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1	Shape-engineered titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO2-NPs): cytotoxicity and
2	genotoxicity in bronchial epithelial cells
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26	List of Abbreviations
27	BEAS-2B – Human bronchial epithelial cells
28	D _h – Hydrodynamic diameter
29	Fpg – formamidopyrimidine glycosylase
30	NP – Nanoparticle
31	TiO ₂ – Titanium dioxide
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51 Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate cytotoxicity (WST-1 assay), LDH release (LDH assay) and genotoxicity (Comet assay) of three engineered TiO₂-NPs with different shapes (bipyramids, rods, platelets) in comparison with two commercial TiO₂-NPs (P25, food grade). After NPs characterization (SEM/T-SEM and DLS), biological effects of NPs were assessed by exposing BEAS-2B cells in the presence of light and in the absence. The cellular uptake of NPs was analyzed using Raman spectroscopy.

The cytotoxic effects were mostly slight. After light exposure, using the WST-1 assay, the 58 59 largest cytotoxicity was observed for rods; P25, bipyramids and platelets showed a similar effect, while no effect was induced by food grade. No LDH release was detected using the 60 LDH assay, confirming the low effect on plasma membrane. Regarding genotoxicity, food 61 62 grade and platelets induced direct genotoxic effect while P25, food grade and platelets caused oxidative DNA damage. No genotoxic or oxidative DNA damage was induced by bipyramids 63 and rods. In darkness biological effects were overall lower than after light exposure. 64 65 Considering that only food grade, P25 and platelets (more agglomerated) were internalized by cells, the uptake resulted correlated with genotoxicity. 66

In conclusion, cytotoxicity of NPs was low, influenced by shape as well as by light exposure.Instead, genotoxicity seemed to be influenced by cellular-uptake and aggregation tendency.

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Keywords: shape-engineered TiO₂ nanoparticles; genotoxic and oxidative damage; Comet
assay; cytotoxicity; Raman spectroscopy.

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76 **1. Introduction**

Nanoparticles (NPs) are defined as particles having their three dimension in the range of 1 - 177 100 nm (ISO 2015). Actually, many consumer products incorporates NPs. The technological, 78 79 medical and economic benefits of NPs are considerable, but the presence of nanoparticles in the environment could cause adverse effects to humans. NPs have a greater surface area per 80 mass unit, so they potentially have an increased biological activity compared to fine particles. 81 82 Moreover, NPs size is comparable to the size of cellular structures, so NPs might potentially emulate biological molecules or interfere physically with biological processes (Magdolenova 83 84 et al. 2012a).

TiO₂ is the oxide of titanium and it has different crystalline structures: anatase, brookite and 85 rutile. Brookite is not produced by industry and is not incorporated in commercial products. In 86 87 contrast, rutile and anatase are largely used in commercial products (Jovanovic 2015). TiO₂ is one of the most frequently applied NPs and it is in the top five NPs used in consumer products 88 (Shi et al. 2013). TiO₂-NPs produced are used primarily as a pigment owing to their brightness, 89 90 resistance to discoloration and high refractive index. As a pigment, TiO₂-NPs are incorporated in paints, plastic materials, paper, foods, medical products and cosmetics. Due to its catalytic 91 and photocatalytic properties, TiO₂ is also used as an antimicrobial agent and a catalyst for 92 purification of air and water (Bonetta et al. 2013, Tomankova et al. 2015). 93

TiO₂-NPs could be engineered in terms of shapes and sizes by changing synthesis conditions such as raw material, temperature, acidic and alkaline conditions. Engineered TiO₂-NPs with various shapes (e.g. rods, dots and belts) have been prepared for different applications (Bernard and Curtiss 2005, Sha et al. 2015, Wang et al. 2004). In particular engineered fiber-shaped nanomaterials (i.e. nanowires, nanotubes) are very attractive because they showed higher activity and advantages in photocatalysis, charge transfer and sensing applications due to their structure (Hamilton et al. 2009). However, these new and enhanced properties may also induce
higher toxicological effects upon exposure with biological tissues.

Humans can be exposed to TiO_2 -NPs via three portals of entry: oral (mainly via food consumption), dermal (often through cosmetic and sunscreen applications) and inhalation (mainly under occupational and manufacturing conditions) (Warheit and Donner 2015).

Based on the evidence that TiO₂ can induce lung cancer in rats, TiO₂-NPs were classified as possibly carcinogenic to humans (group 2B) by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC 2010). Indeed, the inhalation and instillation of rutile and anatase TiO₂-NPs induced lung tumors (Xu et al. 2010), broncho-alveolar adenomas and cystic keratinizing squamous cell carcinomas (De Matteis et al. 2016; Mohra et al. 2006). TiO₂-NPs were also classified as potential occupational carcinogens by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH 2011; Chen et al. 2014).

Many in vitro studies showed cytotoxicity, genotoxicity and oxidative effects induced by TiO2-112 NPs through oxidants generation, inflammation and apoptosis (Jugan et al. 2011, Karlsson et 113 al. 2015, Park et al. 2008, Shi et al. 2010). The potential of NPs to cause DNA damage is an 114 important aspect that needs attention due to possible mutations and carcinogenesis. Physico-115 chemical characteristics of NPs have an important role in toxicity. Different studies showed 116 that biological effects can be influenced by crystalline structure, size, shape, exterior area, 117 agglomeration/aggregation and surface properties (Bhattacharya et al. 2009, Johnston et al. 118 119 2009). Some studies revealed that crystalline structure probably influences the induced toxicity, in particular the anatase seems to be more reactive (Sayes et al. 2006) and induces more toxic, 120 genotoxic and inflammatory effects, than the rutile (Falck et al. 2009, Petkovic et al. 2011, Xue 121 122 et al. 2010). However, other studies gave contradictory results with rutile forms being more toxic than anatase (Gurr et al. 2005, Numano et al. 2014, Uboldi et al. 2016). The effect of 123 agglomeration/aggregation of NPs on toxicity is not well understood yet. In recent studies, 124

some authors demonstrated that agglomeration can influence NPs genotoxicity (Magdolenovaet al. 2012b, Prasad et al. 2013).

127 Although physico-chemical properties of NPs can have an important role in the impact on their 128 toxicity, only few studies on shape dependent TiO_2 toxicity has been conducted (Allegri et al. 129 2016, Hamilton et al. 2009, Park et al. 2013). Additional studies are needed to evaluate the role 130 of shape on TiO_2 -NPs toxicity in order to produce useful data for assessing the safety of 131 engineered NPs.

To address this issue, the aim of this study was to investigate cytotoxicity (WST-1 assay), LDH 132 133 release (LDH assay) and genotoxicity (Comet assay) of three types of engineered TiO₂-NPs of different shapes (bipyramids, rods and platelet NPs) in BEAS-2B (cells isolated from human 134 bronchial epithelium) in comparison with two commercial types of TiO₂-NPs (P25 and food 135 grade). Since the exposure to TiO₂-NPs mainly occurs through respiratory tract (occupational 136 and manufacturing conditions), human cells of the respiratory system (such as BEAS-2B), were 137 selected as a good cell model for *in vitro* toxicology tests. All the TiO₂-NPs in this study were 138 first physico-chemically characterized, even in different culture media to study their 139 agglomeration state, and then they were biologically evaluated. In order to take into account 140 the photocatalytic properties of the TiO2-NPs, we investigated the cytotoxicity and 141 genotoxicity on BEAS-2B under light exposure and in darkness. Moreover, a modern 142 application of Raman spectroscopy, the 3D confocal Raman imaging, was used to study the 143 144 uptake of the NPs within the BEAS-2B cells, as the Raman spectra provide information about both organic molecules and solid NPs simultaneously (Ahlinder et al. 2013). 145

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150 2. Materials and methods

151 **2.1** Synthesis and Preparation of TiO₂ NPs dispersion

Rods and bipyramids TiO₂-NPs were synthesized by the forced hydrolysis of an aqueous 152 153 solution of TiIV(triethanolamine)₂titanatrane (Ti(TEOAH)₂), using triethanolamine (TEOA) as shape controller; pH of synthesis was adjusted by adding 1 M NaOH solution; details of 154 these procedures were previously reported (Iannarelli et al. 2016, Lavric et al. 2017). The 155 synthesis of platelet NPs was performed with a solvothermal method (Han et al. 2009, Zhang 156 et al. 2012). In a typical synthesis: a precise volume of Ti(OBu)₄ was added in a 150 ml Teflon 157 158 pot and the desired volume of concentrated hydrofluoric acid was added dropwise under stirring. The Teflon pot was sealed and kept under stirring at high temperature (250°C) for 24h 159 in autoclave. The resulting paste was centrifuged three times and washed with acetone and with 160 161 water (Milli-Q) to remove the residual organics. The synthesis dispersions were subjected to dialysis process (against ultrapure water, using Spectra/Por dialysis membrane tubing MWCO 162 8-14 kDa) in order to clean the medium. To avoid agglomeration and precipitation, 163 dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO 1% in water) was added to the NPs dispersions (final concentration 164 2.5 mg/ml); the dispersions were homogenized using an ultra-sonication procedure (Iannarelli 165 et al. 2016), few hours before the exposure with cells. 166

167 The same procedure was employed in the preparation of the dispersion of commercial TiO₂ 168 powders, which were the P25 NPs (Evonik), extensively used in toxicity studies (Karlsson et 169 al. 2015, Magdolenova et al. 2014, Valant et al. 2012), and the food grade NPs (Faravelli 170 Group), incorporated in many edible products (Weir et al. 2012).

171 2.2 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) including Transmission Mode (T-SEM)

The dimensional characterization (size and shape) of TiO₂.NPs was carried out with SEM using
a Zeiss Supra 40 instrument (Zeiss) equipped with a Schottky field emitter, the standard
secondary electrons, i.e. Everhart-Thornley, detector and a high-resolution In-lens detector.

175 The surface-sensitive In-lens SEM mode better suited to morphological/shape analysis and 176 transmission mode in SEM (T-SEM) better suited for dimensional measurements were applied 177 complementary to the same field of view on the sample.

178 2.3 Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) analysis

Delsa NanoTM C Analyzer (Beckman Coulter) equipped with a 638 nm diode laser and a 179 temperature control was used for the DLS measurements. The laser fluctuation was detected 180 181 on a photomultiplier tube detector positioned behind the cuvette with an angle of 163°. Hydrodynamic diameters were calculated setting temperature at 25°C, viscosity (n) 0.890 cP 182 183 and refractive index of water 1.3325. In order to simulate the culture medium conditions, DLS analyses were conducted on dilution of TiO2 dispersions (1:4) in a 1% DMSO aqueous solution, 184 as reference analysis, and in base RPMI 1640 medium [supplemented with l-glutamine (4 mM) 185 186 and penicillin-streptomycin (100 U/ml - 100 µg/ml)] and complete RPMI 1640 medium [supplemented with FBS (10% v/v), l-glutamine (4 mM) and penicillin-streptomycin (100 187 $U/ml - 100 \mu g/ml)$]. 188

189 2.4 Raman spectroscopy analysis

The aqueous suspensions of the TiO₂-NPs under investigation were freeze-dried to obtain a solid powder. Raman spectroscopy was used in the analysis of dry TiO₂-NPs powder using a DXRTM Raman Microscope (Thermo Scientific) with a laser wavelength at 532 nm, a laser power of 1 mW and a 10x microscope objective. Spectra were collected in the 50–1800 cm⁻¹ spectral region, with a grating resolution of 3.3-3.9 cm⁻¹, exposure time of 1 s and 20 scans in total.

196 2.5 Cell culture and exposure

BEAS-2B cells, isolated from human bronchial epithelium, were obtained from the American
Type Culture Collection (ATCC® CRL-9609TM). BEAS-2B were grown as a monolayer,
maintained and treated in complete RPMI 1640 medium [supplemented with FBS (10% v/v),

200 l-glutamine (4 mM) and penicillin-streptomycin (100 U/ml - 100 μ g/ml)], at 37°C in a 201 humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂.

The solution of NPs (2.5 mg/ml, DMSO 1% in water) was vortexed and sonicated (30 min) in 202 203 order to homogenize the NPs. NPs $(5 - 160 \mu g/ml)$ were directly pipetted in culture plates containing RPMI 1640 medium and then the cell culture plates were mixed on a shaker (10 204 min). The cells were exposed for 1h under laboratory light and then incubated at 37 °C in 205 darkness (23h) (exposure with light). In order to standardize the exposure with light the cells 206 were exposed in a dark room (obscured by daylight) to a normal laboratory lamp (36W/840 207 208 Lumilux Cool White-36 W, 3350 lm, 4000 K-supplied from OSRAM lighting AG). The lamp illuminance measured with Quantum photo/radiometer HD 9021 (Delta Ohm) was 289±11 lx. 209 To quantify effects due to the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, cells were exposed for 24h in 210 211 darkness (exposure in darkness).

212 After exposure, cytotoxicity and genotoxicity assays were performed.

213 **2.6** *Cytotoxicity*

Cell viability was assessed using Cell Proliferation Reagent WST-1 (Roche). The assay was 214 performed as previously descripted by Gea et al. (2018). Briefly, BEAS-2B cells were cultured 215 in 75 cm² flasks and maintained until the cells reached 70 % confluence; cells were then seeded 216 in 24-well plates (5×10^4 cells/well) and allowed to adhere overnight. After that, culture medium 217 was removed and cells were exposed to NPs (5, 10, 20, 50 and 80 µg/ml, equivalent to 1.3, 2.6, 218 219 5.2, 13.0, 20.7 μ g/cm²) for 24h with light or in darkness (as specified in paragraph 2.5). After exposure, WST-1 was added (50 µl/well) and incubated for 3h (37 °C). After incubation, well 220 contents were centrifuged and the supernatants were transferred in 96-well plate to remove the 221 222 interference owing to the NPs. The absorbance was measured at 440 nm (Tecan Infinite Reader M200 Pro). Absorbance of unexposed cells was used as negative control. Data were expressed 223

as a percentage of viability. All experiments were performed in quadruplicate (four wells foreach experimental condition).

As indicator of cell membrane damage, lactate dehydrogenase activity was measured in cell-226 227 free culture supernatants using the LDH assay kit (Cytotoxicity Detection Kit PLUS, Roche) modified for NPs exposure. Briefly, BEAS-2B cells were cultured in 75 cm² flasks and 228 maintained until the cells reached 70 % confluence, cells were then seeded in 24-well plates (5 229 $\times 10^4$ cells/well) and allowed to adhere overnight. After that, culture medium was removed and 230 the cells were exposed to NPs (5, 10, 20, 50 and 80 μ g/ml, equivalent to 1.3, 2.6, 5.2, 13.0, 231 20.7 μ g/cm²) for 24h with light or in darkness (as specified in paragraph 2.5). After exposure, 232 the contents of each well were centrifuged to remove the interference owing to the NPs. Each 233 supernatant (100 µl) was transferred into 96-well plate, mixed with Reaction Mixture (100 234 235 μ l/well) and incubated for 30 min at 15 – 25 °C. After incubation, Stop Solution (50 μ l/well) 236 was added and the absorbance was measured at 490 nm (Tecan Infinite Reader M200 Pro). Absorbance measurement of unexposed cells were used as negative control, while absorbance 237 measurement of unexposed cells lysed with Lysis Solution (Cytotoxicity Detection Kit PLUS, 238 Roche) was used as positive control. Data were expressed as a percentage of LDH release, 239 respect to control cells (100%). All experiments were performed in triplicate (three wells for 240 each experimental condition). 241

242 2.7 Genotoxicity

The alkaline Comet assay was used for DNA damage evaluation (direct DNA damage). BEAS-242 2B cells were cultured in 75 cm² flasks and maintained until the cells reached 70 % confluence; 243 cells were then seeded in 6-well plates (3×10^5 cells/well) and cultured overnight before 244 exposure to NPs. The cells were exposed to different doses of NPs (20, 50, 80, 120 and 160 247 µg/ml, equivalent to 5.2, 13.0, 20.8, 31.2, 41.6 µg/cm²) for 24h with light or in darkness (as 248 specified in paragraph 2.5). Unexposed cells and cells treated with DMSO (1%) were used as 249 negative controls. The alkaline Comet assay was performed according to Tice et al. (2000) after slight modifications (Bonetta et al. 2018). After exposure, cells were washed with base RPMI 250 1640 and PBS, detached using trypsin-EDTA (1x) and cell viability was determined (trypan 251 252 blue staining). Cells were then centrifuged and mixed with low melting point agarose (0.7%), placed on the slides coated with normal melting agarose (1%) and low melting point agarose 253 added as the top layer. The slides were immersed in lysis solution in the dark overnight (8 mM 254 Tris-HCl, 2.5 M NaCl, 100 mM EDTA disodium salt dihydrate, 1% TRITON X-100 and 10% 255 DMSO, pH 10, 4°C). For the unwinding, the slides were immersed in alkaline electrophoresis 256 257 buffer (20 min) (1 mM EDTA, 300 mM NaOH, 10% DMSO, pH > 13) and the electrophoresis was carried out in the same buffer (20 min, 1 V/cm and 300 mA). The slides were washed with 258 259 neutralization buffer (0.4 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 4 °C, 3 min), fixed with ethanol 70% (-20 °C, 5 260 min) and air dried. All steps were performed under yellow light to prevent additional DNA damage. Slides were stained with ethidium bromide (20 µg/ml) and analyzed using a 261 fluorescence microscope (Axioskop HBO 50, Zeiss). The percentage of tail intensity was used 262 to estimate DNA damage. A total of a hundred randomly selected cells per treatment (two gels 263 per slides) were analyzed using the Comet Assay IV software (Perceptive Instruments, Instem). 264 Two independent experiments were performed for each experimental condition. 265

Genotoxic effect (direct DNA damage) was evaluated comparing cells exposed to NPs withcontrol cells (DMSO 1%).

The formamidopyrimidine glycosylase (Fpg)-modified Comet assay was performed for DNA damage evaluation (direct + indirect DNA damage) as reported in Bonetta et al. (2009) with slight modification (Gea et al. 2018). The test was carried out as described for the alkaline Comet assay but, after lysis, the slides were washed with Fpg Buffer (5 min for three times) (40 mM Hepes, 0.1M KCl, 0.5 mM EDTA disodium salt dihydrate, 0.2 mg/ml bovine serum

albumin, pH 8). Then, each gel was incubated with 1 unit of Fpg enzyme (*Escherichia coli*)

274 (TREVIGEN) at 37°C for 30 min. Procedure control slides were incubated with buffer only.

Cells treated with DMSO (1%) and enzyme were used as negative controls. Two independent
experiments were performed for each experimental condition.

The DNA damage (direct + indirect DNA damage) was evaluated comparing cells exposed to
NPs with control cells (DMSO 1% +Fpg).

279 The oxidative damage was calculated subtracting the mean tail intensity (%) in enzyme-treated

cells (+Fpg) from the relative mean tail intensity (%) in enzyme-untreated cells (-Fpg).

281 2.8 3D confocal micro-Raman imaging spectroscopy

Raman grade Calcium fluoride (CaF2) windows (Crystran Tachnology srl) were employed as 282 alternative substrate instead of standard plastic substrates for cells growing due to the low 283 284 toxicity and almost absent background signals (Kann et al. 2015). The BEAS-2B cells were cultured overnight in 6-well plates on a CaF₂ substrate (3×10^5 cells/well) before exposure to 285 NPs. Cells were treated with NPs (80 µg/ml, 24h). After exposure, cells were washed twice 286 with PBS and fixed with 3 ml of methanol. CaF₂ substrates were dried and stained with Giemsa 287 dye (4% Giemsa's azur eosin methylene blue solution, 4% Sorensen buffer 0.067 M pH 6.8, 8 288 min at room temperature), then washed twice with distilled water and dried. Giemsa staining 289 is one of the standard procedures in histology, useful to evidence morphological cells features, 290 291 such as cell nuclei, which appear in various shades of red/purple, and the cytoplasm, which 292 appears blue.

3D confocal micro-Raman imaging spectroscopy of BEAS-2B cells was conducted with a DXRTMxi Raman Imaging Microscope (Thermo Scientific) using a laser wavelength at 532 nm, a 1 mW laser power, a 100X microscope objective and a motorized stage with a 1 μ m of step size and a 1 μ m offset. Spectra were collected in the 50–3500 cm⁻¹ spectral region with a grating resolution of 5 cm⁻¹, an exposure time of 0.025 s and 5 scans in total. 3D Raman images

were reconstructed taking the Raman peaks at 1600 cm^{-1} of methylene blue and the E_g band at 298 144 cm⁻¹ of the TiO₂-NPs, respectively. Each cell was investigated at different focal planes and 299 a chemical image was obtained by the combination of the v(C-C)ring at 1600 cm-1 of the 300 methylene blue and the Eg band at 144 cm⁻¹ of the TiO₂-NPs. Since methylene blue is contained 301 in the Giemsa stain and it is widely distributed into the fixed cells, its signals were considered 302 representative of the entire volume of the cells. As far as the tracking of the NPs are concerned, 303 the Eg band at 143 cm⁻¹ is the most intense signal in the molecular fingerprint of the anatase 304 TiO_2 and the region between 50 cm⁻¹ and 400 cm⁻¹ in the Raman spectrum is usually free of 305 306 the vibrational bands of biological species. Therefore, this signal was selected to sensitively locate the TiO₂-NPs inside the cells. Image J software was used in the development of the 3D 307 chemical images both for cells and TiO2-NPs, which were superimposed using a Solidworks® 308 309 2016 Cad based software. 3D Raman chemical images are presented using a color meshwork i.e. blue for cell tissues and red for TiO₂ agglomerates. 310

311 2.9 Statistical analysis

IBM SPSS software (ver. 24.0) was used to perform statistical analysis. The results of WST-1, LDH and Comet assays are presented as the mean ± standard deviation. Differences between exposed and control cells were tested by ANOVA followed by the post hoc Dunnett's test procedure. Differences between light and dark exposure were tested by ANOVA, followed by the post hoc Tukey's test procedure. Data were considered statistically different for a p-value less than 0.05.

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319 **3. Results**

320 **3.1** Raman characterization of NPs and size distribution

In order to establish a relationship among the physico-chemical features of NPs and their abilityto induce a toxic effect, well-defined and controlled protocols were developed for the

production of engineered anatase TiO₂-NPs with different shapes. All the NPs produced in this
study were first characterized with a SEM equipped with a transmission-unit for T-SEM, which
provided information both on the shape and the size of the constituent NPs (Fig. 1a-e). The Fig.
1 and Table 1 show shapes and particle size of commercial TiO₂-NPs and fabricated engineered
TiO₂-NPs.

These NPs were also characterized by Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) as a quick method for 328 sizing and determining the state of NP agglomeration. For each kind of sample, the 329 agglomeration in 1% DMSO aqueous solution, in base RPMI [supplemented with l-glutamine 330 331 (4 mM) and penicillin-streptomycin (100 U/ml - 100 µg/ml)] and complete RPMI [supplemented with FBS (10% v/v), l-glutamine (4 mM) and penicillin-streptomycin (100 332 U/ml - 100 µg/ml)] (Fig. 1f-j) were compared. In all the TiO₂ materials considered for this 333 334 study, the agglomeration state increase in base RPMI, while the size distribution in DMSO and 335 in complete RPMI is quite similar.

The crystalline composition of the TiO₂-NPs, analyzed by Raman spectroscopy, showed a 336 typical fingerprint of the anatase TiO_2 (Fig. S.1) with the characteristic phonon bands E_g at 337 143 $\rm cm^{-1}$, E_g at 197 $\rm cm^{-1}$, A_{1g} at 397 $\rm cm^{-1}$, B_{1g} at 515 $\rm cm^{-1}$ and E_g at 639 $\rm cm^{-1}$ for all the 338 investigated NPs. Since P25 is a known mixture of anatase and rutile (5:1), with also a small 339 amount of amorphous TiO₂ (Ohtani et al. 2010), its Raman spectrum still retains all the typical 340 anatase Raman bands but it also contains two small shoulders at 450 cm⁻¹ and 600 cm⁻¹, which 341 were assigned to the E_g and A_{1g} phonon bands, respectively, of rutile (Tompsett et al. 1995). 342 All the physiochemical properties of the TiO₂-NPs under study such as shape, particle size, 343 hydrodynamic diameter in different liquid media and the crystalline phase are summarized in 344 345 Table 1.

346 **3.2** *Cytotoxicity*

The results of the effects of different TiO_2 -NPs concentration on cell viability (WST-1 assay) are reported in Fig. 2a (exposure with light) and in Fig. 2b (exposure in darkness).

In general, a low cytotoxic effect was observed at the tested doses both in the exposure with light and in the exposure in darkness. The observed viability ranged from 102.8 to 88.4% for the exposure with light and from 99.6 to 87.4% for the exposure in darkness.

Considering the exposure with light, the commercial P25 induced a slight decrease in viability starting from the doses of 50 μ g/ml (p<0.05) while no cytotoxic effects were observed for the other commercial NPs (food grade) at the tested concentrations. As far as engineered NPs are concerned, bipyramids and platelet NPs induced the same cytotoxic effect of commercial P25 NPs; on the contrary, rods is the NP shape with higher cytotoxic effect showing a viability decrease already starting from 10 μ g/ml (p<0.05 or p<0.001).

358 Considering the exposure in darkness, a lower cytotoxic effect was observed for commercial 359 P25 NPs with respect to light exposure because a slight decrease in viability was observed for P25 NPs only at the highest dose (80 μ g/ml) (p<0.05). As reported after exposure with light, 360 no cytotoxic effect was observed for the other commercial NPs (food grade). About engineered 361 NPs, the exposure in darkness did not modify the cytotoxic effect of bipyramids NPs resulting 362 in a viability reduction starting from the dose of 50 μ g/ml (p<0.001) as reported in the 363 experiment with light. In contrast, in the darkness, rods NPs showed a lower cytotoxic effect 364 than observed with light because a slight decrease in viability was observed for rod NPs only 365 366 starting from the dose of 20 μ g/ml (p<0.05). As during the exposure with light, platelet NPs induced a decrease in viability; the cytotoxic effect was significant starting from a less dose 367 $(10 \,\mu g/ml, p < 0.05)$ than in the experiment with light $(50 \,\mu g/ml)$. 368

The results of the effects of different TiO₂-NPs concentration on LDH release has been reported
in Fig. 2c (exposure with light) and in Fig. 2d (exposure in darkness).

No significant LDH release was detected using LDH assay in both exposure protocols (with
light or in darkness), confirming the low cytotoxic effect evidenced by WST-1 assay.

373 **3.3** *Genotoxicity*

The results of genotoxic effect and oxidative DNA damage induced by different concentrationof NPs are reported in Fig. 3.

Considering the exposure with laboratory light, no genotoxic effect was showed in enzyme 376 377 untreated cells (direct DNA damage) for commercial P25 NPs (Fig. 3a). On the other hand, a dose-dependent increase of DNA damage was observed for these NPs in enzyme treated cells 378 379 (direct and indirect DNA damage) respect to the control cells (p<0.05 or p<0.001), with the exception of the last dose (160 µg/ml) that induced a DNA damage equal to 80 µg/ml. A 380 significant oxidative damage was observed for P25 NPs starting from 50 µg/ml (p<0.05 or 381 382 p<0.001). The results obtained with the other commercial NPs (food grade)(Fig. 3b) showed 383 the presence of a significant dose-response DNA damage both in enzyme untreated cells and in enzyme treated cells starting from 50 µg/ml. Moreover, the difference between the two 384 effects resulted significant starting from 50 µg/ml (p<0.05 or p<0.001) highlighting an 385 oxidative damage induced by food grade NPs. 386

Respect to commercial NPs, engineered NPs showed a lower extent of DNA damage. In particular, neither genotoxic effect nor oxidative damage were observed for engineered bipyramids and rods NPs (Fig. 3c,d). Platelet NPs induced a significant DNA damage respect to the control cells (p<0.05 or p<0.001) both in enzyme untreated cells and in enzyme treated cells and they induced a significant oxidative DNA damage starting from 80 μ g/ml (p<0.001) (Fig. 3e). However in contrast with commercial NPs (food grade), a dose-response of the effects were not observed.

As demonstrated by other authors (Kalsson 2010, Karlsson et al. 2015), an interference during
the scoring of the assay was detected in particular at the higher doses of P25 and platelet NPs,

indeed nanoparticles with some autofluorescence were visible in the comets "head" and the stained DNA appeared faded. The interference probably caused the loss of concentrationdependent increase in DNA direct and oxidative damage observed for the higher doses. The phenomenon could be explained also considering that base oxidation is hard to measure accurately when there are a lot of strand breaks, because the Comet assay becomes saturated (Collins et al. 2017).

In order to evaluate the role of the light on the genotoxic and oxidative damage induced by commercial and engineered NPs, the highest doses (80, 120, 160 μ g/ml) of NPs that showed a genotoxic effect (P25, food grade and platelet NPs) were tested in darkness (24h).

Considering the exposure in darkness, no genotoxic effect was observed for commercial P25 405 406 NPs in enzyme untreated cells (direct DNA damage) (Fig. 3f) as reported in the experiment 407 with light (Fig. 3a). However, in the enzyme treated cells a dose-response DNA damage (direct 408 and indirect DNA damage) was observed with respect to control cells (p<0.05 or p<0.001), but oxidative DNA damage was lower than in the experiment with light (p<0.05 or p<0.001). The 409 410 commercial food grade NPs induced a significant dose-response DNA damage both in enzyme untreated cells and in enzyme treated cells (p<0.001 and p<0.05 respectively) (Fig. 3g). 411 However, the DNA damage resulted in both cases lower than in the experiment with light 412 p<0.05 or p<0.001) and an oxidative damage was induced only at the highest dose (160 μ g/ml) 413 (p<0.05). 414

With regard to engineered NPs, platelet NPs induced a significant DNA damage with respect to the control cells (p<0.05 or p<0.001) both in enzyme untreated cells and in enzyme treated cells (Fig. 3h). However, while the DNA damage in enzyme untreated cells was equivalent to the DNA damage induced in the experiment with light (Fig. 3e), a decrease of DNA damage in enzyme treated cells was observed, resulting in no oxidative damage induced by platelet NPs in darkness (Fig. 3h).

421 **3.4** Confocal micro-Raman spectroscopy

The confocal micro-Raman imaging spectroscopy was used in order to evaluate qualitatively 422 the presence/absence of different types of TiO₂-NPs inside the cells. 3D chemical images are 423 424 built by superimposing the different maps of each cell at their corresponding focal planes and they are presented using a color meshwork i.e. blue for cell tissues and red for TiO₂ 425 agglomerates. At least five cells were analyzed to provide statistically significant results. As 426 427 the sections of Fig. 4 show, the uptake of the TiO₂-NPs by the cells was mainly demonstrated for P25, food grade and platelet NPs (Fig. 4a,b,c) while no TiO₂ signal was registered inside 428 429 the cells for bypiramids and rods (Fig. 4d,e).

430

431 4. Discussion

432 Many in vitro studies have been conducted to investigate cytotoxicity/genotoxicity of TiO₂-433 NPs but the results are often conflicting and employed doses were sometimes high (Valant et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2014; Magdolenova et al., 2014; Karlsson et al., 2015; Moller et al., 434 435 2015a). The aim of this study was to investigate the cytotoxicity and genotoxicity of three different shapes of TiO₂-NPs and to compare them with two commercially available TiO₂-NPs. 436 The issues taken into account for this study were: i) the physico-chemical properties of the 437 particles (shape, particle size, agglomeration state in culture media, crystalline phase) that can 438 influence biological effects, ii) the ability of the particles to induce cytotoxicity and 439 440 genotoxicity, iii) the increase of the toxicological effects under light exposure due to the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ and iv) the uptake of the NPs by human cells. 441

In the present study, the cytotoxicity assays were selected in order to reduce the interference of NPs with the assays (interference with optical detection methods, ability to convert the substrates). Moreover, as suggested by other studies (Wilhelmi et al., 2012; Guadagnini et al., 2015: Popescu et al., 2015), the assays processes were optimized for evaluation of NPs and 446 (before the assessment of NPs cytotoxicity) relevant controls, assessing particles for their447 ability to interfere with the assays, were conducted (data not shown).

For genotoxicity evaluation, a literature revision (on application of genotoxicity assays testing 448 449 NPs) was made before the application of Comet assay (Karlsson 2010; Magdolenova et al., 2012a; Karlsson et al., 2015; Cowie et al., 2015; Moller et al., 2015b; Huk et al., 2015). To 450 ensure the correct evaluation of DNA damage two independent experiment were performed for 451 452 each experimental condition. The analysis of each comet was made using the Comet Assay IV and the automatic evaluation proposed by the software was carefully checked by an operator. 453 454 Published results on toxicity of TiO₂-NPs show high variability. Reasons for this variability include physico-chemical characteristics of NPs, different methods to prepare NPs dispersions, 455 differences in NPs size and dispersion stability, and different exposure protocols (Charles et 456 457 al., 2018). The characteristics of NPs dispersion can be influenced by medium components, 458 such as serum proteins, and by NPs properties (size, shape, surface charge, surface coating etc.) (Huk et al. 2015). According to the study of Prasad et al. (2013), the present results showed 459 460 that in all the TiO_2 -NPs dispersions, the agglomeration state increases in base RPMI (without serum), while the size distribution in DMSO and in complete RPMI medium (with serum) is 461 quite similar. The different agglomeration state is probably due to the ability of metal oxide 462 NPs to adsorb proteins onto their surface, forming a "protein corona" which favors less 463 agglomeration in complete medium, which contains more proteins (Prasad et al. 2013). 464 465 Considering the results obtained, complete medium was selected as cytotoxicity/genotoxicity assay medium. 466

469 Commercial TiO₂-NPs induced low (P25) or no viability reduction (food grade) detected by

470 WST-1 assay; these results are in agreement with some reports on commercial TiO₂-NPs

⁴⁶⁷ The viability of BEAS-2B treated with commercial and engineered TiO₂-NPs after exposure
468 with light or in darkness was assessed using the WST-1 assay.

471 (Bhattacharya et al. 2009, Falck et al. 2009). Previous studies that investigated the cytotoxicity of commercial P25 on BEAS-2B showed that only 100 µg/ml of commercial P25 NPs produced 472 a viability decrease after 24h exposure (Prasad et al. 2013). Fewer studies have been performed 473 474 using commercial food grade TiO₂-NPs. Proquin et al. (2017) tested these NPs on different cell lines: on Caco-2, they observed cytotoxicity, while on HCT116 they did not observe any 475 cytotoxic effect up to the concentration of $100 \,\mu g/cm^2$. The result obtained on HCT116 was in 476 accordance with the low cytotoxic effect induced by commercial food grade TiO₂-NPs detected 477 in the present study. Recently, the scientific community have produced reference NPs, which 478 479 have been well characterized. Di Bucchianico et al. (2016) assessed cytotoxic effects of some of these NPs (anatase 50-150 nm, anatase 5-8 nm, rutile 20-28 nm) in BEAS-2B cells and, 480 according to the present results, showed in general no or low effects at the tested doses (2-100 481 482 $\mu g/ml$).

On the contrary, other studies showed that commercial TiO_2 -NPs induced higher cytotoxicity on BEAS-2B (Shi et al. 2010, Ursini et al. 2014). In particular, Park et al. (2008) found that exposure of BEAS-2B cells to commercial P25 (5-40 µg/ml) for 24h led to significant cell death, both in a time- and concentration-dependent manner.

The data of present study demonstrated that cytotoxicity was slightly affected by light exposure, which induced an increase of cellular damage after incubation with commercial P25 and engineered rods. The influence of light exposure on citotoxicity was also observed in other studies (Vevers and Jha 2008, Reeves et al. 2008). Differently from P25 and rods, exposure to platelet NPs induced higher cytotoxicity in darkness than after light exposure; the mechanism that led to this result is not clear.

Comparing the results of cytotoxicity (WST-1 assay) and LDH release, the first showed low
cytotoxic effect at the doses tested, while the second did not show any cytotoxicity in both
exposure protocols. The discrepancy between cytotoxicity (WST-1) and LDH release data

496 suggests that the viability reduction may be caused by apoptosis, a cell death pathway in which 497 the plasma membrane is maintained, as observed in other studies (Schilirò et al. 2015). This is 498 in accordance with previous studies, which demonstrated that TiO₂-NPs could cause apoptosis 499 in BEAS-2B cells (Park et al. 2008, Shi et al. 2010). The observed discrepancy could be also 500 explained considering that the tested compounds (TiO₂-NPs) could induce an effect on the 501 intracellular activity (mitochondria activity) without causing plasma membrane breakage, as 502 observed by other authors (Weyermann et al. 2005, Fotakis and Timbrell 2006).

Results of Comet assay in presence of light and in darkness showed a significant DNA damage
induced by commercial P25 and food grade NPs and engineered platelet NPs, while no
genotoxicity was observed with the other engineered NPs (bipyramids and rods).

506 Considering that the uptake of NPs could involve interactions of NPs with DNA, the observed 507 genotoxic effect could be related to the presence of P25, food grade and platelet NPs into the 508 BEAS-2B as observed by other authors (Bhattacharya et al. 2009, Park et al. 2008).

In the present study, the higher uptake of P25, food grade and platelet NPs seemed to be related 509 with higher agglomeration tendency (higher measure of hydrodynamic diameter) (table 1). In 510 particular, the engineered platelet NPs were the most agglomerated (platelet shape could 511 probably promote more agglomeration than the other shapes) and commercial P25 and food 512 grade were more agglomerated than the other engineered NPs (bipyramids and rods). The 513 variation in cellular uptake could be due to agglomeration tendency because NPs that form 514 515 large agglomerates, differently from NPs that form smaller ones, precipitate at the bottom of the cell culture wells, increasing the real amount of NPs to which cells are exposed 516 (Magdolenova et al. 2012b). Cells exposed to more NPs could probably internalize more NPs. 517 518 Then, in the present study, the agglomeration tendency does not seem to have prevented the uptake of NPs in the cells, in accordance with the study of Ahlinder et al. (2013). 519

520 The major uptake of P25, food grade and platelet NPs could be related with higher genotoxic effect considering that, after penetration into the cells, NPs may have direct access to DNA via 521 transport into the nucleus and/or during mitosis when the dissolution of nuclear membrane 522 523 occurs. NPs interacting directly with DNA could cause DNA breakage (Magdolenova et al., 2014). Moreover, NPs, after penetration into the cells, can enhance the permeability of the 524 lysosomal membrane, inducing the release of DNases and so causing genotoxic effects 525 526 (Karlsson et al., 2010). Finally, accumulation of NPs within cells can cause aggregates of NPs that deform nucleus inducing DNA damage (Di Virgilio et al., 2010). 527

528 In order to quantify effects due to the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, the highest doses (80, 120, 160 µg/ml) of NPs that showed a genotoxic effect were tested also in darkness (24h). 529 Results obtained in this study showed that light exposure induced additional indirect 530 531 genotoxicity, demonstrating a higher oxidative potential of TiO₂-NPs after exposure with light. The presence of light increased DNA oxidative damage probably due to the photocatalytic 532 activity of TiO₂-NPs, which caused an increase of NPs ability to produce radicals. In particular, 533 based on previous studies, the anatase crystal structure of TiO_2 (the same used in the present 534 study) seems to be the most catalytic/photocatalytic crystalline structure of TiO₂ and seems to 535 be activated under both ultraviolet and visible light (Warheit and Donner 2015). A recent study 536 (De Matteis et al. 2016) demonstrated that, in particular using anatase, light is a dominant factor 537 to induce oxidative stress and toxic effects. Also Gerloff et al. (2009) showed the increase of 538 539 oxidative genotoxic effects induced by TiO₂-NPs (80%/20% anatase-rutile) in the presence of interior light. 540

However, an oxidative damage (although low) was observed in the present study also in
darkness as reported in the study of Gurr et al. (2005) that demonstrated that in darkness TiO₂NPs can induce oxidative DNA damage. On the contrary, Karlsson et al. (2008) and Gerloff et

al. (2009) found that TiO₂-NPs (mixture of rutile and anatase) in darkness did not show
oxidative DNA damage using the Fpg-modified Comet assay.

Moreover, the results obtained in this study highlight that only food grade and platelet NPs 546 induced direct genotoxicity. However, while for food grade NPs the direct genotoxic effect 547 remains the same both after exposure with light and in the darkness, for the commercial food 548 grade NPs, the direct damage was higher in presence of light than in darkness. This result agree 549 550 with the study of Gopalan et al. (2009); they suggest that TiO_2 (anatase 40 – 70 nm range) is capable of inducing higher direct genotoxic effects after simultaneous irradiation with UV, 551 552 respect to genotoxicity induced in darkness. The increase of direct DNA damage after exposure with light attested by Gopalan et al. (2009) and detected for food grade NPs, remain to be 553 explained. A possible mechanism that may lead to this effect could be related to the potential 554 555 interaction of TiO₂-NPs with proteins involved in DNA repair, as demonstrated by Jugan et al. 556 (2011). Genotoxicity is not only linked to the level of DNA damage but also to the type of lesions generated and their capacity to be repaired. NPs exposure in presence of light could 557 influence activity of proteins such as repair enzymes, resulting in DNA damage not repaired or 558 misrepaired (Magdolenova et al. 2014). Then, the exposure with light may have caused 559 inactivation of repair enzymes, inducing a higher direct genotoxic effect induced by food grade 560 NPs after exposure with light respect to exposure in darkness. 561

In conclusion, the results of this study showed that the cytotoxicity was overall low (WST-1 assay) and was influenced by the NP shape as well as by light exposure. According to the low cytotoxic effect, no LDH release was detected using the LDH assay.

Instead, genotoxicity seemed to be influenced by the cellular-uptake and the aggregation tendency of TiO_2 -NPs. These two aspects are probably related to different physico-chemical characteristics of NPs, such as the shape. Moreover, the presence of light enhanced the genotoxic effect of some NPs primarily increasing the oxidative stress.

569 Although more studies have to be performed in order to assess the potential toxicity of engineered NPs, the results of this preliminary study showed that engineered NPs did not 570 induced a high cytotoxic/genotoxic effect compared to the other commercial TiO₂-NPs, so they 571 could be used for future technological applications. The results of this study are important 572 considering that engineered NPs, due to their peculiar characteristics, could support and 573 improve TiO₂-NPs applications in different areas such as energy (i.e. use of engineered TiO₂-574 NPs in dye-sensitized solar cells), environment (i.e. application of engineered TiO₂-NPs as 575 photocatalyst for the abatement of air and water pollutants) and health (i.e. use of engineered 576 577 TiO₂ –NPs for the production of nanostructured coatings of orthopedic and dental prostheses exhibiting optimized interfacial properties). 578 579 Funding 580 This work was supported by the SETNanoMetro Seventh Framework Programme project 581 (project number 604577; call identifier FP7-NMP-2013_LARGE-7). 582 583 **Competing interests** 584 The authors declare that they have no competing interests. 585 586 587 588 References 589 Ahlinder, L., Ekstrand – Hammarstrom, B., Geladi, P., Osterlund, L., 2013. Large uptake of 590 titania and iron oxide nanoparticle in the nucleus of lung epithelial cells as measured by raman 591

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Table 1

Sample	Particle size	D _h DMSO	D _h RPMI Base (nm)	D _h RPMI Complete	Crystalline Phase	
	(nm)	(nm)		(nm)		
P25	20 ± 5	107 ± 31	722 ± 246	121 ± 37	Anatase:Rutile	
	quasi-spherical				(5:1)	
Food grade	150 ± 50	184 ± 61	278 ± 54	184 ± 55	Anatase	
	undefined shape					
Bipyramids	$50\pm9^*$	66 ± 20	259 ± 46	88 ± 24	Anatase	
	(aspect ratio 3:2)					
Rods	$108 \pm 47^*$	36 ± 12	1500 ± 471	39 ± 17	Anatase	
	(aspect ratio 1:5)					
Platelets	$75\pm25^*$	233 ± 70	281 ± 83	250 ± 82	Anatase	
	(aspect ratio 8:1)					

standard deviation of 500 NPs for the particle size and 5 measurements for the hydrodynamic
diameter (D_h) of each sample. *The particle size was calculated along the major axis of the

917 NPs.

926 **Figure captions**

927 Figure 1. SEM In-lens micrographs: (a) P25, (b) food grade, (c) bipyramids; (e) platelet NPs.

- 928 T-SEM micrograph of rods (d). DLS analyses, normalized by volume distribution (f-j): (f) P25,
- 929 (g) food grade, (h) bipyramids, (i) rods and (j) platelet NPs, suspensions in DMSO 1% (black
- 930 line), RPMI base (red line) and RPMI complete (blue line).
- 931 Figure 2. Cytotoxicity measured with WST-1 (a,b) and LDH release (c,d) of BEAS-2B cells
- exposed to different concentrations $(5-80 \ \mu g/ml)$ of commercial and engineered NPs. Control
- level is at 100%. Data represent effects detected after exposure with laboratory light (a,c) and
- 934 in darkness (b,d). Data represent the mean % of the different wells, bars represent standard
- deviation. *=p<0.05 §= p<0.001; vs control cells (C-) according to ANOVA test, followed by
- 936 Dunnett's test.

937 Figure 3. Effect of BEAS-2B cells exposure to commercial and engineered NPs. AC (-Fpg) = 938 alkaline Comet assay (direct DNA damage); MC (+Fpg) = Fpg-modified Comet assay (direct + indirect DNA damage). Ox = oxidative DNA damage (tail intensity (%) in enzyme-treated 939 940 cells - tail intensity (%) in enzyme-untreated cells). Exposure with laboratory light (a-e): (a) P25, (b) food grade, (c) bipyramids, (d) rods, (e) platelet NPs; exposure in darkness (f-h): (f) 941 P25, (g) food grade, (h) platelet NPs. Data represent the mean % of tail intensity; bars represent 942 standard deviation of two independent experiments for each experimental condition. *= p < 0.05943 p = p < 0.001 DNA damage vs control cells (C-). a = p < 0.05 b = p < 0.001 oxidative DNA damage 944 945 vs control cells (C-). According to ANOVA test, followed by Dunnett's test.

Figure 4. 3D confocal micro-Raman imaging of BEAS-2B cells after exposure to commercial and engineered NPs. Top views (optical and 3D Raman) and 3D Raman sections are shown from the left to the right: (a) P25, (b) food grade, (c) platelet NPs, (d) bipyramids, (e) rods. 3D chemical images are built by superimposing the different maps of each cell at their corresponding focal planes and they are presented using a color meshwork i.e. blue for cell

- tissues (methylene blue v(C-C)ring at 1600 cm⁻¹) and red for TiO₂ agglomerates (Eg band at
- 952 144 cm⁻¹ of the anatase TiO_2).