

Oxidative stress response in pulmonary cells exposed to different fractions of PM2.5-0.3 from urban, traffic and industrial sites

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1	Oxidative stress response in pulmonary cells exposed to different fractions of PM2.5-0.3
2	from urban, traffic and industrial sites
3	
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16 Abstract

17 The aim of this work was to study the relationship between oxidative stress damages and particulate matter (PM) chemical composition, sources, and PM fractions. PM_{2.5-0.3} (PM 18 19 with equivalent aerodynamic diameter between 2.5 and 0.3 µm) were collected at urban, road 20 traffic and industrial sites in the North of France, and were characterized for major and minor 21 chemical species. Four different fractions (whole PM_{2.5-0.3}, organic, water-soluble and non-22 extractable matter) were considered for each of the PM2.5-0.3 samples from the three sites. After 23 exposure of BEAS-2B cells to the four different fractions, oxidative stress was studied in cells by quantifying reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation, oxidative damage to proteins 24 25 (carbonylated proteins), membrane alteration (8-isoprostane) and DNA damages (8-OHdG). 26 Whole PM_{2.5-0.3} was capable of inducing ROS overproduction and caused damage to proteins at higher levels than other fractions. Stronger cell membrane and DNA damages were found 27 associated with PM and organic fractions from the urban site. ROS overproduction was 28 29 correlated with level of expression of carbonylated proteins, DNA damages and membrane 30 alteration markers. The PM2.5-0.3 collected under industrial influence appears to be the less 31 linked to cell damages and ROS production in comparison with the other influences.

32

33 Keywords: Particulate matter; oxidative stress; reactive oxygen species; 8-isoprostane; 834 OHdG; carbonylated proteins.

35 1. Introduction

36 Numerous studies have been conducted to study chemical atmospheric particulate matter (PM) 37 characteristics (Telesiński and Kiepas-Kokot, 2021), and to better understand the impact of PM 38 on human health (Broome et al., 2020; Fischer et al., 2020; Guan et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2020; 39 P. Wang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Results have shown associations between PM and 40 cardiovascular disease (Arval et al., 2021), fertility (L. Wang et al., 2021), cancer (Gogna et al., 41 2019; Nagel et al., 2018), increased risk of autism spectrum disorders (Lam et al., 2016), 42 psychiatric disorders (Buoli et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2018; Oudin et al., 2016). PM has been proven to cause damaging respiratory outcomes, especially through the triggering of oxidative 43 stress (Li et al., 2021; Mu et al., 2021; Quezada-Maldonado et al., 2021) which is one of the 44 first mechanism of stress appearing in the cell. Oxidative stress occurs in the cell when a break 45 in the redox homeostasis happens, due to a decrease in antioxidant capacity, or an 46 47 overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as superoxide anion (O₂⁻), hydrogen 48 peroxide (H₂O₂), hydroxyl radical (OH•). This phenomenon may lead to non-specific and 49 irreversible oxidation of DNA, proteins and cellular lipids (Badran et al., 2020a; Migdal and 50 Serres, 2011; Ndong Ba et al., 2019). Along with the direct measurement of ROS in the cells, 51 different cellular methods could be used for oxidative stress evaluation. Among the biomarkers 52 used for oxidative stress assessment (Ho et al., 2013): 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) 53 is one of the predominant forms of ROS-induced oxidative DNA damage, isoprostanes are 54 generated by the peroxidation of a polyunsaturated fatty acid (Morrow et al., 1992), and carbonylated proteins, are an indicator of oxidative alteration of proteins. The PM induced 55 56 oxidative stress has been linked to metals (Jan et al., 2020) and organic compounds (Badran et 57 al., 2020a, Win et al., 2018). In addition, the ability of the particles themselves(Dergham et al., 58 2015, 2012; Leclercq et al., 2018; Moufarrej, 2021), their organic extract (OE) (Abbas et al., 59 2019; Badran et al., 2020b; Billet et al., 2018) or their water soluble extract (WSE) (X. Liu et 60 al., 2020; Shuster-Meiseles et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2017) to induce oxidative 61 stress has been shown. Despite the numerous studies investigating the relationship between PM 62 physical-chemical properties and oxidative stress, a lack of information remains regarding the 63 fraction of PM that contributes the most in triggering of oxidative stress. This study aims to investigate the dependence of oxidative stress to PM chemical composition, sources, and PM 64 65 fractions. In this work, different PM samples were collected under urban, industrial, and road 66 traffic influence in northern France, as the whole population is mainly exposed to such kind of 67 emission sources. The ROS, 8-isoprostane, carbonylated proteins and 8-OHdG were quantified to assess the onset of oxidative stress. Correlations, principal component analysis, and 68 classifications were used to reveal the relationship between oxidative stress, different PM 69 70 fractions, and PM chemical composition.

No

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72 2. Material and methods

73 2.1. PM sampling sites

74 PM with an equivalent aerodynamic diameter between 2.5 and 0.3 µm (PM_{2.5-0.3}) were collected 75 in different sites in northern France. Five samples were collected under urban influence, in Dunkirk (51°01'35.8"N 2°22'20.0"E): one annual average sample (U-Y) March 19, 2014 to 76 77 March 18, 2015, and four seasonal samples: U-Sp during spring period (March 19, 2014 to June 78 21, 2014), U-Su during summer period (June 21 to September 26, 2014), U-A during autumn 79 period (September 27 to December 17, 2014) and U-W during winter period (December 18, 80 2014 to March 18, 2015). In addition to these five samples, one sample (I) was collected under 81 industrial influence at Grande-Synthe (51°01'29.0"N 2°18'11.7"E), near integrated steelworks and chemical activities (steam cracking, oil stocks) between February 28, 2017 and June 02, 82 83 2017. Finally, another sample (T) was collected in a road traffic influenced site at Roubaix (50°42'24.6"N 3°10'49.8"E) between March 02, 2017 and June 1, 2017. All these seven samples 84

were collected using 5 stages plus back up cascade impactor (Staplex[®] 235, TFIA, 68 m³/h) and PM_{2.5-0.3} were retrieved from the 5 impaction plates (cut-off off the 5th plate was 0.33 μ m) as described elsewhere (Borgie et al. 2015).

88

89 2.2. Preparation of the different PM fractions

90 PM samples were studied by considering them as whole PM, water-soluble extract (WSE), 91 organic extract (OE) and non-extractable matter (dPM). In order to prepare the WSE for each 92 sample, 60 mg of PM_{2.5-0.3} were extracted with 3 mL of ultra-pure water in a glass conical tube, 93 using ultrasonic treatment for 20 minutes, and then centrifuged for 10 minutes at 4°C and 2500 g. The supernatant was then transferred in a polyethylene vial, and the particle pellet was again 94 95 suspended in ultrapure water, and the recovery steps were repeated twice (Landkocz et al., 2017). Finally, the WSE was filtered through a nylon filter (0.22 µm) (and stored at -18 °C until 96 97 use. The same steps were followed to prepare the OE, using dichloromethane as a solvent. 98 Finally, the obtained extract was concentrated under nitrogen flow, and dimethyl sulfoxide was 99 added to the residue for solvent change. Finally, in order to prepare the dPM, the particulate 100 residue after successive extraction of both organic and water-soluble fractions was considered.

101

102 2.3. PM chemical characterization

PM_{2.5-0.3} were extensively characterized. Briefly, major and trace elements were quantified in whole PM samples as well in WSE using Inductively Coupled Plasma coupled to Atomic Emission Spectrometry or Mass spectrometry (ICP-AES and ICP-MS). Major water-soluble ions were quantified after water leaching using ion chromatography. Total Carbon was quantified using C, H, N, S microanalyzer. Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) were quantified in the OE after Soxhlet extraction of PM_{2.5-0.3} using dichloromethane. Detailed procedures used for chemical characterization can be found in Landkocz et al, 2017.

111 2.4. Cell culture

112 BEAS-2B cells are used in this work. They were initially generated from normal human bronchial epithelial cells from non-cancerous subjects. BEAS-2B (ATCC® CRL-9609TM, 113 114 ECACC, Wiltshire, UK) were cultured in Corning cellbind[®] plastic plates or flasks 115 (ThermoFisher, France) using LHC9 (ThermoFisher, France) as culture medium and incubated 116 at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. Medium was replaced every three days 117 and cells were passed when reaching 80% of confluence. S

118

119 2.5. Cytotoxicity

120 The WST-1 assay allows the evaluation of mitochondrial activity and cell proliferation. WST-1 121 cytotoxicity test was performed in order to choose the dose of exposure allowing the 122 observation of a cellular response without massive cell mortality. The WST-1 colorimetric 123 assay kit was purchased from Roche Diagnostics GmbH (Mannheim, Germany). In the present 124 study, we would like to expose to a unique dose to be able to discriminate the 28 samples (7 125 sites and 4 different fractions). The heterogeneity of the 28 samples makes this dose more 126 difficult to define. Cells were exposed to PM, WSE, OE and dPM fractions of the different samples using different doses (6, 12, 24, 48 and 96 µg/cm²), using four replicates for each 127 128 sample, and during 48 h. Exposure of BEAS-2B cells to the different PM_{2.5-0.3} samples showed 129 strong significant decrease in mitochondrial activity after 48 h of exposure, at 48 and 96 μ g/cm². 130 For low doses (6 and 12 μ g/cm²), very weak responses were recorded. For the 24 μ g/m³ dose, 131 the samples showed medium decreases in mitochondrial activity. Considering all conditions of exposure, the 24 μ g/cm² dose appeared to be the most suitable dose for studying the oxidative 132 133 stress parameters, providing sufficient doses to cause certain adverse effects, without massive

134 cell death, and for comparing responses associated with the four fractions of the seven PM_{2.5-}

135 _{0.3} samples. It was therefore chosen as the exposure dose for the whole study.

136

137 2.6. Inflammation

The protein expression of the inflammatory cytokine IL-6 was quantified after 48 h of cell exposure to the different PM fractions. The test was done using ELISA sandwich method, using Human IL-6 kit (ELISA MAXTM Deluxe Set, BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol.

142

143 2.7. Oxidative stress

Oxidative stress was evaluated by the measurement of ROS overproduction, lipid membranealteration, and the measurement of protein and DNA damage.

146

147 ROS assay

Cells were cultivated in 96 well black plates according to the manufacturer's instructions. This test was performed 48 h after the exposure (40,000 cells/well) using the DHE (Dihydroethidium) Assay Kit—Reactive Ox Species (ab236206, Abcam China, Shanghai, China), according to manufacturer's protocol. It allows the quantification of reactive oxygen Species (Superoxide radical and hydrogen peroxide) in living cells, and uses dihydroethidium DHE as a fluorescent probe for the detection of ROS.

154

155 Assessment of oxidative DNA damage - quantification of 8-OHdG

8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) is formed as a result of oxidative damage to DNA by
reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. The concentration of 8-OHdG was measured using
8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine ELISA Kit, (ab201734, Cayman, Ann Arbor, MI, USA),

according to manufacturer's protocol. The assay uses a plate coated with 8-hydroxy-2'deoxyguanosine, and an antibody, bound to the enzyme horseradish peroxidase (HRP) for
detection (Ndong Ba et al., 2019).

162

163 Assessment of oxidative lipid damage - quantification of 8-isoprostane

164 Isoprostanes are a family of eicosanoids of non-enzymatic origin, produced by the oxidation of 165 the phospholipids tissue by ROS. The 8-isoprostane competitive ELISA assay (Abcam 166 ab175819[®], Cambridge, UK) was used for the determination of 8-isoprostanes in cells, 167 according to manufacturer's protocol.

168

169 Assessment of protein oxidative damage - quantification of carbonylated proteins

Protein carbonylation is one of the irreversible oxidative modifications of proteins. The method based on the reaction of 2,4-Dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) with carbonylated proteins. The DNP-hydrazones formed can be quantified by measuring its absorbance at 375 nm. Levels of carbonyl groups were determined using Protein Carbonyl Content Assay kit (Abcam ab126287[®], Cambridge, UK) according to manufacturer's protocol (Ndong Ba et al., 2019).

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176 2.8. Statistical analysis

Toxicity test results are normalized to the control, and are presented as an average of the 4 replicates for cytotoxicity and inflammation tests, and as an average of the 3 replicates for oxidative stress tests, considering the standard deviation. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was performed to compare the values obtained with the controls. Significant differences are reported with values of p < 0.05 (*), p < 0.01(**) and p < 0.001 (***).

182 Correlations were studied using the Spearman coefficient as the normality of the distribution 183 was not verified (Shapiro-Wilk test, p < 0.001) for most of the variables. Two levels of significance were considered, p < 0.05 and p < 0.001, allowing conclusions about correlation with 95% and 99.9% confidence, respectively. In addition, the data were also examined using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA), which was performed considering n=84 samples including triplicates (7 PM samples x 4 fractions x 3 replicates).

188

189 3. Results

190 3.1. PM_{2.5-0.3} chemical composition

First of all, in relation with the procedure required to prepare samples for chemical analysis and to prepare the four fractions of PM_{2.5-0.3}, it can be noticed that the ion composition was the same in the WSE and the whole PM_{2.5-0.3}. As well, the PAHs composition was similar for the PM_{2.5-0.3} 0.3 fraction and OE. No water-soluble and no PAH compound have been detected in the dPM samples.

196 Table 1 gathers the average composition of the 7 PM_{2.5-0.3} samples. Total carbon (11.3 - 19.0%), $NO_{3}^{-}(8.1 - 14.3\%), SO_{4}^{2-}(4.0 - 8.3\%), Cl^{-}(0.4 - 8.6\%), Ca^{2+}(3.7 - 5.8\%), Na^{+}(0, 4 - 5.0\%),$ 197 198 NH4⁺ (1.3 - 2.3 %), Fe (3.1 - 8.7 %) and Al (1.2 - 3.4 %) represented major compounds of the 199 particles. In the "Urban" samples (U-PM), these species explained between 52.6% (summer) 200 and 58.3% (winter) of the PM mass, compared to 51.7% in the "Traffic" PM (T-PM) and 57.5% in the "Industrial" one (I-PM). Considering the urban site, NO3⁻ ions were detected in higher 201 202 amount in spring than in other seasons, partly due to meteorological conditions favoring their 203 accumulation in the atmosphere (Favez et al., 2012;). NO₃⁻ ions were already shown to be the 204 preponderant species of secondary inorganic ions in the Region (Kfoury et al. 2016, Ledoux et 205 al. 2017). The highest proportion of NO₃⁻ is observed in the T-PM sample (14.3%), and this 206 could be related to the high concentration of NOx observed at this site (Atmo Hauts-de-France 207 air quality network), which are well known to be converted in the atmosphere into nitrate 208 species (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions are known to be associated with marine

209 aerosols, whose contribution may be significant at the study area due to the proximity with the 210 English Channel-North Sea area. At the urban site, higher C content was detected in particles 211 sampled in autumn and winter. This could be explained by colder temperatures during these 212 seasons and therefore, a higher contribution of emissions related to residential heating using 213 fossil fuels. The metal element contents Al (1.2 - 3.4%) and Fe (3.1 - 8.7%) can be explained 214 by crustal and anthropogenic emissions, with however a significant contribution of industrial 215 emissions in samples collected at the industrial site (Kfoury et al., 2016). In particular, it should 216 be noticed that Fe and Mn contents were respectively 2.3 and 3.8 times higher in the I-PM sample, compared to the U-PM urban samples. Fe, Mn, Zn, Pb, Cr, and Cd could be linked to 217 anthropogenic sources, especially to emissions from steelmaking and metallurgical activities 218 219 (Kfoury et al., 2016). Cu, Zn and Cr contents clearly reflect the influence of traffic emissions 220 (Gietl et al. 2010). In particular, the copper content at the T-PM site is 1.5 times higher than at 221 the urban site (U-Y-PM), and more than 3 times higher than at the I-PM site. Table S1 gathers the chemical composition of the PM_{2.5-0.3} WSE. Among the considered metals, Mn appeared as 222 223 the most abundant element in the water-soluble fraction, far ahead of Sr and Ba, then Al, Cu, 224 Zn, Mo and Ni. Fe was only detected in the WSE of PM_{2.5-0.3} collected on the traffic and industrial site (Table S1). Among the 16 priority PAHs listed by the United States 225 226 Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), contents of dibenz[a,h]anthracene (5.9 - 11.6 227 $\mu g/g$), indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene (3.2 - 12.2 $\mu g/g$), chrysene (2.2 - 13.2 $\mu g/g$), 228 benzo[b]fluoranthene (1.9 - 11.8 $\mu g/g$), benzo[g,h,i]perylene (2.1 - 9.6 $\mu g/g$) and 229 benzo[a]pyrene (2.0 - 9.4 μ g/g) in PM were predominant. The other compounds (fluoranthene, 230 pyrene, benz[a]anthracene and benzo[k]fluoranthene) showed content levels below 5 µg/g, 231 while the 6 PAHs composed of 2 and 3 rings showed contents below 1 μ g/g. For the urban site, 232 PAH contents were 3 to 4 times higher in autumn and winter than in spring and summer. 233 Between these two periods, the PAH profile (Figure S1) differed mainly by the content of chrysene (contribution of wood combustion and coal distillation (Telesiński and Kiepas-Kokot, 2021)) and benzo[b]fluoranthene (diesel vehicle emissions (Xing et al., 2022)). In parallel, the higher PAH contents were found for the industrial sample with a total content of 136.4 μ g/g, which corresponds to a value between 2 and 8 times higher than that of the other sites. This observation was in agreement with other studies conducted in this urban site impacted by industrial emissions (Crenn et al., 2017; Landkocz et al., 2017). On the contrary, PAH contents were lower at the road-traffic site (17.8 μ g/g).

241

242 Table 1: Chemical composition (µg/g) of PM_{2.5-0.3} particles collected under urban influence –

243 seasonal and yearly average (U-Sp, U-Su, U-A, U-W, U-Y), industrial influence (I), and traffic

244 influence (T).

		U-Sp	U-Su	U-A	U-W	U-Y	Т	Ι
Al		21810	27136	31719	34171	28026	11869	23800
As		12.2	12.1	17.3	16.1	13.9	10.0	10.0
Ba		272	343	399	339	331	932	285
Cd		6.8	6.2	5.6	6.2	6.3	10.0	10.0
Со		10.3	7.9	7.4	7.0	8.7	13.4	19.8
Cr		136	136	181	152	144	251	266
Cu		583	538	803	691	639	933	276
Fe		41179	40666	31331	43747	37530	38078	87549
Mn	(1880	1984	1235	1922	1767	555	6692
Mo		24.0	30.5	40.2	30.7	30.3	35.9	22.3
Ni		137	111	105	95.9	116	59.5	467
Р		1303	1882	1509	783	1345	979	1030
Pb	K í	226	179	263	271	234	210	246
Sn	Y	56.5	61.5	116	128	78.3	270	46.8
Sr		149	116	98.2	120	126	153.5	140.9
Ti		474	370	269	316	369	1631	1288
V		122	110	76	118	108	72.8	134
Zn		1259	1117	1335	1440	1293	1257	1841
Ca ²⁺		52900	46200	34600	37800	44600	39667	37106
K+		4300	4500	4900	4700	4500	8053	6677
Mg^{2+}		6800	6200	5200	6900	6500	2701	9307
Na ⁺		49700	39600	29300	50100	43300	30620	41178

$\mathbf{NH_4}^+$	16800	15000	22900	21700	16400	14944	12497
Cl	63200	45300	51000	86700	60900	38855	54882
NO ₃ -	126100	92900	80900	89900	100400	142872	116133
SO ₄ ²⁻	70600	83400	72100	76600	75200	40013	53062
ТС	113300	135700	190200	142500	142500	160000	149000
Naphthalene	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.1
Acenaphthylene	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2
Acenaphthene	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fluorene	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3
Phenanthrene	0.7	0.8	1.8	1.8	1.0	0.5	1.9
Anthracene	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.6
Fluoranthene	1.1	0.9	4.1	4.4	2.1	0.9	6.0
Pyrene	0.8	0.8	3.7	3.8	1.8	0.8	5.2
Benz[a]anthracene	0.6	0.4	0.4	5.5	1.9	0.7	10.1
Chrysene	2.2	2.2	11.7	13.2	5.4	2.6	20.5
Benzo[b]fluoranthene	2.8	1.9	11.0	11.8	5.3	2.3	20.0
Benzo[k]fluoranthene	0.7	0.5	3.2	3.5	1.7	0.6	7.1
Benzo[a]pyrene	2.6	2.0	9.0	9.4	3.9	1.7	15.5
Indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene	3.9	3.3	12.2	10.2	6.1	4.2	16.9
Dibenz[a,h]anthracene	6.7	5.9	11.3	11.6	8.9	2.6	18.2
Benzo[g,h,i]perylene	2.6	2.1	9.6	8.6	4.4	3.0	12.8
ТРАН	25.1	21.5	79.3	85.1	43.2	17.8	136.4

247

2483.2. Inflammation

PM and dPM fractions were shown to induce an increase in IL-6 secretion, significantly higher 249 than the OE fraction, while the WSE fraction seemed to have no effect (Figure S2). Indeed, a 250 251 significant increase in IL-6 concentration was observed for all PM and dPM samples (Table 252 S2). Concerning the organic extracts (OE), 5 samples caused significant increases in IL-6 253 secretion while no effect was observed with the water-soluble extracts (WSE). These results 254 are in line with numerous works that have previously demonstrated the development of an 255 inflammatory response after exposure of lung cells to whole PM samples collected under 256 different influences and in different locations (Cachon et al., 2014; Dieme et al., 2012; Dong et 257 al., 2019; Xu et al., 2018).

- 259 3.3. Oxidative stress
- 260 3.3.1. Reactive oxygen species

261 Regardless the site typology, considering the average response associated to the 4 fractions, 262 PM_{2.5-0.3} have significantly induced ROS accumulation in cells at higher levels than the other 263 fractions (Figure 1-a). Looking into details, ROS production significantly increased (p < 0.05) 264 following BEAS-2B exposure to all fractions of the PM_{2.5-0.3} samples, except for some watersoluble extracts (U-A, U-Y and U-Sp) (Figure 2-a). The ROS overproduction was more 265 266 pronounced for PM collected under urban and road traffic influences, and for the organic fraction of urban samples corresponding to cold seasons that appeared to be more concentrated 267 in PAH (79 and 85 µg/g PM for U-A-OE and U-W-OE respectively). 268



270

Figure 1: Concentration of (a) ROS, (b) 8-isoprostane, (c) carbonylated proteins and (d) 8-OHdG, reported to total protein and control in BEAS-2B cells exposed to different fractions of PM (dPM, OE, WSE, PM) at 24 μ g/cm². Results are represented by median and interquartile ranges (n=21). Mann-Whitney test: **p* <0.05; ***p* <0.01; ****p* <0.001.



Figure 2: Relative concentration of (a) ROS, (b) 8-isoprostane, (c) carbonylated proteins and (d) 8-OHdG, reported to total protein and control in BEAS-2B cells exposed to different fractions of PM collected under urban influence–seasonal and yearly average (U-Sp, U-Su, U--A, U-W, U-Y), industrial influence (I), and traffic influence (T), at the dose 24 μ g/cm², represented by means and standard deviations over three biological replicates. Mann-Whitney U-test vs. controls; **p* <0.05 (Color code: green =PM; red=OE; light blue=dPM, dark blue=WSE).

284

285 3.3.2. 8-isoprostane

Whatever the fraction considered, there was no significant difference in the 8-isoprostane response after cell exposure (Figure 1-b). It is to note that U-Y was the sample inducing higher concentration of 8-isoprostane, followed by T-PM sample and its water-soluble extract (T-WSE). Whole PM_{2.5-0.3} appeared to be the fraction that is the most involved in the increase in 8-isoprostane. The industrial sample (I-PM) did not appear to have any effect on the 8isoprostane generation (Figure 2-b).

292

293 3.3.3. Carbonylated Proteins

294 PM and dPM fractions induced once again the stronger oxidative damages compared to OE and 295 WSE (Figure 1-c). The concentration of carbonylated proteins significantly increased (p < 0.05) 296 after exposure of BEAS-2B cells to the majority of the PM fractions. Indeed, only 4 samples 297 (U-A-WSE, U-Y-OE, I-dPM and U-W-OE) did not induce a significant increase of 298 carbonylated proteins concentration (Figure 2-c).

299

300 3.3.4. 8-OHdG

In average, there was no significant difference between the 8-OHdG concentration after cell exposure to the different fractions (Figure 1-d). However, the PM fractions and OE would appear to be the more involved in DNA damages: U-A-PM, U-Sp-PM and U-A-OE, U-W-OE, and U-Sp-OE caused a significant increase in 8-OHdG formation (Figure 2-d). The samples collected under the influence of road traffic and industrial emissions did not exhibit any response whatever the fraction considered, and the same observation was made for the urban samples collected in spring and summer.

308

309 3.4. Correlation analysis

310 The ROS concentrations showed weak correlations with the concentration data of 8-OHdG 311 (r=0.28), 8-isoprostane (r=0.26), and IL-6 (r=0.33) (Table 2). On the other hand, ROS 312 concentrations were strongly correlated with carbonylated protein concentrations (r=0.67). 313 Carbonylated proteins also showed weak correlations with IL-6 (r=0.29) and moderate 314 correlations with 8-isoprostane (r=0.44). Concerning correlation with the chemical composition 315 (Table S3), positive correlations were found between ROS accumulation and several elements (Cd: r=0.43, p < 0.05; Sr: r=0.55, p < 0.01), protein oxidation (Al: r=0.42, p < 0.05; As: r= 316 0.50, p < 0.05; Cu: r=0.45, p < 0.05; Pb: r=0.43, p < 0.05). Positive correlations were also 317 318 evidenced between cell membrane alteration and some elements (Al: r=0.54, p < 0.01; As: 319 r=0.48, p < 0.05).

321 Table 2: Correlation coefficient (Spearman) between cell parameters (n=96). Only correlations 322 with p < 0.05 are reported (**p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001).

	IL-6	ROS	Carbonylated proteins	8-OHdG	8-isoprostane
IL-6		0.33**	0.29**		
ROS	0.33**		0.67***	0.28**	0.26

Carbonylated proteins 0.2	29**	0.67***		0.30**	0.44***
8-OHdG		0.28**	0.30**		
8-isoprostane		0.26	0.44***		

324 3.5. Principal component analysis

325 PCA was performed considering 84 samples including triplicates. The first axis explained about 326 44% of the variability of the data, and appeared to be strongly related to the amount of ROS, 8-327 isoprostane and carbonylated proteins (Figure 3-a). Thus, this axis is clearly related to the 328 capacity of the samples to induce damage to the cell membrane and proteins. Axis 2 explained 329 about 22% of the variability of the data, and appeared to be related to DNA damages. Note that 330 the 8-OHdG variable appeared to be totally uncorrelated with the other oxidative stress 331 parameters. Similarly, IL6 considered as supplementary variable, showed poor relationship 332 with the oxidative damage parameters in this plan (1,2) explaining 66% of the variability in the 333 data. The 84 samples were categorized according to their influence and the fractions they belong 334 to. The barycenters relative to the 4 fractions of the same influence (T, I, U-Sp U-Su, U-A U-W and U-Y) and those relative to all the influences of the same fraction (PM, dPM, OE and 335 336 WSE) were projected in the (1,2) plane (Figure 3-b) in order to highlight links between the 337 latter and the 4 oxidative stress parameters. The axis 1 which is associated to damage to the 338 membrane and proteins and ROS overproduction, shows a ranking WSE < OE and dPM < PM 339 evidencing the capacity of the latter to induce the more cell damages and WSE to induce less 340 cell damages. It appears in agreement with the previous observations made on each of the 341 parameters (Figures 1 and 2).

342 If we adopt the same reasoning, focusing now on the influences, it appears that the industrial 343 influence appears to be the less linked to cell damages and ROS production in comparison with 344 the other influences. 345 Another interesting observation can be made. In this work, we considered 4 seasonal samples 346 and an average annual sample (made up of 25% of each seasonal sample) for the Urban site. It 347 appears that the projection of the characteristics of this average sample (U-Y) is not in the center 348 of those of the seasonal samples. This illustrates that the response of cells exposed to particles 349 from the annual sample is not an average of the ones observed after cell exposure to particles 350 from seasonal samples. This tends to show and prove that complex interactions could take place 351 between the compounds of these samples, and that these interactions would be able to modulate 352 the cell responses to oxidative stress, and the resulting damages.





Figure 3: (a) PCA performed considering the 4 parameters ROS, 8-OHdG, carbonylated proteins, and 8-isoprostane, on n=84 samples - (b) Representation of the barycenters of the different fractions or influences in the (1,2) plane.

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To go further, a hierarchical classification on the principal components was performed in order to statistically evidence group samples and highlight their specificity (depending on sampling sites, fractions and cellular parameters) (Table 3). Three groups are highlighted (the

363 associations mentioned below are statistically significant at p < 0.05): The first group (n=28) is 364 mostly related to the industrial influence (p < 0.01) and to the water-soluble fractions of the 365 different PM samples. It is characterized by low values for ROS, carbonylated proteins and 8-366 isoprostane parameters (p < 0.001 for these three parameters). With a lower statistical weight, 367 low values of parameters 8-OHdG (p=0.06) and IL-6 (p=0.1) seem to be associated with this 368 group. The second group (n=45) is characterized, by high values of ROS (p<0.01) and 8-369 isoprostane (p<0.01) and low values for 8-OHdG. This class is strongly represented by the 370 urban influence, especially U-Su (p <0.01). The industrial influence do not statistically belong 371 to this group (p < 0.05). The third and last group (n=11) is characterized by high ROS values (p<0.001) and damage parameters (8-isoprostane and especially 8-OHdG (p <0.001)). The 372 373 samples associated with this third group are responsible for more damages compared to the 374 other samples and cause a more marked disruption of cell function. In particular, the U-A 375 influence stands out. The WSE fraction is statistically less associated with this 3rd group (p 376 <0.05) showing that WSE is not the most involved fraction of PM_{2.5-0.3} in ROS overproduction. 377 The test value for the PM fraction also seems to show that this 3rd group would be related to 378 the PM fraction (p = 0.13). The study of the barycentres of the fractions (Figure 3-b) tends to 379 support this hypothesis.

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Table 3: Test values obtained for the "Fraction" and "Influence" categories and for the quantitative variables associated to each of the classes identified after Principal Component Analysis followed by Hierarchical Cluster Analysis. The test value allows to highlight the characteristics that differ significantly in the class compared to the whole samples. Only the most remarkable test values have been reported with their significance level (*p < 0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p < 0.001). Values in italic are close to -2 and +2 corresponding to p < 0.05.

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Category		Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Fraction	WSE	2.50*		-2,15*
	PM	-2.18*		1,51 (p=0,13)
Influence	Ι	3.05**	-2.02*	
	U-A		-1.75 (p=0.08)	2,05*
	U-Su	-2.02*	2.92**	
	U-Y		1.59 (p=0.11)	/
cellular parameter	ROS	-6.04***	2.93**	4,11***
-	carbonylated proteins	-4.70***	6	4,82***
	8-isoprostane	-4.34***	2.62**	2,20*
	8-OHdG	-1.89 (p=0.06)	-2.08*	5,71***
	IL-6	-1.66 (p=0.10)		

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- 394 4. Discussion

395 Regardless the site typology and the season, cell exposure to particles as a whole (PM) and dPM caused a significant increase (p < 0.001; Figure S2) in the secretion of the pro-396 397 inflammatory cytokine interleukin-6. To a lesser extent, organic extracts gave the same effect, 398 whereas exposure to water-soluble extracts showed no effect. Several studies have already 399 reported the greater ability of particulate samples to induce an inflammatory response compared 400 to their water-soluble (Shang et al., 2020) or organic extracts (Badran et al., 2020b; Verdin et 401 al., 2017). As observed in this work, the literature also reported no inflammatory response 402 following exposure of BEAS-2B cells to water-soluble and/or organic extracts (Chowdhury et 403 al., 2018; Honda et al., 2017). A recent study showed that particles deprived of their organic or 404 water-soluble fractions were able to induce inflammation (TNF- α) to a greater degree than 405 organic and water-soluble fractions (Gali et al., 2019). Our observations are in line with these previous findings, pointing out the important contribution of the particulate skeleton in 406

triggering the inflammatory response. The latter has been widely described in the literature as
intimately linked to the initiation of cellular oxidative stress, including a strong link between
the secretion of pro-inflammatory interleukins and the accumulation of ROS (Dergham et al.,
2015; Jiang et al., 2020; Symon et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2018).

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412 In this study, attention was also paid on the possible development of a cellular oxidative stress. 413 It appeared that BEAS-2B cells exposed to the different PM_{2.5-0.3} samples/fractions exhibited 414 ROS accumulation under all exposure conditions, whatever the fraction considered (PM, OE, WSE, dPM). In the literature, several studies had already demonstrated the ability of airborne 415 particulate extracts to generate ROS accumulation in cells, either after exposure to their organic 416 417 (Libalova et al., 2018; Rodríguez-Cotto et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2017) or water-soluble fractions (Q. Liu et al., 2020; Shuster-Meiseles et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2017). Several 418 419 recent studies have highlighted the significant contribution of metals in ROS generation, 420 especially the elements As, Bi, Ce, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Sn, V and Zn (Crobeddu 421 et al., 2020; Das et al., 2021; Fang et al., 2020). The relatively high contents of PAHs, water 422 soluble ions and elements (Cr, Co, Cu, Sn, NO₃⁻, Al, Cu, Pb, Sn and V) in the "Traffic" and the 423 different "Urban" samples could also explain their strong capacity to generate ROS in cells. 424 This is also the case for the sample collected under industrial influence (I), particularly rich in 425 PAH (136 µg/g) and in Co, Cr, Mn, Ni and V (Table 1). It is to note that a preponderant effect 426 in ROS accumulation was shown for the particulate fraction comparing to the moderate effect 427 obtained with water-soluble and organic extracts.

428

429 Concerning the cell membrane damages assessed by the 8-isoprostane quantification, only a 430 trend could be revealed for $PM_{2.5-0.3}$ samples. However, recent studies have demonstrated the 431 ability of airborne particles to alter the cell membrane. Badran et al, (2020) showed that particulate samples induced a more pronounced membrane alteration than their organicextracts, which also appeared to be the trend here, although the difference was not significant.

434

435 Focusing on the DNA damages, 8-OHdG did not show significant difference between most of 436 the different PM_{2.5-0.3} fractions. However, the effect of PM and OE fractions seemed to be 437 predominant. This result is confirmed by several statistical analyses, in particular the PCA and 438 classification (Figure 3; Figure S3), which showed a clear discrimination between the effect of 439 the particulate fractions and the organic and then water-soluble extracts. Results are in 440 agreement with works that have demonstrated the ability of the particles themselves (Dergham et al., 2015, 2012; Leclercq et al., 2018) or their organic extracts (Abbas et al., 2019; Badran et 441 al., 2020b; Billet et al., 2018) to induce oxidative DNA damages, by 8-OHdG determination. 442 Similarly, other authors have also highlighted the genotoxic effects triggered by atmospheric 443 444 fine particles, notably by the phospho-H2AX assay (Borgie et al., 2015), and the assessment of 445 DNA damage via the comet (Gualtieri et al., 2011; Platel et al., 2020).

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447 Concerning carbonylated proteins, our observations are in agreement with Ndong Ba et al, 448 (2019) who demonstrated, the ability of atmospheric particles to trigger cellular protein 449 oxidation on the BEAS-2B cell line. Recently, Badran et al, (2020) also found that PM could 450 induce more oxidative damage to proteins than their organic extracts did.

451

The correlation analysis has revealed a weak positive correlation (r=0.33, p < 0.01) between cellular ROS concentration and IL-6 secretion. This hyper accumulation of ROS in the cell is often described as being associated with alterations in biological macromolecules (Cachon et al., 2014; Cui et al., 2020; Dergham et al., 2012; Dieme et al., 2012; Van Den Heuvel et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2017). In our work, positive correlations between intracellular ROS 457 accumulation and cell membrane alterations (r=0.26, p < 0.0128), protein oxidation (r=0.67, p458 < 0.001) and oxidative DNA adduct formation (r=0.28, p < 0.006) were found. Indeed, the 459 predominant impact of the particulate fraction (as a whole or free of organic and water-soluble 460 fractions) compared to the other fractions was observed on the irreversible oxidation of proteins 461 by the determination of carbonylated proteins (p < 0.01).

462

463 In this study, positive correlations were found between several elements and oxidative stress 464 biomarkers. Numerous elements such as Al, As, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Pb, Sr, V, Zn, etc are known to play a major role in ROS generation and oxidative damages (Crobeddu et al., 2017; Das et 465 al., 2021; Shuster-Meiseles et al., 2016). Indeed, Al and Pb have already been described to be 466 467 associated with redox reactions (Verstraeten et al., 2008) while Cr, As and Cd, carcinogenic to human elements (IARC, 2012) can induce the overproduction of ROS in cells and thus 468 469 contribute to plasma membrane alterations as well as to protein and DNA damages (Chen and 470 Lippmann, 2009; Fortoul et al., 2015). Exposure of BEAS-2B cells to TiO₂ has been shown to 471 induce ROS generation, increased 8-OHdG concentrations, lipid peroxidation (Bhattacharya et 472 al., 2009; Gurr et al., 2005). ZnO has been previously described to induce ROS overproduction, 473 protein oxidation, DNA damages, lipid peroxidation (Huang et al., 2010; Saliani et al., 2016; 474 Singh et al., 2020; Syama et al., 2013; Zoufan et al., 2020).

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In this work, correlations were found between the contents of some light PAHs in PM_{2.5-0.3} and oxidative damage to proteins (acy: r=0.33, p < 0.05; ace: r=0.42, p < 0.01), cell membranes (ace: r=0.56, p < 0.001; phe: r=0.42, p < 0.001; ant: r=0.37, p < 0.01; fla: r=0.36, p < 0.05; pyr: r=0.35, p < 0.05) as well as to DNA (nap: r=0.37, p < 0.05; ace: r=0.46, p < 0.01). It has already been shown in the literature that these PAHs are capable of inducing ROS overproduction, lipid peroxidation and DNA damage (Ma et al., 2019; Machado et al., 2014; 482 Vuchetich et al., 1996; Wang and Zheng, 2008). In addition, PAHs in PM_{2.5} have previously 483 been associated with the induction of oxidative stress and inflammation in human bronchial cell 484 models (Boublil et al., 2013; Dergham et al., 2015, 2012; Leclercq et al., 2018). Similarly, the 485 particulate and organic fractions of the traffic-influenced sample (T) and the urban samples 486 collected during cold seasons (U-A and U-W) were found to be among the most toxic across 487 all tests performed. For the urban samples, the total PAH content of these samples (79 and 85 488 µg/g for U-A and U-W respectively) and trace elements such as Al, As, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Pb, Sr, 489 and Zn could be involved in the level of cell response. Indeed, PAH contents were 3 to 4 times 490 higher in particles collected during cold seasons compared to warm seasons (U-W=85; U-491 A=79; U-Sp=25 and U-Su=21 μ g/g PM).

492

493 On the basis of the contents of organic and inorganic compounds, it appeared surprising that 494 the sample collected under industrial influence (I), whether for its particulate fraction or its 495 water-soluble and organic extracts, was found to show a cell response positioned among the 496 least toxic samples. This is the case for all the parameters of oxidative stress evaluated (also 497 highlighted through the PCA/classification). Indeed, this I-PM sample exhibits the highest 498 contents in PAHs (136 µg/g) (Table 1; Figure S1) and in some trace elements as Cd, Cr, Co, 499 Pb, Sr and Zn (Table 1), known for exerting toxic effects (Guo et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). 500 However, the same observation had already been made by Dergham et al, (2012), who had also 501 collected a sample under industrial influence at the same site. Although significantly higher in 502 organic compounds and metallic elements, the PM_{2.5-0.3} sample collected under the same 503 conditions was found to induce a lower cell response than traffic and urban influence to 504 oxidative stress parameters. This finding could be explained by the richness of these industrial 505 samples in Fe (more than twice as concentrated as the other samples) and in particular by the 506 presence of the Fe₃O₄ form in the collected PM (Heliot, 2018; Kfoury et al., 2016; Laversin, 507 2006) which is related due to emissions from the nearby steel complex (Hleis et al., 2013). 508 Indeed, it was shown that the Fe₃O₄ form was found in particles emitted at the blast furnace and 509 steel mill. Complementary tests on BEAS-2B cells were carried out by considering reference 510 samples, and results showed that Fe₃O₄ sample, when considered pure or in mixture with other 511 metal oxide compounds as Mn₂O₃, ZnO and Fe₂O₃, induced oxidative damages in a lesser extent 512 that other metal oxides tested. Fe_3O_4 is a compound formed at high temperature during in the 513 industrial process. It associates Fe(II) and Fe(III) and is less oxidized than Fe(III) oxide. This 514 observation tends to show that Fe₃O₄ would exert an inhibiting effect regarding oxidative stress. 515 A recent study conducted on A549 cells showed that following exposure to the Mn/Pb mixture, 516 cell viability was 45%, and was higher in the case of the Fe/Mn/Pb mixture (69%), which would 517 mean that the presence of iron would inhibit the cytotoxicity (Yuan et al., 2019). We also showed that the PM_{2.5-0.3} sample collected under industrial influence (I-PM) have a high 518 519 manganese content (6 692 μ g/g) almost 4 times higher than that of the urban sample (Table 1). 520 However, it was shown through tests performed on the synthetic samples that Mn₂O₃ could 521 cause high ROS production and significant increases in other oxidative stress parameters. 522 Studies have proven the role of Mn₂O₃ in inducing oxidative stress through protein oxidation and lipid peroxidation (Ognik et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2013). Another recent study showed that 523 exposure of A549 cells to 79 μ g/L Mn²⁺ could decrease their cell viability (Yuan et al., 2019). 524 525 In our case, and considering the oxidative stress results for the industrial sample (I-PM), it can 526 be suggested that the effect of manganese is limited due to the presence of Fe₃O₄ in the PM 527 sample.

528

529 Interactions between organic compounds, such as PAHs or even HULIS-type organic 530 compounds (although not analyzed in our work) with metallic elements cannot be excluded. It 531 can be suggested that synergistic interactions between metals and organic compounds 532 contribute to the oxidative power of organic compounds such as quinones, which oxidize 533 cellular antioxidants and subsequently generate H₂O₂. The latter can then be converted to OH 534 radical by metal Species, through the Fenton reaction (Wang et al., 2018). This result is in 535 agreement with those obtained in other recent studies (Al Hanai et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2020). 536 This type of interaction between PM compounds could also be considered to explain the higher 537 level of oxidative stress for PM_{2.5-0.3} samples at the urban site in the cold season (U-A-PM and 538 U-W-PM), which are richer in PAHs than the samples collected in spring and summer (U-Sp-539 PM and U-Su-PM).

540 Finally, the four PM fractions and the three studied influences were able to induce oxidative 541 stress damages, with different levels of magnitude and different target (membrane DNA, 542 proteins). Oxidative stress is considered as the first mechanism involved in the PM toxicity on 543 cells and consequently each PM fraction can be an inducer of the whole PM toxicity.

544

545 5. Conclusion

546 The main objective of this study was to discriminate the effect of different PM_{2.5-0.3} fractions 547 from various origins on the induction of oxidative stress and related damages after exposure of BEAS-2B cells. The results showed that all fractions tested induced oxidative stress. The PM_{2.5-} 548 549 0.3 particles were able to trigger the overproduction of ROS and cause protein damage at higher 550 levels than the other fractions. The predominant effect of the particulate fraction on these 551 parameters (ROS and carbonylated proteins) is confirmed by the results obtained on the dPM 552 sample, whose response was higher than that measured with the organic and water-soluble 553 extracts. Correlation analysis showed that ROS concentrations were correlated with 554 inflammation (IL-6; r=0.33) and with the three oxidative stress-related injury parameters: weak 555 correlations with 8-OHdG (r=0.28) and 8-isoprostane (r=0.26) concentrations, but strong 556 correlations with carbonylated protein concentration (r=0.67). On the other hand, oxidative

557 stress parameters showed weak or moderate correlations with some chemical compounds, 558 whether major and trace metal elements or PAHs. This tends to illustrate the complexity of 559 interactions between PM constituents, and potentially the existence of additive, synergistic and 560 antagonistic effects, which may explain the observed results. Principal component analysis 561 (PCA) showed a correlation between the amount of ROS detected and the 8-isoprostane and 562 carbonylated protein parameters, whereas 8-OHdG appeared to be completely uncorrelated 563 with the other oxidative stress damage parameters. Sample collected under industrial influence 564 appears to be the less linked to cell damages and ROS production in comparison with the other influences. The classification results confirmed the ability of the particulate fractions to induce 565 566 the most damage at the protein and cell membrane level.

In order to better understand the synergistic and antagonistic effects between metals and/or organic compounds, it would be interesting to repeat the same experiments on synthetic samples, by preparing combinations of metals, carbon black, and by including individual organic compounds in these mixtures, especially quinones. To go further, it could be relevant to also study the effect of dose, by preparing synthetic samples with different mass proportions of the compounds.

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- 582 particulate air pollution influenced by age, PACATOX" (ANSES, 2014) and "Impact of PM_{2.5}
- 583 varying according to their source (Road traffic Industries) on respiratory health. In vitro
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