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Surface coating and particle size are main factors explaining the transcriptome-wide responses of the earthworm *Lumbricus rubellus* to silver nanoparticles†

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Due to the unique properties of differently sized and coated silver nanoparticles (AgNPs), they are used in important industrial and biomedical applications. However, their environmental fate in soil ecosystems and potential mechanisms of toxicity remain elusive, especially at the level of transcriptional regulation. We investigated the transcriptome-wide responses of the earthworm *Lumbricus rubellus* exposed to nine AgNPs differing in surface coating/charge (bovine serum albumin/negative AgNP_BSA, chitosan/positive AgNP_Chit, and polyvinylpyrrolidone/neutral AgNP_PVP) and sizes (20, 35 and 50 nm) at concentrations close to the EC50 value related to reproduction. AgNO₃ was used in two concentrations to benchmark the AgNP effects against those of the Ag salt. A correlation was observed between the number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and Ag internal body concentration. Only metallothionein was regulated by all treatments. Medium sized AgNPs caused the most pronounced transcriptional responses, while AgNO₃ affected the transcriptome less. Medium sized AgNP_BSA exposure caused the most extensive transcriptional responses with 684 DEGs. Gene ontology enrichment analysis of medium sized AgNP_BSA affected DEGs revealed that mitochondrial electron transport, autophagy and phagocytosis, mesoderm and heart development and microtubule organisation were affected. This was also confirmed by gene set enrichment for KEGG pathway analysis, indicating that phagocytosis, autophagy and signalling pathways related to mesoderm formation were significantly up regulated. All AgNP_BSA and AgNP_PVP exposures caused severe down regulation of ribosomal translation, suggesting that the high energy-demanding protein synthesis process is inhibited. Our data confirm the mechanisms previously identified among other animal models and human cell lines. To conclude, coating formulation and particle size severely impact transcriptional responses at a particular nanoparticle size, suggesting diverse mechanistic responses depending on the coating type.

**Introduction**

The nanotechnology industry continues to grow, with silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) being recognised as the most commonly used nanomaterial in many applications, owing to their excellent antimicrobial activity and superior physicochemical characteristics.1,2 The global market demands for AgNPs have been projected to reach $2.5 billion...
by the year 2022. This raises environmental health concerns over the likelihood of their release into the environment, a potential outcome supported by a 130 times increase (from 0.1 μg kg⁻¹ to 13 μg kg⁻¹) in the predicted soil concentrations of AgNPs in the United States in 2009. In recent years, therefore, AgNPs have been increasingly investigated. Nevertheless, environmental effects of AgNPs are still not well understood and information on the effects of particle size and coating type on biota are limited.

Generally, the available literature has revealed possible mechanisms that may be involved in the toxicity of AgNPs. Common among these is oxidative stress due to increased generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), or failure of the organism’s protective mechanisms against these radicals. An increase in ROS production has been reported both in vitro and in vivo in mammalian cells, bacteria, rodents and earthworms exposed to AgNPs. Also, the role of silver ions (Ag⁺) released from AgNPs in mediating toxic effects has been described. This does not exclude the involvement of AgNPs directly, as several studies showed that the toxicity was caused by the NPs. Evidence is available for the uptake of particulate Ag in earthworms and mice exposed to AgNPs.

Recently, investigations utilizing both in vivo and in vitro models have enhanced our knowledge on the fate and effects of various NPs following different exposure scenarios. These studies point at a number of physicochemical properties including size, shape, surface chemistry (charge), and agglomeration and dissolution rates, playing significant roles in influencing the accumulation and toxicity of the tested NPs. The importance of the different properties in driving these processes, however, was not consistent and often varied between studies. Some studies have reported clear effects of size, while charge was more important in others. Other investigators found no effect of NP size nor charge, but rather pointed at the roles of dissolved silver ions and surface coating, not related to the charge of the NPs. Considering these conflicting results, a better understanding of the influence of the physicochemical properties of AgNPs on their fate and effects on organisms will facilitate a proper assessment of their potential risk.

Transcriptomic analysis of microarray or RNA sequencing (RNAseq) data is a powerful technology to investigate gene networks that are differentially regulated in response to toxicants at any given time. For instance, Poynton et al. used microarray analysis to investigate differences in the response of daphnids to AgNPs that were either citrate- or PVP coated. When the different coatings were related to AgNO₃ exposures, very distinct transcriptional profiles were revealed between particulate and ionic Ag. This suggests that AgNP induced toxicity profiles were mechanistically different from ionic Ag toxicity profiles. Main processes affected by AgNPs were protein metabolism and signal transduction, while AgNO₃ caused down-regulation of developmental processes and more specifically of sensory development. In the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans, toxicogenomic investigation of AgNP toxicity revealed a clear signature of oxidative stress and activation of proteins involved in dauer larva formation that could directly be linked to reproductive failure. Such studies indicate that investigations on gene expression profiles may provide a more comprehensive mechanistic understanding of toxicological effects caused by nanoparticles. Also, it may be possible to distinguish these effects from the ones caused by metal ion exposures. The effects of PVP-coated AgNPs and AgNO₃ on the differential gene expression (microarray) response of Enchytraeus albidus following exposure in soil revealed higher toxicity when exposed to AgNO₃. It was indicated that the responses observed due to exposure to AgNPs reflected an effect of Ag⁺ ions, given the extent of similar or dissimilar genes activated.

In the current study, we tested the hypothesis that both the size and surface coating (charge) of AgNPs affect the gene expression profile of an exposed model terrestrial invertebrate. Exposures were performed using specifically synthesized AgNPs that differed in size and surface chemistry (charge). The red earthworm L. rubellus was used, representing an ecologically relevant species that is a very common upper soil-dwelling detritivore in most parts of Europe. Being an abundant species in soil, L. rubellus could serve as an indicator for the risks of soil contaminants. It has commonly been used in ecotoxicological studies on NPs and other contaminants like zinc, lead and polycyclic hydrocarbons. Here, we extend the approach described by Poynton et al. and included three different coating types of AgNPs, also varying in mean core size. RNAseq techniques were used to monitor the profiles of gene expression occurring in the earthworms exposed to different forms of AgNPs at concentrations corresponding to the EC₅₀ values for effects on cocoon production. Ionic Ag (AgNO₃) exposures were also included at the level of EC₅₀ for cocoon production. The outcome of this study will provide insight into the gene expression profiles of a model terrestrial invertebrate as a result of AgNP exposure under environmentally relevant conditions, and how the AgNP properties may influence these. Subtle (mild) effects, not easily detectable by other toxicological endpoints, may be identified based on gene ontology, shedding light on the likely mechanisms of toxicity involved in the outcomes observed at the population level determined in earlier studies.

Methods

Synthesis and characterisation of AgNPs

AgNPs used in this study were synthesized at the Catalonia Institute of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology (Institut Català de Nanociència i Nanotecnologia (ICN2)), Barcelona, Spain. Details of the synthesis and characterisation of the AgNPs have been reported previously and are only briefly discussed here. Colloidal, dispersed AgNPs of three different
sizes (20, 35 and 50 nm) were prepared separately, following a kinetically controlled seeded-growth method with slight modifications. This approach is based on the reduction of silver nitrate (AgNO₃) in the presence of two competing reducing agents, tannic acid (TA) and trisodium citrate hexahydrate (SC) at 100 °C. The resulting AgNPs were surface-coated with bovine serum albumin (BSA), chitosan (Chit) or polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) to generate negatively charged AgNP_BSA, positively charged AgNP_Chit and neutral AgNP_PVP, respectively. The three sizes investigated were chosen based on literature reports which suggested nanotoxicity in the 20–50 nm range.

All nine AgNPs were dispersed in soil extracts and MilliQ water and characterised by a combination of different techniques. Particle size distributions were assessed by single-particle inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (spICP-MS), while core mean sizes were determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). UV-vis, dynamic light scattering (DLS), and zeta-potential measurements (ζ-potential) were used to monitor the stability of the AgNPs in different media and to determine their surface charges. Results of characterisation are discussed only briefly here, and the reader is referred to our earlier work for more details.

Soil preparation and earthworm exposure experiment

Soil preparation and spiking using soil extract were performed according to the study of van der Ploeg et al. Briefly, sifted air-dried natural soil with pH_KCl 5.1 and 3.8% organic matter obtained from a reference experimental organic farm (Proefboerderij Kooijenburg, Marwiksoord, The Netherlands) was used for the experiment. Soil extract made from the same soil was used to prepare AgNP suspensions and solutions of AgNO₃ as previously reported. Earthworms were exposed for 72 h to AgNPs with nominal exposure concentrations of 0, 15.63, 31.25, 62.5, 125 and 250 mg Ag per kg dry soil. The exposure duration of 72 h was based on the literature which indicated that most effects at the level of gene expression were significant following 3 day exposures. To compare the effects of ionic silver (Ag⁺), two AgNO₃ concentrations were also included (1.5 and 15 mg Ag per kg dry soil). The two concentrations were selected because of uncertainty in the potential dissolution of the AgNPs, depending on their coating. To avoid potential differences in uptake between the different treatments, all dose–response relationships will be based on the actual uptake of Ag, as expressed by the internal concentrations in the earthworms. Control earthworms were kept in clean soil without added AgNPs or AgNO₃. At the end of the exposure period, earthworms were collected and analysed for total Ag bioaccumulation and for gene expression profiles. The AgNO₃ concentrations were selected to benchmark the AgNP sublethal effects against those of the Ag salt. van der Ploeg et al. also showed that 1 and 15 mg kg⁻¹ correspond to the NOEC and a 50% decrease in the relative survival of earthworm coelomocytes. Furthermore, exposure experiments differed in time, in that each exposure with a particular coating type was performed at a different time point with a particular batch of animals. To control for these temporal differences, we included independent ion exposures and controls for each coating type. The control soil was treated with only soil extract and deionised water (Millipore; resistivity = 18.2 MΩ cm⁻¹). Soil spiking and/or moistening was conducted 24 h before introducing the earthworms during which the moistened soil was allowed to equilibrate under climate-controlled conditions of 24 h light cycle, 15 °C, and 61% relative humidity. The moisture content of the soil was re-adjusted to attain 50% of its water holding capacity.

Clitellated adult earthworms (L. rubellius) having no gross lesions and of 1–2.5 g live weight were obtained from an uncontaminated site in The Netherlands (Nijkerkerveen). They were acclimatized in uncontaminated soil for two weeks under the same conditions as described above, weighed and distributed randomly in experimental units (jars). Each treatment was prepared in triplicate at a density of 5 animals per jar.

Sample collection and preparation

At the end of the 72 h exposure period, surviving earthworms were collected from each replicate. These were weighed, placed into glass Petri-dishes lined with moistened Whatman® filter paper no. 597 (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburg, PA) and allowed to depurate over 48 h. The earthworms were kept at the same temperature as that during the exposure period. Following gut-emptying, the earthworms were washed with demineralized water, pad-dried with absorbent paper and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. Samples were preserved at −80 °C until analysis. One earthworm from each replicate was used for gene expression analysis, while before quantification of the total Ag concentration, whole earthworm tissues were ground to powder in liquid nitrogen using a mortar and pestle, pooling two individuals per experimental unit.

Quantification of Ag in earthworm tissues

To quantify the total Ag tissue concentrations in earthworm samples, 250 mg of the crushed tissue from each replicate was weighed in digestion tubes and 1.0 mL of MilliQ water, 0.5 mL of 65% HNO₃ and 1.5 mL of 37% HCl were added and mixed gently by swirling the capped tubes. The tubes were then incubated for 30 min in a water bath at 60 °C. After cooling down to room temperature, the resulting digest was diluted and the total Ag content measured by inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). The analysis was conducted using a Thermo X Series 2 ICP-MS equipped with an auto-sampler and a conical glass concentric nebuliser and operated at a radio frequency power of 1400 W. Data acquisition was performed in the selected ion mode at the m/z ratio of 107 characteristic for silver. Quantification was based on ionic silver standards diluted in the same
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acetic matrix. The detection limit for the total tissue Ag concentration using the described procedure for ICP-MS was about 50 ng per kg tissue DW.

Uptake data obtained for the 72 hour exposure were processed using Microsoft Excel (2016), and subsequently subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the aid of GraphPad Prism 8.02 for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego California USA, www.graphpad.com). All results are presented as mean ± standard deviation (s.d.), and a p value of <0.05 is considered to be significant.

RNA isolation and normalization

All controls and treatments of exposed worms were conducted in triplicate. The earthworms selected for RNAseq were sampled from experimental units treated at AgNP exposure concentrations closest and within the standard error limits of the EC50 values as confirmed by Makama et al.33 (Table 1) for effects on earthworm reproduction (no. of cocoons laid), which was the most sensitive toxicity endpoint in a 28 day sub-chronic study using the same AgNPs.33

For each coating type we analysed the gene expression of earthworms exposed to small, medium and large sized AgNPs. To control for temporal and animal batch differences, two ionic AgNO3 exposures (1.5 and 15 mg Ag+ kg−1) and a control (natural soil only) were used for each coating type. In total, 54 samples were prepared for RNA extraction and subsequent sequencing. Each earthworm (representing a single replicate) was crushed in liquid nitrogen and a sub-sample of 25 mg was taken for total RNA extraction using an SV total RNA isolation system according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Promega, US). Slight modifications included addition of 500 μl dilution buffer, 285 μl ethanol and 800 μl wash buffer. Total RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop ND-1000 UV-vis spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). About 1 μg of total RNA was subjected to cDNA synthesis using a TruSeq RNA sample preparation kit v2 according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Illumina, US). Subsequently, samples were quality checked and quantified by running them on a BioAnalyzer lab-on-a-chip (Agilent, US).

RNA sequencing

The 54 samples were assigned a unique sequencing barcode and total RNA from each sample was prepared for Illumina HiSeq sequencing. Sequence libraries were prepared by adding equal amounts of each sample to the library pool. Paired-end 125 bp sequencing was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 by dividing the samples over three lanes of a flow cell. After sequencing, the individual samples were demultiplexed by barcode.

Assembly and data analysis

FastQC was applied to quality control the raw sequence reads. Low quality bases were trimmed using Trimmomatic (quality cut-off of 24 using the Phred33 encoding).39 The mapping references represented an assembled transcriptome previously generated and kindly provided by Prof. P. Kille (University of Cardiff), which we were able to re-assemble from approximately 160 000 to approximately 51 000 (51k) transcript sequences. This 51k transcriptome assembly was annotated using the pipeline incorporated in the Omics Box (previously called BLAST2GO) from BioBam bioinformatics solutions (https://www.biobam.com/omicsbox/). Gene ontology (GO) terms were predicted based on BlastP hits and InterPro domains against the non-redundant UniProt/TryEMBL database (E-value threshold of 1 × 10−5). Mapping and read quantification was conducted using a combination of Bowtie2/SAMtools using default settings using a maximum fragment length of 800 bp, allowing 3 mismatches in the ‘report all alignment’ option. Counting of uniquely mapped reads was performed using eXpress.40,41 Differential gene expression analysis was performed in R using the EdgeR package42 which applies a general linear model by contrasting each particle size per coating type to the control conditions followed by a correction for multiple testing using the false discovery rate method.43 This yielded five sets of significant (false discovery rate FDR corrected p < 0.05) genes per coating type (20, 35 and 50 nm AgNPs, and low and high ionic Ag+) that were each subjected to gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis using the TopGO package in R44 (Fisher’s exact test with FDR corrected p < 0.1). In total, 6438 GO terms were associated to annotated genes, which were taken as a reference list in the enrichment analysis. Enriched GO terms that only contained one transcript were removed from the significant GO term list and omitted from further analysis. Assembly and raw data associated with this present study are publicly available in NCBI under bioproject number PRJNA566139. Multi-dimensional scaling plots of significantly enriched GO terms were generated using the REVIGO interface.45 REVIGO summarizes long GO lists by reducing functional redundancy in GO terms based on semantic similarity in ontology descriptions.46 The main GO terms in the summarized list are subsequently plotted as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NP size</th>
<th>Charge [mg kg⁻¹]</th>
<th>Negative BSA</th>
<th>Positive CHITOSAN PVP55</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 nm</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 nm</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 nm</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AgNO3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
colored circles in a two dimensional matrix, visualizing their relatedness using multidimensional scaling by eigenvalue decomposition again based on semantic similarity of the GO term description. Additional KEGG ortholog annotation was performed using the KEGG Automatic Annotation Server (http://www.genome.jp/tools/kaas/)47 and gene expression pathway analysis was performed using the Generally Applicable Gene-set Enrichment for pathway analysis R-package GAGE combined with Pathview using standard settings.48 GAGE identifies coordinated differential expression in gene sets among functionally related groups of genes belonging to a certain biological pathway pre-defined by KEGG. As input for the pathway analysis we used the gene expression fold change ratios as determined by differential expression in response to the different coated AgNPs. Pathways were considered significantly up- or down-regulated with a FDR-corrected p-value < 0.1. Coordinated up- or down-regulation of functionally related genes was visualised by plotting color coded up (red) and down (green) regulation on the pathway topology derived from KEGG.

Results

AgNP pre-exposure characterisation

The AgNPs used in this study have been fully characterised earlier, and detailed information on this can be found in ref. 24 and 33. Before coating the AgNPs with BSA, chitosan or PVP, the SPR peaks were centred at 405, 430 and 441 nm, while the hydrodynamic sizes for 20, 35 and 50 nm AgNPs were 36, 46 and 55 nm, respectively. Average particle sizes (nm) obtained by analysis of over 250 nanoparticles by TEM were 19.5 ± 5.4, 37.4 ± 3.7 and 51.1 ± 5.7 nm (AgNP_BSA); 18.2 ± 5.1, 37.2 ± 4.3 and 51.9 ± 6.4 nm (AgNP_Chit), and 24.0 ± 4.6, 38.2 ± 4.5 and 51.0 ± 6.1 nm (AgNP_PVP) for the 20, 35 and 50 nm size groups, respectively (average ± s.d.). The shapes of the SPR peaks in both MilliQ water and soil extract were generally preserved except for those of the 20 nm AgNP_PVP and 35 and 50 nm AgNP_Chit suspensions in soil extract, whose SPR peaks suggested formation of some agglomerates. Dispersion in soil extract showed preserved ζ-potentials for AgNP_BSA and AgNP_Chit. All sizes of AgNP_PVP, however, presented negative ζ-potentials, but the values were less negative than those for AgNP_BSA.24,31

Ag uptake in earthworms

The negatively charged AgNP_BSA showed the highest uptake, in particular the 35 nm AgNP_BSA particles (Table 2), although this was not significantly different between three NP size ranges for the individual coating type. When considering the chitosan coating, the highest uptake was also observed during exposure to medium sized (53.8 ± 50.5 35 nm) particles, but due to a very high standard error this uptake was not significantly different from the Ag uptake observed with 20 nm and 50 nm AgNP_Chit. The Ag uptake of 50 nm AgNP_PVP seemed the highest among all AgNP_PVP exposures, but this was again not significant. The uptake of Ag from AgNO₃ was in the same order of magnitude as that from the AgNPs when comparing nominal exposure concentrations on a mass basis (Tables 1 and 2), providing a suitable benchmark for AgNP uptake.

Gene expression (RNAseq)

The 54 RNAseq library samples were randomly distributed over three pooled libraries. On average, 98.3% of both forward and reverse reads passed the set quality threshold and remained available for further analysis. The library sizes per sample were 1.10 × 10⁶ reads on average with variation ranging from 0.85 × 10⁶ to 1.37 × 10⁶ reads. Reads were subsequently mapped to the reference transcriptome with an average mapping success rate of 69.4%. Natural variation among the earthworms caused the mapping rate to range from 50% to 80% randomly distributed among animal samples. Nevertheless, statistical analyses showed significantly regulated gene expression patterns.

Internal Ag concentration and differential gene expression

Table 2 gives a general overview of the total number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in adult L. rubellus upon 72 h exposure to the different AgNPs in natural soil at an exposure concentration around the EC₅₀ values for their effects on reproduction (detailed gene lists with gene annotations are given in ESI† files 1–3). The medium sized (35 nm) NPs elicited high numbers of DEGs for all types of coating. Exposure to the 20 and 50 nm sized AgNPs was associated with lower numbers of DEGs with averages of 25 and 11, respectively (Table 2). Surface coating did not influence transcriptional regulation by the smaller sized- and larger sized AgNP exposures. Ionic Ag⁺ had only a minor effect on gene expression at both concentrations.

Table 2 Uptake of Ag from AgNPs and ionic Ag⁺, and the number of significantly differentially regulated transcripts when compared to those from control animals (over 3 biological replicates) identified using RNAseq analysis in the earthworm Lymbricus rubellus exposed for 72 h to differently coated 20, 35 and 50 nm AgNPs in natural soil. AgNP_BSA (negative, bovine serum albumin-coated); AgNP_Chit (positive, chitosan-coated); AgNP_PVP (neutral, polyvinylpyrrolidone-coated)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AgNP (negative)</th>
<th># DEGs</th>
<th>AgNP (positive)</th>
<th># DEGs</th>
<th>AgNP (neutral)</th>
<th># DEGs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mg per kg tissue</td>
<td></td>
<td>mg per kg tissue</td>
<td></td>
<td>mg per kg tissue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small (20 nm)</td>
<td>37.8 ± 14.2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>47.5 ± 31.4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.4 ± 8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (35 nm)</td>
<td>74.9 ± 28.7</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>53.8 ± 50.5</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>26.6 ± 17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (50 nm)</td>
<td>26.0 ± 6.7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35.9 ± 27.5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50.7 ± 27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AgNO₃ Low (L)</td>
<td>3.1 ± 0.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2 ± 0.9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.7 ± 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AgNO₃ High (H)</td>
<td>38.3 ± 26.2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26.1 ± 9.7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22.2 ± 14.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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tested, with affected numbers of DEGs being similar to those of the 20 and 50 nm AgNPs (Table 2). All lists of DEGs associated with each of the different exposure types are provided in ESI† files 1–3 for AgNP_BSA, AgNP_Chit and AgNP_PVP, respectively.

As mentioned above, exposure to the medium-sized AgNPs caused the most pronounced responses at the transcriptional level, accounting for over 90% of the differentially regulated transcripts. Among the different coating types, AgNP_BSA induced the most extensive transcriptional responses: 684 genes (95%) were up- or down-regulated upon exposure to the 35 nm AgNP_BSA (Table 2). A significant correlation between the internal tissue Ag concentration and the number of DEGs was observed among all coated AgNPs (Pearson’s correlation \( r = 0.84, p = 0.007 \), Fig. 1). This correlation was the most pronounced among medium-sized AgNPs, where the AgNP_PVP coated particles showed the lowest number of affected transcripts and internal Ag, while that of internal Ag and affected transcripts by medium-sized AgNP_BSA exposure was the highest.

Fig. 2a presents the Venn diagram of all DEGs affected by exposure to 35 nm AgNPs for all three coating types. Metallothionein (MT) was the only DEG present in all treatments. Medium-sized AgNP_BSA and AgNP_Chit exposures showed the most overlap with 61 co-regulated genes. In contrast, medium-sized AgNP_PVP showed hardly any commonality in transcriptional regulation when compared to the other two medium-sized coated AgNPs.

Gene expression and particle size

Comparing gene expression responses elicited by AgNPs with different sizes for each coating type hardly revealed any overlap. More specifically, only 4 genes were differentially regulated among all sizes of AgNP_BSA, while among all AgNP_Chit NPs only 3 DEGs were identified. We found no overlap in differential expression among the different sizes of AgNP_PVP (ESI† file 3).

A total of 37 genes were shared among all DEGs responding to all medium-sized AgNP types (combined) and to ionic Ag treatments (Fig. 2b). The specific transcriptional profiles of these genes were analyzed in more detail and most of them (31 DEGs) showed highly similar responses, when comparing ionic Ag exposures to AgNP exposures: a subset of 27 were coordinately up-regulated, while 4 were coordinately down-regulated. However, 6 transcripts showed opposite regulation; they were up-regulated due to ionic Ag, but down-regulated in response to AgNP exposure. Among the annotated gene list of shared up-regulated genes we identified metallothionein, chitinase-3, caspase 7, ankyrin, midline-1 and cystathionine beta synthase. Unfortunately, no gene annotation was retrieved from a down-regulated transcript. Cubilin, a gene involved in endocytosis and earlier identified to be involved in AgNP toxicity, was identified among the dissimilarly regulated transcripts.

Gene ontology and gene set enrichment for pathways

The number of DEGs identified in the medium sized AgNP exposures allowed enrichment analysis by applying Fisher’s exact test on all gene ontology (GO) categories represented by each set of DEGs to identify enriched biological processes and molecular functions. This GO enrichment analysis yielded 37 significantly enriched GO terms for AgNP_BSA, 17 for AgNP_Chit and 25 in case of AgNP_PVP exposure (ESI† file 4). Several biological processes were affected, related to development (mesoderm formation), oxidative phosphorylation, and autophagy.

When comparing enriched GO terms among different coating types, we observed no commonly affected processes.
However, all three coating types seemed to affect developmental processes, but in different ways. While BSA coated AgNP exposure affected mesoderm formation (Fig. 3), respiratory tube development was associated with AgNP_Chit exposure, and AgNP_PVP exposure affected regeneration. The main processes observed among significant GO terms associated with AgNP_Chit are related to cysteine and serine metabolism, while extracellular matrix organization and response to fibrinolysis are associated with AgNP_PVP (ESI† file 4).

Another way to retrieve functional mechanistic information from differentially regulated gene clusters is to subject them to pathway analysis. Generally Applicable Gene-set Enrichment for pathway analysis (GAGE) provides information on gene clusters in pathways that are either significantly up- or down-regulated. A full list of all significantly coordinately regulated KEGG pathways is provided in ESI† file 5. Table 3 shows the pathways that were significantly identified in three or more AgNP exposures.

Strikingly, ribosomal translation is mostly identified and severely down-regulated in all AgNP treatments, except for AgNP_Chit exposure where this pathway was up-regulated. As an example, consider Fig. 4 showing all protein-coding genes (boxes) functionally related to the ribosome, where as much as 46 proteins participating in protein synthesis are down-regulated in response to medium-sized AgNP_BSA exposure. Furthermore, several signalling pathways were also highly affected by AgNPs. Among them, we identified MAPK signalling (Fig. 5), Ras signalling and focal adhesion-related signalling as the most frequently affected pathways. These were significantly up-regulated among all AgNP_BSA treatments, while all these pathways were down-regulated by small- and large-sized AgNP_Chit exposures. In the case of MAPK signalling, Fig. 5 shows that 32 protein-coding genes functionally related to MAPK signalling are up-regulated in response to medium-sized AgNP_BSA, while AgNP_Chit exposure caused 37 genes in the MAPK signalling pathway to be down-regulated (ESI† file 5).

AgNP_BSA exposures exerted the most pronounced pathway responses among the three coating types. Interestingly, in all AgNP_BSA exposures, five pathways were significantly up-regulated, while four pathways were significantly down-regulated, regardless of particle size (Table 4). Four of the six up-regulated pathways are associated with cell signalling, and can be linked to developmental processes identified in the GO enrichment analysis (mesoderm formation, Fig. 5). As mentioned earlier, the down-regulated pathways are linked to general metabolism, such as ribosome, peroxisome, and fatty acid metabolism (Table 4).

Medium- and large-sized AgNP_BSA particles shared as much as 10 pathways that were regulated in a similar direction. Autophagy and serine/threonine kinase mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) signalling are interesting to mention, since many studies show that metal nanoparticles induced autophagy
suggests that besides Ag ions, particle size and coating type influence the uptake of AgNPs, where medium-sized particles seemed to be optimal for uptake in a previous study. Particle size and coating type clearly influenced the uptake of Ag from the AgNPs, which was ionic, as has been shown before.21 Particle size and coating type had earlier been reported, 33 and therefore only briefly discussed here. The TEM images and UV-vis spectra from AgNP characterisation indicated that the primary particle sizes targeted by the synthesis were achieved. Also, the morphology of the particles was preserved after conjugation and lyophilisation processes for all coatings. The shapes of the SPR peaks in both MilliQ water and soil extract were generally preserved except for those of the 20 nm AgNP_PVP and 35 and 50 nm AgNP_Chit suspensions in soil extract, whose SPR peaks suggested formation of some agglomerates.

AgNP pre-exposure characterisation

Details of characterisation of the AgNPs used in this study had earlier been reported,33 and therefore only briefly discussed here. The TEM images and UV-vis spectra from AgNP characterisation indicated that the primary particle sizes targeted by the synthesis were achieved. Also, the morphology of the particles was preserved after conjugation and lyophilisation processes for all coatings. The shapes of the SPR peaks in both MilliQ water and soil extract were generally preserved except for those of the 20 nm AgNP_PVP and 35 and 50 nm AgNP_Chit suspensions in soil extract, whose SPR peaks suggested formation of some agglomerates.

The formation of agglomerates in the soil solution may explain the lower toxicity of these AgNPs, due to them becoming less bioavailable, as was similarly observed with C60 exposure.34 Nevertheless, agglomeration may not necessarily imply the absence of adverse effects as the toxic potential of the AgNPs may change following ageing and decay, leading to the release of Ag as NPs or dissolved Ag+ ions.20,55–57 Depending on the surface coating used in our study, negative (AgNP_BSA), positive (AgNP_Chit) and “neutral” (AgNP_PVP) charges were obtained. Dispersion in soil extract also showed preserved ζ-potentials for AgNP_BSA and AgNP_Chit. All sizes of AgNP_PVP, however, presented negative ζ-potentials, but the values were less negative than those for AgNP_BSA.33

Table 3 Significantly regulated pathways (p < 0.05) in L. rubellus affected by at least 3 Ag_NP exposure treatments. Column Up: the number of treatments the pathway was up-regulated; Down: the number of treatments the pathway was down-regulated. Treatment indicates which exposure exerted significant regulation of the particular pathway. BSA, AgNP_BSA exposure; Chit, AgNP_Chit exposure; PVP, AgNP_PVP exposure. The ko numbers represent the KEGG pathway codes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affected pathways</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ko03010 ribosome</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko04010 MAPK signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko04014 Ras signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko04510 focal adhesion</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko04810 regulation of actin</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko1120 microbial metabolism in diverse environments</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko1212 fatty acid metabolism</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4012 ErbB signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4015 Rap1 signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4062 chemokine signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4070 phosphatidylinositol signaling system</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4722 neurotrophin signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4010 ABC transporters</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4020 calcium signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4144 endocytosis</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4146 peroxisome</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4912 GnRH signaling pathway</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4961 endocrine-regulated calcium reabsorption</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko4970 salivary secretion</td>
<td></td>
<td>BSA/Chit/PVP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The formation of agglomerates in the soil solution may explain the lower toxicity of these AgNPs, due to them becoming less bioavailable, as was similarly observed with C60 exposure.34 Nevertheless, agglomeration may not necessarily imply the absence of adverse effects as the toxic potential of the AgNPs may change following ageing and decay, leading to the release of Ag as NPs or dissolved Ag+ ions.20,55–57 Depending on the surface coating used in our study, negative (AgNP_BSA), positive (AgNP_Chit) and “neutral” (AgNP_PVP) charges were obtained. Dispersion in soil extract also showed preserved ζ-potentials for AgNP_BSA and AgNP_Chit. All sizes of AgNP_PVP, however, presented negative ζ-potentials, but the values were less negative than those for AgNP_BSA.33

Ag uptake in earthworms

Total tissue concentrations showed that earthworms exposed to AgNPs or AgNO3 accumulated Ag to varying degrees with mean values ranging from 15–80 mg Ag per kg tissue DW (Table 2). The uptake of AgNPs showed that the negatively charged AgNP_BSA was taken up the most, indicating some influence of the surface coating on the Ag uptake. There were no statistically significant differences in the uptake when comparing the three NP size ranges for each coating type.

Discussion

In the current study, we provide more insight into molecular mechanistic responses underlying AgNP toxicity and the influence of particle size and coating type. Overall, we found a clear correlation with the number of regulated transcripts and Ag internal body concentrations, especially with regard to medium-sized AgNPs. This implies that total Ag elicits transcriptional alterations, but we are not able to distinguish between Ag ions and particulate Ag. This may indicate that the uptake of Ag from the AgNPs was ionic, as has been shown before.21 Particle size and coating type clearly influenced the uptake kinetics of AgNPs, where medium-sized particles seemed to be optimal for uptake in L. rubellus under tested conditions.31 Interestingly, the differentially regulated genes seem particle-specific when considering gene annotation information, both among differentially coated medium-sized particles and between AgNO3 and AgNP exposures in general (Fig. 3). This suggests that besides Ag ions, particle size and coating type affected transcriptional responses in very specific ways. Coating- and size-specific induction of tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α and reactive oxygen species was recently shown in a mouse macrophage cell line, suggesting activation of different molecular mechanisms24 depending on particle size and coating type. Nevertheless, when generating more generic gene ontology and pathway-related information, commonalities emerged among the different exposure types. In general, ribosome metabolism seemed to be down-regulated, while several cell signalling pathways were up-regulated. Notably, oppositely charged particles affected these pathways in opposite ways. Finally, metallothionein (MT) was the only gene differentially regulated among all treatments. MT is a cysteine-rich peptide known to strongly bind free metal ions for chelation and detoxification, suggesting that detoxification of ionic Ag is a common feature in AgNP toxicity, regardless of size and coating type. Indeed, many studies using diverse model organisms29,52,53 report on the activation of MT upon AgNP exposure, confirming the involvement of this gene in AgNP detoxification.

Through the mTOR signalling pathway50 (Lunova et al. 2019, and references therein).
This suggests that for the different coating types, NP sizes did not have a significant effect on the outcome of exposures in the concentration range tested. Dissolution of the AgNPs was affected by the surface coating; the fact that the negatively charged AgNP_BSA caused most genes to be differentially expressed could partly be explained by the higher internal concentrations especially for the 35 nm sized particles (Fig. 2). The effects of the BSA coating on AgNP dissolution rates seem complex. Liu et al. showed that BSA enhances dissolution over short term exposures, while it provides protection against dissolution over extended times.\textsuperscript{58} This suggests that BSA enhanced dissolution and most likely differential expression in our experiments, since we applied only a 72 hour exposure time. We speculate that the negative charge of AgNP_BSA even enhances this process in soil, since the soil matrix is negatively charged by itself, which keeps the AgNP_BSA particles in pore water solution. Why the medium-sized BSA coating exerts such pronounced effects remains unknown. Yet, AgNP_BSA previously showed the strongest effect on \textit{in vivo} reproduction\textsuperscript{33} as well as the highest \textit{in vitro} induction of TNF-\textalpha\ in mammalian macrophage cells.\textsuperscript{24} The uptake of Ag from AgNO\textsubscript{3} was in the same order of magnitude as that from the AgNPs when comparing nominal exposure concentrations on a mass basis (Table 2).

**AgNP-induced differential transcription regulation**

Comparing the DEGs responding to all medium-sized AgNP exposures to the DEGs responding to ionic Ag exposure, we
found 44% overlap. This confirms earlier observations of a transcriptome-wide study using *Eisenia fetida* exposed to AgNP_PVP\(^{59}\) that some of the transcriptional responses caused by the AgNPs can be attributed to the release of Ag\(^+\) ions from the core. This observation was further supported by the specific transcriptional profiles of the 37 genes responding to both nanoparticulate and ionic Ag. Besides MT, we identified the apoptosis-related cysteine peptidase caspase-7, which confirms previous evidence that AgNPs can induce apoptosis.\(^{59,60}\) Also, pathogenic infection was reported to induce apoptosis in macrophages by modulating signaling that leads to TNF-\(\alpha\) production,\(^{61}\) but this could not be mechanistically confirmed in this study. Up-regulation of cystathionine beta synthase indicates that AgNPs as well as

**Table 4** Pathways that are significantly regulated (\(p < 0.05\)) in *Lumbricus rubellus* by all AgNP_BSA exposures in identical directions. ko numbers represent KEGG pathway codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pathways regulated by all AgNP_BSA exposures</th>
<th>Up-regulated</th>
<th>Down-regulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ras signaling pathway</td>
<td>ko04014</td>
<td>ko03101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neurotrophin signaling pathway</td>
<td>ko047722</td>
<td>ko04146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ErbB signaling pathway</td>
<td>ko04012</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAPK signaling pathway</td>
<td>ko0410</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focal adhesion</td>
<td>ko04510</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation of the actin cytoskeleton</td>
<td>ko04810</td>
<td>ko01120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ribosome</td>
<td>ko03101</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peroxisome</td>
<td>ko04146</td>
<td>ko01120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatty acid metabolism</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
<td>ko01120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microbial metabolism</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
<td>ko01120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse environments</td>
<td>ko01212</td>
<td>ko01120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ionic Ag impact cysteine metabolism, a pathway that was elucidated to be significantly up-regulated in our GAGE analysis. We speculate that the demand for cysteine increases, due to increased biosynthesis of cysteine-rich MT to provide protection against free metal ions. It is also known that cysteine itself chelates with ionic Ag, which can even alleviate Ag toxicity in E. coli.62 This suggests that ionic Ag can cause cysteine depletion through chelation, which could physiologically be counteracted by inducing cysteine biosynthesis.

Although the uptake of Ag may be in the ionic form following dissolution of AgNPs, either forms of Ag can be transformed into particulate Ag with AgS2 and AgCl being the most common forms reported in the literature,20 resulting in biogenically altered particulate Ag in earthworms.21 Either or both particulate and ionic forms of Ag may determine the outcome of exposures, with transformation from particulate into ionic Ag or vice versa.63–66 It was shown that after 28 days of exposure, >98% of the tissue Ag concentration of earthworms exposed to the same AgNPs as in the current study was in the form of ionic Ag.33 This suggests that dissolution plays a significant role; however, it is not known how that affects the exposure after just 72 hours, which was the duration of the current study.

There was hardly any overlap when comparing the gene expression responses due to different sizes of AgNPs for each coating. This may likely be a result of the low numbers of DEGs responding to 20 and 50 nm sized AgNPs (Table 2). Internal accumulation of AgNP_BSA and AgNP_Chit in L. rubellus showed no significant difference associated with AgNP particle sizes.33 In the case of AgNP_PVP accumulation, higher internal concentrations were observed for the smallest 20 nm particle size.33 So, transcriptional regulation does not seem to be directly associated with Ag uptake, although most DEGs were associated with medium-sized AgNPs with relatively high accumulation. Also, no commonalities could be identified when comparing enriched biological processes and molecular functions, even among the medium sized particles (ESI† file 4). A similar result was found for the amphipod Gammarus fossarum exposed to AgNP_PVP or AgNP_Citrate. AgNP_PVP affected osmoregulation and cytoskeleton-related processes, while AgNP_Citrate seemed to affect DNA damage and repair through NF kappαB signaling.68 Taken together, we can conclude that the molecular response to different NP surface coatings is highly context-dependent, which makes nanoparticle hazard assessment even more complex than we thought before.

When analyzing DEGs in the context of affected pathways, a more holistic picture starts to emerge. Notably, several important cell signaling pathways seemed severely affected. Nanoparticles, including AgNPs, are known to bind to cell surfaces, potentially impacting cytoskeletal organization and cell communication through signaling pathways.69,70 As such, they influence cell morphology, mobility and communication,70 which is also underpinned by the altered regulation of the actin cytoskeleton, focal adhesion pathway and Ras signaling pathway in this study. Moreover, research investigating the effects of AgNP exposure on cell lines provides evidence for MAPK signaling to be involved in actin filament dynamics and histone modification resulting in programmed cell death.71–73 The components of focal adhesion, Ras signaling and MAPK signaling were all identified in association with AgNP toxicity in L. rubellus in this study and may provide a more generalized picture of the AgNP’s mechanism of toxic action. Interestingly, focal adhesion, Ras signaling and MAPK signaling pathways were regulated in opposite ways when compared between AgNP_BSA (up-regulated signaling pathways) and AgNP_Chit (down-regulated signaling pathways). Since AgNP_BSA is negatively charged and AgNP_Chit is positively charged, we speculate that particle charge or released BSA and chitosan themselves may influence these signaling pathways in opposite directions. Further research is necessary to establish a causal link between particle charge, BSA or chitosan and modulation of cell signaling pathways.

Autophagy through mTOR signaling was very strongly up-regulated upon exposures to medium- and large-sized AgNP_BSA. Autophagy is a cellular degradation process, by which cytoplasmic material is transported to lysosomes for degradation. mTOR is a well-known key regulator of cell metabolic homeostasis, controlling proliferation, and programmed cell death, but is also a well-established negative regulator of autophagy.74 Several studies already showed that NPs are internalized and subsequently trafficked into lysosomes.75 The efficiency of this process is dependent on the corona of endogenous proteins that bind to the NP surface76 and on the size of the NPs. In turn, differently coated NPs will attract different proteins on their surface, which affect the intracellular NP trafficking into lysosomes. Our current RNAseq data suggest that L. rubellus activated lysosomal trafficking upon AgNP_BSA exposure (supported by KEGG pathway analysis as well as GO enrichment analysis, see Fig. 5), while this was not the case for AgNP_Chit and AgNP_PVP exposures. Since BSA is suggested to enhance AgNP dissolution during short term exposure times,39 this may result in higher uptake and higher amounts of biogenically produced particles in the tissues. This, in turn, could trigger the trafficking into the lysosomes. In any case, our results confirm the importance of coating type affecting differential internal biological processes.

AgNP toxicity had a strong negative effect on ribosome metabolism, except in the case of small- and large-sized AgNP_Chit exposures. Again, this confirms previous observations by Novo et al.,49 showing strong regulation of ribosome-associated genes upon AgNP exposure in Eisenia fetida. Ribosomes are responsible for translation of mRNAs into proteins, and this process is inhibited upon AgNP exposure (Fig. 5). Eukaryotic cells respond to stress in general by phosphorylation of translation initiation factor 2, which will turn from a substrate of translation into an inhibitor of translation. This is a highly conserved mechanism in animals, also called integrated stress response, and shuts down bulk protein synthesis to redirect energy resources for
stress adaptation and survival pathways. Our previous study showed that the applied concentrations of AgNPs in this study indeed cause sublethal toxicity impacting reproductive output, which at the molecular level may be explained by the general shut down of bulk protein synthesis.

Conclusion

Our study showed different levels of silver accumulation in tissues of earthworms during a 72 h AgNP exposure in soil, indicating early uptake of different AgNPs depending on particle size and coating type. Ag from AgNP_BSA accumulated more, and alterations in the gene expression profiles of earthworms reflected this, as the highest numbers of DEGs were encountered with exposures to these negatively charged AgNPs with the highest accumulation patterns. Surface coating (charge) therefore influenced the uptake and effects of the AgNPs in the earthworms. The 35 nm medium-sized AgNPs accumulated Ag to the highest extent and induced more DEGs than the 20 or 50 nm sized particles for all tested AgNPs, suggesting the likely role of size in accumulation and induction of effects. The majority of genes shared by both particulate and ionic Ag+ treated earthworms were regulated in the same direction, and only one single gene (MT) was commonly expressed by earthworms from all treatment groups. Therefore, the role of Ag+ ions in inducing gene expression effects following AgNP exposure was also indicated. Gene ontology enrichment as well as gene set enrichment for pathway analysis turned out to be highly indicated. Gene ontology enrichment and gene set studies, suggesting that high cellular energy demanding protein synthesis is shut down under stressful conditions,77,78 We also confirm previous conclusions drawn from an RNAseq study on AgNP exposure in Eisenia fetida suggesting that different uptake mechanisms and toxicokinetics exist for Ag+ and AgNPs, where AgNPs interact specifically with cell surface components involved in endocytosis and cell signalling.

Availability of data

Datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available in the ESI† L. rubellus transcriptome assembly including raw Illumina read data as well as Illumina RNA sequencing data is stored in NCBI’s SRA and downloadable under Bioproject no. PRJNA566139. The assembly, including previous raw transcript data upon which it was built, is also available under Bioproject number PRJNA596978.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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