Responses of reconstituted human bronchial epithelia from normal and healthcompromised donors to non-volatile particulate matter emissions from an aircraft turbofan engine

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1	Responses of reconstituted human bronchial epithelia from normal and health-compromised donors
2	to non-volatile particulate matter emissions from an aircraft turbofan engine
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32 Abstract

33 Health effects of particulate matter (PM) from aircraft engines have not been adequately studied since 34 controlled laboratory studies reflecting realistic conditions regarding aerosols, target tissue, particle 35 exposure and deposited particle dose are logistically challenging. Due to the important contributions 36 of aircraft engine emissions to air pollution, we employed a unique experimental setup to deposit 37 exhaust particles directly from an aircraft engine onto re-differentiated human bronchial epithelia 38 (HBE) at air-liquid interface under conditions similar to in vivo airways to mimic realistic human 39 exposure. The toxicity of non-volatile PM (nvPM) from a CFM56-7B26 aircraft engine by sampling was 40 evaluated under realistic engine conditions and exposing HBE derived from donors of normal and 41 compromised health status to exhaust for one hour followed by biomarker analysis 24hours post 42 exposure. Particle deposition varied depending on the engine thrust levels with 85% thrust producing the highest nvPM mass and number emissions with estimated surface deposition of 3.17×10^9 particles 43 cm⁻² or 337.1 ng cm⁻². Transient increase in cytotoxicity was observed after exposure to nvPM in 44 45 epithelia derived from a normal donor as well as a decrease in the secretion of interleukin 6 and 46 monocyte chemotactic protein 1. Non-replicated multiple exposures of epithelia derived from a 47 normal donor to nvPM primarily led to a pro-inflammatory response, while both cytotoxicity and 48 oxidative stress induction remained unaffected. This raises concerns for the long-term implications of 49 aircraft nvPM for human pulmonary health, especially in occupational settings.

50

51 **Keywords:** Aerosol, aircraft engine exhaust, bronchial epithelial cell culture, cellular response, non-52 volatile particulate matter.

53 1. Introduction

54 Aircraft engine emissions contribute significantly to both global and local air pollution (Lee et al., 2020). 55 Detailed characterization of these emissions and their adverse health effects is essential for the health 56 and safety of airport workers as well as communities living in proximity of large airports. Due to the 57 continuous growth of commercial air travel, emissions from aircraft engines have contributed to an 58 increase in global air pollution in the last decades and are predicted to keep doing so in the future 59 despite the reduced air-traffic during the COVID-19 pandemic (Manisalidis et al., 2020; Masiol and 60 Harrison, 2014; Mazareanu, 2021; Peeters, 1998; Price and Probert, 1995). Non-volatile particulate 61 matter (nvPM) from aircraft engines is very small, with mean mobility diameters typically smaller than 62 100 nm, also known as ultrafine particles (UFP), and can traverse the entire human respiratory tract 63 upon inhalation (Lobo et al., 2015; Sturm, 2016a, b). These non-volatile particles are mainly comprised of soot and contain a minor fraction of inorganic, non-combustible ash PM (also referred to as metal-64 65 PM). Studies on ash PM, mainly from the automotive sector, have shown that ash consists of metal compounds formed by the combustion of fuel impurities, additives in lubricating oil, as well as metals 66 (e.g., iron, chromium, nickel, copper, tin) from the corrosion and mechanical wear of engine 67 68 components (Gagné et al., 2021; Liati et al., 2013; Sappok and Wong, 2006; Vaaraslahti et al., 2005). 69 We have previously shown that nvPM from a CFM56-7B26 aircraft engine induces oxidative stress in 70 bronchial epithelial cells at ground-idle (GI) thrust and that the observed biological effects are not 71 determined by deposited particle mass or number alone but rather influenced by particle morphology 72 (Jonsdottir et al., 2019). Furthermore, variability between particle emissions generated by the 73 combustion of fuels with different compositions has been reported, which adds complexity to 74 determining the contribution of aircraft engine emissions to air pollution and its resulting health 75 effects (Jonsdottir et al., 2019; Liati et al., 2019; Saffaripour et al., 2020). Overall, little is known about 76 the general health hazards associated with PM from aircraft engine emissions. However, in recent 77 years, several studies on the composition of aircraft engine exhaust and their effects on pulmonary 78 health have been conducted (Cavallo et al., 2006; Gawron et al., 2020; Habre et al., 2018; He et al., 79 2020; He et al., 2018; Jonsdottir et al., 2019; Møller et al., 2014; Wing et al., 2020). Thus far, reported 80 results suggest that since PM from aircraft engine emissions shares structural similarities with PM 81 emitted from other combustion sources, particularly diesel exhaust, the resulting health effects would 82 be similar (Bendtsen et al., 2019; He et al., 2020). Furthermore, repeated short (5h) exposures to UFP 83 near a major airport have been associated with decreased lung function in healthy volunteers, further 84 demonstrating the need for comprehensive characterization of aircraft engine emissions and their 85 effects on human health (Lammers et al., 2020). Such studies are especially relevant to airport workers who spend extended periods of time on the tarmac, e.g., baggage handlers, mechanics. Frequent 86

travelers, especially those with underlying respiratory diseases, might also be disproportionallyaffected.

89 As previously stated, PM emitted by aircraft engines is small in size, even smaller than that 90 observed in road traffic pollution (Bendtsen et al., 2021; Harris and Maricq, 2001; Stacey, 2019). It is, 91 therefore, able to deposit with high efficiency in the respiratory tract of humans and animals. However, 92 as previously mentioned, absolute quantities of nvPM number and mass from aircraft engines are not 93 the only metrics important to human health. We, and others, have observed a correlation between 94 the physicochemical properties of these combustion-generated particles, both from aircraft and other 95 combustion engines, and adverse health effects (Bendtsen et al., 2020; Jonsdottir et al., 2019). 96 Moreover, the adequate evaluation of the adverse effects of aircraft engines on the human respiratory tract requires the use of a representative model system. In the current study, we exposed re-97 98 constituted human bronchial epithelia (HBE) to aircraft engine nvPM at the air-liquid interface, 99 mimicking in vivo exposure. These epithelial cell cultures are three-dimensional, pseudostratified, and 100 contain the characteristic epithelial cell types of this lung compartment, such as basal, goblet, and 101 ciliated cells. They produce mucus and exhibit coordinated ciliary beating similar to in vivo respiratory 102 epithelium (de Jong et al., 1994; de Jong et al., 1993). In the present study, we evaluated the health 103 effects of nvPM from a CFM56-7B26 aircraft turbofan engine burning standard Jet A-1 fuel at different 104 thrust levels in HBE derived from three individual donors of different background. We deposited nvPM 105 from aircraft engine exhaust directly onto the apical surface of the epithelium under physiological 106 conditions using the portable Nano-Aerosol Chamber for In-Vitro Toxicity (NACIVT) (Jeannet et al., 107 2015). Additionally, we studied the morphology of the deposited particles by Transmission Electron 108 Microscopy (TEM). The combination of a realistic particle source and a physiological three-dimensional 109 cell culture model provides a unique platform to study the effects of aviation emissions on the human 110 respiratory tract in a controlled experimental set-up.

111 **2.** Materials & Methods

112 2.1 Summary of experimental design

113 Combustion aerosol was emitted by a CFM56-7B26 turbofan engine and sampled with a standardized 114 sampling system as previously described (Jonsdottir et al., 2019; Liati et al., 2019). To investigate the correlation between nvPM generated at high and low engine thrust levels and cellular effects in 115 116 pulmonary cells, we sampled aerosols from three distinct thrust levels, 85% (climb-out), 7% (taxi), and 117 ground idle (GI, 3%), along with filtered aerosol (at 65% thrust) as particle-free (P-free) control. The exposure campaign took place in July 2018 at Zürich Airport, Zürich, Switzerland. Aerosol was sampled 118 119 on 4 consecutive days. We exposed re-differentiated primary human bronchial epithelium from three 120 donors of varying background to exhaust at physiological conditions for one hour. Each individual 121 exposure was repeated two or three times, depending on the availability of cellular material. Overview 122 over number of exposures, replicates, and donors can be found in Table S1. At 24-hours post exposure, we assessed distinct biomarkers of pulmonary injury. In addition to physicochemical characterization 123 124 of the exhaust, we measured the morphology and composition of nvPM by analytical microscopy.

125

126 2.2 Aerosol generation, sampling, and characterization

127 An airworthy CFM56-7B26 turbofan engine, running in a test cell at SR Technics at Zürich Airport in 128 Switzerland was used as aerosol source. The engine was fueled with Jet A-1 with fuel properties well 129 within the allowable range for commercial jet fuel. The engine operating conditions were determined using the engine combustor inlet temperature (T3), which correlated to sea-level static thrust levels 130 131 corrected to international standard atmospheric conditions (15 °C, 1013.25 hPa). This approach has 132 been used for emissions certification of aircraft engines and research experiments (Durdina et al., 133 2017; ICAO, 2018; Lobo et al., 2020). The aircraft engine nvPM emissions were collected using a single point sampling probe and a standardized sampling system, compliant with the specifications listed in 134 135 the standards and recommended practices (ICAO, 2017; SAE International, 2018), also used in our 136 previous study (Jonsdottir et al., 2019). Briefly, the extracted nvPM sample is diluted with dry synthetic 137 air by a factor of 8–14 and then transferred to the diagnostic instruments using a 25 m long carbon-138 loaded, electrically grounded polytetrafluoroethylene line. The nvPM mass concentration was 139 measured using a Micro Soot Sensor (MSS, Model 483, AVL List GmbH, Austria) (Schindler et al., 2004), 140 the nvPM number concentration was determined with an AVL particle counter (APC, Model 489, AVL List GmbH, Austria) (Lobo et al., 2020; Lobo et al., 2015), and particle size distributions were measured 141 with a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, Model 3938, consisting of a long differential mobility 142 143 analyzer Model 3081A, a soft X-ray aerosol neutralizer Model 3088, and a condensation particle

144 counter Model 3776, TSI Inc., USA). The lower particle size cut-off was 10 nm for the APC (50% of 145 particles counted) and 6 nm for the SMPS measurements. Particle size distribution data from the SMPS 146 were analyzed using Aerosol Instrument Manager (AIM 10.2, TSI Inc.). The SMPS instrument made one 147 scan every 30 seconds. The reported distributions are averages of multiple scans during the 60-minute sampling window. The NACIVT chamber was connected to the diluted PM sampling line in parallel to 148 149 particle instrumentation. Volatile organic compounds were removed upstream of the NACIVT chamber 150 with a customized low flow thermodenuder (Fierz et al., 2007) operated at 200 °C on the 151 preconditioning and first absorption sections, and 100 °C on the second absorption section. All PM 152 data were plotted using Igor Pro 7.0 (Wavemetrics Inc.) and Origin 2019 (Originlab Inc). Estimated 153 deposition of nvPM onto the apical surface of the re-differentiated epithelia was calculated as 154 previously described (Jeannet et al., 2015). General chemical characteristics of Jet-A1 aviation fuel 155 were described previously (Jonsdottir et al., 2019).

156

157 2.3 Cell Cultures

Human bronchial epithelial cells (HBEC) were isolated from human lungs unsuitable for transplantation 158 159 appropriately consented for donation and recovered by the Life Alliance Organ Recovery Agency 160 (LAORA) Miami (Miami, Florida, USA). The cells were collected from the proximal conducting airways 161 of three individual donors with different background: one normal healthy donor with no smoking 162 history (donor 1) and two asthmatic donors with varying smoking history (donors 2 and 3) (Table S1). 163 Air-Liquid Interface (ALI) cultures of re-differentiated HBE were generated as previously described (Jonsdottir and Dijkman, 2015; Künzi et al., 2015; Künzi et al., 2013; Schmid et al., 2010). Briefly, 164 165 bronchial epithelial cells were maintained in submerged two-dimensional culture in Bronchial 166 Epithelial Cell Growth Medium (BEGM - LHC base media with supplements, Gibco, Fisher Scientific, 167 Reinach, Switzerland). Cells were thereafter seeded onto porous 0.33 cm² Transwell[®] inserts (Corning 168 International, Fisher Scientific, Reinach, Switzerland) in chemically defined medium that induces 169 terminal differentiation. Once confluent, apical medium was removed establishing ALI and the 170 epithelium allowed to differentiate over a period of 4 weeks, with apical washes and basal media 171 change three times a week (Jonsdottir and Dijkman, 2015). Terminal differentiation results in a 172 pseudostratified ciliated epithelium with established air-liquid interface. Mucus secretion and ciliary 173 beating were routinely checked visually and by light microscopy, respectively. Differentiated epithelia were washed with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺, Invitrogen, 174 Lucerne, Switzerland) 1 to 2 h before aerosol exposure. 175

176

177 2.4 Aerosol exposure

178 Bronchial epithelia derived from three separate human donors were divided into two or three sets of 179 of 6 inserts per donor, and each series of inserts was exposed to combustion-generated aerosol from 180 a CFM56-7B26 turbofan engine at different thrust levels (85%, 7% and GI) for 60 min within the NACIVT 181 at physiological conditions, *i.e.*, 37 °C, 5% CO₂, and > 85% relative humidity on separate days Table S1). 182 For P-free air exposure, we mounted a Balston DFU Model 9933-11, grade BQ filter (Parker Hannifin 183 Corporation, New York, USA) between the aerosol exhaust line and the thermodenuder. Particle 184 deposition was observed in real-time with Lab View 9.0.1. After exposure, cell cultures were incubated 185 at the same conditions for 1 h before collecting apical wash samples and subsequently incubated for 186 additional 23 hours followed by final sampling.

187

188 2.5 Analyses of cellular responses

189 To evaluate the cellular effects of the exposure to combustion aerosol, we analyzed several biomarkers 190 at 1-h and/or 24-h post exposure. To assess cytotoxicity, we quantified the release of Adenylate Kinase 191 (AK) by damaged cells into the apical compartment using the commercial ToxiLight kit (LONZA, Visp, 192 Switzerland) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cytotoxicity is reported as fold AK release 193 over P-free (particle-filtered exhaust) controls. To assess oxidative stress, we analyzed the gene expression of Heme Oxygenase 1 (HMOX-1) by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-194 195 PCR) by extracting total cellular RNA from exposed epithelia with Trizol (Sigma Aldrich, Buchs, 196 Switzerland) and ZymoResearch DirectZol Mini Prep Plus columns (LucernaChem, Luzern, Switzerland) 197 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Complementary DNA (cDNA) was prepared using the 198 QuantiTect[®] reverse transcription kit (Qiagen, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland) according to the 199 manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, genomic DNA (gDNA) was removed from all samples by incubating 200 extracted RNA in gDNA Wipeout buffer for 2 min at 42 °C and immediately transferring samples to ice. 201 Reverse transcription (RT) of 150 ng total RNA was performed with the provided RT mixes for 15 min 202 at 42 °C and inactivated for 3 min at 95 °C. For gene expression analysis, 0.2 µL of total cDNA was 203 amplified using the Applied Biosystems 7900HT system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the following 204 cycling parameters: 15 min at 95 °C, 45 cycles of 15 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 55 °C, and 30 s at 72 °C, followed 205 by a dissociation step to confirm product specificity. Data were normalized to Hypoxanthine-Guanine 206 Phosphoribosyl Transferase (HPRT) using the ΔΔCt method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Biological 207 replicates (n = 3–9 cultures) were analyzed three times using Applied Biosystems SDS v2.4. Data are 208 presented as fold change over P-free controls. The release of the inflammatory mediators, Interleukin 209 (IL)-6, IL-8, and Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein (MCP)-1 into basal media was assessed 24 h after

210 aerosol exposure. Cytokine release was measured using a sandwich Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent

- Assay (ELISA) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Duoset ELISA; R&D Systems Europe,
- Abingdon, United Kingdom). All samples were stored at -20 °C from sampling to analysis.
- 213

214 2.6 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

215 During experiments, nvPM was collected directly on TEM grids, in parallel with cell exposures. Two 216 types of TEM grids were used in the current study: i) Cu-supported holey carbon film grids for detailed 217 study of soot and ii) ultra-thin carbon film grids for better optical contrast facilitating observation of 218 ash particles. TEM imaging was performed with a JEOL 2200FS microscope fitted with an Omega filter, 219 a Schottky field emission gun at 200 kV, and a 0.23 nm point-to-point resolution (Electron Microscopy 220 Center of Empa, Dübendorf, Switzerland). The TEM instrument is equipped with an EDX detector (JEOL 221 EDX detector: EX-24065JGT), which was used for the elemental analysis of the inorganic, ash particles. 222 Gatan DigitalMicrograph[®] was used for image analysis.

223

224 2.7 Statistical analysis

Re-differentiated epithelia (n = 12–18, *i.e.* 6 replicates per exposure) were exposed to either aircraft 225 226 engine exhaust aerosol or to particle-filtered air. The number of biological replicates depended 227 primarily on the availability of cellular material from the different donors and space in the deposition 228 chamber (24 slots). Furthermore, specific focus was put on GI thrust levels based on our previous 229 publication (Jonsdottir et al., 2019), which was analyzed in all donors. Biological data are presented as 230 fold change over P-free control or absolute quantification (pg mL⁻¹). Data are presented as mean \pm 231 standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was determined with the commercial software 232 GraphPad Prism 8.0 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, California, USA). Non-matching 233 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's or Sidak's multiple comparison tests were used for 234 statistical comparison of cytotoxicity and biological responses to negative control (particle-free air 235 exposure). Parameters and applied statistical tests can be found in the corresponding figure legends. 236 *p* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

237 **3. Results**

3.1 Successful deposition of nvPM from aircraft engine exhaust on re-differentiated human bronchial
 epithelia

240 Electrometer data collected within the NACIVT deposition chamber show distinct diffusion charging 241 currents for the three thrust levels sampled (Figure 1a). Currents of -3995 ± 340 fA obtained for 85% 242 thrust indicate the highest particle deposition, while the -225 \pm 24 and -83 \pm 9 fA registered for GI and 243 7% thrust, respectively, point to low deposition. Precipitation voltages for P-free exhaust (-43 \pm 3 fA) 244 were identical to those observed for synthetic air (SA, dashed line), demonstrating the successful 245 removal of nvPM by the particle filters. The resulting particle size distributions (Figure 1b) were 246 unimodal and lognormal. Geometric median diameters (GMDs) of particles from GI and 7% thrust are 247 similar at 16.3–16.4 nm. Particles sampled at 85% thrust displayed the largest median diameters at 45.8 nm. Estimated deposition of both mass and number of nvPM from the exhaust onto bronchial 248 249 epithelia (Figures 1c and 1d) was calculated based on Jeannet et al. (Jeannet et al., 2015) and correlates 250 with the observed precipitation voltages from within the chamber, indicating successful deposition of 251 nvPM. The average deposition per surface area of cell culture was 3.17×10^9 particles cm⁻² or 337.1 ng 252 cm⁻² for the 85% thrust condition, 0.22×10^9 particles cm⁻² or 0.9 ng cm⁻² for 7% thrust, and 1.04×10^9 253 particles cm⁻² or 2.3 ng cm⁻² for GI.

254

255 3.2 TEM, HRTEM and TEM-EDX analyses of soot and ash collected on TEM grids during exposure

256 TEM analysis of particles collected at high (85%) and low (GI) thrust level conditions revealed a clear 257 correlation between engine thrust level and the amount of collected soot. It is widely accepted that 258 due to higher surface-to-volume ratio, soot with small particle sizes is more reactive with atmospheric 259 components than that with larger sizes (Al-Qurashi and Boehman, 2008; Harris, 1990; Pahalagedara et al., 2012; Vander Wal et al., 2010; Yehliu et al., 2011). Based on this fact, we determined the size of 260 261 the soot agglomerates (maximum length) and of their primary particle constituents (diameter of their 262 circular projection, Figure 2). The results revealed soot agglomerates sampled from 85% thrust 263 conditions are significantly larger (size mode: 60–160 nm, more rarely 200 nm) than those sampled 264 from GI thrust conditions (< 40 nm). The size of the primary soot particles within the agglomerates also 265 correlated with thrust levels. The primary soot particles from GI were 5–10 nm, while those from 85% 266 thrust were 10-25 nm, more rarely 30 nm. These results are in line with previous observations (Jonsdottir et al., 2019; Liati et al., 2019; Saffaripour et al., 2020). Ash was present in minor yet 267 268 detectable amounts among collected particles on examined TEM grids. As characterization of particles 269 by electron microscopy is generally not a quantitative technique, it cannot be implied whether ash can

270 be considered to occur in negligible amounts among nvPM (Gagné et al., 2021). The TEM/EDX analyses 271 of ash under GI conditions revealed that the most prominent element is iron (Fe), often together with 272 Chromium (Cr) ± Nickel (Ni) and/or Titanium (Ti), in form of single particles, fragments or aggregates, 273 a few hundreds of nanometers large, rarely down to tens of nanometers. The aggregates themselves 274 consist of tens of nm-large single particles with the same or different chemical composition. Another 275 frequently found element is Calcium (Ca), in the form of an oxide but also together with Sulfur (S) \pm 276 Phosphor (P) \pm Chloride (Cl). Ca-bearing particles occur as single fragments or as aggregates with sizes 277 of a few hundreds of nanometers. Iron (Fe)- and, more often, Ca-particles were also found inside soot. 278 Other elements detected in ash particles include Aluminum (AI), Magnesium (Mg), Tin (Sn), Silicon (Si), 279 and more rarely Potassium (K), Manganese (Mn), Zinc (Zn) and Bismuth (Bi), the latter a few tens of 280 nanometers large. Analysis of ash from high engine thrust conditions (85%) revealed the same 281 chemical composition as that from low (GI) thrust. However, Silver (Ag) was identified repeatedly in 282 high thrust ash samples with sizes of a few tens of nm. Ash particle sizes, in general, were similar among 283 both examined thrust conditions.

284

285 3.3 Biological responses in epithelia from a normal donor after 1-hour exposure to nvPM

286 Exposures to both GI and 7% thrust led to a statistically significant, immediate (1 hour), two-fold 287 increase of AK release in normal cells (donor 1) compared to control cells exposed to P-free air (p < p288 0.0001 and *p* = 0.0001, respectively). This increase of AK release is also observed at 24-h post exposure 289 to 7% thrust, although at lower level (p = 0.0144). There was no significant increase in cytotoxicity over 290 P-free controls after exposure to nvPM at 85% thrust. There was no correlation between deposited 291 particle mass or number and the observed cytotoxicity. Exposure to nvPM from 7% thrust led to a 292 statistically significant decrease in the release of both the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6 (p = 0.0092) 293 and the chemokines MCP-1 (p = 0.253) and IL-8 (p = 0.0299) compared to P-free controls. MCP-1 levels 294 also decreased after exposure to GI thrust (p = 0.0024).

295

3.4 Comparison of biological responses after 1-hour of exposure to ground idle thrust in epithelia from three individual donors

298 Comparison of the same biological parameters in epithelia derived from three separate donors and 299 exposed to GI thrust revealed significant differences in the release of adenylate kinase (AK) at 1 h and 300 24-h post exposure (Figure 4a) and the secretion of MCP-1 at 24-h post exposure (Figure 4c) for donor 301 1. The epithelia from the two additional donors did not exhibit any alterations in the tested parameters 302 at 24-h post exposure. Additionally, the overall biological responses of epithelia derived from donors 2 and 3 were similar apart from baseline secretions of IL-8, which were higher in epithelia of donor 3(Figure 4c).

305

306 3.5 Non-replicated analysis of biological responses after multiple exposures to nvPM emissions in a307 normal donor

308 To determine the adverse effects of multiple exposures to nvPM from distinct thrust levels, we 309 exposed N-HBE to high (85%) and low (7%) engine thrust levels for one hour, once a day for up to 3 310 days (Figure S1). Multiple exposures to nvPM at 7% thrust did not lead to an increase in cytotoxicity, 311 while a single exposure caused a significant, immediate increase of AK release (average 1.6-fold, p <312 0.05) that had resolved 24-h post exposure. Furthermore, nvPM from 7% thrust induced a significant, 313 non-dose dependent decrease of IL-6 (p < 0.01 - p < 0.05) and a significant, dose-dependent decrease of MCP-1 (p < 0.001-p < 0.0001), similar to 85% thrust. However, multiple exposures to 7% thrust did 314 315 not affect IL-8 levels, unlike 85% thrust, which caused an almost two-fold increase of IL-8 after the 316 second exposure (p < 0.0001) compared to controls. A second exposure to 85% thrust induced a 317 decrease of MCP-1 (p < 0.001) compared to P-free controls. Multiple exposures to nvPM of low and 318 high engine thrust levels did not induce significant changes in the expression of the HMOX-1 gene, 319 indicating low oxidative stress.

320 4. Discussion

321 In the present study, we evaluated the respiratory health effects of nvPM from a CFM56-7B26 322 turbofan, one of the most commonly used aircraft engines in the world, by using a unique experimental 323 setup for particle sampling and cellular deposition. We sampled nvPM directly from the engine exhaust 324 under representative operating conditions and deposited the particles onto the apical surface of re-325 differentiated bronchial epithelia (HBE) to evaluate their effects on acute toxicity and inflammation. 326 This unique combination of experimental systems is able to realistically represent in vivo particle 327 deposition in the human airways. Furthermore, we assessed these effects in HBE from single donors 328 of normal and compromised health status, providing a relevant overview of the potential adverse 329 respiratory effects of nvPM from aircraft engine exhaust.

330 The nvPM emission profiles of the CFM56-7B26 turbofan engine have been extensively characterized in previous studies (Brem et al., 2015; Durdina et al., 2021; Lobo et al., 2020). The nvPM 331 332 mass-based emissions have been found to be higher at engine levels corresponding to idle (3-7% 333 thrust), decreasing to a minimum at 15–30% engine thrust levels, and then increasing to maximum 334 rated thrust. Similarly, the nvPM number-based emissions are higher at engine idle and decrease a low engine thrust levels, however, they increase up to 60% thrust and then decrease again to maximum 335 336 rated thrust. The size distributions vary with engine thrust levels, with geometric mean diameter of 337 particles ranging from ca. 10 nm to 40 nm (Durdina et al., 2021; Lobo et al., 2020). Furthermore, the 338 particle effective density has been observed to increase with engine thrust levels and decrease with 339 particle size (Abegglen et al., 2015; Durdina et al., 2014). The chemical composition and radiative 340 properties of nvPM emissions from the CFM56-7B26 have also been reported (Elser et al., 2019).

341 Upon exposure to nvPM from three distinct engine thrust levels, we observed immediate 342 damage in epithelia derived from a normal donor (donor 1), especially after exposure to lower thrust 343 levels (7% and GI), indicating that this observed effect is not related to either nvPM mass or number, 344 since the highest nvPM deposition was observed after exposure to 85% thrust. This is in line with other 345 published studies as well as our previous observations (BéruBé et al., 2007; Jaramillo et al., 2018; 346 Jonsdottir et al., 2019; Schmid and Stoeger, 2016). Exposure to PM emissions is known to interfere 347 with inflammatory cytokine homeostasis, where both up- and down-regulation of modulators have 348 been reported in both experimental and human studies (Bendtsen et al., 2019; Habre et al., 2018; He 349 et al., 2020; He et al., 2018). However, most current studies on the biological effects of aircraft 350 emissions cover total PM and do not focus on non-volatile PM specifically. For instance, mice exposed 351 to total PM from aircraft exhaust for up to 90 days displayed an acute inflammation with immune cell 352 influx to the lungs, which persisted for up to 28 days (Bendtsen et al., 2019). Additionally, Habre et al. 353 detected acute systemic inflammation, characterized by increased circulation of the pro-inflammatory

354 cytokine IL-6 in asthmatic, non-smoking adults exposed to total UFP downwind of Los Angeles 355 International Airport (LAX) for 2 hours (Habre et al., 2018). In the present study, we did not observe an 356 increase in IL-6 release in any donor after single 1-hour exposures. Increased expression of IL-6 has 357 also been observed in bronchial epithelial cell lines exposed to both low and high doses of UFP from 358 aircraft exhaust (He et al., 2020; He et al., 2018) and those results are in line with our previous 359 observations with the undifferentiated human bronchial cell line, BEAS-2B (Jonsdottir et al., 2019). In 360 contrast, here we observed a decrease in the secretion of IL-6, MCP-1, and IL-8 in epithelia from a 361 normal donor after exposure to 7% thrust. Secretion of MCP-1 also decreased after exposure to GI 362 thrust. Non-repeated analysis of multiple exposures of the normal donor to nvPM appeared to down-363 regulate the inflammatory response even further. No significant changes in cytokine secretions were 364 observed in the other two donors.

365 We previously observed an increase in acute cellular toxicity and oxidative stress in BEAS-2B 366 cells after exposure to ground idle (GI) thrust using the same experimental setup (Jonsdottir et al., 367 2019). Similarly, in the present study, exposure to GI and 7% thrust conditions resulted in increased cytotoxicity in epithelia derived from a normal donor (donor 1) 1 h post exposure. After 24 hours, only 368 369 epithelia exposed to 7% thrust exhibit minor increased cytotoxicity. In contrast to our previous study 370 with BEAS-2B cells, we found no increase in the expression of HMOX-1 in any donor after exposure to 371 any thrust condition, indicating that re-differentiated human bronchial cells are more robust, when it 372 comes to the induction of the oxidative stress response compared to two-dimensional BEAS-2B cells. 373 Additionally, this could indicate that one-hour exposures are simply not long enough to induce drastic 374 changes in re-constituted airway epithelia. The airways are in constant contact with various types of 375 aerosols throughout our lives and having a high tolerance for aerosol exposures would be pertinent to 376 their function. Furthermore, we did not observe any effect of GI aerosol exposure in HBE cultures of 377 the health-compromised donors (donors 2 and 3). We consider it very likely that, in general, diseased 378 epithelia are more susceptible to damage from nvPM exposure and therefore, we hypothesize that 379 this could be related to the asthmatic background and smoking history of these donors, since their 380 derived bronchial epithelia show characteristics of diseased epithelium. In the present study, we 381 combined a state-of-the art sampling system coupled to a realistic aerosol source with complex threedimensional cell cultures and conducted aerosol exposures at physiological conditions. This 382 383 experimental system is unique but not without its limitations. While this study was conducted with 384 more physiologically relevant cell culture models, we could only analyze one donor per health status. 385 Although this limits the generality of our results, we still consider these data a strong basis for further 386 investigation into the likely adverse health effects from exposure to aircraft exhaust. Additionally, 387 although the re-constituted epithelia used here is comprised of many different cell types, we are only 388 able to elucidate the epithelial response to aerosol exposure due to the absence of an immune system

or cells of the adjoining connective tissue (*i.e.*, fibroblasts, endothelial cells). However, given that the respiratory epithelium is the entry point of emission aerosols, the epithelial response is likely to represent a sizable portion of the resulting effects making it a strongly relevant experimental parameter. Though exposure times were realistic, they were also limited due to the operational schedule of the engine test cell and fuel costs. Longer exposures may have potentially resulted in an increased epithelial response.

395 Despite these limitations, we attempted to cover a broad variety of parameters and found that 396 adverse effects do not seem to be primarily related to deposited nvPM mass and number, since very 397 low doses of nvPM (7%, GI) did cause significant cytotoxicity in normal HBE. The size of nvPM (below 398 100 nm) is inversely proportional to its surface reactivity, which could explain the higher effect of nvPM 399 from the two lowest thrust levels, in comparison to those from 85% thrust. Generally, physicochemical 400 characterization of the particles is necessary to fully understand the potential adverse effects caused 401 by nvPM. Here, we observed a clear correlation between engine thrust levels and the number, as well 402 as the size of soot agglomerates and their primary particle constituents. GI thrust produced 403 substantially fewer and smaller soot particles than those from 85% thrust, correlating with 404 electrometer data obtained from within the deposition chamber. Based on the difference in size of the 405 soot particles collected under different engine thrust levels, soot from GI thrust is more reactive than 406 that collected from 85% thrust, which may explain the toxicological effects observed in response to 407 nvPM from low engine thrust levels. There was no difference in ash particle size observed among the 408 different thrust level conditions. Compared to soot, ash production occurs in minute amounts and the 409 most frequent element in ash is iron (Fe), either alone or in combination with Chromium (Cr), Nickel 410 (Ni), and/or Titanium (Ti), (mainly derived from corrosion and the mechanical wear of engine 411 components. Other observed metallic components from combustion of fuel and/or lube oil additives 412 were primarily Ca \pm S \pm P \pm Cl, less frequently Al, Mg, Sn, Si, more rarely K, Mn, Zn, Bi, and, at high 413 thrust levels, Ag. Based on these physicochemical properties, aircraft exhaust particles are similar to those in diesel exhaust (Bendtsen et al., 2021). 414

415 Realistic in vitro exposures are crucial to comprehensively decipher the effects of UFP on 416 human health; this includes using representative doses for human exposure. In this study, we exposed 417 pulmonary epithelia to realistic doses of NvPM from three separate thrust levels, *i.e.*, climb-out (85%), 418 taxi (7%) and ground idle (3%). Here, the deposited mass of particles ranged from 0.9 ng cm⁻² to 337.1 ng cm⁻² after 1 hour of exposure, covering the range of ambient exposures to high daily occupational 419 420 exposures (Paur et al., 2011). Although airport workers are mainly exposed to particles generated at 421 low thrust levels, particles emitted at high levels are also relevant to human exposure and health, since 422 the air mass in and around the airport is constantly being mixed and influenced by both airport

423 schedules and prevailing winds. Indeed, Buonanno et al. found that particle number concentrations 424 measured in the vicinity of the runway present several main short-term peaks during the workday, 425 related to take-off and landing of aircraft and pre-flight operations. They measured an average total concentration of 6.5×10^3 particles cm⁻³ at a static receptor site. However, when measuring the 426 occupational exposure to airborne particles and other pollutants at the airport, it could be as high as 427 2.5×10^4 particles cm⁻³ and these exposure levels vary depending on the role of the worker at the 428 429 airport (Buonanno et al., 2012). Similarly, Møller et al. found that baggage handlers are exposed to 430 more ultrafine particles than employees working inside the airport. Levels of exposure were evaluated from 5×10^3 UFP cm⁻³ for inside workers up to 3.7×10^4 UFP cm⁻³ for baggage handlers (Møller et al., 431 432 2014). However, these studies seem to report particle number concentrations on the lower end 433 (Masiol and Harrison, 2014). Furthermore, the study of a cohort of male workers at the Copenhagen 434 airport may shed much needed light on the incidence of respiratory diseases developed and/or 435 exacerbated in relation to aircraft exhaust exposure by estimating the contribution of aviation related 436 UFP to total personal exposure (Møller et al., 2017). In this context, our study highlights the importance 437 of evaluating the effects of aircraft exhaust nvPM, even at a low dose, since surface exposure as low as 1×10^9 particles cm⁻² and 1 ng cm⁻² can cause a biological response, especially in health-438 439 compromised epithelia.

440

441 **5.** Conclusions

Toxicological data on the adverse health effects of particles emitted by aircraft engines are still scarce. 442 This is partly due to general experimental difficulty, *i.e.*, particle collection at the airport and 443 444 performing realistic in vitro and in vivo toxicity studies relevant to the human health hazard and risk 445 assessments. Here, using a unique experimental setup for particle sampling directly from the engine 446 running under representative thrust conditions and an instrument specifically developed to mimic 447 inhalation exposure, we demonstrated that exposure to non-volatile particle matter causes biological 448 responses in epithelia derived from three single donors of different background. Our results support 449 the need to further characterize the pulmonary toxicity of aircraft engine exhaust and reinforce the 450 need for establishing Occupational Exposure Limits (OELs) for such particles to protect airport workers, 451 especially those with underlying respiratory conditions. Based on the current data, clarifications of the 452 adverse effects of multiple exposures to nvPM from aircraft emissions should be of specific interest to 453 both airport employees and neighboring communities.

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456

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461

462 **Competing interests**

463 The authors declare no competing interests.

464

- 465 Data availability
- 466 All relevant raw data are available from the authors upon reasonable request.

467 Figure Legends:

468 Fig. 1. Deposition of non-volatile particulate matter (nvPM) from a CFM56-7B26 turbofan onto re-469 differentiated human bronchial epithelia (HBE). a) Recorded diffusion charging current for each thrust 470 level (0.32mv/fA). b) Size distributions of deposited particles. c) Mass of nvPM deposited per surface 471 area of cell culture after one hour of exposure. d) Number of nvPM deposited per surface area of cell 472 culture after one hour of exposure. Highest deposition is observed for 85% thrust and lowest for the 473 second lowest thrust level (7%), which is less deposition than after exposure to ground idle (GI, 3%). 474 Data for diffusion current, particle mass and number are reported as mean and SD of four (85%) or 475 three (7%, GI) independent aerosol generations for cell exposures.

476

477 Fig. 2. Morphology of non-volatile particulate matter (nvPM) soot emissions. Transmission electron
478 microscopy (TEM) images showing the larger size and higher abundance of soot particles, a) at 85%
479 thrust compared to b) ground idle (GI) condition. Scale bar: 200 nm.

480

481 Fig. 3. Biological responses in bronchial epithelia of a normal donor after 1 hour of exposure to non-482 volatile particulate matter (nvPM) from different thrust levels. a) Adenylate kinase (AK) released from 483 damaged cells into the apical compartment, presented as fold change over particle-filtered (P-free) controls, at 1-h and 24-h post exposure (hpe). b) HMOX-1 gene expression 24 hpe as determined by 484 485 qPCR, presented as fold change over P-free controls. c) IL-6, d) MCP-1, and e) IL-8 secretions into the basal compartment 24 hpe as determined by ELISA, presented as pg mL⁻¹. Data is presented as mean 486 487 \pm SD and n = 9–18 cultures from three independent exposures. Statistical significance was assessed 488 using a non-matching two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Sidak's multiple comparison test (AK 489 release) or a non-matching one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparison 490 test (HMOX-1, IL-6, MCP-1, IL-8): **p* < 0.05, ** *p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001, and *****p* < 0.0001.

491

492 Fig. 4. Comparison of biological responses after 1-hour of exposure to ground idle thrust conditions 493 in three individual donors. a) Adenylate kinase (AK) released from damaged cells into the apical 494 compartment, presented as fold change over particle-free (P-free) controls, at 1 and 24-hours post 495 exposure (hpe). b) HMOX-1 gene expression 24 hpe as determined by qPCR, presented as fold change over P-free controls. c) IL-6, MCP-1, and IL-8 secretions into the basal compartment 24 hpe as 496 determined by ELISA, presented as pg mL⁻¹. Data is presented as mean \pm SD and n = 9-18 cultures from 497 three independent exposures. Statistical significance was assessed using a non-matching one-way 498 499 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparison test (HMOX-1, IL-6, MCP-1, IL-8): ***p 500 < 0.001, and *****p* < 0.0001.

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Journal Pre-prov



Journal Prevention







OUTRON

- Exposure to aircraft nvPM causes transient toxicity in airway epithelia in-vitro
- Lower thrust levels elicit more severe biological responses.
- Differential responses of airway epithelia from donors of normal and compromised health status.

ournal proposition

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Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: