Title:
Relationship between in vivo and in vitro toxicity of six types of carbonaceous nanoparticles

At present it is commonly hypothesised that the toxicity of ultrafine soot particles is largely driven by adsorbed redox-active components (e.g. polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)), which participate in redox-cycling reactions generating reactive oxygen species (ROS). These ROS can cause oxidative stress responses that may result in pulmonary or even systemic inflammation. Ultimately, these processes may promote the progression of atherosclerosis and precipitate acute cardiovascular responses ranging from increased blood pressure to myocardial infarction. The objective of the present study is to assess whether the inflammatory response of mice (in vivo toxicity) to combustion-derived nanoparticles (CDNPs) can be predicted by the combined information from a cell-free in vitro test for oxidative potency and an in vivo gene expression analysis targeting inflammation, stress and detoxification related genes.

Six types of carbonaceous particles were either purchased (Diesel SRM-1650a (DEP), PrintexG and Printex90) or generated in our laboratory. The latter comprised ultrafine carbon particles (UfCP) generated by spark-discharge, as well as soot particles with high and low organic content (SootH, SootL) produced by a well-controlled propane diffusion flame (CAST burner). These particle types had
widely varying (primary) particle diameter (10-50nm), organic content (OC; 1-20%) and specific BET surface area (43-800m$^2$/g). The *in vivo* toxicity was based on the response of BALB/cJ mice (21.1±1g) to particle exposure was based on the influx of polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs) into the lungs 24h after intratracheal instillation of these particles (Stoeger et al., 2006). Using this data we defined the inflammatory efficacy ($I_{Ef}$ [%PMN/µg]) as the 20% PMN effect level divided by the particle mass causing this effect level. The particles’ innate oxidative potency (OxPot) was determined by a cell-free *in vitro* assay the consumption (in nmol) of an antioxidant standard (ascorbate).

We found that OxPot showed a strong linear correlation ($R^2=0.77$) with the *in vivo* inflammatory response ($I_{Ef}$) (Figure 1). The most obvious outlier was high-organics flame soot (SootH, OC=19%), for which the *in vitro* test clearly underestimated the *in vivo* toxicity. Since this was not observed at the same level for DEP, the other high-OC sample (OC=20%), OC alone could not account for this discrepancy. Gene expression analysis of 11 selected detoxification enzymes revealed that the only gene, which was specifically upregulated by SootH (3.9 fold) and DEP (1.6 fold), was the xenobiotic-metabolizing enzyme Cyp1a1. Cyp1a1 is well known to be highly inducible by bioavailable organic compounds, like aromatic hydrocarbons which. Thus the induction of Cyp1a1 by SootH, and to a lesser extent by DEP, indicated that the bioavailability of OC plays an important role for their toxicity. If we include the Cyp1a1 gene expression as independent parameter into a linear model, 94% of the observed variability in $I_{Ef}$ can be explained by OxPot and Cyp1a1, while OxPot alone only accounts for 77% of the variability.

![Figure 1. In vitro oxidative potency and in vivo inflammatory efficacy of the six types of CDNPs](image)

Thus our data suggests that while organic coating might mitigate *in vivo* inflammatory response by possibly shielding the oxidative potency of the carbon core of CDNPs, CYP1A1 enzyme mediated biotransformation of organics may generate oxidative stress and thus enhance the *in vivo* inflammatory response.

Moreover the analysis presented here can be used to derive a simple, quantitative model for predicting the *in vivo* toxicity of CDNPs based on a simple *in vitro* assay for oxidative potency and (*in vivo*) Cyp1a1 gene or protein expression. As a first approach we perform a linear regression (forced through
the origin) with the ascorbate based in vitro test \( (Ox_{Pot}) \) as independent and inflammatory efficacy as dependent parameter to obtain \( I_{Ef} = 5.14Ox_{Pot} [nmol/\mu g] \) (equation 1). As a second approach we model the in vivo inflammatory efficacy as linear function of both \( Ox_{Pot} \) and \( Cyp1a1 \) gene expression \( (GE_{Cyp1a1} \) expressed as fold induction after instillation of \( 20\mu g \) particles) yielding, \( I_{Ef} = 5.05Ox_{Pot} [nmol/\mu g] + 0.509(GE_{Cyp1a1} - 1) \) (equation 2), where we set \( GE_{Cyp1a1} \) to unity (no contribution from pathway 2), if \( Cyp1a1 \) was down-regulated (<1). As seen from Figure 2 (left panel) the 1 parameter model (pathway 1 only; equ. 1) explains only 77% of the observed variability in inflammatory efficacy, while the 2 parameter model, which considers contributions from pathways 1 and 2 (equ. 2), explains 94%. This indicates that both pathways contribute to the observed inflammatory efficacy. Since the small data set (six data points) required limiting the number of independent fit parameters, we reduced the number of fit parameters to two by assuming linearity (through the origin) and independence of pathways 1 and 2 (see equ. 2).

![Figure 2: Predictive capacity of two simple linear models for the measured inflammatory efficacy.](image)

While this is likely to be only a crude approximation for complex biological systems, the agreement between measured and modeled inflammatory efficacy is remarkable. Since our expression data is still derived from in vivo experiments, this model for toxicity prediction still requires animal exposures, although at a reduced amount. However, if future research will provide a means of obtaining \( Cyp1a1 \) expression data from cell lines exposure, the toxicological model presented here may provide a true alternative to animal exposures.

Reference:
Stoeger et al. (2006). Environ. Health Presp., 114, 328-333
Relationship between *in vivo* and *in vitro* toxicity of six types of carbonaceous nanoparticles

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Institute of Inhalation Biology

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Sources of Particle Induced Oxidative Stress

General Model

Particles
(low solubility / low toxicity)

PM-Cell Interactions

Oxidative Stress / ROS

Inflammatory Response

Lung Epithelium

Sources for Oxidative Stress

Formation of Reactive Oxygen Species

structural surface properties

organic compounds (PAH)

transition metals

Lung Disease
(fibrosis, lung cancer…)

…Cardiovascular Disease

? Can we differentiate sources of oxidative stress / inflammation?
Investigated Carbonaceous Nanoparticles

PrintexG (30-60 nm)

DEP (18-30 nm)

Printex90 (12-17 nm)

SootH (8-16 nm)

SootL (8-14 nm)

UfCP (7-12 nm)
# Investigated Carbonaceous Nanoparticles

## Particle Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NPs</th>
<th>Diameter [nm]</th>
<th>Org. Content [%]</th>
<th>BET surface [m²/g]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEP</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PtxG</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
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<td>Ptx90</td>
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<td>UfCP</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>&lt;4</td>
<td>600</td>
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</tbody>
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- **Pigment Black**: Printex90, PrintexG
- **Spark Discharge**: UfCP
- **Flame Soot**: SootH, SootL
- **Diesel Exhaust Particles**: DEP SRM1650a

The graph shows the relationship between the BET surface area and the organic mass content of the nanoparticles.
How to Assess Oxidative Reactivity of Nanoparticles?

Oxidative potency of NPs assessed in a cell free system:
Consumption of the anti-oxidative capacity of ascorbate as a measure for the oxidative surface reactivity.

Ox.St
Oxidative Stress

Consumes

Ascorbate

ascorbate

L-dehydro-ascorbate

Ox.Str.

ASC-H2

ASC-Ox

PHOTOCHEM
quantiatation of antioxidative capacity

fast photochemical excitation of radical formation combined with sensitive luminometric detection
Oxidative Reactivity / Potency of Nanoparticles, A Function of their Surface Area?

Oxidative Effect

Consumed Ascorbat [nmol]

- 5 μg
- 1 μg
- 0.2 μg

- UfCP
- SootL
- SootH
- Ptx90
- DEP
- PtxG

Oxidative Potency [nmol/μg]

BET Surface Area [m^2/g=mm^2/μg]

y = 0.0011x + 0.0107
R^2 = 0.9438
Inflammatory Efficacy of Nanoparticles, a Function of their Surface Area?
Can Oxidative Potency Predict the Inflammatory Efficacy of Nanoparticles?

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![Graph](image)

\[ y = 5.135x \]
\[ R^2 = 0.772 \]

All but not SootH particles follow the relation! Why?
Bioavailability of Organic Compounds Investigated by Gene Expression Analysis

Cyp1a1 expression matches well with the “Oxidative Potency” / “Inflammatory Efficacy” discrepancy
Pathways that Contribute to the Particle Induced Inflammatory Response

Surface Reactivity
- Innate Oxidative Potency
- Oxidative Stress

Organic Compounds
- Bioactivation
- Transformation

Detoxification
- Phase I: Cyp1a1
- Phase II: Gst, Nqo1

Inflammatory Response

Redox-Sensitive Signaling

Adducts Oxidative stress Toxicity

HelmholtzZentrum münchen
German Research Center for Environmental Health
Quantitative Model for Inflammatory Efficacy: A Two Pathway Concept

Oxidative Potency = Surface Reactivity Only:

Surface Reactivity + Metabolic Activation:

\[ I_{Ef} = 5.14 O_{x_{pot}} \left[ \text{nmol/\mu g} \right] \]

\[ I_{Ef} = 5.05 O_{x_{pot}} \left[ \text{nmol/\mu g} \right] + 0.509 \left( GE_{Cyp1a1} - 1 \right) \]
Conclusions

- Surface Toxicity is of major importance

- Toxicity of Carbonaceous Nanoparticles not only depending on organic contribution
  
  SootL (1.7) even exceeds inflammatory efficacy of SootH (2.5)
  
  ⇒ *Impact on toxicity of modern DEP (low OC high OxPot)*?

- Toxicity or inflammatory efficacy can be predicted by a two parameter model that involves:
  
  1. Oxidative potency (*cell free assay*)
  2. *Induction of Cyp1a1 gene expression*
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