

Open Access

Differential Expression of Physiological Genes of *Neocaridina Denticulate* at the Transcriptional Level Following Short-Term Exposure to Non-Lethal Concentrations of Phthalate Esters

Su CH, Tsai YC and Sung HH^{*}

Department of Microbiology, Soochow University, Taipei 111, Taiwan

Abstract

Xenobiotic phthalate esters (PAEs) are considered endocrine disrupting chemicals and are known to cause immunotoxicity, having been linked with the susceptibility of shrimp to pathogens; however, the effect on other physiological functions has not been explored. This study sought to understand the genetic responses of Neocaridina denticulate, a common freshwater shrimp, to three different PAEs, i.e., diethyl phthalate (DEP), dipropyl phthalate (DPrP), and diphenyl phthalate (DPP). The differential expression of 10 functional known expressed sequence tags derived from N. denticulate were analyzed by semi-guantitative RT-PCR after 24 h of exposure to non-lethal concentrations (0, 0.1, 1.0, and 10 mg/L) of PAEs in pond water. Compared with the control group, nine genes were differentially expressed in the DEP-treated groups, seven genes were differentially expressed in the DPrPtreated groups, and five genes were differentially expressed in the DPP-treated groups. These PAE-affected genes primarily belonged to three functional classes: defense-related genes (qm: QM protein hc: hemocyanin), metabolism-related genes (cathepsin-L like cysteine protease, catl; glutamate dehydrogenase, gdh; and inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1, impdh-1) and stress-related genes (hsp70: 70 kDa-heat shock protein; gst: glutathione S-transferase, and tps: trehalose-6-phosphate synthase). Among these, the stress-related genes were significantly up-regulated by DEP, DPrP, and DPP. These effects of PAEs on the expression of genes required for multiple physiological functions suggest that even with non-lethal concentrations of PAEs, a polluted aquatic environment may still present a potential risk to N. denticulate.

Keywords: Phthalate esters; *Neocaridina denticulate*; Aquatic crustacean; Expressed Sequence Tag (EST); Differential gene expression

Introduction

Increasing evidence indicates that many xenobiotics, i.e., products of chemical pollutants that are degraded but not biologically decomposed in sewage treatment systems, are often not acutely toxic for exposed aquatic animals but instead lead to chronic intoxication, resulting in tissue alterations. There is a developing awareness that diseases in both fish and mollusk populations are linked to environmental changes or coastal marine pollution. A considerable amount of evidence supports the links among environmental changes (including contaminants), non-infectious diseases, and the deterioration of the immune system [1,2]. Phthalate esters (PAEs) are widely used industrial chemicals that serve as important additives to impart flexibility to polyvinyl chloride (PVC) resins and have become widely diffused in the environment [3] via the manufacturing process. In Taiwan, PAEs have been found to be widely distributed in river water, sediment, and soil [4] and have been found to accumulate in fish [5].

Numerous experiments have shown that the bioaccumulation of PAEs occurs in aquatic and terrestrial food chains due to their low solubility and degradation and to their high hydrophobicity and adhesion [3]. The accumulation of PAEs interferes considerably with the propagation and size of populations as a result of changes to sexual development and alterations in reproductive function, including changes in embryo development, sperm maturation, reproductive organs and hormones, and arachidonate metabolism [6-9]. Autian indicated that the human male fetus can become feminized in the course of development when PAEs accumulate during pregnancy [10]. Singh reported that some PAEs can induce teratogenic effects (such as anophthalmia, twisted hind legs, and hemangiomas), fetal death, and fetal resorption in pregnant rats [11]. Additionally, PAEs can be hydrolyzed to phthalic acids; phthalic acids have been found to act as germ-cell mutagens in rats [9]

and have inhibitory effects on arachidonate metabolism in rat peritoneal leucocytes and human peritoneal T-lymphocytes [7,8]. Phthalic acids have also been found to influence prostanoid output [12,13]. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and its counterparts in several other countries have classified the most commonly occurring PAEs as priority pollutants and endocrine-disrupting compounds. Therefore, evaluating PAE pollution in the environment and its associated toxicity is particularly important.

Many invertebrate toxicity test protocols are routinely used in regulatory toxicity testing [14], and freshwater crustaceans are currently employed to monitor environmental pollution because they possess a number of advantageous features: they are the major invertebrate component in most aquatic ecosystems, their populations are often numerous, and they are easily cultured in the laboratory [15-17]. *Neocaridina denticulate* (De Haan, 1844, Crustacea, Decapoda) is distributed in rivers throughout eastern Asia and the Hawaiian islands and is a common shrimp in the fresh water ecosystems of Taiwan. Several characteristics of *N. denticulate* are beneficial as aquatic indicators for assessing environmental pollution: they have a small size (2-3 cm), undergo spontaneous interbreeding, and lack a metamorphosis

*Corresponding author: Hung-Hung Sung, Department of Microbiology, Soochow University, Taipei 111, Taiwan, Tel: 886228819471; E-mail: hhsung@scu.edu.tw

Received September 21, 2017; Accepted October 13, 2017; Published October 19, 2017

Citation: Su CH, Tsai YC, Sung HH (2017) Differential Expression of Physiological Genes of *Neocaridina Denticulate* at the Transcriptional Level Following Short-Term Exposure to Non-Lethal Concentrations of Phthalate Esters. J Pollut Eff Cont 5: 201. doi: 10.4176/2375-4397.1000201

Copyright: © 2017 Su CH, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

stage during development. In 2005, the Environmental Protection Administration of Taiwan announced this organism as an indicator for use in acute toxicity assays to assess whether various bodies of water or effluents from industrial districts are qualified for some degree of environmental protection. However, *N. denticulate* has been used in only a few studies to date to determine the toxicity of pesticides, including ammonium chloride, copper sulfate, cadmium chloride, mercuric chloride, and zinc sulfate [18], and the effects of pollutants, such as chlordane and lindane, on growth and reproductive hormones [19].

Previous *in vitro* exposure experiments conducted by our group demonstrated that xenobiotic PAEs, including dipropyl phthalate (DPrP), can damage hemocytes and impact the cellular immunity of the giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobranchium rosenbergii*) [20]. We also found that the increased susceptibility of prawns to pathogens by *in vivo* exposure to PAEs may be caused not only by changes in immunity but also by changes to other physiological functions [21]. Furthermore, we found that the increased susceptibility of *N. denticulate* exposed to a non-lethal concentration of DPrP was short-term and may be related to the increased expression of DPrP-induced immune mediators, including acid phosphatase, β -glucuronidase, phenoloxidase, superoxide dismutase, and hemocyanin [22]. Therefore, one must determine what effect PAEs at a non-lethal dosage have on the global physiology of *N. denticulate*.

This study aimed to determine the expression of a set of multifunctional genes of *N. denticulate* after exposure to three different PAEs, i.e., diethyl phthalate (DEP), dipropyl phthalate (DPrP), and diphenyl phthalate (DPP). In this study, the expressed sequence tags (ESTs) derived from either DPrP- or nonylphenol-treated shrimps [23,24] were used to determine the messenger RNA expression of selected genes associated with various physiological functions and to assess the differences in gene expression caused by PAEs. Our results are useful for assessing the feasibility of employing *N. denticulate* as an aquatic indicator, and the ESTs found to be differentially expressed may serve as potential genomic biomarkers for the biomonitoring of hidden risks to aquatic organisms caused by pollutants in the environment.

Materials and Methods

Acclimation of animal

Green-neon shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulate*) with body lengths of 2-3 cm were purchased on separate days from a private aquarium in Taipei, Taiwan, and were acclimated in 20 l glass aquaria containing fresh pond water and water plants (*Egeria densa* Planch.) at 28°C, pH 6.9~7.5, an oxygen concentration >4 ppm, and a 12 h light-dark photoperiod. The shrimp were acclimated for at least one week prior to the experiments, and the expression of the prophenoloxidase gene (*propo*) was used as a parameter to determine whether the batch of shrimp was usable. The animals were considered usable only when the ratio of the mRNA levels of *propo* to that of *actin* (as an internal control) was 0.1-0.3 [23]. The shrimp were fed with mosquito larvae twice per day. The stocking densities were maintained at 100 individuals per aquarium.

Immersion treatment

The three PAEs, diethyl phthalate (DEP, Chem Service O-525), dipropyl phthalate (DPrP, Chem Service F-2158), and diphenyl phthalate (DPP, Chem Service 10588-0), were dissolved in acetone to a concentration of 10,000 mg/L as a stock solution and stored at room temperature. Prior to immersion treatment, the stock solution was serially diluted into different concentrations with fresh pond water. Preliminary tests showed that the mortality of DPrP-treated shrimp subjected to concentrations of 10 mg/L continuously for 10 days was less than 5%, and the mortality of the control (acetone-treated) group was less than 2% [22]. Therefore, in these experiments, shrimp were treated with the three PAEs at three concentrations (0.1, 1.0, and 1.0 mg/L), with a density of 60 individuals in 20-L glass aquaria containing 18 L of fresh pond water for 24 h. The control shrimp were treated with pond water containing a 1,000-fold dilution of acetone.

Preparation of tissue homogenates

Because these shrimp are too small to collect sufficient amounts of different tissues for different experiments, tissue homogenates were prepared from at least five whole individuals. Briefly, after the shrimp were immersed in ice-cold PBS for 1-2 min, they were ground into powder using a liquid nitrogen-chilled mortar and Teflon pestle (Kontes, Vineland, NJ, USA). The resulting tissue homogenate could be directly used to isolate RNA.

RNA isolation

One tissue homogenate sample was prepared from five individuals. For RNA isolation, 50-100 mg of the tissue homogenate was resuspended in 1 mL of Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, USA) and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. The solution was mixed vigorously for 15 s with 0.2 mL of chloroform and incubated at room temperature for 10 min. After the mixture was centrifuged at 12,000 xg for 15 min at 4°C, the uppermost layer was collected and mixed with 0.5 mL of isopropanol at room temperature for 10 min. Following a second centrifugation, the RNA pellet was desalted using 75% (v/v) ethanol prepared with diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC; Sigma)-treated sterile water and dissolved in 10 μ L of DEPC-treated water. PolyA⁺ RNA was purified from this preparation with a Dynabeads mRNA purification kit (Invitrogen). Prior to the following experiments, the concentration of RNA was quantified by measuring the absorbance of the RNA solution at a wavelength of 260:280 nm.

Semi-quantitative RT-PCR

After treatment with different concentrations of DEP, DPrP, or DPP, the differential gene expression pattern was verified by semiquantitative RT-PCR using total RNA (0.25 µg cDNA). In this study, 10 ESTs of known function (Table 1) were isolated from either DPrPtreated [24] or nonylphenol-treated shrimp [23] and used as the target genes. Primers for different genes were designed and used in PCR (Table 2). Beta-actin was used as an internal control for this experiment, and its expression was determined by PCR amplification with a pair of specific primers, actin-F (5'-CCCAGAGCAAGAGAGGTA-3') and actin-R (5'-GCGTATCCTTCGTAGATGGG-3'), which yielded a 309 bp fragment (GenBank accession number: HO762521). The PCR conditions were as follows: a denaturing step at 94°C for 1 min, an annealing step at 51°C or 55°C for 1 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 1 min. All PCR products were analyzed on a 1% agarose gel and quantified using the ImageMaster[™] software (TotalLab Software v. 2.00, Amersham). The intensity of bands was expressed in relative absorbance units. Semi-quantitative determinations were expressed as a ratio of the absorbance units of the target gene band to the absorbance units of the actin band in the same sample. The data shown in figures from this study are expressed as a "ratio of control", which was calculated as the ratio of the level of one target gene from the PAE-treated group to the level of the same target gene from the control group.

Page 3 of 9

EST ID	Accession number	Gene identified	Accession number	Species	EST size (bp)
Immune-related genes					
DPrP9	FL592852	QM protein	EU004069.1	Marsupenaeus japonicus	398
NP2	FL640908	Hemocyanin mRNA	AF431737.1	Penaeus monodon	361
Respiration-related genes					
NP7	FL640914	Mitochondrial COI gene for cytochrome oxidase subunit I	AB300187.1	Neocaridina denticulata sinensis	693
NP11	FL640918	Mitochondrion	DQ656600.1	Fenneropenaeus chinensis	612
Metabolism-related genes					
NP8	FL640915	Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease mRNA	X85127.1	Penaeus vannamei	438
NP10	FL640917	glutamate dehydrogenase	AM076955.1	Litopenaeus vannamei	607
NP16	FL640932	Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1	NM 001017283.2	Xenopus tropicalis	552
Stress-related genes					
NP14	FL640930	70 kD heat shock protein cognate	NM 001043372.1	Bombyx mori	307
NP15	FL640931	Glutathione S-transferase class mu	EU008563.1	Cyphoma gibbosum	285
NP18	FL640934	Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1	XM 392397.3	Apis mellifera	576
When the E-value is less than 2	10 ⁻²⁵ . the EST i	is considered a known functional EST.			

Table 1: Characteristics of the functional ESTs used in this study.

EST ID	Accession no.	Primer (5'→3')	Size (bp)		
DPrP9	FL592852	FL592852 F: GCCTTGTTACGGTCGTGAGT			
		R:GGGAAGAAAGAAGGCTGACG			
NP2	FL640908	F: CAGCCCAAATGTCCGTTACT	600		
		R: CCTTGAAGCTTGGCACATC			
NP7	FL640914	F: GGCTCGTGTGTCAACATCC	522		
		R: CCCCCATTAGCAAGAGGAA			
NP8	FL640915	F: CTTCAACCCAGCCAATGTG	337		
		R: GGTAGCAATGCCGCAGTTA			
NP10	FL640917	F: GTCGTGGATTGCTGACACC	531		
		R: GTTGGGCCATTAGCAGCTT			
NP11	FL640918	F: CACACCTCGCGGGTAGTAGT	510		
		R: ACCAAGCTGCTGCTTCAAA			
NP14	FL640930	F: TGTGGGTGGAGTGATGACA	209		
		R: CAATCTGGGGCACACCTC			
NP15	FL640931	F: TCTCAGTGGTGCCACACAA	201		
		R: GCGATGAGTTCGAGGACAA			
NP16	FL640932	F: CGTGACCCAGTTCGTTTGA	460		
		R: CATCAGCACCTGCATTTACC			
NP18	FL640934	F: AGTGCAAGGCGAGAGGATT	482		
		R: ACGCCAAATTGGTCTCCA			

Table 2: Specific primers for ESTs used in this study.

Statistical analysis

Because outbred animals were used as samples in this study, the phenotypic background most likely varied significantly between individual animals. The means of the average relative value of at least five replicates from 25 individuals were statistically analyzed to examine the effect of PAE on mRNA expression using an ANOVA and Duncan's multiple range tests, with a specified significance level of P<0.05.

Results and Discussion

PAEs, which are considered endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs), have been widely used in aquatic ecosystems to study toxicity in algae, invertebrates, and fish. Because the regulatory mechanisms of an organism are very complex, vary throughout the lifecycle of the organism, and increase in complexity with evolution, the toxicity of PAEs is a multifaceted issue that depends on many factors. Gene expression analysis offers mechanistic value and provides more comprehensive insight into toxicity [25]; in addition, gene expression analysis is being increasingly used in the diagnosis of environmental

contamination because it may be more sensitive and less timeconsuming than conventional toxicology endpoints. Due to the lack of information concerning the biological effects of PAEs and the advent of new technologies in functional genomic analysis, monitoring the expression of multiple genes involved in a wide spectrum of cellular processes and signaling pathways offers a potentially powerful method to study the mechanistic basis of toxic action and unravel the global effect underlying the observed adverse physiological effects of PAEs. A handful of studies have used gene expression analysis to assess the ecotoxicity of PAE exposure in aquatic wildlife invertebrates, such as *Tigriopus japonicus* and *Chironomus riparius* [26,27]. The high sensitivity of the *N. denticulate hc* gene to DPrP reported in a previous study has suggested that a gene expression profile may be potentially used as a biomarker tool for evaluating aquatic contamination by DPrP or other phthalate esters [22].

In this study, to understand the global effect of PAEs on *N. denticulate*, an EST analysis developed from the subtractive library [23,24] was used to determine differentially expressed genes after short-term exposure to DEP, DPP, or DPP exposure for 24 h. The 10 functional target genes were classified into four different groups according to their physiological functions (Table 1): immune-related genes (QM protein and hemocyanin), respiration-related genes (cytochrome oxidase subunit I and mitochondrion), metabolism-related genes (cathepsin-L-like cysteine protease, and glutamate dehydrogenase) and stress genes (70-kDa heat shock protein, glutathione S-transferase, and trehalose-6-phosphate synthase).

Effects of three PAEs on the expression of immune genes

Previous studies have indicated that four PAEs can reduce cellular immunity and increase the susceptibility of an economically important freshwater prawn *Macrobrachium rosenbergii* to infection [20,21]. In arthropods, except hemocyanin protein (Hc) is produced in the hepatopancreas and serves as an oxygen carrier, several studies have demonstrated that the physicochemical properties of Hc are very similar to those of phenoloxidase after proteolytic cleavage at the amino-terminal of Hc, such as the spider *Eurypelma californicum* [28,29] and horseshoe crab *Tachypleus tridentatus* [30]. Under normal conditions, Hc functions as an oxygen carrier, but it may be converted to phenoloxidase after infection to prevent microbial invasion. In addition, crustacean Hc can be processed by a cysteine-like proteinase to generate an antimicrobial peptide [31,32]. In crustaceans, Xu et al.

Page 4 of 9

[33] found that the shrimp QM gene (qm) was up-regulated in virusresistant shrimp and that the QM protein could participate in the prophenoloxidase activation system by interacting with Hc and myosin and regulating the phenoloxidase activity of Hc [33]. immunity provoked by exposure to the three xenobiotic chemicals. The mRNA expression of the gene qm in the PAE-exposed shrimps was significantly inhibited at a high concentration (10 mg/L) of both DEP and DPP (Figure 1) but increased at a low concentration (0.1 mg/L) of DEP (Figure 1). Compared with the controls, the different concentrations (0.1, 1, and 10 mg/L) of DPrP treatments did not alter the mRNA levels of the qm gene in any of the concentrations assayed

In this study, the transcription of the two immune-related genes qm (DPrP9) and *hemocyainin* (NP2) was selected as a measure of



Figure 1: Messenger RNA expression of genes of *Neocaridina denticulate* treated with various concentrations of diethyl phthalate (DEP) for one day. A semiquantitative determination of mRNA levels of target genes and an internal control (actin) was conducted. The data are expressed as the "ratio of control," which was calculated as the ratio of the level of the target gene (X) from the DEP-treated group to the level of that target gene (X) from an acetone-treated control group. Significant differences in mRNA expression between the DEP-treated group and control group are indicated with a single asterisk (P<0.05).

Page 5 of 9

(Figure 2). An increase in hc mRNA levels was detected following DPrP treatment with all three concentrations (Figure 2), but the mRNA levels of hc in DPP-treated groups were significantly reduced (Figure 3). The results indicated that the effect of the three PAEs on hc expression was completely different, and that gene qm can be modulated by either DEP or DPP (Figures 1 and 3). Previous studies have demonstrated that the hc gene was up-regulated by DPrP [22] but down-regulated by nonylphenol [23]. The results of this study from the hc and qm expression analyses suggest that PAEs may interfere with the immunity of N. denticulate to increase the risk of infection.

Effects of three PAEs on the expression of metabolism- and respiration-related genes

Metabolism is the set of life-sustaining chemical transformations

that manage the material and energy resources of the cells of living organisms; respiration is one of the key methods a cell gains useful energy to fuel cellular activity. One of these genes, *gdh: glutamate dehydrogenase*; NP10, was affected by all three PAEs (Figures 1-3); *gdh* was up-regulated by DEP (0.1 mg/L and 1 mg/L) and DPrP (10 mg/L) but down-regulated by DPP (10 mg/L). The mRNA levels of the other two genes, *cathepsin-L* like *cysteine protease* (*catl*; NP8) and *inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase* 1 (*impdh-1*; NP16), were significantly elevated by DEP (Figure 1); DPrP increased the expression of *catl* but did not affect the expression of *impdh-1* (Figure 2). As shown in Figures 1 and 2, *catl* was up-regulated by DEP (1 and 10 mg/L). Furthermore, two respiration-related genes, *cytochrome oxidase subunit I* (*cos*; NP7) and *mitochondrion (mit*; NP11), were selected as measures of the





Page 6 of 9

effects on the energy supply caused by the exposure to PAEs. Only the DPrP significantly increased the mRNA levels of *mit* at the different concentrations (Figure 2), and the three PAEs did not affect the mRNA levels of the *cos* gene in shrimp following PAE exposure (Figures 1-3).

In marine invertebrates, GDH plays a role in the hyperosmotic stress; GDH activity decreases when NaCl concentration is increased in *Tigriopus californicus* [34]. In addition, GDH is capable of regulating the hemolymph ammonia concentration and hemolymph protein level in *Litopenaeus vannamei* [35]. These results suggest that organisms with high GDH activity levels reduce their energy for growth by wasting more energy in oxidation of the excess proteins. However, this mechanism is unlikely to be involved in freshwater amphipod *Gammarus pulex* exposed to polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) because a previous study observed a decrease in GDH activity after PCB exposure [36]. In this study, the *gdh* gene was down-regulated in *N. denticulate* exposed to DEP and DPrP (Table 3). These results suggest that a decrease of GDH may reduce energy consumption to facilitate the detoxification and survival of *N. denticulate* in a polluted environment.

In crustaceans, cathepsin-L cysteine proteases (CatLs) were found to play important roles during development in *Artemia franciscana* [37] and in the hepatopancreas of the shrimp, where they are involved in food digestion [38]. Furthermore, several studies have indicated

that CatL affects the innate immune system of crustaceans, including shrimp [39]. In the study, we found that the catl gene was up-regulated by DEP and DPrP, but another study found that the catl mRNA level was decreased in shrimp exposed to nonylphenol [23]. The product of *impdh-1*, the other metabolic gene that was up-regulated by DEP in this study, is an essential, rate-limiting enzyme in the de novo guanine nucleotide synthetic pathway. IMPD has been studied in humans but is poorly understood in other organisms. Furthermore, the important role of IMPDH activity in the immune response has been demonstrated; IMPDH types I and II are expressed during T-lymphocyte activation and are associated with lymphocyte proliferation, and IMPDH type I mRNA levels increase in response to a variety of stimuli [40]. Based on the functions of CatL and IMPDH that have been previously demonstrated, we hypothesize that the functions of CatL and IMPDH in crustaceans (including N. denticulate) are related to either metabolism or immunity. Based on the results of the expression of catl, gdh, and impdh-1, we propose that PAEs have multi-modulating effects on either the metabolic activities or immune response of N. denticulate.

Effects of three PAEs on the expression of stress-related genes

The cellular response to stress is characterized by the activation of a set of genes to counteract the physiological disturbance induced by physical or xenobiotic agents; a variety of enzymes and other proteins



Figure 3: Messenger RNA expression of genes of *Neocaridina denticulate* treated with various concentrations of diphenyl phthalate (DPP) for one day. A semiquantitative determination of mRNA levels of target genes and an internal control (actin) was conducted. The data are expressed as "ratio of control," which was calculated as the ratio of the level of a target gene (X) from the DEP-treated group to the level of that target gene (X) from the acetone-treated control group. Significant differences in mRNA expression between the DEP-treated group and control group are indicated with a single asterisk (P<0.05).

Page 7 of 9

Known function		Phthalate Concentration (mg/L)							
		DEP		DPrP		DPP			
	0.1	1	10	0.1	1	10	0.1	1	10
QM protein	1		Ļ						Ļ
Hemocyanin mRNA				↑	↑	↑	Ļ	Ļ	Ļ
Cytochrome oxidase subunit I									
Mitochondrion				1	1	1			
Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease	↑	↑		↑	1				
Glutamate dehydrogenase	Ļ	↓				Ļ	Ļ		1
Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1		1	↑						
70 kD heat shock protein		1	1	1	1	1			
Glutathione S-transferase		1	1		Î	1			
Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1		↑	↑				↑	↑	↑ (
	Known function QM protein QM protein Hemocyanin mRNA Cytochrome oxidase subunit I Mitochondrion Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease Glutamate dehydrogenase Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1 70 kD heat shock protein Glutathione S-transferase Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1	Known function 0.1 QM protein ↑ Hemocyanin mRNA 1 Cytochrome oxidase subunit I 1 Mitochondrion 1 Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓ Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1 1 70 kD heat shock protein 1 Glutathione S-transferase 1 Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1 1	Known function DEP 0.1 1 QM protein ↑ Hemocyanin mRNA Cytochrome oxidase subunit I Mitochondrion Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓ Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1 ↑ 70 kD heat shock protein ↑ Glutathione S-transferase ↑ Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1 ↑	Known function DEP 0.1 1 10 QM protein ↑ ↓ Hemocyanin mRNA Cytochrome oxidase subunit I Mitochondrion Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ ↑ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓ ↓ Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase 1 ↑ ↑ 70 kD heat shock protein ↑ ↑ Glutathione S-transferase ↑ ↑ Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1 ↑ ↑	Trinuate Colspan="2">Trinuate Colspan="2" DEP QM protein ↑ ↓ QM protein ↑ ↓ ↓ Hemocyanin mRNA ↑ ↓ ↓ Cytochrome oxidase subunit I ↑ ↑ Mitochondrion ↑ ↑ ↑ Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ ↑ ↑ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Topologenase 1 ↑ ↓ ↓	Known function DEP DPrP 0.1 1 10 0.1 1 QM protein ↑ ↓ ↓ ↓ Hemocyanin mRNA ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ Cytochrome oxidase subunit I ↑ ↑ ↑ Mitochondrion 1 ↑ ↑ ↑ Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ To kD heat shock protein ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1 ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑	Known function DEP DPrP 0.1 1 10 0.1 1 10 QM protein ↑ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Hemocyanin mRNA ↓ ↑	Initiality Concentration (ingl.) DEP DPrP OL 1 10 0.1 1 10 0.1 QM protein ↑ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ QM protein ↑ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Hemocyanin mRNA ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↓ ↓ Cytochrome oxidase subunit I ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Mitochondrion ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Cathepsin-L like cysteine protease ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ Glutamate dehydrogenase ↓	Initiality Concentration (ing.2)DEPDPPDPPOLIIIO0.1IIO0.1IQM protein \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow Hemocyanin mRNA \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow Cytochrome oxidase subunit I \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow Mitochondrion \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow Gathepsin-L like cysteine protease \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1 \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow

Table 3: Summary of the effects of three phthalate esters on the differential expression of functional genes of Neocaridina denticulate via immersion treatment.

are produced by organisms in response to xenobiotic exposure. This study selected three stress-related ESTs, NP14, NP15, and NP18, hereafter referred to as 70-*kDa heat shock protein (hsp70), glutathione S*-*transferase (gst)*, and *trehalose-6-phosphate synthase (tps)*, respectively, to determine the effect of PAEs on the stress response of shrimp. The mRNA levels of these three genes were significantly elevated after exposure to DEP (1 and 10 mg/L) (Figure 1). The *hsp70* gene was upregulated after exposure at the three concentrations (0.1, 1, and 10 mg/L) of DPrP, and the mRNA levels of *gst* were significantly elevated after treatment with 1 and 10 mg/L DPrP (Figure 2). The mRNA levels of the *tps* gene were increased by DEP treatment (1 and 10 mg/L) (Figure 1) and up-regulated by DPP (0.1, 1, and 10 mg/L) (Figure 3).

The HSP70 family of proteins differs from other classes of HSPs because it is one of the most highly conserved families and the first to be induced under stress conditions [41]. The induction of *hsp70* gene expression was detected in the harlequin fly (*Chironomus riparius*) after exposure to bisphenol A [42], butyl benzyl phthalate (BBP), and di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) [27]. We observed an elevation of the *hsp* gene in both DEP- and DPrP-treated groups, suggesting that HSP70 protein may increase to aid in refolding damaged proteins and be responsible for survival and adaption of organisms during xenobiotic exposure. Similar to the *hsp* gene, the *gst* gene was also up-regulated after exposure to DEP and DPrP but was not affected by DPP (Figures 1-3).

In invertebrates, most studies have demonstrated that glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) function in antioxidant defense systems and the detoxification of insecticides and xenobiotics are often induced, e.g., after exposure to toxins [43-47]. The third stress-related gene examined in this study, *tsp* was up-regulated by DEP and DPP and highly sensitive to DPP (Figures 1 and 2). The accumulation of trehalose in chironomidae implies a role in physiological and biochemical adaptations in extreme environmental conditions [48]. Chung provided evidence of presence of trehalose in hemocytes and TPS in the tissues of the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) and suggested its functional role in energy metabolism and physiological adaptation [49]. The up-regulation of the *tps* gene following exposure to PAEs may help shrimp adapt to and survive in a polluted environment.

In the study, as a further examination of the responses of these

target genes to the three PAEs, the mRNA levels of most genes were differentially expressed after the shrimp were exposed to DEP and DPrP, but only three genes were affected by DPP, including two downregulated immune-related genes (qm and hc), and one up-regulated stress-related gene (tps). These results suggest that the higher water solubility of DEP and DPrP may help both PAEs enter the organisms and modulate gene expression. Our previous study demonstrated that nonylphenol, an EDC, reduced hc, eg-1 α , and catl expressions and elevated the expression of tps [23]. The different effects of xenobiotic chemicals on the same target genes may suggest that various genes in N. denticulate can be affected by a variety of chemicals in the aquatic environment, but the impact on the gene level is associated with the structure of the chemical. In addition, together with the results of previous studies [23,27,50], our study suggests that although nonlethal concentrations of EDCs (for example, phthalate esters and nonylphenol) may allow aquatic organisms to survive, the polluted aquatic environment may still present a potential risk to these organisms by either interfering with their immunity and metabolism or increasing the stress response.

Conclusion

The ecotoxigenicity of PAEs to *N. denticulate* is caused by broad changes in multi-functional genes at the transcriptional level (Table 3). Aside from the *hsp70*, *gst*, and *tsp* responses of *N. denticulate* related to stress due to the presence of three PAEs, the expression of several genes concerning metabolism- and immunity-related functions varied at the RNA level caused by the different chemicals. Because *N. denticulate* has been previously used in Taiwan to monitor bodies of water and due to the results observed here, we suggest that an aquatic indicator system may be established using *N. denticulate* to assess the risks of aquatic pollution to aquatic environments or organisms and that ESTs with differential expression derived from *N. denticulate* may be employed as potential genomic biomarkers. There is little DNA sequence information available for *N. denticulate*, and this work reinforces the need to identify more specific and sensitive genes in the species.

Acknowledgments

The research was supported by the National Science Council, R.O.C. (NSC96-2745-B-031-003-URD).

Page 8 of 9

References

- Durnier M, Siwicki AK (1993) Effects of pesticides and other pollutants in the aquatic environment on immunity of fish: A review. Fish Shelfish Immunol 3: 423-428.
- Pipe RK, Coles JA (1995) Environmental contaminants influencing immune function in marine bivalve molluscs. Fish Shellfish Immunol 5: 581-595.
- Staples CA, Peterson DR, Parkerton TF, Adams WJ (1997) The environmental fate of phthalate esters: A literature review. Chemosph 354: 667-749.
- Liu C, Wang SK, Lu YB (2000) Chemical characterization of Tamshui River sediment in northern Taiwan. Toxicol Environ Chem 76: 205-218.
- Chang BV, Liao CS, Huang BB, Lee CC (2004) Occurrence of phthalate esters in Taiwan. Proceeding of the Third Conference on Environmental Hormones and POPs. pp: 33-63.
- Eckardt RE (1973) Recent developments in industrial carcinogens. J Occup Med 15: 904-907.
- Tavares IA, Vine ND (1985) Phthalic acid esters inhibit arachidonate metabolism by rat peritoneal leucocytes. J Pharm Pharmacol 37: 67-68.
- Carozzi S, Nasini MG, Schelotto C, Caviglia PM, Santoni O, et al. (1993) A biocompatibility study on peritoneal dialysis solution bags for CAPD. Adv Perit Dial 9: 138-142.
- Jha AM, Singh AC, Bharti M (1998) Germ cell mutagenicity of phthalic acid in mice. Mut Res 422: 207-212.
- 10. Autian J (1973) Toxicity and health threats of phthalate esters: Review of the literature. Environ Health Perspect 4: 3-26.
- 11. Singh AR, Lawrance WH, Autian J (1972) Teratogenicity of phthalate ester in rats. J Pharm Sci 61: 51-55.
- Raisz LG, Fall PM, Gabbitas BY, McCarthy TL, Kream BE, et al. (1993) Effects of prostaglandin E2 on bone formation in cultured fetal rat calvariae: Role of insulin-like growth factor-1. Endocrinol 133: 1504-1510.
- 13. Raisz LG (1995) Physiologic and pathologic roles of prostagladins and other eicosanoids in bone metabolism. J Nutr 125.
- 14. Schweer LG (2002) Draft detailed review paper on mysid life cycle toxicity test, US Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC.
- 15. Shigehisa H, Shiraishi H (1998) Biomonitoring with shrimp to detect seasonal change in river water toxicity. Environ Toxicol Chem 17: 687-694.
- Fossi MC, Marsili L, Neri G, Casini S, Bearzi G, et al. (2000) Skin biopsy of mediterranean cetaceans for the investigation of interspecies susceptibility to xenobiotic contaminants. Mar Environ Res 50: 517-521.
- 17. Kirkpatrick AJ, Gerhardt A, Dick JT, McKenna M, Berges JA (2006) Use of the multispecies freshwater biomonitor to assess behavioral changes of *Corophium volutator* (Pallas, 1766) (Crustacea, Amphipoda) in response to toxicant exposure in sediment. Ecotox Environ Safe 64: 298-303.
- 18. Kitamura H (1990) Relation between the toxicity of some toxicants to the aquatic animals (*Tanichthys albonubes* and *Neocaridina denticulata*) and the hardness of the test solution. Food Agricult Organization United Nations 67: 13-19.
- Huang DJ, Chen HC (2004) Effects of chlordane and lindane on testosterone and vitellogenin levels in green neon shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulate*). Int J Toxicol 23: 91-95.
- Sung HH, Kao WY, Su YJ (2003) Effects and toxicity of phthalate esters to hemocytes of giant frechwater prawn, *Macrobranchium rosenbergii*. Aquat Toxicol 64: 25-37.
- Chen WL, Sung HH (2005) The toxic effect of phthalate esters on immune responses of giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) via oral treatment. Aquat Toxicol 74: 160-171.
- Sung HH, Lin YH, Hsiao CY (2011) Potential toxicity of dipropyl phthalate to physiological functions of the green neon shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulate*). Fish Shellfish Immunol 31: 511-515.
- Liu CL, Sung HH (2011) Genes are differenttially expressed at transcriptional level of *Neocaridina denticulata* following short-term exposure to nonylphenol. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol 87: 220-225.
- 24. Tsai YC, Sung HH (2013) Differential expression of genes at transcriptional

 Ankley G1, Daston GP, Degitz SJ, Denslow ND, Hoke RA, et al. (2006) Toxicogenomics in regulatory ecotoxicology. Environ Sci Technol 40: 4055-4065.

level of Neocaridina denticulata following short-term exposure to dipropyl

- 26. Seo JS, Park TJ, Lee YM, Park HG, Yoon YD, et al. (2006) Small heat shock protein 20 gene (Hsp20) of the intertidal copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* as a possible biomarker for exposure to endocrine disruptors. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol 76: 566-572.
- 27. Planelló R, Herrero O, Martínez-Guitarte JL, Morcillo G (2011) Comparative effects of butyl benzyl phthalate (BBP) and di(2-ehtylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) on the aquatic larvae of *Chironomus riparius* based on gene expression assays related to the endocrine system, the stress response and ribosomes. Aquat Toxicol 105: 62-70.
- Decker H, Rimk T (1998) Two different functions of one active site: Binding oxygen and phenoloxidase activity of hemocyanin of tarantula hemocyanin. J Biol Chem 273: 25889-25892.
- Decker H, Tuczek F (2000) Phenoloxidase activity of hemocyanins: Activation, substrate orientation and molecular mechanism. Trends Biochem Sci 25: 392-397.
- Nagai T, Kawabata SI (2000) A Link between blood coagulation and prophenol oxidase activation in arthropod host defense. J Biol Chem 275: 29264-29267.
- Destoumieux-Garzon D, Saulnier D, Garnier J, Jouffery C, Bulet P, et al. (2001) Antifungal peptides are generated from the C terminus of shrimp hemocyanin in response to microbial challenge. J Biol Chem 276: 47070-47077.
- Nagai T, Osaki T, Kawabata S (2001) Functional conversion of hemocyanin to phenoloxidase by horseshoe crab antimicrobial peptides. J Biol Chem 276: 27166-27170.
- Xu J, Wu S, Zhang X (2008) Novel function of QM protein of shrimp (*Penaeus japonicas*) in regulation of phenol oxidase activity by interaction with hemocyanin. Cell Physiol Biochem 21: 473-480.
- 34. Willett CS, Burton RS (2003) Characterization of the glutamate dehydrogenase gene and its regulation in a euryhaline copepod. Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol 135: 639-646.
- 35. Rosas C, Cuzon GY, Gaxiola G, Priol YL, Pascual C, et al. (2001) Metabolism and growth of juveniles of *Litopenaeus annamei*: effect of salinity and dietary carbohydrate levels. J Exp Mar Biol Ecol 259: 1-22.
- 36. Leroy D, Haubruge E, Pauw ED, Thome JP, Francis F (2010) Development of ecotoxicoproteomics on the freshwater amphipod *Gammarus pulex*: Identification of PCB biomarkers in glycolysis and glutamate pathways. Ecotoxicol Environ Safe 73: 343-352.
- Warner AH, Perz MJ, Osahan JK, Zielinski BS (1995) Potential role in development of the major cysteine protease in larvae of the brine shrimp *Artemia franciscana*. Cell Tiss Res 282: 21-31.
- Boulay CL, Sellos D, Van Wormhoudt A (1998) Cathepsin L gene organization in crustaceans. Gene 218: 77-84.
- 39. Zhao ZY, Yin ZX, Weng SP, Guan HJ, Li SD, et al. (2007) Profiling of differentially expressed genes in hepatopancreas of white spot syndrome virus-resistant shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) by suppression subtractive hybridization. Fish Shellfish Immunol 22: 520-534.
- Dayton JS, Lindsten T, Thompson CB, Mitchell BS (1994) Effects of human T lymphocyte activation on inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase expression. J Immunol 152: 984-991.
- Gupta SC, Sharma A, Mishra M, Mishra RK, Chowdhuri DK (2010) Heat shock proteins in toxicology: How close and how far? Life Sci 86: 377-384.
- 42. Planelló R, Martínez-Guitarte JL, Morcillo G (2008) The endocrine disruptor bisphenol A increases the expression of HSP70 and ecdysone receptor genes in the aquatic larvae of *Chironomus riparius*. Chemosphere 71: 1870-1876.
- Brogdon WG, McAllister JC (1998) Insecticide resistance and vector control. Emerg Infect Dis 4: 605-613.
- Hemingway J (2000) The molecular basis of two contrasting metabolic mechanisms of insecticide resistance. Insect Biochem Mol Biol 30: 1009-1015.
- 45. Ranson H, Rossiter L, Ortelli F, Jensen B, Wang X, et al. (2001) Identification of a novel class of insect glutathione S-transferase involved in resistance to DDT in the malaria vector Anopheles gambiae. Biochem J 359: 295-304.

Page 9 of 9

- 46. Lee YM, Lee KW, Park H, Park HG, Raisuddin S, et al. (2007) Sequence, biochemical characteristics and expression of a novel Sigma-class of glutathione S-transferase from the intertidal copepod, *Tigriopus japonicus* with a possible role in antioxidant defense. Chemosphere 69: 893-902.
- 47. Won EJ, Rhee JS, Kim RO, Ra K, Kim KT, et al. (2012) Susceptibility to oxidative stress and modulated expression of antioxidant genes in the copperexposed polychaete *Perinereis nuntia*. Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol 155: 344-351.
- 48. Sakurai M, Furuki T, Akao K, Tanaka D, Nakahara Y, et al. (2008) Vitrification is

essential for anhydrobiosis in an African chironomid, *Polypedilum vanderplanki*. Proc Natl Aca Sci USA 105: 5093-5098.

- 49. Chung JS (2008) A trehalose 6-phosphate synthase gene of the hemocytes of the blue crab, *Callinectes sapidus*: cloning, the expression, its enzyme activity and relationship to hemolymph trehalose levels. Saline Syst 4: 1-8.
- 50. Snyer MJ, Mulder EP (2001) Environmental endocrine disruption in decapod crustacean larvae: hormone titers, cytochrome P450, and stress protein responses to heptachlor exposure. Aquat Toxicol 55: 177-190.