

current drug therapies used to treat occlusive respiratory disorders.

Authorship Contributions

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Original Article

MWCNT causes extensive damage to the ciliated epithelium of the trachea of rodents

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ABSTRACT — The ciliated tracheobronchial epithelium plays an important role in the excretion of inhaled dust. While many reports indicate that inhaled multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) induce inflammation and proliferative changes in the lung and pleura, their effects on the upper airway have not been reported. Two different types of MWCNTs, MWCNT-L (8 μ m in length and 150 nm in diameter) and MWCNT-S (3 μ m in length and 15 nm in diameter), were examined for their effect on the trachea as well as the bronchus and lung. *In vitro*, the movement of the cilia of primary tracheal epithelial cells was impaired by treatment with the 2 MWCNTs. Rats were treated with 0.3 ml of a 250 μ g/ml suspension of MWCNTs on days 1, 4, and 7, and sacrificed on day 8. Extensive loss of ciliated cells and replacement by flat cells without cilia was observed in the trachea. Deposition of MWCNTs and occasional squamous cell metaplasia were found in the regenerative granulation tissue. The proportion of the lesion to the transverse section of the trachea was vehicle, 0; MWCNT-L, 27.2 ± 10.5 ; MWCNT-S, 32.1 ± 15.8 (both MWCNTs, $p < 0.001$ vs vehicle). The amount of cilia showed significant decrease in the MWCNT-L treated rats ($p < 0.05$). In contrast to the trachea lesions, the number of inflammatory foci in the lung was greater in the MWCNT-S than in the MWCNT-L treated rats. Our results indicate that both MWCNTs caused extensive damage to the ciliated epithelium of the trachea. This damage may prolong the deposition of inhaled MWCNT in the lung.

Key words: MWCNT, Tracheal damage, Ciliated epithelium, Rat

INTRODUCTION

Multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) are a newly developed material with potential applications in many fields including the biomedical field. The high aspect ratio of MWCNT is similar to that of asbestos and has led to concern that exposure to MWCNT might cause asbestos-like lung diseases (Bonner, 2010; Donaldson *et al.*, 2010; Nagai and Toyokuni, 2010). Many reports have indicated that exposure of rats to MWCNT induces inflammation, fibrosis and oxidative stress in the lung and pleura (Mercer *et al.*, 2010, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2012). To date, *in vivo* studies have focused on the toxicity of MWCNT in the lung and pleura, and nothing has been reported regarding the effect of MWCNT on the epithelium of

the trachea.

The tracheal and primary branch of the bronchial epithelium is mainly composed of ciliated cells and some goblet cells. The ciliated cells are responsible for carrying out inhaled dust particles in the throat by their ciliary transportation movement. Thus, the ciliated cells play a pivotal role in the defense of the airway against inhaled particle matter. Several environmental factors such as cigarette smoke (Simet *et al.*, 2010) and diesel gas particles (Li *et al.*, 2011) have been shown to impair ciliated cell functions, resulting in increased pulmonary deposition. Zinc oxide nanoparticles have been reported to induce proliferation of airway epithelial cells and goblet cell hyperplasia (Cho *et al.*, 2011) and transient epithelial hyperplasia of the terminal bronchiole (Xu *et al.*,

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2013). Although several reports indicate that MWCNT have some toxic effects on bronchial epithelial cells *in vitro* (Hirano *et al.*, 2010; Lindberg *et al.*, 2009; Rotoli *et al.*, 2008), the effect on the upper airway in animals remains unknown. In the present study, we investigated the effects of MWCNT on the tracheal epithelium *in vitro* and *in vivo* and the bronchus and lung *in vivo* after short-term exposure.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

8-12 week old C57BL/6N male mice (Japan SLC Inc., Shizuoka, Japan) and 6-7 week old Wistar/ST rats were obtained from Japan SLC Inc. Rats were housed in the Animal Center of Nagoya City University Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences and maintained on a 12 hr light/12 hr dark cycle and received Oriental MF basal diet (Oriental Yeast Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and water *ad libitum*. The study was conducted according to the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of Nagoya City University Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, and the experimental protocol was approved by the Nagoya City University Animal Care and Use Committee (H24-p-12).

Preparation of MWCNT and Fluorescent Microspheres (FMS)

We used two types of MWCNTs, MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S, which are grown in the vapor phase. According to the manufacturer's information, the primary size of MWCNT-L is 150 nm in mean diameter and 8 μ m in mean length, and the primary size of MWCNT-S is 15 nm in mean diameter and 3 μ m in mean length. Five milligrams of MWCNT-L or MWCNT-S were suspended in 20 ml of saline containing 0.5% Pluronic F68 (PF68, non-ionic, biocompatible amphiphilic block copolymers, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) and homogenized for 1 min at 3,000 rpm in a Polytron PT1600E bench-top homogenizer (Kinematika AG, Littau, Switzerland) 4 times. The suspensions were sonicated for 30 min shortly before use to minimize aggregation. The concentration of the MWCNTs was 250 μ g/ml. Both MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S dispersed well in the vehicle solution. MWCNT-L showed single fibers with a needle-like shape under scanning electron microscope (SEM) observation, but gradually formed agglomerates over time. Since MWCNT-S are tangled fibers, it showed cotton-like aggregation in suspension under SEM observation. However, they did not form larger agglomerates: incubation in suspension up to 7 days (data not shown). Fluorescent Microspheres

(FMS) were purchased from Invitrogen (TetraSpeck™ microspheres, 500 nm in diameter) and suspended by sonication at 250 μ g/ml in saline containing 0.5% PF68.

Isolation of single ciliated cells

Isolation of single ciliated cells was as previously reported (Ma *et al.*, 2006). Briefly, the tracheal epithelium was separated from the cartilage and cut into pieces of approximately 0.1 \times 0.1 cm. The tissue was incubated in phosphate-buffered saline containing NaCl 137 mM, KCl 2.7 mM, CaCl₂ 0.9 mM, MgCl₂ 0.5 mM, Na₂HPO₄ 8 mM, KH₂PO₄ 1.47 mM and d-glucose 5 mM, pH 7.4 (PBS-g) supplemented with 13 U/ml papain (Sigma), 1 mg/ml bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1 mg/ml 1,4-dithiothreitol (Wako Chemicals Co. Ltd., Osaka, Japan). Cells were then dispersed several times with a fire-polished Pasteur pipette and re-suspended in PBS-g and used immediately.

In vitro study

The isolated mouse tracheal epithelial cells were maintained in high glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Sigma) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1 U/ml penicillin G, and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin sulfate, at 37°C, 5% CO₂. The cells were then exposed for 10 min to vehicle, FMS, MWCNT-L, or MWCNT-S in FMS or MWCNT suspensions to a final concentration of 10 μ g/ml. Media was then replaced by fresh media. The cells were observed 10 min and 12 and 18 hr after addition of fresh media and the proportion of cells with ciliary movement per total ciliated cells was determined. For each group, approximately 500 cells per dish in three separate dishes were counted.

Rat study

Male Wistar rats aged 6-7 weeks were treated with 0.3 ml of 250 μ g/ml MWCNT-L or MWCNT-S (3 rats each) suspended in PF68 vehicle on days 1, 4, and 7. The suspension was administered by a microsyringe (series IA-1B Intratracheal Aerosolizer; Penn-century, Philadelphia, PA, USA) with the tip of the microsyringe just inside the entrance of the trachea (Xu *et al.*, 2012). Administration was done in synchronization with spontaneous inhalation. The rats were sacrificed 24 hr after the last dosing (day 8) under deep anesthesia with isoflurane. The trachea, bronchus and lung were excised and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution. The trachea was transversely cut into 3 pieces, upper, middle and lower parts, and the tracheal sections and the bronchus and lungs were routinely processed for paraffin embedding, sectioning and histological examination.

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Histology and Immunostaining

Haematoxylin-Eosin (H&E) stained slides of the trachea; bronchus and lung were examined by board pathologists. The epithelial lesions in each tracheal section were measured with the image analyzing function (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) and expressed as the ratio of the length of the lesion to the whole length of the tracheal section. The number of granulation foci of the lung sections were counted and expressed as number/cm² lung tissue. Localization of MWCNT fibers in the trachea and lung tissue were determined with polarized light microscopy (Olympus BX51N-31P-O, Tokyo, Japan) at $\times 400$ and $\times 1,000$ magnification. Immunostaining of acetylated tubulin, a specific marker for cilia, was performed using mouse polyclonal anti-acetylated tubulin antibody (Sigma Aldrich). The antibody was diluted 1:1,000 in PBS containing 5% goat albumin and applied to deparaffinized and blocked slides, and the slides were incubated at 4°C overnight. The next day, the slides were washed 3 times in PBS and then incubated for 2 hr with Alexa 488-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (Molecular Probe, Eugene, USA) diluted 1:1,000. After washing 3 times in PBS, the slides were counterstained with DAPI (Vector laboratories, USA). Immunostained sections were observed using an A1R laser scanning confocal microscope (Nikon). The ratio of the fluorescent intensity of acetylated tubulin in the top layer of cells of the tracheal ciliated epithelium to the fluorescent intensity of DAPI in the underlying submucosal tissue was measured. This ratio was used to compare the intensity of acetylated tubulin fluorescence in the different samples. Fluorescence intensity was determined with NIS Elements software (version 3.10; Nikon).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical significance was examined using Tukey's test. *P* values less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

In vitro study

Cultures of ciliated cells were incubated in growth media with vehicle (PF68), fluorescent microspheres (FMS), or MWCNT for 10 min. During the 10 min incubation in media containing FMS, FMS in contact with the cilia and/or cell surface could readily be located (white arrow in Fig. 1A in bottom panel), however, 10 min after replacing the FMS containing media with standard growth media, cell-associated FMS could no longer be found. In contrast, ten min after replacing the MWCNT

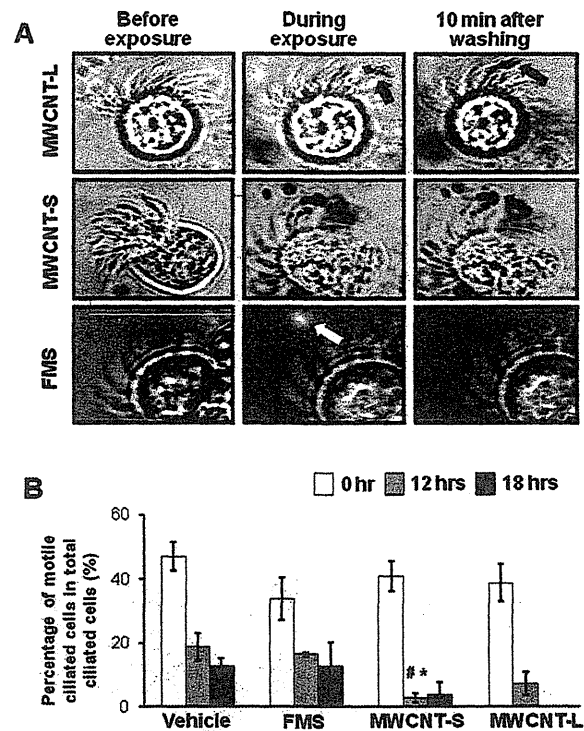


Fig. 1. Exposure of MWCNT to isolated tracheal ciliated cells *in vitro*. A, Images of ciliated cells exposed to fluorescent microsphere (FMS), MWCNT-L, and MWCNT-S; left, before exposure; middle, during exposure; right, after media change. FMS (white arrow) was clearly removed. MWCNTs were not removed (black arrows). Bars equal 5 μ m. B, Percentage of cells with active cilia at time 0 and 12 and 18 hr after media change. *n* = 3; * *p* < 0.05 vs vehicle control, # *p* < 0.05 vs FMS control.

containing media with standard growth media, MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S fibers were not detached from the ciliated cells and could be observed associated with the cilia and/or cell surface (black arrows in Fig. 1A). In the cilia activity test, FMS did not reduce the percentage of cells with active cilia compared to the vehicle group (Fig. 1B). However, the percentage of cells with active cilia in the MWCNT-L treated group was significantly reduced (2.73 ± 1.37 ; *n* = 3, *p* < 0.05) compared to the vehicle (18.7 ± 4.28) and FMS (16.50 ± 0.67) groups after 12 hr. Although not significant, a similar decrease was also observed in the MWCNT-S group.

Rat study

The majority of the epithelium of the trachea is com-

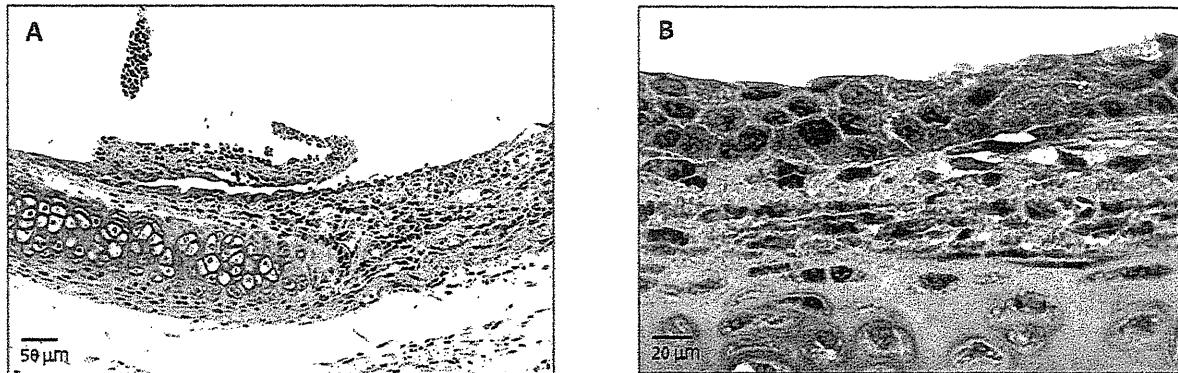


Fig. 2. Erosive lesions and squamous cell metaplasia. A, Representative image showing erosive lesions induced by treatment of MWCNT-L or MWCNT-S; B, Representative image of squamous cell metaplasia.

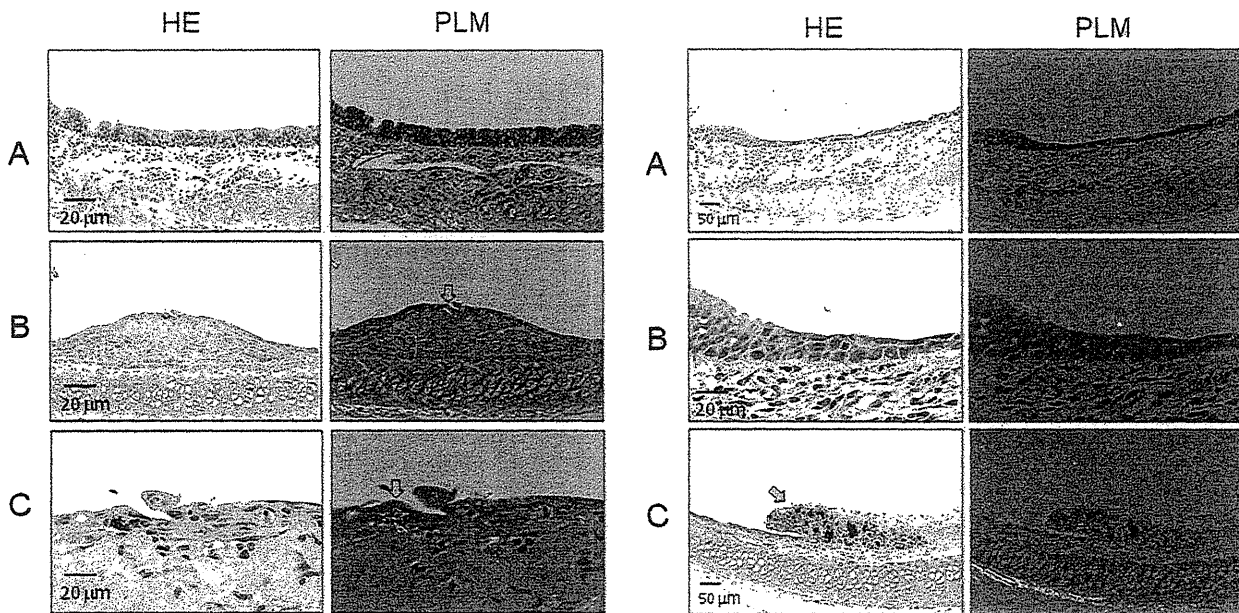


Fig. 3. Tracheal lesions in rat treated with MWCNT-L. A, Undamaged tracheal ciliated epithelium; B, An erosive lesion with granulation tissue underneath the thin regenerating epithelium; C, A higher magnification image of the lesion in B. MWCNT-L fibers (open arrows) can be clearly observed in the granulation tissue by polarized light microscopy (PLM).

Fig. 4. Tracheal lesions in a rat treated with MWCNT-S. A, Tracheal epithelium showing a transition from undamaged ciliated epithelium to regenerating flat epithelium overlying edematous granulation tissue. B, A higher magnification image of the lesion in B. C, An erosive lesion with granulation tissue containing many black MWCNT-S fibers. MWCNT-S fibers are not visualized by polarized light microscopy (PLM).

posed of single layer of columnar ciliated cells. Treatment with MWCNT-L induced marked damage to the surface ciliated cells resulting in erosive changes (Fig. 2A) and replacement with flat cells without cilia and occasional squamous cell metaplasia (Fig. 2B). An increase in

goblet cells was found in the columnar ciliated cell area, although goblet cell damage was not obvious. MWCNT-L fiber aggregates were frequently observed in the lesions (Figs. 3B and 3C) but not in the healthy mucosa (Fig. 3A). MWCNT-S caused similar mucosal damage (Fig. 4,

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Table 1. Lesions in the tracheal epithelium and lung

Treatment	No. of rats	Tracheal epithelium			Lung
		Erosion	Regenerated cells		Granulation tissue (No./cm ²) ^b
		Incidence (%)	Incidence (%)	Proportion ^a (%)	
Vehicle	4	0	0	0	0
MWCNT-L	3	100 ***	100 ***	27.2 ± 8.7**	0.1 ± 0.1
MWCNT-S	4	25 ***	100 ***	32.7 ± 11.5**	1.0 ± 0.2 **,##

Notes: ^a, the length of the regenerated lesion in the whole length of the transverse tracheal circle; ^b, the number of the granulation per square centimeter of the lung tissue; ** and *** represent *p* values < 0.01 and 0.001, vs the vehicle; ## represents *p* values < 0.01, vs MWCNT-L

left panel) but, because of lack of MWCNT-S mediated polarization, the fibers could not be detected by polarized light microscopy (Fig. 4C, right panel).

Table 1 shows the incidences of the erosion, incidences and the percentage of the length of the tracheal lesions compared to the total length of the tracheal cross section from rats administered vehicle or MWCNT. Tracheal lesions in rats administered MWCNT-L (27.2 ± 10.5) or MWCNT-S (32.1 ± 15.8) were significantly greater than in rats administered vehicle alone (*p* < 0.001 for both comparisons). No difference was found between the MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S groups. Although not significant, the value for MWCNT-L administered rats was greater than for MWCNT-S administered rats.

The ratio of fluorescence of acetylated tubulin on the surface of the trachea (0.48 ± 0.06) to submucosal DAPI fluorescence significantly decreased (*p* < 0.05) in rats treated with MWCNT-L (Fig. 5). The value for the MWCNT-S treated rats showed a similar decrease but was not significant. The results clearly indicate the quantitative loss of ciliated cells by treatment with MWCNT-L.

In the lung, granulation foci composed of macrophages and fibrotic cells surrounding MWCNT aggregates was found (Fig. 6). Table 1 shows the number of granulation foci in the lungs of rats administered vehicle or MWCNT. The number of lesions in both the MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S administered groups were significantly higher than in the vehicle control group (*p* < 0.001 for both comparisons). The lesion count in the MWCNT-S group (1.04 ± 0.18) was significantly greater than the MWCNT-L group (0.06 ± 0.06) (*p* < 0.05) (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

The tracheobronchial ciliated epithelium is the first defense line against inhaled dust particles. The dust particles are transported from the lung alveoli through the

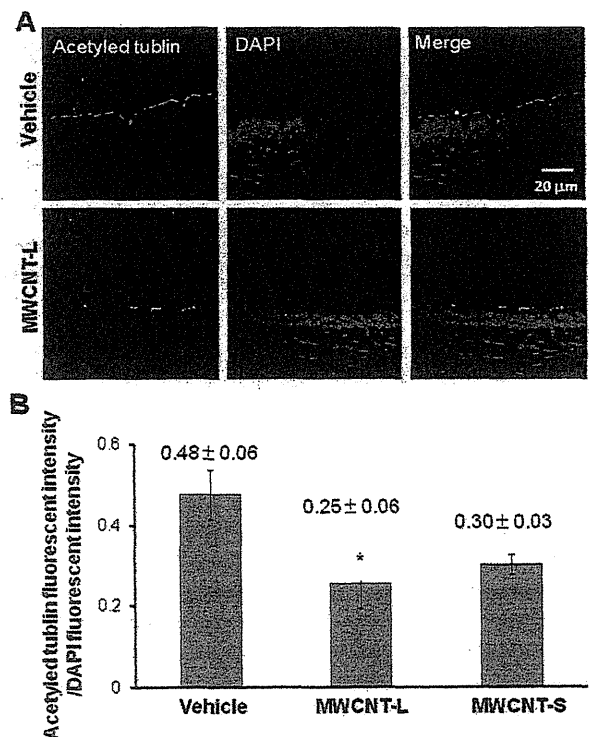


Fig. 5. Decrease in the proportion of ciliated cells in the bronchial epithelium. A, Representative images of immunostaining with anti-acetylated tubulin staining the cilia (left), DAPI (middle) and merged image (right); B, The ratio of the intensity of acetylated tubulin to DAPI was decreased in the MWCNT-L group. *n* = 3~4; * *p* < 0.05 vs the vehicle.

bronchi and trachea toward the laryngopharynx by its directed ciliary movement. Pathologic changes in the bronchial epithelium such as goblet cell hyperplasia and

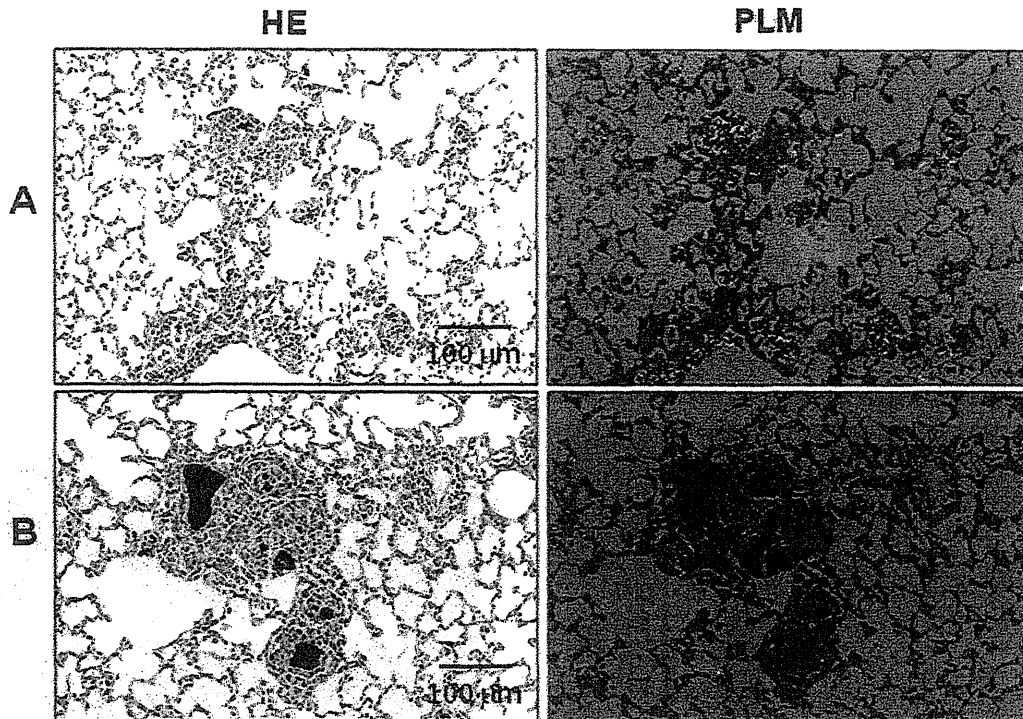


Fig. 6. Demonstration of MWCNTs in the lung tissue. HE and polarized images of the lung tissue treated with MWCNT-L (A) or MWCNT-S (B). Large aggregations of MWNNT-S (black mass) are found encapsulated in granulation tissue and small particles are found in alveolar macrophages. As in the trachea, MWCNT-S is not visualized by polarized light microscopy (PLM).

squamous cell metaplasia have been found by studies with particles such as ZnO particles (Choe *et al.*, 1997) and cigarette smoke (Neugut, 1988) and in some disease conditions such as bronchial asthma and chronic bronchitis (Aikawa *et al.*, 1992). The ciliated cell damage in these lesions causes impaired mucociliary protection and increases deposition of particles and microorganisms in the lung, causing inflammatory changes. These alterations may cause chronic injury and cell regeneration leading to an increase in carcinogenesis in the trachea, bronchi and lung.

This is the first report to show that MWCNTs cause extensive damage and loss of ciliated epithelium in the trachea followed by compensatory regeneration of cells without cilia including metaplastic squamous cells. *In vitro* observation clearly indicated that MWCNT caused impaired function of ciliated cells, potentially resulting in decreased clearance of the fibers from the lung, such as observed in studies of other fibers such as asbestos (Woodworth *et al.*, 1983). Decreased clearance of MWC-

NT would increase the retention time of the MWCNTs in the trachea and lung, which, in turn, would maintain the toxic effect, leading to even more loss of ciliated cells. This would increase the risk of spread of MWCNT to other organs, especially to the pleural cavity.

It should be noted that damage to the lung differed in MWCNT-L and MWCNT-S administered rats. Inflammatory changes, as evinced by an increase in granulation tissue in the lung, were more extensive in MWCNT-S administered rats. This indicates that there is an organotropic toxic effect of MWCNT. This may be related to their size and shape; however, further studies are necessary to elucidate the mechanism of this difference.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Comparative Study of Toxic Effects of Anatase and Rutile Type Nanosized Titanium Dioxide Particles *in vivo* and *in vitro*

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Abstract

Two types of nanosized titanium dioxide, anatase (anTiO₂) and rutile (rnTiO₂), are widely used in industry, commercial products and biosystems. TiO₂ has been evaluated as a Group 2B carcinogen. Previous reports indicated that anTiO₂ is less toxic than rnTiO₂, however, under ultraviolet irradiation anTiO₂ is more toxic than rnTiO₂ *in vitro* because of differences in their crystal structures. In the present study, we compared the *in vivo* and *in vitro* toxic effects induced by anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂. Female SD rats were treated with 500 µg/ml of anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ suspensions by intra-pulmonary spraying 8 times over a two week period. In the lung, treatment with anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ increased alveolar macrophage numbers and levels of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG); these increases tended to be lower in the anTiO₂ treated group compared to the rnTiO₂ treated group. Expression of MIP1α mRNA and protein in lung tissues treated with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ was also significantly up-regulated, with MIP1α mRNA and protein expression significantly lower in the anTiO₂ group than in the rnTiO₂ group. In cell culture of primary alveolar macrophages (PAM) treated with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂, expression of MIP1α mRNA in the PAM and protein in the culture media was significantly higher than in control cultures. Similarly to the *in vivo* results, MIP1α mRNA and protein expression was significantly lower in the anTiO₂ treated cultures compared to the rnTiO₂ treated cultures. Furthermore, conditioned cell culture media from PAM cultures treated with anTiO₂ had less effect on A549 cell proliferation compared to conditioned media from cultures treated with rnTiO₂. However, no significant difference was found in the toxicological effects on cell viability of ultra violet irradiated anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂. In conclusion, our results indicate that anTiO₂ is less potent in induction of alveolar macrophage infiltration, 8-OHdG and MIP1α expression in the lung, and growth stimulation of A549 cells *in vitro* than rnTiO₂.

Keywords: Nanosized titanium dioxide - anatase - rutile - lung toxicity - MIP1α

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Introduction

There are three mineral forms of natural titanium dioxide particles: rutile, anatase and brookite. Engineered anatase and rutile nanosized titanium dioxide particles (anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂) are being manufactured in large quantities worldwide and applied in many fields including material industry, electronic industry, commercial products and biosystems. Due to differences in crystal structure, anTiO₂ has better photocatalytic activity than rnTiO₂ (Kakinoki et al., 2004). Accordingly, anTiO₂ is mainly used in paints, such as surface painting of the walls and windows of buildings and vehicles, and photocatalytic systems, while rnTiO₂ is preferentially used in cosmetics, sunscreen and food additives.

Large quantity production and widespread application of nTiO₂ have given rise to concern about its health and

environmental effects. Anatase and rutile type titanium dioxide particles, nanosized and larger, are evaluated as Group 2B carcinogens (possibly carcinogenic to humans) by WHO/International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 2010), based on 2-year animal aerosol inhalation studies (Mohr et al., 2006). Pulmonary exposure to rnTiO₂ promotes DHPN-induced lung carcinogenesis in rats, and the promotion effect is possibly associated with rnTiO₂ burdened alveolar macrophage derived macrophage inflammatory protein 1 alpha (MIP1α), which acts as a growth factor to stimulate the proliferation of human lung adenocarcinoma cells (A549) *in vitro* (Xu et al., 2010). Dermal application of anTiO₂ has been shown to cause significant increases in the level of superoxide dismutase and malondialdehyde in hairless mice (Wu et al., 2009).

Size and photoactivation affect the *in vitro* toxicity of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂. anTiO₂ (10 and 20 nm) induces

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oxidative DNA damage, lipid peroxidation and micronuclei formation, and increases hydrogen peroxide and nitric oxide production in BEAS-2B cells, a human bronchial epithelial cell line, but anTiO₂ 200 nm particles do not (Gurr et al., 2005). In contrast, both nano-sized and 200nm rTiO₂ are toxic *in vitro* (Gurr et al., 2005; Sayes et al., 2006). On the other hand, under ultraviolet irradiation, anTiO₂ is 100 times more toxic to human dermal fibroblasts and A549 cells than rTiO₂, and is more potent than rTiO₂ in the induction of lactate dehydrogenase release, reactive oxygen species production and interleukin 8 secretion (Sayes et al., 2006). Experimental data demonstrating differences in the toxic effects of anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ *in vivo*, however, are still lacking.

Respiratory exposure to nTiO₂ particles can occur both at the workplace, e.g., in manufacturing and packing sites, and outside the workplace during their use (Maynard et al., 2006; Schulte et al., 2008). In the present study, we delivered anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ to the rat lung by trans-tracheal intra-pulmonary spraying (TIPS) and compared lung inflammation and several toxicological parameters induced by anTiO₂ and rTiO₂. The results indicated that obvious lung inflammatory lesions were not observed in the rats, and anTiO₂ or rTiO₂ particles were phagocytosed by alveolar macrophages. Analysis of alveolar macrophage induction, 8-OHdG level in the lung, and MIP1 α expression both *in vivo* in the lung and *in vitro* in PAM indicated that anTiO₂ elicited lower levels of biological responses than rTiO₂. Long-term toxic effects of anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ still need to be clarified.

Materials and Methods

Preparation and characterization of nTiO₂ suspension

Nanosized TiO₂ particles (anatase type without coating, primary size 25 nm and rutile type without coating, primary size 20 nm) were provided by Japan Cosmetic Association, Tokyo, Japan. Both anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ particles were suspended in saline at 500 μ g/ml and then autoclaved. The suspensions were sonicated for 20 min shortly before use to prevent aggregate formation.

Characterization of nTiO₂ was conducted as follows: The shapes of nTiO₂ in suspension were imaged by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Element analysis was performed by an X-ray microanalyzer (EDAX, Tokyo, Japan), after aliquots of nTiO₂ were loaded onto a carbon sheet. For size distribution analysis, aliquots of the 500 μ g/ml nTiO₂ suspension were loaded onto clean glass slides and photographed under a polarized light microscope (Olympus BX51N-31P-O polarized light microscope, Tokyo, Japan), and the photos were then analyzed by an image analyzer system (IPAP, Sumika Technos Corporation, Osaka, Japan). Over 1000 particles of anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ were measured.

Animals

Female Sprague-Dawley rats (SD rats) were purchased from CLEA Japan Co., Ltd (Tokyo, Japan). The animals were housed in the animal center of Nagoya City University Medical School, maintained on a 12 hour

light-dark cycle and received oriental MF basal diet (Oriental Yeast Co., Tokyo, Japan) and water *ad lib*. The research was conducted according to the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of Nagoya City University Medical School and the experimental protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (H22M-19).

Trans-tracheal intra-pulmonary spraying (TIPS) protocol

Three groups of 6 female SD rats (Group 1, saline; Group 2, anTiO₂; and Group 3, rTiO₂) aged 9 weeks were acclimated for 7 days prior to the start of the study. Saline and nTiO₂ suspensions were administered by TIPS to the animals under isoflurane anesthesia: The nozzle of a Microsprayer (series IA-1B Intratracheal Aerosolizer, Penn-century, Philadelphia, PA) connected to a 1 ml syringe was inserted into the trachea through the larynx and a total volume of 0.5 ml suspension was sprayed into the lungs synchronizing with spontaneous inspiration by the animal (Xu et al., 2010). Rats were treated once every the other day over a 2 week period, a total of eight treatments. The total amount of anTiO₂ and rTiO₂ administered to Groups 2 and 3 was 2.0 mg per rat. Six hours after the last spraying, the animals were killed and the whole lung was excised and divided into two parts; the left lung was cut into pieces and immediately frozen at -80°C and used for biochemical analysis, and the right lung was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) adjusted to pH 7.3 and processed for immunohistochemical, light microscopic and transmission electron microscopic (TEM) examinations.

Light microscopy and transmission electron microscopy

Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained sections were used for pathological observation. The number of alveolar macrophages in H&E lung tissue slides was counted and expressed as number per mm².

Slides were observed under light microscopic observation, the corresponding area in the paraffin block was cut out, deparaffinized and embedded in epoxy resin and processed for TEM and titanium element analysis with a JEM-1010 transmission electron microscope (JEOL Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with an X-ray microanalyzer (EDAX, Tokyo, Japan).

Analysis of 8-hydroxydeoxy guanosine levels

For the analysis of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) levels, genomic DNA was isolated from a piece of the left lung with a DNA Extractor WB kit (Wako Chemicals Co. Ltd). 8-OHdG levels were determined with an 8-OHdG ELISA Check kit (Japan Institute for Control of Aging, Shizuoka, Japan).

RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and RT-PCR analysis of gene expression

Pieces of the left lungs (50-100 mg) were thawed, rinsed 3 times with ice cold PBS, and total RNA was isolated using 1 ml Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany). For reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) and real-time PCR, first strand cDNA synthesis from 2 mg of total RNA was performed using SuperScript™ III First-Strand Synthesis

System (Invitrogen of Life Technologies, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. PCR primers for rat MIP1 α were 5'-TTTTGAGACCAGCAGCCTTT -3' (forward) and 5'-CTCAAGCCCCTGCTCTACAC-3' (reverse), and the product size was 191bp. b-actin was used as internal control and the primers were 5'-AGCCATGTACGTAGCCATCC-3' (forward) and 5'-CTCTCAGCTGTGGTGGTGAA-3', and the product size was 228 bp. RT-PCR was conducted using an iCycler (BioRad Life Sciences, CA) as follows: 95°C 20 sec, 60°C 20 sec, 72°C 30sec, 30 cycles for MIP1 α ; and 95°C 20 sec, 60°C 20 sec, 72°C 30sec, 15 cycles for b-actin. Real-time PCR analysis of MIP1 α gene expression was performed with a 7300 Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystem, CA) using Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystem, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. b-actin gene was used as the normalizing reference gene.

Immunohistochemical analysis

Paraffin embedded lung tissues sections were immunostained with polyclonal anti-rat MIP1 α (BioVision, Lyon, France). Antigen retrieval was carried out by microwave for 20 min in 10 mmol/L citrate buffer (pH 6.0). Antibody was diluted 1:100 in blocking solution and applied to the slides, and the slides were incubated at 4°C overnight. Immunohistochemical staining was done by the avidin-biotin complex method (ABC) using the Vectastain Elite ABC system (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). Biotinylated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Vector Laboratories) was used as a secondary antibody at a dilution of 1:500 for 1 hour and visualized using avidin-conjugated alkaline phosphatase complex (ABC kit, Vector laboratories) and Alkaline Phosphatase Substrate Kit (Vector Laboratories). Sections were lightly counterstained with hematoxylin for microscopic examination.

ELISA for MIP1 α in the lung tissues and the supernatants of cell culture

Left lung tissue samples (50-100mg) were thawed, rinsed 3 times with ice cold PBS and homogenized in 1 ml of tissue extraction reagent (PeproTech, London, UK) containing 1% (v/v) Proteinase Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA). The homogenates were clarified by centrifugation at 10,000g, 4°C for 5 min. The protein content in the supernatants was measured with a BCATM Protein assay kit (Pierce). The levels of MIP1 α in the supernatants were measured using rat MIP1 α ELISA Development Kit (Cat#: 900-K75, Peprotech, Inc., Rocky Hill, NJ.) according to the manufacturer's instruction, and expressed as pg/mg lung tissue protein. The levels of MIP1 α in cell culture supernatants were measured as described above and expressed as pg/ml.

Isolation of PAM and exposure of nTiO₂ to PAM cells

Induction and isolation of alveolar macrophages in female SD rats was performed as described previously (Xu et al., 2010). 10⁶ primary alveolar macrophages (PAM) were cultured in RPMI1640 containing 2% fetal bovine serum and antibiotics overnight at 37°C, 5% CO₂. 500 μ g/ml of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ suspensions was then added

to the cultures to a final concentration of 10 μ g/ml and the cells were incubated for another 24 hours. RNA was isolated from the PAM and the level of MIP1 α protein in the conditioned culture media was measured by ELISA.

In vitro cell proliferation assay

A549 cells were seeded into 96-well culture plates at 2 \times 10³ cells per well in 2% fetal bovine serum Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Wako Chemicals Co., Ltd). After overnight incubation, the medium was replaced with the conditioned PAM culture media treated with anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂, and the cells were incubated for another 72 hours, with or without 20 μ g/ml of anti-MIP1 α neutralizing antibody (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN). The relative cell number of A549 cells was determined using a Cell counting Kit-8 (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Rockville, MD) according to the manufacturer's instruction.

Cytotoxicity assay in vitro

A549 cells, the primary human lung fibroblast cell line CCD34 (ECACC, Cat. No. 90110514) and PAM were used for cytotoxicity analyses. Cells were seeded in 96 well plates at 5 \times 10³/well and incubated overnight. The cells were then treated with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ suspensions at final concentrations of 0, 2, 10, or 50 μ g/ml and then incubated for another 24 hours. The relative cell number was determined as described above.

Cytotoxicity of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ under ultraviolet B irradiation

A549 cells were used for analysis of nTiO₂ cytotoxicity under ultraviolet irradiation. First, we determined an irradiation time that did not affect the cell viability as follows: A549 cells were seeded into 96 well plates at 1 \times 10³/well in 200 μ L Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Wako Chemicals Co., Ltd) containing 10% fetal bovine serum and incubated overnight. The cells were irradiated with ultraviolet B (UVB) for 0, 30 sec, 1 min, 2 min, 5 min and 10 min with a transilluminator (Vilber Lourmat, France). The light intensity was 1000 mW/cm², and the emission spectrum was from 270 nm to 330 nm with a peak at 312 nm. The non-irradiated control wells were covered with a sterile aluminium sheet to prevent irradiation. The relative cell number was determined after incubation for 48 hours at 37°C, 5% CO₂.

Next, we observed the effect of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ on cell viability under UVB. A549 cells were seeded into 96 well plate at 1 \times 10³/well in 100 μ L culture media and incubated overnight. Then, 100 μ L of anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ suspensions in DMEM culture medium containing 10% FBS was added into the wells to final concentration of 0, 2, 5 and 10 μ g/ml and incubated for 30 min. The cells were irradiated with UVB for 2 min (2 min UVB irradiation did not affect cell viability), and incubated for another 48 hours, before determination of relative cell number.

Statistical and analysis

Statistical significance of the *in vitro* and *in vivo* findings was analyzed using the two-tailed Student's t-test. *In vitro* and *in vivo* data are presented as means \pm standard

deviations. A value of $p < 0.05$ was considered to be significant.

Results

Characterization of nTiO₂ particles in suspension

TEM images showed that individual anTiO₂ particles were spherical in shape, while individual rnTiO₂ particles had a rod-like shape, and both anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ formed large aggregates in suspension (Figure. 1A and B). Similarly, SEM observation indicated aggregate formation of both types of nTiO₂ particles (Figure. 1C and D). Peaks of titanium (green arrows) and oxygen (blue arrows), which are present in both types of nTiO₂ particles, and carbon (white arrows) and nitrogen (red arrow), which are present in the carbon sheets used in the SEM, were observed by elemental scanning (Figure. 1E and F). Peaks of other elements were not detected in either the rnTiO₂ or anTiO₂ samples. Analyses of particle size showed that the mean and medium diameters were $5.491 \pm 2.727 \mu\text{m}$ and $5.127 \mu\text{m}$ for anTiO₂, and $3.799 \pm 2.231 \mu\text{m}$ and $3.491 \mu\text{m}$ for rnTiO₂ (Figure. 1G), confirming aggregate formation of both types of nTiO₂ particles in suspension.

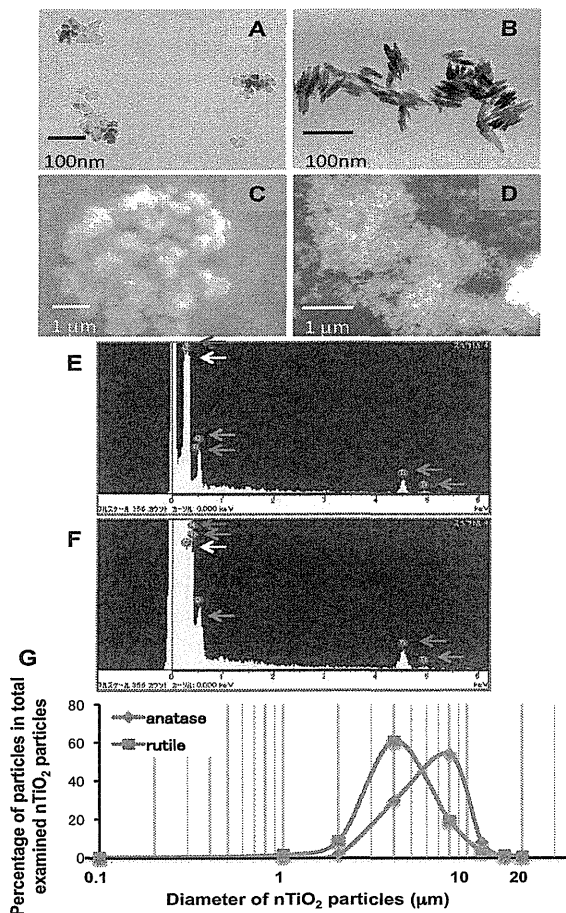


Figure 1. Characterization of nTiO₂ Particles in Suspension. A and B: TEM images of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles in suspension. C and D: SEM images of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles. E and F: Element scanning showed peaks of titanium (green arrows), oxygen (blue arrows), carbon (white arrows) and nitrogen (red arrows) in anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles. G: Size distribution of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ in suspension

Histological observation and 8-OHdG level in the lung tissue

Only a few small lung inflammatory lesions were observed in rats treated with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ (Figure. 2A, B and C). Alveolar macrophage infiltration was found throughout the lung tissue, and most of the alveolar macrophages were seen with phagocytosed anTiO₂ particles or rnTiO₂ particles (Figure. 2D, E and F). TEM observation demonstrated that both anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ were deposited in various sizes in the cytoplasm of the alveolar macrophages (Figure. 2G and H). Neither anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ particles were found in other types of cells in the lung tissue. The number of macrophages per mm² lung tissue section was 67.1 ± 15.8 (saline), 165.0 ± 34.9 (anTiO₂) and 214.2 ± 44.1 (rnTiO₂). The numbers of macrophages in the anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ treated groups was significantly higher than in the control group ($p < 0.001$), and the anTiO₂ treated group had lower macrophage infiltration than the rnTiO₂ treated group.

The level of 8-OHdG, a parameter of oxidative DNA damage caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS), in the lung tissue in rats treated with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ was 1.96 ± 0.77 and 3.07 ± 1.25 (pg per mg DNA), respectively, and was higher than that of the control (1.44 ± 0.63): The increase in 8-OHdG in the lungs of rnTiO₂, but not anTiO₂, treated rats was significantly higher than the control

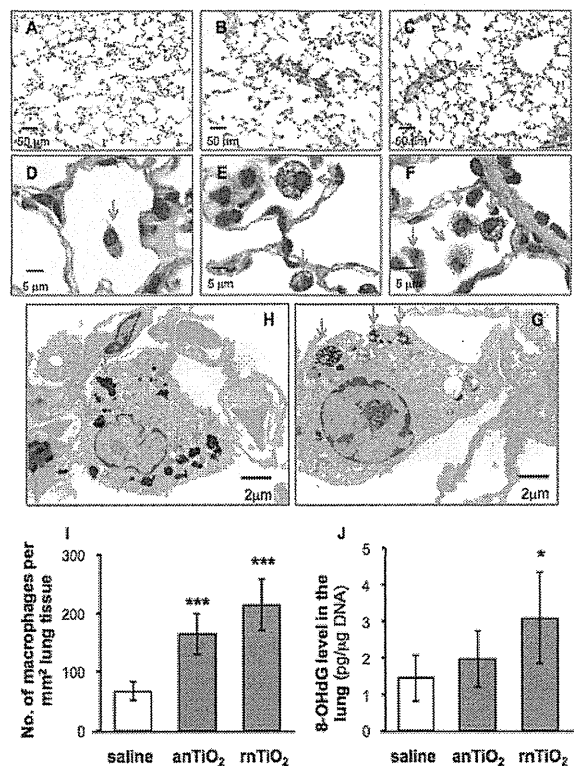


Figure 2. Histological Observation and 8-OHdG Level in the Lung Tissue. A, B and C: Histological images of lung tissue treated with saline, anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂, respectively. Green arrows indicate small inflammatory lesions. D (saline), E (anTiO₂) and F (rnTiO₂): Higher magnification images of alveolar macrophages (brown arrows). nTiO₂ particles are clearly observed. G and H: TEM images of alveolar macrophages with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles in their cytoplasm (blue arrows). I and J: The numbers of alveolar macrophages and 8-OHdG levels in the lung tissue. *, *** represent $p < 0.05$ and 0.001 , respectively, versus saline

($p < 0.05$) (Figure. 2J).

MIP1 α expression in the lung tissue

RT-PCR suggested an increase in MIP1 α mRNA expression in lung tissue treated with anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ (Figure. 3A). Real-time PCR analysis indicated that compared with the control group, the increase was 2.79-fold for anTiO₂ and 5.35-fold for rnTiO₂. MIP1 α mRNA expression was also significantly lower in the anTiO₂ treated group compared to the rnTiO₂ treated group (Figure. 3B). The levels of MIP1 α protein in the lung tissue were 32.8 ± 0.31 and 52.7 ± 0.58 pg/mg lung protein in the anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ treated groups, both significantly higher than that of the control group (20.8 ± 0.24) (Figure. 3C). Similarly to MIP1 α mRNA expression, MIP1 α protein expression was significantly lower in the anTiO₂ treated group compared to the rnTiO₂ treated group.

To find out what cells in the lung accounted for the increased MIP1 α protein expression, we examined tissue samples using MIP1 α immunohistochemistry. As shown in Figure. 3D, E and F, MIP1 α protein was produced by anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ burdened alveolar macrophages.

Exposure of PAMs to anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ and cell proliferation assays in vitro

As in the lung tissue, *in vitro* exposure of PAM to rnTiO₂ induced expression of MIP1 α mRNA (Figure. 4A) and protein (Figure. 4B). Treatment with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ caused 11.96-fold and 15.26-fold increases in the expression of MIP1 α mRNA, respectively, in cultured PAM. The level of MIP1 α protein in the cell culture medium was 32.8 ± 1.1 pg/mL for anTiO₂ and 52.7 ± 1.3 pg/mL for rnTiO₂, significantly higher than that of the control

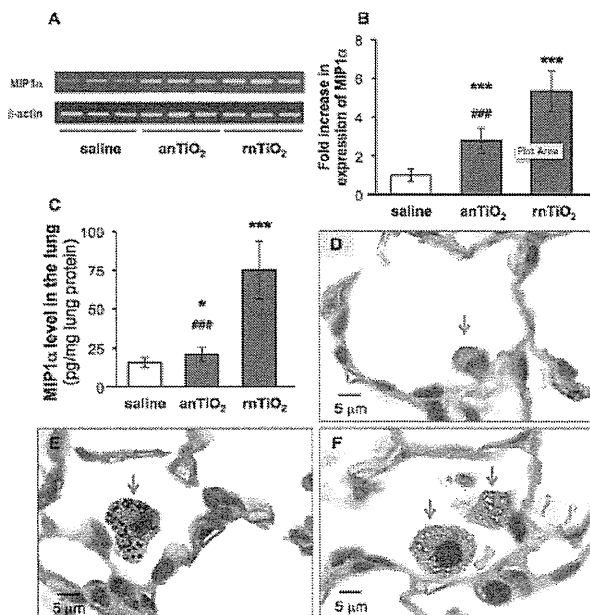


Figure 3. Expression of MIP1 α in the Lung Tissue. A, B and C: Analysis of expression of MIP1 α mRNA by RT-PCR (A) and real-time PCR (B) and protein by ELISA (C). D, E, and F: Immunohistochemistry shows MIP1 α expressed in alveolar macrophages of lung tissue treated with saline (D), anTiO₂ (E) and rnTiO₂ (F). *, *** represent $p < 0.05$ and 0.001 , respectively, versus saline; ### represent $p < 0.001$, versus rnTiO₂

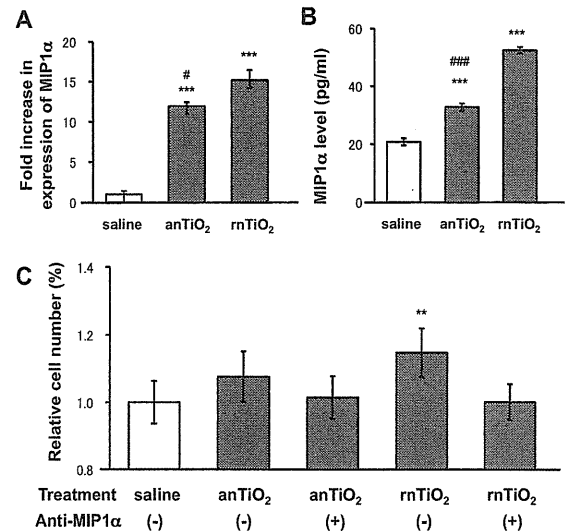


Figure 4. The Effect of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ on PAM Cells. The expression of MIP1 α mRNA in cultured PAM (A) and protein in the culture media (B) indicate that treatment with anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ increased MIP1 α expression in the PAM. Conditioned cell culture media of PAM treated with rnTiO₂, but not anTiO₂, had a significant effect on proliferation of A549 cells, and this promotion was attenuated by addition of 20 μ g/ml MIP1 α neutralizing antibody (C). **, *** represent $p < 0.01$ and 0.001 , versus saline; #, ### represent $p < 0.05$ and 0.001 , versus rnTiO₂

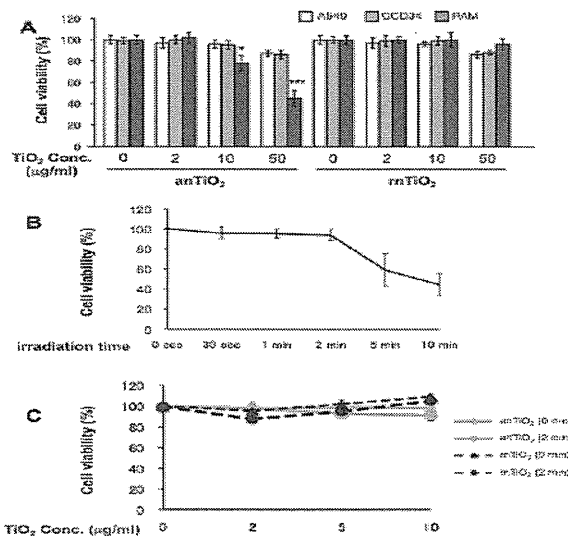


Figure 5. In vitro Assays. A: The effect of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ on the viability of A549, CCD34 and PAM cells. B: The effect of UVB irradiation on the viability of A549 cells. C: The effect of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ on the viability of A549 under UVB irradiation. *, *** represent $p < 0.05$ and 0.001 , versus the vehicle

(20.8 ± 1.2 pg/mL). Both mRNA and protein expression of MIP1 α was significantly lower in the anTiO₂ treated PAM compared to the rnTiO₂ treated cells.

The supernatants of the culture media of PAM treated with anTiO₂ showed only a tendency to increase A549 cell proliferation, while those collected from PAM treated with rnTiO₂ significantly promoted proliferation of A549 cells (115%) compared to supernatants from the saline treated group (Figure. 4C). The promotion effect of the supernatants of PAM cell cultures treated with anTiO₂ or

rnTiO₂ was attenuated by anti-MIP1 α neutralizing antibodies, indicating MIP1 α is probably a mediator of the increase in A549 cell proliferation.

In vitro cytotoxicity assays

In vitro cytotoxicity assays indicated that both anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ had little effect on the cell viability of A549 and CCD34 cells at a concentration of up to 50 mg/ml. anTiO₂ had a cytotoxic effect on the cell viability of PAM at doses of 10 and 50 mg/ml, while rnTiO₂ did not impair the cell viability of PAM at any of the examined concentrations (Figure. 5A).

To investigate whether UVB irradiation affected the cytotoxic effects of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ on cell viability, we first determined the exposure times that ultraviolet B irradiation itself did not impair the viability of A549 cells. As shown in Figure. 5B, irradiation for up to 2 min did not have any effect on the viability of A549 cells. With 2 min of UVB irradiation, neither anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ at doses of 2, 5 or 10 μ g/ml resulted in any decrease in the viability of A549 cells (Figure. 5C).

Discussion

The toxicity of nanoparticles usually includes tiers of biological responses such as induction of ROS and inflammation (Nel et al., 2006). This may contribute to carcinogenic potential (Tsuda et al., 2009). Thus, in the present study, we compared several parameters of inflammation and oxidative stress induced by TIPS of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂. The results indicated that both anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles were phagocytosed by alveolar macrophages and did not cause strong lung inflammation. Treatment with anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ increased alveolar macrophage infiltration, MIP1 α expression and 8-OHdG production: anTiO₂ had less effect than rnTiO₂.

Phagocytosis by alveolar macrophages is a major defense mechanism for deposition and clearance of inhaled particles (Heppleston, 1984; Rom et al., 1991; Geiser et al., 2008). However, activation of alveolar macrophages is strongly associated with inflammatory reactions and ROS production (Renwick et al., 2001; Bhatt et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2007). Also, MIP1 α , secreted from rnTiO₂ burdened alveolar macrophages, is possibly involved in the promotion of lung carcinogenesis (Xu et al., 2010). Similarly, pleural macrophage recruitment and activation are involved in the pathogenesis of asbestos (Choe et al., 1997). These results indicate two contrasting roles of alveolar macrophages in pathogenesis and host defense.

The toxic effects of nanoparticles are dependent on their size, shape, surface functionality and composition (Albanese et al., 2012). In the present study, we used comparable sizes of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles. Both types of nTiO₂ had no surface coating and had no obvious difference in elemental composition. Therefore, differences in alveolar macrophage induction, MIP1 α expression and 8-OHdG production between anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ are likely due to their different crystal structures and shapes. The lower toxicity of anTiO₂ compared to rnTiO₂ in the absence of UVB irradiation in our study

is consistent with a previous *in vitro* study with bulk rutile and anatase TiO₂ (Gurr et al., 2005). In contrast to a previous study (Sayes et al., 2006), in the present study anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ did not exhibit different toxicities on the cell viability of A549 cells under ultraviolet irradiation.

It should be noted that both types of anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles formed aggregates in suspension, and aggregation may alter their bio-reactivity. Whether anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ particles have different long-term effects remains to be clarified.

In conclusion, *in vivo* exposure of the rat lung to anTiO₂ or rnTiO₂ particles increased alveolar macrophage infiltration, MIP1 α expression and 8-OHdG production, with anTiO₂ eliciting lower levels of biological responses than rnTiO₂. Similarly, exposure of primary alveolar macrophages to rnTiO₂ *in vitro* resulted in the cells producing more MIP1 α mRNA and protein than cells exposed to anTiO₂. Cytotoxicity assays *in vitro* indicated that both anTiO₂ and rnTiO₂ had very low cellular toxicity even under UVB irradiation.

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Nanosized zinc oxide particles do not promote DHPN-induced lung carcinogenesis but cause reversible epithelial hyperplasia of terminal bronchioles

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Abstract Zinc oxide (ZnO) is known to induce lung toxicity, including terminal bronchiolar epithelial hyperplasia, which gives rise to concerns that nanosized ZnO (nZnO) might lead to lung carcinogenesis. We studied the tumor promoting activity of nZnO by an initiation–promotion protocol using human *c-Ha-ras* proto-oncogene transgenic rats (*Hras128* rats). The rats were given 0.2 % N-nitrosobis(2-hydroxypropyl)amine (DHPN) in the drinking water for 2 weeks and then treated with 0.5 ml of 250 or 500 µg/ml nZnO suspension by intra-pulmonary spraying once every 2 weeks for a total of 7 times. Treatment

with nZnO particles did not promote DHPN-induced lung carcinogenesis. However, nZnO dose-dependently caused epithelial hyperplasia of terminal bronchioles (EHTB) and fibrosis-associated interstitial pneumonitis (FAIP) that were independent of DHPN treatment. Tracing the fate of EHTB lesions in wild-type rats indicated that the hyperplastic lesions almost completely disappeared within 12 weeks after the last nZnO treatment. Since nZnO particles were not found in the lung and ZnCl₂ solution induced similar lung lesions and gene expression profiles, the observed lesions were most likely caused by dissolved Zn²⁺. In summary, nZnO did not promote carcinogenesis in the lung and induced EHTB and FAIP lesions that regressed rapidly, probably due to clearance of surplus Zn²⁺ from the lung.

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Keywords Nanosized zinc oxide particles · Lung toxicity · Lung carcinogenesis · Epithelial hyperplasia of terminal bronchioles · Interstitial pneumonitis · Lung fibrosis

Introduction

One of the most widely used nanomaterials is nZnO. The worldwide production of nZnO powder is increasing every year and was reported to have reached 1.4 million tons in 2011. It is used in rubber industry and electronics and in commercial products such as sunscreens and paints. In the biomedical field, it is used in baby powders, antiseptic ointments, and zinc oxide tapes to treat a variety of skin conditions (Baldwin et al. 2001; Hughes and McLean 1988). Recently, nZnO has gained interest in cancer applications or as an active anticancer drug (Rasmussen et al. 2010).

Micron or larger-sized ZnO particles are considered to be “Generally Recognized as Safe” (GRAS) in food

additives by the FDA. However, exposure to fumes containing ZnO and other metal particles during welding or galvanizing processes is known to lead to metal fume fever (Antonini et al. 2003; Drinker and Fairhall 1933; Fine et al. 1997). Recent reports have shown that nZnO affects cell viability and induces reactive oxygen species (ROS) in many mammary cell types in tissue culture (Deng et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2008; Xia et al. 2008; Yang et al. 2009), cause proliferation of airway epithelial cells, goblet cell hyperplasia, interstitial pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis (Cho et al. 2011), and reversible inflammatory reaction in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid in animal studies (Sayes et al. 2007; Warheit et al. 2009). nZnO also leads to DNA damage (Kermanzadeh et al. 2012) and micronuclei formation in vitro (Valdiglesias et al. 2013). While these in vitro and in vivo studies have provided some information on acute toxic effects of nZnO on certain cell types and animals, further in vivo studies are needed to determine whether nZnO has chronic toxic effects as in some other metal oxide particles. For example, epidemiological data indicate that exposures of aluminum oxide or iron oxide lead to pneumoconiosis in human (Hull and Abraham 2002; Sano 1963); titanium dioxide has carcinogenic activity in the rat lung (Heinrich et al. 1995; Xu et al. 2010). Such chronic toxicity data will have more impact on risk assessment of nZnO.

Since nZnO induces inflammatory reaction, ROS production, and genotoxicity, which are implicated in cancer development, in the present study, we tested the lung carcinogenicity of nZnO by an initiation–promotion protocol using human *c-Ha-ras* proto-oncogene transgenic (*Hras* 128) rats, which have the same susceptibility to chemically induced lung carcinogenesis as their parent wild-type rats, but are highly susceptible to mammary tumor induction (Tsuda et al. 2005). The results indicated that nZnO did not have promotion effect on DHPN-induced lung and mammary carcinogenesis and caused reversible EHTB and FAIP.

Materials and methods

Animals

Forty-three female transgenic rats carrying the human *c-Ha-RAS* proto-oncogene (*Hras*128 rats) and 42 female wild-type Sprague–Dawley rats were obtained from CLEA Japan Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). The animals were housed in the Animal Center of Nagoya City University Medical School and maintained on a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle and received Oriental MF basal diet (Oriental Yeast Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and water ad libitum. The study was conducted according to the Guidelines for the Care and Use

of Laboratory Animals of Nagoya City University Medical School, and the experimental protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (H22M-19).

Preparation, characterization of nZnO suspensions, and administration of nZnO to the lung

Zinc oxide particles (CAS No. 1314-13-2, MZ-500, without coating, with a mean primary diameter of 25 nm) were obtained from Tayca Cooperation, Osaka, Japan. The particles were suspended in 0.1 % Tween 20 saline at 250 or 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The suspension was sonicated for 20 min to prevent aggregate formation.

Characterization of nZnO was conducted as follows: the shape of nZnO in the suspensions was imaged by transmission electron microscopy (TEM); element analysis was performed by an X-ray microanalyzer (EDAX, Tokyo, Japan), after aliquots of nZnO were loaded on a carbon sheet; the size distribution of nZnO in the 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ suspension was analyzed using a Particle Size Distribution Analyzer (Shimadzu Techno-Research, Inc., Kyoto, Japan). The characterization results are shown in Figure S1.

Before being administrated to rats, the nZnO suspensions were further sonicated for 20 min. 0.5 ml of the nZnO suspensions was administrated to the lung by intra-pulmonary spraying (IPS) as described previously (Xu et al. 2010).

Carcinogenicity study

The carcinogenic activity of nZnO was assessed in female *Hras*128 rats using an initiation–promotion protocol by which we used previously to evaluate lung and mammary carcinogenicity of titanium dioxide nanoparticles (Xu et al. 2010). Briefly, three groups of 10–11 female *Hras*128 rats aged 6 weeks were given 0.2 % DHPN (Wako Chemicals, Co., Ltd. Osaka, Japan) in the drinking water for 2 weeks, and Groups 4 and 5 (6 rats each) were given drinking water without DHPN. Two weeks later, Group 1 and Group 4 were administered 0.1 % Tween 20 saline, and Group 2, Group 3, and Group 5 were administered 250, 500, and 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ nZnO suspensions by IPS once every two weeks from the end of week 4 to week 16, a total of 7 times. The total amounts of nZnO administered to Groups 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were 0, 0.875, 1.75, 0, and 1.75 mg/rat, respectively. The dosing was determined according to the permissible exposure limit for zinc oxide particles of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) (see Discussion). Three days after the last treatment, animals were killed and the organs (brain, lung, liver, spleen, kidney, mammary gland, ovaries, uterus, and neck lymph nodes) were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde in PBS buffer adjusted to pH 7.3 and processed for histological examination and transmission electron microscopy (TEM).

Light microscopy, polarized light microscopy, and transmission electron microscopy

Hematoxylin–Eosin (H&E)-stained pathological slides of the lung and other major organs were used to observe nZnO with a light microscope and polarized light microscope (PLM) (Olympus BX51N-31P-O polarized light microscope, Tokyo, Japan) at 1,000× magnification. Localization of the illuminated particles was confirmed in the same H&E-stained sections after removing the polarizing filter.

Paraffin blocks were deparaffinized and embedded in epon resin and processed for nZnO observation and zinc element analysis, using a JEM-1010 transmission electron microscope (TEM) (JEOL, Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with an X-ray microanalyzer (EDAX, Tokyo, Japan).

Immunohistochemistry and Azan–Mallory staining

PCNA was detected using an anti-PCNA monoclonal antibody (Clone PC10, Dako Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan). The antibody was diluted 1:200 in blocking solution and applied to deparaffinized slides, and the slides were incubated at 4 °C overnight. The slides were then incubated for 1 h with biotinylated species-specific secondary antibodies diluted 1:500 (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and visualized using avidin-conjugated horseradish peroxidase complex (ABC kit, Vector Laboratories). To assess lung fibrosis, paraffin-embedded slides were deparaffinized, and collagen fibers were visualized by Azan–Mallory staining.

Reversibility study and effects of ZnCl₂ solution

To assess whether nZnO-induced terminal bronchiolar epithelial hyperplasia, interstitial pneumonitis, and lung fibrosis are reversible, we conducted reversibility experiments. Seven groups of 5 female wild-type Sprague–Dawley rats aged 10 weeks were administered 0.5 ml of 0.1 % Tween 20 saline or 500 µg/ml nZnO suspension by IPS 2 times per week for 4 weeks. Group 1 was treated with 0.1 % Tween 20 saline and killed 1 day after the last IPS. Groups 2–7 were treated with 0.5 ml of 500 µg/ml nZnO suspension and killed at 1 day and 2, 4, 6, 8, and 12 weeks after the last IPS. For the comparison of the effects of zinc ion and nZnO, Group 8 was treated with 0.5 ml of 6.17 mM ZnCl₂ solution (the molecular amount is equal to that of 500 µg/ml nZnO suspension) by IPS at the same frequency and time period as the nZnO groups and killed 1 day after the last IPS. The left lung was cut into pieces and frozen in liquid nitrogen for biochemical analysis, and the right lung was processed for histological examination. Other major organs were excised for histological examination, and the blood was collected for cytological and biochemical analysis.

Gene expression analysis

The left lungs from Groups 1, 2, and 8 in the reversibility study described above were used for isolation of RNA. RNA was isolated by using TRizol reagent (Invitrogen of Life Technologies, CA).

For microarray analysis, 1 µg RNA from each rat of Group 1 was combined and 1 µg RNA from each rat of Group 2 was combined. The quality of the 2 mixtures of RNA samples was assessed and quantified using the Agilent 2100 BioAnalyzer RNA Nano chip system (Agilent Technologies, CA) prior to further manipulation. Microarray analysis was conducted by the 3-D Gene Chip (Toray Industries Inc., Kanagawa, Japan), and a total of 20,000 genes were analyzed. Microarray-based pathway analysis was performed by Toray Industries Inc., Kanagawa, Japan.

For reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) and real-time PCR, first-strand cDNA synthesis from 1 µg of RNA was performed using SuperScript™ III First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen of Life Technologies, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Primers are as follows: forward primer, 5'-TAGAATCGAGGTGCACAGGAGT-3', reverse primer, 5'-TATTCCAGCAGGCTGTCAAAGA-3', product size, 228 bp for *Orm1*; forward primer, 5'-AAGTG-GAGGAGCAGCTGGAGTGG-3', reverse primer, 5'-CCA AAGTAGACCTGCCCGGACTC-3', product size, 155 bp for *Tnfa*, and forward primer, 5'-AGCCATGTACGTAG CCATCC-3', reverse primer, 5'-CTCTCAGCTGTGGTGG TGAA-3', product size, 228 bp for *Actb*. RT-PCR was conducted using an iCycler (BioRad Life Sciences, CA) as follows: 95 °C 20 s, 60 °C 20 s, 72 °C 30 s, 30 cycles for *Orm1*; 95 °C 20 s, 60 °C 20 s, 72 °C 20 s, 25 cycles for *Tnfa*, and 95 °C 20 s, 60 °C 20 s, 72 °C 30 s, 15 cycles for *Actb*. Real-time PCR analysis of *Orm1* and *Tnfa* gene expression was performed with the 7300 real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystem, CA) using the premix reagent Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystem, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The *Actb* gene was used as the normalizing reference gene.

Determination of zinc ion

For detection of Zn²⁺ content in the lung tissue, 50–100 mg of the frozen lung tissues from the reversibility study described above were thawed at room temperature, rinsed with cold PBS 3 times, and homogenized for 30 s at the highest speed in 1 ml of T-PER, tissue protein extraction reagent (Pierce, Rockford, IL), with Polytron R PT 2100 homogenizer (Capitol Scientific Inc., TX). The homogenates were clarified by centrifugation at 10,000×g for 15 min at 4 °C, and the supernatants were used for Zn²⁺

detection. Zn^{2+} detection was performed using Quanti-Chrom™ Zinc Assay kit (BioAssay Systems, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

In vitro nZnO dissolution assay

5 μ l of 500 μ g/ml nZnO suspension (2.5 μ g/tube) and increasing amounts of 1 mg/ml human α 1 acid glycoprotein (Sigma-Aldrich, product number G9885) or bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich, product number A2058) were added to microtubes, and the total volume of each tube was adjusted to 100 μ l with 0.1 % Tween 20 saline. The final protein concentration of human α 1 acid glycoprotein or bovine serum albumin was 0, 100, 200, 300, 400, and 500 μ g/ml. The tubes were then incubated at 37 °C for 2 h. The nZnO particles were removed by centrifugation at 10,000 \times g for 5 min, and Zn^{2+} concentration in the supernatants was determined as described above.

In vitro cytotoxicity assay

The induction and preparation of rat primary alveolar macrophages (PAM) has been described (Xu et al. 2010). 5×10^3 PAMs, 1×10^3 A549 cells (human lung adenocarcinoma cell line), and 2×10^3 CCD34 cells (human lung fibroblast cell line) were seeded into 96-well culture plates and cultured overnight in 100 ml of RPMI 1,640 containing 10 % FBS. The cells were added with nZnO suspension or ZnCl₂ solution to final concentrations of 0, 1, 5, or 25 μ g/ml of nZnO and 0, 12.3, 61.7, or 308.6 nM of ZnCl₂ (1, 5, and 25 μ g/ml of nZnO are equal to 12.3, 61.7, and 308.6 nM of ZnCl₂, respectively, in the amount of zinc element) and incubated for another 72 h. The cell viability was then determined using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Rockville, MD) according to the manufacturer's instruction.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA. Statistical significance was analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. A *p* value of <0.05 was considered to be significant.

Results

Carcinogenesis study in Hras128 rats

DHPN-induced lung alveolar cell hyperplasia and adenoma development was used for the end point observation to assess the carcinogenicity of nZnO in our medium-term assay. As shown in Table 1, the incidence and multiplicity (number/cm² lung tissue section) of

Table 1 Effect of nZnO on lung proliferative lesions in H128-ras rats

Treatment	No. of rats	DHPN-induced proliferative lesions				DHPN-independent EHTB ^a	
		ACH ^a Inc. (%)	Multiplicity ^b (no./cm ² lung)	Ade ^a Inc. (%)	Multiplicity ^b (no./cm ² lung)	ACH + Ade Inc. (%)	Multiplicity ^b (no./cm ² lung)
DHPN + vehicle	11	11 (100)	2.43 ± 1.29	2 (18.1)	0.09 ± 0.20	11 (100)	2.52 ± 1.26
DHPN + 250 μ g/ml nZnO	10	10 (100)	1.64 ± 1.09	3 (30.0)	0.12 ± 0.19	10 (100)	1.76 ± 1.03
DHPN + 500 μ g/ml nZnO	10	10 (100)	1.83 ± 1.05	5 (50.0)	0.30 ± 0.31	10 (100)	2.13 ± 1.23
Vehicle	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
500 μ g/ml nZnO	6	2 (33.3)	0.16 ± 0.26	0	0	2 (33.3)	0.16 ± 0.26

^a ACH, Ade, EHTB, and Inc. are abbreviations for alveolar cell hyperplasia, adenoma, epithelial hyperplasia of terminal bronchioles, and incidence, respectively

^b Multiplicity is expressed as mean ± s.d

*** and **** represent *p* values <0.01 and 0.001, respectively, versus DHPN + vehicle or vehicle

alveolar cell hyperplasia and adenoma in the groups treated with nZnO were not significantly different from the DHPN alone group. In the rats which received nZnO treatment without prior DHPN treatment, alveolar cell proliferation foci, recognized as thickening of the alveolar wall with proliferative alveolar epithelium, were observed, but significant differences from the saline group were not observed. In the mammary gland,

significant inter-group difference in incidence and multiplicity of mammary tumors was also not observed (data not shown).

A notable lesion induced in all the nZnO-treated groups was epithelial hyperplasia of terminal bronchioles (EHTB). The EHTB lesions had increased cell density, often with the epithelial cells arranged in 1–3 layers, and partly extended bronchiolar structures with transition to the normal

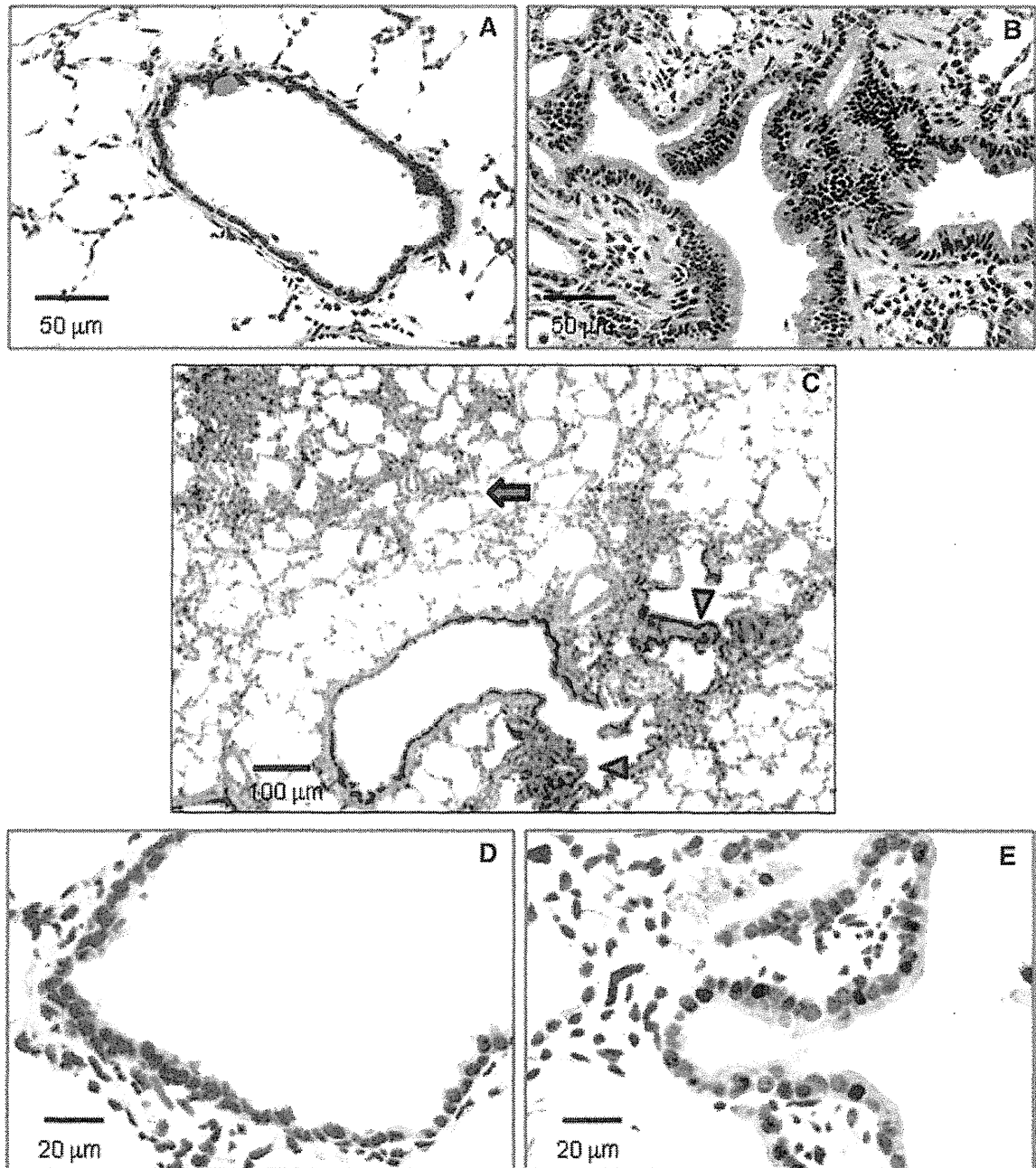


Fig. 1 Induction of EHTB by nZnO. **a** representative normal terminal bronchiolar epithelium (NTBE); **b** EHTB in H&E-stained slides; **c** images and localizations of DHPN-induced alveolar hyperplasia

(*arrow*) and nZnO-induced EHTB (*arrow heads*); **d** images of PCNA immunostaining in NTBE; and **e** in EHTB