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**APPLICATION OF PROFLUORESCENT NITROXIDES FOR MEASUREMENTS
OF OXIDATIVE CAPACITY OF COMBUSTION GENERATED PARTICLES**

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ABSTRACT

Oxidative stress caused by generation of free radicals and related reactive oxygen species (ROS) at the sites of deposition has been proposed as a mechanism for many of the adverse health outcomes associated with exposure to particulate matter (PM). Recently, a new profluorescent nitroxide molecular probe (BPEAnit) developed at QUT was applied in an entirely novel, rapid and non-cell based assay for assessing the oxidative potential of particles (i.e. potential of particles to induce oxidative stress). The technique was applied on particles produced by several combustion sources, namely cigarette smoke, diesel exhaust and wood smoke. One of the main findings from the initial studies undertaken at QUT was that the oxidative potential per PM mass significantly varies for different combustion sources as well as the type of fuel used and combustion conditions. However, possibly the most important finding from our studies was that there was a strong correlation between the organic fraction of particles and the oxidative potential measured by the PFN assay, which clearly highlights the importance of organic species in particle-induced toxicity.

KEY WORDS: combustion particles, diesel particles (DPM), oxidative stress, reactive oxygen species (ROS).

1 1. INTRODUCTION

2

3 Particulate pollution has been widely recognised as an important risk factor to human health
4 with \$3.7 billion spent on respiratory diseases in Australia alone. Epidemiological studies
5 have established strong associations between exposure to ambient particulate matter and
6 increased respiratory and cardiovascular disease morbidity and mortality, particularly among
7 individuals with pre-existing cardiopulmonary diseases [1]. Recently the International
8 Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), which is part of the World Health Organization
9 (WHO), classified diesel engine exhaust as carcinogenic to humans (Group 1) on the 12th
10 June 2012, based on sufficient evidence that exposure increases risk for lung cancer. To
11 develop methods that could help to mitigate the adverse health outcomes induced by PM, it is
12 important to know the PM properties and the mechanism(s) that are responsible for PM
13 toxicity. Identification of the PM properties that are the most relevant for promoting adverse
14 health effects is crucial not only for our mechanistic understanding but also for the
15 implementation of strategies for improving air quality. Despite the availability of a huge body
16 of research, the underlying toxicological mechanisms by which particles induce adverse
17 health effects are not yet entirely understood.

18

19 One of the important aspects of environmental sciences in the last decade was to identify the
20 physical and chemical characteristics of ambient PM responsible for its health effects and
21 within that scope, particle size, surface area and chemical components, such as metals and
22 certain classes of organics (e.g. quinones) have been implicated in PM-induced health effects
23 and more specifically, in the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS).

24

25 ROS can be formed endogenously, by the lung tissue cells, during the phagocytic processes
26 initiated by the presence of PM in the lungs, or by particle-related chemical species that have
27 the potential to generate ROS. In addition to the particle-induced generation of ROS, several
28 recent studies have shown that particles may also contain ROS (so called, exogenous ROS).
29 As such, they present a direct cause of oxidative stress and related adverse health effects and
30 the hypothesis that particles contain or produce ROS is the driving force for this research
31 project.

32

33 It is a reasonable assumption that exogenous ROS can cause the same responses (oxidative
34 stress) in the cell as endogenously formed ROS. Therefore, a rapid screening assay able to

35 evaluate PM oxidative potential in terms of their inherent ROS, and therefore their ability to
36 cause oxidative stress, would be beneficial for gaining better understanding about the nature
37 of the particles most relevant for their negative health impact. Such a screen would also
38 provide a helpful tool in efforts to further improve air quality and protect public health. To
39 address this need we have developed a methodology for quantitative detection of the
40 oxidative capacity of airborne nanoparticles based on in-house developed profluorescent
41 nitroxide molecules. This methodology has been evaluated on combustion-generated
42 particles. Correlations between various particle properties and their oxidative capacity, as
43 measured by our molecular probes, will be discussed.

44

45 **2. METHODOLOGY**

46

47 Cellular responses to oxidative stress have been widely investigated using various cell
48 exposure assays ([2-5]. However, in order to provide a rapid screening test for the oxidative
49 potential of PM, less time-consuming and cheaper, cell-free (or acellular) assays are
50 necessary.

51 The only analytical approach that permits the direct detection and quantification of radical
52 species is electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR). This method allows the quantification as
53 well as specific identification of the free radical species generated when specific spin traps or
54 probes are used in the combination with specific reagents. Apart from the complexity and
55 high price of the instrument, a potential pitfall of EPR-based measurements of ROS
56 formation by nanoparticles may result from chemical or physical interference with spin-
57 trapping agents, and could be checked by the analysis of specific ROS donor systems (e.g.
58 xanthine /xanthine oxidase, H₂O₂/Fe) spiked with nanoparticles [6]. Several cell-free
59 approaches have been used to explore oxidative potential of PM in a quantitative manner.
60 They all have certain limitations, do not provide directly comparable results and, to date,
61 none of these assays has been acknowledged as the best acellular assay and none have yet
62 been widely adopted for investigation of potential PM toxicity.

63 A number of assays are available such as DTT[7], POHPAA[8], DCFH[9], DHR-6G[10]
64 assays as well as the ascorbate depletion test[11].

65 However, DTT is reactive towards limited number of species, it requires an additional step
66 that may be a potential source of an experimental error and also the usage of this probe
67 requires an incubation time of up to 90 mins [7]. On the other hand, DCFH is prone to
68 autooxidation and thus brings into question the suitability of this assay. Also, DHR-6G is air

69 sensitive and photo-sensitive which limits its performance as either oxygen or light can
70 produce significant background fluorescence

71 Out of all of the assays the fluorescence-based ones have been most commonly used in the
72 quantification of PM-related ROS, primarily due to the high sensitivity of fluorescence
73 detection. They are based on non-fluorescent or weakly fluorescent molecules that yield
74 fluorescent products upon reacting with ROS.

75
76 Nitroxides are well-known as effective quenchers of excited states of fluorescent moieties.
77 During the past seven years numerous nitroxides have been synthesized at QUT [12]. These
78 nitroxides possess fluorophore covalently bound within the structure whereas most of the
79 other nitroxide-fluorophore adducts used by other researchers have labile covalent linkages
80 that are prone to hydrolysis and resulting separation of the nitroxide from the fluorophore.
81 This important feature makes the QUT probes superior to previously synthesized nitroxides
82 because of their enhanced chemical and thermal stability. All these nitroxide containing
83 fluorophores display substantial fluorescence suppression. Also, they have the same
84 excitation and emission maxima as the fluorophore itself. Some of these nitroxides,
85 synthesized at QUT are shown in the Figure 1 together with their excitation and emission
86 wavelengths. These molecules react with radicals, leading either to reduction of the
87 nitroxides to the hydroxylamines or oxidation to oxoammonium cation. The measure of the
88 number of radicals trapped by the nitroxides or other redox reactions that occur is the
89 intensity of the fluorescence emission. These nitroxides are classified as profluorescent
90 according to the fact that they are initially weakly fluorescent, but can be transformed into a
91 fluorescent form after a simple chemical reaction. Taking into account the above, these
92 molecules can serve as powerful optical sensors applicable as detectors of free radicals and
93 dynamic fluorescent indicators of the overall redox environment in cellular systems (redox
94 active agents).

95

96 **Figure 1.**

97

98 A number of profluorescent nitroxide probes were evaluated [13] for their ability to detect
99 and quantify ROS associated with combustion generated particles. Out of all of the evaluated
100 probes 9,10-bis(phenylethynyl)anthracene-nitroxide (BPEAnit) was chosen as the most
101 appropriate for use with combustion generated particles [14]. The excitation and emission

102 wavelength of the BPEAnit are long enough to avoid overlapping with the background
103 fluorescence coming from optically active compounds which may be present in PM.

104

105 BPEAnit has been applied *in situ* to assess the oxidative potential of cigarette smoke [14],
106 diesel particle matter (DPM) [15-17] and wood smoke [18]. Samples were collected by
107 bubbling aerosol through an impinger containing 20 mL of 4 μ M BPEAnit solution (using
108 AR grade dimethylsulphoxide as a solvent) followed by fluorescence measurements with a
109 spectrofluorometer (Ocean Optics). The amount of BPEAnit reacting with the combustion
110 aerosol was calculated from a standard curve obtained by plotting known concentrations of
111 the methyl adduct of BPEAnit (BPEAnit-Me; fluorescent) against the fluorescence intensity
112 at 485 nm. For each setting and particulate source, two samples were taken. The first one
113 was the result from the exposure of BPEA solution to the particle-free gas phase, which was
114 done by placing HEPA-filter between an impinger and an aerosol source. Test sample was
115 collected upon exposure to both the particle and the gas phase, demonstrating the effect of the
116 particle-related ROS. Based on the difference in fluorescence signals at 485 nm between the
117 test and HEPA-filtered control sample, the amount of particle-associated ROS emitted for
118 each test sample was calculated and normalised to the particle mass to give ROS
119 concentrations (nmol/mg).

120

121 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

122

123 To investigate the use of the profluorescent nitroxide BPEAnit to detect ROS present in
124 combustion-generated particles using fluorescence spectroscopy initial experiments were
125 conducted with cigarette smoke. As one of the most common combustion-generated aerosols
126 and due to its easy generation, it was taken as a model aerosol. Sampling mainstream
127 cigarette smoke gave a linear increase of fluorescence intensity with increasing number of
128 puffs with this pattern being reproducible, although values varied with each individual
129 cigarette. Sampling much lower concentrations of particles as produced by sidestream
130 cigarette smoke generated in a test chamber also gave increased fluorescence intensity with
131 increased sampling time. Since the increase of signal was well above the detection limit, we
132 have clearly shown the capability of this approach to be successful in determining the levels
133 and potential toxicological impact of ROS in general studies where near ambient
134 concentrations of particles are observed. By being able to omit the derivatisation step, and by

135 undertaking fluorescence measurements immediately after the sampling, we demonstrated the
136 potential for these probes for the future development of real time ROS detectors.

137

138 The BPEAnit was used to further study the potential toxicological impact of particles
139 produced during biomass combustion by an automatic pellet boiler and a traditional logwood
140 stove under various combustion conditions [18]. The fluorescence of BPEAnit was measured
141 for particles produced during various combustion phases, at the beginning of burning (cold
142 start), stable combustion after refilling with the fuel (warm start) and poor burning
143 conditions. For particles produced by the logwood stove under cold-start conditions
144 significantly higher amounts of reactive species per unit of particulate mass were observed
145 compared to emissions produced during a warm start. In addition, sampling of logwood
146 burning emissions after removing all the semivolatile species resulted in an 80-100%
147 reduction of the fluorescence signal of BPEAnit probe, indicating that the majority of
148 reactive species were semivolatile. A significant reduction in PM oxidative potential after
149 thermal conditioning was also observed by Biswas and co-workers [19] who used a
150 dithiothreitol (DTT) assay to measure the oxidative potential of particulate matter produced
151 by heavy-duty vehicles. As a further support of the role of organic species in particle induced
152 oxidative stress, we observed strong correlations ($r = 0.85$ and 0.99) between the amount of
153 ROS and the mass fraction of organic species in the PM during cold-start stable combustion
154 and warm-start combustion (Figure 2).

155

156 **Figure 2.**

157

158 The profluorescent nitroxide probe was also applied to study the oxidative potential of DPM.
159 Emissions from various alternative fuels and diesel engine technologies were investigated.
160 Fuels investigated included ethanol [20], Fischer-Tropsch diesel (gas to liquid) [16] and
161 various biodiesel stocks (soy, canola, tallow) in various blend percentages [15]. A similar
162 picture as with the wood combustion also emerged with a good correlation between the
163 particle volatile organic content and ROS concentration being observed.

164 Particles from sidestream cigarette smoke were shown to have 4-9 and 30-80 times less ROS
165 per unit of mass than particles produced during warm- start and cold-start logwood
166 combustion, respectively. This finding sheds a new light on logwood smoke particles and
167 draws attention to the importance of expanding the knowledge on the toxicological properties

168 of wood smoke particles. Diesel exhaust particles generated under full engine load were
169 found to have similar ROS concentrations as sidestream cigarette smoke particle

170

171 **Figure 3.**

172

173 These studies also provided an opportunity to look into the correlation between the physical
174 properties of DPM and oxidative capacity of particles measured as the concentration of ROS.
175 Toxicological studies, such as [21], have pointed to the particle surface area as a potential
176 metric for assessing the health effects of PM. The surface area of a particle provides a
177 measure of the ability of toxic compounds (such as PAHs or ROS) to adsorb or condense
178 upon it. Polycyclic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) are the principal pollutants from incomplete
179 combustion, and are of special interest due to their toxicity, carcinogenicity, and ubiquitous
180 presence in the environment [22]. Therefore, a particle's surface area can be viewed as a
181 "transport vector" for many compounds deleterious to human health and requires more
182 detailed analysis.

183 In addition, it is of urging interest to introduce an effective automated real-time particle-
184 bound ROS sampling system that will allow routine evaluation of health effects and
185 monitoring of the pollution. Following this, improvement in the sampling methodology
186 coupled with the usage of a very sensitive probe such as BPEA nitroxide can provide good
187 ROS monitor. As previously used technique, liquid impingement, has relatively low and size-
188 dependent collection efficiency for particles smaller than 500 nm, we are implementing the
189 usage of particle into liquid sampler (PILS) to overcome this drawback. PILS grows
190 submicron particles in a condensation growth chamber and subsequently collects them using
191 a wetted cyclone [23]. BPEA nitroxide is used to collect particles. This approach makes ROS
192 measurements more efficient, less time consuming and less labor intensive and it is currently
193 being tested.

194

195 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

196

197 An in-house developed methodology for detection of PM-derived ROS by using a
198 profluorescent nitroxide probe (BPEAnit) has been developed and provided a good basis for
199 employing the new probe for the assessment of the oxidative potential arising from particles
200 generated by other combustion sources. Considering that for all three aerosol sources (i.e.
201 cigarette smoke, diesel exhaust and wood smoke) the same assay was applied a direct

202 comparison of the oxidative potential measured for all three sources of particles is possible. s.
203 What is even more important is that a good correlation was observed between the
204 semivolatile organic content of combustion particles (both for wood burning and DPM) and
205 their oxidative capacity as measured through the ROS concentration. This highlights the
206 importance of semivolatiles in the oxidative potential of the particulate matter. This has far
207 reaching consequences on how we regulate particle emissions from combustion sources such
208 as diesel vehicles. For example, the new standards for diesel vehicle engine emissions
209 (EURO 5/6) are based on measurements of particle number emissions and not particle mass
210 emissions. The introduction of particle number based standards as opposed to mass based
211 standards were introduced as the number much better reflects the nanoparticle component of
212 DPM than simple mass based measurements. To achieve reproducible particle number
213 measurements, the standards introduce thermal conditioning of the exhaust prior to sampling.
214 This results in the removal of any semi-volatile organic components from the exhaust
215 particles. If the semi-volatile organic component is responsible for the oxidative capacity of
216 particles, and therefore drives their toxicity, the validity of the new diesel vehicle emission
217 standards has to be brought into question.

218

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220

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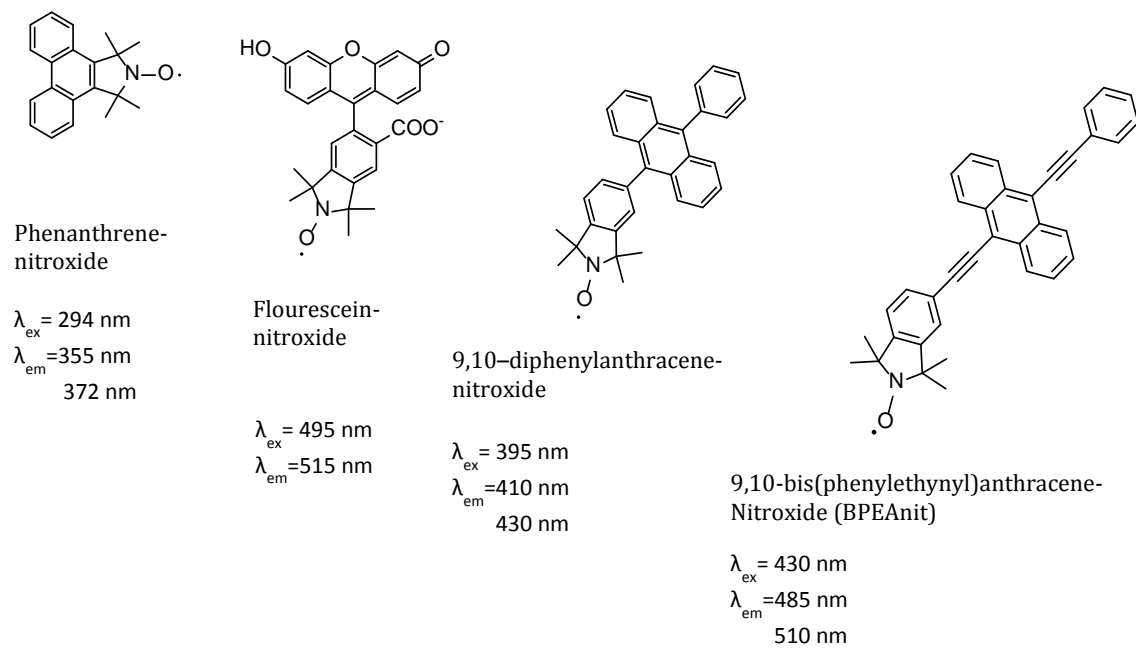


Figure 1 Structures of some of the profluorescent nitroxides synthesised at QUT together with the excitation and emission wavelengths of the fluorophores.

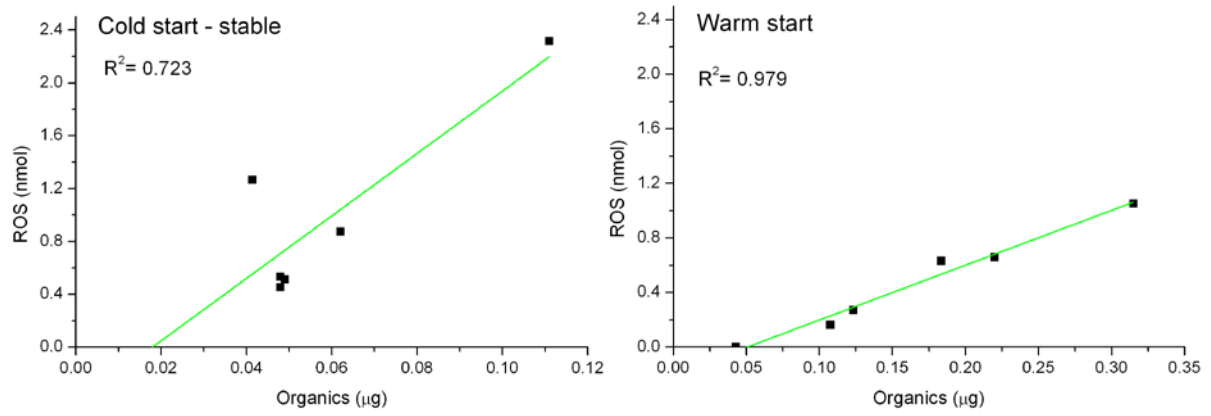


Figure 2 Correlation between the amount of ROS and the amount of organics for stable phase of cold-start (A), and warm-start (B) logwood burning.

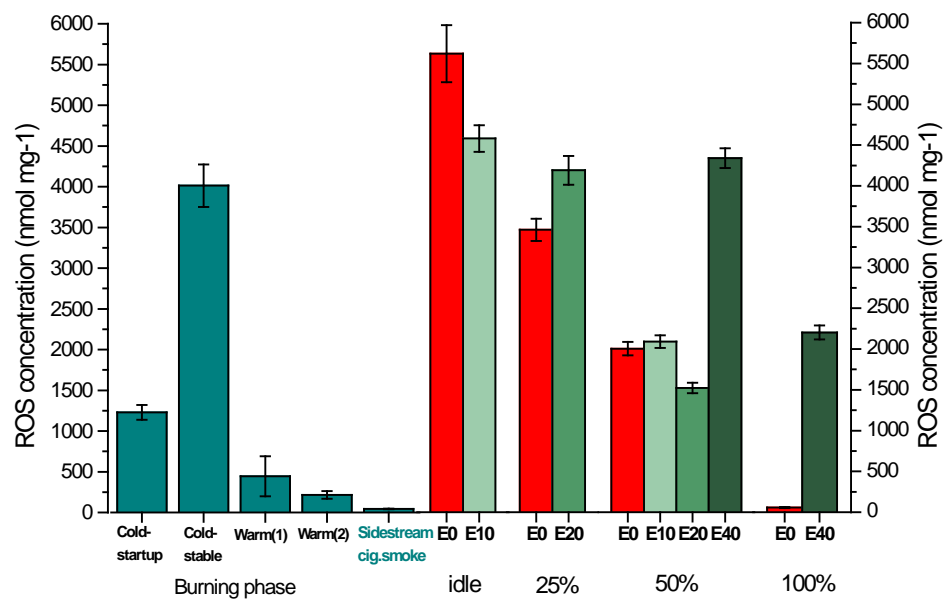


Figure 3 The amount of ROS for stable phase of cold-start (A), and warm-start (B) logwood burning, side stream tobacco smoke and different operating conditions for ethanol blended diesel