

Exploring mode of action for acute toxicity of primary aromatic amines with *Daphnia magna* using differential gene expression analysis

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Abstract

The diverse structures and modes of action (MOAs) of organic pollutants present a challenge in forecasting their environmental toxicity. Aromatic amines, widely used in industrial applications, are of particular interest due to their broad structural variation. Although they have been classified as polar narcotics, due to their narcotic MOA in fish, certain substitution patterns of the aromatically bound amino group exert excess toxicity towards species such as *Daphnia magna*. The underlying mechanisms behind this phenomenon remain unclear. Therefore, we investigated how substitution patterns affect the MOA in this aquatic invertebrate. We used transcriptomics to study how three primary aromatic amines (PAAs), namely 4,4'-methylenedianiline (4,4'-MDA), 2,2'-methylenedianiline (2,2'-MDA) and 2,4-toluenediamine (2,4-TDA), affect *D. magna*. Our experimental design also included two reference compounds, 1-octanol (a non-polar narcotic) and aniline (a polar narcotic in fish, but excess toxicant in *D. magna*). Our analysis suggests very distinct biological MOAs for the three PAAs. While the *para*-substituted 4,4'-MDA treatment showed similar effects as the excess toxicant aniline, its *ortho*-substituted isomer 2,2'-MDA showed similar effects as the narcotic 1-octanol. Our results indicate a specific influence of substituent positioning in PAAs on their toxicity and MOA towards *D. magna*. This study illustrates the use of transcriptomics and its associated

functional analysis to guide industrial chemical development towards more environmentally safe alternatives.

Keywords: Primary aromatic amines, Ecotoxicity, Transcriptomics, Mode of action, *Daphnia magna*

1. Introduction

Organic pollutants, with their diverse structures and modes of action (MOAs), pose a significant challenge in understanding and predicting their environmental toxicity. Assuming that structurally similar pollutants induce toxicity through analogous MOAs, pollutants are categorized into four MOA classes: non-polar narcotics (inert chemicals), polar narcotics (less inert chemicals), reactive chemicals, and specifically acting chemicals [18, 13]. Non-polar narcotics act via a non-specific MOA and are considered baseline toxicants [18, 13]. Narcotic toxicity is assumed to be induced by perturbation of the structure and functioning of biological membranes [2]. Therefore, their toxicity is linked to hydrophobicity (log Kow) and predictable through quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) models [18, 13]. Examples include chlorobenzenes, alcohols, ethers and chlorinated alkanes [18, 13]. Polar narcotics are slightly more toxic, with effect concentrations 5-10 times lower than predicted from baseline toxicity QSARs, probably due to their hydrogen bond capacities [18]. This class includes (substituted) phenols and (substituted) anilines [18]. Reactive and specifically acting chemicals exert excess toxicity with effect concentrations at least 10 times lower than predicted by baseline toxicity QSAR. Reactive chemicals have electrophilic properties and react in a specific way with nucleophile groups in macromolecules, while specifically acting chemicals target a specific cellular receptor [18].

The MOA of a chemical is associated with its interspecies variation in toxicity, where higher toxicity correlates with greater interspecies differences [17]. While structurally analogous narcotics typically exhibit limited interspecies variations, chemicals with a specific or reactive MOA display elevated interspecies variation, primarily attributed to the specific MOA in exceptionally sensitive species [17]. Such chemicals are of particular interest for further study in terms of MOA to improve our understanding of the observed elevated interspecies variation. In that respect, aromatic amines exhibit distinctive toxicity characteristics. Primary aromatic

amines (PAAs), extensively utilized as raw materials and intermediates in the production of dyes, rubber, and pharmaceuticals, are prevalent environmental contaminants, dispersing into the atmosphere, water, and soil [4]. Despite being classified as polar narcotics and in contrast to other organic pollutants, aromatic amines exhibit notable interspecies variation in their toxicity, due to the extreme sensitivity of daphnids towards them. Anilines act as polar narcotics in fish during acute exposure, yet certain substitution patterns of the amino group show excess toxicity towards *Daphnia magna* and other water fleas [5, 17, 16, 10]. The underlying mechanisms behind this phenomenon remain unclear. Possibly, certain metabolism reactions are involved, such as ring hydroxylation, N-hydroxylation or N-acetylation. Metabolic pathways, including the site of aryl hydroxylation, exhibit substantial variations among different species and daphnids might possess a unique capability to oxidize aniline metabolites into toxic reaction products compared to other species [12, 16]. Remarkably, the substitution pattern on aromatic amines affects their toxicity. Ramos et al. (2002) [12] investigated the sensitivity of *D. magna* to anilines that were substituted and/or non-substituted in the ortho-, meta- and para-positions at life history level [12]. No significant differences were found between meta- and para-substituted and non-substituted aromatic amines. All the log acute excess toxicity (log Te) values were close to the general average of 1.73 ± 0.78 . However, the excess toxicity of ortho-substituted anilines was significantly lower than the non-substituted ones [12]. As ortho-substituted anilines are less toxic than their non-substituted counterparts, it is suggested that the process involved in the toxicity of aromatic amines to daphnids is sterically hindered by these substitutions [12]. Moreover, the effect of ortho-, meta- and para-substituents, on the carcinogenic potency of aromatic amines in rats and mice has been investigated [1]. It was found that in mice, substitutions in the ortho and meta positions to the amino group tend to decrease the carcinogenic potency [1].

Their wide usage makes PAAs a significant source of environmental pollutants [4], raising concerns about their environmental and health impacts. As highlighted above, their substituent positioning profoundly influences their mode of action. Therefore, it is critical to understand the relationship between their chemical structure and biological effects. Such knowledge is essential to inform the development of “safe-by-design” products that minimize ecological harm while retaining functional utility. Therefore, this study focuses on evaluating how underlying biological mechanisms of three

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10 widely used PAAs containing different substitution patterns, i.e. 2,2'-
11 methylenedianiline (2,2'-MDA), 4,4'-methylenedianiline (4,4'-MDA) and 2,4-
12 diaminotoluene (2,4-TDA), affect *D. magna*. First, 4,4'-MDA is a large-
13 scale production commodity chemical predominantly utilized as a precursor
14 for the synthesis of 4,4'-methylene diphenyl diisocyanate (MDI). It also
15 finds applications in the production of epoxy resins and adhesives. It
16 is manufactured as technical-grade MDA, which comprises approximately
17 60% w/w of 4,4'-MDA, along with smaller quantities of its isomers, 2,4'-
18 MDA and 2,2'-MDA, and other polynuclear amines [15]. The toxicity
19 mechanism of 4,4'-MDA remains not fully understood, but information on
20 structurally similar compounds suggests the involvement of a metabolic
21 intermediate, N-hydroxymethylenedianiline [8]. The related aromatic amine
22 toluene diamine (TDA) serves as an intermediate in the production of toluene
23 diisocyanate (TDI) [15]. Moreover, in the recycling of polyurethane (PU),
24 typical degradation products resulting from depolymerization include 4,4'-
25 MDA and 2,4-TDA, which can be reused as building blocks for the production
26 of virgin PU [3]. Acute exposure experiments were conducted using the
27 model organism *Daphnia magna*, a widely recognized indicator species for
28 freshwater ecosystems. The experiments included acute toxicity testing
29 and gene expression profiling, a robust approach for identifying molecular
30 pathways and mechanisms impacted by toxicants [2].

31 This research aims to provide critical insights into the MOA and
32 associated ecological risks of PAA's to support informed decision-making
33 regarding the use of specific isomers, paving the way for safer industrial
34 practices and the design of environmentally sustainable products. Moreover,
35 the study highlights the broader significance of integrating molecular biology
36 tools into ecotoxicological assessments to enhance our understanding of
37 pollutant impacts at the organismal and ecosystem levels.

38 2. Materials and methods

39 2.1. Chemicals

40 Tests were performed with three PAAs (Figure 1), namely 4,4'-MDA
41 (CAS 101-77-9), 2,2'-MDA (CAS 6582-52-1), and 2,4-TDA (CAS 95-80-7),
42 alongside two reference compounds, namely aniline (CAS 62-53-3) and 1-
43 octanol (CAS 111-87-5). The compounds 4,4'-MDA (product number 31640),
44 2,4-TDA (product number 442311), aniline (product number 242284), and
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105 1-octanol (product number 293245) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The
106 compound 2,2'-MDA was kindly supplied by Covestro.

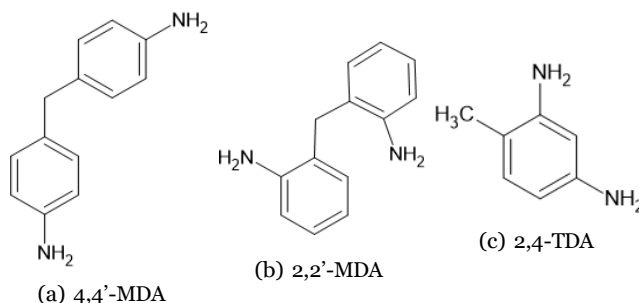


Figure 1: Chemical structures of the three primary aromatic amines investigated in this research, drawn using ChemSketch.

107 2.2. *D. magna* culture and maintenance

108 The *Daphnia magna* Straus K6 clone used in this study was sampled
109 in a pond in Kallo (Antwerp, Belgium) in 1983 and has been cultivated in
110 house ever since. It has been parthenogenetically cultured in a modified
111 COMBO [6] medium, adapted to represent more environmentally relevant
112 conditions (55 mg L⁻¹CaCl₂·2H₂O, 55.5 mg L⁻¹ MgSO₄·7H₂O, 1 mg L⁻¹
113 H₃BO₃), and without the addition of nitrogen and phosphorus. Culture
114 media were aerated and allowed to equilibrate for at least 24 h before use.
115 Animals were transferred to clean medium twice a week. Animals were kept
116 in a climate-controlled room at 20 °C and a 16:8-h light:dark cycle at a density
117 of 50 daphnids L⁻¹. Daphnids from this stock were daily fed an algae mix
118 composed of *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* (Korshikov) F.Hindák, 1990 and
119 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* P.A.Dangeard, 1888 at a 3 to 1 cell number ratio.
120 This algae mix was given at concentration of 3.75 * 10⁶ cells daphnid⁻¹ day⁻¹
121 from day 0 to day 8 and 7.5 * 10⁶ cells daphnid⁻¹ day⁻¹ from day 9 to day
122 21 of their life.

123 2.3. Determination of effect concentrations

124 2.3.1. ECOlogical Structure-Activity Relationships (ECOSAR) modeling

125 Quantitative structure-activity relationships (QSARs) were employed
126 to predict the aquatic toxicity of the chemicals using the ECOlogical
127 Structure-Activity Relationship (ECOSAR) Model Class Program (v2.2),
128 accessible from the Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) website

(<https://www.epa.gov/tsca-screening-tools/ecological-structure-activity-relationships-ecosar-predictive-mode>). The program determines the relevant ECOSAR class(es) and calculates ecotoxicity using a log Kow value. We reported the predicted EC50 values at 48 h for daphnids. Moreover, an excess toxicity factor (Te) was computed for each chemical as the ratio of the EC50 in the "Neutral Organics" class predicted by ECOSAR and the EC50 values in the other classes.

2.3.2. Experimental assays

Prior to the gene expression experiment, a series of acute immobilisation tests were performed with the PAAs and reference compounds. A standard 48-h *Daphnia magna* immobilisation test was conducted according to OECD guideline No. 202 [9] in constant incubation conditions (Temperature of 20°C ± 1°C; 16-h light and 8-h dark cycle). At the start of the test, daphnids were less than 24 h old and, to reduce variability, the animals were third brood offspring. The test was conducted in COMBO medium, with the same composition as the culture medium, in glass vessels of 25 mL. The daphnids were not fed during the test. Temperature, pH and dissolved oxygen of the medium were measured at the beginning and the end of the test. A control (i.e. blank, 3 replicates) and five test concentrations in triplicate for each compound were tested with 10 juveniles added in each glass vessel. The stock solution of two compounds, i.e. 2,2'-MDA and 4,4'-MDA, was made in ethanol, from which a serial dilution series in COMBO medium was made before exposure. As the highest concentration of ethanol exposed during the test was 0.2% and 0.008% for 2,2'-MDA and 4,4'-MDA, respectively, it was considered as negligibly low. However, an additional ethanol control was still added to account for potential solvent effects. For all compounds, tested concentrations and full experimental design can be found in Table S1. Immobility of the daphnids was registered at 24 and 48 h. At the end of the test, the observed mortality data provided insight into the toxic concentrations and whether *D. magna* showed comparable sensitivity to the toxicity data obtained with ECOSAR, aiding in the design of the subsequent gene expression experiment.

2.4. Experimental design for gene expression analysis

In the gene expression experiment, each time 50 third brood juveniles, less than 24 h old, were exposed to 4,4'-MDA (at two different concentrations), 2,2'-MDA, 2,4-TDA, the reference compounds 1-octanol and aniline and

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10 a negative control. The stock solutions of 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA were
11 prepared in ethanol, resulting in ethanol concentrations in the final exposure
12 solutions of less than 0.1%. Given these low ethanol concentrations, we
13 anticipated minimal impact on gene expression. However, to confirm this
14 assumption, we included an additional solvent control containing 0.1%
15 ethanol.
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17 For each treatment, nine glass Weck jars, filled with 250 mL of COMBO
18 medium, were set up, containing 50 individuals each. This resulted in a total
19 of 72 experimental units. The same incubation conditions as described in the
20 range-finding test were used for this experiment, except that here the animals
21 were fed daily with 2×10^5 cells of *P. subcapitata* per mL of medium. Animals
22 were specifically fed during exposure to avoid gene expression signatures of
23 starvation stress as confounding factors in the design. After 24, 48 and 96
24 h of exposure, each time three Weck jars were taken out of the experiment
25 to use for RNA extraction. Surviving animals in each jar were counted and
26 pooled (per jar) for RNA extraction.
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28 Exposure concentrations of the test chemicals were analytically verified by
29 EHS Analytics (Table S2). The analytical procedure for the aromatic amines
30 involved extraction, derivatization with pentafluoropropionic anhydride, and
31 subsequent analysis using Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry-Mass
32 Spectrometry (LC-MS-MS) according to Analytica Chimica Acta 510 (2004)
33 109-119, with modification for aqueous matrix without prior hydrolysis. The
34 limit of quantification (LOQ) was 0.05 µg/mL for MDA and TDA, and 0.02
35 µg/mL for aniline. The analysis of 1-octanol was subcontracted to RPS
36 analyse B.V. (Breda, The Netherlands). In brief, 1-octanol was analyzed
37 using Gas-Chromatography coupled with Mass spectrometry with an LOQ
38 of 5 µg/L. As the analytically measured concentrations were significantly
39 lower than our nominal concentrations, the reported concentrations in this
40 paper are based on the analytical measurements. Concentrations were
41 measured at the start of the experiment and after 48 h of exposure. For all
42 compounds, except 1-octanol, the measured concentrations after 48 h were
43 maintained within ± 20 percent of the initial concentration. As 1-octanol
44 decays over the 48 h time period, we decided to calculate and report all
45 measured concentrations in terms of the time-weighted mean over these 48
46 h, as specified in OECD guideline 211, ANNEX 6. Thereby, a time-weighted
47 mean in our case is calculated as:
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Table 1: The measured concentrations of the primary aromatic amines and 1-octanol exposed to the daphnids during the gene expression experiment. The concentrations are based on analytical measurements at the start and after 48 h of our gene expression experiment and calculated as a time-weighted mean.

Compound	Concentration (mg/L)
4,4'-MDA	0.27
4,4'-MDA	0.14
2,2'-MDA	7.96
2,4-TDA	1.20
aniline	0.11
1-octanol	0.08

$$concentration = \frac{conc0 - conc1}{\ln(conc0) - \ln(conc1)}$$

The calculated concentrations of the PAA's and 1-octanol exposed to the daphnids during the gene expression experiment are summarized in Table 1.

2.5. RNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from the (pooled) surviving daphnids from each Weck jar using the Qiagen RNeasy kit and Qias shredder according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, Antwerp, Belgium). The RNA quantity and quality was assessed using the NanoDropTM spectrophotometer (Version 2000c, Thermo ScientificTM, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with quality criteria of 260/280 ratio between 1.8 and 2.0, and 260/230 ratio between 2.0 and 2.2. Of 65 samples with sufficient quality, 10 µL of RNA from each sample was delivered to the NXTGNT lab (Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium) for library preparation and next-generation sequencing. For library preparation, 250 ng of RNA was utilized, and the QuantSeq 3' mRNA-Seq Library Prep Kits (Lexogen, Vienna, Austria) were employed following the manufacturer's protocol, with 14 PCR cycles during library preparation. Library quantification was performed by qPCR, following Illumina's 'Sequencing Library qPCR Quantification protocol guide' from February 2011. The resulting libraries' size distribution, purity (absence of free adaptors), and quality were assessed using a High Sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara,

CA, USA). Finally, sequencing was carried out on a high-throughput Illumina NextSeq500 flow cell, generating 75 bp single reads. All sequencing data was deposited in NCBI database, available under accession number PRJNA1032585. Treatment with 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA caused significant mortality of *D. magna* at 96 h, resulting in fewer replicas for RNA extraction and sequencing. Therefore, these treatments were not considered at 96 h, as they might be too biased given the limited number of surviving individuals (Table S3).

2.6. Bioinformatics and data analysis

Figure S1 schematically presents the overall mRNA-Seq data analysis workflow.

2.6.1. Trimming and mapping of the RNA sequencing reads

Reads were adapter and quality trimmed with Trimmomatic (version 0.38-Java-1.8). To verify the removal of adapter-derived and low-quality sequences, the fastq files were inspected with FastQC (version 0.11.9-Java-11) both before and after trimming. The resulting reports were summarized using multiQC (version 1.14-foss-2022a). Reads were aligned to the *D. magna* reference transcriptome [11] using Salmon (version 1.4.0-gompi-2020b with parameters -l U -validateMappings -useVBOpt -numBootstraps 100 -seqBias -gcBias) to produce estimated counts per transcript. The reference transcriptome was indexed with a k-mer size of 25.

2.6.2. Transcript-level analysis

A transcript-level analysis between groups of samples was done in R (version 4.3.1) with edgeR (version 3.42.4). To obtain the transcript-level counts, the Salmon output was read directly into edgeR with the catchSalmon function, using the bootstrap replicates to calculate and apply an overdispersion correction for each count.

Transcripts with very low counts across all libraries were filtered out using the edgeR function filterByExpr with its default arguments. Briefly, this function retains transcripts if their counts per million (CPM) meet or exceed a calculated threshold in at least a minimum number of samples. Thereby, the CPM cutoff is defined as $\frac{10}{\text{median of the library size}} * 10^6$, and the minimum sample count corresponds to the smallest group size, which was three in this study. Additionally, each transcript requires a minimum total count of 15 reads across all samples.

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256 The data was then split into three subsets of data, one for each time
257 point. For each subset of data, the design matrix was constructed with
258 the negative control as the reference group at that time point. The read
259 counts were normalized using the trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) method.
260 Exploratory unsupervised clustering analysis of gene expression based on
261 logFC was done by construction of multidimensional scaling (MDS) plots
262 at every time point. Differential transcript expression (DTE) analysis was
263 performed using the edgeR quasi-likelihood pipeline. Significant differentially
264 expressed (DE) transcripts were called at an adjusted p-value below 0.05 and
265 without a log2 fold change cutoff.

266 2.6.3. Analysis of transcript lists

267 The annotation information on each gene was obtained from the published
268 *Daphnia magna* transcriptome [11].

269 Heatmaps were constructed with the heatmap.2 function from the R
270 package gplots (version 3.1.3). Venn diagrams were constructed with the
271 venn.diagram function from the R package VennDiagram (version 1.6.0).

272 Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was done with the mroast function
273 from the limma R/Bioconductor package (version 3.34.2). Enrichment was
274 considered significant when false discovery rates were below 0.05.

275 3. Results

276 3.1. Ecotoxicity of the tested primary aromatic amines

277 The ECOSAR modeling results are summarized in Table 2. Several
278 chemicals exhibited structural features aligning with multiple ECOSAR
279 classes. The excess toxicity factor (Te) (Table 2) surpassed 10 for 4,4'-MDA,
280 2,4-TDA, and aniline, suggesting an excess toxicity [18]. Conversely, for
281 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol, the Te was below 10, indicative of a narcotic MOA
282 [18]. These results are in line with our immobilization experiment in Figure
283 2, where immobility of the daphnids was observed after 24 and 48 h (Figure
284 2). Aniline and 4,4'-MDA were the most toxic, followed by 2,4-TDA, with
285 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol being least toxic.

Table 2: Toxicity values for the chemicals tested in this study obtained through ECOSAR modeling. Moreover, the table includes the log Kow (given by ECOSAR) and the calculated excess toxicity factors (Te) (EC50 in the "Neutral organics" class predicted by ECOSAR divided by the EC50 in the other classes) for each chemical. NA, not available

Chemical	log Kow estimated	log Kow measured	EC50 ECOSAR				Te
			Neutral organics	Anilines (Hindered)	Anilines (Unhindered)	Anilines (Amino meta)	
4,4'-MDA	2.18	1.59	64.6		1.85		34.92
2,2'-MDA	2.18	NA	64.6		19.6		3.30
2,4-TDA	0.16	0.14	2180	215	3.77	3.45	10.14 / 578.25 / 632
Aniline	1.08	0.9	270		1.67		161.68
1-Octanol	2.81	3	12.4				

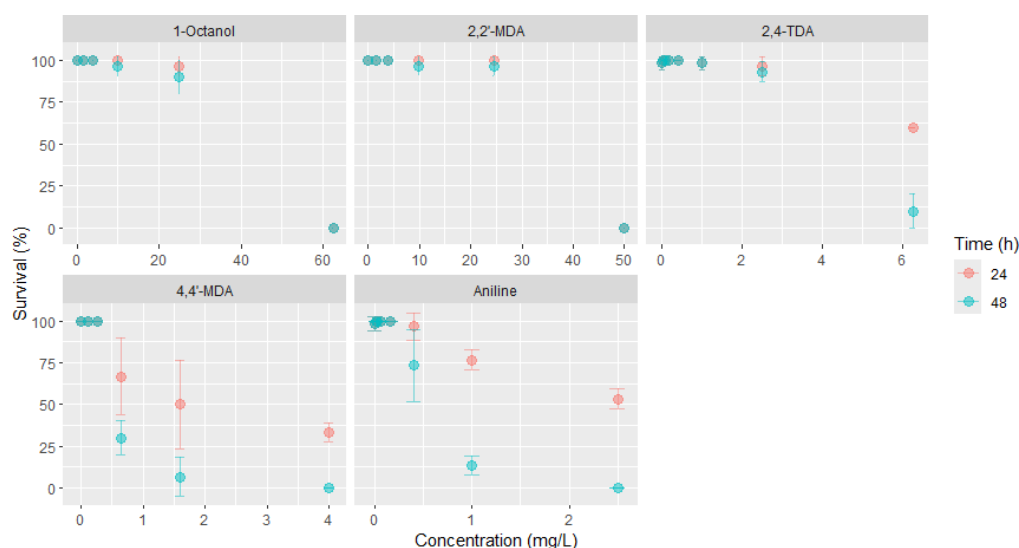


Figure 2: Survival of *Daphnia magna* after 24 and 48 h of exposure to the primary aromatic amines and reference compounds. Error bars represent standard deviation.

3.2. Differential gene expression

To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying toxicity through RNA sequencing, *D. magna* were exposed to the PAAs and reference compounds at concentrations summarized in Table 1, as well as a solvent control (0.1% ethanol) and a negative control containing medium only. The initial objective was to expose the daphnids to concentrations approximating the EC10 for all PAAs and both the EC10 and EC50 for 4,4'-MDA. However, the analytically

determined concentrations deviated substantially from the nominal values, likely due to factors such as insolubility. Consequently, only the measured concentrations, representing the actual exposure levels, are reported in Table 1. Additionally, the life-history traits of the samples were monitored (Table S3, Figure 3). Survival remained above 75% across all treatments after 48 hours, except at the highest test concentration of 4,4'-MDA, as anticipated.

RNA was extracted after 24, 48 and 96 h of incubation. After 96 hours, 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA resulted in mortality rates that were too high to be used for further RNA sequencing, and were therefore excluded from consideration. On average, $7.6 \times 10^6 \pm 1.5 \times 10^6$ reads were generated per sample with an average read length of 75 base pairs.

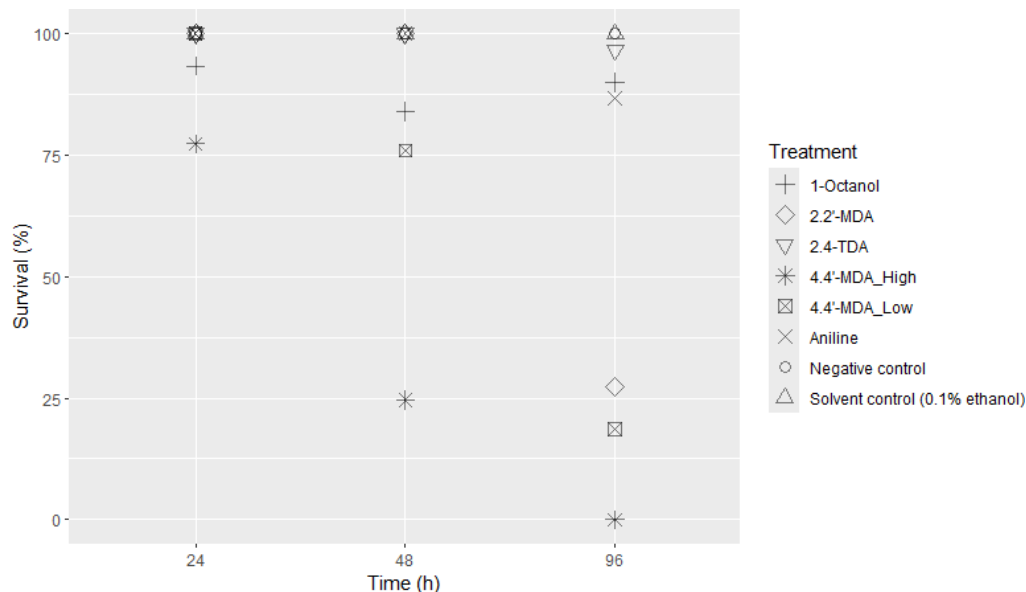


Figure 3: Survival of *Daphnia magna* during the gene expression experiments.

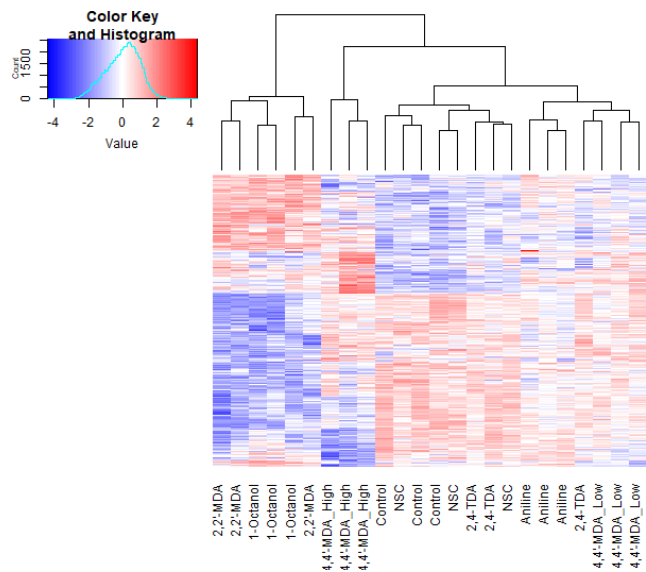
After trimming and mapping, a filter to remove low counts resulted in removal and conservation of 14422 and 14702 transcripts, respectively. As there were no DE transcripts between the solvent negative control and the negative control at any time point, we concluded that the low solvent concentrations did not affect the gene expression.

All RNA samples were clustered in two dimensions using multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) plots (Figure S2) for each time point. At 48 h, 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol treatment samples each formed a distinct cluster,

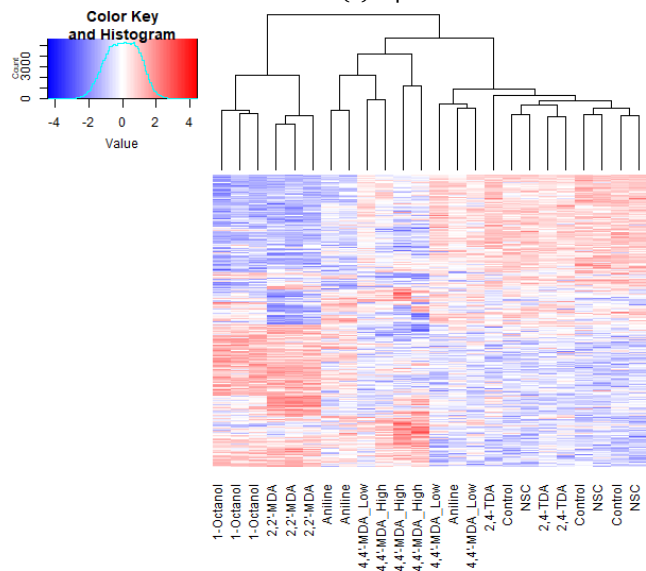
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32 separated from the other treatments. At 96 h, aniline and 1-octanol samples
33 formed distinct clusters, while the negative control, solvent control and 2,4-
34 TDA samples clustered together.

35 At time point 24, 48 and 96 h, a total of 2633, 6997 and 5183 transcripts,
36 respectively, out of the 14702 transcripts, were identified as DE in at least
37 one of the chemical treatments. These DE transcripts were sorted by their
38 p values and used to construct heatmaps (Figure 4). Treatments 2,2'-MDA
39 and 1-octanol clustered together at 24 and 48 h, as did 2,4-TDA and the
40 negative solvent control at each time point. Moreover, 4,4'-MDA, at both
41 concentrations, and aniline clustered together at time point 48 h.
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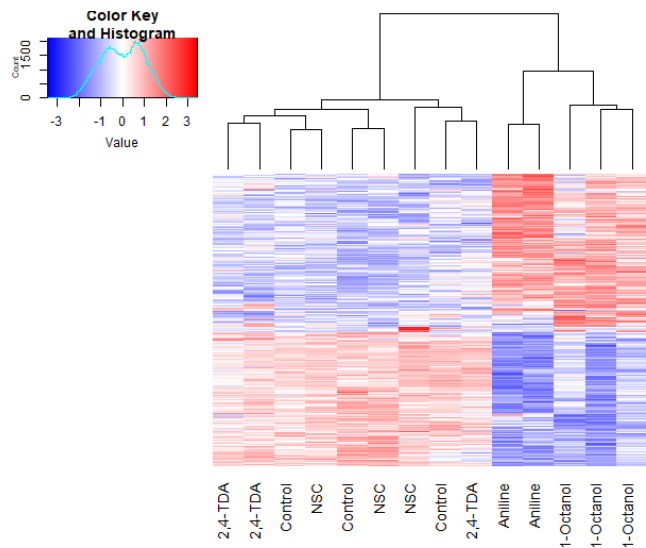


(a) 24 hours



(b) 48 hours

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(c) 96 hours

Figure 4: Heatmaps illustrating the differentially expressed genes across all treatments for the three tested time points, i.e. 24 (a), 48 (b) and 96 (c) h of exposure. Each row represents the relative expression (Z-score) of that transcript for each sample. Sample names are denoted by the chemical treatment, followed by a replicate number. MDA, methylenedianiline; TDA, diaminotoluene; NSC, negative solvent control

3.2.1. Pairwise differences: exposure groups vs their control

As 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA treatments contained ethanol as solvent, they were compared to the negative solvent control, while the other treatments were compared to the negative control containing medium only. Figure 5 presents an overview of the DE transcripts observed for each treatment in comparison to their control across all time points. With the exception of 2,4-TDA, all treatments induce DE transcripts relative to their control at each time point. 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol emerge as the most potent inducers of DE transcripts.

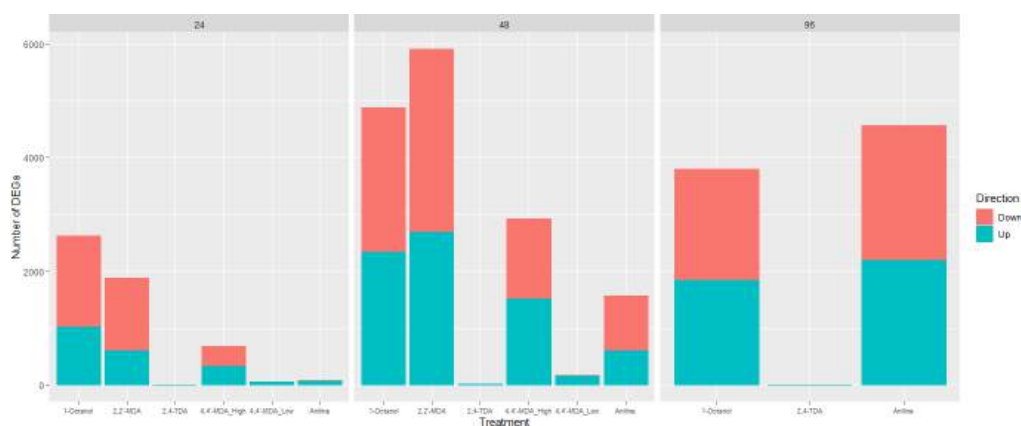


Figure 5: Number of differentially expressed transcripts induced by each treatment compared to their respective negative control at each time point (24, 48, and 96 hours).

Figure 6 displays Venn diagrams of the DE transcripts of each treatment compared to their control at every time point. At 24 h (Figure 6a), 4,4'-MDA at its low concentration and aniline share almost all their DE transcripts with at least one of the other treatments and their intersection is 0. At 48h (Figure 6b), there is only one treatment-specific DE transcripts for 4,4'-MDA at EC10 and the intersection with aniline is 0.

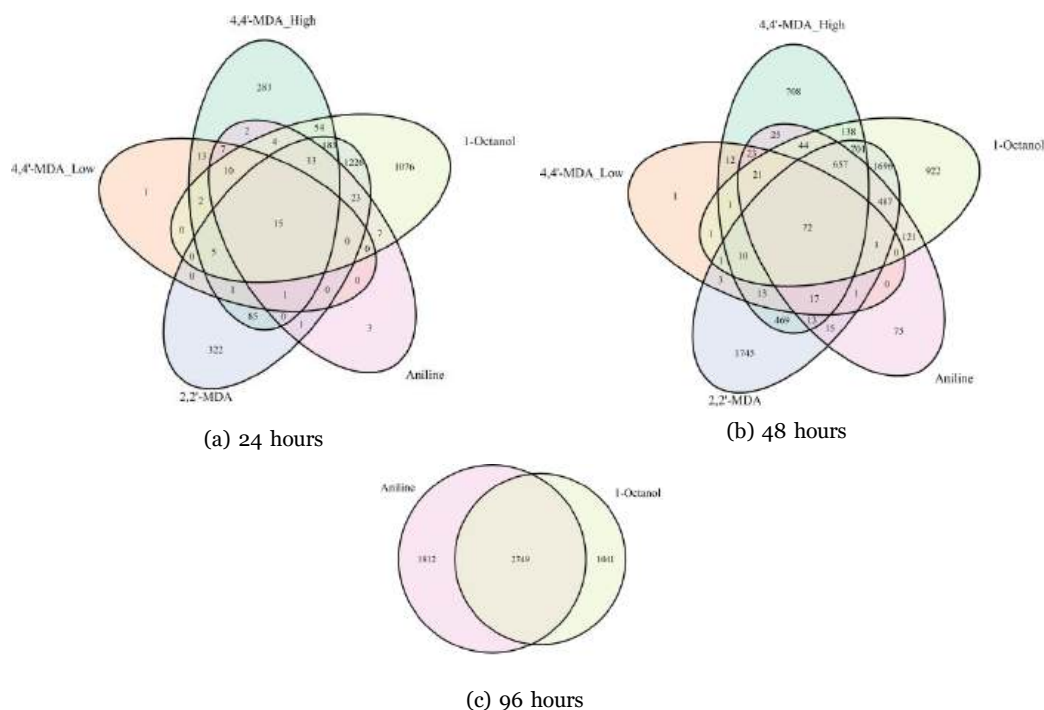


Figure 6: Venn diagrams illustrating the number of shared differentially expressed transcripts between the treatments compared to the solvent control after 24 (a), 48 (b) and 96 (c) h of exposure. Note that 2,4-TDA is not included in any of the Venn diagrams, as it barely induces any differential expression.

3.2.2. Pairwise differences between 4,4'-MDA and the polar narcotic aniline, and between 2,2'-MDA and the non-polar narcotic 1-octanol

Based on the heatmaps, 4,4'-MDA and aniline elicit analogous gene expression effects in *D. magna*, as do 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol. Therefore, the differential expression between 4,4'-MDA and aniline on the one hand, and 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol on the other hand was determined. There were no DE transcripts between 4,4'-MDA at its low concentration and aniline at 24 h of exposure, and only 23 (8 down- and 15 upregulated) DE transcripts at 48 h. For 2,2'-MDA versus 1-octanol, there was one DE transcript at 24 h, but 639 (285 down- and 354 upregulated) at 48 h.

3.3. Functional analyses: KEGG pathways, KEGG orthologies and gene families

A gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of KEGG pathways and gene families of each treatment versus the negative solvent control was done at every time point (significantly enriched gene sets (FDR < 0.05) in Supporting information 2). Many families and KEGG pathways were significantly enriched. The KEGG pathways were subdivided in categories according to the KEGG pathway database. As the 48 h time point displayed the most DEGs, we only present the results at this time point in Figure 7.

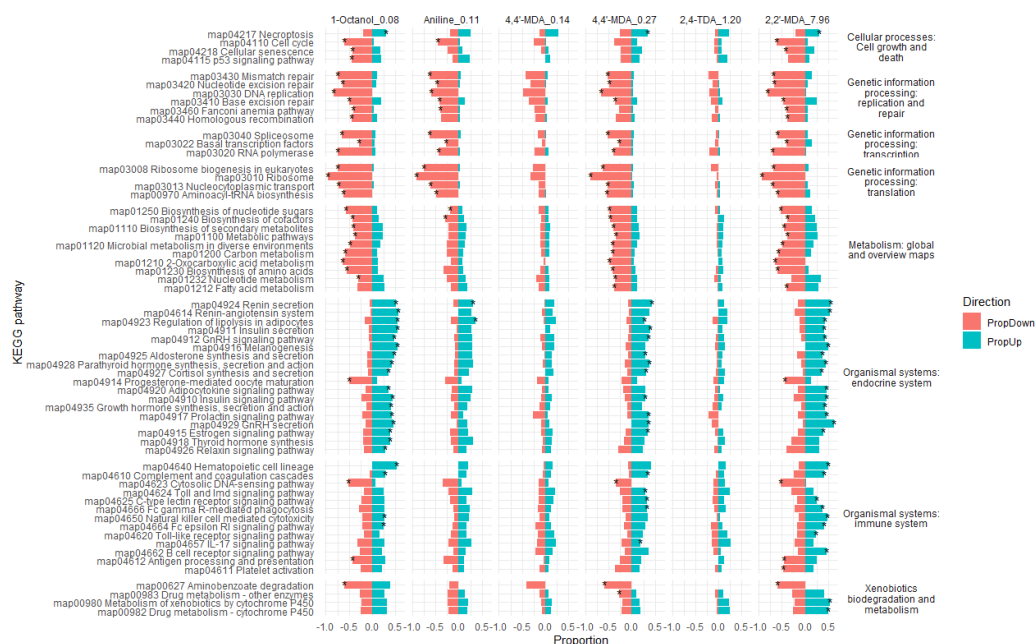


Figure 7: KEGG pathways significantly up- or downregulated (FDR < 0.05) within the specified categories by at least one treatment are shown. The proportion of up- and downregulated genes ($z > \sqrt{2}$ and $z < -\sqrt{2}$, respectively) for each pathway and treatment is visualized. If the pathway up- or downregulation was significant for a specific treatments, it is marked with an asterisk.

Overall, the enrichment profiles of 1-octanol, aniline, high-concentration 4,4'-MDA, and 2,2'-MDA show substantial similarity (Figure 7 for a subset of the KEGG pathways and Venn diagram in Figure 8). Notably, 4,4'-MDA demonstrates a clear concentration-dependent effect. The low concentration shows non-significant enrichment, albeit with a trend resembling that of the

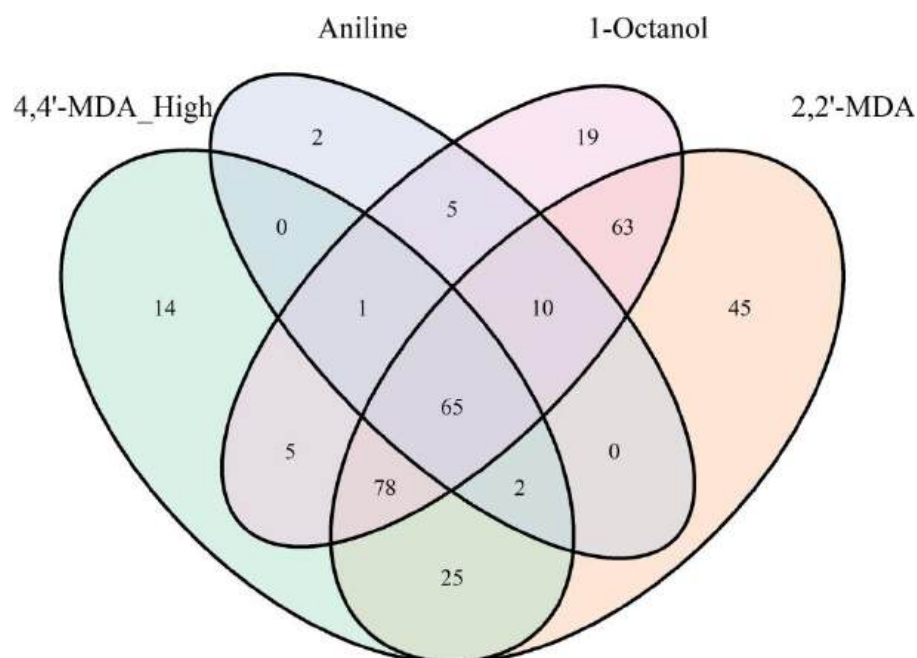


Figure 8: Venn diagram for the KEGG pathways significantly up- or downregulated (FDR < 0.05) by the treatments at 48 h.

At 48 h, 2,2'-MDA, 4,4'-MDA at its high concentration and 1-octanol induce a global suppression of metabolic processes, as reflected by the significant downregulation of KEGG pathways such as *Metabolic pathways* and *Biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars, cofactors, secondary metabolites* etc. Moreover, transcription and translation pathways are downregulated by 1-octanol, aniline, 4,4'-MDA at its high concentration and 2,2'-MDA, as are pathways involved in genetic information processing.

2,2'-MDA is the only treatment that significantly upregulates the genes in the pathways *Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450* and *Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450*. The upregulation of metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450 suggests that the chemical is recognized as a foreign compound, triggering detoxification pathways to process and eliminate it. The cytochrome P450 system plays a key role in metabolizing

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376 xenobiotics and may also generate reactive metabolites that contribute to
377 oxidative stress.

378 Looking at the *Cellular processes: cell growth and death* pathways, we see
379 a downregulation of the *Cell cycle* pathway by 1-octanol, aniline, 4,4'-MDA
380 at its high concentration and 2,2'-MDA. Simultaneously, the *Necroptosis*
381 pathway is upregulated by 1-octanol, 4,4'-MDA at its high concentration
382 and 2,2'-MDA. Necroptosis is a programmed form of necrosis.

383 4. Discussion

384 We investigated how the substituent positioning of three PAAs, namely
385 4,4'-MDA, 2,2'-MDA and 2,4-TDA, drives toxicity and MOA in *Daphnia*
386 *magna*. Despite their structural similarities, they exerted a distinct toxic
387 potency.

388 Toxicity effect concentrations were estimated with ECOSAR and
389 experimentally verified. ECOSAR calculated the baseline toxicity, in which
390 it is assumed that the chemical acts via a narcotic MOA ("Neutral organics"
391 class), but was also able to classify some of the chemicals into other toxicity
392 classes, thereby calculating adjusted EC50 values. The latter outcomes more
393 closely aligned with our experimental findings. In our computation of the
394 excess toxicity factor (Te) (the EC50 obtained with ECOSAR modeling for
395 the "Neutral organics" class divided by the EC50 in the other classes),
396 distinct excess toxicity was evident for 4,4'-MDA, 2,4-TDA, and aniline,
397 whereas 2,2'-MDA and 1-octanol exhibited no such excess toxicity.

398 The chemical 4,4'-MDA, substituted in the *para* positions, demonstrated
399 a comparable EC50 value to the excess toxicant aniline, along with a parallel
400 impact on gene expression. Conversely, its isomer, 2,2'-MDA, substituted in
401 the *ortho* positions, exhibited significantly lower toxicity, sharing a similar
402 EC50 and gene expression profile with the nonpolar narcotic 1-octanol.
403 Finally, the chemical 2,4-TDA, characterized by a singular aromatic ring
404 and substitution in both the *ortho* and *para* positions, demonstrated an
405 experimental toxicity intermediate to those of 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA.

406 The heightened susceptibility of daphnids to specific aromatic amines may
407 be attributed to bioactivation reactions, resulting in the formation of more
408 toxic reaction products compared to other species [12]. Aromatic amines
409 became recognized as procarcinogens that undergo competing bioactivation
410 and/or detoxification reactions [19]. Figure 9 shows a general proposed
411 model of aromatic amine bioactivation and detoxification [19]. The

bioactivation reactions include enzymatically catalyzed N-hydroxylation and O-esterification of the exocyclic amine group [19, 14]. The resulting ester conjugate is unstable and readily decomposes in a reactive electrophile, the arylnitrenium ion, which is the critical metabolite implicated in toxicity and DNA damage [19, 14].

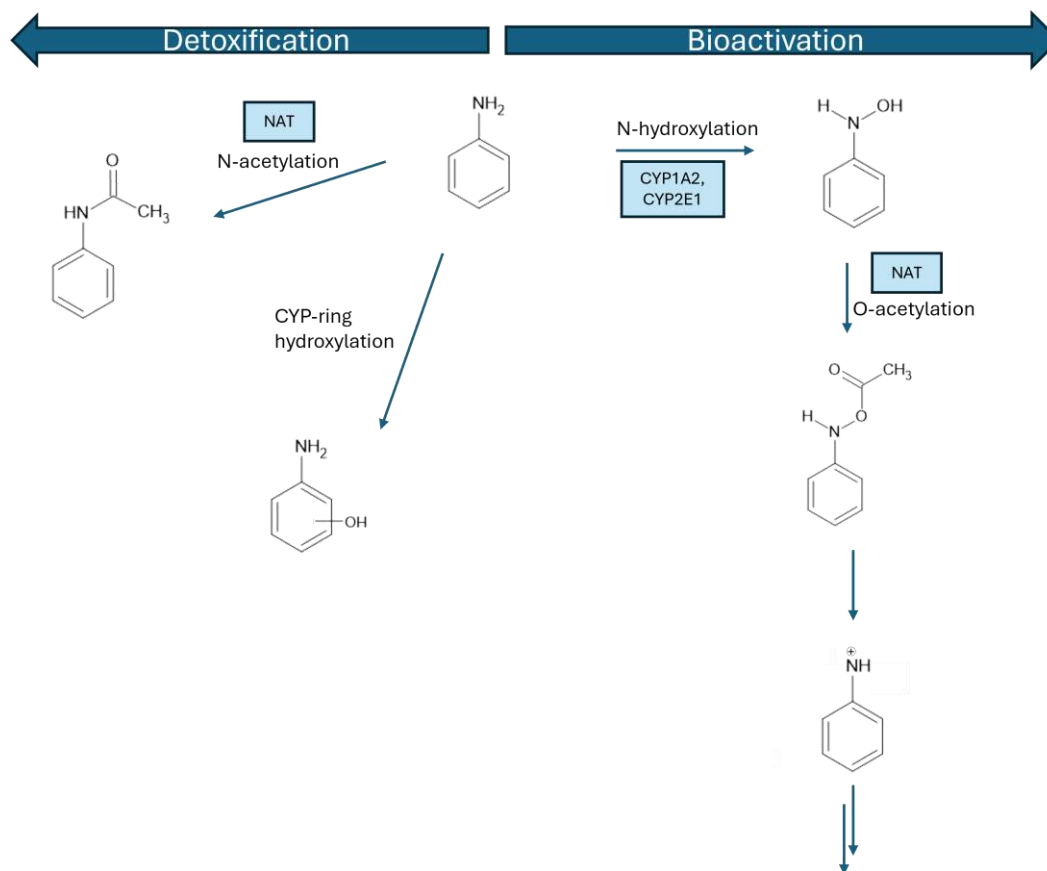


Figure 9: Reactions of biological activation and detoxification of aniline. Not that only a subset of the known metabolic pathways are shown, since other enzymes may also play a role. Adapted from Wang et al. 2019 [19].

Ramos et al. (2002) [12] investigated the impact of substituent positioning in anilines, encompassing various chlorinated, bromo, trifluoro, alkyl, chloromethyl, and chloronitroanilines, on excess toxicity towards *D. magna*. Their findings indicated lower excess toxicity in cases of *ortho* substitutions [12], aligning with our observations. 2,4-TDA, possessing one

aromatic ring and both *ortho* and *para* substitutions, demonstrated lower toxicity than aniline (Table 2), a characteristic that may be attributed to its *ortho*-substituent. It is pertinent to note that Ramos et al. (2002) [12] exclusively examined amines with a single aromatic ring, whereas our study encompassed aromatic amines with both one and two (unconjugated) aromatic rings. In the context of two-aromatic ring compounds, the *ortho*-substituted 2,2'-MDA, containing two *ortho*-substitutions, even exhibited no discernible excess toxicity in *Daphnia magna*. Considering our results, the results of Ramos et al. (2002) [12] and Figure 9, we could explain the order of toxic potencies observed for our aromatic amines in Figure 10.

Regarding the KEGG pathway gene set enrichment analyses, we found that the observed effects depend on the concentration, as was clearly indicated for 4,4'-MDA. Including a well-known narcotic chemical, 1-octanol, allowed us to see the similarities in enriched KEGG pathways between the PAAs and 1-octanol. This indicates that the PAAs are not specifically acting chemicals, targeting a specific cellular receptor, typically for Verhaar class 4 chemicals [18]. However, we conclude that their substituent positioning affects bioactivation reactions, in which highly reactive compounds can be more easily formed for 4,4'-MDA, but not for 2,2'-MDA. These bioactivation reactions produce reactive chemicals (Verhaar class 3 [18]), with electrophilic properties that react in a specific way with nucleophile groups in macromolecules. The substituent positioning significantly affects formation and reactivity of intermediates and therefore the toxic potency of the compounds. Bioactivation reactions are catalyzed by various enzymes (Figure 9) and variations in cytochrome P450 enzyme distribution and function between animal groups results in a differential metabolism and elimination kinetics of PAAs and other compounds. Koenig et al. (2012) [7] have proven a marked difference in the presence and activities of CYP isoforms between fish and the crustacean *Aristeus antennatus*. There is a need to further investigate quantitative and qualitative differences in xenobiotic metabolism among animal groups.

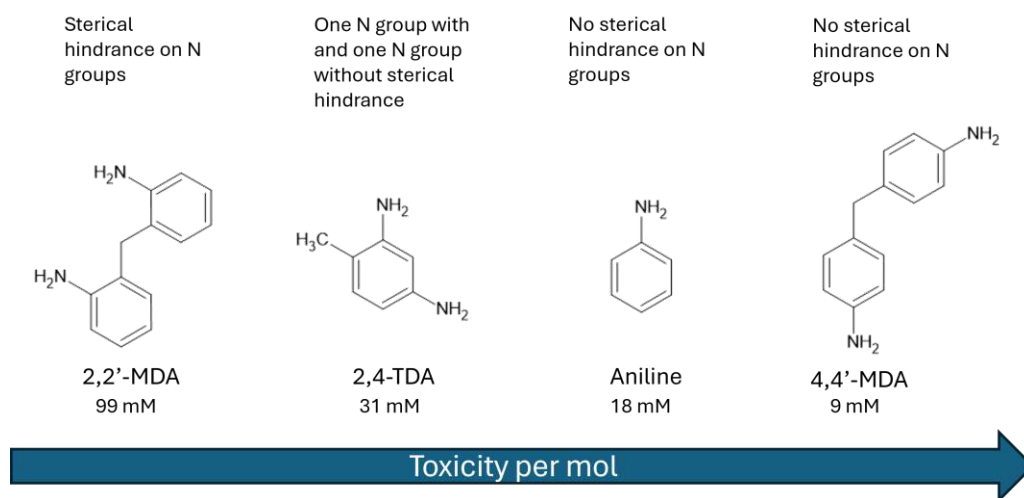


Figure 10: The toxicity per mol of the molecules examined in this study.

5. Conclusion

This study provides a comprehensive investigation into the MOA of PAAs using transcriptomics, demonstrating that environmental toxicity and MOA are influenced not only by chemical class but also by the type and precise positioning of substituents.

Our findings reveal that PAAs can exhibit either narcotic effects or excess toxicity (reactive chemicals), depending on substituent arrangement. Specifically, 2,2'-MDA, with *ortho* substituents, displayed narcotic toxicity, whereas its isomer 4,4'-MDA, with *para* substituents, as well as 2,4-TDA and aniline, exhibited an excess toxicity.

Based on literature search, our toxicity experiments and transcriptomic data, we classify 4,4'-MDA, aniline and 2,4-TDA as Verhaar class 3 reactive chemicals, due to bioactivation reactions, in *Daphnia magna*. We propose that their toxic potency can be predicted by how easily they can become bioactivated, which depends on their type and positioning of substituents. This work underscores the potential of transcriptomic studies to support safe and sustainable design approaches in chemistry.

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7. Supporting Information

The following files are available free of charge.

- Supporting information: Additional figures and tables, including detailed experimental results, gene set enrichment analysis results, gene expression patterns etc
- Supporting information 2: Overrepresentation analyses of KEGG pathways, KEGG Orthology numbers and families

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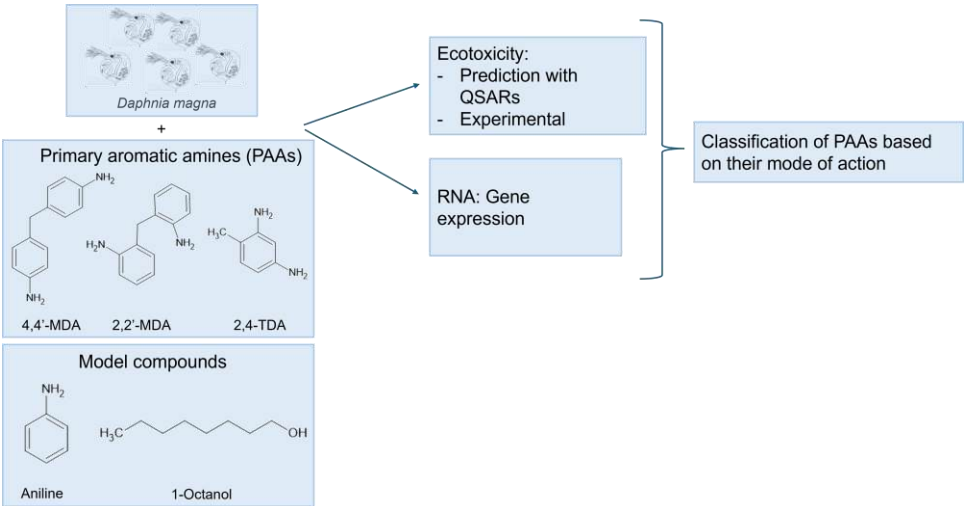
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Graphical Abstract

Exploring mode of action for acute toxicity of primary aromatic amines with *Daphnia magna* using differential gene expression analysis

Friedel Dewulf, Ilias Semmouri, Filip Van Nieuwerburgh, Karel De Schamphelelaere, Jana Asselman



Highlights

Exploring mode of action for acute toxicity of primary aromatic amines with *Daphnia magna* using differential gene expression analysis

Friedel Dewulf, Ilias Semmouri, Filip Van Nieuwerburgh, Karel De Schamphelaere, Jana Asselman

- Substituent positioning of aromatic amines affects their toxicity in *D. magna*
- The structural isomers 4,4'-MDA and 2,2'-MDA exhibit distinct modes of actions
- 4,4'-MDA mimics excess toxicity effects in *D. magna*
- 2,2'-MDA exhibits narcotic behaviour in *D. magna*
- Acute immobilization and gene expression analysis reveal distinct modes of action