

# Source specific cyto- and genotoxicity of atmospheric aerosol samples

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SCHOLARONE<sup>™</sup> Manuscripts We determined cyto- and genotoxicity of PM2.5 samples. We performed on-line source apportionment based on Aethalometer measurement. We measured OC/EC and heavy metal content of PM 2.5 samples. We revealed connection between emission source and cyto- and genotoxicity.

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# Source specific cyto- and genotoxicity of atmospheric aerosol samples

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### 14 Abstract

15 Atmospheric aerosol samples were studied during wintry conditions at three Hungarian 16 17 locations (rural background, urban background, traffic site). Ratio of biomass burning and fossil fuel related aerosol were highly different at the sampling points. Cyto- and genotoxicity 18 of the samples were measured by using *Pseudomonas putida* growth inhibition test and Ames 19 test, respectively. Dominant particle emission sources were apportioned through tracer heavy 20 21 metal content measurement, optically and thermo-optically methods. According to the results, both ecotoxicity parameters are strongly emission source dependent; the higher the ratio of the 22 23 biomass burning related carbonaceous aerosol the higher the cytotoxicity and the higher the 24 ratio of the fossil fuel related carbonaceous aerosol the higher the genotoxicity. Cytotoxicity showed positive correlation with carbonaceous aerosol related to biomass burning ( $R^2=0.74$ ) 25 and negative with lead content of the samples ( $R^2$ =-0.56). Genotoxicity showed positive 26 correlation with carbonaceous aerosol related to traffic ( $R^2=0.42$ ) and cadmium content of the 27 samples ( $R^2=0.74$ ). At the same time, it showed negative correlation with organic/elemental 28 carbon ratio of the samples ( $R^2$ =-0.43). 29 30

31 *Keywords*: PM2.5, Source Apportionment, Toxicology

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#### 34 **INTRODUCTION**

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Identification of atmospheric aerosol emission sources is one of the most challenging 36 topics inof environmental science. The Clean Air for Europe (CAFE) Program, which exists 37 within the 6th Environment Action Programme, claims that atmospheric aerosols are among 38 39 the most dangerous air pollutants. Atmospheric particulate matter (PM) contains various carcinogenic and mutagenic compounds. It is generally accepted that these compounds can 40 41 cause respiratory diseases such as lung cancer. Traffic-related sources such as vehicular 42 exhaust systems, brake or tire wear and biomass burning are significant emitters of 43 problematic aerosol substances. Daily average of the traffic related emission is much more constant The traffic sources emit more or less constant amounts of PM-throughout the year 44 while then the biomass burning source that is strongly seasonal (Wehner and Wiedensohler, 45 2003). Extensive public health studies have established the link between mass concentrations 46 of PM2.5/PM10 and health problems within the population (Pope and Dockery, 2006 and 47 references therein). However, there is a lack of direct measurements of the particle-based 48 toxicological hazard of aerosols due to the low concentration and the chemical complexity of 49 the PM2.5/PM10 (Steenhof et al., 2011; Soto et al., 2008). It is assumed that only a small 50 fraction of combustion aerosol species is harmful. One of the most important pollutants is 51 52 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)., Under specific traffic conditions, ial pollutants like heavy metals can be occurred (de Kok et al., 2005). Both of these processes are accompanied 53 with black carbon (BC) emissions, for which it was shown that it is better correlated with 54 public health effects compared to the concentration of sulphates, nitrates or PM10 (Atkinson 55 et al., 2014; Jansen et al., 2012). 56

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The most common source apportionment methods are the chemical mass balance 58 (CMB) technique (Hedberg et al., 2006; Schauer and Cass 2000, Schauer et al., 2007, Watson,

59	1984, Hedberg et al., 2006) and on-line Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) measurements
60	combined with positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Lanz et al., 2007 and 2008). Radiocarbon
61	measurements (Currie et al., 1994; Szidat et al., 2006 and 2007) and the "Aethalometer
62	model", which is based on the measurement of aerosol light absorption at different
63	wavelengths (F (Favez et al., 2010; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Sandradewi et al., 2008, Favez et
64	al., 2010), are also frequently used to distinguish between wood combustion and other
65	sources. Although optical absorption-based methods (for example photoacoustic spectroscopy
66	or Aethalometer) measure only the light absorbing fraction of the total PM, several studies
67	demonstrated the connection of the apportioned sources with the results of other models.
68	Favez and coworkers (2010) demonstrated a very good consistency between temporal
69	variations obtained from CMB (performed with off-line filter measurements), PMF (applied
70	to AMS measurements), as well as using the "Aethalometer model" Utry et al. (2014)
71	established connection between optics-based source apportionment (from multi-wavelength
72	photoacoustic measurement) and as well concentration of gaseous components (NO <sub>x</sub> and CO),
73	as un-carbonaceous constituents of the particles (K, Ca, Fe, Si). Source apportionment of BC
74	used in this study does not provide total mass of aerosols produced by traffic and biomass
75	burning but predictions the amount of soot produced by each of the two combustion sources.
76	Though <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> growth inhibition test is typically used for examination
77	of toxicity in soil, sediment, surface water and groundwater samples, several studies
78	demonstrated that it is also suitable to detect pollutants which are present in the air and is
79	bounded to the surface of the PM fraction. This bacterium is aerob and unable to grow
80	without the appropriate functioning of the dissimilatory system took place in the cytoplasmic
81	membrane. Any type of pollutant disturbing the membrane integrity or inhibitory to the
82	electron transport chain inhibit the metabolism, and as a consequence the growth of the
83	bacterium will be retarded. Hence, this bacterial test system is an adequate method for air

84	pollution testing as it sensitively detects heavy metals, phenol derivatives, nitroaromatics and
85	PAH-s (Hahna et al., 2007; Teodorovic et al., 2009; van Beelen and Fleuren-Kemila, 1997;
86	<u>Vodovnik et al., 2012).</u>
87	For the fast genotoxicity investigations of aerosol samples, the SOS chromotest
88	(Quillardet et al., 1982) and distinct variants of Ames test (Gatehouse, 2012) or their
89	combinations (Škarek et al., 2007) are the most frequently used methods. Shortly after the
90	development of a sensitive microbiological assay for genotoxicity by Ames (1975), Pitts et al.
91	(1977) used the Ames assay system for investigating mutagenic activity in the organic fraction
92	of ambient airborne particulates. <u>Škarek et al. (2007) investigated the genotoxicity of organic</u>
93	extracts of total suspended particles (TSP) and PM2.5 with SOS chromotest. The results of
94	the bioassays indicated potential health risks for the population exposed to the organic air
95	pollutants, especially at the urban localities. The relationship between the genotoxicity of
96	atmospheric samples and particle size were studied by Kawanaka et al. (2004) and -by
97	Boschini et al. (2001) with Ames plate test (TA98 and TA100 strains, with or without S9
98	fraction treatments), gene conversion and reversion -in the Saccharomyces cerevisiae D7
99	strain, and comet assay on human leukocytes. The PM2.5 fraction of airborne particulate
100	generally showed the highest DNA-damaging activity. Nordina et al. (2015) investigated the
101	influence of ozone initiated atmospheric processing on the physicochemical and toxicological
102	properties of particulate emissions from wood combustion. The collected PM was
103	investigated toxicologically in vitro with a mouse macrophage model. DNA damage was
104	assessed by the alkaline single cell gel electrophoresis (comet assay). The ecotoxicity
105	differences of artificial emission samples and ambient aerosol samples were shown using a
106	method based on the Vibrio fischeri bioluminescence inhibition bioassay (Turoczi et al.,
107	2012). However, the genotoxicity of aerosols from different sources has not been studied.
108	The aim of this paper is the investigation of the potential connection between toxicity

and different source specific parameters (i.e. organic carbon/elemental carbon, fossil fuel and biomass burning related components of <u>BC</u> and heavy metals) of atmospheric samples. Beside genotoxicity tests based on Ames method, *Pseudomonas putida* growth inhibition test was applied for cytotoxicity determination of aerosol filter extracts. A pre-processing method was also developed that allows toxicological testing of standard PM2.5/PM10 samples for both Ames test and *P. putida* growth inhibition test. This study presents the application of this method on PM2.5 samples collected from different sampling points.

116

#### 117 **METHODS**

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#### 119 *Measurement sites*

PM2.5 samples were collected on a 24 h basis on pre-baked Whatman quartz filters at
 three different measurement sites (rural background, urban background, roadside) during
 wintry conditions. Average PM10 mass concentration during the sampling periods was 20.9,
 30.5 and 38.15 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. In total, 52 samples were collected.

Site 1 is the rural background station K-puszta, which is located in a clearing in a mixed forest on the Hungarian Great Plain in the middle of the Carpathian Basin. The nearest large city is Kecskemét (population 110,000), located 15 km southeast from the station. The nearest major pollution source in the prevailing wind direction (northwest) is Budapest (population 1.9 million), approximately 70 km from the station. PM2.5 samples were taken between 11/01/2013 and 08/02/2013 using a high volume sampler in the framework of an intensive EMEP campaign.

Site 2 is an urban background site located in a schoolyard in a residential area of
Kecskemét, Hungary. PM 2.5 samples were collected between 14/11/2013 and 27/11/2013
using a Digitel high volume sampler.

Site 3 is a traffic site located 300 m from the highway 5 (Tóth László walkway, Kecskemét) linking the city centre of Kecskemét to motorway 5 (distance of 5 km). The annual average of the total motorized traffic at this junction is about 1500 vehicles/hour. PM2.5 samples were collected between 08/03/2014 and 19/03/2014 using a Digitel high volume sampler.

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#### 140 **Optics-based source apportionment**

141 Source apportionment of BC emissions using Aethalometer measurements is based on 142 the <u>model of Sandradewi *et al.*</u> (2008), with optical absorption coefficient (b<sub>abs</sub>) being a sum 143 of biomass burning (bb) and fossil fuel (ff) burning fractions:

144

145 
$$b_{abs}(470 nm) = b_{abs}(470 nm)_{ff} + b_{abs}(470 nm)_{bb}$$
 (1)

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147 
$$b_{abs}(950 nm) = b_{abs}(950 nm)_{ff} + b_{abs}(950 nm)_{bb}$$
 (2),

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149 where  $b_{abs}(\lambda)$  is the absorption coefficient at wavelength  $\lambda$ . The model is based on the 150 difference in the wavelength dependence of the absorption coefficients <u>offer</u> aerosols from 151 <u>both the two</u> sources; it is assumed that the absorption coefficients of aerosols from fossil fuel 152 and biomass <u>combustion burning described with Ångström</u>'s law <u>with Ångström</u> 153 <u>exponents  $\alpha_{ff}$  and  $\alpha_{bb}$  are:</u>

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155 
$$\frac{b_{abs}(470 \ nm)_{ff}}{b_{abs}(950 \ nm)_{ff}} = \left(\frac{470}{950}\right)^{-\alpha_{ff}}$$
(3)

156

157 
$$\frac{b_{abs}(470 \ nm)_{bb}}{b_{abs}(950 \ nm)_{bb}} = \left(\frac{470}{950}\right)^{-\alpha_{bb}}$$
(4)

158		
159	where $\alpha_{ff}$ and $\alpha_{bb}$ are the Ångström exponents related to fossil fuel and biomass bu	<u>rning,</u>
160	respectively. Solving equationEqs. (1-4) enables the calculation of the biomass burnin	ig and
161	fossil fuel related BC fractions:	
162		
163	$\frac{BC_{bb}}{BC} = \frac{b_{abs}(950 \text{ nm})_{bb}}{b_{abs}(950 \text{ nm})}$	(5)
164		
165	$\frac{BC_{ff}}{BC} = \frac{b_{abs}(950 \ nm)_{ff}}{b_{abs}(950 \ nm)} =$	(6) <u>.</u>
166		
167	BC measurements were performed using a seven-wavelength Aethalometer model	AE33

168 (Drinovec *et al.*, 2014). Ångström exponent values of  $\alpha_{\rm ff}$ =1 for fossil fuel and  $\alpha_{\rm bb}$ =2 for 169 biomass have been used for source apportionment.

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#### 171 *Toxicity testings*

The filter extracts were made from  $1 \text{ cm}^2$  filter pieces with sterile distilled water in Eppendorf-tubes agitated with sterile glass beads in a high frequency Eppendorf-tube shaker. After centrifugation the supernatants were used for further processing. These extracts were centrifuged through a cellulose acetate membrane (pore size: 0.22 µm) containing spin column (Corning<sup>®</sup> Costar<sup>®</sup> Spin-X<sup>®</sup> centrifuge tube filters, Sigma).

177

#### 178 Cytotoxicity determination

For the cytotoxicity investigation the *Pseudomonas putida* growth inhibition test (ISO 10712:1995) was used, adapted to 0.2 ml end volume in microtiter plate wells. The optical density of mini-cultures was followed with a microtiter plate photometer.

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#### 183 *Genotoxicity investigations*

184 A new microtiter plate version of the Ames test (Ames et al., 1975) was developed and used in this work. Salmonella typhimurium histidine auxotrophic mutant strains (TA98 and 185 186 TA1535) were used in this test. The Salmonella strains were grown in LB (Luria-Bertani) 187 medium for 1 day at 37 °C. LB bacterial culture medium (Bertani, 1952) contains 10 g/l bacto 188 trypton, 5 g/l yeast extract and 10 g/l NaCl. The Salmonella cells were pelleted from the 189 cultures by centrifugation and resuspended in minimal liquid medium (Mortelmans and 190 Zeiger, 2000). The optical density of the suspensions was set to 0.5 at 620 nm by dilution with 191 minimal medium. A mixture of 0.15 ml of bacterium suspension and 0.05 ml filtered aerosol 192 extract was applied to each well of the microtiter plate. The optical density of microcultures 193 was measured at 620 nm using a microtiter plate photometer before and after 48 hour of 194 incubation. The measured optical density increase was in strong positive correlation with the 195 number of the revertants and so with the genotoxicity of the samples.

196

#### 197 Determination of chemical composition

The organic and elemental carbon content (OC and EC, respectively) of the PM2.5 samples was measured using a thermo-optical method with a Sunset Lab OCEC Aerosol Analyser with EUSAAR 2 protocol (Cavalli *et al.*, 2010). Heavy metal content of the samples was measured by atomic absorption spectroscopy according to MSZ21454/6-86 Hungarian standard.

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#### 204 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Our novel sample pre-processing method ensures an efficient sterile extraction of particulate matter from filters into the solution. An important task was the removal of the heat and radiation resistant *Bacillus* spores which are present in substantial amounts on the filters. Instead of heat or radiation treatments – which could cause undesired chemical reactions in the samples – the extracts were centrifuged through a cellulose acetate membrane filter with  $0.22 \ \mu m$  pore size (Corning<sup>®</sup> Costar<sup>®</sup>Spin-X<sup>®</sup>centrifuge tube filters, Sigma).

211	All measured raw data are collected in Table 1, averaged pertaining to the three
212	sampling points. Mass concentration of PM10 was increasing properly as expected (lowest at
213	the background station – Site 1 and doubled at the traffic site – Site 3). While the maximum of
214	the mass concentration was the lowest at Site 1, the maximum of the BC concentration and
215	cytotoxicity (Pseudomonas growth inhibition - PS) were the highest. The extremely high-
216	even exceeding the air quality limit value -, PM10 maximums at Site 2 and 3 did not show
217	any connection with the toxicity values. The mass concentration of cadmium (Cd), originating
218	from traffic emission (Terzi et al., 2010), was almost three times higher at Site 3 than at Site 2
219	(rural background). In case of lead, originating mostly from wheel weights (Salma &
220	Maenhaut, 2006), the increase at Site 3 can be noticed only if mass of the total sample is taken
221	into consideration.

In order to eliminate the disturbance of the different mass of the single particle 222 samples (or the mass concentration in case of in-situ measurement) we calculated mass 223 normalized ratios from the determined source related quantities such as OC/EC, BC<sub>ff</sub>/BC and 224 BC<sub>bb</sub>/BC. These values are already independent of the amount of the sample and are 225 226 connected to the type of the pollution. Correlation coefficients between the measured 227 toxicological and source specific parameters (determined by the least squares method) are summarized in Table 24. Connections having p-values lower than  $10^{-3}$  (labelled with asterisk 228 229 in Table 24) were studied.

In case of optics-based source apportionment, we found a very high biomass burning contribution at Site 1 (BC<sub>bb</sub>/BC as high as 60 %) and a strong connection between the biomass burning related fraction of BC and cytotoxicity (PS) (Fig. 1((a))). PS did not show

any correlation with fossil fuel related BC fraction. On the other hand, traffic was usually 233 234 quite high at Site 3 and always low at Site 2. The fossil fuel fraction of BC showed a reliable correlation with genotoxicity measured with the TA98 strain (Fig. 1(b)), but no significant 235 236 connection with genotoxicity determined with the TA1535 strain. The source apportion 237 method based on optical measurements depends on the increased organic aerosol content 238 produced by incomplete biomass combustion. The correlation of cytotoxicity with the 239 biomass burning related fraction of BC is supported by the higher toxicity of incomplete 240 combustion aerosols (Bolling et al., 2009).

241 Results of heavy metal content analysis confirmed our previous findings. PS showed 242 negative correlation with lead concentration (originating mostly from wheel weights (Salma 243 & Maenhaut, 2006); Fig. 2(a)). Genotoxicity determined with the TA1535 strain correlated 244 positively and strongly with concentration of cadmium originating from traffic emission 245 (Terzi et al., 2010; (Fig. 2(b)). There was no correlation between genotoxicity measured with 246 the TA98 strain and any measured heavy metal component. De Kok et al. (2005) showed that 247 traffic emission genotoxicity is most closely correlated with both PAH and metal content of 248 the particles.

High OC/EC ratios can be indicative for the high contribution of biomass burning emissions
(Soto-García *et al.*, 2011). OC/EC shows non-significant positive correlation with cytotoxicity
and negative correlation with genotoxicity using TA98 strain (Fig. 3). This is in agreement
with the results of the optics-based source apportionment results where high fossil fuel <u>related</u>
<u>BC</u> content correlates with genotoxicity and biomass burning <u>related BC</u> correlates with the
cytotoxicity. This can be understood by toxic effect of wood smoke being ascribed to the
organics fraction of aerosols (Kocbach *et al.*, 2008).

256

#### 257 CONCLUSIONS

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259	The ecotoxicity of aerosol samples collected during three winter time field campaigns
260	on quartz fibre filters were was measured using a novel sample pre-processing method.
261	Optical, thermo-optical and heavy metal analyses were used to indicate major sources of
262	these the ratio of traffic and biomass burning related fraction of winter time aerosol samples.
263	The results showed indicate that genotoxicity of atmospheric aerosol samples is more closely
264	related to traffic sources whereasand cytotoxicity of the same PM2.5 samples is related
265	tobetter correlated with the biomass burning sources as determined byusing optically based
266	source apportionment method.
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269	
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# 407 List of Table captions

408

- 409 **Table 1:** <u>Measured raw data pertaining to the three sampling locations</u>
- 410 Table 2: Correlation coefficients between cytotoxicity (PS) and genotoxicity (TA98 and
- 411 TA1535) test results and selected aerosol parameters.

### 412 List of Figure Captions

- 413
- 414 Figure 1(a-b): Correlation between optics-based source apportionment and toxicity of PM2.5
- 415 samples
- 416 Figure 2(a-b): Correlation between heavy metal compounds and cytotoxicity of PM2.5
- 417 samples
- 418 Figure 3: Correlation between Organic/Elemental carbon ratio and relative genotoxicity of
- 419 PM2.5 samples

Site 3 (N=12)

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	Average	Min	Max	Average	Min	Max	Average	Min	Max	
PM10 (μg/m <sup>3</sup> )	20.9±10.25	8.44	39.96	30.54±14.26	11	62.7	38.15±15.14	16.58	64.25	
OC (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	8.47±2.99	3.57	13.49							
EC (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	0.63±0.28	0.17	1.24							
BC (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	2.07±1.01	0.63	3.91	1.47±1.08	0.32	3.45	2.4±1.57	0.58	5.08	
Pb (ng/m <sup>3</sup> )				19.21±2.39	16.15	25.14	17.18±3.12	12.25	22	
Cd (ng/m <sup>3</sup> )				5.16±2.58	1	9.2	16.57±6.48	3.5	24.7	
PS (%)	63.65±16.37	36.62	95.1	21.06±6.72	16.08	42.2	17.18±3.12	12.15	22	
TA 98 (%)	7.51±3.00	2.47	12.5	9.34±2.47	5.1	13.1	6.45±2.75	2.3	13.1	

**Table 1:** Measured raw data pertaining to the three sampling locations

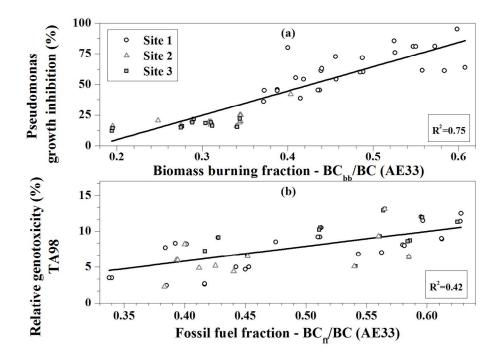
Site 1 (N=26)

Site 2 (N=14)

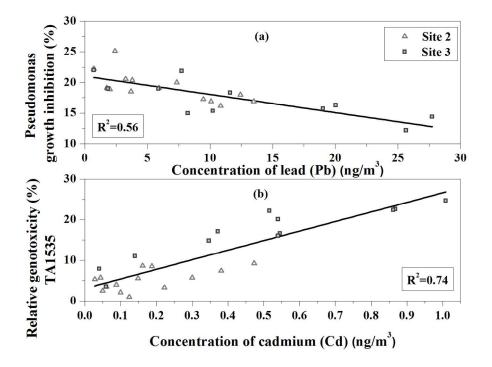
Table 2: Cor	relation	coefficients	between	cytotoxicity	(PS)	and	genotoxicity	(TA98	and
TA1535) test	esults a	nd selected a	erosol par	ameters.					

	BC <sub>ff</sub> /BC	BC <sub>bb</sub> /BC	OC/EC	Pb	Cd
PS	0.03	0.74*	0.10	-0.56*	0.27
TA98	0.42*	-0.03	-0.43*	0.08	-0.04
TA1535	0.32	-0.07		0.24	0.74*

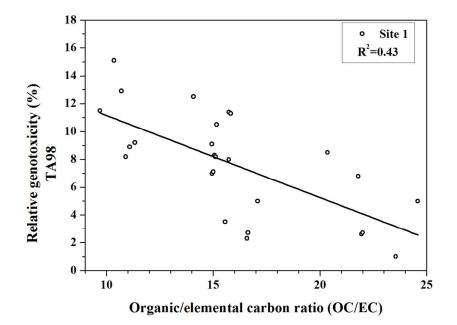
\* p<0.001



Correlation between optics-based source apportionment and toxicity of PM2.5 samples 289x202mm (150 x 150 DPI)



Correlation between heavy metal compounds and cytotoxicity of PM2.5 samples 289x202mm (150 x 150 DPI)



Correlation between Organic/Elemental carbon ratio and relative genotoxicity of PM2.5 samples 289x202mm (150 x 150 DPI)