1. Batch effect correction

A batch correction was performed by fitting the gene expression to the linear model:

**Equation S1.** 
$$I_{i,j} = B_j + D_j + T_j + e_{i,j}$$

where  $I$  is the  $\log_2$ -transformed intensity of spot  $i$  (1, 2, ..., 45220) of sample  $j$  (1, 2, ..., 24). This was fitted over biological replicate B (1-3), each containing all treatments, dye D (either cy3 or cy5) and treatment T (control, MMS, ENU, or HCHO) and an error term  $e$ . Batch correction was performed by subtracting the batch and dye effects per spot per sample.

## 2. Calculating average expression values

After batch correction, the  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean ( $R$ ) was calculated, where each spot was expressed as a fraction of the intensity of the same spot over all samples:

**Equation S2.** 
$$R_{i,j} = \log_2\left(\frac{y_{i,j}}{\bar{y}_i}\right)$$

where  $y$  is the untransformed intensity of spot  $i$  (1, 2, ..., 45220) of sample  $j$  (1, 2, ..., 24). This resulted in  $\log_2$  transformed and further referred to as the  $\log_2$  ratio with the mean.

## 3. Linear model analysis

To evaluate whether transcriptional effects were concentration-dependent, we used a linear model analysis incorporating the compound as well as the exposure concentration. This model was applied to ENU, HCHO, and MMS separately, by

**Equation S3.** 
$$I_{B,i,j} \sim C_j + e_j$$

where  $I_B$  is the batch-corrected intensity of spot  $i$  of sample  $j$ ,  $C$  is the concentration (0, 1, or 5 mM), and  $e$  is the unexplained variance (error).

As for the compound-dependent model analysis above, The resulting p-values were corrected for multiple testing using the *p.adjust* function in R program with the Benjamini and Hochberg method [31]. We set a significance threshold of  $-\log_{10}(p) > 4$  (FDR = 0.011, FDR = 0.0059, and FDR = 0.0053 for ENU, HCHO, and MMS, respectively).

**Suppl. Table S1.** KEGG pathway enrichment for up- and downregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  5%).

Treatment	GO term	Category	#genes	%	FDR (%)
<b>Upregulation</b>					
HCHO	cel04141	Protein processing in endoplasmic reticulum	9	3.4	0.2
MMS	cel04141	Protein processing in endoplasmic reticulum	10	3.5	0.0
MMS	cel00480	Glutathione metabolism	4	1.4	4.6
ENU	cel00980	Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	7	6.0	0.0
ENU	cel00982	Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	7	6.0	0.0
ENU	cel00480	Glutathione metabolism	5	4.3	0.0
<b>Downregulation</b>					
MMS	cel04080	Neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction	6	2.2	0.0
ENU	cel04146	Peroxisome	5	3.0	0.0

**Suppl. Table S2.** Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis in biological processes (BP) category for up- and downregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR ≤ 5%).

Treatment	GO term	Category	#genes	%	FDR (%)
<b>Upregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0044710	single-organism metabolic process	40	15.2	3.7
HCHO	GO:0044281	small molecule metabolic process	27	10.2	0.0
HCHO	GO:0055085	transmembrane transport	26	9.8	1.9
HCHO	GO:0006082	organic acid metabolic process	16	6.1	1.5
HCHO	GO:0006457	protein folding	8	3.0	1.3
HCHO	GO:1901605	alpha-amino acid metabolic process	7	2.7	4.5
HCHO	GO:0046394	carboxylic acid biosynthetic process	7	2.7	5.0
HCHO	GO:0006144	purine nucleobase metabolic process	4	1.5	1.4
MMS	GO:0006950	response to stress	36	12.6	0.0
MMS	GO:0010033	response to organic substance	27	9.4	0.0
MMS	GO:0071310	cellular response to organic substance	24	8.4	0.0
MMS	GO:0070887	cellular response to chemical stimulus	24	8.4	0.0
MMS	GO:0006952	defense response	21	7.3	0.0
MMS	GO:0002376	immune system process	20	7.0	0.0
MMS	GO:0045087	innate immune response	19	6.6	0.0
MMS	GO:0006955	immune response	19	6.6	0.0
MMS	GO:0035966	response to topologically incorrect protein	13	4.5	0.0
MMS	GO:0071383	cellular response to steroid hormone stimulus	13	4.5	0.7
MMS	GO:0048545	response to steroid hormone	13	4.5	0.7
MMS	GO:0043401	steroid hormone mediated signaling pathway	13	4.5	0.7
MMS	GO:0071396	cellular response to lipid	13	4.5	0.7
MMS	GO:0033993	response to lipid	13	4.5	0.8
MMS	GO:0009755	hormone-mediated signaling pathway	13	4.5	0.8
MMS	GO:0071407	cellular response to organic cyclic compound	13	4.5	1.4
MMS	GO:0009725	response to hormone	13	4.5	1.7
MMS	GO:0032870	cellular response to hormone stimulus	13	4.5	1.7
MMS	GO:0014070	response to organic cyclic compound	13	4.5	2.3
MMS	GO:0071495	cellular response to endogenous stimulus	13	4.5	4.6
MMS	GO:0034976	response to endoplasmic reticulum stress	12	4.2	0.0
MMS	GO:0030968	endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response	11	3.8	0.0
MMS	GO:0034620	cellular response to unfolded protein	11	3.8	0.0
MMS	GO:0006986	response to unfolded protein	11	3.8	0.0
MMS	GO:0035967	cellular response to topologically incorrect protein	11	3.8	0.0
ENU	GO:0008152	metabolic process	57	49.1	4.5
ENU	GO:0044710	single-organism metabolic process	23	19.8	4.0
ENU	GO:0045087	innate immune response	15	12.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0006955	immune response	15	12.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0002376	immune system process	15	12.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0006952	defense response	15	12.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0006063	uronic acid metabolic process	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0052696	flavonoid glucuronidation	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0009813	flavonoid biosynthetic process	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0019585	glucuronate metabolic process	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0052695	cellular glucuronidation	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0009812	flavonoid metabolic process	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0032787	monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	8	6.9	1.2
<b>Downregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0009605	response to external stimulus	13	5.7	2.8
HCHO	GO:0043207	response to external biotic stimulus	10	4.4	0.0
HCHO	GO:0051707	response to other organism	10	4.4	0.0
HCHO	GO:0009607	response to biotic stimulus	10	4.4	0.0
HCHO	GO:0098542	defense response to other organism	9	4.0	0.1
HCHO	GO:0009617	response to bacterium	7	3.1	1.7
HCHO	GO:0050832	defense response to fungus	5	2.2	0.3
HCHO	GO:0009620	response to fungus	5	2.2	0.3
MMS	GO:0065007	biological regulation	102	37.0	0.3
MMS	GO:0050789	regulation of biological process	87	31.5	1.8
MMS	GO:0050794	regulation of cellular process	81	29.3	0.2
MMS	GO:0044700	single organism signaling	53	19.2	0.8
MMS	GO:0023052	signaling	53	19.2	0.9
MMS	GO:0007154	cell communication	53	19.2	1.2
MMS	GO:0007165	signal transduction	48	17.4	4.9
MMS	GO:0044765	single-organism transport	37	13.4	3.8
MMS	GO:0006811	ion transport	25	9.1	0.6
MMS	GO:0007186	G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway	24	8.7	2.7
MMS	GO:0034220	ion transmembrane transport	18	6.5	3.8
MMS	GO:0032879	regulation of localization	17	6.2	0.2
MMS	GO:0009605	response to external stimulus	17	6.2	3.6
MMS	GO:0007267	cell-cell signaling	16	5.8	0.0
MMS	GO:0098660	inorganic ion transmembrane transport	15	5.4	1.9
MMS	GO:0098916	anterograde trans-synaptic signaling	14	5.1	0.0
MMS	GO:0099537	trans-synaptic signaling	14	5.1	0.0
MMS	GO:0007268	chemical synaptic transmission	14	5.1	0.0
MMS	GO:0099536	synaptic signaling	14	5.1	0.0
MMS	GO:0006820	anion transport	12	4.3	1.5
MMS	GO:0006821	chloride transport	8	2.9	0.6
MMS	GO:0015698	inorganic anion transport	8	2.9	1.2
MMS	GO:0007187	G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway, coupled to cyclic nucleotide second messenger	7	2.5	0.1
MMS	GO:1902476	chloride transmembrane transport	7	2.5	2.4
MMS	GO:0098661	inorganic anion transmembrane transport	7	2.5	4.1
MMS	GO:0007188	adenylate cyclase-modulating G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway	6	2.2	0.7
MMS	GO:0007193	adenylate cyclase-inhibiting G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway	4	1.4	0.7

**Suppl. Table S3.** Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis in molecular function (MF) category for up- and downregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  5%).

Treatment	GO term	Category	#genes	%	FDR (%)
<b>Upregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0003824	catalytic activity	84	31.8	2.1
HCHO	GO:0016757	transferase activity, transferring glycosyl groups	15	5.7	0.1
ENU	GO:0003824	catalytic activity	48	41.4	0.1
ENU	GO:0016740	transferase activity	26	22.4	0.1
ENU	GO:0016491	oxidoreductase activity	12	10.3	3.0
ENU	GO:0015020	glucuronosyltransferase activity	8	6.9	0.0
ENU	GO:0008194	UDP-glycosyltransferase activity	8	6.9	0.1
ENU	GO:0020037	heme binding	8	6.9	0.1
ENU	GO:0046906	tetrapyrrole binding	8	6.9	0.2
ENU	GO:0016758	transferase activity, transferring hexosyl groups	8	6.9	1.7
ENU	GO:0016757	transferase activity, transferring glycosyl groups	8	6.9	4.0
ENU	GO:0004497	monooxygenase activity	7	6.0	0.1
ENU	GO:0005506	iron ion binding	7	6.0	0.3
ENU	GO:0016705	oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with incorporation or reduction of molecular oxygen	7	6.0	0.4
ENU	GO:0004364	glutathione transferase activity	5	4.3	0.0
ENU	GO:0016765	transferase activity, transferring alkyl or aryl (other than methyl) groups	5	4.3	0.6
<b>Downregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0004197	cysteine-type endopeptidase activity	5	2.2	4.1
MMS	GO:0060089	molecular transducer activity	34	12.3	0.4
MMS	GO:0004872	receptor activity	34	12.3	0.4
MMS	GO:0099600	transmembrane receptor activity	33	12.0	0.3
MMS	GO:0004871	signal transducer activity	33	12.0	1.2
MMS	GO:0038023	signaling receptor activity	29	10.5	3.8
MMS	GO:0004888	transmembrane signaling receptor activity	28	10.1	3.5
MMS	GO:0004930	G-protein coupled receptor activity	24	8.7	1.8
MMS	GO:0015075	ion transmembrane transporter activity	21	7.6	1.8
MMS	GO:0022838	substrate-specific channel activity	15	5.4	2.4
MMS	GO:0005216	ion channel activity	14	5.1	4.8
MMS	GO:0022836	gated channel activity	11	4.0	1.9
MMS	GO:0008509	anion transmembrane transporter activity	10	3.6	0.3
MMS	GO:0015108	chloride transmembrane transporter activity	8	2.9	0.9
MMS	GO:0015103	inorganic anion transmembrane transporter activity	8	2.9	2.0
MMS	GO:0005254	chloride channel activity	7	2.5	3.3
MMS	GO:0005253	anion channel activity	7	2.5	3.9
MMS	GO:0008227	G-protein coupled amine receptor activity	4	1.4	1.8



**Suppl. Table S4.** Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis in cellular component (CC) category for up- and downregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  5%).

Treatment	GO term	Category	#genes	%	FDR (%)
<b>Upregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0005783	endoplasmic reticulum	15	5.7	1.5
HCHO	GO:0033178	proton-transporting two-sector ATPase complex, catalytic domain	4	1.5	2.3
MMS	GO:0005622	intracellular	77	26.9	2.8
MMS	GO:0012505	endomembrane system	19	6.6	2.1
MMS	GO:0005783	endoplasmic reticulum	17	5.9	0.0
MMS	GO:0044432	endoplasmic reticulum part	14	4.9	0.0
MMS	GO:0005789	endoplasmic reticulum membrane	10	3.5	0.4
MMS	GO:0042175	nuclear outer membrane-endoplasmic reticulum membrane network	10	3.5	0.5
MMS	GO:0005788	endoplasmic reticulum lumen	4	1.4	0.8
<b>Downregulation</b>					
HCHO	GO:0005576	extracellular region	19	8.4	0.0
HCHO	GO:0005615	extracellular space	13	5.7	0.0
HCHO	GO:0044421	extracellular region part	13	5.7	0.0
MMS	GO:0071944	cell periphery	45	16.3	0.0
MMS	GO:0005886	plasma membrane	43	15.6	0.0
MMS	GO:0044459	plasma membrane part	28	10.1	2.1
MMS	GO:0097458	neuron part	18	6.5	0.0
MMS	GO:0043005	neuron projection	13	4.7	0.6
MMS	GO:0045202	synapse	12	4.3	0.5
MMS	GO:0030424	axon	9	3.3	2.7

**Table S5.** Validation of microarray gene expression data by RT-qPCR analysis. Included are gene expression data of 12 gene targets that were selected from our main microarray experiment based on their annotation and their potential association to the mechanisms of toxicity of the tested compounds. The table contains normalized relative expression fold changes of target genes in the treated nematodes compared to the untreated. Positive fold change values (upregulation) and negative fold change values (downregulation) at a significance level of  $p \leq 0.001$ . RT-qPCR were run in three independent biological replicates and three technical replicate per each test using the same RNA templates from 5mM-treated microarray samples. Asterisks (\*) denote the gene expression fold changes measured by microarray and were also found significant in RT-qPCR with  $p \leq 0.0001$

Gene	ENU			HCHO			MMS		
	Array	P-value	RT-qPCR	Array	P-value	RT-qPCR	Array	P-value	RT-qPCR
<i>tor-2</i>	1.4*	<0.0001	1.7	1.7*	<0.0001	2.7	1.3	NS	1.6
<i>rpt-1</i>	1.1	NS	1.2	1.1*	<0.0001	1.2	1.2*	<0.0001	1.2
<i>cec-8</i>	-1.1	NS	-1.1	1.1	NS	-1	1.2*	<0.0001	1.1
<i>ttr-52</i>	1.2*	<0.0001	1.6	1.1	NS	1.5	1.2	NS	2.1
<b>C25F9.2</b>	-1.9*	<0.0001	-2.2	-2.9*	<0.0001	-3.8	-1.9*	<0.0001	-1.8
<i>tth-1</i>	-1.2	NS	-1.2	-2*	<0.0001	-2.8	-1.4*	<0.0001	-1.3
<b>F40F9.10</b>	-1.1	NS	1.1	-1.4*	<0.0001	-1.3	-1.2*	<0.0001	-1.1
<i>psa-3</i>	-1.2	NS	-1.5	-1.4*	<0.0001	-1.2	-1.6*	<0.0001	-2
<i>hil-1</i>	-2	0.0006	-2.8	-2.5*	<0.0001	-2.7	-2	0.00078	-2.7
<i>hda-11</i>	-1.9*	<0.0001	1.2	-1.6	0.0001	1.1	-1.2	NS	1.4
<i>celh-63</i>	-1.3	NS	-1.5	-1.6	0.00039	-2.1	-1.4*	<0.0001	-1.3
<i>ced-1</i>	-1.3	<0.0001	-1.2	-1.4*	<0.0001	-1.5	-1.2	0.00044	-1.4



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# Chapter 3

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Differential expression of genes in  
*C. elegans* reveals transcriptional  
responses to indirect-acting xenobiotic  
compounds and insensitivity to 2,3,7,8-  
tetrachlorodibenzodioxin

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**Abstract**

*Caenorhabditis elegans* is a well-established model organism for toxicity testing of chemical substances. We recently demonstrated its potential for bioanalysis of the toxic potency of chemical contaminants in water. While many detoxification genes are homologues to those in mammals, *C. elegans* is reported to be deficient in cytochrome CYP1-like P450 metabolism and that its aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) homolog encoded by *ahr-1* purportedly does not interact with dioxins or any other known xenobiotic ligand. This suggests that *C. elegans* is insensitive for compounds that require bioactivation (indirectly acting compounds) and for dioxins or dioxin-like compounds. This study analysed genome-wide gene expression of the nematode in response to 30  $\mu$ M of aflatoxin B1 (AFB1), benzo(a)pyrene (B(a)P), Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254), and 10  $\mu$ M of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD). After 24 hours of exposure in the early L4 larval stage, microarray analysis revealed 182, 86, and 321 differentially expressed genes in the nematodes treated with 30  $\mu$ M of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, respectively. Among these genes, many encode xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes, and their transcription levels were among the highest-ranked fold-changed genes. Interestingly, only one gene (F59B1.8) was upregulated in the nematodes exposed to 10  $\mu$ M TCDD. Genes related to metabolic processes and catalytic activity were the most induced by exposure to 30  $\mu$ M of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. Despite the genotoxic nature of AFB1 and B(a)P, no differential expression was found in the genes encoding DNA repair and cell cycle checkpoint proteins. Analysis of concentration–response curves was performed to determine the Lowest Observed Transcriptomic Effect Levels (LOTEL) of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. The obtained LOTEL values showed that gene expression changes in *C. elegans* are more sensitive to toxicants than reproductive effects. Overall, transcriptional responses of metabolic enzymes suggest that the nematode does metabolize AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. Our findings also support the assumption that the transcription factor AhR homolog in *C. elegans* does not bind typical xenobiotic ligands, rendering the nematode transcriptionally insensitive to TCDD effects.



## 1. Introduction

Biotransformation changes the chemical structure of xenobiotic compounds to reduce their toxicity and allow easier excretion of these compounds. Through this process, lipophilic chemicals are generally converted into more hydrophilic molecules by a series of chemical reactions. While xenobiotic biotransformation facilitates detoxification of compounds, it can occasionally generate toxic metabolites via a process known as bioactivation [1, 2]. Several substances are categorized as “indirect-acting” in reference to the chemical agents with little or no toxicological activity, that become toxic upon metabolic activation [3]. Biotransformation machinery involves several protein components like the phase I monooxygenases (also referred to as cytochrome P450s), phase II conjugation enzymes and phase III xenobiotic transport proteins [4]. The expression of genes encoding these enzymes can be transcriptionally affected by exogenous conditions including the presence of a single compound or a mixture of xenobiotics [5-7].

A recent study showed how the nematode *C. elegans* responds to direct-acting genotoxic model compounds [8]. In that study, the transcription of DNA damage repair and cell cycle checkpoints genes were not differentially affected by the selected toxicants, but several genes encoding biotransformation proteins were upregulated. Therefore, here we were interested in investigating genome-wide gene expression profiles of *C. elegans* exposed to the chemical agents that require metabolic conversion to become active toxicants.

*C. elegans* provides a suitable experimental model to study the effects of bioactive substances as it shares many gene functions with mammals including those involved in xenobiotics biotransformation. For instance, the orthologs for many key mammalian redox systems have been reported in *C. elegans* including glutathione (GSH) and related systems, which are critical for detoxification of both xenobiotic and endogenous compounds in mammals [9, 10]. Furthermore, over 80 CYP genes encoding cytochrome P450 enzymes have been identified in the *C. elegans* genome [11, 12]. Based on predicted amino acid sequences, the majority of *C. elegans* CYP genes were found to be closely related to the mammalian CYP2, CYP3, and CYP4 gene families [13]. Interestingly, CYP1-like metabolism, which is indispensable for metabolizing numerous indirect-acting xenobiotics like polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) [14], is reported not to be present in *C. elegans* [15]. Furthermore, the mammalian aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) [16, 17] which plays a central role in the toxicity of many chemical agents like dioxins and dioxin-like compounds has a homologue (AHR-1) encoded by *ahr-1* gene in *C. elegans*. The nematode protein AHR-1 regulates several physiological processes such as neuronal development [18], locomotion, egg laying, defecation behaviors, fatty acid synthesis, and others [19]. Unlike its counterpart in mammals (AhR), the nematode AHR-1 was demonstrated not to bind to its common activators such as TCDD or  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone [20]. This could mean that the nematode is not sensitive to transcriptional effects of dioxins.

In this paper, we therefore investigated to which extent *C. elegans* is responsive to indirect-acting model compounds and to dioxin. We analyzed genome-wide gene expression effects of three toxicants whose mode of action is dependent on cytochrome P450-mediated metabolic activation. We selected aflatoxin B1 (AFB1), benzo[a]pyrene (B(a)P), PCB mixture Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254) as representative compounds in the toxic classes of highly genotoxic mycotoxins, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB). As dioxin representative we selected 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD). All four compounds are classified as aryl hydrocarbons containing one or more aromatic rings made of delocalized  $\pi$  electrons which are susceptible to oxidative reactions such as epoxidation, hydroxylation and others mostly mediated by cytochrome P450 enzymes. In humans, AFB1 is mainly metabolized in the liver by CYP1A2 and CYP3A4 isoenzymes to its metabolites including the genotoxic aflatoxin B1 exo-8,9-epoxide [21]. B(a)P requires cytochrome P450 enzymes to form metabolites including the genotoxic B[a]P-7,8-diol-9,10-epoxide. In mice, the activation of B(a)P is mediated by hepatic CYP1 enzymes only, especially CYP1A1 and CYP1B1 [15, 22]. PCB1254, a mixture of several polychlorinated biphenyls, is metabolized by humans or rodents: CYP2B, CYP2C, and CYP3A enzymes into 2,3,3',4',5-pentachloro-4-biphenylol as the major metabolite [23, 24]. Like many dioxins and dioxin-like toxicants, the activity of TCDD is guided by the activation of the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) pathway [5] and via the AhR TCDD also activates CYPs belonging to the CYP1 family such as CYP1A1 [25]. Mammalian exposure to these four toxicants is linked to various effects such as immunotoxicity, oxidative stress, endocrine disruption, carcinogenicity, growth impairment, reproductive and developmental toxicity, and others [5, 15, 21, 23].

The aims of this study were to investigate (1) genome-wide transcriptional effects of indirect-acting model toxicants and the CYP1 inducing dioxin in *C. elegans*, (2) to what extent the nematode can be used to detect the presence of the studied compounds, and (3) to relate the nematode responses to the expected modes of action of the compounds. More specifically, we investigated whether *C. elegans* indeed lacks the CYP1-like metabolism, what alternative enzymes could be used to metabolize CYP1 chemical substrates, and how the genes encoding these enzymes transcriptionally responded to the model toxicants. Additionally, we wondered whether *C. elegans* AHR-1 is not regulated by dioxins through receptor-ligand interactions, and how the nematode then transcriptionally responds to exposure to dioxins.

## 2. Material & methods

### 2.1. *C. elegans* culture

The culture of wild-type N2 (Bristol) strain of *C. elegans* was prepared as described in [8]. Synchronized populations of nematodes were obtained using a modified version of the bleaching technique [26]. Briefly, the first larval stage (L1) growth-arrested via starvation

were obtained by hatching eggs in M9 buffer [27] overnight at 20 °C with gentle agitation. The fourth larval stage (L4) nematodes were obtained after  $31 \pm 0.5$  hours of development starting from L1 fed with *E-coli* OP50 at 20 °C.

## 2.2. Chemicals

Aflatoxin B1 from *Aspergillus flavus* (AFB1,  $\geq 98\%$  purity), Benzo[a]pyrene (B(a)P,  $\geq 96\%$  purity), Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254, analytical standards grade) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Compounds were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO  $\geq 99.9\%$ , Ultra-Pure Grade) to prepare 20 mM stock solutions. Stock solution 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD, 2 mM in DMSO) was prepared from TCDD compound (purity  $\geq 98\%$ ) purchased from AccuStandard. Stock solutions were further diluted in M9 to make the required exposure concentrations with the final DMSO amount of 0.5% in each sample.

## 2.3. Chemical exposure

Non-lethal concentrations used in our experiments were selected according to the study of Leung and colleagues investigating AFB1 and B(a)P metabolic activation in *C. elegans* [15]. Briefly, we first assessed whether the compound is soluble in the exposure medium. We then tested different concentration of each compound to examine which non-lethal to the nematodes. The absence of mortality among the nematodes (after the exposure period) was confirmed by visual observation through a stereomicroscope. Twenty-four-hour exposure was carried out in Falcon™ 15-mL conical tubes at 20 °C. Each sample was made of 2885  $\mu$ L M9 buffer and 15  $\mu$ L stock solution compound (with a final DMSO concentration of 0.5%). The solvent (0.5% DMSO) has been previously reported not to influence *C. elegans* gene expression [12] or its growth and reproduction at 24-hour exposure [15]. For single-compound exposure, the nematodes were treated in quadruplicate with 30  $\mu$ M for AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254). As TCDD is a very potent toxic compound with lowest effect levels in the pM range (see e.g. Murk et al 1996 [28]). The relative toxic potency compared to PCB mixtures including PCB1254 (comparable to PCB A50) is  $10^5$  -  $10^6$  higher [28], therefore we decided to use a higher non-lethal exposure concentration based on a previous study with *C. elegans* (Bao et al. in preparation). In that study exposure to 10 nM already resulted in significantly delayed larval developments and 10  $\mu$ M still was non-lethal but the larval development was halted. Therefore we chose to expose to 10  $\mu$ M TCDD. Concentration-response experiments were run in triplicate with concentration ranging from 0.01  $\mu$ M to 100  $\mu$ M AFB1, 0.01  $\mu$ M to 40  $\mu$ M B(a)P or 0.1  $\mu$ M to 100  $\mu$ M PCB1254. Exposure with mixtures was performed in duplicate by combining toxicants (AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254) at the concentration of 0.1  $\mu$ M, 1  $\mu$ M, or 10  $\mu$ M per each compound in the mixture. Approximately 10,000 nematodes were used for each sample, and there was no feeding during the exposure period. We chose to use starved L4 larvae to minimize any developmental effects. Our preliminary experiments (data not shown), resulted in better transcriptional responses

in starved nematodes compared to the fed ones. Also, by not feeding the nematodes we expect less influence on the bioavailability or other kinetics of the toxicant as reported elsewhere [29]. After exposure, the nematodes were immediately pelleted by spinning the exposure tubes in a centrifuge for 1 minute, 400 x g (Beckman Coulter's Avanti J-15 centrifuge) at room temperature, followed by removal of the supernatants. Subsequently, pellets were transferred into 2 mL Safe-Lock micro test tubes and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute before storing them at -80 °C until RNA extraction.

## **2.4. Microarray experiments**

RNA template used in microarrays was isolated according to [8]. The mRNA expression profiles were measured using Agilent *C. elegans* (V2) Gene Expression Microarray 4×44K slides. Microarray preparation, hybridization and scanning, and normalization and pre-processing of raw data were performed as described previously in [8]. The primary data were submitted to ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-11143). KEGG pathways, Gene Ontology (GO) and functional domains involving differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were analysed by DAVID software v6.8 [30]. A threshold False Discovery Rate (FDR)  $\leq 0.05$  was considered as significantly enriched in the functional annotation categories.

## **2.5. RT-qPCR assays**

RT-qPCR analyses were conducted for validating microarray data using RNA templates from the same batches as used in the microarray. Separate nematode exposure samples were prepared anew to analyze concentration-response curves of differential gene expression and to test transcriptional effects of the toxicants in mixtures. From these samples total RNA was isolated using TRIzol® Reagent combined with the PureLink® RNA Mini Kit and following the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher MAN0000406) with modifications. Briefly, the nematodes lysates were prepared by adding 1 mL of TRIzol® Reagent to the frozen pellets of nematodes and mixed well by pipetting up and down several times until fully resuspended. The lysates were then incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature to allow dissociation of nucleoproteins complexes. 0.2 mL chloroform (VWR, molecular biology grade) was added to each sample and the tubes were shaken vigorously by hand for 15 seconds followed by incubation for 2 minutes at room temperature. To obtain crude RNA extracts the samples were centrifuged at 12,000 x g (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5424) for 15 minutes at 4°C. Approximately 550 µL of the colorless upper phase liquid containing RNA in each sample was carefully transferred to clean RNAase-free tube. An equal volume of 70% ethanol (Molecular Biology Grade, Fisher BioReagents™) was added and mixed by pipetting up and down to disperse any visible precipitate. After this we resumed the standard protocol including column-based RNA isolation through binding, washing, and elution steps. A NanoDrop spectrophotometer was used to measure RNA quantity and quality, where the purity was assessed by the ratio of absorbance at 260 nm and 280 nm. A260/A280 ratio of 1.8 to 2.0 was considered as pure enough for further use.

The synthesis of cDNA from RNA template, via reverse transcription (RT), was carried out using SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix with ezDNase™ Enzyme and following the manufacturer's guide with minor modifications as described in [8]. PCR primer design and PCR reactions were also performed as described in [8]. Primer sequences used for RT-PCR analysis are provided as supplementary information (**Suppl. Table S1**). Raw data were analyzed in Bio-Rad CFX Manager™ Software v3.0 and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) as housekeeping genes. The stability of expression levels of these genes was confirmed in our experimental conditions using GeNorm approach described in [31].

## 2.6. Data analysis and statistics

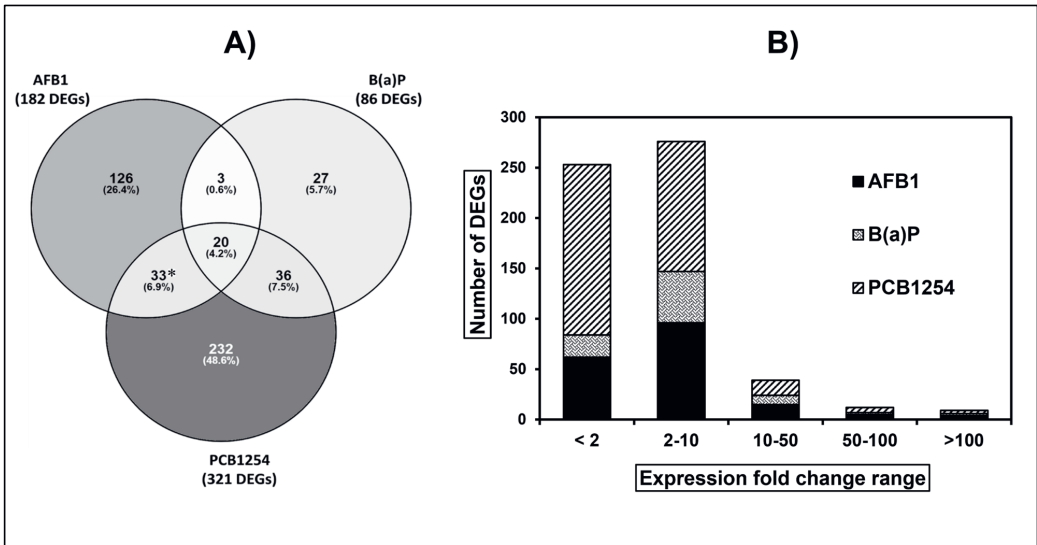
Microarray data was statistically analyzed as described [8]. Linear model analysis was used to assess differentially expressed genes (DEG) per exposure condition whereby a threshold of  $p\text{-value} < 0.0001$  was considered as statistically significant. Custom written scripts for the microarray analysis are available at `Nematology_published_papers / Karengera_2021_Indirect_acting_xenobiotics · GitLab` ([wur.nl](https://www.wur.nl)). RT-qPCR data obtained from concentration-response curves were used to calculate the “Lowest Observed Transcriptional Effect Level” (LOTEL) per gene target tested. LOTEL was considered as the lowest tested concentration that gave a statistically significant expression change for that gene transcript ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). RT-qPCR data obtained with mixtures were analyzed by assuming additivity, so that the combined transcriptional effect on a particular gene equals to the sum of individual effects expected from each compound in the mixture. Experimentally obtained gene expression results (referred to as “actual effect”) were then compared with its counterpart transcription level theoretically calculated by adding up the expected effect from individual compounds (referred to as “predicted effect”) in that mixture. Pearson correlations were calculated between actual and predicted expressions for each compound mixture. Correlations were considered significant at  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ . We then analysed the difference between predicted and measured values to determine additive or inhibitory effects on gene expressions. To validate microarray results, correlation between array and RT-qPCR data (presented as  $\log_2$  fold changes) was determined per treatment condition using “cor function” in excel for computing the Pearson correlation coefficient “*R*”.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Transcriptome response to AFB1, B(a)P, PCB1254, and TCDD

Since non-lethal concentrations were chosen, the nematodes treated with toxicants did not show lethality at all tested concentrations (i.e., microarray or RT-qPCR data), as confirmed by visual observation through a stereomicroscope. We analyzed global gene transcription profiles of *C. elegans* exposed to 30  $\mu\text{M}$  of AFB1, B(a)P, PCB1254, and 10  $\mu\text{M}$  TCDD. Compared to the untreated nematodes, 182, 86, and 321 genes were significantly up- or downregulated in the nematodes treated with AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, respectively. Of

these genes, those with upregulated transcripts were remarkably predominant, as they accounted for around 87% of the total DEGs for AFB1 (159 genes) or PCB1254 (279 genes). For B(a)P treatment, all 86 DEGs were upregulated. Overlap among treatments by AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254 was found for 20 genes only, thus regulation of most genes was treatment-specific, especially for AFB1 and PCB1254 (**Fig. 1A**). Interestingly, 10  $\mu$ M TCDD had 1 DEG, only F59B1.8 was 2.5 fold upregulated, and this gene expressed also in the nematodes treated with 30  $\mu$ M AFB1 (1.3-fold upregulation) or 30  $\mu$ M PCB1254 (2.5-fold upregulation). F59B1.8 is thought to be an innate immune regulator.



**Figure 1.** Overlapping of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The Venn diagram (A) shows the number of significantly regulated genes by 30  $\mu$ M of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, and their overlaps. Asterisk (\*) in figure (A) symbolizes the only one gene (F59B1.8) affected by 10  $\mu$ M TCDD and whose expression overlapped with AFB1 and PCB1254. Bar charts (B) displays the ranges of absolute fold-changes of the transcription levels induced by each treatment.

Gene transcripts with more than 10-fold change in expression (microarray data) represented about 13%, 15%, and 7% of the total genes regulated by 30  $\mu$ M of AFB, B(a)P, and PCB1254, respectively (**Fig. 1B**). The expression levels of some of these genes were dramatically increased by more than 100-fold upregulation by AFB1 (*cyp-14A4*, *cdr-1*, F13H6.3, and B0205.14), B(a)P (*cyp-35C1* and *cyp-35D1*), or PCB1254 (*dhs-23*, R09E12.9,



and F25D1.5). Most genes were mainly regulated in the range of 2- to 10-fold changes including 53%, 59%, or 40% of all DEG in AFB1, B(a)P and PCB1254, respectively. Genes regulated less than 2-fold change were found for 34%, 26%, and 53% of the DEGs in AFB1, B(a)P and PCB1254, respectively.

### 3.2. Functional GO analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

Functional analysis revealed that the main part of upregulated genes (microarray data) was involved in metabolism and detoxification mechanisms of the nematode. The top affected mechanisms for AFB1, B(a)P and PCB1254 were found in the molecular function category as catalytic and oxidoreductase activities as assessed by Gene Ontology (GO) analysis (**Fig. 2 and Suppl. Table S3 – S5**). Further analysis in biological process (BP) category showed that metabolic process counted alone about 51%, 60%, and 40% of all upregulated genes by AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, respectively (**Fig. 2 and Suppl. Table S3 – S5**). These included genes encoding nuclear hormone receptors (NHRs), phase I metabolic enzymes (cytochrome P450s), and phase II conjugation enzymes such as glutathione-S-transferases (GSTs) and UDP-glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs) (**Table 1**).

Among cytochrome P450 genes, *cyp-14A4* and *cyp-35D1* were ranked in the top induced DEGs and were specifically upregulated by AFB1 (888 fold) and B(a)P (113 fold), respectively. Likewise, the transcription of *cyp-35A3* and *cyp-13A6* were the highest upregulated cytochromes by PCB1254 (71 and 57 expression fold, respectively), but their expression was not compound specific as they were also affected by AFB1 (*cyp-13A6*) and B(a)P (*cyp-35A3*). Furthermore, the induction of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) genes (*mrp-3*, *pgp-1*, *pgp-8*, and *pgp-9*), which are essential in xenobiotic detoxification, was found in the nematodes treated with AFB1.

Functional analysis of upregulated genes also showed the induction of defense and immune responses in the nematodes treated with AFB1 and PCB1254. The involved genes included those encoding *C. elegans* proteins like C-type lectins, P450, GSTs, NHRs, cadmium-responsive genes, and others. Treatment with B(a)P was linked with the nematode response to steroid hormones and organic cyclic compounds. These mechanisms were also found with AFB1 and PCB1254 treatments but were statistically not significant (FDR > 0.05). All the genes found to be related to the nematode response to steroid hormones and organic cyclic compounds were exclusively nuclear hormone receptor family members (NHRs) such as *nhr-62* and *nhr-237* (regulated by all compounds), *nhr-142* and *nhr-178* (by AFB1 and B(a)P), *nhr-12*, *nhr-11*, and *nhr-205* (by B(a)P and PCB1254), and others.

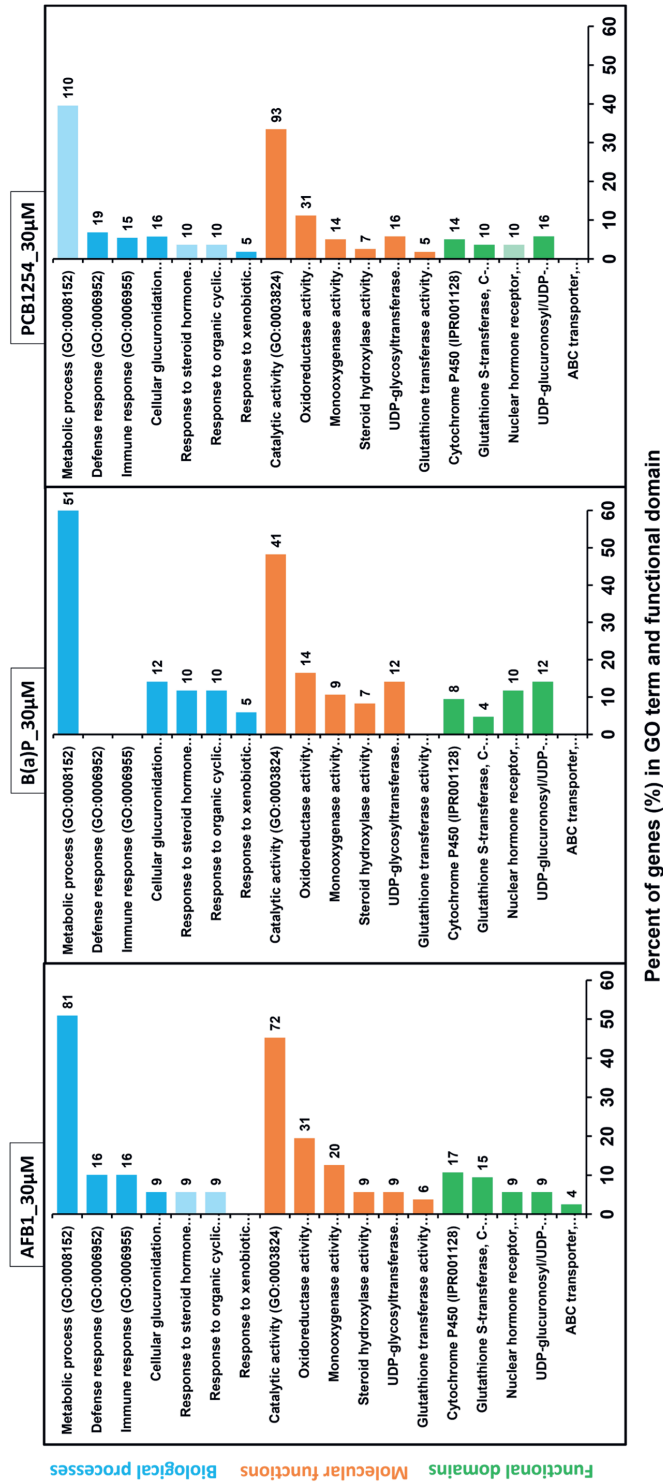
The annotations of individual DEGs showed some genes like *rpa-2*, *chk-1*, *ubql-1*, and *che-3* that can be linked to the genotoxic stress responses in *C. elegans*. Nevertheless, GO analysis did not reveal any of the known mechanisms associated with DNA damage responses (DDR) genes of *C. elegans* such as cell cycle checkpoints and DNA repair. For

the downregulated transcripts, gene set enrichment analysis did not find any significantly affected cellular mechanism

**Table 1.** Genes encoding nuclear receptors and biotransformation enzymes in *C. elegans*. Transcription of these genes were significantly differentially expressed after treatment with AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. TCDD did not influence expression of any gene encoding nuclear receptors and biotransformation enzymes.

Treatment	Nuclear hormone receptor genes	Cytochrome P450 genes	Glutathione S-transferase genes	UDP-glucuronosyltransferase genes
<b>AFB1</b>	<i>nhr-62, nhr-106, nhr-112, nhr-130, nhr-142, nhr-178, nhr-196, nhr-235, nhr-237</i>	<i>cyp-14A4, cyp-35A5, cyp-33C2, cyp-14A1, cyp-33C1, cyp-13A6, cyp-13A7, cyp-25A2, cyp-33C5, cyp-33C4, cyp-33C7, cyp-34A9, cyp-13A10, cyp-33E2, cyp-34A5, cyp-13A3, cyp-13A1</i>	<i>gst-6, gst-7, gst-8, gst-12, gst-14, gst-21, gst-31, gst-33, gst-44, gsto-2</i>	<i>ugt-2, ugt-8, ugt-16, ugt-19, ugt-21, ugt-41, ugt-61, ugt-62</i>
<b>B[a]P</b>	<i>nhr-11, nhr-12, nhr-62, nhr-86, nhr-176, nhr-201, nhr-203, nhr-205, nhr-207, nhr-237</i>	<i>cyp-35A1, cyp-35A5, cyp-35A3, cyp-29A3, cyp-35B1, cyp-35A4, cyp-35C1, cyp-35D1</i>	<i>gst-21, gst-44</i>	<i>ugt-5, ugt-8, ugt-9, ugt-13, ugt-22, ugt-33, ugt-34, ugt-37, ugt-40, ugt-41, ugt-45</i>
<b>PCB1254</b>	<i>nhr-11, nhr-12, nhr-37, nhr-62, nhr-142, nhr-178, nhr-205, nhr-208, nhr-237, nhr-238</i>	<i>cyp-35A3, cyp-13A6, cyp-35C1, cyp-35A1, cyp-35A4, cyp-35A5, cyp-14A2, cyp-34A10, cyp-14A3, cyp-13A9, cyp-13A8, cyp-13A10, cyp-13A7, cyp-34A9, cyp-13A1, cyp-33B1, cyp-33C1</i>	<i>gst-5, gst-6, gst-9, gst-12, gst-14, gst-21, gsto-2</i>	<i>ugt-8, ugt-9, ugt-13, ugt-16, ugt-19, ugt-22, ugt-25, ugt-33, ugt-34, ugt-37, ugt-40, ugt-41, ugt-45, ugt-61</i>





**Figure 2.** Gene Ontology (GO) and domain enrichment analysis terms. Plotted are gene ontologies (in biological process and molecular function categories) and functional domains associated with upregulated genes following 24 hours exposure to 30µM AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. The X-axis denotes percent of genes significantly enriched in a GO or domain term (FDR < 0.05). The light-coloured bars represent numbers at the end of each bar represents gene counts belonging to a corresponding GO term or domains. The light-coloured bars represent GO or domains for which the enrichment was not statistically significant (FDR > 0.05).

### 3.3. Validation of microarray data by RT-qPCR.

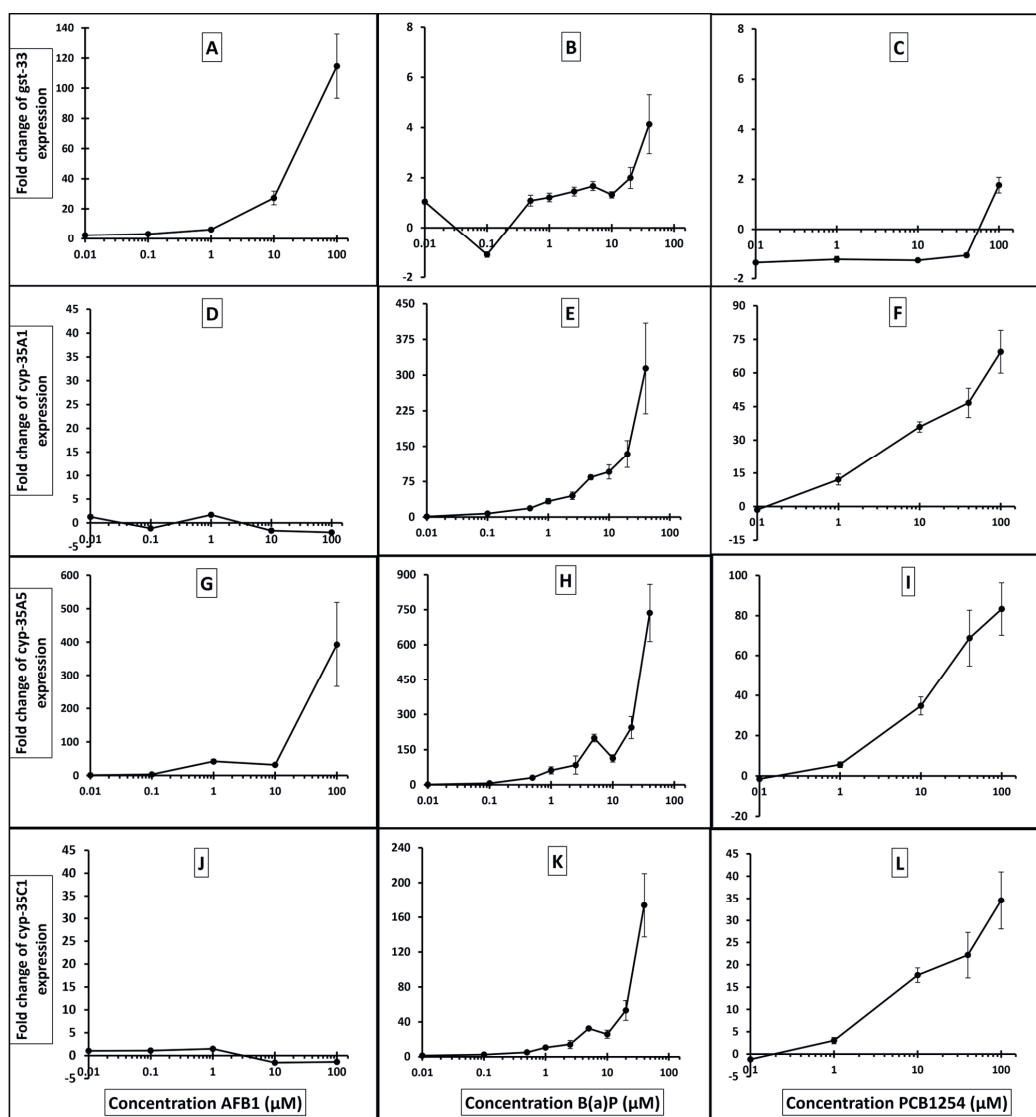
To confirm gene expression results obtained from microarrays we used RT-qPCR for testing transcription of 24 gene targets selected from array data. The selected genes were among the top-ranked microarray transcripts expressed in AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254 treatment. Overall, significant correlation was observed between array and RT-qPCR results as shown by positive correlation coefficients  $R_{(AFB1)} = 0.98$ ,  $R_{(B(a)P)} = 0.96$ , and  $R_{(PCB1254)} = 0.89$  (Suppl. Fig. S3).

### 3.4. Concentration-dependent differential gene expression

Using RT-qPCR we analysed concentration-response curves of mRNA expression of *gst-33*, *cyp-14A3*, *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, *cyp-35A5*, and *cyp-35C1* (Fig. 3 and Suppl. Fig. S1). These genes were among the top-ranked transcripts (microarray data) whose expression changes were validated using RT-qPCR. They were included in the analysis to enable the measurement of effects induced by the relatively low concentrations of AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254. For each compound, the “Lowest Observed Transcriptional Effect Level” (LOTEL) was determined. The lowest concentration inducing transcriptional effect (LOTEL) was 0.01  $\mu\text{M}$  for AFB1, 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  for B(a)P, and 1  $\mu\text{M}$  for PCB1254 (Table 2). At these concentrations, *gst-33* expressed in AFB1, *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A5*, and *cyp-35C1* in B(a)P, and *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, *cyp-35A5*, and *cyp-35C1* in PCB1254 (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Lowest Observed Transcriptional Effect Levels (LOTEL) of toxicants per individual biotransformation-related gene target. The table shows LOTELs values selected from concentration-response curves of differential gene expression, as determined RT-qPCR. TCDD did not influence expression of these genes.

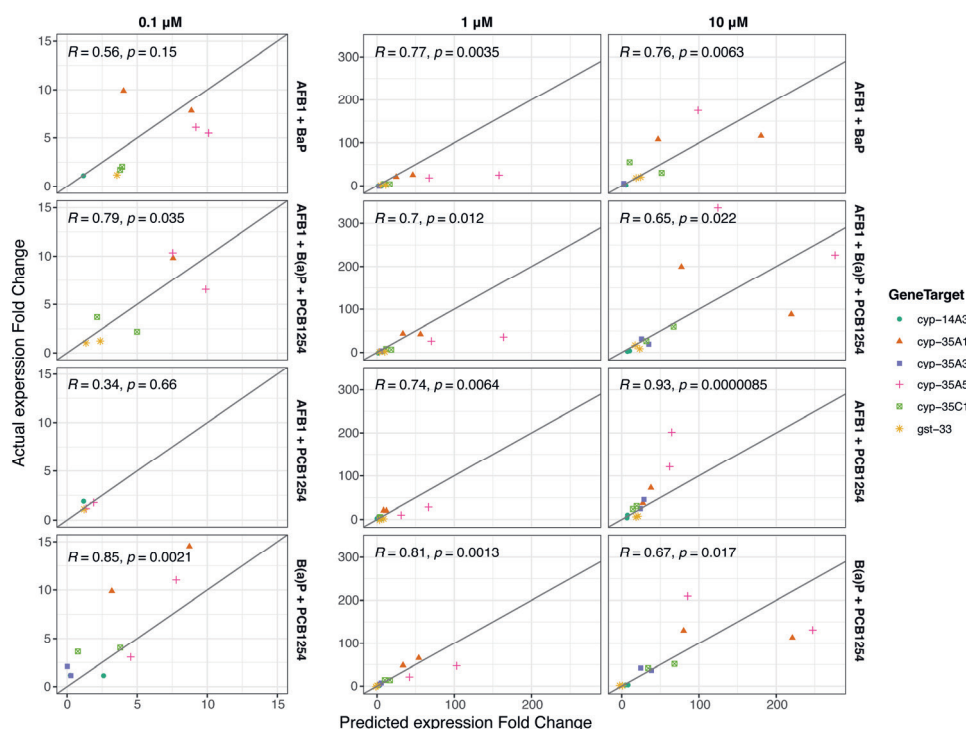
Gene name	AFB1		B(a)P		PCB1254	
	LOTEL ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Fold change	LOTEL ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Fold change	LOTEL ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Fold change
<i>gst-33</i>	0.01	2.2	20	2.0	-	-
<i>cyp-14A3</i>	1	2.0	-	-	10	5.5
<i>cyp-35A1</i>	-	-	0.1	7.2	1	12.1
<i>cyp-35A3</i>	-	-	1	2.1	1	3.2
<i>cyp-35A5</i>	0.1	2.9	0.1	7.0	1	5.6
<i>cyp-35C1</i>	-	-	0.1	2.5	1	3.0



**Figure 3.** Concentration-response curves of differential gene expression in *C. elegans*. L4 juveniles were treated with toxicants ranging from 0.01  $\mu\text{M}$  to 100  $\mu\text{M}$  AFB1, from 0.01  $\mu\text{M}$  to 40  $\mu\text{M}$  B(a)P or from 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  to 100  $\mu\text{M}$  PCB1254 for 24 hours. Concentration-dependent relative mRNA expression changes of *gst-33* (A, B & C), *cyp-35A1* (D, E, & F), *cyp-35A5* (G, H, & I), and *cyp-35C1* (J, K, & L) genes were determined by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) genes. Data represent the mean fold changes  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM) in three independent biological replicates (n).

### 3.5. Transcriptional effects of compounds in mixtures

We measured also joint transcriptional effects of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254 tested in mixtures at the concentration of 0.1  $\mu$ M, 1  $\mu$ M, or 10  $\mu$ M for each component. The RT-qPCR assay was used to assess the mRNA expression levels of *gst-33*, *cyp-14A3*, *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, *cyp-35A5*, and *cyp-35C1*. Overall, significant positive correlations were found between actual and predicted expressions for compound mixtures, especially at 1  $\mu$ M and 10  $\mu$ M, as shown by positive correlation coefficients (**Fig. 4**).



**Figure 4.** Comparison between actual and predicted joint transcriptional effects of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254 in mixtures. 24-hour exposure was started in *C. elegans* L4 larvae with combined toxicants (AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254) at the concentration of 0.1 $\mu$ M, 1 $\mu$ M, or 10 $\mu$ M per each mixture component. The mRNA expression changes of *cyp-14A3*, *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, *cyp-35C1*, and *gst-33* were determined by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) genes. Pearson correlations were calculated between actual and predicted expressions for each compound mixture. Correlations were considered significant at  $p < 0.05$ . Data represent the actual and predicted expression fold changes (not log-transformed values). Two independent biological replicates were carried out.

Nevertheless, some mixtures triggered either increase or reduction in the actual expression levels of the target genes compared to the predicted effects assuming additivity (**Suppl. Fig. S2**), especially in the mixture containing AFB1. For instance, *gst-33* in the nematodes treated with 10- $\mu$ M based mixtures was predicted to be upregulated by 22 fold (for AFB1 + B(a)P), 28 fold (for AFB1 + PCB1254), or 20 fold (for AFB1 + B(a)P + PCB1254). Instead, the actual *gst-33* expression was 20-fold, 7-fold, and 13-fold upregulation in respective aforementioned mixtures. Noteworthy, B(a)P and PCB1254 (individually or in mixture) did not have significant effect on *gst-33* expression. Based on single-compound exposure, only AFB1 induced *gst-33* expression with 29-fold upregulation in the 10  $\mu$ M concentration.

#### 4. Discussion

In this study, we determined transcriptional effects of indirect-acting model toxicants and TCDD in *C. elegans*. Several differentially expressed genes, especially those encoding biotransformation enzymes, were detected by microarrays for 30  $\mu$ M AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. For these three compounds, we also identified many genes whose expression is regulated by nuclear hormone receptor (NHR) transcription factors. Consistent with literature [20], our findings using microarray showed that, even at the very high exposure concentration 10  $\mu$ M used, *C. elegans* is insensitive to the transcriptional effects of TCDD whose mode of action is AhR-dependent.

Compounds tested in this study are known to be metabolically activated by mammalian cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes. AFB1 is mainly metabolized by human CYP1A2 and CYP3A4 [21], B(a)P by CYP1A1 and CYP1B1 in mice [22], and PCB1254 by CYB2B, 2C, and 3A subfamilies in humans or rodents [23, 24]. TCDD is metabolized in rats as well as in humans by CYP1A1, but it is very persistent [25, 32]. The genes encoding phase I enzymes in *C. elegans* have been found to be closely related to the mammalian CYP2, 3, and 4 families [13], whereas CYP1-like metabolism is absent in the nematode [15]. In agreement with this literature, our findings revealed 17 CYP genes regulated by AFB1 that are related to the mammalian CYP2 (*C. elegans cyp-14A*, 33C, 33E, 34A, 35A subfamilies) and CYP3 (*C. elegans cyp-13A* subfamily and 25A2 gene) (**Suppl. Table S2**). Among the eight CYP genes affected by B(a)P, seven are *C. elegans* CYP35 family members (*cyp-35A*, 35B, 35C, 35D subfamilies) and *cyp-29A3*, which are related to the mammalian CYP2 and CYP4, respectively (**Suppl. Table S2**). For the nematodes treated with PCB1254, we found 17 CYP genes related to the mammalian CYP2 (*C. elegans cyp-14A*, 33B, 33C, 34A, 35A, 35C subfamilies), and CYP3 (*C. elegans cyp-13A* subfamily) (**Suppl. Table S2**).

Some human orthologues to *C. elegans* CYP genes, including those found in our study, have been previously reported [33]. The human *CYP4V2*, whose transcript is inducible by B(a)P in HepG2 human hepatocytes [34], is an orthologue to the nematode *cyp-29A3* that in our study was upregulated (~5-fold increase) by only B(a)P. Our data also revealed that the transcripts of both *cyp-35A3* and *cyp-35A4* were increased by B(a)P and PCB1254.

Previously, regulation of these genes was found to be restricted to the typical inducers of mammalian CYP1A such as  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone, PCB52, lansoprazole, and fluoranthene [12]. In human cell lines, cytochromes of CYP1A subfamily (*CYP1A1* and *CYP1A2*) are strongly inducible by B(a)P or PCB1254 [34, 35]. We also found that *C. elegans cyp-35D1*, previously reported to not be regulated by the inducers of mammalian CYP1 (like B(a)P or others) [12], was unexpectedly strongly upregulated in B(a)P exposure (~113-fold). Other nematode CYP35 regulated in our study by B(a)P or PCB1254 (e.g., *cyp-35A1*, *35A5*, *35B1*, and *35C1*) are reported to be orthologues to human *CYP2C18*, *CYP2D7*, and *CYP2E1* [33]. These human P450 proteins are not transcriptionally induced by B(a)P [34] or PCB1254 [24]. Further, our study also identified the regulation of the nematode CYP13A subfamily (*cyp-13A1*, *A7*, *A8*, and *A10*) by AFB1 or PCB1254. These genes are reported to be the orthologues to the mammalian *CYP3A4* and *CYP3A5* [33]. In comparison with the literature, *CYP3A4* can indeed be upregulated by AFB1 in HepG2 cell line [36], while *CYP3A5* is upregulated by PCB1254 in Caco-2 cells but not in HepG2 cell line [35]. Overall, our study showed that *C. elegans* biotransformation of xenobiotics is indeed transcriptionally inducible by the studied compounds (except TCDD) via phase I metabolism comparable to mammals.

We also found many differential expressed genes linked to the phase II metabolism of xenobiotics. These included genes encoding glutathione-S-transferases (GSTs) and UDP-glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs), which are involved in *C. elegans* resistance against oxidative stress [9, 37]. Genes encoding P-glycoproteins (*pgp-8* and *pgp-9*), multidrug resistance protein (*pgp-1*), and one hypothetical protein (*mrp-3*) were upregulated in the nematodes treated with AFB1. These four genes encode ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters that are involved in xenobiotic detoxification by facilitating the transport of toxicants across cell membranes [38, 39] resulting in excretion. *C. elegans pgp-1* is homolog to the mammalian drug transporters such as *MDR1* and *MDR3* in humans or *Mdr1a* and *Mdr1b* in rodents [40]. Rat *Mdr1b* is transcriptionally inducible by genotoxic carcinogens including AFB1 [41]. In *C. elegans*, *pgp-1* is involved in the detoxification of heavy metals like cadmium (Cd) and arsenic (As) [42]. Compared to the Cd-regulated genes in *C. elegans* [43], many transcripts were similarly expressed in our study, including 40 and 27 genes in the nematodes treated with AFB1 and PCB1254, respectively. For AFB1-treated nematodes, the overlaps with Cd-induced genes included all four ABC transporter genes mentioned above together with the top three most expressed genes (*cyp-14A4*, *cdr-1*, and *cest-33*), eight cytochrome P450 genes, and five UGT genes. This suggests similar mechanisms of *C. elegans* detoxifying Cd and AFB1. The well-known cadmium-responsive gene *cdr-1* [44] was also regulated by PCB1254 and B(a)P.

NHRs are ligand-activated transcription factors that regulate several vital functions in *C. elegans* [45]. There are 284 NHRs in *C. elegans* but only few of them has been well characterized [46]. In this study, we found differential expression of many genes which are

regulated by nuclear hormone receptor (NHR) transcription factors NHR-8, NHR-86, and NHR-114. Receptor NHR-8, a homolog of mammalian liver X and vitamin D receptors, regulates *C. elegans* development, reproduction, and aging by controlling cholesterol and bile acid homeostasis [47]. NHR-114 is required for nematode fertility and germline stem cell maintenance [48], whereas NHR-86 regulates anti-pathogen responses [46]. These results suggest that the tested compounds can provoke the same responses maybe by acting as ligands to the above receptors.

The aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) is another ligand-activated transcription factor which mediates biological and toxicological activity of many chemicals in mammals including dioxins and related compounds [16, 17]. The AhR homolog (AHR-1) in *C. elegans* is encoded by the *ahr-1* gene, but the spectrum of its ligands (if there are any) is allegedly different from that of the mammalian AhR [20]. Indeed, to our knowledge, no exogenous ligand has ever been shown to directly bind and induce *C. elegans* AHR-1. AHR-1 possibly is sensitive to endogenous ligands [49, 50], and has been shown to regulate in *C. elegans* important physiological processes such as neuronal development [18], locomotion, egg laying, defecation behaviors, and fatty acid synthesis [19]. Our findings showed that only one gene (F59B1.8), involved in the nematode innate immune response [51], was regulated by TCDD. This seems to be in line with the literature that *C. elegans* AHR-1 does not bind TCDD [20], hence is transcriptionally insensitive. Nevertheless, a previous study showed that TCDD does delay the early larval development in *C. elegans* as shown by significant developmental delays for L3 larvae to reach L4 stage of larval growth, even in larvae that only were maternally exposed to levels as low as 10 nM of TCDD [Bao et al. in preparation]. These effects could be explained by baseline toxicity (known as narcosis), a characteristic of many organic xenobiotics, which typically induces non-specific disruption of the integrity and functioning of cell membranes [52].

Our study also identified gene transcripts that can be linked to the toxicological effects of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. Among the affected genes, we found those regulated by transcription factors ELT-2, MDT-15, SKN-1, or DAF-16 in *C. elegans*. ELT-2 is presumably homolog to human GATA6 and regulates genes involved in the nematodes innate immune responses [51]. MDT-15 dependent genes are linked to *C. elegans* oxidative stress resistance and cyto-protection [53]. SKN-1 is ortholog of mammalian Nrf proteins [54] and is a major regulator of the genes involved in oxidative stress response and longevity of *C. elegans* [55]. A FOXO-family transcription factor (DAF-16) and its downstream genes are linked to *C. elegans* aging and stress responses via insulin/insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-I) signaling [56, 57]. Furthermore, we found overlap between our data and the transcriptional profiles of other compounds in literature, like cadmium [43] and deoxynivalenol [58] known to be toxic to the *C. elegans* reproduction, development, and lifespan. Overall these findings suggest that the adverse effects expected from the tested toxicants were also represented by transcriptional profiles found in this study. Nonetheless, despite DNA-damaging



properties (especially AFB1 and B(a)P), no differential expression was found among the genes encoding DNA repair and cell cycle checkpoint proteins, which was consistent with the findings with direct-acting genotoxic model compounds [8].

In this study, we also analyzed concentration-dependent transcriptional effects of the toxicants and determined the Lowest Observed Transcriptional Effect Levels (LOTEL). This is a toxicological dose descriptor comparable to the Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level (LOAEL) commonly used to relate the toxic effects of a chemical substance and the dose at which it takes place. Toxicogenomic studies in literature have previously advocated using threshold doses like LOTEL to evaluate toxicological profiles of chemicals [59, 60]. From concentration-response curves obtained in our study, the lowest concentration inducing transcriptional effects (LOTEL) among the tested gene targets were 0.01  $\mu\text{M}$  for AFB1, 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  for B(a)P, and 1  $\mu\text{M}$  for PCB1254. In comparison with literature, these LOTEL values were about 541-fold for AFB1, 2-fold for B(a)P, or 48-fold for PCB1254 smaller than the median effective concentrations ( $\text{EC}_{50}$ ) for toxic effects on *C. elegans* reproduction. For 72-hour exposure,  $\text{EC}_{50}$  that caused reproductive toxicity is equivalent to 5.41  $\mu\text{M}$  for AFB1 [61], 0.23  $\mu\text{M}$  for B(a)P [62], and 47.82  $\mu\text{M}$  for PCB52 [11]. These results suggest that transcriptional effects in *C. elegans* are occurring at a concentration much lower than developmental effects, as is also the case in vertebrates like zebrafish embryotoxicity test (ZET) [63].

Furthermore, we assessed the joint transcriptional effects of the toxicants in mixtures by comparing the actual and predicted changes in gene expression. The findings suggest possible interactions between compounds in mixtures, as shown by increase or reduction in the actual measured expression levels compared to the predicted expression of the target genes. The observed potential interactions were more apparent for the mixtures containing AFB1. According to microarray results from this study, AFB1 regulated *cyp-35A5* only among the *C. elegans* CYP-35 family members known to be strongly inducible by many xenobiotics [12]. Despite this, AFB1 combined with either B(a)P or PCB1254 in mixtures seemed to influence the joint effects by either increasing or reducing the transcription levels of other CYP-35 genes (i.e., *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, and *cyp-35C1*) tested in this study. Further research is needed to elaborate the possible mechanisms underlying such interactions between toxicants.

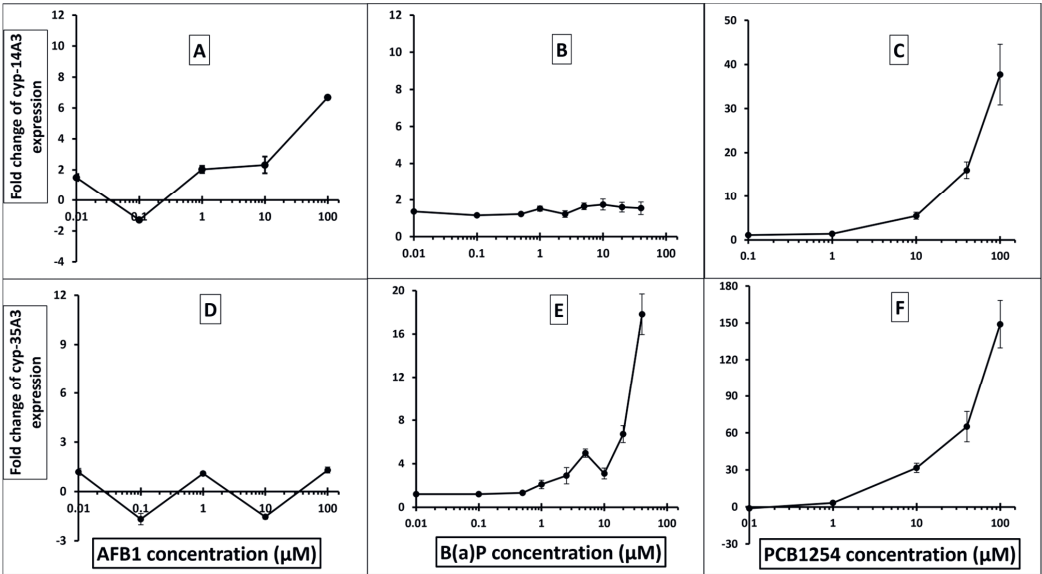
Overall, we identified transcriptional responses of *C. elegans* to toxic substances requiring metabolic bioactivation. Several genes involved in xenobiotic biotransformation were regulated by AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, suggesting that these compounds are metabolized in the nematode via phase I and II, or detoxified via transmembrane export as found for AFB1. These findings extend the knowledge on transcriptional inducibility of the nematode biotransformation enzymes in response to indirect-acting compounds. Moreover, this research adds important details about *C. elegans* gene expression profiles in response



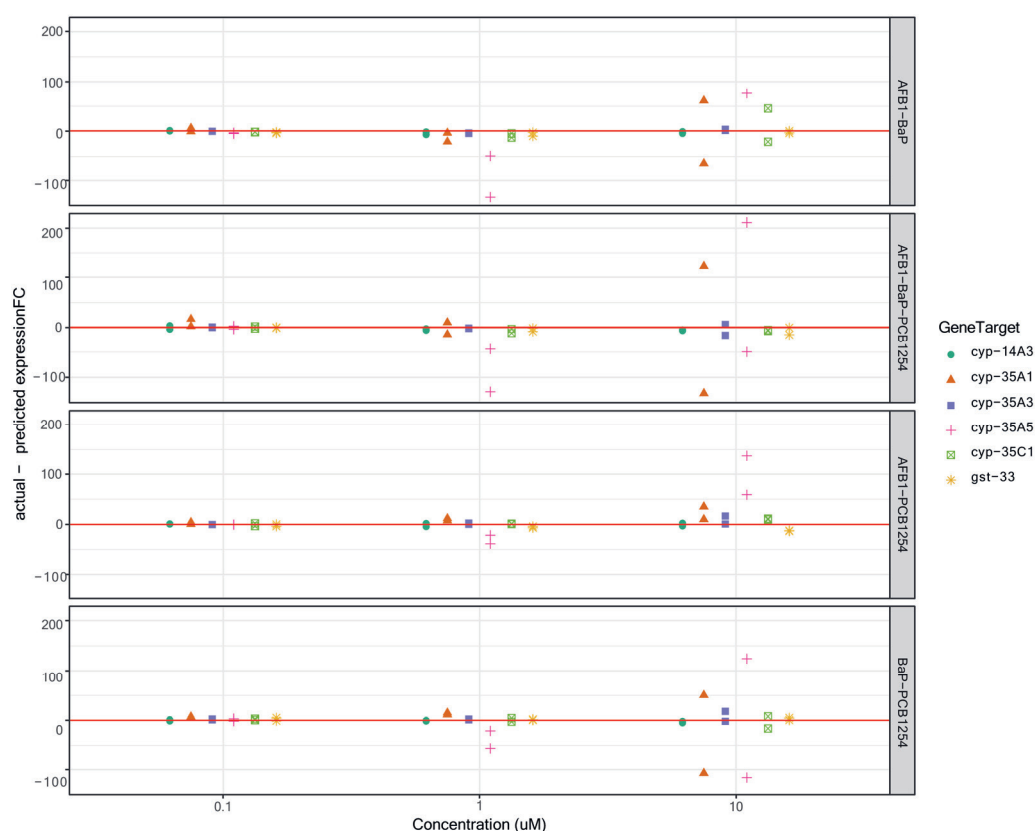
to prototypes of mycotoxins, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and polychlorinated biphenyls contaminants. Importantly, this study revealed differential gene expressions which can be associated with toxicological activities of the tested compounds. We also found many candidate gene transcripts that can be used as transcriptional biomarkers for detecting the presence of these compounds. Whereas the mammalian aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) mediates CYP1A1 induction and toxicological effects of dioxins and a multitude of dioxin-like compounds through ligand interaction, *C. elegans* did not respond to 10  $\mu$ M TCDD in our study while already exposure to 10 nM was enough to induce developmental effects (Bao et al. in preparation). It is interesting to further assess the effects of TCDD at a broader range of concentrations as well as other dioxin-like compounds.

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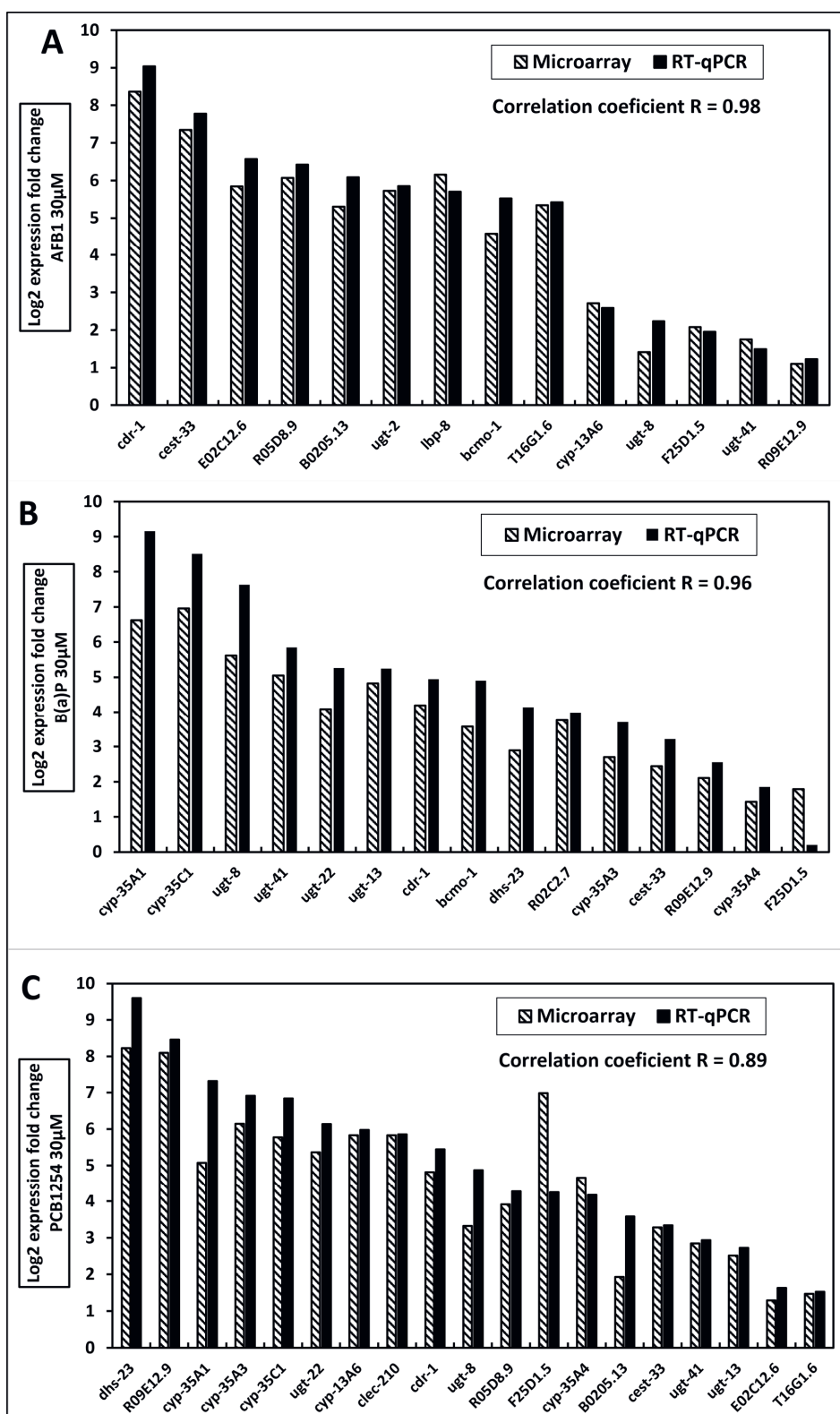
Supporting information of chapter 3



**Suppl. Figure S1.** Concentration-response curves of differential gene expression in *C. elegans*. L4 juveniles were treated with toxicants ranging from 0.01 $\mu\text{M}$  to 100 $\mu\text{M}$  AFB1, from 0.01 $\mu\text{M}$  to 40 $\mu\text{M}$  B(a)P or from 0.1 $\mu\text{M}$  to 100 $\mu\text{M}$  PCB1254 for 24 hours. Concentration-dependent relative mRNA expression changes of *cyp-14A3* (A, B, & C) and *cyp-35A3* (D, E, & F) genes were determined by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) genes. Data represent the mean fold changes  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM) in three independent biological replicates (n).



**Suppl. Figure S2.** Comparison between actual and predicted joint transcriptional effects of mixtures of AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254. A 24-hour exposure was started in *C. elegans* L4 larvae with combined toxicants (AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254) at the concentration of 0.1 $\mu$ M, 1 $\mu$ M, or 10 $\mu$ M per each component. The mRNA expression changes of *cyp-14A3*, *cyp-35A1*, *cyp-35A3*, *cyp-35C1*, and *gst-33* were determined by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) genes. Data represent the differences between actual and predicted expression fold change (not log-transformed values). Two independent biological replicates were carried out.



**Suppl. Figure S3.** Validation of gene expression microarray analysis by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR). The mRNA expression changes of the top ranked regulated genes were determined by RT-qPCR and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) genes. Three independent biological replicates were run using the RNA template from 30μM-treated microarray samples. For these genes, log2 expression fold changes measured by microarray were compared to the log2 expression fold changes measured by RT-qPCR. The correlation coefficient R was calculated for each treatment, resulting in R = 0.98, R = 0.96, and 0.89 for AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, respectively.

**Suppl. Table S1.** List of primer sequences used for RT-PCR analysis.

Gene symbol	NCBI accession No	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
B0205.13	NM_001047165.5	tggtgttggtattggattgg	aaaatggaccagcaccttctt
<i>bcmo-1</i>	NM_064328.3	gtccagaacccaagagtg	gagctgagtagaacatctttcca
<i>cdr-1</i>	NM_074585.9	tttaaaattccgtcgttccaac	tcaaaagggcatgagaagga
<i>cest-33</i>	NM_072220.5	ccgttcaaggctgctgttc	ttctcccatatctcggcg
<i>clcc-210</i>	NM_071454.6	cctgtgccgattgatgctc	agctttgaggctcagtggtgc
<i>cyp-13A6</i>	NM_063712.4	ttaggaacgacagcaaacacg	tgtccaaatgtctcacaagc
<i>cyp-35A1</i>	NM_001356694	tgtccacgcttgatctgttc	ccaaaacacccatttctgtct
<i>cyp-35A3</i>	NM_071720	gctgcgtgtttaagttggct	gttgccgtattctttctgagc
<i>cyp-35A4</i>	NM_071723	cgaaaacccgctgaagtttg	caagctcgggtgtgatagt
<i>cyp-35A5</i>	NM_071691	gaggcattgaaaagatatgacga	ttcttgaccagtcagccac
<i>cyp-35C1</i>	NM_171550	ttgcttcccaattgagtgct	tccaatgattaaatcacgtcggc
<i>dhs-23</i>	NM_074419.5	gtgttgccgatgtttgcga	agcaccagcattattgaccaagat
E02C12.6	NM_073025.3	caggaaacgctgtgaaagagg	gtcttgaagctcttggaaacga
F25D1.5	NM_073303.5	gtgccaatttagctgacgga	cagagtgctgtgtgggc
<i>lbp-8</i>	NM_074043.5	gatggtgacacttgacattca	aaccaaagtgtgttaggatcgc
R02C2.7	NM_001028893.3	gtcctatactgctggagatgc	aaaacgagccacagatctc
R05D8.9	NM_071352.2	tcaattcaccaggtgtgcag	aaactcatcatctctctcaaagc
R09E12.9	NM_001038410.4	gaagcaaagccatcacccgc	tgtcgcctctctcttccag
T16G1.6	NM_073833.6	gcatccagttctaaaggcagt	tcgtcgttgaacatctgtacc
<i>ugt-13</i>	NM_071916.7	cagcctgttttgagatcgt	tgagcgagatagagccctg
<i>ugt-2</i>	NM_073271.3	atttttgctcgtttacctcg	ggctctccaaatgcatgtga
<i>ugt-22</i>	NM_070232.4	tccctgctccaacatttgac	cattttgcttaaaatgctctggc
<i>ugt-41</i>	NM_072417.5	ttccaagagcgactgacaa	cgatggtattctgactcgacc
<i>ugt-8</i>	NM_071914.5	ctgctacccaacttctaagg	tccgagactagatggctgtc
<i>par-5</i>	NM_069834.6	atagatgatattgctgccg	ggatttcttggcgagttgt
<i>tbg-1</i>	NM_066730.9	attctctgtcgcgccgaatc	acaacaggagagatagcgga

**Suppl. Table S2.** A selection of pathways conserved between *C. elegans* and mammals which were differentially expressed in response to 30 µM of AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254.

Pathway	Regulated mRNA expression in <i>C. elegans</i>			Mammalian homolog or ortholog	Physiological functions in <i>C. elegans</i>	Reference
	30 µM AFB1	30 µM B(a)P	30 µM PCB1254			
P450-mediated metabolism	-	-	-	CYP1 family	Phase I metabolism	[13], [33] [12], [15]
	<i>cyp-14A4</i> , <i>cyp-14A1</i> , <i>cyp-33C1</i> , <i>cyp-33C2</i> , <i>cyp-33C5</i> , <i>cyp-33C4</i> , <i>cyp-33C7</i> , <i>cyp-33E2</i> , <i>cyp-34A9</i> , <i>cyp-34A5</i> , <i>cyp-35A5</i>	<i>cyp-35A1</i> , <i>cyp-35A3</i> , <i>cyp-35A4</i> , <i>cyp-35A5</i> , <i>cyp-35B1</i> , <i>cyp-35C1</i> , <i>cyp-35D1</i>	<i>cyp-14A2</i> , <i>cyp-14A3</i> , <i>cyp-34A9</i> , <i>cyp-33B1</i> , <i>cyp-33C1</i> , <i>cyp-35A1</i> , <i>cyp-35A3</i> , <i>cyp-35A4</i> , <i>cyp-35A5</i> , <i>cyp-35C1</i> ,	CYP2 family		
	<i>cyp-13A6</i> , <i>cyp-13A7</i> , <i>cyp-13A10</i> , <i>cyp-13A3</i> , <i>cyp-13A1</i> , <i>cyp-25A2</i>	-	<i>cyp-13A6</i> , <i>cyp-34A10</i> , <i>cyp-13A9</i> , <i>cyp-13A8</i> , <i>cyp-13A10</i> , <i>cyp-13A7</i> , <i>cyp-13A1</i> ,	CYP3 family		
	-	<i>cyp-29A3</i>	-	CYP4 family		
	<i>pqp-1</i>	-	-	<i>MDR1</i> , <i>MDR3</i>	Phase III metabolism	[42]
Nuclear Receptor	-	<i>nhr-8*</i>	-	<i>LXR</i>	Development, reproduction, aging	[47]
	-	-	-	<i>AHR</i>	Neuronal development, locomotion, egg laying, defecation behaviors, fatty acid synthesis	[19] [20]

(-) No gene involved in the corresponding pathway was found in the nematode exposed to the toxicant

(\*) The transcript of *nhr-8* was not differentially induced by AFB1 or PCB1254, but several downstream genes of the nematode NHR-8 were regulated in the nematodes treated with AFB1 or PCB1254. This was also observed for *nhr-86* and *nhr-114* (not included in the table as they were not differentially regulated in exposure (i.e., AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254) but the transcription levels of many of their downstream genes were differentially affected.

**Suppl. Table S3.** KEGG pathway enrichment for upregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  0.05).

	<b># genes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>FDR</b>
<b>30uM AFB1 treatment</b>			
cel00980:Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	9	5.7	2.51E-10
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	8	5.0	2.09E-08
cel00480:Glutathione metabolism	7	4.4	1.25E-06
cel00983:Drug metabolism - other enzymes	4	2.5	4.18E-03
<b>KEGG pathways under 30uM B(a)P treatment</b>			
cel00980:Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	3	3.5	2.51E-02
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	3	3.5	2.51E-02
<b>KEGG pathways under 30uM PCB1254 treatment</b>			
cel00980:Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	7	2.5	6.49E-06
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	6	2.2	1.88E-04

**Suppl. Table S4.** Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis in biological processes (BP) category for upregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  0.05).

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>30uM AFB1 treatment</b>			
GO:0055114 oxidation-reduction process	31	19.5	2.52E-11
GO:0044710 single-organism metabolic process	45	28.3	2.46E-08
GO:0009813 flavonoid biosynthetic process	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0052695 cellular glucuronidation	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0019585 glucuronate metabolic process	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0052696 flavonoid glucuronidation	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0006063 uronic acid metabolic process	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0009812 flavonoid metabolic process	9	5.7	3.36E-05
GO:0045087 innate immune response	16	10.1	4.29E-05
GO:0006955 immune response	16	10.1	5.25E-05
GO:0002376 immune system process	16	10.1	5.34E-05
GO:0008152 metabolic process	81	50.9	1.09E-03
GO:0032787 monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	11	6.9	1.99E-03
GO:0006952 defense response	16	10.1	2.60E-03
<b>30uM B(a)P treatment</b>			
GO:0052696 flavonoid glucuronidation	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0006063 uronic acid metabolic process	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0009812 flavonoid metabolic process	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0009813 flavonoid biosynthetic process	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0052695 cellular glucuronidation	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0019585 glucuronate metabolic process	12	14.1	1.10E-11
GO:0044710 single-organism metabolic process	31	36.5	5.59E-08
GO:0032787 monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	13	15.3	9.91E-08
GO:0009410 response to xenobiotic stimulus	5	5.9	2.95E-06
GO:0019752 carboxylic acid metabolic process	13	15.3	3.30E-05
GO:0043436 oxoacid metabolic process	13	15.3	3.30E-05
GO:0044281 small molecule metabolic process	17	20.0	5.89E-05
GO:0006082 organic acid metabolic process	13	15.3	6.36E-05
GO:0042221 response to chemical	23	27.1	3.76E-04
GO:0055114 oxidation-reduction process	14	16.5	6.05E-04
GO:0048545 response to steroid hormone	10	11.8	6.05E-04
GO:0071396 cellular response to lipid	10	11.8	6.05E-04
GO:0043401 steroid hormone mediated signaling pathway	10	11.8	6.05E-04
GO:0071383 cellular response to steroid hormone stimulus	10	11.8	6.05E-04
GO:0033993 response to lipid	10	11.8	6.08E-04
GO:0009755 hormone-mediated signaling pathway	10	11.8	6.12E-04
GO:0008152 metabolic process	51	60.0	7.58E-04
GO:0071407 cellular response to organic cyclic compound	10	11.8	9.23E-04
GO:0032870 cellular response to hormone stimulus	10	11.8	1.01E-03
GO:0009725 response to hormone	10	11.8	1.01E-03
GO:0014070 response to organic cyclic compound	10	11.8	1.27E-03
GO:0070887 cellular response to chemical stimulus	12	14.1	1.55E-03
GO:0071495 cellular response to endogenous stimulus	10	11.8	2.22E-03
GO:0010033 response to organic substance	12	14.1	3.04E-03
GO:0009719 response to endogenous stimulus	10	11.8	3.14E-03
GO:0071310 cellular response to organic substance	11	12.9	3.84E-03
GO:0006790 sulfur compound metabolic process	6	7.1	5.41E-03
GO:1901576 organic substance biosynthetic process	25	29.4	7.88E-03
GO:0009058 biosynthetic process	25	29.4	1.13E-02
<b>30uM PCB1254 treatment</b>			
GO:0019585 glucuronate metabolic process	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0052696 flavonoid glucuronidation	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0052695 cellular glucuronidation	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0006063 uronic acid metabolic process	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0009812 flavonoid metabolic process	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0009813 flavonoid biosynthetic process	16	5.8	1.37E-11
GO:0044710 single-organism metabolic process	65	23.4	1.37E-11
GO:0055114 oxidation-reduction process	31	11.2	4.90E-07
GO:0032787 monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	17	6.1	1.08E-05
GO:0009410 response to xenobiotic stimulus	5	1.8	2.86E-04
GO:0006082 organic acid metabolic process	19	6.8	2.41E-03
GO:0019752 carboxylic acid metabolic process	18	6.5	2.63E-03
GO:0043436 oxoacid metabolic process	18	6.5	2.63E-03
GO:0035966 response to topologically incorrect protein	9	3.2	9.76E-03
GO:0006950 response to stress	33	11.9	1.53E-02
GO:0006952 defense response	19	6.8	1.56E-02
GO:0045087 innate immune response	15	5.4	2.08E-02
GO:0035967 cellular response to topologically incorrect protein	8	2.9	2.23E-02
GO:0006955 immune response	15	5.4	2.28E-02
GO:0010033 response to organic substance	20	7.2	2.28E-02
GO:0002376 immune system process	15	5.4	2.34E-02
GO:0071310 cellular response to organic substance	18	6.5	2.85E-02



**Suppl. Table S5.** Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis in functional domains category for upregulated genes analyzed in DAVID software (False Discovery Rate, FDR  $\leq$  0.05)

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>30uM AFB1 treatment</b>			
IPR017972: Cytochrome P450, conserved site	17	10.7	1.63E-16
IPR002401: Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	17	10.7	1.63E-16
IPR001128: Cytochrome P450	17	10.7	2.18E-16
IPR010987: Glutathione S-transferase, C-terminal-like	15	9.4	4.60E-14
IPR015897: CHK kinase-like	11	6.9	4.77E-13
IPR012877: Uncharacterised kinase D1044.1	11	6.9	1.38E-12
IPR012336: Thioredoxin-like fold	16	10.1	2.59E-10
IPR004046: Glutathione S-transferase, C-terminal	11	6.9	4.62E-10
IPR004045: Glutathione S-transferase, N-terminal	11	6.9	6.12E-10
IPR002213: UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-glucosyltransferase	9	5.7	4.56E-06
IPR020904: Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase, conserved site	7	4.4	1.41E-05
IPR002347: Glucose/ribitol dehydrogenase	8	5.0	8.02E-05
IPR005442: Glutathione S-transferase, omega-class	3	1.9	7.61E-03
IPR016040: NAD(P)-binding domain	8	5.0	8.51E-03
IPR006582: MD domain	3	1.9	9.84E-03
IPR000536: Nuclear hormone receptor, ligand-binding, core	9	5.7	3.13E-02
IPR011009: Protein kinase-like domain	12	7.5	3.13E-02
IPR011527: ABC transporter, transmembrane domain, type 1	4	2.5	3.34E-02
IPR002018: Carboxylesterase, type B	4	2.5	4.48E-02
<b>30uM B(a)P treatment</b>			
IPR002213: UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-glucosyltransferase	12	14.1	4.91E-12
IPR017972: Cytochrome P450, conserved site	8	9.4	1.54E-06
IPR002401: Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	8	9.4	1.54E-06
IPR001128: Cytochrome P450	8	9.4	1.54E-06
IPR001628: Zinc finger, nuclear hormone receptor-type	10	11.8	8.65E-05
IPR013088: Zinc finger, NHR/GATA-type	10	11.8	9.33E-05
IPR000536: Nuclear hormone receptor, ligand-binding, core	10	11.8	9.33E-05
IPR010987: Glutathione S-transferase, C-terminal-like	4	4.7	4.46E-02
<b>30uM PCB1254 treatment</b>			
IPR002213: UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-glucosyltransferase	16	5.8	1.35E-11
IPR017972: Cytochrome P450, conserved site	14	5.0	1.09E-09
IPR002401: Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	14	5.0	1.09E-09
IPR001128: Cytochrome P450	14	5.0	1.40E-09
IPR010987: Glutathione S-transferase, C-terminal-like	10	3.6	1.91E-05
IPR002347: Glucose/ribitol dehydrogenase	10	3.6	5.05E-05
IPR012336: Thioredoxin-like fold	13	4.7	5.95E-05
IPR004046: Glutathione S-transferase, C-terminal	8	2.9	1.79E-04
IPR004045: Glutathione S-transferase, N-terminal	8	2.9	2.06E-04
IPR016040: NAD(P)-binding domain	12	4.3	5.20E-04
IPR020904: Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase, conserved site	6	2.2	3.80E-03

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# Chapter 4

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Fingerprinting toxic potencies of  
hydrophilic contaminants in wastewater  
using gene expression profiling in *C.*  
*elegans* as a bioanalytical tool

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Antoine Karengera, Ilse Verburg, Mark G. Sterken, Joost A. G. Riksen, Albertinka J. Murk, Inez J. T. Dinkla. Fingerprinting toxic potencies of hydrophilic contaminants in wastewater using gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* as a bioanalytical tool.

### Abstract

With chemical analysis it is impossible to qualify and quantify the toxic potency of especially hydrophilic bioactive contaminants. In this study, we applied the nematode *C. elegans* as a model organism for detecting the toxic potency of hydrophilic pollutants in wastewater samples. Gene expression in the nematode was used as bioanalytical tool to reveal the presence, type and potency of molecular pathways induced by 24-hour exposure to wastewater from a hospital (H), nursing home (N), community (C), and influent (I) and treated effluent (E) from a local wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). Exposure to influent water significantly altered expression of 464 genes, while only two genes were differentially expressed in nematodes treated with effluent. This indicates a significant decrease in bioactive pollutant-load after wastewater treatment. Surface water receiving the effluent did not induce any genes in exposed nematodes. A subset of 209 genes was differentially expressed in all untreated wastewaters, including cytochromes P450 and C-type lectins related to the nematode's xenobiotic metabolism and immune response, respectively. Different subsets of genes responded to particular waste streams making them candidates to fingerprint specific wastewater sources. This study shows that gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* can be used for mechanism-based identification of hydrophilic bioactive compounds and fingerprinting of specific wastewaters. More comprehensive than with chemical analysis, it can demonstrate the effective overall removal of bioactive compounds through wastewater treatment. This bioanalytical tool can also be applied in the process of identification of the bioactive compounds via a process of Toxicity Identification Evaluation (TIE).

## 1. Introduction

A multitude of chemical substances used for anthropogenic activities often end up in municipal wastewater [1, 2]. Both raw and treated effluents may contain a wide range of natural and synthetic chemicals [3]. These substances are usually present as complex mixtures whose composition is difficult to analyze by current chemical methods, among others, because they occur at levels below the limit of detection or no standards are available yet [4]. Substances like hydrophilic compounds are even more challenging for chemical analysis as they are hard to extract or concentrate [5]. Most of these pollutants, including their metabolites and reaction products, remain unknown and yet they may add to the total toxicological risk posed by the mixture [6].

Municipal wastewaters in the Netherlands are treated in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs), which are generally designed to remove a range of contaminants like suspended solids, phosphorus, nitrogen, biodegradable organic matter, and others [7]. Unfortunately, conventional WWTPs do not completely remove all micropollutants in wastewater [5], and many chemicals originating from treated effluents can be found in receiving water bodies like groundwater or surface waters [8, 9]. Unfortunately, the available analytical methods cannot provide information about the potential toxic effects of these compounds and mixtures thereof [10]. Therefore, concerns remain, especially for hydrophilic compounds that may pose environmental health risks or contaminate drinking water sources [11].

Bioanalytical tools, also referred to as bioassays, can quantify the toxic potency of bioactive pollutants in water samples based on their combined effects [12, 13]. Bioassays can be *in vitro*, monitoring responses of cells in culture [14] or *in vivo*, utilizing a whole living system [15]. Most of the existing *in vitro* and *in vivo* bioassays are either very specific to one or few biological responses (e.g., endocrine-disrupting activity, aryl hydrocarbon receptor activity, oxidative stress response, and others) or are non-specific indicators of general toxic effects (e.g., mortality, fertility, reproduction, and others) [12, 15]. Hence, a battery of bioassays is often required for testing various types of bioactive pollutants present in water samples as demonstrated in [16].

The small nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has attracted attention as a model in toxicity testing. This nematode has shown its potential use as toxicological tool for water quality monitoring as shown in [17], where toxicity from pollution in rivers was assessed by measuring effects on *C. elegans* growth. Strengths and limitations for *C. elegans* used in predictive toxicology have been reviewed in [18], where good *C. elegans* culture practice (GCeCP) were proposed for reliable and repeatable data. We recently developed a gene expression-based toxicity bioassay using *C. elegans* as a test organism [19] and showed that the nematodes transcriptomic response can be used to detect the toxic potency of xenobiotics. Toxicity testing by gene expression profiling can provide insights in the type of bioactivity mechanism that is influenced and can be translated towards the nature of the risk

the substances present [20, 21]. Also, tests with single contaminants demonstrated that the magnitude of differential gene expression change that were observed can be related to the toxic potency (concentration) that the nematode is exposed to.

In the present study, we aim to evaluate the applicability of the *C. elegans* bioassay for qualification and quantification of the toxic potency of hydrophilic contaminants present in wastewater. More specifically the differential gene expression as biomarker for the toxic potency posed by contaminants in wastewater from specific sources was investigated. The samples analyzed in this study were: wastewater from hospital, nursing home, community, and WWTP influent and effluent. In addition surface water receiving treated effluent was analyzed. Prior to use in nematode exposure, all (waste)water sample were centrifuged and filtrated to remove suspended solids. This implies that, the water-soluble pollutants were the major composition of contaminants left in samples after filtration whereas the hydrophobic fraction was very low. Genome-wide gene expression profiling of *C. elegans* exposed to the filtrated wastewater samples revealed the potential of this transcription-based bioassay as a bioanalytical tool for monitoring the toxic potency of also hydrophilic compounds in wastewater without the need for extraction.

## **2. Material and methods**

### **2.1. Wastewater sampling**

Wastewater samples were obtained from the sampling campaign as described in [22]. Briefly, samples were collected from the city of Sneek, in the Netherlands. Wastewater samples from a community of 80 households (C), hospital (H, 300 beds), and nursing home (N, 220 beds) were taken from the receiving wells of which neither received other wastewaters nor rainwater. These wastewater streams each contributed less than 1% of the water inflow into a local municipal wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). The main WWTP influent (> 97%) originated from other sources including industrial water, households, stormwater runoff, and seepage from ground and surface waters. The WWTP influent (I) and effluent (E) samples were collected from this WWTP. The WWTP effluent is discharged into an adjacent canal, from which surface water samples were collected upstream (SW1) and downstream (SW2) of the effluent discharge point. In addition, a surface water sample (SW3) was collected from a non-receiving surface water located in a nature reserve, hardly affected by anthropogenic activities. Each sample of 2 liters was taken in high density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles (VWR, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) using an autosampler (except surface waters where grab samples were taken 1 meter from the shore at ~0.2 meter of depth). Time-proportional sampling (24-h samples) was used for C, H, and N, whereas time-proportional sampling (24-h samples) was used for I and E. All samples were transported in cooling boxes and subsequently stored at -20°C until use.

## 2.2. Exposure media

Prior to the use for exposure the suspended solid material was removed from water samples by centrifugation and filtration. Therefore, the water-soluble pollutants were the major composition of contaminants left in samples after filtration whereas the hydrophobic fraction should be expected to be very low. Each sample was aliquoted by transferring 10 mL to Falcon™ 15-mL conical centrifuge tubes followed by centrifugation at 3,750 rpm for 20 minutes (Avanti J-15 Centrifuge, Beckman Coulter). Next the supernatants were further filtrated using Syringe filters Millex® Hydrophilic PTFE (0.45 µm pore size). For all filtrates, pH values in a range of 8.5 - 9.8 were measured prior to the use for the nematodes exposure. *C. elegans* has been shown previously to be tolerant to such test conditions [23], thus no pH adjustment was made.

## 2.3. Nematode culture and exposure

Synchronized L4 stage larvae of *C. elegans* wild-type Bristol N2 strain were cultured and exposed in three biological replicates for 24 hours as described in [24]. Prior to microarray experiments we first made sure that the nematodes were alive after the exposure period exposure. The absence of mortality among the nematodes was confirmed by visual observation through a stereomicroscope. For each water sample, approximately 10,000 nematodes were used without feeding during the exposure period. After exposure, the nematode exposure tubes were spun for 1 minute at 1,000 rpm, 20 °C using a centrifuge (Avanti J-15 Centrifuge, Beckman Coulter). Subsequently, the nematode pellets were transferred into 2-mL microtubes (Eppendorf® Safe-Lock tubes, Biopur®) and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute before storing them at -80 °C until the extraction of RNA.

## 2.4. RNA extraction

TRIzol® Reagent with the PureLink® RNA Mini Kit was used to extract total RNA as described in [24]. Briefly, TRIzol® Reagent was used to prepare nematode lysates from which crude RNA extracts were obtained using chloroform (Molecular Biology Reagent, Thermo Fisher GmbH). The RNA was subsequently isolated from the crude extracts following the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher MAN0000406) including column-based RNA isolation through binding, washing, and elution steps. A NanoDrop spectrophotometer was used to measure RNA quantity and quality (**Suppl. Table S1**), with an A260/A280 ratio of 1.8 to 2.0 as requirement for further use.

## 2.5. Microarray experiments

Microarray analysis was conducted as described before [19] including array preparation, hybridization, scanning, raw data normalization and pre-processing. Differential gene expression linked to the treatment was investigated by using a linear model, fitted per exposure (i.e., C, N, H, I, and E). The data obtained from SW1, SW2, and SW3 were not significantly different and were therefore used as control. The raw data of this experiment

are provided via ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-11260). To identify biological pathways and gene ontologies of differentially expressed genes (DEGs), we analysed KEGG pathways, Gene Ontology (GO) and functional domains by using DAVID software v6.8 [25]. A threshold False Discovery Rate (FDR)  $\leq 0.05$  was considered as significantly enriched in the annotation categories.

## 2.6. RT-qPCR assays

Gene expression of fifteen target genes selected from microarray data, was tested by using RT-qPCR. The cDNA was synthesized from RNA templates via reverse transcription (RT) by using SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix with ezDNase™ Enzyme as described in [24]. Two biological replicates were run using the same extracted RNA as used in the microarrays. Due to insufficient RNA material, the third biological replicate sample was run on microarray only and not confirmed by RT-qPCR. PCR primer design and PCR analysis were performed as described in [19]. Primer sequences used for RT-PCR analysis are provided as supplementary information (**Suppl. Table S2**). Raw data were analyzed in Bio-Rad CFX Manager™ Software v3.0, and normalized to *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) and 14-3-3-like protein (*par-5*) as housekeeping genes.

## 2.7. Data analysis and statistics

Microarray data were statistically analyzed as described by Karengera and colleagues [19]. Briefly, linear model analysis was used to assess differentially expressed genes (DEGs) per exposure condition whereby a threshold of p-value  $< 0.0001$  was considered as statistically significant. Custom written scripts for the microarray analysis are provided at [https://git.wur.nl/published\\_papers/karengera\\_2021\\_wastewater\\_fingerprinting](https://git.wur.nl/published_papers/karengera_2021_wastewater_fingerprinting). To analyse the variation in gene expression, principal component analysis (PCA) was applied on the log<sub>2</sub> ratio with the mean expression values using the *prcomp* function in “R” (version 3.5.3, x64) in RStudio (version 1.1.463).

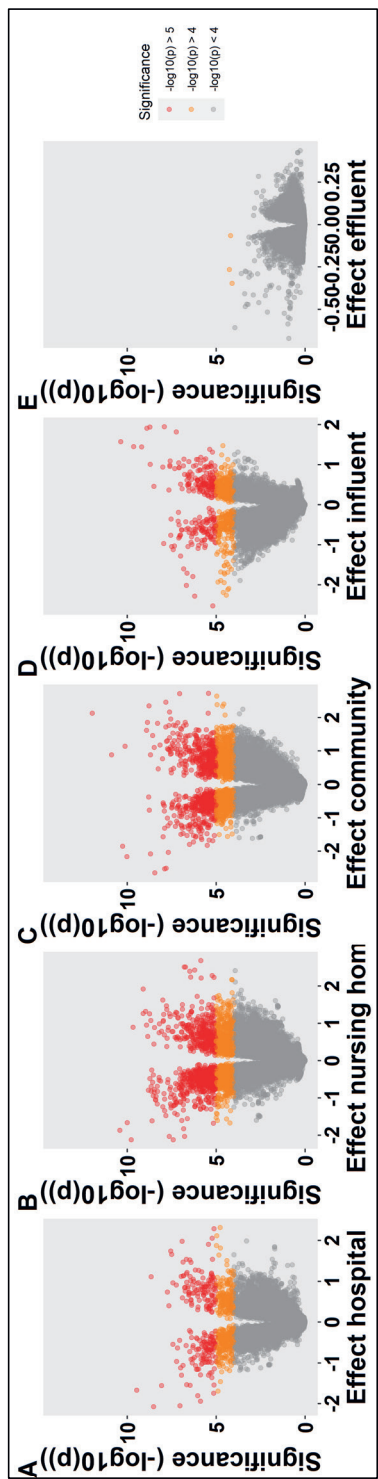
# 3. Results

## 3.1. Transcriptome response to wastewaters and treated effluent

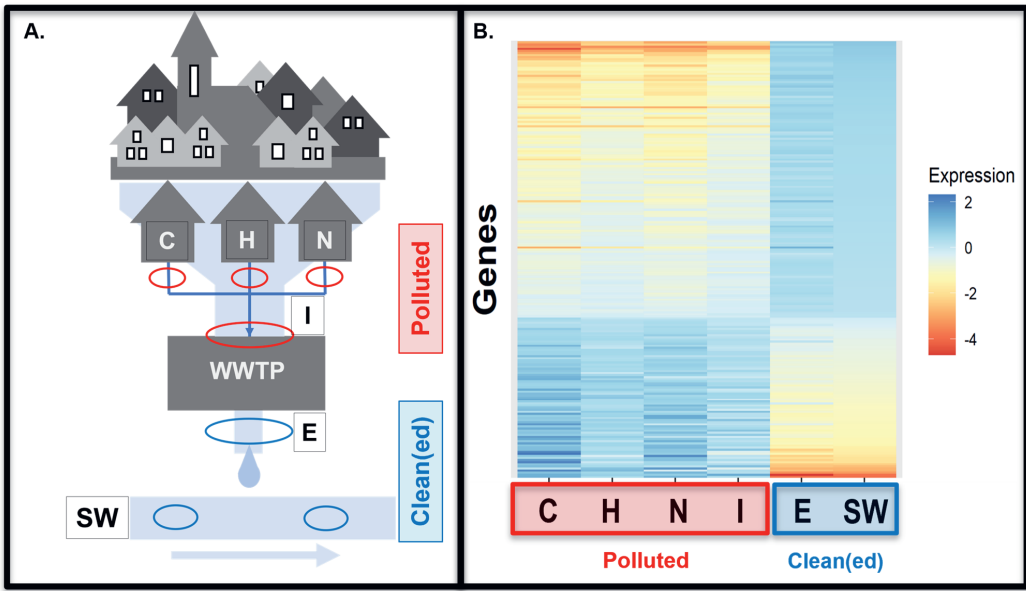
The exposed and unexposed nematodes did not show lethality for all tested water samples, as confirmed by visual observation through a stereomicroscope. Whole-transcriptome analysis using microarrays revealed a clear difference between the gene expression patterns induced by wastewater samples before and after wastewater treatment (**Fig. 1**).

Based on the differences in expression profiles, two clusters can be distinguished, one comprising of surface water and E samples and another one comprising of untreated wastewater samples C, H, N, and I (**Fig. 2**). The difference between the untreated wastewaters and treated effluent or surface water became also clear in principal component analysis (PCA) (**Fig. 3**).

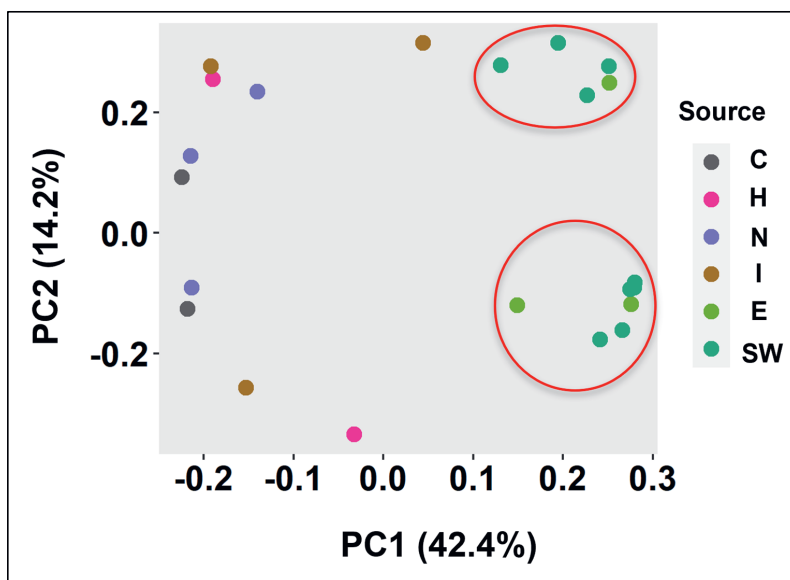




**Figure 1.** Volcano plots showing the distribution of gene expression changes and p-values. Each dot represents a spot on the microarray, as analysed by three linear models. On the x-axis the effect is given (a negative sign indicates lower expression over increasing concentrations, a positive sign higher expression over increasing concentrations), on the y-axis the  $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$  obtained from the linear model. These effect plots show an obvious distinction between wastewater samples before and after treatment in a WWTP. Colours provide a visual guide for the thresholds of  $-\log_{10}(p) > 4$  and  $-\log_{10}(p) > 5$ . (A) hospital samples, (B) nursing home samples, (C) community samples, (D) WWTP influent samples, (E) WWTP effluent samples.

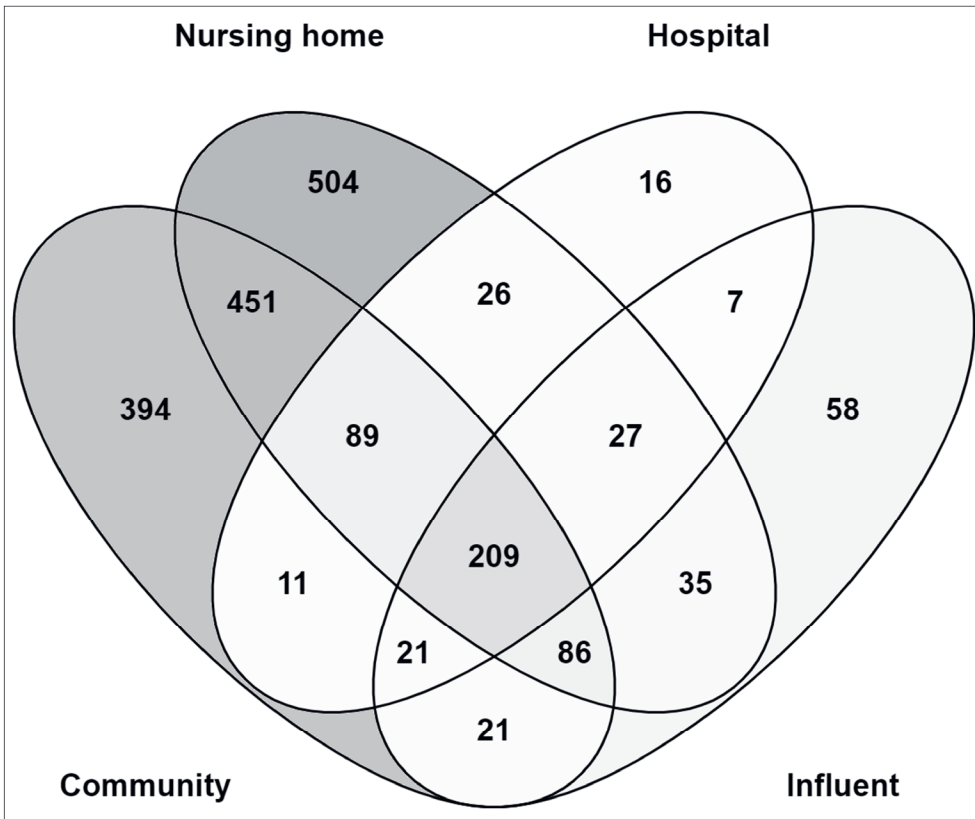


**Figure 2.** Comparison of gene expression profiles in nematodes treated with (waste)water samples. Sampling points are shown in (A), including wastewater Community (C), Hospital (H), Nursing home wastewater (N), WWTP influent (I), WWTP effluent (E) and surface water (SW) receiving the treated effluent. (B) is a heatmap showing the up- (red-orange) and down-regulation (blue) of *C. elegans* genes after exposure to different (waste)water samples. There is a clear difference between gene expression patterns before and after wastewater treatment.



**Figure 3.** Principal component analysis (PCA) for variation in gene expression. The first two principal components PC1 and PC2 combined captured 56.6% of the variance and mainly separate the surface water and effluent samples from the other samples.

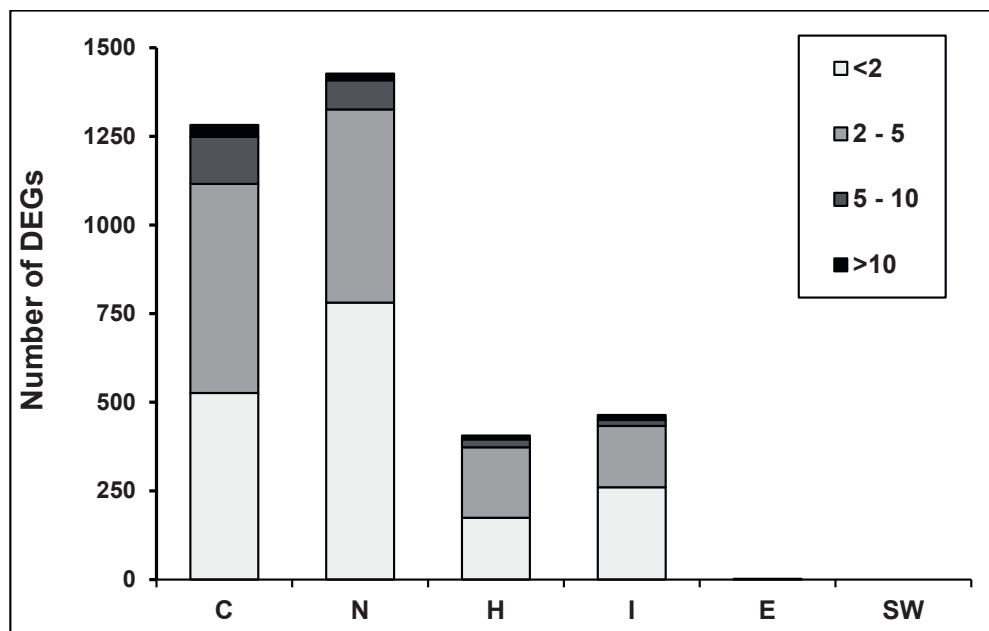
All four wastewater types shared 209 genes that were differentially expressed (**Fig. 4**), representing 16%, 15%, 51%, and 45% of the total DEGs affected by sample C, N, H, and I, respectively. These genes included those encoding C-type lectin (CLEC) proteins, cytochrome P450 (CYP) and other enzymes involved in xenobiotic biotransformation. In addition, several other overlaps were found between wastewater samples (**Fig. 4**). C23G10.11 and B0222.4 (known as *spl-2*) genes were found to be the most upregulated transcripts for all wastewater samples. Expression of sphingosine phosphate lyase encoded by *spl-2* is involved in defense response to gram-positive bacterium. The function of protein encoded by C23G10.11 is not yet known.



**Figure 4.** Differences and similarities of genes expression profiles in nematodes after exposure to different wastewater samples. The Venn diagram shows that from the 1,756 DEGs (up- or downregulated) in one or more of the polluted samples (i.e., hospital, nursing home, community, and influent), the majority (69%) of these genes were specific to community and / or nursing home wastewaters. The overlap of 209 DEGs (approx. 11%) were found in all polluted samples.

Wastewater samples from C and N induced the greatest number of DEGs (**Fig. 4**), 1282 and 1427, respectively ( $-\log_{10}(p) > 4.0$ ; false discovery rate, FDR < 0.01). In contrast, differential expression in sample H and I was much lower with 464 and 406 genes, respectively. Only two genes (*ncx-4* and F22B8.7) were differentially expressed in the nematodes treated with sample E and were both upregulated (1.1-fold for *ncx-4* and 1.5-fold for F22B8.7). Of these two genes, differential upregulation of F22B8.7 (1.4-fold) was also found in the sample I. Of the genes whose transcription levels (absolute-value expression) were changed more than five-fold (**Fig. 5**), most were found in nematodes exposed to C (166 DEGs) and N (101 DEGs) wastewaters, representing 13% and 7% of total DEGs of each sample, respectively. For sample H and I, 33 and 23 DEGs representing 8% and 7%

of total DEGs of each sample were changed over five-fold. The two most upregulated genes for all wastewater were C23G10.11 (> 40-fold for sample C and N or > 20-fold for sample H and I) and B0222.4 (39-fold for C, 25-fold for H, 29-fold for N, and 23-fold for I). The decrease in expression level of T06C12.14 (40-fold for C and 15-fold for I) and Y49G5A.1 (19-fold for I and 17-fold for H) represented the most downregulated transcripts.



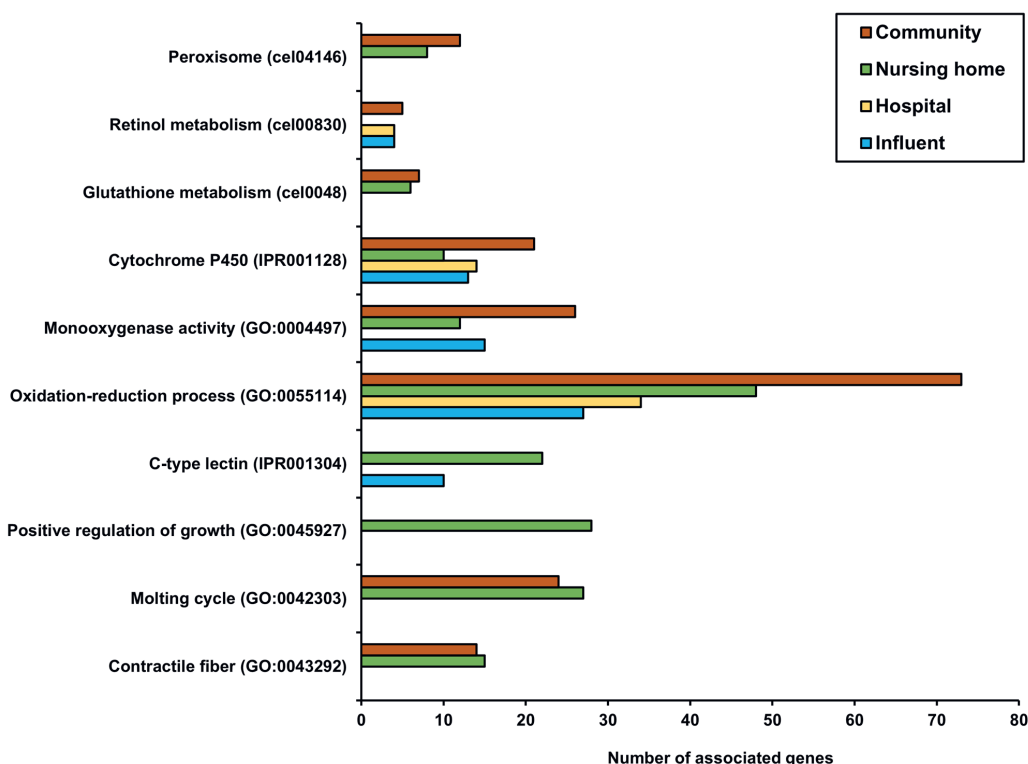
**Figure 5.** Expression fold change range of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the nematodes treated with wastewater samples. Bar charts displays the number of DEGs in each fold change range (i.e., < 2 fold, 2 – 5 fold, 5 – 10 fold, and > 10 fold) of the transcription levels induced in the nematodes treated with the samples originating from community (C), nursing home (N), hospital (H), WWTP influent, WWTP effluent (E), or surface water (SW).

### 3.2. Functional analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

Gene Ontology (GO) and domain enrichment analysis of DEG lists were carried out in DAVID software to identify the types of biological mechanisms underlying the nematode responses triggered by exposure to wastewater samples (**Fig. 6 and Suppl. Table S3**). We identified a total of 36 genes encoding nuclear hormone receptors (NHRs) whose expression levels were affected by exposure. Of these genes, 10 transcripts (including *nhr-23* gene which is a critical regulator of the nematode growth and molting) were upregulated while the other 26 genes were downregulated. Many upregulated genes were related to the nematode

metabolic processes, especially those involved in the biotransformation (both phase I and phase II) of a wide range of substrates such as lipids, carbohydrates, and proteins. These biotransformation genes included those encoding cytochrome P450 (CYP), glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), UDP-glucuronosyltransferases (UGT), NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase homolog (*emb-8*), and a number of genes annotated as FAD/NADP coenzymes. Cytochrome genes *cyp-25A1*, *cyp-25A2*, *cyp-29A2*, *cyp-33B1*, *cyp-35B1*, and *cyp-37A1* were upregulated in all wastewater samples. Transcriptional repression was found for pathways involved in the metabolism of purine and pyrimidine nucleotides, and was identified in nematodes exposed to sample C and H. We also found DEGs involved in a peroxisomal pathway, including the transcripts of *acox-3*, *prx-3*, *prx-5*, *gstk-1*, *daf-22*, *ctl-2*, *ech-4*, *fard-1*, *acs-13*, C24A3.4, T20B3.1, and ZK550.6 genes upregulated by sample C and *prx-3*, C24A3.4, *daao-1*, *prx-14*, *ctl-2*, *ech-4*, *sod-1*, and *acs-13* upregulated by sample N. Genes annotated for oxidative stress response were found upregulated, including *pdi-2* and F09F3.5 (in sample C), *pept-1* (in N), R08F11.7 (in C and N), and *col-61* (in C, H, and N samples).

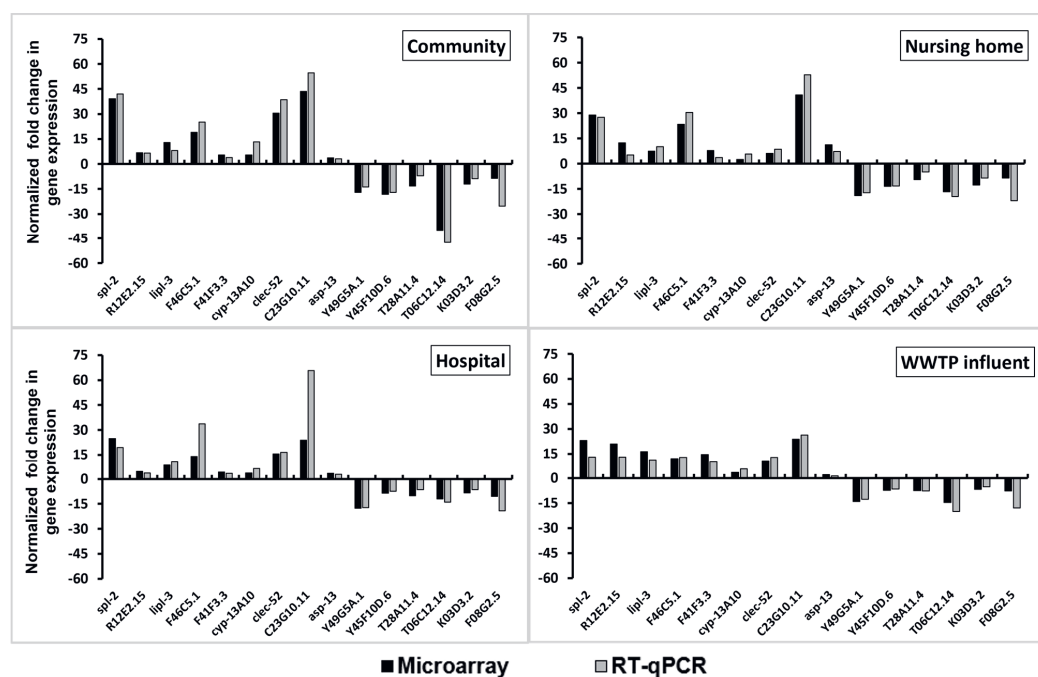
Also genes involved in the *C. elegans* molting cycle processes were upregulated in C and N samples. These included the DEGs encoding collagen and cuticulin-based cuticle in the nematode. We also identified upregulation of many genes modulating growth processes in the nematodes treated with sample C. The *daf-36* gene encoding a Rieske-like oxygenase, which is a component of *C. elegans* endocrine system, was upregulated in sample C, H, and N exposure, but not in sample I. The individual annotation (in DAVID software) of all DEGs which responded to the wastewater samples revealed several transcripts that can be linked to reproductive physiological processes in *C. elegans*. Nevertheless, reproduction related processes (GO:0000003) were not found among the significantly regulated processes as obtained by GO enrichment analysis. We also found in total 40 DEGs encoding C-type lectin (CLEC) proteins, which are related to the immune response in nematodes. Of these, 11 genes were differentially expressed in all wastewater samples including both upregulation (*clec-39*, *clec-52*, *clec-55*, *clec-57*, *clec-221*, and *clec-227*) and downregulation (*clec-45*, *clec-53*, *clec-62*, *clec-63*, *clec-147*, and *col-137*).



**Figure 6.** Some significantly upregulated genes for which enriched terms could be obtained (False Discovery Rate (FDR) < 0.05). Full results of functional enrichment analysis are provided in Suppl. Table S3.A – S3.D of supplementary information.

### 3.3. Validation of microarray data by RT-qPCR

To validate the microarray results we conducted RT-qPCR for 15 target genes that were among the top most affected transcripts, among those regulated in all wastewater samples, or those specifically responding to one or two wastewater samples. Overall, RT-qPCR results correlated to the microarray results (**Fig. 7**).



**Figure 7.** Validation of gene expression microarray results by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) for 15 target genes in two independent biological replicates using the RNA template from microarray samples. Negative values indicate downregulation and positive values upregulation of the target genes relative to two housekeeping genes (*tbg-1* and *par-5*) used to normalize the expression fold changes.

#### 4. Discussion

In this study, we successfully applied a nematode-based assay using gene expression profiling in *Caenorhabditis elegans* to fingerprint wastewaters before and after treatment by a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) and effluent receiving surface waters. Several genes were differentially regulated following the exposure to wastewater samples, and this effect was absent in nematodes exposed to treated effluent as well as in effluent receiving surface water. The nematodes were exposed without extraction or preconcentration of water samples, except the removal of suspended solid materials by centrifugation. This means that bioanalysis with the water-exposed nematodes will especially indicate the total toxic potencies of hydrophilic compounds that may be present in the tested samples, even at concentrations that could not yet be detected with chemical analysis.



Untreated and treated wastewater can typically contain a wide range of natural and synthetic chemical contaminants and reaction products and metabolites thereof [1-3]. The composition and type of contaminants present in each water source can vary depending on several factors [26]. The most challenging substances to detect and quantify are hydrophilic compounds which are hardly known and difficult to detect with existing chemical analytical techniques [4]. The exposure of nematodes to water samples containing hydrophilic compounds which are invisible by chemical analyses are expected to leave their signature in this invertebrate detectable by transcriptome analysis. In this study, gene expression profiling using microarray provides information about the total combined toxic potency specified per mechanism of action without the need to know the nature of the causative agents.

Although 209 genes were differentially regulated (77 upregulated DEGs and 132 downregulated DEGs) in all four types of wastewaters, these sample types also had specific DEGs that could be characteristic for the source. These included 31%, 4%, 35%, and 13% of the total DEGs specifically regulated in response to the sample C, H, N, and I exposure, respectively. There were also several DEGs regulated in the nematodes treated with the sample C, H, and N, but were not found in the sample I exposure. Compared with the total amount of DEGs found with each wastewater source, these genes comprised 74% for C, 35% for H, and 83% for N affected DEGs (including the overlaps). The expression of these genes may be linked to substances that were diluted by the additional water from other sources (which accounted 97% of the total influent) such as stormwater runoff, seepage water, and water from other community households. It is also possible that the substances in wastewater sources were degraded or have reacted before reaching the influent. More detailed study, including more sampling (time) points and combining this with a tiered approach for screening and assessment of the contaminant mixtures can reveal the most important bioactive compounds, their sources, and their fate. This is comparable to the approach of effect-directed analysis (EDA) utilizing the process similar to the toxicity identification evaluation (TIE) to identify unknown contributors to the mixture effects in water samples as described previously [12].

Only two genes were regulated in the nematodes treated with effluent, suggesting an efficient removal of pollutants by the WWTP, and none after emission of the effluent into the surface water. This means that the nematode assay could be developed into a bioanalytical tool for determining whether the toxic potency is below a threshold of 'no indications for concern'. The small size of the nematodes and sensitivity of molecular endpoints potentially make the assay sensitive for ultra-low concentrations of contaminants. The aim, however, does not necessarily have to be to make the assay as sensitive as possible, but sensitive enough to be able to determine whether the possibly remaining contaminants do not pose a risk.

Another advantage of this small scale, bioanalytical in-vivo tool is that the DEGs provide mechanism-based information on the combined toxic potency of the contaminants present, including the unknown hydrophilic compounds. In this study, genes related to metabolic processes were affected most. These included several genes involved in the metabolic pathways such as the *emb-8* gene encoding *C. elegans* NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase homolog (EMB-8) which governs the nematode CYP-mediated metabolism [27, 28]. There was also significant expression among the genes involved in the peroxisomal pathway, which is essential in the antioxidant defence system. Of these genes, *ctl-2* [29], *sod-1* [30], and *gsto-1* [31] are known for their central role in the detoxification of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Other genes annotated for oxidative stress response were upregulated, including *col-61*, *pdi-2*, *pept-1*, R08F11.7, and F09F3.5 transcripts. These observations do not imply a toxic risk *per se*, as explained in [32], but the involved genes do indicate exposure to compounds that trigger the organism's defense mechanism.

Wastewaters have been shown to contain endocrine disrupting compounds [33] which are highly heterogeneous in source and nature [34]. Nematodes have been shown to be sensitive for the effects and mechanisms of endocrine disrupting compounds as has been reviewed in [35]. The authors demonstrated evidence that many processes like molting or growth, regulated via hormonal pathways are also operational in *C. elegans*. In our study, the differential gene expression profile of these pathways induced by wastewater, mostly in those originating from community and nursing home, indeed suggest the suitability of *C. elegans* to indicate endocrine active compounds. The DEGs included those required for molting, growth, and reproduction processes in the nematode, and especially well-known regulators of *C. elegans* development like *nhr-23* [36], *unc-52* [37], and *daf-36* [38], together with many of their downstream genes. This finding suggest the presence of endocrine disrupting substances in the tested wastewater samples and the absence thereof in the effluent and surface water samples. The application of bioassays in high-resolution effect-directed analysis has been recently demonstrated for the identification of endocrine disrupting and mutagenic compounds in wastewater treatment plant effluents and the river Meuse [39].

Our study also identified differential expression of many genes contributing to the nematode innate immune system, especially those encoding C-type lectin (CLEC) proteins. This could be related to exposure of the nematodes to microorganisms from the wastewaters including pathogens that may trigger an immune response in the nematodes as previously reported [40]. Proteins encoded by the DEGs that we found in the wastewaters are associated with the innate immune mechanisms of invertebrates [41]. The genes *clec-52*, *clec-70*, *clec-61*, *tag-38*, *acdh-1*, *F55G11.7*, *myo-2*, Y51H4A.5, and *unc-52*, also found in the outcome of our study, were linked to the *C. elegans* infection by the bacteria *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* [40]. Among the 300 CLEC genes estimated to be present in the *C. elegans* genome [42], our study showed that 40 CLEC genes responded to the wastewater exposure but not to

effluent or surface water exposure. Noteworthy, *spl-2* that was among the top upregulated transcripts by all wastewaters is also involved in the nematode defense response to a gram-positive bacterium [40]. Further transcriptomic profiling of CLEC genes in *C. elegans* exposed to various pathogen types can provide gene markers that may specifically detect those pathogens in water sources.

## 5. Conclusion

Overall, this study showed that gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* is a potential powerful tool for monitoring water-soluble pollutants in wastewaters. This bioanalytical assay especially is suitable for monitoring of the mechanism-specific toxic potency from hydrophilic pollutants since the nematodes can be directly exposed to even severely polluted wastewater samples without the need to pretreat or to dilute the samples. The results from this study showed a strong difference between polluted water and clean(ed) water samples in terms of gene expression profiles and intensity. Hence, our method can be used for monitoring the removal efficiency of (micro)pollutants during wastewater treatment and assessing the quality of the resulting effluent and receiving waters. In a tiered approach, this bioanalytical tool could help identify the most important bioactive compounds, their sources, and their fate. Also, the mechanistic profile of specific compounds of interest could be studied to possibly be able to identify, for instance, the presence of (recreational) drugs in wastewater. In addition, transcriptional profiles could be used to identify the presence of wastewater input or specific wastewater sources. It also is important to study the lowest induction level below which there is no indication for toxicological concern from hydrophilic compounds, compounds that are not yet easily detected, quantified, and assessed based on chemical analysis.

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## Supporting information of chapter 4

**Suppl. Table S1.** The quality of template RNA used in microarrays as measured by NanoDrop spectrophotometer.

Batch No	Sample ID	Samples name	ng/ $\mu$ l	A260	A280	260/280	260/230
<b>Batch 1</b>	SW1	Surface water 1	161.7	4.0	2.0	2.1	2.1
	SW2	Surface water 2	202.6	5.1	2.4	2.1	1.9
	SW3	Surface water 3	197.8	4.9	2.4	2.1	1.4
	H	Hospital	205.2	5.1	2.4	2.1	1.9
	N	Nursing homes	178.9	4.5	2.1	2.1	1.4
	C	Community	150.0	3.7	1.8	2.1	1.2
	I	WWTP influent	172.2	4.3	2.1	2.1	1.8
	E	WWTP effluent	268.4	6.7	3.2	2.1	1.9
<b>Batch 2</b>	SW1	Surface water 1	191.6	4.8	2.3	2.1	2.5
	SW2	Surface water 2	310.4	7.8	3.7	2.1	1.7
	SW3	Surface water 3	233.6	5.8	2.8	2.1	2.3
	H	Hospital	253.4	6.3	3.0	2.1	1.9
	N	Nursing homes	289.8	7.2	3.5	2.1	2.4
	C	Community	159.2	4.0	1.9	2.1	2.1
	I	WWTP influent	269.8	6.7	3.2	2.1	2.4
	E	WWTP effluent	268.4	6.7	3.2	2.1	2.3
<b>Batch 3</b>	SW1	Surface water 1	116.5	2.9	1.5	2.0	0.9
	SW2	Surface water 2	135.7	3.4	1.5	2.2	1.7
	SW3	Surface water 3	138.6	3.5	1.6	2.1	1.8
	H	Hospital	138.9	3.5	1.6	2.1	2.0
	N	Nursing homes	114.0	2.9	1.3	2.1	1.6
	C	Community	71.7	1.8	0.9	2.0	1.3
	I	WWTP influent	107.4	2.7	1.3	2.1	1.7
	E	WWTP effluent	154.9	3.9	1.8	2.1	1.9

**Suppl. Table S2.** Primer sequences used for RT-PCR analysis to validate microarray data

Gene	Acc. No	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
asp-13	NM_072831	ctatttggagtaccgcgacc	cggtgtgcaattagtctctgg
C23G10.11	NM_065953	aaaagcgtcaggaaaccact	tgttcagaaaaagtgtgctcg
clcc-52	NM_068970	tgttcgatcactgctcctc	caatgtggcacagatggact
cyp-13A10	NM_063684	ctcctagcaacacatccagaag	cgagagttcgccattgttcc
F08G2.5	NM_064500	ccaattccagtgactcctcg	aaatttctctcggcgagtgc
F41F3.3	NM_071850	aaaactcaccatcgcttcgc	atggaaaggaaagtgggtggg
F46C5.1	NM_063478	tcttttgggtgcatcggtgc	ttgcttggactcattctgct
K03D3.2	NM_070543	cgtgggttgatggaaaggga	ggacaaccgaagtgtgctgt
lip1-3	NM_070832	aattgtgctcttcgctttgtg	cccgtcatctgtatgactg
R12E2.15	NM_001382870	ggtaacgcttgcatcggag	gtatgctcctcctgtggtg
spl-2	NM_072971	ggagattcggagacatgtgg	ggaaacattcggcagctttg
T06C12.14	NM_074575	ccccaggaagatcagcag	gtgattgggtaatggtggcg
T28A11.4	NM_071502	tatttgcggtgtctgaggct	aagtctgttctccagcggc
Y45F10D.6	NM_070261	ccctcatcacgttgtgctct	ccgtttttcttcagacttttg
Y49G5A.1	NM_072012	cccattggcttttgagtacgt	ttttggccacattcttcatcg

**Suppl. Table S3.A.** Significantly enriched terms obtained from the DEGs (False Discovery Rate, FDR < 0.05) in the nematodes treated with community wastewater.

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>Upregulation</b>			
GO:0006082--organic acid metabolic process	32	5.3	7.22E-04
GO:0006629--lipid metabolic process	32	5.3	7.22E-04
GO:0006631--fatty acid metabolic process	18	3.0	8.40E-06
GO:0006633--fatty acid biosynthetic process	10	1.7	7.67E-04
GO:0006636--unsaturated fatty acid biosynthetic process	6	1.0	6.87E-04
GO:0006637--acyl-CoA metabolic process	7	1.2	1.08E-02
GO:0008152--metabolic process	231	38.5	4.18E-03
GO:0008610--lipid biosynthetic process	14	2.3	4.17E-02
GO:0016053--organic acid biosynthetic process	12	2.0	3.25E-02
GO:0018208--peptidyl-proline modification	8	1.3	1.07E-02
GO:0019752--carboxylic acid metabolic process	31	5.2	6.58E-04
GO:0032507--maintenance of protein location in cell	6	1.0	2.22E-02
GO:0032787--monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	26	4.3	8.29E-06
GO:0033559--unsaturated fatty acid metabolic process	6	1.0	6.87E-04
GO:0035383--thioester metabolic process	7	1.2	1.08E-02
GO:0042303--molting cycle	24	4.0	2.22E-02
GO:0043436--oxoacid metabolic process	31	5.2	6.58E-04
GO:0044255--cellular lipid metabolic process	22	3.7	1.30E-02
GO:0044281--small molecule metabolic process	45	7.5	2.85E-03
GO:0044710--single-organism metabolic process	115	19.2	1.78E-13
GO:0045185--maintenance of protein location	7	1.2	6.51E-03
GO:0046394--carboxylic acid biosynthetic process	12	2.0	1.73E-02
GO:0051235--maintenance of location	43	7.2	8.05E-03
GO:0051651--maintenance of location in cell	6	1.0	3.25E-02
GO:0055114--oxidation-reduction process	73	12.2	3.40E-20
GO:0072330--monocarboxylic acid biosynthetic process	10	1.7	1.06E-03
GO:0005576--extracellular region	30	5.0	1.88E-02
GO:0005737--cytoplasm	115	19.2	3.69E-02
GO:0005778--peroxisomal membrane	5	0.8	8.79E-03
GO:0005789--endoplasmic reticulum membrane	18	3.0	1.18E-03
GO:0012505--endomembrane system	44	7.3	3.52E-04
GO:0016020--membrane	216	36.0	3.69E-02
GO:0016021--integral component of membrane	196	32.7	4.25E-02
GO:0030055--cell-substrate junction	5	0.8	2.16E-02
GO:0031224--intrinsic component of membrane	196	32.7	4.42E-02
GO:0031903--microbody membrane	5	0.8	8.79E-03
GO:0042175--nuclear outer membrane-endoplasmic reticulum membrane network	18	3.0	1.35E-03
GO:0043292--contractile fiber	14	2.3	7.98E-03
GO:0044425--membrane part	209	34.8	2.16E-02
GO:0044438--microbody part	5	0.8	1.88E-02
GO:0044439--peroxisomal part	5	0.8	1.88E-02
GO:0044444--cytoplasmic part	93	15.5	1.12E-03
GO:0044449--contractile fiber part	14	2.3	3.65E-03
GO:0055120--striated muscle dense body	10	1.7	1.88E-02
GO:0003824--catalytic activity	205	34.2	2.96E-09
GO:0004497--monooxygenase activity	26	4.3	4.01E-13
GO:0004768--stearoyl-CoA 9-desaturase activity	4	0.7	2.88E-02
GO:0005506--iron ion binding	28	4.7	6.29E-13
GO:0008395--steroid hydroxylase activity	8	1.3	1.56E-02
GO:0016215--acyl-CoA desaturase activity	4	0.7	2.88E-02
GO:0016491--oxidoreductase activity	70	11.7	1.86E-18
GO:0016705--oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with incorporation or reduction of molecular oxygen	36	6.0	2.81E-19
GO:0016709--oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with incorporation or reduction of molecular oxygen, NAD(P)H as one donor, and incorporation of one atom of oxygen	5	0.8	3.78E-02
GO:0016717--oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with oxidation of a pair of donors resulting in the reduction of molecular oxygen to two molecules of water	4	0.7	2.88E-02
GO:0016746--transferase activity, transferring acyl groups	19	3.2	2.57E-02
GO:0016853--isomerase activity	15	2.5	5.19E-04
GO:0020037--heme binding	24	4.0	2.42E-07
GO:0046906--tetrapyrrole binding	24	4.0	2.69E-07
GO:0048037--cofactor binding	17	2.8	4.07E-02
IPR001128.Cytochrome P450	21	3.5	4.83E-11
IPR002347.Glucose/ribitol dehydrogenase	13	2.2	9.59E-04
IPR002401.Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	21	3.5	4.16E-11
IPR011038.Calycin-like	7	1.2	1.16E-02
IPR016040.NAD(P)-binding domain	27	4.5	5.50E-09
IPR017972.Cytochrome P450, conserved site	20	3.3	9.44E-11
IPR020904.Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase, conserved site	9	1.5	2.58E-03
cel00071.Fatty acid degradation	8	1.3	2.90E-03
cel00480.Glutathione metabolism	7	1.2	5.43E-03
cel00520.Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism	7	1.2	2.90E-03
cel00830.Retinol metabolism	5	0.8	8.27E-03
cel00980.Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	10	1.7	4.44E-06
cel00982.Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	11	1.8	1.97E-06
cel01040.Biosynthesis of unsaturated fatty acids	4	0.7	3.15E-02
cel01100.Metabolic pathways	35	5.8	2.90E-03
cel01130.Biosynthesis of antibiotics	15	2.5	2.90E-03
cel01212.Fatty acid metabolism	7	1.2	9.43E-03
cel04141.Protein processing in endoplasmic reticulum	12	2.0	5.31E-03
cel04146.Peroxisome	12	2.0	2.22E-05
<b>Downregulation</b>			
IPR016638.Uncharacterised protein family UPF0376	10	1.497005988	0.001568144
IPR002542.Domain of unknown function DUF19	12	1.796407186	0.017176012
cel00230.Purine metabolism	11	1.646706587	2.73E-03
cel01100.Metabolic pathways	27	4.041916168	1.81E-02

**Suppl. Table S3.B.** Significantly enriched terms obtained from the DEGs (False Discovery Rate, FDR < 0.05) in the nematodes treated with community wastewater.

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>Upregulation</b>			
GO:0006082-organic acid metabolic process	28	4.8	1.14E-02
GO:0006631-fatty acid metabolic process	13	2.2	7.08E-03
GO:0006636-unsaturated fatty acid biosynthetic process	6	1.0	1.98E-03
GO:0010927-cellular component assembly involved in morphogenesis	18	3.1	3.62E-02
GO:0018996-molting cycle, collagen and cuticulin-based cuticle	26	4.4	3.58E-03
GO:0019752-carboxylic acid metabolic process	28	4.8	3.90E-03
GO:0030029-actin filament-based process	20	3.4	2.07E-02
GO:0030036-actin cytoskeleton organization	20	3.4	1.33E-02
GO:0030239-myofibril assembly	18	3.1	3.58E-03
GO:0031032-actomyosin structure organization	18	3.1	3.58E-03
GO:0031033-myosin filament organization	17	2.9	3.58E-03
GO:0031034-myosin filament assembly	17	2.9	3.58E-03
GO:0033559-unsaturated fatty acid metabolic process	6	1.0	1.98E-03
GO:0035264-multicellular organism growth	29	4.9	3.58E-03
GO:0040007-growth	37	6.3	3.44E-02
GO:0040008-regulation of growth	32	5.4	3.58E-03
GO:0040014-regulation of multicellular organism growth	29	4.9	3.86E-03
GO:0040018-positive regulation of multicellular organism growth	26	4.4	1.16E-02
GO:0042303-molting cycle	27	4.6	3.58E-03
GO:0042692-muscle cell differentiation	18	3.1	7.18E-03
GO:0043436-oxoacid metabolic process	28	4.8	3.90E-03
GO:0043623-cellular protein complex assembly	21	3.6	3.55E-02
GO:0044710-single-organism metabolic process	82	13.9	3.86E-03
GO:0045927-positive regulation of growth	28	4.8	7.18E-03
GO:0048589-developmental growth	34	5.8	3.58E-03
GO:0048638-regulation of developmental growth	32	5.4	3.58E-03
GO:0048639-positive regulation of developmental growth	27	4.6	7.30E-03
GO:0051146-striated muscle cell differentiation	18	3.1	3.58E-03
GO:0055001-muscle cell development	18	3.1	3.58E-03
GO:0055002-striated muscle cell development	18	3.1	3.58E-03
GO:0055114-oxidation-reduction process	48	8.2	1.28E-05
GO:0061061-muscle structure development	19	3.2	8.56E-03
GO:0071688-striated muscle myosin thick filament assembly	17	2.9	3.58E-03
GO:0005777-peroxisome	8	1.4	2.68E-02
GO:0030016-myofibril	10	1.7	4.01E-02
GO:0030055-cell-substrate junction	7	1.2	2.71E-03
GO:0030056-hemidesmosome	6	1.0	5.72E-03
GO:0042579-microbody	8	1.4	2.68E-02
GO:0043292-contractile fiber	15	2.6	1.12E-02
GO:0044449-contractile fiber part	13	2.2	3.02E-02
GO:0003824-catalytic activity	175	29.8	6.04E-03
GO:0004497-monoxygenase activity	12	2.0	3.78E-02
GO:0004768-stearoyl-CoA 9-desaturase activity	4	0.7	3.78E-02
GO:0005506-iron ion binding	14	2.4	2.56E-02
GO:0016215-acyl-CoA desaturase activity	4	0.7	3.78E-02
GO:0016491-oxidoreductase activity	44	7.5	8.28E-05
GO:0016705-oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with incorporation or reduction of molecular oxygen	19	3.2	8.28E-05
GO:0016717-oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with oxidation of a pair of donors resulting in the reduction of molecular oxygen to two molecules of water	4	0.7	3.78E-02
GO:0030246-carbohydrate binding	23	3.9	3.78E-02
GO:0048037-cofactor binding	18	3.1	2.94E-02
IPR001128:Cytochrome P450	10	1.7	4.53E-02
IPR001304:C-type lectin	22	3.7	2.54E-03
IPR002035: von Willebrand factor, type A	15	2.6	3.08E-06
IPR002401:Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	10	1.7	3.83E-02
IPR011038:Calycin-like	7	1.2	1.52E-02
IPR013098:Immunoglobulin I-set	8	1.4	3.51E-02
IPR016186:C-type lectin-like	22	3.7	7.15E-03
IPR016187:C-type lectin fold	23	3.9	7.15E-03
cel00480:Glutathione metabolism	6	1.0	3.61E-02
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	6	1.0	3.61E-02
cel01100:Metabolic pathways	29	4.9	3.61E-02
cel01130:Biosynthesis of antibiotics	13	2.2	3.25E-02
cel04146:Peroxisome	8	1.4	3.25E-02



**Suppl. Table S3.C.** Significantly enriched terms obtained from the DEGs (False Discovery Rate, FDR < 0.05) in the nematodes treated with hospital wastewater

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>Upregulation</b>			
GO:0044710~single-organism metabolic process	53	26.1	1.07E-10
GO:0055114~oxidation-reduction process	34	16.7	4.94E-12
IPR001128:Cytochrome P450	14	6.9	2.64E-10
IPR002401:Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	14	6.9	2.64E-10
IPR016040:NAD(P)-binding domain	9	4.4	4.56E-02
IPR017972:Cytochrome P450, conserved site	13	6.4	1.50E-09
cel00830:Retinol metabolism	4	2.0	1.32E-02
cel00980:Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	5	2.5	7.54E-03
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	6	3.0	2.44E-03
cel01130:Biosynthesis of antibiotics	10	4.9	3.10E-03
<b>Downregulation</b>			
IPR019425:7TM GPCR, serpentine receptor class t (Srt)	6	3.0	3.59E-02
IPR003582:Metridin-like ShK toxin	7	3.5	3.97E-02
cel00230:Purine metabolism	5	2.5	9.17E-04
cel00240:Pyrimidine metabolism	4	2.0	2.83E-03
cel03020:RNA polymerase	3	1.5	6.03E-03
cel01100:Metabolic pathways	7	3.5	6.32E-03



**Suppl. Table S3.D.** Significantly enriched terms obtained from the DEGs (False Discovery Rate, FDR < 0.05) in the nematodes treated with WWTP influent wastewater

	# genes	%	FDR
<b>Upregulation</b>			
GO:0006636~unsaturated fatty acid biosynthetic process	4	2.0	1.32E-02
GO:0033559~unsaturated fatty acid metabolic process	4	2.0	1.32E-02
GO:0044710~single-organism metabolic process	38	19.3	1.06E-04
GO:0055114~oxidation-reduction process	27	13.7	3.29E-08
GO:0003824~catalytic activity	64	32.5	1.01E-02
GO:0004497~monooxygenase activity	15	7.6	2.47E-10
GO:0004768~stearoyl-CoA 9-desaturase activity	3	1.5	3.33E-02
GO:0005506~iron ion binding	14	7.1	3.63E-08
GO:0016215~acyl-CoA desaturase activity	3	1.5	3.33E-02
GO:0016491~oxidoreductase activity	26	13.2	6.21E-08
GO:0016705~oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with incorporation or reduction of molecular oxygen	20	10.2	2.33E-14
GO:0016717~oxidoreductase activity, acting on paired donors, with oxidation of a pair of donors resulting in the reduction of molecular oxygen to two molecules of water	3	1.5	3.33E-02
GO:0020037~heme binding	13	6.6	3.90E-06
GO:0046906~tetrapyrrole binding	13	6.6	3.90E-06
GO:0046914~transition metal ion binding	22	11.2	3.16E-02
IPR001128:Cytochrome P450	13	6.6	1.12E-09
IPR001304:C-type lectin	10	5.1	1.81E-02
IPR002401:Cytochrome P450, E-class, group I	13	6.6	1.12E-09
IPR005804:Fatty acid desaturase, type 1	3	1.5	4.31E-02
IPR016186:C-type lectin-like	10	5.1	3.29E-02
IPR016187:C-type lectin fold	10	5.1	4.31E-02
IPR017972:Cytochrome P450, conserved site	12	6.1	6.91E-09
IPR020846:Major facilitator superfamily domain	10	5.1	1.80E-02
cel00830:Retinol metabolism	4	2.0	2.58E-03
cel00980:Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	5	2.5	9.57E-04
cel00982:Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	6	3.0	1.12E-04

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# Chapter 5

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A multiplex gene expression assay for direct measurement of RNA transcripts in crude lysates of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* used as bioanalytical tool.

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Antoine Karengera, Cong Bao, Toine F.H. Bovee, Inez J. T. Dinkla, Albertinka J. Murk. A multiplex gene expression assay for direct measurement of RNA transcripts in crude lysates of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* used as bioanalytical tool.

**Abstract**

Gene expression profiling in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has been demonstrated as a potential bioanalytical tool to detect the toxic potency of contaminants. RNA transcripts of genes responding to toxic exposure can be used as biomarkers for detecting these toxins. For regular application in environmental quality monitoring, an easy-to-use multiplex assay is required to routinely and reliably quantify expression levels of the biomarkers associated with the nematode response to pollutant exposure. In the current study, a bead-based assay to fingerprint gene expression in *C. elegans* by quantitating mRNAs of multiple target genes directly from crude nematode lysates without the need of RNA extraction and purification was developed. The assay uses signal amplification rather than target amplification for direct measurement of the toxin-induced RNA transcripts. Using a 50-gene panel, the expression changes of 46 target mRNAs for various contaminants and wastewaters were successfully measured and the obtained expression profiles indicated the type of toxin present in the sample. Moreover, the multiplex assay response was in line with previous results obtained with more time-consuming RT-qPCR assays and microarray analyses. In addition, the transcriptomic profiles of nematodes exposed to wastewater samples and extracts prepared from tissues of swimming crabs were evaluated, and the obtained profiles indicated the presence of organic pollutants which was confirmed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). This study illustrates the successful development of a multiplex fluorescent bead-based approach using nematode *C. elegans* crude lysates for gene expression profiling of target RNA transcripts. This method can be used to routinely fingerprint the presence of toxic contaminants in environmental samples and can be used to identify most biologically active fraction of the contaminant mixture in a toxicity identification and evaluation approach.

## 1. Introduction

Gene expression profiling in the soil-dwelling nematode *C. elegans* is a valuable tool to detect toxic contaminants in the environment [1]. The genome of this invertebrate has been completely sequenced and many of its genes and signaling pathways are conserved in higher organisms [2-4]. This makes *C. elegans* a suitable model organism for toxicological assessments as comparable responses between the nematode and higher organisms are to be expected [4, 5]. It was recently shown that both specific and general toxic effects of chemical toxicants can be detected by transcriptional analysis of exposed *C. elegans* [1, 6]. In response to the toxicants tested, several differentially expressed genes (DEGs) that are involved in well-defined biological functions of the nematode were found. This makes the gene expression profiling of *C. elegans* a suitable tool for the effect-based monitoring of bioactive pollutants.

Most bioassays are either very specific for a certain group of bioactive compounds, e.g. aryl hydrocarbon receptor activity or estrogenic activity, or are non-specific indicators of general toxic effects, e.g. cell viability or stress [7, 8]. Hence, a battery of bioassays is often required for testing various types of pollutants present in samples [9]. Exposure of a certain cell (e.g., cell line), tissue or organism to a chemical of interest followed by gene expression analysis may provide insights in the type of toxic mechanism(s) involved [10-13]. Different toxicants might up- or downregulate specific genes or result in specific gene expression profiles that can also be used for their detection. Hence, gene expression profiling can provide an opportunity to develop transcriptional biomarkers for assessing the toxic potencies of contaminants as described in [12]. Such molecular markers can be applied, for instance, to monitor the quality of water sources or other matrices. For regular application, an easy-to-use multiplex assay should be developed to reliably quantify simultaneously the expression levels of several biomarkers, i.e. the selected target transcripts should be incorporated in one assay enabling to detect and identify different contaminants in complex sample types.

Gene expression platforms such as microarrays [11], RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) [14], or reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) [15] are commonly used in toxicogenomic studies. Microarrays and RNA-Seq techniques allow a genome-wide analysis of gene transcription levels enabling the identification of a larger number of DEGs of toxicological relevance [16, 17]. In contrast, a RT-qPCR assay can only analyze a finite number of genes, but it is a more sensitive, accurate, and robust method, and is widely used for validation of transcriptomic data [18, 19]. To quantify gene transcripts, all these technologies utilize complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesized from the RNA template which involves a reverse transcription (RT) reaction. The main challenges for the success of gene expression profiling experiments using microarrays, sequencing, or RT-qPCR are the extraction of the RNA (e.g., RNA degradation, low yield, low purity, or DNA contamination) and the RT reaction (choice of reverse transcriptase, primer design, enzyme, or assay

volume among others) [20, 21]. Moreover, highly skilled laboratory workers are required to perform such experimental procedures. Therefore, there is a need of an alternative method to overcome the difficulties of classic transcriptomic technologies.

Fluorescent bead-based analysis using branched DNA (bDNA) technology is an emerging technique for gene expression profiling [22-24]. In contrast to the aforementioned gene expression platforms, the bDNA technique uses signal amplification rather than target amplification to measure mRNAs, and it does not rely on RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and PCR amplification. The Invitrogen™ QuantiGene™ Plex Assay (QGP, Thermo Fisher Scientific) is one of such assays incorporating bDNA technology for the direct measurement of RNA transcripts [22, 25].

There are several studies using bDNA technology to detect contaminants in real (environmental) samples [26-31], but none of them is using the nematode *C. elegans*. This nematode is however a very useful tool to analyze environmental samples, e.g. soil or water, as its whole genome is characterized. The present study aims (1) to develop a high throughput bDNA assay using Luminex magnetic beads for gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* to select and subsequently detect transcriptional biomarkers for several contaminants and (2) to apply the newly developed multiplex for fingerprinting environmental samples. Eventually, 46 DEGs were selected from our previous transcriptomic studies and successfully used to develop a nematode-based multiplex bDNA assay for quantitating mRNA transcripts directly from crude nematode lysates without the need of RNA extraction, purification or amplification. Subsequently, this assay was successfully validated and applied to detect the transcriptional response of *C. elegans* to (waste)waters and mixtures of organic pollutants in extracts from swimming crab tissues.

## 2. Material and Methods

### 2.1. Sample preparations

Aflatoxin B1 from *Aspergillus flavus* (AFB1, ≥ 98% purity), Benzo[a]pyrene (B(a)P, ≥ 96 % purity), Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254, analytical standards grade) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Solutions of these toxicants were prepared in DMSO as described previously [6]. Water samples were obtained from a sampling campaign in the city of Sneek, in the Netherlands as described in [32]. These included wastewater samples originating from community, hospital, nursing home, wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) influent, WWTP effluent, surface water that receive the treated effluent, and a non-receiving surface water. All samples were transported in cooling boxes and stored at -20 °C until use. Other wastewaters tested in this study were WWTP influents and associated effluents (sampled at the same time) from various locations in the Netherlands and Germany [van Heijnsbergen et al., under review]. Prior to use in nematode exposure, water samples were processed as described previously [Karengera et al., under review]. In short, all

(waste)water samples were centrifuged and filtrated to remove suspended solids, and were used without further extraction or preconcentration.

Regarding swimming crab tissues (collected in Hangzhou bay in China), organic pollutants were extracted as described by [Bao et al. in preparation]. In short, crabs were separated into the raw edible lipid part (fat) and raw meat followed by sample homogenization in 1mL Milli-Q water using ultrasound homogenizer (Scientz, DY89). 10 grams of each sample were dried overnight at 35 °C and mixed with 1 g NaSO<sub>4</sub>. After that hexane/acetone (1:1) liquid-liquid extraction methods were applied as described in [33]. The extracted samples were de-sulphurated by adding tetrabutyl ammonium sulfite (US-EPA method No.3660) and further clean-up was performed using a multilayer acid-base silica column as described in [34]. In a final step, the extracts were dissolved in DMSO and stored at -20 °C until use.

## 2.2. Nematode culture and exposure

Synchronized L4 stage larvae of *C. elegans* wild-type Bristol N2 strain were cultured as described in [6]. Twenty-four-hour exposure was carried out in duplicate in Falcon™ 15 mL conical tubes at 20 °C. For each sample, approximately 10,000 nematodes were exposed in 3 mL of medium without feeding during the exposure period to minimize any potential developmental differences in the exposure patterns. For AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, the nematodes were exposed to 30 µM of each toxicant (with the final DMSO concentration of 0.5%). The extract stock solutions with organic pollutants from swimming crab tissues were first diluted 10 times in DMSO before dosing (with a final DMSO concentration of 0.5%). After the exposure period, the exposure tubes were centrifuged for 1 minute at 1,000 rpm at 20 °C (Avanti J-15 Centrifuge, Beckman Coulter). Hereafter, the nematode pellets were transferred into 2 mL microtubes (Eppendorf® Safe-Lock tubes, Biopur®) and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute before storing them at -80 °C until later use. Two independent biological replicate samples were analyzed per treatment (except for WWTP influents and effluents originating from other locations where only one replicate was tested).

## 2.3. Nematode lysis

Nematodes lysates were prepared using the QGP sample processing kit for fresh or frozen tissues (QS0106) following the manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen's MAN0017268) with modifications. Briefly, the nematodes lysates were prepared by adding 400 µL of working homogenization solution, consisting of a combination of 4 µL proteinase K and 400 µL homogenate solution (Thermo Fisher), to the frozen pellets of the nematode samples and each mixed well by pipetting up and down several times until fully resuspended. The samples were then transferred to the tubes containing beads and proceeded with beat beating homogenization (6500 rpm, 3 cycles of 20 seconds each with an inter-cycle pause of 30 seconds) using a Precellys® Evolution homogenizer. Samples were then incubated at 65 °C for 30 minutes. During this incubation, the samples were vortexed at maximum speed

for 1 minute every 10 minutes. After this step, the samples were centrifuged at  $16,000 \times g$  for 15 minutes (at room temperature) to pellet any remaining cellular debris followed by the transfer of supernatants to new test tubes and store at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until multiplex assay analysis.

## 2.4. Multiplex assay design

Target mRNA markers were selected among the DEGs found in our previous transcriptomics studies with microarrays [6] [Karengera et al. under review] in which expression of 46 targets was already confirmed/validated using RT-qPCR. In collaboration with Thermo Fisher Scientific, multiplex panels containing target-specific probe sets and magnetic capture beads were manufactured and supplied (premixed and ready to use). Two multiplex panels were designed: one with 14 target mRNAs (14-plex assay, **see pilot study in Suppl. material**) and another with 50 target mRNAs (50-plex assay, **Table 1**). The 14-gene panel, designed with target mRNAs of genes responding to AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254, was used in a pilot experiment to formulate the design and protocols of the bead-based multiplex assay with crude nematode lysates without the need of RNA extraction and purification. A pure RNA extract of one of the samples was included in the pilot study as a positive control to determine the effectiveness of the nematodes homogenization protocol. Subsequently, the approach was applied using a 50-gene panel including 46 target mRNAs previously found to respond to various contaminants and 4 genes selected as references. Before running the full-scale experiment, the performance of the 50-plex was assessed by testing 1:1 (undiluted), 1:5, and 1:25 diluted lysates from nematodes exposed to surface water (negative control) or community wastewater (positive control). Dilutions of nematode lysates were prepared by using homogenization solution (prepared as mentioned above). After assessing its performance, the 50-plex was checked by comparing the outcome to the data from our early microarrays and RT-qPCR studies. As these assessments and checks were successful, the 50-plex was used to fingerprint WWTP influents originating from various locations and of organic pollutants in extracts from swimming crab tissues.

**Table 1.** Target mRNAs in *C. elegans* analysed using bead-based 50-Plex gene expression assay. Probe sets were designed to specifically hybridize to each of the 50 targets.

Target Symbol	Accession Number	Sequence Length	Probe set region
<i>cest-33</i>	NM_072220	1773	73-553
F10D2.8	NM_001322565	1485	6-313
F56D6.8	NM_001028064	329	2-259
<i>vmo-1</i>	NM_075562	688	55-507
F16B4.7	NM_071046	330	2-230
<i>acdh-1</i>	NM_001383261	3009	794-1285
R12E2.15	NM_001382870	268	8-246
<i>cyp-14A4</i>	NM_077806	1554	102-575
R09E12.9	NM_001038410	479	68-347
T28A11.3	NM_071503	683	1-585

<i>fat-5</i>	NM_075081	1104	427-865
<i>lipl-3</i>	NM_070832	1437	228-685
<i>cyp-13A6</i>	NM_063712	1759	344-814
Y45F10D.6	NM_070261	664	91-590
T28A11.4	NM_071502	349	4-246
C23G10.11	NM_065953	362	36-323
<i>clec-210</i>	NM_071454	1182	597-1025
<i>dhs-23</i>	NM_074419	1080	518-983
Y46H3D.8	NM_071061	744	23-563
<i>gst-20</i>	NM_064457	817	109-767
<i>mdh-1</i>	NM_072255	1149	20-449
<i>cyp-35A1</i>	NM_001356694	1546	37-521
T06C12.14	NM_074575	777	27-499
<i>cdr-1</i>	NM_074585	948	409-874
<i>par-5</i>	NM_069834	1106	422-814
<i>clec-52</i>	NM_068970	1027	62-557
<i>cyp-35D1</i>	NM_074643	1576	44-586
K03D3.2	NM_070543	513	31-374
<i>rpl-6</i>	NM_066183	769	2-472
F42A10.7	NM_065940	674	2-491
K08D8.3	NM_070059	1916	584-1059
F41F3.3	NM_071850	471	76-384
<i>asp-13</i>	NM_072831	1348	489-987
F46C5.1	NM_063478	764	117-658
<i>col-160</i>	NM_001380796	1115	9-429
<i>lips-6</i>	NM_069875	1214	408-899
Y49G5A.1	NM_072012	626	27-524
<i>cyp-13A10</i>	NM_063684	1803	543-1165
F08G2.5	NM_064500	537	28-486
<i>tag-297</i>	NM_064638	1940	353-821
<i>chil-28</i>	NC_003280	3404	101-740
<i>ugt-41</i>	NM_072417	1793	234-767
<i>tbg-1</i>	NM_066730	1480	2-479
<i>cyp-33D1</i>	NM_074675	1516	116-815
<i>cpt-3</i>	NM_065097	2217	242-815
<i>wrt-4</i>	NM_078192	1891	7-419
C24B9.3	NM_001028500	1420	374-827
<i>cest_29</i>	NC_003283	1982	97-772
<i>spl-2</i>	NM_072971	1772	177-679
<i>ugt-8</i>	NM_071914	1758	267-827

## 2.5. Multiplex assay procedure

Target mRNA transcripts were quantified in nematode lysates using a QGP gene expression assay (Thermo Fisher) performed as per the manufacturer's protocol (MAN0017862). All QGP reagents were purchased from Thermo Fisher. Briefly, an appropriate volume of working bead mix was prepared by combining nuclease-free water (18.5  $\mu$ L), lysis mixture (33.3  $\mu$ L), blocking reagent (2  $\mu$ L), proteinase K (0.2  $\mu$ L), capture beads (1  $\mu$ L), and probe set (5  $\mu$ L). This 60  $\mu$ L working bead mix was pipetted into each well of the 96-well hybridization plate and subsequently 40  $\mu$ L sample, i.e. nematode lysate, was added. Each sample was tested in duplicate (two technical replicates). The Assay background (i.e., the signal generated by assay in the absence of RNA) was performed in triplicate by adding 40  $\mu$ L of working homogenizing solution (instead of nematode lysate) to the working bead mix. Next, the hybridization plate was sealed tight (using the pressure seal) and placed in the shaking incubator and incubated for 20 hours at 54  $^{\circ}$ C  $\pm$  1  $^{\circ}$ C at 600 rpm. After incubation, the protocol (MAN0017862) was resumed. Plates were read using the MAGPIX™ system equipped with Luminex xPONENT software (version 4.2.1705.0).

## 2.6. Data analysis and statistics

After reading the plate, the raw data obtained during the readout (for each gene target per well) were displayed as fluorescence intensity (FI) and only the median values (MFI) were considered for further analysis. Data processing was carried out by using a QGP Data Analysis Software (version 1.1) which is freely available online [25]. In this software, the data quality control parameters were set as follows: 10 MFI for maximum background, 20% for technical precision (% CV), 30000 MFI for saturation, and 35 as required minimum number of beads (the MAGPIX instrument automatically counts the number of beads contained in each well). The limit of detection (LOD) was determined by multiplying 3 (set as default in the software) the background signal's standard deviation plus the mean background signal. To determine gene expression, the average signal (Avg MFI) of technical replicates was first calculated for each target mRNA (including reference genes). Next, the average background signals (i.e., measured in the absence of nematode lysate) were subtracted for each gene (i.e., both targets and references), which resulted in average net MFI (Avg Net MFI). Next, for each sample, each test gene signal (Avg Net MFI) was divided by the reference gene signal (Avg Net MFI). These steps correct for deviations due to sample preparation, sample input and deviations between wells and experiments. Differential mRNA expression fold change was calculated (in each biological replicate) by dividing the normalized value for the treated samples by the normalized value from the untreated sample. The *C. elegans* tubulin gamma chain (*tbg-1*) was used as a reference gene to normalize the data (the expression stability of *tbg-1* was first confirmed in the exposure conditions tested). The fold changes obtained in two biological replicates were averaged in excel and used for further analysis. Correlation between 50-plex and RT-qPCR data or between 50-plex and microarrays (presented as log2 average relative gene expression fold changes) was determined. Slopes



and regression coefficients were generated in excel and correlations were considered significant at  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Multiplex assay technical evaluation

A first check was carried out on bead-beating homogenization of nematodes. The bead-beating homogenization was efficient for nematode lysis as all nematodes (~10 000 worms per sample) were entirely dissolved according to the visual observation of the lysates through a binocular microscope. A preliminary study using a 14-gene panel was conducted to formulate the design and protocols of the bead-based multiplex assay with *C. elegans*. The measured MFI (median fluorescence intensity) values for the different mRNAs (14-plex) in the nematode lysates were proportional to the dilution used (**Suppl. Figure S1**,  $R^2 > 0.9$ ). Hence, we were confident to proceed to the full-scale test with the 50-plex panel set.

The signal linearity of the 50-plex panel set, containing 46 target mRNAs and 4 candidate genes as reference to normalize gene expression data, was assessed in 1:1 (undiluted), 1:5 and 1:25 diluted lysates of the water exposure and control samples to optimize the assay. MFI signals in all dilutions of surface water and community wastewater samples resulted in accurate data, i.e., target signals were generally within the suggested range between 70 – 130 of the % recovery values (**Suppl. Table S1.B**). Except from *wrt-4* in 1:25 diluted sample ( $< 6$  MFI) and saturation for *rpl-6*, *col-160*, and C24B9.3 in 1:5 dilution ( $> 30\,000$  MFI) (**Suppl. Table S1.A and B**). All bead-counts extended the minimum of 35, except for undiluted community wastewater samples (**Suppl. Table S1.C**).

In order to select reference genes for normalization, the expression stability of four candidate genes, *par-5*, *tbg-1*, *rpl-6*, and *mdh-1*, was evaluated. The transcripts of *par-5* and *tbg-1* genes were the most stable (variation was  $< 20\%$ ) and were further used for normalization of data (**Suppl. Table S1.D**). The expression of *mdh-1* varied most, on average approximately 35%, and the MFI signal for *rpl-6* was already saturated in 1:5 samples, and thus not suited for real practice. Therefore, *mdh-1* and *rpl-6* were excluded as reference genes. Overall, the “50-plex panel set” was found to perform well, i.e. investigating 46 target genes and 2 reference genes (*par-5* and *tbg-1*). Based on the linearity of the probe set signals, the optimal dilution for real samples was considered to be 1:4 and therefore used in the full-scale experiment.

Overall, sample dilution was the major variable determining the success of this multiplex assay. The undiluted tissue lysates could trigger clogging of the sample probe-needle utilized in the MAGPIX instrument which would prevent the beads to be transferred properly to sample probe tube. Using undiluted tissue lysates can also cause signal saturation ( $> 30\,000$  MFI). Therefore, the nematode lysates should adequately be diluted to avoid such

issues. Diluting lysates could also assist in preventing beads loss during the washing steps, and facilitate the sorting and reading of magnetic beads by the Luminex xMAP reader.

### 3.2. Sample analysis with the 50-plex panel set

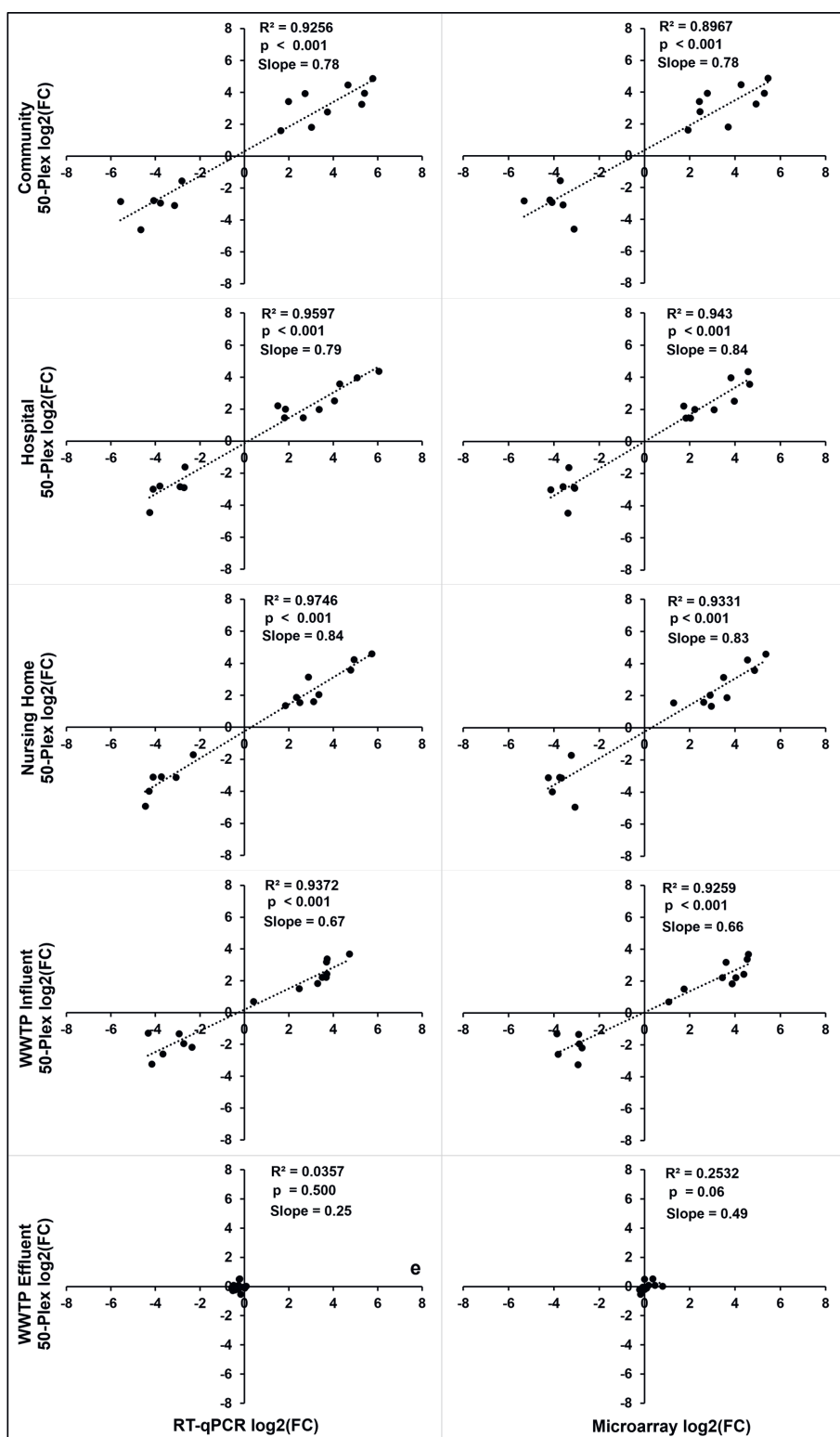
The results of the 50-plex were compared to previous data obtained from gene expression studies using microarrays and RT-qPCR analysis of *C. elegans* exposed to pure compounds (AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254) and (waste)water samples. Thereafter, the 50-plex assay was used to fingerprint different wastewater sources (community, hospital, and nursing home), WWTP influents originating from various locations, and mixtures of organic pollutants in extracts from swimming crab tissues.

No background signals ( $< 10$  MFI) were observed for the above mentioned samples (**Suppl. Table S2.A**). Although all 50 mRNAs were successfully measured in all samples, three mRNA targets were excluded from the analysis (*gst-20*, *rpl-6*, and *col-160*) as their MFI signals were saturated ( $> 30,000$ ) at the dilution used (**Suppl. Table S2.B**). Unexpectedly, signal saturation was also observed for reference gene *par-5* in many samples, while all MFI signals measured for reference gene *tbg-1* were well within the detection range of the assay ( $> 10$  MFI or  $< 30,000$  MFI). Therefore, *tbg-1* ultimately was the only reference gene used for normalization of mRNAs data measured by the 50-plex assay. For the whole 96-well plate, the bead counts were all above the minimum required number ( $> 35$  beads per target per well) except for *wrt-4* and *F46C5.1* in a few samples (**Suppl. Table S2.C**). These samples were excluded from further analysis.

### 3.3. Correlation between 50-plex and microarray analysis and 50-plex and RT-qPCR analysis

We set out to validate our multiplex approach by comparing gene expression levels as measured by the 50-plex assay with those determined in established microarray and RT-qPCR analysis. These included the DEGs observed after exposure to  $30\ \mu\text{M}$  AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254 and to water samples as described previously in our microarray study in which expression of some genes were already confirmed by RT-qPCR analysis [6] [Karengera et al., under review]. From the 46 selected target mRNAs, 12 mRNAs respond to AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254 while 38 mRNAs respond to (waste)water samples. Among these targets, 9 of the 12 and 15 of the 38 transcripts were previously validated/confirmed by RT-qPCR analysis.

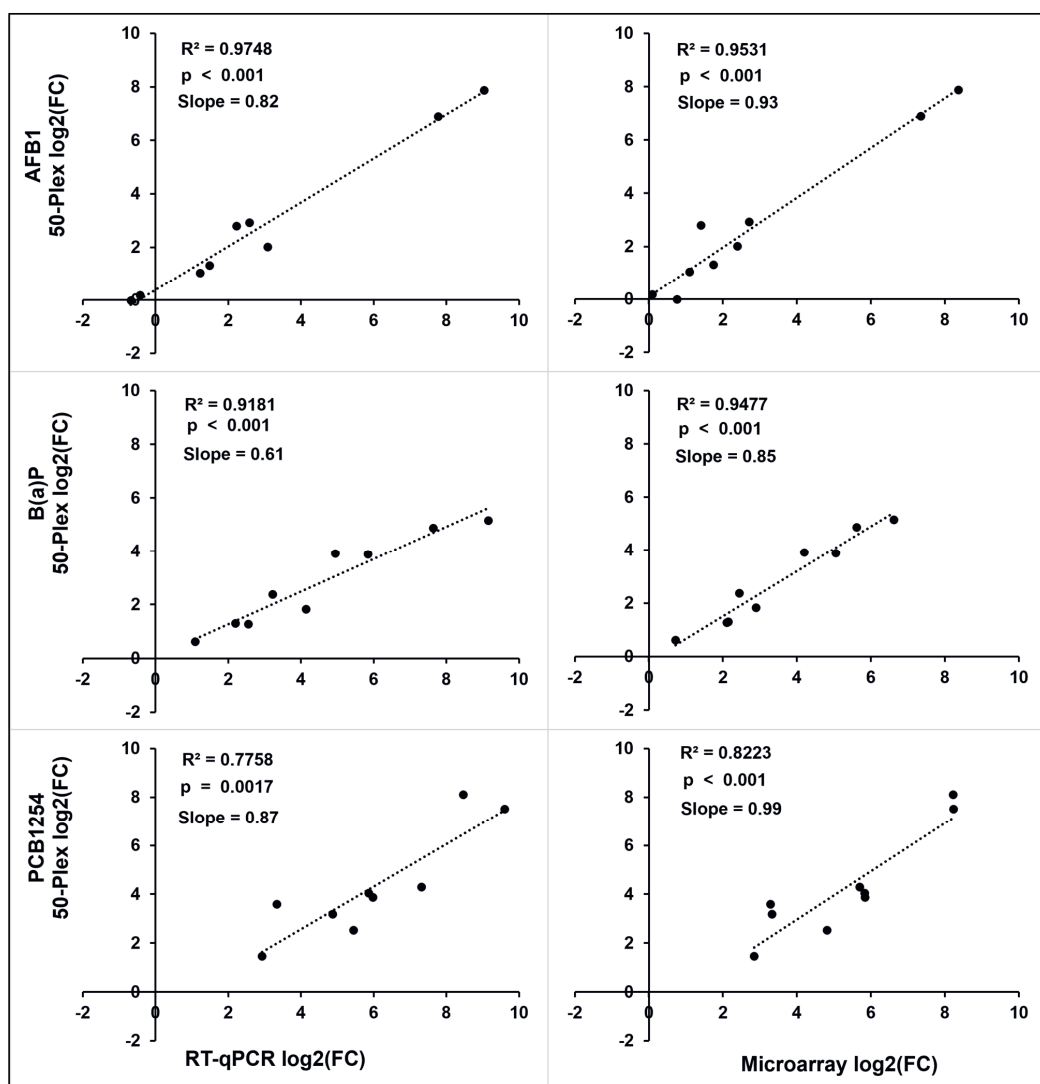
A significant correlation ( $R^2 > 0.8$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.01$ ) was observed between the fold changes of expressions measured by the 50-plex assay and RT-qPCR analysis (**Fig. 1**). Similarly, a comparison between the 50-plex assay and microarray analysis also showed a significant correlation ( $R^2 > 0.8$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.01$ ) (**Fig. 2**). Overall, this show that the newly developed 50-plex for analysis of mRNA transcripts in *C. elegans* results in the same outcomes as microarray and RT-qPCR analysis, but it is much more easier and faster.



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**Figure 1.** Comparison between mRNA expression measurements by the bead-based 50-Plex assay, RT-qPCR and microarray assays for a selection of 15 target genes. The regression plots for log2-transformed mRNA expression data in the nematodes treated with (waste)water are shown. The analysis involved 15 target mRNAs responding to the (waste)water originating from community, hospital, nursing home, wastewater treatment influent or effluent. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the 50-Plex assay and RT-qPCR (right column) or between the 50-Plex assay and microarray assays (left column). Correlations were considered significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

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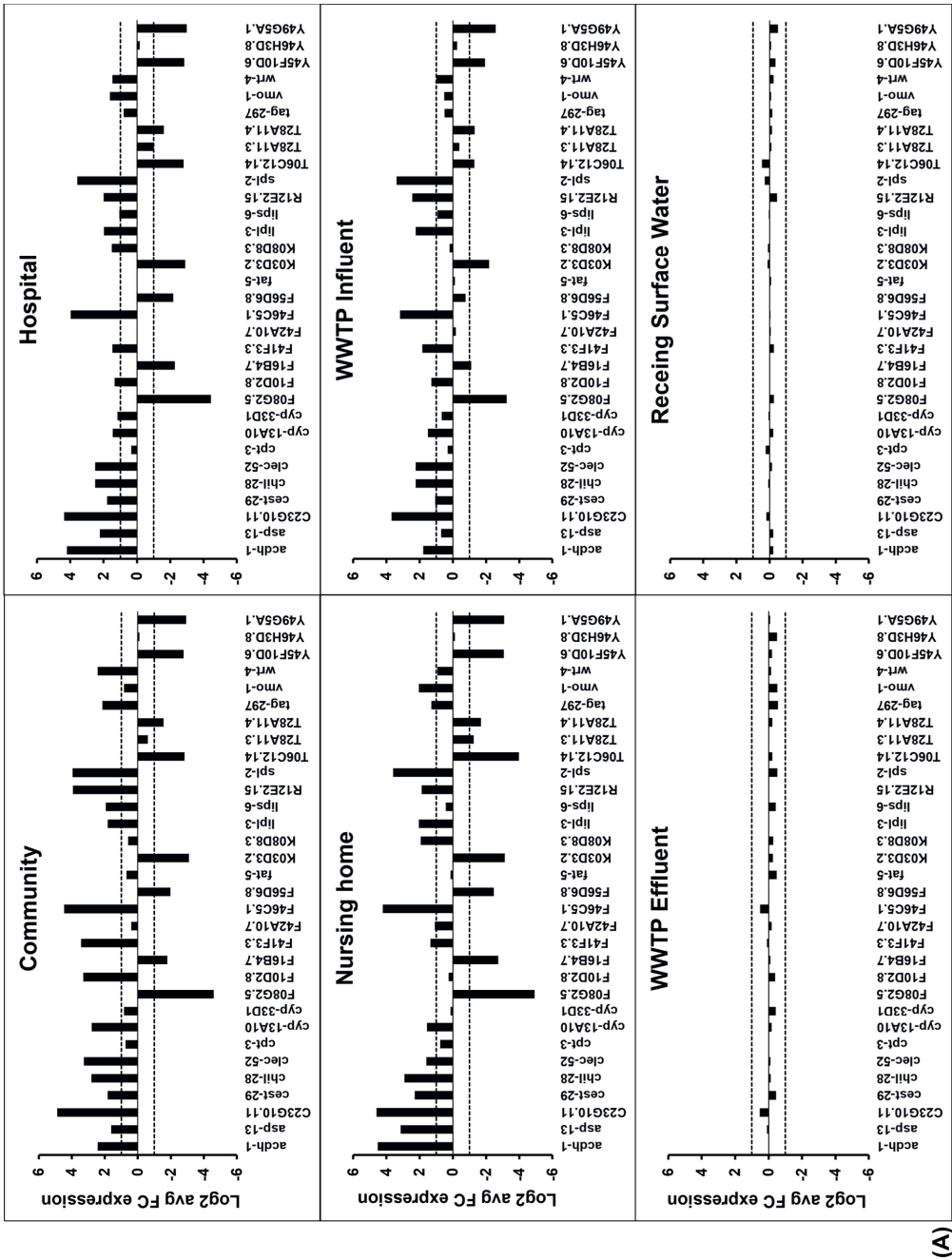
**Figure 2.** Comparison between mRNA expression measurements by the bead-based 50-Plex assay, RT-qPCR and microarray assays for a selection of 9 target genes. The regression plots for log<sub>2</sub>-transformed mRNA expression data in the nematodes treated with indirect-acting toxicants are shown. The analysis involved 9 target mRNAs of the genes responding to aflatoxin B1 (AFB1), benzo(a)pyrene (B(a)P), or Aroclor 1254 (PCB1254). Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between 50-Plex assay and RT-qPCR (right column) or between 50-Plex assay and microarray assays (left column). Correlations were considered significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

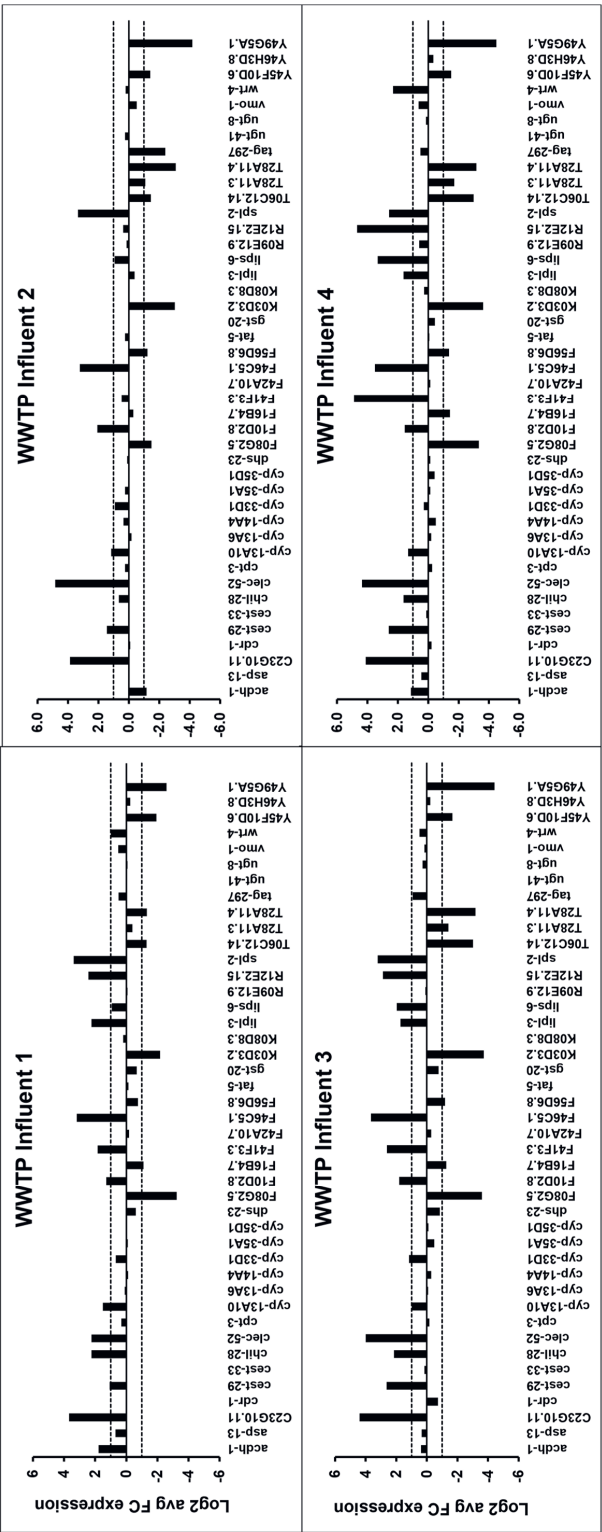
### 3.4. 50-plex fingerprinting of polluted field samples

Compared to the nematodes exposed to surface water (control), gene expression patterns induced by wastewater samples revealed a clear difference. As depicted in **Fig. 3A**, untreated wastewaters significantly triggered differential expression of target genes while exposure of the nematodes to treated WWTP effluent and the receiving surface water did not result in significant transcriptional response. Among the top affected transcripts, exposure to untreated wastewater especially upregulated C23G10.11, F46C5.1 and *spl-2* ( $> 3$  log<sub>2</sub>-fold change) in all samples. The transcripts of F08G2.5, K03D3.2 and Y49G5A.1 were among the most downregulated ones.

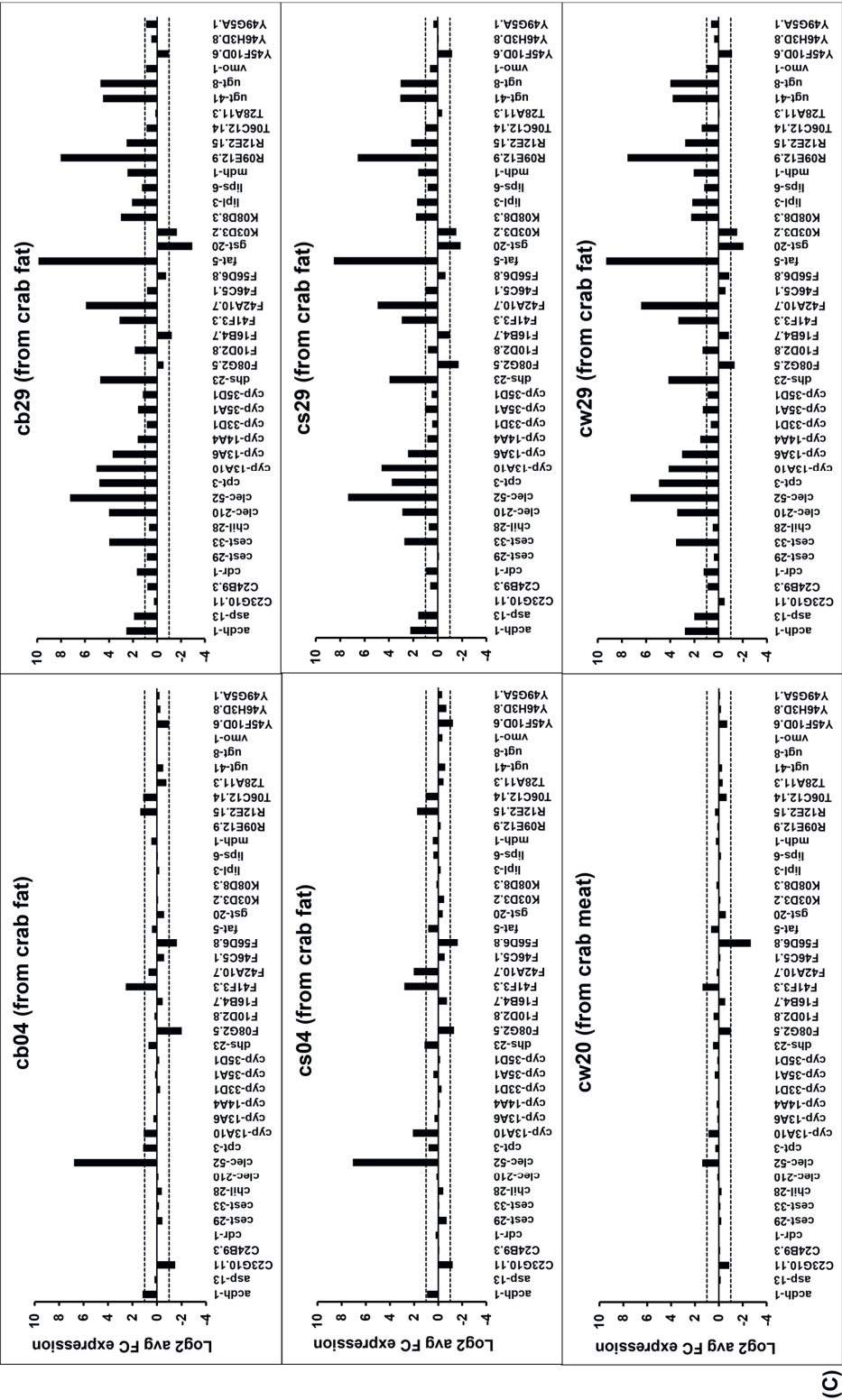
Gene expression profiling in the nematodes exposed to untreated WWTP influents from different locations showed comparable expression patterns (i.e. affected similar mRNAs) (**Fig. 3B**). These target transcripts were previously selected as marker genes for wastewater, and thus confirm the consistency of the profile obtained with polluted wastewater samples. The mRNA of C23G10.11, *clec-52*, F46C5.1 and *spl-2* were among the most upregulated transcripts for all WWTP influents and their expression levels were increased above 3 log<sub>2</sub>-fold change. The transcripts of F08G2.5, K03D3.2, T28A11.4 and Y49G5A were among the most downregulated for influent wastewaters ( $> 3$  log<sub>2</sub>-fold change).

Gene expression profiling in the nematodes exposed to organic extracts from tissues of swimming crabs from cb29, cs29, and cw29 samples showed comparable responses and the same was the case for cb04 and cs04 samples (**Fig. 3C**). These samples were the extracts obtained from specifically the edible lipid part (fat) of crabs. Transcriptional effects by sample cw20, that originated from raw crab meat, were limited and resembled the gene expression patterns obtained by cb04 and cs04. The expression levels of many mRNAs were differentially up- or downregulated above a threshold of 1 log<sub>2</sub>-fold change (**Table 2**). The affected transcripts totaled 29 for cw29, 28 for cb29, 27 for cs29, 11 for cs04, 10 for cb04, and 3 cw20 sample. Of these transcripts, *clec-52*, *fat-5* and R09E12.9 were the most upregulated ( $> 6$  log<sub>2</sub>-fold change) by cb29, cs29 and cw29. The transcript of *clec-52* was also the most upregulated for cs04 (7.1 log<sub>2</sub>-fold), cb04 (6.8 log<sub>2</sub>-fold), and cw20 (1.4 log<sub>2</sub>-fold). Chemical compositions of these samples (i.e., the extracts from swimming crab tissues) are provided as supplementary information (**Suppl. Table S4**) and correlations between observed patterns and chemical composition are discussed.









**Figure 3.** Transcriptional fingerprint of exposed *C. elegans* analysed using a bead-based 50-Plex gene expression assay. The transcriptional profiles in nematodes exposed to (A) untreated and treated wastewaters; (B) wastewater inflows to WWTPs from various locations; (C) organic pollutant extracts from swimming crabs collected in Hangzhou bay in China. An exposure sample from a non-receiving surface water was used as control in (A), WWTP Effluents related to each of the influent samples tested was used as control in (B), and an exposure sample with 0.5% DMSO was used as control in (C). The fold change of gene expression level was calculated as the relative mRNA amount of a target gene in a test sample and a control sample, normalized to the housekeeping gene *tbg-1*. Positive values represent up-regulation, negative values represent down-regulation. Gene expression levels between 1 and -1 (log2 average fold change) shown in figure by plotted lines were considered as noise.

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**Table 2.** Differential mRNA expression fold changes in the nematode exposed to the organic pollutants extracted from swimming crab tissues. The table displays log2-transformed mean expression measurements obtained from two independent biological replicate samples using the newly developed bead-based 50-plex assay. Negative value (-) indicates down regulation of the gene.

Targets	cb04	cb29	cs04	cs29	cw20	cw29
<i>acdh-1</i>	1.2	2.6	0.9	2.2	0.0	2.8
<i>asp-13</i>	0.2	1.9	0.0	1.6	-0.2	2.0
C23G10.11	-1.5	0.3	-1.2	-0.1	-0.9	-0.5
C24B9.3	0.0	0.8	-0.1	0.6	-0.1	0.9
<i>cdr-1</i>	-0.1	1.7	0.2	0.9	0.1	1.2
<i>cest-29</i>	-0.4	0.9	-0.7	-0.1	-0.2	0.4
<i>cest-33</i>	-0.2	4.0	-0.1	2.7	-0.1	3.5
<i>chil-28</i>	-0.4	0.7	-0.4	0.7	-0.2	0.5
<i>clcc-210</i>	-0.1	4.0	0.1	2.9	0.1	3.4
<i>clcc-52</i>	6.8	7.2	7.1	7.3	1.4	7.3
<i>cpt-3</i>	1.1	4.8	0.8	3.8	0.3	4.9
<i>cyp-13A10</i>	1.1	5.0	2.1	4.6	0.9	4.1
<i>cyp-13A6</i>	0.3	3.7	0.3	2.4	0.1	3.0
<i>cyp-14A4</i>	0.1	1.6	-0.1	0.8	0.2	1.5
<i>cyp-33D1</i>	-0.3	0.9	-0.3	0.4	0.0	0.7
<i>cyp-35A1</i>	0.2	1.6	0.4	1.0	0.3	1.3
<i>cyp-35D1</i>	-0.2	1.2	-0.2	0.5	0.1	0.9
<i>dhs-23</i>	0.7	4.7	1.1	4.0	0.5	4.2
F08G2.5	-2.0	-0.5	-1.3	-1.7	-1.0	-1.3
F10D2.8	0.2	1.9	-0.1	0.8	0.4	1.3
F16B4.7	-0.5	-1.2	-0.7	-1.0	-0.5	-0.9
F41F3.3	2.5	3.1	2.8	2.9	1.4	3.3
F42A10.7	0.7	5.9	2.0	4.9	0.2	6.4
F46C5.1	-0.6	0.8	-0.6	1.0	-0.1	-0.6
F56D6.8	-1.6	-0.8	-1.6	-0.7	-2.7	-0.9
<i>fat-5</i>	0.4	9.9	0.8	8.5	0.6	9.3
K03D3.2	-0.1	-1.7	-0.5	-1.5	-0.1	-1.5
K08D8.3	0.0	3.0	0.1	1.8	0.2	2.3
<i>lipl-3</i>	-0.2	2.1	-0.2	1.7	-0.1	2.2
<i>lips-6</i>	-0.1	1.3	0.4	0.8	-0.2	1.2
<i>mdh-1</i>	0.5	2.5	0.5	1.6	0.2	2.1
R09E12.9	0.1	8.0	-0.2	6.6	0.1	7.6
R12E2.15	1.4	2.5	1.7	2.2	0.3	2.8
T06C12.14	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	-0.7	1.4
T28A11.3	-0.8	0.2	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3	-0.1
<i>ugt-41</i>	-0.5	4.5	-0.6	3.1	-0.3	3.8
<i>ugt-8</i>	0.1	4.7	-0.1	3.0	0.0	4.0
<i>vmo-1</i>	0.0	0.9	-0.3	0.6	0.0	1.0
Y45F10D.6	-1.0	-1.0	-1.2	-1.2	-0.7	-1.1
Y46H3D.8	-0.3	0.5	-0.7	-0.1	-0.2	0.4
Y49G5A.1	-0.2	0.9	-0.3	0.4	-0.1	0.6

#### 4. Discussion

In this study, a multiplex fluorescent bead-based assay for the nematode *C. elegans* was successfully developed using a QuantiGene™ Plex Assay, i.e. to analyze the expression of target mRNA transcripts in nematodes exposed to model contaminants and to polluted and relatively clean water samples. Marker genes were selected for AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254 and those responding to polluted wastewater samples but not to clean field water samples (treated wastewater or surface water). The 50-plex assay was successfully applied to fingerprint the possible presence of pollutants in samples. Generally, the assay showed a good performance as shown by low background signals and a good correlation with microarray and RT-qPCR analysis. This assay is suited to quantify expression levels of target mRNAs directly in crude lysates of nematodes (e.g., the worms directly exposed to unconcentrated water samples).

The profiling outcomes showed that wastewater samples were contaminated with pollutants that regulated the expression of several of the selected target genes, while relatively clean samples including treated WWTP effluent and the receiving surface water not or hardly affected the expression of these genes. Further analysis of WWTP influent samples from four different locations (including three new samples not tested previously with microarray or RT-qPCR) showed comparable profiles of transcriptional effects, confirming the validity of the mRNA markers analysed. Interestingly, *spl-2*, *clec-52*, C23G10.11 and F46C5.1 previously found to be the most upregulated genes in wastewaters [Karengera et al., under review], were also among the top induced transcripts in all WWTP influents analysed by 50-plex assay. The nematode *spl-2* and *clec-52* respectively encode sphingosine phosphate lyase and C-type lectin (CLEC) proteins which are involved in nematode defense response to bacterial infection [35, 36]. This suggests that the tested wastewater samples also were contaminated with pathogens, which is in line with early microarray findings [Karengera et al., under review]. The function of proteins encoded by C23G10.11 and F46C5.1 is not yet known.

Gene expression profiling of pollutants in extracts from swimming crab tissues using the newly developed 50-Plex assay identified many responsive genes among the mRNA markers tested. The assay showed that the edible fat parts were polluted with contaminants that affected many of the target genes tested whereas the relatively clean crab meat did not show significant effects on these genes. Transcriptional effects of such extracts in *C. elegans* were not previously determined so our results cannot be compared to other studies. The extracts were however assessed using a battery of other bioassays and various toxic effects were confirmed in these samples [Bao et al, in preparation]. The most potent samples in our study (cb29, cs29 and sw29) also had the highest toxic potency in the other bioassays (**Suppl. Table S3**). Since the nematode genes responding to B(a)P and PCB were already evaluated previously [6], eleven mRNAs of those genes were included in the present 50-

plex assay as biomarkers for fingerprinting crab food contaminated with mixtures of organic pollutants. The extracts from the lipid part (but not meat) of swimming crabs induced similar effects as B(a)P and PCB as pure compounds, indicating that the swimming crabs were indeed polluted with toxic substances belonging to these classes of compounds. Among the transcripts predicted to be affected by these samples, our bioassay revealed the upregulation of *dhs-23*, *cyp-13A6*, *cyp-13A10*, *ugt-8*, *ugt-41*, *spl-2*, *cest-33*, *clcc-210* and R09E12.9 which are all xenobiotic response genes [6, 37]. Interestingly, the transcripts that were originally included in the assay as markers of wastewater pollutants [Karengera et al., under review], such as *fat-5*, *clcc-52*, *acd-1*, *lip-3*, *asp-13*, *cpt-3*, F42A10.7, F41F3.3, K08D8.3 and R12E2.15, were also considerably upregulated in the extracts from crab tissues. The proteins encoded by these genes play various functions in nematode such as nematode fatty acid metabolic process by *fat-5* [38], *lip-3* [39], and *cpt-3* [40] or nematode dietary response by *acd-1* [41] and *asp-13* [42]. Further transcriptomic analysis of the nematode genome-wide response to these samples could show more insights on cellular mechanisms affected by these pollutants or whether the responses were related to crab fat components that were not removed from the extracts.

In summary, we have successfully developed a multiplex assay for gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* without the need of RNA extraction and purification. A panel of mRNA transcripts was effectively assembled as biomarkers and incorporated in a multiplex gene expression assay for detecting bioactive contaminants in polluted samples. The results from this study showed that the newly developed multiplex approach offers many advantages in comparison with the time-consuming RT-qPCR test, especially the direct measurement of target mRNAs in crude nematode lysates. The use of direct exposure of nematodes to even severely polluted water samples like wastewater without the need to pretreat or to dilute the samples in combination with a fast analysis of the genomic responses makes this a potentially interesting bioassay for environmental quality monitoring. We also successfully applied our bioassay to fingerprint the nematode transcriptional responses to mixtures of organic pollutants in the extracts from swimming crab tissues. Our study demonstrated that RNA transcripts of the nematode genes responding to pollutants in water or in crab tissues can be used as pollution indicators. It would therefore be interesting to test more polluted environmental samples to develop and validate more transcriptional biomarkers for monitoring of bioactive contaminants. Further, given that our multiplex gene expression assay uses magnetic beads, the applicability of this bioassay can be further improved by automating the procedure, especially washing steps, which would make high throughput screening easier.

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## Supporting information of chapter 5

### S1. Pilot study with 14-Plex assay

#### 1. Introduction

A pilot experiment was carried out with the goal to develop a novel multiplex gene expression assay method that can measure mRNA transcripts directly from crude lysates of nematodes. The target genes analyzed in this assay were selected from our previous transcriptomics studies conducted with microarrays and RT-qPCR. These genes were shown before to be regulated in the nematodes in response to exposure to various contaminants. In this pilot study we formulated the design and protocols of the fluorescent bead-based multiplex assay with the nematode *C. elegans* as model organism. The outcome of this analysis was subsequently used in the full-scale assay as described in the manuscript.

#### 2. Methods

The pilot study was conducted using a probe set designed with different 14 target mRNAs (i.e., 14-Plex assay) (**Table 1**). The multiplex panel containing target-specific probe sets and magnetic capture beads were manufactured and supplied (premixed and ready to use) by Thermo Fisher. The experiment involved the nematodes (10,000 per sample) treated with 0.5% DMSO (control) and 30 $\mu$ M of AFB1, B(a)P, or PCB1254. Nematode lysis was conducted by using bead beating procedure on a Precellys® Evolution homogenizer. For each lysate sample, four dilutions (1:1, 1:4, 1:16, and 1:64) were prepared and used for further analysis. A sample containing pure RNA (500 ng) isolated from the nematodes exposed to AFB (30 $\mu$ M) was included in the analysis and was tested in four dilutions (1:1, 1:5, 1:25, and 1:125). The sample responses were read with the MAGPIX™ system equipped with Luminex xPONENT software (4.2.1705.0). Derived raw data were presented as median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for one biological replicate analyzed in two technical replicates. Detailed information on the experimental procedures is provided in manuscript.

**Table 1.** Target mRNAs in *C. elegans* analysed using bead-based 14-Plex gene expression assay. Probe sets were designed to specifically hybridize to each of the 14 targets.

Target Symbol	Accession Number	Sequence Length	Probe set region
<i>cest-33</i>	NM_072220	1773	72-553
<i>cyp-35A5</i>	NM_071691	1741	457-881
<i>cyp-35C1</i>	NM_171550	1543	233-690
F25D1.5	NM_073303	1091	403-873
<i>cyp-14A4</i>	NM_077806	1554	102-575
F38C2.1	NM_001307174	357	25-338
<i>cyp-13A6</i>	NM_063712	1759	344-814
<i>clec-210</i>	NM_071454	1182	597-1025
<i>cyp-35A1</i>	NM_001356694	1546	37-521
<i>cdr-1</i>	NM_074585	948	409-874
<i>par-5</i>	NM_069834	1106	422-814
<i>cyp-35D1</i>	NM_074643	1576	44-586
<i>cdr-2</i>	NM_073713	837	23-449
B0205.14	NM_001047166	364	68-330

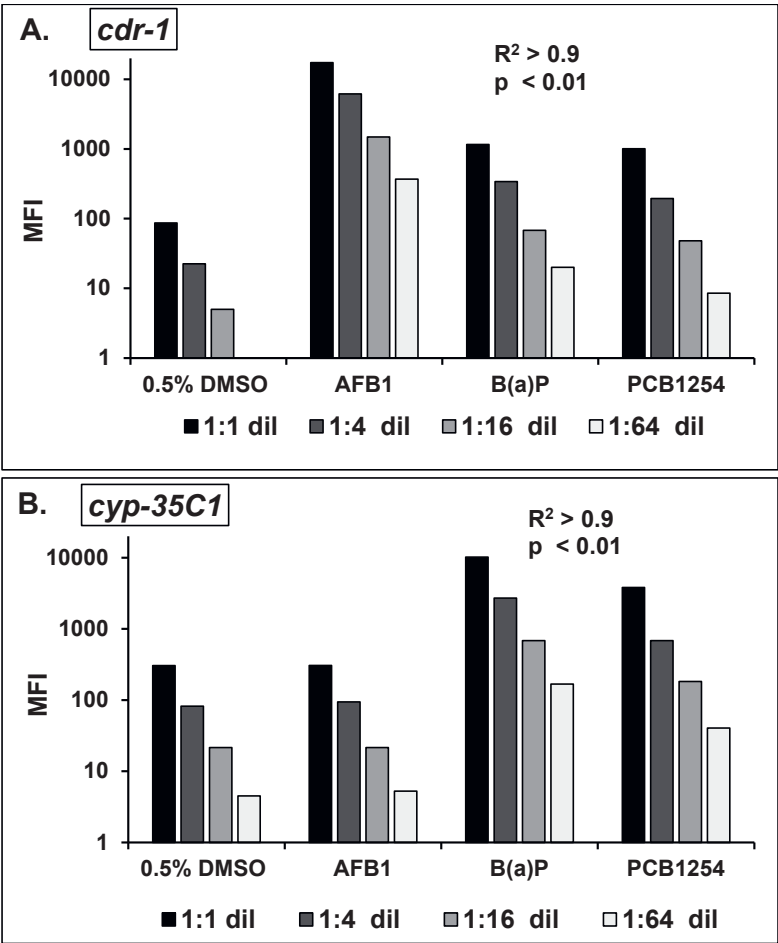
### 3. Results and discussion

Nematode samples were successfully lysed by the bead beating homogenization setup utilized in this procedure. This was confirmed by a visual observation of the lysates through a binocular microscope showing that all the nematodes were entirely dissolved. The signals (MFI) measured in the tested samples were generally within the suggested range between 70 – 130 of the % recovery values (**Suppl. Table S3.B**). The precision as coefficients of variation (%CV) of technical replicates was overall found to be below the limit of 20%. The samples with a %CV above 20% were mostly the highly diluted ones with responses close to the background (**Suppl. Table S3.C**). Saturation (the upper threshold for the intensity of the signal) occurred for few target mRNAs, such as *cest-33* (Esterase CM06B1) or *par-5* (14-3-3-like protein) genes in the undiluted (1:1) samples.

For 1:16 and 1:64 dilution samples (especially for the untreated nematodes), the measured signals (MFI) were close to the maximum background signals or even falling below. Maximum background parameter is the upper limit for which a value is considered to be within the background (noise). In this pilot assay, any signal below 10 MFI was considered as a background. Decrease in signals (MFI) was especially observed for the transcripts of the target genes that are known to express less in the absence of exposure (i.e., in control nematodes). For instance, signals measured for the target transcripts of *cdr-1* (cadmium responsive gene) and *cyp-35C1* (cytochrome P450 gene) were relatively very low in the nematodes exposed to solvent control (0.5% DMSO) especially the 1:64 dilution. The expression level of these genes was considerable in the exposed animals and could even



be quantified in the most diluted samples (**Figure 1**). Additional data from pilot study are provided as supplementary information. Overall, bead-beating homogenization procedure was found to be efficient for nematode lysis. Hence, we considered the protocols suitable to proceed to the full-scale experiment.



**Suppl. Figure S1.** 14-Plex assay measurements. Bar charts correspond to the average net median fluorescence (MFI) values (displayed at log10-scale) for 2 target mRNAs of genes *cdr-1* (Fig. 1A) and *cyp-35C1* (Fig. 1B). The measurements were run on a dilution series (1:1, 1:4, 1:16, and 1:64) of the nematode homogenates. Nematodes were treated with 0.5% DMSO (as control) or 30  $\mu$ M of AFB1, BaP, or PCB1254. Significant positive correlation ( $R^2 > 0.9$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) was found between the measured MFI signals and dilutions series.

**Suppl. Table S1.A.** Background median fluorescence intensities (MFI) signals. Assay signals below the Limit of Detection (LOD) were not used to draw quantitative conclusions about gene expression. LOD is a theoretical limit calculated based on a multiple of background standard deviations above the average background signal.

	cest-33	F10D2.8	F56D6.8	vmo-1	F16B4.7	acdh-1	R12E2.15	cyp-14A4	R09F12.9	T28A11.3	fat-5	lpl-3	cyp-13A6	Y45F10D.6	T28A11.4	C23KG10.11	clcc-210	dhs-23	Y46H3D.8	gst-20	mtth-1	cyp-35A1	T06G12.14	cdt-1	par-5
Background	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3.5	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	4	5	3	2	3
Background	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	4	2	4	3	2	3	3	3	3	6	3	2	3
Measurement limits																									
Avg	2.5	2.0	3.0	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.0	3.8	2.0	3.5	2.5	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.5	5.5	3.0	2.0	3.0
SD	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
SDDev	4.6	2.0	3.0	4.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	4.6	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.0	4.8	2.0	5.6	4.6	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	5.6	7.6	3.0	2.0	3.0
LOD																									

**Suppl. Table S1.A.** (Continued)

	clcc-52	cyp-35D1	K03D3.2	rpl-6	F42A10.7	K08D8.3	F41F3.3	asp-13	F46C5.1	col-160	lpls-6	Y49G5A.1	cyp-13A10	F08G2.5	tag-297	chit-28	ugd-41	tbgc-1	cyp-33D1	cpl-3	wrt-4	C24B9.3	cest-29	spl-2	ugd-8
Background	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	5	5	3	3	3	3	4	4	5	4	3	5	5	5	5	6
Background	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	6	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	5	3	3	4	5	4	5	6
Measurement limits																									
Avg	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.0	5.5	4.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	3.5	3.0	4.5	5.0	4.5	5.0	6.0
SD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0
SDDev	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	5.6	3.0	7.6	6.6	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.6	3.0	6.6	5.0	6.6	5.0	6.0
LOD																									

**Suppl. Table S1.B.** Average net median fluorescence intensities (Av Net MFI) and Dilution Linearity. Linearity calculates the % recovery for a dilution series (" % recovery = observed value/expected value  $\times$  100%). The data whose dilution recovery values falling between 70–130 of the % recovery values were considered to be within the linear range of the assay (green-highlighted cells indicates those outside the linear range, whereas red-highlighted cells contain MFI outside the detection range of the assay, i.e.  $> 10$  MFI or  $< 30,000$  MFI).

Exposure with surface water (SW)																			
Sample	est-33	F10D2.8	F50D6.8	vmo-1	F16B4.7	acdh-1	R12E2.15	cyp-14A4	R09E12.9	T28A11.3	fat-5	lfp-3	cyp-13A6	V4SF10D.4	T28A11.4	c24G10.11	dec-210	dba-23	Y46I3D.8
SW 1:1	1164.5	165	23313	296.5	17529	6337	416	328	380	2785	238	551	601.25	1761.5	717.5	666	268	524	309
SW 1:5	222.5	30.5	6900.5	62.5	3580	1080	107	71.5	86	556	72	132.5	124.25	334.5	149.5	136.5	65	97.5	76.5
SW 1:25	24.5	7	1003	6.5	639	154	18	8.5	11	89.5	9	19	16.25	56.5	20.5	14.5	6	11	9.5
Dilution Linearity	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.62
Re-squared	96	92	148	105	102	85	129	109	113	100	151	120	103	95	104	102	121	93	124
SW 1:5	55	115	73	52	89	71	84	59	64	80	63	72	65	84	69	53	46	56	62
SW 1:25																			
Community 1:1	1828.5	1832	10136	602	6170	26647	6038	360.5	419	1762	544	2271	986.75	246	302.5	15540	685	563	301
Community 1:5	284.5	415	1822	123.5	1085	7619.5	1439	81.5	99	390.5	114	424	172.25	74	60.5	3282.5	157	91	88
Community 1:25	52.5	51.5	314.5	19.5	184	1095	279	11.5	16	70	17.5	111.5	36.25	14	7.5	592	25	13	16
Dilution Linearity	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.92	0.84
Re-squared	78	113	90	103	88	143	119	113	118	111	105	93	87	150	100	106	115	81	146
Community 1:5	62	62	86	79	85	72	97	71	81	90	77	131	105	95	62	90	80	71	91
Community 1:25																			
Exposure with community wastewater																			
Sample	est-33	F10D2.8	F50D6.8	vmo-1	F16B4.7	acdh-1	R12E2.15	cyp-14A4	R09E12.9	T28A11.3	fat-5	lfp-3	cyp-13A6	V4SF10D.4	T28A11.4	c24G10.11	dec-210	dba-23	Y46I3D.8
Community 1:1	1828.5	1832	10136	602	6170	26647	6038	360.5	419	1762	544	2271	986.75	246	302.5	15540	685	563	301
Community 1:5	284.5	415	1822	123.5	1085	7619.5	1439	81.5	99	390.5	114	424	172.25	74	60.5	3282.5	157	91	88
Community 1:25	52.5	51.5	314.5	19.5	184	1095	279	11.5	16	70	17.5	111.5	36.25	14	7.5	592	25	13	16
Dilution Linearity	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.92	0.84
Re-squared	78	113	90	103	88	143	119	113	118	111	105	93	87	150	100	106	115	81	146
Community 1:5	62	62	86	79	85	72	97	71	81	90	77	131	105	95	62	90	80	71	91
Community 1:25																			

**Suppl. Table S1.B. (Continued)**

Exposure with surface water (SW)																			
Sample	dec-52	cyp-35D1	K03D3.2	qpl-6	R42A10.7	K08D8.3	F41F3.3	asp-13	F46C5.1	col-160	lfp-6	Y46C5A1	cyp-13A10	R08C2.5	tag-297	chl-28	ugt-41	thg-1	cyp-33D1
SW 1:1	822	343	17704	2324	448	597	2242	1769.5	1905	21016.5	205.5	1187.5	728	17440	309	657	314	6511	397.5
SW 1:5	179	68.5	3811.5	3913.5	90.5	137	453	343	350	38417.5	49	206.5	131.5	3337	73	142	56	1168	76.5
SW 1:25	23	10	581	24470.5	11	16	98	50.5	65	18954.5	5.5	29	18.5	574	12	17	9.5	168	9
Dilution Linearity	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.18	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.07	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.98
Re-squared	109	100	108	839	101	115	101	97	92	914	119	87	90	96	118	108	89	90	96
SW 1:5	64	73	76	313	61	58	108	74	93	247	56	70	70	86	82	60	85	72	59
SW 1:25																			
Exposure with community wastewater																			
Sample	dec-52	cyp-35D1	K03D3.2	qpl-6	R42A10.7	K08D8.3	F41F3.3	asp-13	F46C5.1	col-160	lfp-6	Y46C5A1	cyp-13A10	R08C2.5	tag-297	chl-28	ugt-41	thg-1	cyp-33D1
Community 1:1	10814	331	2908.5	7875.5	705	924	12974.5	7453	26753	20722.5	1397.5	207	7257	1340.5	1133	5331	369	6842	895.5
Community 1:5	2210	95	677	42151	143.5	190	3481	1297	9678	17470.5	226.5	38	1246	231.5	255	1095	72	1219.5	154.5
Community 1:25	411	17	140	29731	23	35	601	245.5	1191	2517	38.5	9	201.5	50	52	210.5	11	221	23.5
Dilution Linearity	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.75	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.97	0.56	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Re-squared	102	144	116	2676	102	103	134	87	181	422	81	92	86	86	113	99	98	89	86
Community 1:5	93	89	103	353	80	92	86	95	62	72	85	118	81	108	102	96	76	91	76
Community 1:25																			

**Suppl. Table S1.C.** Bead counts (the minimum number of beads that should be counted for each target in each well was set at 35 beads/well (highlighted cells indicate the bead counts below a limit of 35 beads per target per well))

Sample	est-33	F10D2.8	F56D6.8	vmo-1	F76B4.7	acdb-1	R12B2.15	cyp-14A.4	R09P12.9	T28A11.3	fat-5	lpl-3	cyp-13A.6	V45F10D.1	T28A11.4	C22G10.1	dec-210	dhb-23	Y46H3D.8	gst-20	mdh-1	cyp-35A1	T06C12.14	cdt-1	par-5
SW 1.1	84	84	111	121	103	110	91	150	101	123	124	121	115	130	122	116	107	101	107	154	95	119	121	144	99
SW 1.5	101	72	108	117	113	103	108	120	113	102	125	118	109	144	105	120	139	112	122	152	133	111	121	145	116
SW 1.25	88	85	99	111	92	107	82	112	94	108	117	105	109	110	117	109	90	99	132	132	128	95	95	123	112
Community 1.1	13	5	31	10	30	30	41	45	21	29	39	11	10	23	21	22	25	21	13	17	8	14	8	16	39
Community 1.5	96	74	107	98	96	96	101	104	95	116	108	103	81	110	101	121	102	99	117	123	107	106	111	119	96
Community 1.25	103	84	94	114	93	125	110	142	127	123	138	114	109	117	124	122	113	119	124	158	125	106	103	149	109

**Suppl. Table S1.B.** (Continued)

Sample	clec-52	cyp-35D1	K03D3.2	lpl-6	F42A10.7	K08D8.3	F41F3.3	ssp-13	F46C5.1	col-160	lpl-6	Y49C5A.1	cyp-13A.10	R06C2.5	tag-297	chit-28	ugf-41	lpl-1	cyp-33D1	epf-3	wtf-4	C24B9.3	est-29	sp1-2	ugf-8	Total Reads
SW 1.1	125	93	179	134	102	131	111	135	66	137	123	126	71	131	97	106	131	198	113	89	49	111	113	103	110	5737
SW 1.5	136	112	156	157	124	118	125	116	53	152	122	124	54	157	92	131	177	165	135	106	50	131	115	92	109	5938
SW 1.25	126	119	129	162	106	94	104	130	55	123	121	109	78	100	94	100	138	158	116	90	49	98	125	95	118	5388
Community 1.1	9	11	18	6	19	43	22	24	27	43	13	29	27	36	35	15	34	40	38	24	7	20	18	22	17	1139
Community 1.5	127	106	139	144	92	109	113	106	59	94	112	91	52	110	91	101	109	134	123	94	57	88	95	87	96	5116
Community 1.25	147	152	160	180	99	139	115	155	61	156	121	112	60	136	125	110	149	159	139	114	46	117	128	131	132	6068

**Suppl. Table S1.D.** Expression stability of candidate reference genes. The gene whose expression level varied > 20% or whose MFI signal saturates was considered not stable and not suitable reference gene (green-highlighted cells indicates stable gene expression, whereas red-highlighted cells show the saturation of MFI signals measured)

	<b>mdh-1</b>	<b>par-5</b>	<b>rpl-6</b>	<b>tbg-1</b>
SW 1:1	23038.5	26968	23324	6511
Community 1:1	14475	28244	7875.5	6842
%CV	32.28	3.27	70.03	3.51
	<b>mdh-1</b>	<b>par-5</b>	<b>rpl-6</b>	<b>tbg-1</b>
SW 1:5	5663.5	27252	39135	1168
Community 1:5	8327.5	24614	42151	1219.5
%CV	26.93	7.19	5.25	3.05
	<b>mdh-1</b>	<b>par-5</b>	<b>rpl-6</b>	<b>tbg-1</b>
SW 1:25	651	3880	24470.5	168
Community 1:25	1288.5	4431	29731	221
%CV	46.48	9.38	13.73	19.27

Suppl. Table S2.A Background MFI signals

Sample	ces-33	F00D2.8	F56D6.8	ymo-1	F16B4.7	acdh-1	R12E2.15	cyp-14A4	R09E12.9	T28A11.3	fat-5	lip-3	cyp-13A6	Y45F00D.6	T28A11.4	C23G10.11	cec-210	dhs-23	Y46H3D.8	gst-20	mnh-1	cyp-35A1	T06C12.14	cdc-1	par-5
Background	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	5.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0	3.0	3.0
Background	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	6.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.0
Background	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	5.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	8.0	3.0	3.0
Measurement limits																									
Avg	3.2	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.8	3.0	3.0	3.0	5.3	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.7	3.7	4.0	8.0	3.3	3.0	3.0
StDev	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0
LOD	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	7.1	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	5.1	5.4	5.4	4.0	8.0	5.1	3.0	3.0

Suppl. Table S2.A. (Continued)

Sample	cec-52	cyp-35D1	K03D3.2	rpl-6	F42A10.7	K08D8.3	F41F3.3	asp-13	F46C5.1	col-160	lips-6	Y49C5A.1	cyp-13A10	F08G2.5	lag-297	chil-28	ugt-41	tbg-1	cyp-33D1	cpl-3	wrt-4	C24B9.3	cec-29	spl-2
Background	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	9.5	5.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	5.0	6.0
Background	3.0	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0	5.5	4.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	7.0	5.0	6.0
Background	3.0	4.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	8.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	7.0	5.0	6.0
Measurement limits																								
Avg	3.0	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.0	3.3	3.7	4.0	3.7	8.5	5.2	3.7	3.3	3.3	3.7	4.7	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	5.7	6.7	5.0	6.0
StDev	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0
LOD	3.0	4.0	6.1	6.4	4.0	5.1	5.4	4.0	5.4	11.1	6.0	5.4	5.1	5.1	5.4	6.4	5.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	7.4	8.4	5.0	6.0



col-53	col-52	row-1	row-2	row-3	row-4	row-5	row-6	row-7	row-8	row-9	row-10	row-11	row-12	row-13	row-14	row-15	row-16	row-17	row-18	row-19	row-20	row-21	row-22	row-23	row-24	row-25	row-26	row-27	row-28	row-29	row-30	row-31	row-32	row-33	row-34	row-35	row-36	row-37	row-38	row-39	row-40	row-41	row-42	row-43	row-44	row-45	row-46	row-47	row-48	row-49	row-50	row-51	row-52	row-53	row-54	row-55	row-56	row-57	row-58	row-59	row-60	row-61	row-62	row-63	row-64	row-65	row-66	row-67	row-68	row-69	row-70	row-71	row-72	row-73	row-74	row-75	row-76	row-77	row-78	row-79	row-80	row-81	row-82	row-83	row-84	row-85	row-86	row-87	row-88	row-89	row-90	row-91	row-92	row-93	row-94	row-95	row-96	row-97	row-98	row-99	row-100	row-101	row-102	row-103	row-104	row-105	row-106	row-107	row-108	row-109	row-110	row-111	row-112	row-113	row-114	row-115	row-116	row-117	row-118	row-119	row-120	row-121	row-122	row-123	row-124	row-125	row-126	row-127	row-128	row-129	row-130	row-131	row-132	row-133	row-134	row-135	row-136	row-137	row-138	row-139	row-140	row-141	row-142	row-143	row-144	row-145	row-146	row-147	row-148	row-149	row-150	row-151	row-152	row-153	row-154	row-155	row-156	row-157	row-158	row-159	row-160	row-161	row-162	row-163	row-164	row-165	row-166	row-167	row-168	row-169	row-170	row-171	row-172	row-173	row-174	row-175	row-176	row-177	row-178	row-179	row-180	row-181	row-182	row-183	row-184	row-185	row-186	row-187	row-188	row-189	row-190	row-191	row-192	row-193	row-194	row-195	row-196	row-197	row-198	row-199	row-200	row-201	row-202	row-203	row-204	row-205	row-206	row-207	row-208	row-209	row-210	row-211	row-212	row-213	row-214	row-215	row-216	row-217	row-218	row-219	row-220	row-221	row-222	row-223	row-224	row-225	row-226	row-227	row-228	row-229	row-230	row-231	row-232	row-233	row-234	row-235	row-236	row-237	row-238	row-239	row-240	row-241	row-242	row-243	row-244	row-245	row-246	row-247	row-248	row-249	row-250	row-251	row-252	row-253	row-254	row-255	row-256	row-257	row-258	row-259	row-260	row-261	row-262	row-263	row-264	row-265	row-266	row-267	row-268	row-269	row-270	row-271	row-272	row-273	row-274	row-275	row-276	row-277	row-278	row-279	row-280	row-281	row-282	row-283	row-284	row-285	row-286	row-287	row-288	row-289	row-290	row-291	row-292	row-293	row-294	row-295	row-296	row-297	row-298	row-299	row-300	row-301	row-302	row-303	row-304	row-305	row-306	row-307	row-308	row-309	row-310	row-311	row-312	row-313	row-314	row-315	row-316	row-317	row-318	row-319	row-320	row-321	row-322	row-323	row-324	row-325	row-326	row-327	row-328	row-329	row-330	row-331	row-332	row-333	row-334	row-335	row-336	row-337	row-338	row-339	row-340	row-341	row-342	row-343	row-344	row-345	row-346	row-347	row-348	row-349	row-350	row-351	row-352	row-353	row-354	row-355	row-356	row-357	row-358	row-359	row-360	row-361	row-362	row-363	row-364	row-365	row-366	row-367	row-368	row-369	row-370	row-371	row-372	row-373	row-374	row-375	row-376	row-377	row-378	row-379	row-380	row-381	row-382	row-383	row-384	row-385	row-386	row-387	row-388	row-389	row-390	row-391	row-392	row-393	row-394	row-395	row-396	row-397	row-398	row-399	row-400	row-401	row-402	row-403	row-404	row-405	row-406	row-407	row-408	row-409	row-410	row-411	row-412	row-413	row-414	row-415	row-416	row-417	row-418	
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Sample	cont-5n	PRD-8n	PRD-8n-8	cont-1n	PRD-4n-7	cont-1n-1	PRD-2n-1	PRD-2n-1-1	PRD-2n-1-2	PRD-2n-1-3	PRD-2n-1-4	PRD-2n-1-5	PRD-2n-1-6	PRD-2n-1-7	PRD-2n-1-8	PRD-2n-1-9	PRD-2n-1-10	PRD-2n-1-11	PRD-2n-1-12	PRD-2n-1-13	PRD-2n-1-14	PRD-2n-1-15	PRD-2n-1-16	PRD-2n-1-17	PRD-2n-1-18	PRD-2n-1-19	PRD-2n-1-20	PRD-2n-1-21	PRD-2n-1-22	PRD-2n-1-23	PRD-2n-1-24	PRD-2n-1-25	PRD-2n-1-26	PRD-2n-1-27	PRD-2n-1-28	PRD-2n-1-29	PRD-2n-1-30	PRD-2n-1-31	PRD-2n-1-32	PRD-2n-1-33	PRD-2n-1-34	PRD-2n-1-35	PRD-2n-1-36	PRD-2n-1-37	PRD-2n-1-38	PRD-2n-1-39	PRD-2n-1-40	PRD-2n-1-41	PRD-2n-1-42	PRD-2n-1-43	PRD-2n-1-44	PRD-2n-1-45	PRD-2n-1-46	PRD-2n-1-47	PRD-2n-1-48	PRD-2n-1-49	PRD-2n-1-50	PRD-2n-1-51	PRD-2n-1-52	PRD-2n-1-53	PRD-2n-1-54	PRD-2n-1-55	PRD-2n-1-56	PRD-2n-1-57	PRD-2n-1-58	PRD-2n-1-59	PRD-2n-1-60	PRD-2n-1-61	PRD-2n-1-62	PRD-2n-1-63	PRD-2n-1-64	PRD-2n-1-65	PRD-2n-1-66	PRD-2n-1-67	PRD-2n-1-68	PRD-2n-1-69	PRD-2n-1-70	PRD-2n-1-71	PRD-2n-1-72	PRD-2n-1-73	PRD-2n-1-74	PRD-2n-1-75	PRD-2n-1-76	PRD-2n-1-77	PRD-2n-1-78	PRD-2n-1-79	PRD-2n-1-80	PRD-2n-1-81	PRD-2n-1-82	PRD-2n-1-83	PRD-2n-1-84	PRD-2n-1-85	PRD-2n-1-86	PRD-2n-1-87	PRD-2n-1-88	PRD-2n-1-89	PRD-2n-1-90	PRD-2n-1-91	PRD-2n-1-92	PRD-2n-1-93	PRD-2n-1-94	PRD-2n-1-95	PRD-2n-1-96	PRD-2n-1-97	PRD-2n-1-98	PRD-2n-1-99	PRD-2n-1-100	PRD-2n-1-101	PRD-2n-1-102	PRD-2n-1-103	PRD-2n-1-104	PRD-2n-1-105	PRD-2n-1-106	PRD-2n-1-107	PRD-2n-1-108	PRD-2n-1-109	PRD-2n-1-110	PRD-2n-1-111	PRD-2n-1-112	PRD-2n-1-113	PRD-2n-1-114	PRD-2n-1-115	PRD-2n-1-116	PRD-2n-1-117	PRD-2n-1-118	PRD-2n-1-119	PRD-2n-1-120	PRD-2n-1-121	PRD-2n-1-122	PRD-2n-1-123	PRD-2n-1-124	PRD-2n-1-125	PRD-2n-1-126	PRD-2n-1-127	PRD-2n-1-128	PRD-2n-1-129	PRD-2n-1-130	PRD-2n-1-131	PRD-2n-1-132	PRD-2n-1-133	PRD-2n-1-134	PRD-2n-1-135	PRD-2n-1-136	PRD-2n-1-137	PRD-2n-1-138	PRD-2n-1-139	PRD-2n-1-140	PRD-2n-1-141	PRD-2n-1-142	PRD-2n-1-143	PRD-2n-1-144	PRD-2n-1-145	PRD-2n-1-146	PRD-2n-1-147	PRD-2n-1-148	PRD-2n-1-149	PRD-2n-1-150	PRD-2n-1-151	PRD-2n-1-152	PRD-2n-1-153	PRD-2n-1-154	PRD-2n-1-155	PRD-2n-1-156	PRD-2n-1-157	PRD-2n-1-158	PRD-2n-1-159	PRD-2n-1-160	PRD-2n-1-161	PRD-2n-1-162	PRD-2n-1-163	PRD-2n-1-164	PRD-2n-1-165	PRD-2n-1-166	PRD-2n-1-167	PRD-2n-1-168	PRD-2n-1-169	PRD-2n-1-170	PRD-2n-1-171	PRD-2n-1-172	PRD-2n-1-173	PRD-2n-1-174	PRD-2n-1-175	PRD-2n-1-176	PRD-2n-1-177	PRD-2n-1-178	PRD-2n-1-179	PRD-2n-1-180	PRD-2n-1-181	PRD-2n-1-182	PRD-2n-1-183	PRD-2n-1-184	PRD-2n-1-185	PRD-2n-1-186	PRD-2n-1-187	PRD-2n-1-188	PRD-2n-1-189	PRD-2n-1-190	PRD-2n-1-191	PRD-2n-1-192	PRD-2n-1-193	PRD-2n-1-194	PRD-2n-1-195	PRD-2n-1-196	PRD-2n-1-197	PRD-2n-1-198	PRD-2n-1-199	PRD-2n-1-200	PRD-2n-1-201	PRD-2n-1-202	PRD-2n-1-203	PRD-2n-1-204	PRD-2n-1-205	PRD-2n-1-206	PRD-2n-1-207	PRD-2n-1-208	PRD-2n-1-209	PRD-2n-1-210	PRD-2n-1-211	PRD-2n-1-212	PRD-2n-1-213	PRD-2n-1-214	PRD-2n-1-215	PRD-2n-1-216	PRD-2n-1-217	PRD-2n-1-218	PRD-2n-1-219	PRD-2n-1-220	PRD-2n-1-221	PRD-2n-1-222	PRD-2n-1-223	PRD-2n-1-224	PRD-2n-1-225	PRD-2n-1-226	PRD-2n-1-227	PRD-2n-1-228	PRD-2n-1-229	PRD-2n-1-230	PRD-2n-1-231	PRD-2n-1-232	PRD-2n-1-233	PRD-2n-1-234	PRD-2n-1-235	PRD-2n-1-236	PRD-2n-1-237	PRD-2n-1-238	PRD-2n-1-239	PRD-2n-1-240	PRD-2n-1-241	PRD-2n-1-242	PRD-2n-1-243	PRD-2n-1-244	PRD-2n-1-245	PRD-2n-1-246	PRD-2n-1-247	PRD-2n-1-248	PRD-2n-1-249	PRD-2n-1-250	PRD-2n-1-251	PRD-2n-1-252	PRD-2n-1-253	PRD-2n-1-254	PRD-2n-1-255	PRD-2n-1-256	PRD-2n-1-257	PRD-2n
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Suppl. Table S2.C. (Continued)

Location (US state/county)	Sample	44-52	53-59	60-66	67-73	74-80	81-87	88-94	95-101	102-108	109-115	116-122	123-129	130-136	137-143	144-150	151-157	158-164	165-171	172-178	179-185	186-192	193-199	200-206	207-213	214-220	221-227	228-234	235-241	242-248	249-255	256-262	263-269	270-276	277-283	284-290	291-297	298-304	305-311	312-318	319-325	326-332	333-339	340-346	347-353	354-360	361-367	368-374	375-381	382-388	389-395	396-402	403-409	410-416	417-423	424-430	431-437	438-444	445-451	452-458	459-465	466-472	473-479	480-486	487-493	494-500	501-507	508-514	515-521	522-528	529-535	536-542	543-549	550-556	557-563	564-570	571-577	578-584	585-591	592-598	599-605	606-612	613-619	620-626	627-633	634-640	641-647	648-654	655-661	662-668	669-675	676-682	683-689	690-696	697-703	704-710	711-717	718-724	725-731	732-738	739-745	746-752	753-759	760-766	767-773	774-780	781-787	788-794	795-801	802-808	809-815	816-822	823-829	830-836	837-843	844-850	851-857	858-864	865-871	872-878	879-885	886-892	893-899	900-906	907-913	914-920	921-927	928-934	935-941	942-948	949-955	956-962	963-969	970-976	977-983	984-990	991-997	998-1004	1005-1011	1012-1018	1019-1025	1026-1032	1033-1039	1040-1046	1047-1053	1054-1060	1061-1067	1068-1074	1075-1081	1082-1088	1089-1095	1096-1102	1103-1109	1110-1116	1117-1123	1124-1130	1131-1137	1138-1144	1145-1151	1152-1158	1159-1165	1166-1172	1173-1179	1180-1186	1187-1193	1194-1200	1201-1207	1208-1214	1215-1221	1222-1228	1229-1235	1236-1242	1243-1249	1250-1256	1257-1263	1264-1270	1271-1277	1278-1284	1285-1291	1292-1298	1299-1305	1306-1312	1313-1319	1320-1326	1327-1333	1334-1340	1341-1347	1348-1354	1355-1361	1362-1368	1369-1375	1376-1382	1383-1389	1390-1396	1397-1403	1404-1410	1411-1417	1418-1424	1425-1431	1432-1438	1439-1445	1446-1452	1453-1459	1460-1466	1467-1473	1474-1480	1481-1487	1488-1494	1495-1501	1502-1508	1509-1515	1516-1522	1523-1529	1530-1536	1537-1543	1544-1550	1551-1557	1558-1564	1565-1571	1572-1578	1579-1585	1586-1592	1593-1599	1600-1606	1607-1613	1614-1620	1621-1627	1628-1634	1635-1641	1642-1648	1649-1655	1656-1662	1663-1669	1670-1676	1677-1683	1684-1690	1691-1697	1698-1704	1705-1711	1712-1718	1719-1725	1726-1732	1733-1739	1740-1746	1747-1753	1754-1760	1761-1767	1768-1774	1775-1781	1782-1788	1789-1795	1796-1802	1803-1809	1810-1816	1817-1823	1824-1830	1831-1837	1838-1844	1845-1851	1852-1858	1859-1865	1866-1872	1873-1879	1880-1886	1887-1893	1894-1900	1901-1907	1908-1914	1915-1921	1922-1928	1929-1935	1936-1942	1943-1949	1950-1956	1957-1963	1964-1970	1971-1977	1978-1984	1985-1991	1992-1998	1999-2005	2006-2012	2013-2019	2020-2026	2027-2033	2034-2040	2041-2047	2048-2054	2055-2061	2062-2068	2069-2075	2076-2082	2083-2089	2090-2096	2097-2103	2104-2110	2111-2117	2118-2124	2125-2131	2132-2138	2139-2145	2146-2152	2153-2159	2160-2166	2167-2173	2174-2180	2181-2187	2188-2194	2195-2201	2202-2208	2209-2215	2216-2222	2223-2229	2230-2236	2237-2243	2244-2250	2251-2257	2258-2264	2265-2271	2272-2278	2279-2285	2286-2292	2293-2299	2300-2306	2307-2313	2314-2320	2321-2327	2328-2334	2335-2341	2342-2348	2349-2355	2356-2362	2363-2369	2370-2376	2377-2383	2384-2390	2391-2397	2398-2404	2405-2411	2412-2418	2419-2425	2426-2432	2433-2439	2440-2446	2447-2453	2454-2460	2461-2467	2468-2474	2475-2481	2482-2488	2489-2495	2496-2502	2503-2509	2510-2516	2517-2523	2524-2530	2531-2537	2538-2544	2545-2551	2552-2558	2559-2565	2566-2572	2573-2579	2580-2586	2587-2593	2594-2600	2601-2607	2608-2614	2615-2621	2622-2628	2629-2635	2636-2642	2643-2649	2650-2656	2657-2663	2664-2670	2671-2677	2678-2684	2685-2691	2692-2698	2699-2705	2706-2712	2713-2719	2720-2726	2727-2733	2734-2740	2741-2747	2748-2754	2755-2761	2762-2768	2769-2775	2776-2782	2783-2789	2790-2796	2797-2803	2804-2810	2811-2817	2818-2824	2825-2831	2832-2838	2839-2845	2846-2852	2853-2859	2860-2866	2867-2873	2874-2880	2881-2887	2888-2894	2895-2901	2902-2908	2909-2915	2916-2922	2923-2929	2930-2936	2937-2943	2944-2950	2951-2957	2958-2964	2965-2971	2972-2978	2979-2985	2986-2992	2993-2999	3000-3006	3007-3013	3014-3020	3021-3027	3028-3034	3035-3041	3042-3048	3049-3055	3056-3062	3063-3069	3070-3076	3077-3083	3084-3090	3091-3097	3098-3104	3105-3111	3112-3118	3119-3125	3126-3132	3133-3139	3140-3146	3147-3153	3154-3160	3161-3167	3168-3174	3175-3181	3182-3188	3189-3195	3196-3202	3203-3209	3210-3216	3217-3223	3224-3230	3231-3237	3238-3244	3245-3251	3252-3258	3259-3265	3266-3272	3273-3279	3280-3286	3287-3293	3294-3300	3301-3307	3308-3314	3315-3321	3322-3328	3329-3335	3336-3342	3343-3349	3350-3356	3357-3363	3364-3370	3371-3377	3378-3384	3385-3391	3392-3398	3399-3405	3406-3412	3413-3419	3420-3426	3427-3433	3434-3440	3441-3447	3448-3454	3455-3461	3462-3468	3469-3475	3476-3482	3483-3489	3490-3496	3497-3503	3504-3510	3511-3517	3518-3524	3525-3531	3532-3538	3539-3545	3546-3552	3553-3559	3560-3566	3567-3573	3574-3580	3581-3587	3588-3594	3595-3601	3602-3608	3609-3615	3616-3622	3623-3629	3630-3636	3637-3643	3644-3650	3651-3657	3658-3664	3665-3671	3672-3678	3679-3685	3686-3692	3693-3699	3700-3706	3707-3713	3714-3720	3721-3727	3728-3734	3735-3741	3742-3748	3749-3755	3756-3762	3763-3769	3770-3776	3777-3783	3784-3790	3791-3797	3798-3804	3805-3811	3812-3818	3819-3825	3826-3832	3833-3839	3840-3846	3847-3853	3854-3860	3861-3867	3868-3874	3875-3881	3882-3888	3889-3895	3896-3902	3903-3909	3910-3916	3917-3923	3924-3930	3931-3937	3938-3944	3945-3951	3952-3958	3959-3965	3966-3972	3973-3979	3980-3986	3987-3993	3994-4000	4001-4007	4008-4014	4015-4021	4022-4028	4029-4035	4036-4042	4043-4049	4050-4056	4057-4063	4064-4070	4071-4077	4078-4084	4085-4091	4092-4098	4099-4105	4106-4112	4113-4119	4120-4126	4127-4133	4134-4140	4141-4147	4148-4154	4155-4161	4162-4168	4169-4175	4176-4182	4183-4189	4190-4196	4197-4203	4204-4210	4211-4217	4218-4224	4225-4231	4232-4238	4239-4245	4246-4252	4253-4259	4260-4266	4267-4273	4274-4280	4281-4287	4288-4294	4295-4301	4302-4308	4309-4315	4316-4322	4323-4329	4330-4336	4337-4343	4344-4350	4351-4357	4358-4364	4365-4371	4372-4378	4379-4385	4386-4392	4393-4399	4400-4406	4407-4413	4414-4420	4421-4427	4428-4434	4435-4441	4442-4448	4449-4455	4456-4462	4463-4469	4470-4476	4477-4483	4484-4490	4491-4497	4498-4504	4505-4511	4512-4518	4519-4525	4526-4532	4533-4539	4540-4546	4547-4553	4554-4560	4561-4567	4568-4574	4575-4581	4582-4588	4589-4595	4596-4602	4603-4609	4610-4616	4617-4623	4624-4630	4631-4637	4638-4644	4645-4651	4652-4658	4659-4665	4666-4672	4673-4679	4680-4686	4687-4693	4694-4700	4701-4707	4708-4714	4715-4721	4722-4728	4729-4735	4736-4742	4743-4749	4750-4756	4757-4763	4764-4770	4771-4777	4778-4784	4785-4791	4792-4798	4799-4805	4806-4812	4813-4819	4820-4826	4827-4833	4834-4840	4841-4847	4848-4854	4855-4861	4862-4868	4869-4875	4876-4882	4883-4889	4890-4896	4897-4903	4904-4910	4911-4917	4918-4924	4925-4931	4932-4938	4939-4945	4946-4952	4953-4959	4960-4966	4967-4973	4974-4980	4981-4987	4988-4994	4995-5001	5002-5008	5009-5015	5016-5022	5023-5029	5030-5036	5037-5043	5044-5050	5051-5057	5058-5064	5065-5071	5072-5078	5079-5085	5086-5092	5093-5099	5100-5106	5107-5113	5114-5120	5121-5127	5128-5134	5135-5141	5142-5148	5149-5155	5156-5162	5163-5169	5170-5176	5177-5183	5184-5190	5191-5197	5198-5204	5205-5211	5212-5218	5219-5225	5226-5232	5233-5239	5240-5246	5247-5253	5254-5260	5261-5267	5268-5274	5275-5281	5282-5288	5289-5295	5296-5302	5303-5309	5310-5316	5317-5323	5324-5330	5331-5337	5338-5344	5345-5351	5352-5358	5359-5365	5366-5372	5373-5379	5380-5386	5387-5393	5394-5400	5401-5407	5408-5414	5415-5421	5422-5428	5429-5435	5436-5442	5443-5449	5450-5456	5457-5463	5464-5470	5471-5477	5478-5484	5485-5491	5492-5498	5499-5505	5506-5512	5513-5519	5520-5526	5527-5533	5534-5540	5541-5547	5548-5554	5555-5561	5562-5568	5569-5575	5576-5582	5583-5589	5590-5596	5597-5603	5604-5610	5611-5617	5618-5624	5625-5631	5632-5638	5639-5645	5646-5652	5653-5659	5660-5666	5667-5673	5674-5680	5681-5687	5688-5694	5695-5701	5702-5708	5709-5715	5716-5722	5723-5729	5730-5736	5737-5743	5744-5750	5751-5757	5758-5764	5765-5771	5772-5778	5779-5785	5786-5792	5793-5799	5800-5806	5807-5813	5814-5820	5821-5827	5828-5834	5835-5841	5842-5848	5849-5855	5856-5862	5863-5869	5870-5876	5877-5883	5884-5890	5891-5897	5898-5904	5905-5911	5912-5918	5919-5925	5926-5932	5933-5939	5940-5946	5947-5953	5954-5960	5961-5967	5968-5974	5975-5981	5982-5988	5989-5995	5996-6002	6003-6009	6010-6016	6017-6023	6024-6030	6031-6037	6038-6044	6045-6051	6052-6058	6059-6065	6066-6072	6073-6079	6080-6086	6087-6093	6094-6100	6101-6107	6108-6114	6115-6121	6122-6128	6129-6135	6136-6142	6143-6149	6150-6156	6157-6163	6164-6170	6171-6177	6178-6184	6185-6191	6192-6198	6199-6205	6206-6212	6213-6219	6220-6226	6227-6233	6234-6240	6241-6247	6248-6254	6255-6261	6262-6268	6269-6275	6276-6282	6283-6289	6290-6296	6297-6303	6304-6310	6311-6317	6
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**Suppl. Table S3.** Polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) pollutants measured in the extracts from swimming crab tissues. The most (geno) toxic PAHs are highlighted, including Benz-a-anthracene, Benzo[e]pyrene, and Dibenzo [a, h] fluoranthene

Conc ug/kg	Tissue type	Acenaphthylene	Phenanthrene	Anthracene	Pyrene	Benz-a-anthracene	Benzo-b-fluoranthene	Benzo-k-fluoranthene	Benzo[a]pyrene	Naphthalene	Acenaphthene	fluorene	Fluoranthene	Dibenzo [a, h] fluoranthene	Benzo [e, h, i] pyrene	Indene [1,2,3-cd] pyrene	SUM (all)	3 Most (geno) toxic PAHs (SUM)
cb04	Fat	0.00	0.00	0.00	241.61	0.00	21.58	0.00	28.25	360.64	801.94	1250.35	560.36	241.55	0.00	712.13	4218.41	269.80
cb29	Fat	142.44	19.61	5.81	34.79	0.00	90.90	0.00	203.98	107.64	66.04	216.23	0.00	124.55	552.94	443.74	2092.75	412.61
cs04	Fat	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1076.23	181.33	503.33	910.78	259.38	2100.28	373.38	5407.13	261.83
cs29	Fat	6.54	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	209.76	467.61	0.00	0.00	0.00	418.59	0.00	0.00	1102.55	628.35
ew20	Meat	42.41	0.00	50.10	0.00	0.00	1387.75	134.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	224.22	56.10	0.00	0.00	1895.42	56.10
ew29	Fat	24.67	0.00	93.34	0.00	310.15	0.00	561.30	0.00	193.67	0.00	0.00	47.05	471.71	0.00	0.00	1701.89	781.86

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# **Chapter 6**

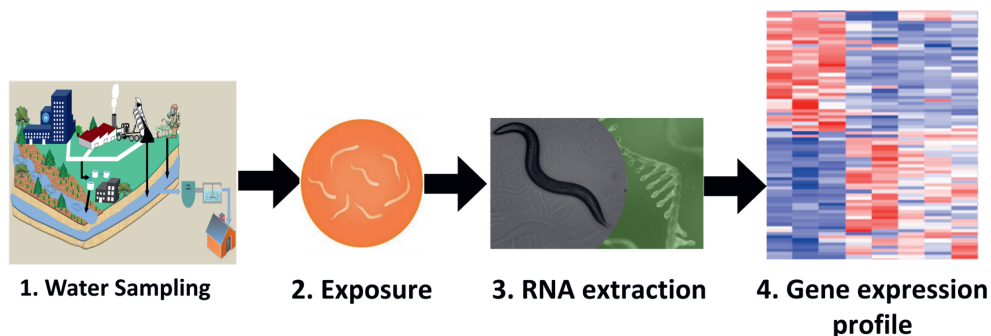
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**General discussion and outlook**

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## 1. Introduction

The research presented in this thesis describes the development, validation, and application of a comprehensive effect-based bioanalytical tool to detect the presence and toxic potency of (un)known (hydrophilic) contaminants in water sources. With current analytical chemical approaches only few of the many chemical contaminants (mostly hydrophilic ones) can be effectively measured, and yet the risk that the analyzed compounds and their mixtures may pose to human and environmental health remains unknown. The newly developed bioassay is based on transcriptomics technologies for gene expression profiling in the nematode *C. elegans* as test organism (**Fig. 1**). Gene transcripts were altered in response to toxic model agents and untreated and treated waste water samples and samples from receiving surface water. Several gene transcripts responding to various adverse effects of contaminants were found and were successfully used as biomarkers to fingerprint toxic potencies in the various (water) samples. These marker genes were also employed to develop a dedicated multiplex gene expression assay that enables the fast and easy measurement of mRNA transcripts directly from crude lysates of nematodes. The newly developed bioassay is suitable for further development towards a routine tool for toxicological risk assessment to distinguish between polluted and good quality water samples, and to fingerprint the presence of toxic (hydrophilic) bioactive contaminants.

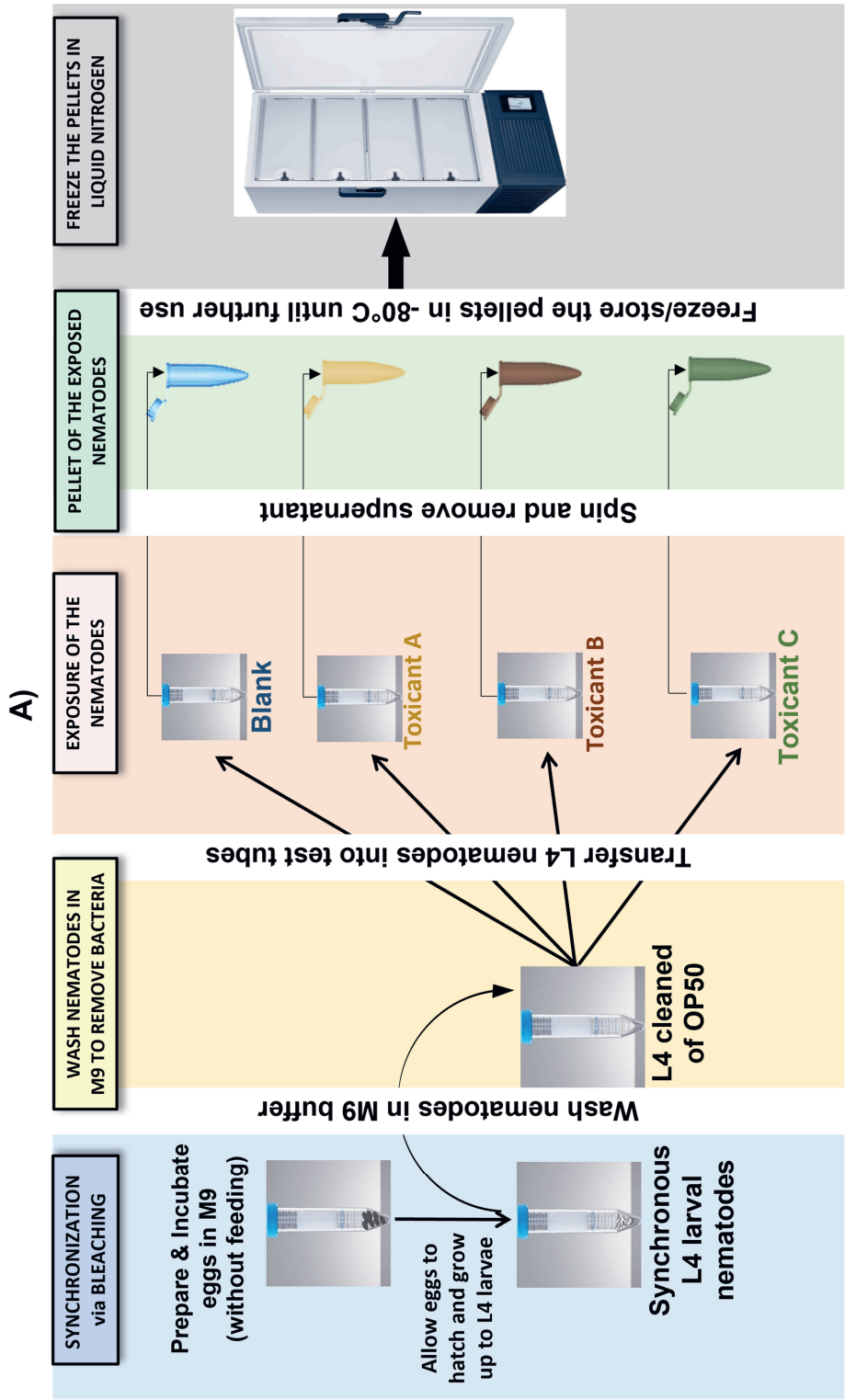


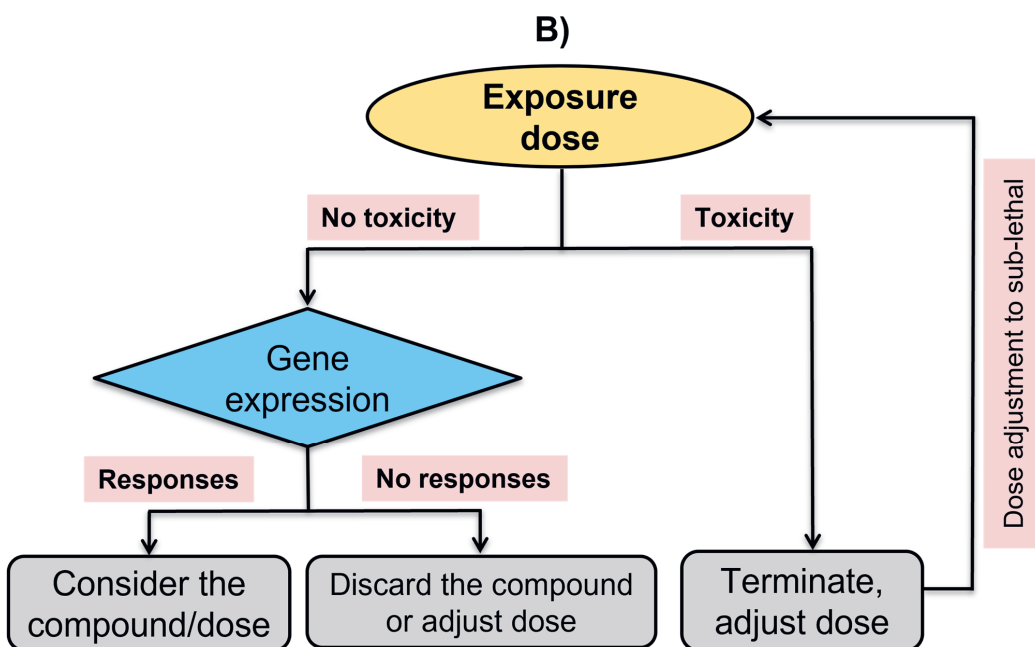
**Figure 1.** A summary of the procedure of transcription-based bioassay using *C. elegans* as a model organism to detect toxic potentials of (hydrophilic) contaminants.

In this chapter, the findings of research described in this thesis are discussed in relation to the four research questions posed in **Chapter 1**.

### ***A. Can a practical nematode bioassay method be developed for (hydrophilic) compounds?***

During the research (as presented in **Chapters 2 – 5**) it became clear that a successful bioassay method using the nematode *C. elegans* as model organism could indeed be developed. **Fig. 2** depicts a summary flowchart that was followed to optimize the handling and exposure of nematodes (**A**), and to determine the optimal exposure dosage (**B**). Our research corroborates reports in literature that the assays using *C. elegans* provide outstanding advantages as it allows the combination of aspects of both in vivo and in vitro methods, especially due to its simplicity and manipulability [1, 2]. The assay can be versatile and cheap: the nematode culture, maintenance or exposure can be carried out using standard relatively inexpensive laboratory apparatus such as micro test tubes, Falcon™ 15-mL conical tubes, multiwell plates, or petri dishes. The nematodes can be cultured and tested in liquid or solid media [3]. For liquid exposure, the test material may be dissolved in media like M9 buffer [4] or K-medium [5] with or without feeding. On solid media, the nematode can be maintained and exposed on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar [6] with feed for a longer period.





**Figure 2.** Experimental setup for nematode handling and exposure to contaminants (A), and the identification of optimal dosage regimes for gene expression analysis (B).

Furthermore, the nematode provides an opportunity to carry out a direct exposure to raw environmental samples (even the severely polluted ones like wastewater samples without the need to pretreat or to dilute) (**Chapter 4**). This exposure procedure can facilitate the detection of unknown hydrophilic compounds which cannot (or hardly) be extracted and concentrated in a quantitative way and that would otherwise get lost. This bioassay is scalable from hundreds to ten thousands of nematodes according to the analysis needs. While our protocols rely on manual estimation of the amount of nematodes, specialist worm counting machinery is available for the automated counting of large numbers accurately [7, 8].

It is important to control some potential confounding variables such as experimental temperature or developmental synchronization of nematode cultures as subtle differences can influence gene expression profiling results. Following the study in **Chapter 2**, the synchronized larval stage L4 was found to be the most suitable stage facilitating a successful exposure procedure. These L4 were treated without feeding to minimize potential developmental differences in the exposure patterns as some less hydrophilic compounds will at least partially bind to the bacterial feed. According to the literature, feeding the

nematodes during exposure could influence the bioavailability or other kinetics of the toxicants [9-11]. We previously carried out preliminary experiments to compare the transcriptional responsiveness of the fed nematodes versus unfed, and it appeared that the nematodes exposed with feeding tend to respond transcriptionally less than the starved ones. Nevertheless, starvation in late L4 larval stage can induce some stresses including the inhibition of egg-laying resulting in a so-called “bagging” where the embryos hatch within the body of the parent worms [12, 13]. This should not be a concern for our protocols as we exposed early L4 nematodes for 24 hours, particularly in **Chapter 3 – 5**, hence not reaching the gravid stage that occurs within 24 to 48 hours at 20 °C [14]. No concern about nematode death due to starvation periods of 24 hours or less was reported before [13], which is in accordance with our observations that no control or exposed nematodes died when starved for 24 hours (**Chapter 3 – 5**).

This research revealed that the transcription levels of a significant proportion of genes were downregulated in response to direct-acting DNA-damaging agents (**Chapter 2**). The shutting down (downregulation) of the nematode gene-expression machinery can be presumed to be the nematode defensive mechanisms to alleviate the general stress toxicity. This could be related to the high exposure concentration, although at sublethal levels. A similar observation was previously reported in *Daphnia magna* [15], where high-concentration exposure with metals mostly triggered the downregulation of several gene families at higher concentrations. Overall, the assay procedure was successfully developed for *C. elegans* and was applied to assess biological effects of various contaminants.

### ***B. To what extent is the nematode transcriptionally responsive to model contaminants?***

Both general stress as well as specific mechanisms of toxicity of the tested contaminants are operational in the nematodes and can be detected transcriptionally, as was discussed in detail in **Chapter 2 – 4**. The nematodes responded to prototypical chemical agents for various mechanisms of toxicity including both direct-acting toxicants (as discussed in **Chapter 2**) as well as indirect-acting compounds (**Chapter 3**). In both exposure conditions, the mechanisms related to the known modes of toxicity of the studied compounds were represented among the differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The gene expression profiles of different toxic compounds showed limited overlap, especially for the alkylating agents (direct acting compounds) whose toxicities rely on the direct reaction with biological molecules such as DNA and proteins [16-18]. This implies that the transcriptional regulation of gene expression in nematodes was largely compound-specific.

In real life the exposure to contaminants barely involves single contaminants. The nematode *C. elegans* has been previously advocated as a promising alternative model for mixture toxicity testing [1]. In our research, transcriptional profiling in the nematodes treated with mixtures of xenobiotics indeed suggested some additivity between compounds (**Chapter 3**).



This chapter also discusses the concentration-dependent transcriptional effects of the tested toxicants. The analysis of concentration-response curves of the tested gene targets revealed that a toxicological dose descriptor, the “Lowest Observed Transcriptomic Effect Levels (LOTEL)” is applicable to the gene expression assay. This concept is comparable to No Observable Transcriptional Effect Level (NOTEL) (i.e., the concentration level of a chemical below which no significant changes in gene expression occur) previously promoted as a dose descriptor that can be helpful to assess the impacts of environmental contaminants as well as mixtures [15, 19, 20]. This implies that our transcription-based nematode bioassay can be applied in a similar approach. For decision makers it is important to know above which threshold there could be reason for concern/further action. For this the transcriptional effects in nematodes exposed to the water should be related to physiological and even (eco)toxicological effects in nematodes and other organisms. The final step would be to determine the maximum transcriptional effect levels in the nematodes below which adverse (eco)toxicological effects are unlikely to occur.

Most xenobiotics undergo biotransformation to render them harmless and enhance excretion, and thus this may alter their biological effects [21-23]. The biotransformation machinery includes proteins like phase I monooxygenases (also referred to as cytochrome P450s), phase II conjugation enzymes, and phase III xenobiotic transport proteins [24]. The activity of these functions can also be influenced by exogenous conditions like chemical exposure [25-27]. The genes encoding phase I enzymes in *C. elegans* are closely related to the mammalian CYP2, 3, and 4 cytochrome families [28], while CYP1-like metabolism is absent [29]. This research showed several genes encoding the nematode metabolic enzymes whose transcripts were differentially regulated in response to xenobiotics (**Chapter 2, 3, and 4**). In agreement with literature [29], this research provides evidence supporting the lack of a cytochrome CYP1-like P450 metabolism in *C. elegans* (**Chapter 3**). The CYP1 proteins are essential for metabolizing and bioactivating numerous indirect-acting xenobiotics like polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) [30]. The outcome of the study presented in **Chapter 3** also reveals that the nematode exposure to benzo(a)pyrene (a PAH toxicant metabolized exclusively by CYP1 enzymes in vertebrate [29, 31]) induces the *C. elegans* gene transcripts related to vertebrate CYP2 and CYP4 and these different enzymes will almost certainly result in the formation of different metabolites than is the case with mammals. The CYP1 proteins in vertebrates are upregulated via the Aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR). This receptor plays a central role in modes of action of dioxins and dioxin-like compounds [32, 33]. Therefore our finding that the nematode was insensitive to the transcriptional effects of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD) (**Chapter 3**) is consistent with the absence of not inducing CYP1. This nematode insensitivity towards TCDD transcriptional effects also is consistent with literature that AhR homolog (AHR-1) encoded by the *ahr-1* gene in *C. elegans* purportedly does not interact with dioxins or any other known xenobiotic ligand [34]. Nevertheless, in **Chapter 2a** TCDD exposure does delay the early larval development in *C. elegans*, even in larvae that only were maternally exposed to this

toxicant. This suggests that the developmental effects occur via another mechanism that is not mediated by the AhR.

Interestingly, genotoxic-stress-response genes (such as cell-cycle checkpoints or DNA-repair proteins) in *C. elegans* genes are not transcriptionally regulated by either direct-acting (**Chapter 2**) or indirect-acting genotoxic agents (**Chapter 3**). For benzo(a)pyrene exposure, genotoxicity was not expected in *C. elegans* since its metabolism does not produce genotoxic metabolites [29]. However, direct-acting toxicants like N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU), formaldehyde (HCHO), and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) analyzed in **Chapter 2b** have been reported before to produce DNA injuries in nematodes [35, 36]. We cannot yet explain the apparent lack of transcriptional responses of the *C. elegans* DNA-damage response (DDR) genes and also did not directly study the occurrence of DNA injuries. Further research will have to unveil whether other genes may need to be included in our transcription-based nematode bioassay to be able to assess transcriptional impacts of genotoxic stresses.

Overall, this research shows that the nematode is transcriptionally responsive to contaminants and this is very well reproducible in controlled exposure. Of course, a further transcriptomic profiling is needed to study e.g. what other mechanisms could be affected by TCDD exposure. Also, for the most relevant compounds and mixtures at broader ranges of concentrations and combinations should be tested to further characterize the *C. elegans* sensitivity towards this and other classes of contaminants.

***C. What are the most relevant mechanisms represented among the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in nematode in response to exposure to contaminants?***

Gene expression profiling can assist to gain insights into the interaction between biological systems and their responses to toxic insults [37-42]. In **Chapter 1**, the transcriptomics-based bioanalysis approach is discussed as a promising monitoring tool for assessing the toxic potential of pollutants and to understand the modes of action involved. Our research revealed various biological mechanisms that are involved in the nematode response to contaminants exposure. The observed mechanisms responding to the tested pollutants could be grouped in two categories, (1) the mechanisms associated with the nematode adaptive response to the exposure and (2) the mechanisms linked to the toxicological effects of the involved contaminants.

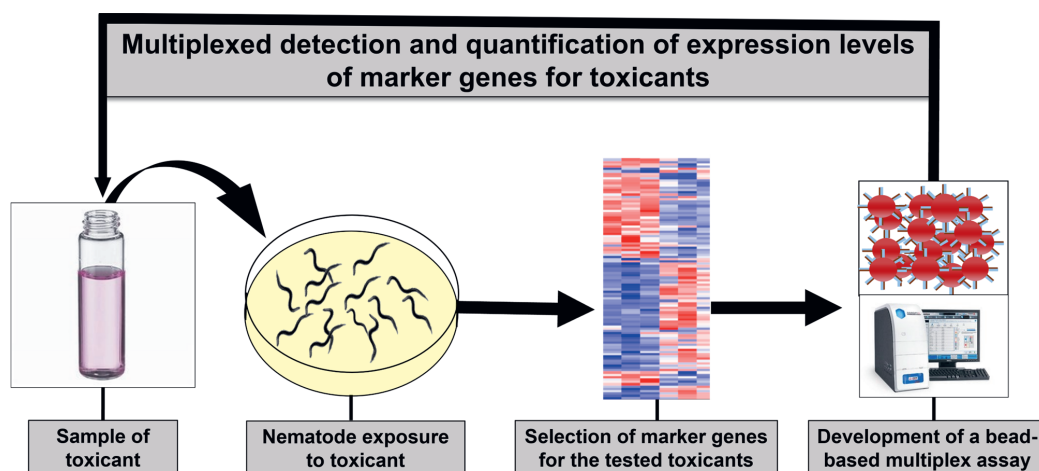
In relation to adaptive response mechanisms, the studies in **Chapter 2 – 4** show differential expression of several genes which are involved in xenobiotics biotransformation and detoxification pathways in *C. elegans*. These include genes encoding proteins like nuclear hormone receptors (NHRs), cytochrome P450s (but not CYP1), glutathione-S-transferases (GSTs), UDP-glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs) as well as xenobiotic efflux transporters. Transcriptional responses were also observed among the genes connected to protective

functions in the nematode such as antioxidant defence, antimicrobial activity, or immune response. Many of these genes shares similarities with their counterparts (also referred to as orthologues) in vertebrate species including their biological functions such as metabolic pathways [43-46] or protective roles [47-49]. The activation of adaptive stress response pathways may not be a direct indicator of toxic events per se, as explained in [50], but the involved genes do indicate the presence of the stressors that trigger the nematode's defense mechanisms. Thus, the expression of these genes can be used, for instance, as a proxy to detect the presence of the triggers for these responses.

Toxicological effects that are known to be linked to the tested contaminants were represented among regulated genes. For exposure with alkylating agents, known to be extremely reactive towards biological molecules such as nucleic acids or cellular proteins [16], we show in **chapter 2** that these compounds triggered transcriptional regulation among the nematode genes involved in proteotoxic and neurotoxic stress responses. Gene transcripts related to the nematode physiology such as fertility, reproduction, development, lifespan, aging, or cytoprotective processes were found in transcriptional profiles of indirect-acting xenobiotic toxicants whose toxic effects rely on metabolic activation [23] (**Chapter 3**). In response to wastewater exposure, several genes involved in the nematode physiological processes such as molting, growth, reproduction, or development processes were differently transcriptionally regulated. These effects possibly were triggered by the presence of endocrine-disrupting pollutants which are prevalent in wastewater [51] (**Chapter 4**). Overall, several relevant and well known biological mechanisms were represented among the gene expression profiles triggered in the nematode by various contaminants. This confirms that the transcription-based bioanalysis approach can simultaneously detect the toxic potential present for multiple mechanisms in a single test.

***D. Can a dedicated multiplex gene expression assay be developed for fast and easy quantification of toxic potencies of (hydrophilic) contaminants in (water) samples?***

The results of studies presented in **Chapter 2 – 4** prove that various toxic mechanisms of contaminants are operational in nematode and that they are detectable by using gene expression profiling approach. The next challenge of our research was to develop a dedicated multiplex method to reliably quantify the expression levels of target gene transcripts (also referred to as transcriptional biomarkers). The method was successfully developed by involving the mRNA transcripts of 46 target genes (as biomarkers) that were selected from the DEGs responding to indirect-acting toxicants (**Chapter 3**) or wastewater (**Chapter 4**) as summarized in **Fig. 3**. The newly developed method was validated by fingerprinting transcriptional effects of pure compounds, mixtures of organic pollutants (extracted from the tissues of contaminated crabs) or environmental polluted water samples (**Chapter 5**).



**Figure 3.** Schematic representation of the major steps followed to develop a multiplex gene expression profiling assay in using *C. elegans* as a model organism.

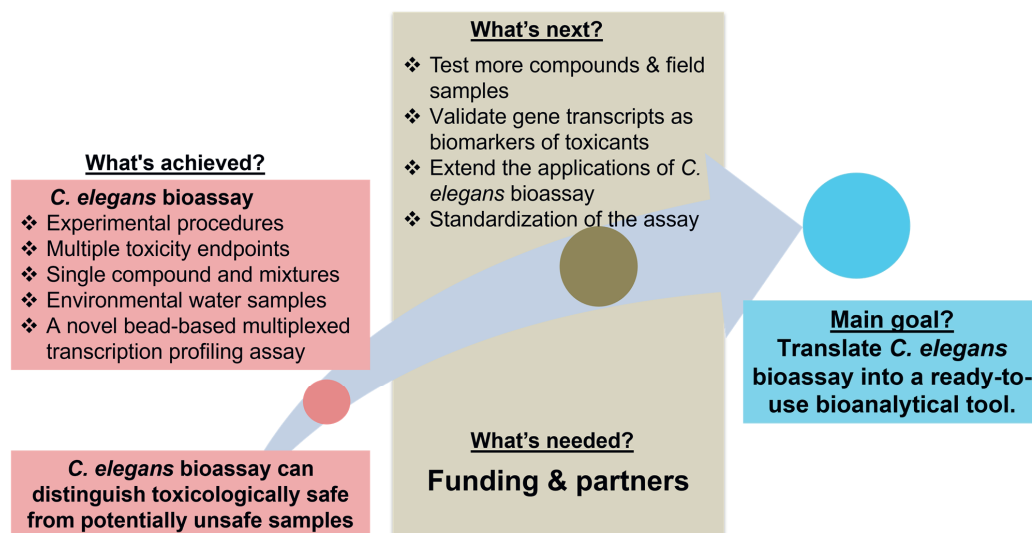
The novel multiplex gene expression assay developed uses Luminex® xMAP technology (x = analyte, MAP = Multi-Analyte Profiling) [52] (**Chapter 5**). This technology provides many advantages compared to the classical transcriptomics analysis in terms of sample preparation (e.g., sample volume and other redundant consumables). The MAGPIX® system utilized for developing our assay allows a multiplexed detection and quantification of up to 50 target mRNA transcripts in a single reaction volume and can read a 96-well plate in 60 minutes. This method relies on branched DNA (bDNA) technology for analyzing gene expression levels [53-55]. In contrast to the other transcriptomics technologies that require RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, or PCR amplification [39, 56, 57], the multiplex assay developed in this research allows a direct detection of mRNA transcripts in tissues lysates of nematodes because the bDNA technology used by this assay employs linear signal amplification rather than exponential amplification of RNA targets [53-55]. It can therefore help to circumvent several challenges linked to RNA extraction (e.g., RNA degradation, low yield, low purity, or DNA contamination) or the synthesis of complementary DNA (cDNA) via reverse transcription reaction [58, 59]. And of course it is much faster and easier to perform. Overall, the new assay provides an opportunity to develop a dedicated bioanalytical tool to reliably assess the toxic potencies of (hydrophilic) contaminants by fingerprinting the expression levels of relevant gene markers. Application of this approach to real life polluted water and animal samples shows that it can indeed successfully indicate the absence of toxic potency (**Chapter 5**).

## 2. Main conclusions

1. This research reveals the potential of gene expression profiling in nematode as an effect-based bioanalytical tool for fingerprinting toxic potencies of bioactive contaminants.
2. It can be regarded as a potential powerful bioanalytical tool in comparison to classical assays which are usually too general or too specific.
3. General toxicity as well as specific toxicity mechanisms induced by exposure to chemical agents are operational in the nematodes and can be detectable via gene expression profiling.
4. The nematode biotransformation enzymes are transcriptional inducible by xenobiotic exposure. Nevertheless, this research provides evidence supporting the absence of the CYP1-like metabolism as previously reported in literature, illustrating that not all induction routes found in vertebrates are also present in the nematode.
5. Despite its involvement in the regulation of *C. elegans* important physiological processes (e.g., neuronal development, locomotion, egg laying, defecation behaviors, or fatty acid synthesis), transcriptional profiles identified in our research confirm previous reports suggesting that the nematode AhR homolog (AHR-1) does not interact with TCDD, hence the organism seems transcriptionally insensitive to this compound while still developmental effects were observed.
6. The transcription-based nematode bioassay can be used to characterize adverse outcome mechanisms for the (unknown) hydrophilic compounds, compounds that we cannot, or hardly, extract and concentrated in a quantitative way.
7. This bioassay can be used for monitoring the removal efficiency of (micro)pollutants during wastewater treatment and assessing the quality of the resulting effluent and receiving waters.
8. The newly developed multiplex approach overcomes the typical challenges (such issues include, for instance, RNA quality, transcript degradation, enzymatic manipulation, and others) connected to classical technologies that rely on complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis for measuring mRNA transcripts.

### 3. Perspectives for translating the nematode bioassay to a practical method for water quality monitoring

The outcomes from this research open doors to the prospect of developing a nematode bioassay that can assist with environmental monitoring. In line with transcriptomics approaches described in **Chapter 1**, our assay can help to characterize the mechanisms of the toxic effects of the unknown hydrophilic compounds, chemicals that cannot, or hardly, be extracted and concentrated in a quantitative way. Transcription-based responses of a nematode can be translated into a dedicated effect-based bioanalytical tool that can be used to reliably detect the toxic potential of various water pollutants. For regular application, an easy-to-use dedicated bioassay should be developed using transcriptional biomarkers for assessment of toxic potencies of pollutants as summarized in **Fig. 4**. Such an assay requires the careful selection of relevant genes whose transcripts can be utilized as biomarkers for target contaminants. Therefore, the marker genes already identified in this research are a promising starting point.



**Figure 4.** Current status of the newly developed *C. elegans* bioassay and perspectives to translate it into a bioanalytical tool for water quality monitoring.

A reliable transcriptional biomarker should fulfill three main criteria as proposed by Gou et al. [19]: a) it should have an expression response that is specific to a group of chemicals (assuming that the toxicants inducing similar gene expression signatures will have similar effects in nematodes as has been shown for other organisms), b) it should have an expression response that is concentration-dependent, and c) it should have an expression

response that is linked to a specific mode of action of toxic agents. Toxicity-related gene expression signatures (fingerprints) are needed for several prototypical compounds (including their mixtures) for various classes of toxicity. This could help to establish a kind of “reference gene expression database” or “gene expression signature library” that may be utilized to infer mechanisms of action of unknown contaminants. A similar approach has been previously recommended by various authors [37, 39, 60]. According to the strategic approach proposed by Paules (2003) [42], the reference gene expression database for the nematode *C. elegans* may mainly include a) the gene expression data from various chemical agents that induce specific types of toxicity and b) the gene expression data from structurally and functionally diverse chemicals that produce comparable pattern of toxicity. Considering the amount of chemicals in use, our research acknowledges that more transcriptomic studies are still needed to develop a reliable reference gene expression database. In relation to the water quality monitoring tool, as a starting point, the library of gene markers should be developed and validated first with the model chemical agents selected among priority substances under the EU Water Framework Directive. Overall, the above-described approach could help to make nematode bioassay a practical tool for effect-based water quality monitoring.

#### **4. Potential application areas and advantages of transcription-based nematode bioassay compared to the existing bioassay approaches**

Existing in vitro or in vivo bioassays are either very specific to one or few biological responses or are non-specific indicators of general toxic effects [50, 61]. In contrast, the transcription-based bioassay developed in this research can simultaneously reveal the type of toxic mechanism as well as the response magnitude related to the nature of the toxicants present in the test samples. Therefore, our novel bioassay provides a new tool to the toolkit of water quality managers, as it is capable of detecting not merely the presence, but rather the toxic potencies related to the presence of pollutants in water. Its application can provide data that are more specific and informative than standard bioassays such as *Daphnia* [62], fish [63], or mussel [64, 65] based assays. Furthermore, our assay is more versatile than very dedicated single-compound bioassays like CALUX systems [66]. The transcription-based nematode bioassay approach can be applied as:

- a) An early warning system to indicate the safety, or risk levels created by pollutants in environmental samples. This can help management distinguish between samples with and without priority for further actions because of indications for toxicological concerns.
- b) A monitoring tool for the water quality by distinguishing toxicologically safe from unsafe waters. For this the transcriptional effects in nematodes exposed to the water must be related to physiological and even (eco)toxicological effects occurring in organisms of interest. The maximum transcriptional effect levels in the



nematodes should be known below which adverse (eco)toxicological effects are unlikely to occur (at the short or long term).

- c) A monitoring tool to assess the effectiveness of wastewater treatment technologies for evaluating the removal of bioactive (micro)pollutants (especially the unknown ones) prior to the disposal or reuse.

The application of bioassays in general and the assay described in this thesis in particular does require water quality managers to approach pollutants in water from a toxicological and/or environmental risk perspective rather than from a traditional chemical analytical approach in which type and concentrations of a limited number of known compounds are monitored rather than their combined toxic potency. Both the diversity, hydrophilicity and low concentration aspects of emerging pollutants will demand more effect-based than compound-based approaches in the future.

### 5. Recommendations for further research

This thesis describes the feasibility of exposure and responsiveness of the nematode *C. elegans* L4 stage to the model toxicants (**Chapter 2 and 3**) or wastewaters before and after treatment in a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) (**Chapter 4**). The outcomes from these studies revealed that gene expression profiling can provide insights in the type of toxic mechanisms involved and can be translated towards the nature of the pollutants present in the test samples. Furthermore, the magnitude of transcriptional response of a target gene can be related to the exposure concentration (**Chapter 3**). A dedicated bioassay was successfully developed and validated based on multiplexed detection and quantification of expression levels of marker genes for toxicants exposure (**Chapter 5**). Nevertheless, there is still a need to test more contaminants and combinations thereof in order to select and validate gene transcripts which can be used as reliable transcriptional biomarkers for toxicological assessment. The following recommendations are proposed for future research to translate this assay into a ready-to-use bioanalytical tool as an early warning system that can indicate the safety or detect the presence of hazardous pollutants:

1. Additional transcriptional profiling assays for several model toxicants in order to build a library of candidate gene markers that can serve as reference signatures to measure the toxic potency of the (un)known pollutants in samples.
2. Further studies analyzing transcriptomic concentration-responses of nematode to various toxic model compounds to define the concentration range detectable by transcription-based nematode bioassay and relate this to concentrations expected in field situations.
3. Dose-response studies to be performed with known mixtures of (hydrophilic) model compounds in different combinations and relative concentrations. Also for detection



- of biotoxins related to toxic algal blooms the current fast, small scale, invertebrate, mechanisms-specific bioassay could be very valuable.
4. Further studies to assess a broader range of transcriptional effects of TCDD, especially in life stages where TCDD effects on development have repeatedly been shown. It is advisable to test a broader range of concentrations as general toxic mechanisms may mask more subtle chronic effects, as well as other dioxin-like compounds and PCBs.
  5. A toxicity identification evaluation (TIE) approach with stepwise fractionation of wastewater samples to identify (hydrophilic) compounds responsible for the toxic effects observed in our research.
  6. It would be interesting to explore the option for producing transcriptional reporters for the top expressed genes obtained in our research to possibly design transgenic *C. elegans* strains for endpoints that are most relevant in toxicity assessment of bioactive contaminants in wastewater and raw drinking water. This would enable even faster detection and quantification of specific toxic potencies of hydrophilic compounds, something which is not possible with in vitro reporter gene assays or with in vivo reporter gene assays with more vulnerable species.
  7. Since *C. elegans* can only be applied for direct monitoring of toxic potencies in fresh water, it is advisable to develop a version of the current transcriptional effect bioassay with marine nematodes for brackish and marine water as well. This especially would be interesting for marine biotoxins that still are not easy to monitor.
  8. The newly developed multiplex gene expression assay utilizing magnetic beads is very suitable for (semi)automatization of the procedure, especially washing steps, which would make high throughput screening easier. This development is recommended for increasing the practical applicability.
  9. Collaboration with water quality managers is very important to optimize the applicability of the *C. elegans* bioassay for the toxicological risks in their water systems that they are mostly concerned about. In this respect it also is important they will be able to translate the test outcomes into clear conclusions of safe, doubtful or not good water qualities.

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## Summary

Only few of the many chemical pollutants in water can be effectively measured by current analytical techniques. Especially hydrophilic compounds are hard to extract and unknown compounds (e.g., metabolites and reaction products) are hard to identify. Also, chemical techniques cannot provide information about the potential toxic effects of these compounds and mixtures thereof. Bioassays can quantify the toxic potency of bioactive pollutants, but most of the existing bioassays are either very specific for one or a few compounds or are non-specific indicators for general toxic effects. In this research, an invertebrate assay was successfully developed based on the genetic response of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* to toxic compounds. The newly developed bioanalytical approach can simultaneously detect multiple mechanisms of toxicity in single test.

In **Chapter 1**, the relevance of our research is explained by introducing water quality monitoring challenges especially the presence of hydrophilic chemicals. This chapter also describes how transcriptomics-based bioanalysis approaches can be applied using the invertebrate *Caenorhabditis elegans* to detect the toxic potency of water contaminants.

In **Chapter 2**, the nematode responsiveness is evaluated. Exposure to the technical PCB mixtures Clophen A50 and the model dioxin TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin) was found to delay the early larval development in *C. elegans*. Significant developmental delays for L3 larvae to reach L4 stage of larval growth were observed, even in larvae that were only maternally exposed to levels as low as 10 nM. Further experiments in this chapter show that the nematode exposure to model compounds for direct genotoxicity resulted in transcriptional regulation of the genes that are linked to the mode of action of the tested toxicants (HCHO, ENU, and MMS). However, no differential expression was found among the genes involved in DNA damage response of nematode after exposure to the tested toxicants.

In **Chapter 3**, the inducibility of biotransformation enzymes in *C. elegans* is analyzed by testing four indirect-acting model xenobiotic compounds. The nematode P450 orthologs to vertebrate CYP2, CYP3, and CYP4 cytochrome metabolism pathways were shown to be activated by AFB1, B(a)P, and PCB1254 exposure. The lack of CYP1-like metabolism in the nematode previously reported in literature was also supported by gene expression profiling results in this research. The results discussed in this chapter also support the hypothesis in literature that *C. elegans* aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) homolog encoded by *ahr-1* does not play its role of modulating gene expression as is the case in vertebrates.

In **Chapter 4**, the newly developed transcription-based bioanalysis approach is applied to environmentally polluted samples. The gene expression levels in the nematode exposed to wastewater inflow received by WWTP were significantly altered for several gene transcripts, which was not the case with nematodes exposed to the treated effluent or receiving surface water. The removal of toxic potencies implies a significant decrease in bioactive pollutant-load by the wastewater treatment. This chapter describes the development and proof of

principle of a novel method that can quantify the presence and fate of toxic potencies of unknown hydrophilic, including emerging contaminants and the effect of environmental technological processes to remove these mostly unknown contaminants.

In **Chapter 5**, a design of a novel bead-based multiplexed transcription profiling in *C. elegans* is described. Gene makers selected from the earlier studies as presented in chapters 3 & 4 were used to develop and validate a dedicated multiplex gene expression assay for fingerprinting the toxic potencies in polluted samples. The advantages of the novel method approach are also discussed in this chapter, especially the possibility to measure mRNA levels of multiple target genes directly from crude nematode lysates without the need of RNA extraction or cDNA synthesis.

In **Chapter 6**, the results of this research are discussed in broader context of fingerprinting toxic potencies of (hydrophilic) bioactive contaminants in (water) samples. Importantly, this chapter discusses how the effect-based bioanalysis approach developed in this research can be further developed into practical methods for water quality monitoring. Also, future research directions and recommendations are proposed.

## Author's publications

**A. Karengera**, M.G. Sterken, J.E. Kammenga, J.A.G. Riksen, I.J.T. Dinkla, A.J. Murk, Differential expression of genes in *C. elegans* reveals transcriptional responses to indirect-acting xenobiotic compounds and insensitivity to 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin, *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 233 (2022) 113344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2022.113344>

**A. Karengera**, C. Bao, J.A.G. Riksen, H.P.J. van Veelen, M.G. Sterken, J.E. Kammenga, A.J. Murk, I.J.T. Dinkla, Development of a transcription-based bioanalytical tool to quantify the toxic potencies of hydrophilic compounds in water using the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 227 (2021) 112923. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2021.112923>.

**A. Karengera**, I. Verburg, M.G. Sterken, J.A. G. Riksen, A.J. Murk, Inez J.T. Dinkla. Fingerprinting toxic potencies of hydrophilic contaminants in wastewater using gene expression profiling in *C. elegans* as a bioanalytical tool. (Under review). Journal: Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology.

**A. Karengera**, C. Bao, T.F.H. Bovee, I.J.T. Dinkla, A.J. Murk. A multiplex gene expression assay for direct measurement of RNA transcripts in crude lysates of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* used as bioanalytical tool. (Accepted). Journal: Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry.

C. Bao, **A. Karengera**, I.J.T. Dinkla, J. Kammenga, W. Wieland, A.J. Murk. Early life developmental effects induced by dioxin and PCBs in novel bioassays with *C. elegans*. (In submission).

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## About the Author



Antoine Karengera was born on 20<sup>th</sup> of June 1984 in Northern province of Rwanda. In 2008 he started to study Pharmacy at the National University of Rwanda, where he obtained his bachelor's degree in 2012. Antoine is currently a Registered Pharmacist by Rwanda National Pharmacy Council. In 2013 he was awarded the Erasmus Mundus scholarship to pursue a master's degree in Chemical Innovation and Regulation. This programme allowed him to study at the University of Algarve (Portugal) and University of Barcelona (Spain). In September 2015, Antoine obtained his Master's degree with a thesis

focused on *Evaluation of the cytotoxicity of transition metal complexes: DNA cleavage by copper complexes in cells*. In August 2016, Antoine moved to Leeuwarden (Netherlands) to start a new journey working as a PhD candidate at Wetsus in the theme of Genomics Based Water Quality Monitoring in collaboration with Marine Animal Ecology (MAE) Group of Wageningen University. His PhD research focused on *development of an invertebrate bioassay for detection of toxic potency of hydrophilic contaminants in water*. During his PhD research, Antoine also followed and completed the Dutch national programme for vocational postgraduate training in toxicology for registration as European Recognized Toxicologist (ERT). He is currently registered under status of a Toxicologist-in-Training by the Netherlands Society of Toxicology (NVT). In 2021, before finishing his PhD, he started to work as a toxicologist for Toxicology & Environmental Research and Consulting (TERC) at Dow Chemical Company. In June 2022, Antoine, his wife and their two children became Dutch citizens through naturalization.



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The SENSE Research School declares that **Antoine Karengera** has successfully fulfilled all requirements of the educational PhD programme of SENSE with a work load of 48.9 EC, including the following activities:

#### SENSE PhD Courses

- o Research in context activity: 'Supervising students and teach them how to perform research using the Nematodes, and transferring knowledge on (eco)toxicogenomics to fellow researchers, and on gene expression analysis tools' (2018-2020)

#### Other PhD and Advanced MSc Courses

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- o Laboratory Animal Science, Utrecht University (2017)
- o Ecotoxicology, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam/Wageningen University (2017)
- o Toxicogenomics, Maastricht University (2017)
- o Occupational toxicology, Radboud University (2018)
- o Cell Toxicology, Leiden University (2018)
- o Epidemiology, Utrecht University (2018)
- o Mutagenesis and Carcinogenesis, Leiden University (2019)
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