

## Cerium oxide nanoparticle-induced pulmonary inflammation and alveolar macrophage functional change in rats

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### Abstract

The use of cerium compounds as diesel fuel catalyst results in the emission of cerium oxide nanoparticles (CeO<sub>2</sub>) in the exhaust. This study characterized the potential effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure on lung toxicity. Male Sprague Dawley rats were exposed to CeO<sub>2</sub> by a single intratracheal instillation at 0.15, 0.5, 1, 3.5 or 7 mg/kg body weight. At 1 day after exposure, CeO<sub>2</sub> significantly reduced NO production, but increased IL-12 production, by alveolar macrophages (AM) in response to *ex vivo* lipopolysaccharide (LPS) challenge, and caused AM apoptosis, through activation of caspases 9 and 3. CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure markedly increased suppressor of cytokine signaling-1 at 1-day and elevated arginase-1 at 28-day post exposure in lung cells, while osteopontin was significantly elevated in lung tissue at both time points. CeO<sub>2</sub> induced inflammation, cytotoxicity, air/blood barrier damage, and phospholipidosis with enlarged AM. Thus, CeO<sub>2</sub> induced lung inflammation and injury in lungs which may lead to fibrosis.

**Keywords:** Cerium oxide, nanoparticle, lung injury, alveolar macrophages, pulmonary fibrosis

### Introduction

High levels of diesel exhaust particles (DEP), in the environment or at workplaces, have been proposed to be a significant contributor to the development of acute and chronic lung diseases, including respiratory infection and allergic asthma (Yin et al. 2004; Dong et al. 2005). Cerium compounds, including cerium oxide, have been used as diesel fuel catalysts to enhance combustion by lowering the ignition temperature of the carbonaceous DEP; thereby, reducing the emission of particulate matter (PM) in diesel exhaust. A number of emission tests have shown that the cerium technology reduces substantially PM emissions and their organic content, but generates cerium oxide nanoparticles (CeO<sub>2</sub>) in the diesel exhaust (Heeb 1998; Czerwinski et al. 2000).

The health effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> are not well understood. Studies have shown that inhaled CeO<sub>2</sub> induces both pulmonary and systemic toxicity in rats, including

lung discoloration, enlargement of lymph nodes, increased lung weight, and dose-dependent increases in segmental blood neutrophils (Health Effects Institute 2001). Occupational exposure to rare earth metals, of which cerium is the major component, has been shown to induce rare earth pneumoconiosis with pathologic features of granulomas and interstitial fibrosis (Sabbioni et al. 1982; Waring and Watling 1990; McDonald et al. 1995). Pairon et al. (1994) have reported that in exposed individuals particles containing cerium were detected in the bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid and lung tissues even 20 years after the exposure stopped. Cerium is also linked to fibrosis of the heart, and CeO<sub>2</sub> is known to induce myocardial fibroblast proliferation and collagen deposition in rats (Prakash and Shivakumar 1998). These studies show that fibrosis, a crippling disease with no known effective treatment, may be a serious consequence of CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure. DEP, on the other hand, are known to induce changes in pulmonary immune/

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inflammatory responses that weaken innate and cell-mediated immunity (Yin et al. 2004). Thus, it is possible that the presence of CeO<sub>2</sub> in diesel exhaust emissions may modify DEP-induced lung inflammation and injury including oxidant generation, mitochondrial damage and apoptosis. The balance between pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokine productions by AM may impair host defense capability and weaken immunity. Thus CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure may elicit new disease states or add to DEP toxicity. The safety of CeO<sub>2</sub> has not been established, and the potential effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> in the diesel exhaust on the induction of pulmonary injury further underscores the need for detailed understanding of the health risks posed by cerium-containing diesel fuel in various occupational and environmental settings.

Alveolar macrophages (AM) are the principal cell type that mediates the pulmonary immune/inflammatory responses against inhaled particles, chemicals, or microorganisms. There is increasing evidence that AM exist in two functionally distinct populations, classically activated AM (M1) and alternatively activated AM (M2). M1 are known to orchestrate the inflammatory responses and are induced through Th1 cytokines (MacMicking et al. 1997; Hibbs 2002), whereas M2 are induced through either phagocytosis of apoptotic cells (Fadok et al. 1998) or by Th2 cytokine-mediated monocyte differentiation (Goerdts and Orfanos 1999). M1 cells metabolize L-arginine to L-citrulline through inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and generate nitric oxide that plays an important role in the induction of oxidative stress. In contrast, M2 cells produce L-ornithine through arginase-1 (Arg-1) leading to L-proline synthesis that may play a possible role in collagen deposition resulting in fibrosis (Shearer et al. 1997). This subset switching in AM has been reported in silica – and bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis (Nau et al. 1997; Takahashi et al. 2001). Therefore, the differential activation of M1 or M2 may play a critical role in the pathogenesis of particle-induced lung injury.

Particle-induced pulmonary inflammation through reactive oxygen species generation (ROS), cytokine production via various signal transduction pathways, and transcriptional activation has been studied extensively. However, the involvement of down-regulation of these activation pathways in the pathogenesis of related lung disease has received much less attention. Osteopontin (OPN) is a multifunctional molecule highly expressed in chronic inflammatory and autoimmune diseases (Scatena et al. 2007). OPN secreted by AM has been shown to induce fibroblast proliferation and accumulate in bleomycin- and silica-induced animal models of pulmonary

fibrosis (Nau et al. 1997; Takahashi et al. 2001). OPN production by alveolar epithelial cells has been demonstrated in human subjects with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (Pardo et al. 2005). Another anti-inflammatory protein, suppressor of cytokine signaling-1 (SOCS-1), is an inhibitor of cytokine signaling involved in accelerated pulmonary fibrosis in both animals and human subjects (Nakashima et al. 2008). These studies suggest that both OPN and SOCS-1 may be involved in the pathogenesis of pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis.

Studies have demonstrated that DEP and the organic extract of DEP are capable to inducing cellular ROS release and damage to mitochondria in AM (Zhao et al. 2009), leading to apoptosis and lung injury. Several *in vitro* cell culture studies have shown that CeO<sub>2</sub> protects the cells from oxidative stress by suppressing ROS production and inducing cellular resistance to an exogenous source of oxidative stress (Tsai et al. 2007; Xia et al. 2008). These investigators further demonstrated that pre-incubation of cells with CeO<sub>2</sub> before challenging cells with an organic extract of DEP significantly reduced the DEP extract-mediated cellular toxicity and oxidant generation, suggesting that CeO<sub>2</sub> has antioxidant activity.

To date, the potential effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> on oxidative stress, inflammation and injury of the lungs after *in vivo* exposure have not been characterized. The objective of the current study was to expose rats to CeO<sub>2</sub> by a single intratracheal instillation and to characterize CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced pulmonary inflammation and injury, including the effects on AM functional changes. Specifically, this study investigated the particle-induced cellular generation of ROS, apoptosis, and functional modification of AM in the secretion of inflammatory and fibrogenic mediators in relation to lung toxicity in a rat model.

## Methods

### *Particle characterization*

Cerium oxide nanoparticles, 10 wt % in water with average diameter at ~20 nm, were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). CeO<sub>2</sub> samples diluted in saline were used for animal exposures. Since the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles form agglomerates in suspension, the size distribution of the agglomerates of CeO<sub>2</sub> was analyzed using dynamic light scattering (Nanotracc 252, Microtrac, Montgomeryville, PA, USA).

The CeO<sub>2</sub> suspension was analyzed using field scanning electron microscopy. Diluted particles suspensions were passed through a filter. After sputter coating, the specimens were examined with a Hitachi

Model S-4800 Field Emission Scanning electron microscope (Schaumburg, IL, USA) between 5 and 20 kV. In addition, the particles were diluted in double distilled filtered water and a drop was placed on a formvar-coated copper grid to dry, and the samples were viewed on a JEOL 1220 transmission electron microscope (Tokyo, Japan). Preliminary studies showed that unlike LPS the CeO<sub>2</sub> sample used in this study had no effect on *in vitro* AM cytokine production and was, therefore, assumed to be free of LPS contamination.

#### *Animal exposures*

Specific pathogen-free male Sprague-Dawley (Hla: SD-CVF) rats (6 weeks old) were purchased from Hilltop Laboratories (Scottsdale, PA, USA). Rats were kept in cages individually ventilated with HEPA-filtered air, housed in an animal facility accredited by the American Association for Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care. All rats were exposed and euthanized according to a standardized experimental protocol that complied with the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and was approved by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health Animal Care and Use Committee. The animals were humanely treated and with regard for alleviation of suffering. Animals were used after a one-week acclimatization period. For CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure, rats were anesthetized with sodium methohexital (35 mg/kg, i.p.) and placed on an inclined restraint board. Rats were exposed to 0.3 ml suspensions of CeO<sub>2</sub> for a final concentration of 0.15, 0.5, 1, 3.5 or 7 mg/kg body weight via a single intratracheal instillation. Saline (0.9% NaCl) was administered to control rats. The treated animals (at least six in each treatment group) were sacrificed at 1-, 10- or 28-day post-exposure.

The intratracheal instillation method used in this study was reported by an expert panel to be a useful method for screening the potential toxicity of a test material in the lower respiratory tract or for dose finding (Driscoll et al. 2000). They also reported that particles delivered at <100 mg by intratracheal instillation are cleared at a similar rate as would occur following inhalation. Thus, this exposure procedure has been chosen for the present study.

#### *Isolation of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid and AM, and AM culture protocol*

Animals were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (0.2 g/kg, i.p.) and exsanguinated by cutting the

renal artery. AM were obtained by bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) with a Ca<sup>++</sup>, Mg<sup>++</sup>-free phosphate-buffered medium (145 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1.9 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 9.35 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, and 5.5 mM glucose; pH 7.4) as described previously (Yang et al. 2001). Briefly, the lungs were lavaged with 6 ml Ca<sup>++</sup>, Mg<sup>++</sup>-free phosphate-buffered medium for the first lavage, and subsequently lavaged with 8 ml of the same buffer for total 10 times or when ~total 80 ml BAL fluid were collected from each rat. The acellular supernate from the first lavage was saved separately from subsequent lavages for analysis of LDH activity and protein content. Cell pellets from each animal were centrifuged and combined, washed, and resuspended in a HEPES-buffered medium (145 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 10 mM HEPES, 5.5 mM glucose, and 1.0 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>; pH 7.4). Cell counts and purity were measured using an electronic cell counter equipped with a cell sizing attachment (Coulter model Multisizer II with a 256C channelizer; Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA).

AM-enriched cells were obtained by adherence of lavaged cells to a tissue culture plate as described previously (Yang et al. 1999) and cultured in fresh Eagle minimum essential medium (Lonza BioWhittaker, Walkersville, MD, USA) for an additional 24 h. AM-conditioned media were collected and centrifuged, and the supernates were saved in aliquots at -80°C for further analysis of cytokines.

#### *Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), albumin content and chemiluminescence (CL)*

The acellular LDH activity in the first BAL fluid was measured in fresh, unfrozen samples using Roche Diagnostic reagents and procedures (Roche Diagnostic Systems, Indianapolis, IN, USA), on an automated Cobas MIRA PLUS analyzer (Roche Diagnostic Systems). The albumin content in the first BAL fluid was measured based on albumin binding to bromocresol green with Sigma Diagnostic reagents and procedures following the manufacturer's protocol.

Luminol-dependent CL, a measure of ROS formation, was monitored using a Berthold LB953 Luminometer (Berthold, Wildbad, Germany). CL generated by BAL cells (1 × 10<sup>6</sup> AM/ml), was measured before and after stimulation with unopsonized zymosan (2 mg/ml final concentration; Sigma Chemical Company, St Louis, MO, USA), a particle stimulant that stimulates macrophages. The results were presented as total counts/15 min/10<sup>6</sup> AM. Zymosan-stimulated CL was calculated as the

total counts in the presence of stimulant minus the corresponding basal counts as described by Yang et al. (2001).

Confocal microscopic analysis of particle adhesion and/or uptake, intracellular ROS generation, and mitochondrial membrane potential.

AM isolated from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed animals were adhered onto glass cover slip. Briefly, AM were plated in a 24-well tissue culture plate on glass coverslips that was pretreated for 1 h at 37°C with EMEM with 10% FBS to allow cell attachment, then washed with PBS once. The interaction of fluorescent beads with AM was determined using carboxylate-modified, yellow/green FluoSpheres (2.0 µm, at 30 beads/cell). AM were rocked at 37°C for 1 h, washed twice with PBS to remove any free beads, fixed with 10% formalin for 30 min, and stained with 0.1 µg/ml of fluorochrome Nile red (Molecular Probes) for 5 min. The glass coverslips were mounted on microscope slides, and images were recorded using confocal microscopy. The number of yellow fluorescent beads associated with AM indicates the particle adhesion and/or uptake by the cell.

The intracellular ROS production was monitored using dihydroethidium (DHE, Ex 518 nm, Em 605 nm). Mito Tracker Red CMXRos (Ex 579 nm, Em 599 nm) was used to detect the change of mitochondrial membrane potential. AM were adhered onto glass cover slip as described above, then incubated with DHE (5 µM) or with Mito Tracker Red (200 nM) for 15 or 30 min, respectively, washed with PBS and fixed with 10% buffered formalin phosphate for 10 min, and mounted on glass slides using Prolong Antifade (Invitrogen). Slides were imaged using a Zeiss LSM 510 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Inc., Thornwood, NY, USA) at a 512 × 512 pixel size with a 40× water immersion objective for DHE or at 1024 × 1024 pixel size with a 100× oil immersion objective for Mito Tracker Red. The fluorescent intensity was used as measure of the ROS generation or mitochondrial membrane potential change.

#### *NO production and cytokine assays*

NO production was determined in AM-conditioned medium using the Greiss reaction (Green et al. 1982). IL-12 in AM-conditioned media was determined using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) (Biosource International, Inc., Camarillo, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. NO and IL-12 production by AM was also evaluated following *ex vivo* treatment with lipopolysaccharide (LPS, 0.1 µg/ml).

#### *Apoptosis assay and caspase 3/7 and 9 activities in AM*

Apoptosis of AM was determined by measuring the levels of cytosolic histone-bound DNA fragments using a cell death ELISA kit (Roche Diagnostics Corp), according to the protocol provided by the manufacturer. The activities of caspase 3 and 9 were determined using Caspase-Glo 3/7 and Caspase-Glo 9 systems, respectively, according to the manufacturer's protocols (Promega, Madison, WI, USA).

#### *Measurement of total phospholipids*

The amount of total phospholipids in BAL fluid was measured as the phosphorus present in the lipid extracts, which were obtained using chloroform-methanol (2:1, v/v) as described previously (Bartlett 1959). Phospholipid content was obtained by multiplying lipid phosphorus values by 25 (Oyarzun and Clements 1978).

#### *Comet assay*

The comet assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions using a Comet Assay kit (Trevigen, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) under alkaline conditions. The slides were stained with SYBR green dye and comets were visualized and photographed at 200× magnification using a fluorescence microscope (Olympus AX70, Center Valley, PA, USA) with an image capture system (SamplePCI, Compix Inc., Cranberry Township, PA, USA).

#### *RNA isolation and quantitation of mRNA*

RT/PCR: Total RNA from BAL cells (~2 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells) or lung tissues was isolated using RNAqueous™ -4PCR kits (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA). RNA (1–2 µg) after the DNase I-treatment was reverse transcribed, using Superscript II (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). The cDNA generated was diluted 1:100, and 15 µl was used to conduct the PCR reaction according to the TaqMan® Master mix PCR kit instructions. The primers were selected from The Universal Probe Library (Roche Diagnostic Corp, Indianapolis, IN, USA). The primers and probes used are: Arginase-1 (BC091158) Probe Nos. 71: Sense – TGT GGG AAA AGC CAA TGA AC; Xsense – GAG ATG CTT CCA ATT GCC ATA. Collagen 1 (NM\_053304) 67: Sense – GTG GAC AGG CTG GTG TGA T; Xsense – GGG ACA CCT

CGT TCT CCA G. Collagen 3 NM\_032085) 64 : Sense – TGG ACC CCA AGG TCT TCC ; Xsense – CAT CTG ATC CAG GGT TTC CA. NFκB – (p50 subunit) (ENSRNOT 0000036838) Probe No. 25: Sense – CCC ACT TGC TGC CTC TCT; Xsense – GTC ACA CAC GCT GTC ATT ATC TC. Osteopontin (M14656) 41: Sense – GAG TTTGGCAGC TCA GAG GA; Xsense – TCT GCT TCT GAG ATG GGT CA. TGF-β1 (AY550025) 1: Sense – GGA AAG GGC TCA ACA CCT G; xsense – CAC AGC AGT TCT TCT CTG TGG A. SOCS-1 AJ243123.1|AJ243123:EMBL|: Probe # 20: Sense – GTC GGA GGG AGT GGG TGT; Xsense – CGA GAG GCG GGA TAA GGT. The comparative  $C_T$  (threshold cycle) method was used to calculate the relative concentrations (User Bulletin #2, ABI PRISM® 7700 Sequence Detector, PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Briefly, the method involves obtaining the  $C_T$  values for the cytokine of interest, normalizing to a reference gene (GAPDH in the present case), and deriving the fold increase compared to control.

#### *Transmission electron microscope (TEM)*

For AM ultrastructure analysis by TEM, cell pellets of BAL cells were fixed in Karnovsky's fixative (2.5% glutaraldehyde, 3.5% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M Sodium Cacodylate buffer), pelleted, then embedded in 4% agarose and refixed for 2 h. The samples were post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide (120 min at 4°C), mordanted in 1% tannic acid (pH 7.0) and block stained in 0.5% uranyl acetate (both at room temperature for 60 min) all in a buffer of 8% sucrose and 0.9% sodium chloride. When the staining was complete, the solution was changed to 70% ethyl alcohol and then 90%, samples were then rinsed twice with 100% twice for 15 min each. Then placed into a solution of 1:1 100% ethyl alcohol to propylene oxide for 15 min, and finally into 100% propylene oxide changing the solution twice. The sample solution was replaced with a 1:1 of propylene oxide and LX112 embedding media, follow by a 3:1 solution for 30 min, and then finally into 100% solution of LX112 overnight on a rotating platform. This solution was changed again for an additional 4 h, then placed into embedding molds and placed into a 60°C oven for 48 h. Thick (0.5 μ) sections were cut and stained with a 1% toluidine blue (in 1% sodium borate) solution on a hot plate for 90 sec. Thin sections (70 nm) were placed on 200 mesh copper grids and stained with 4% aqueous uranyl acetate and Reynold's lead citrate for 15 and 20 min, respectively. Images were taken on a JEOL 1220 transmission electron microscope at 80 kV.

#### *Histological examination*

Rat lung tissues from different exposure groups were fixed immediately after sacrifice by intratracheal instillation of 10% neutral buffered formalin at a pressure of 30 cm H<sub>2</sub>O (at an altitude of 960 ft), embedded in paraffin, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for light microscopic examinations (Prophet et al. 1992).

#### *Morphometric analysis of inflammatory cell response*

Quantitative morphometric methods were used to measure the density of AM and polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMN) in the alveolar region (Underwood 1970) as a measure of the inflammatory cell response. This consisted of basic point counting of Sirius Red/Mayer's hematoxylin stained sections of the lung to determine the fraction of the alveolar region volume occupied by AM and PMN. To accomplish this, volume density was determined from counting the number of points over AM and PMN in the section relative to total alveolar region points. The point count were made using a 121-point overlay graticule at 100× magnification taken at six locations equally spaced across each section (one section per animal). This process was repeated for two different sections for each animal. In order to limit the measurements to alveolar parenchyma, areas containing airways or blood vessels greater than 25 μm in diameter were excluded from the analysis. The alveolar region volume of AM and of PMN was computed from the ratio of points over AM and of PMN, respectively, to the total alveolar region points and divided by 100 to express the numbers as a percentage of the alveolar region volume.

#### *Statistical analysis*

Data are presented as means ± standard errors. Comparisons were made using analysis of variance (ANOVA) with means testing by Dunnett's test. A  $p \leq 0.05$  was considered to be significant.

## **Results**

The suspensions of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles used in this study were examined using dynamic light scattering, which indicates the presence of μm-sized agglomerates (Figure 1A). Field emission SEM and TEM micrographs of CeO<sub>2</sub> suspensions are shown in Figure 1B and 1C and confirm the presence

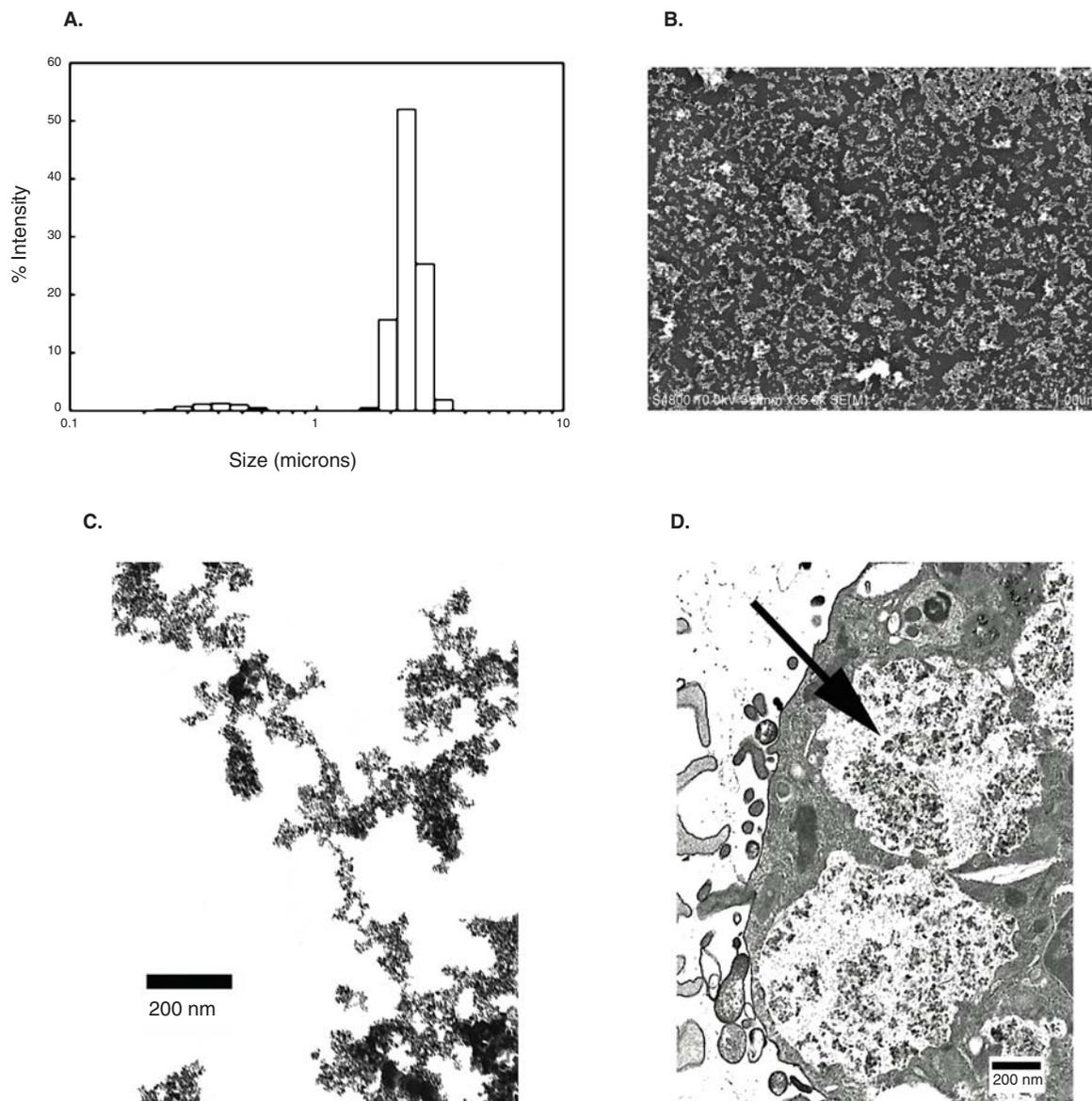


Figure 1. Characterization of a  $\text{CeO}_2$  suspension and localization of  $\text{CeO}_2$  particles in AM. (A) Dynamic light scattering. The % channel indicates the intensity of particles in each channel size. (B) Field emission SEM. (C) TEM micrograph of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanoparticles prepared from a dilute suspension (scale bar = 200 nm). (D) TEM micrograph of agglomerates of  $\text{CeO}_2$  in AM. AM was isolated from  $\text{CeO}_2$ -exposed rats at 10 days post exposure (scale bar = 200 nm).

of agglomerated structures in suspension. A TEM micrograph of AM isolated by BAL from  $\text{CeO}_2$  (3.5 mg/kg)-exposed rats at 10 days post exposure, shows the presence of sub- $\mu\text{m}$ -sized  $\text{CeO}_2$  particles within intracellular vesicles (Figure 1D).

Exposure of rats to  $\text{CeO}_2$  (at dose of 0.15, 0.5, 1, 3.5 and 7 mg/kg) caused significant lung inflammation and toxicity to lung cells. The results show that the number of AM in the BAL fluid was not markedly altered at 1 day after exposure, but was significantly increased, in a dose-related manner, at 10 and 28 days post exposure, indicating that recruitment of AM occurred during the inflammatory state

(Figure 2A). However, there was a significant recruitment of PMN at 1 day post exposure with a substantial, dose-dependent and persistent elevation of PMN through the 28 day post exposure time period (Figure 2B). Figure 2C shows a dose-dependent increase in leakage of cellular LDH into the air-space. Air/capillary damage, determined by elevated albumin content in the air space (Figure 2D), also persisted through 28 days after exposure. Thus, the results demonstrated that exposure of rats to  $\text{CeO}_2$  caused significant and sustained lung inflammation, cytotoxicity and air/capillary barrier damage.

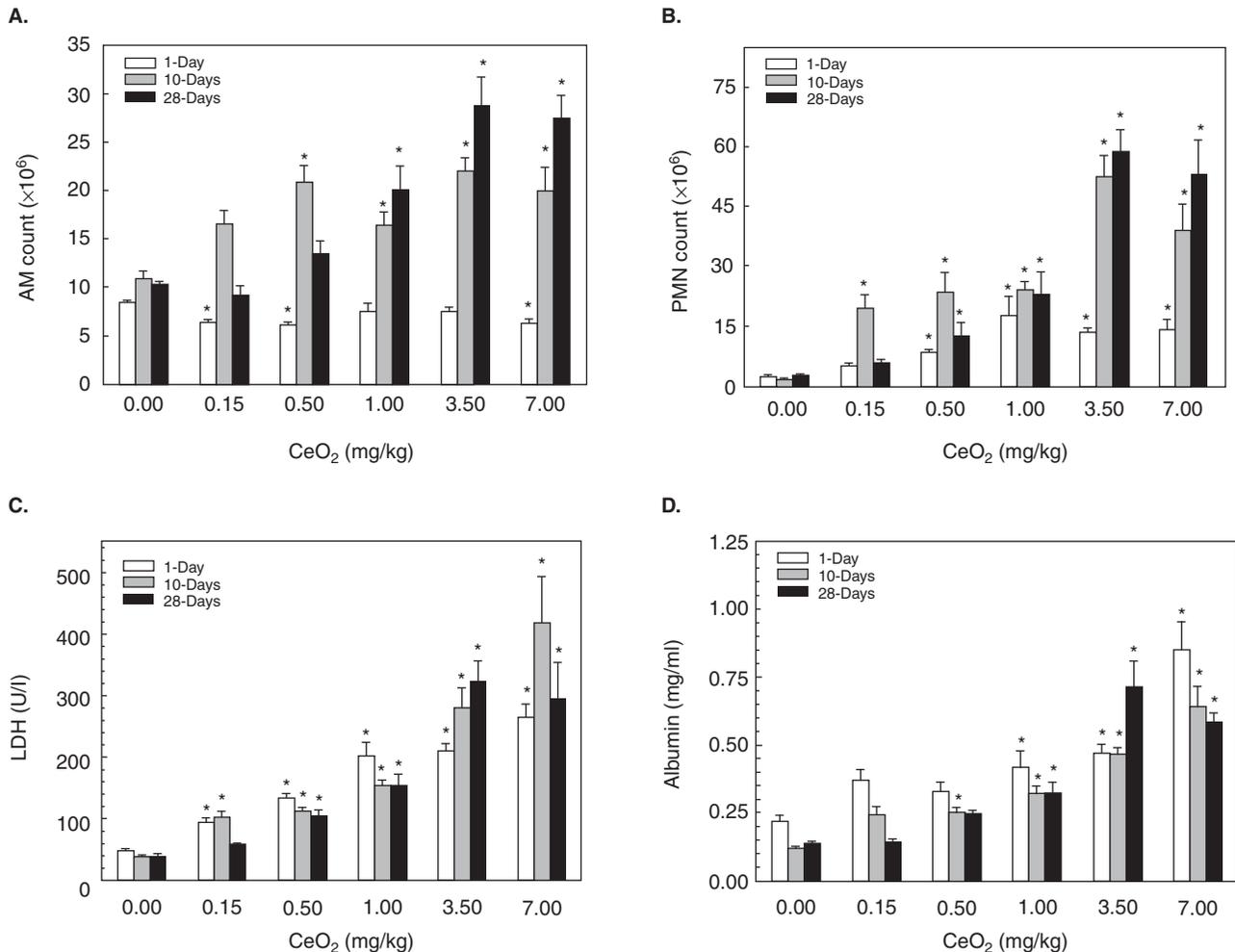


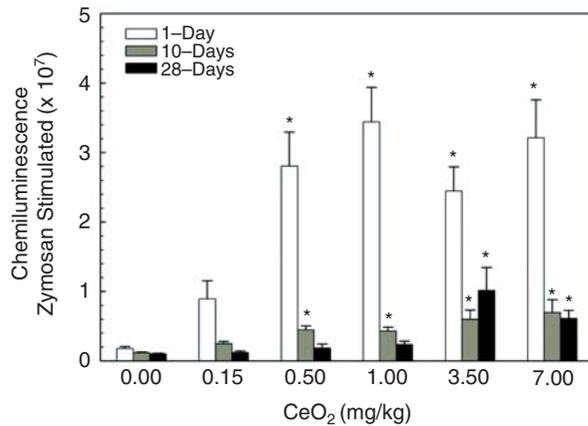
Figure 2. Effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> on lung inflammation and injury. AM (A), PMN infiltration (B) and LDH activity (C) and albumin content (D) in BAL fluid at 1, 10 and 28 days post-exposure. \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

Figure 3A shows a significant ROS released from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM in response to *ex vivo* zymosan stimulation monitored by CL when compared to controls, suggesting CeO<sub>2</sub> markedly potentiated AM responsiveness. The activation noted at 1 day post exposure was significantly reduced but remained above the control level at 28 days post exposure. Activation of AM from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rats was also associated with increased adhesion and/or uptake of fluorescent beads by AM when compared to the controls as shown in Figure 3B, monitored using confocal microscopic analysis. To provide more insight into CeO<sub>2</sub>-mediated intracellular events, the effect of CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure on intracellular ROS generation, mitochondrial function, and cell survival were examined. The results show that CeO<sub>2</sub> did not induce intracellular ROS generation (Figure 3C) or mitochondrial dysfunction (Figure 3D) in AM at 1 day post exposure, and these findings were sustained through 28 days-post exposure (data not shown).

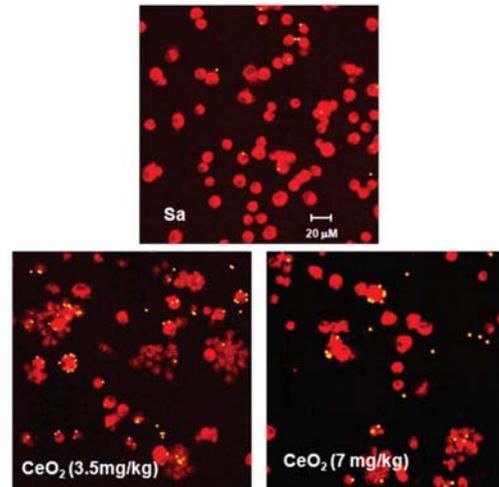
In addition, Figure 4A shows that *in vivo* CeO<sub>2</sub> induced apoptosis of AM at 1 day post-exposure. This CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced apoptosis pathway is through the activation of caspase 9 (Figure 4B) and caspase 3 (Figure 4C). Studies using the comet assay indicated that exposure of rats to CeO<sub>2</sub> did not cause DNA damage in AM (data not shown).

The histological evaluation of particle-induced lung inflammation at 28 days after CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure demonstrated large, clumps of material in the alveolar space which were generally acellular (Figure 5A, open arrow). However, no granulomatous lesions were observed. Results from morphometric measurement of the total volume of AM and PMN in the lungs demonstrated that CeO<sub>2</sub> significantly elevated AM and PMN alveolar region volume in the lung when compared to the saline controls (Figure 5B). To further examine the acellular clumps of materials in the CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM, the phospholipid (PL) content in the BAL fluid was examined. The results

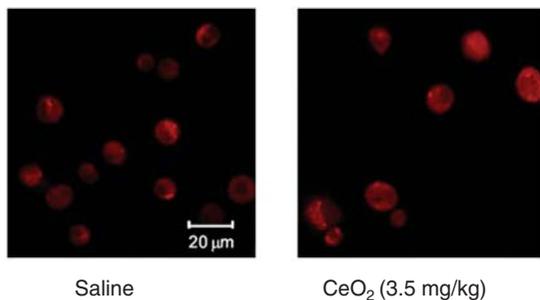
## A. CL generation



## B. Response to fluorescent beads



## C. Intracellular ROS generation



## D. Mitochondrial membrane potential change

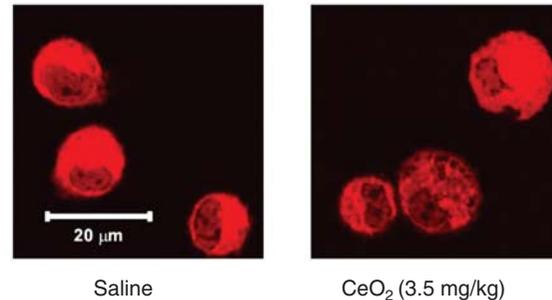


Figure 3. Effects of *in vivo* exposure to CeO<sub>2</sub> on AM function. Responses of AM, isolated from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rats to zymosan challenge in ROS production measured by CL (A). The attachment of fluorescent beads (yellow) to control- or CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM (scale bar = 20 μm) (B). Effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure on intracellular ROS (C) and mitochondrial membrane potential change (D) were monitored at 1 day post exposure using confocal microscopic analysis (scale bar = 20 μm). \*Significantly greater than saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

show a significant increase of PL in BAL fluid from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed compared to saline-exposed rats (Figure 5C). TEM analysis (Figure 5D) shows a significantly increased number of vesicles filled with surfactant material in AM and lamella bodies around AM obtained at 10 days post exposure. AM from control rats lack these lipid inclusions.

An examination of the effects of *in vivo* exposure to CeO<sub>2</sub> on the expression of selected genes, including nuclear factor (NF)-κB, OPN, TGF-β and SOCS1, in BAL cells showed that at 1 day post-exposure there was a significant induction of mRNA expression in BAL cells of NF-κB and SOCS1 in CeO<sub>2</sub> - compared to saline-exposed control rats (Figure 6A). The expression of OPN was not increased in BAL cells when compared to the control; however, it was significantly induced in CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed lung tissues (Figure 6B), suggesting activation of this multifunctional cytokine during inflammatory injury.

The potential functional change of AM from M1 to M2 was investigated. Figure 7A shows that at 1 day post exposure, NO production by AM was significantly elevated at 1 mg/kg CeO<sub>2</sub>, while returning to the basal level at higher concentrations. It is possible that higher concentrations of CeO<sub>2</sub> scavenged NO due to the redox characteristics of this particle. CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM also exhibited significantly induced pro-inflammatory cytokine, IL-12, secretion (Figure 7B). In response to *ex vivo* LPS (0.1 μg/ml) challenge, CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM exhibited significantly attenuated LPS-induced NO production (Figure 7C), but markedly enhanced IL-12 production (Figure 7D).

At 28 days post-exposure, CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM no longer exhibited enhanced NO production (data not shown). Furthermore, mRNA expression of Arg-1 in CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed BAL cells was significantly increased at 28 days post-exposure (Figure 8A), suggesting that the particle exposure induced AM switching

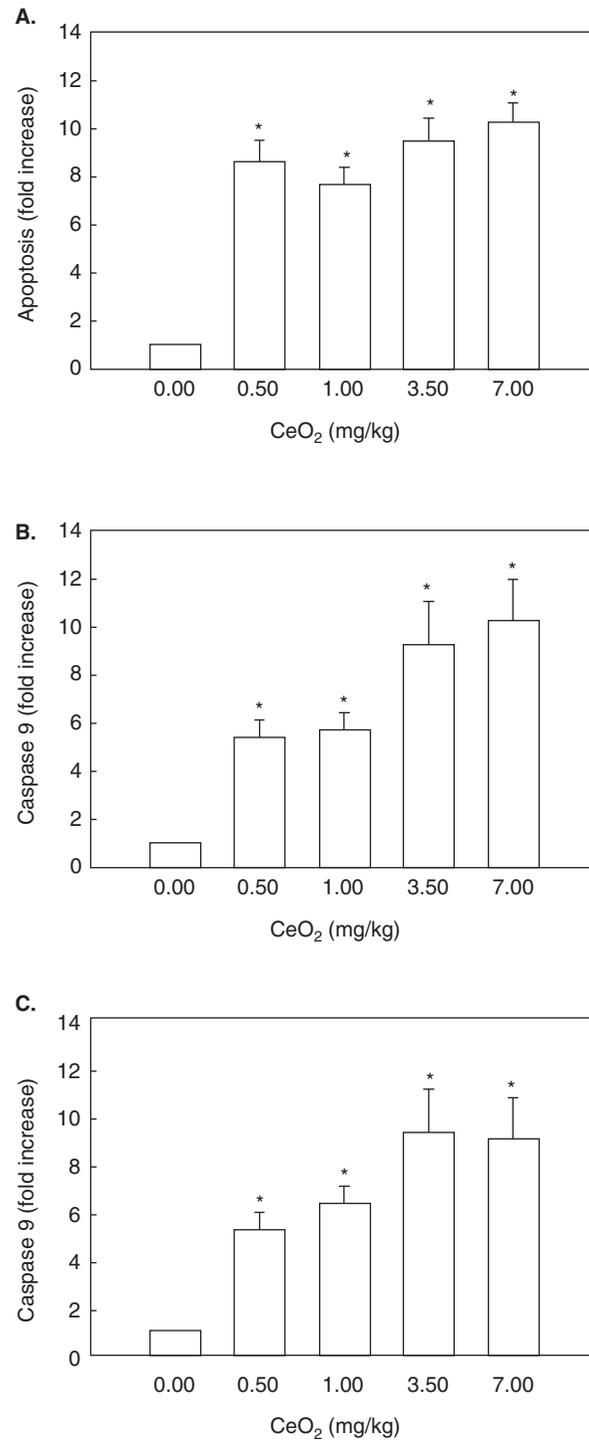


Figure 4. CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure induced apoptosis. AM<sub>s</sub> isolated from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rats at 1 day post-exposure, show increased apoptosis (A), caspase 9 (B) and 3 (C) in the AM cell culture, after a 24 h incubation period. \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

from classical inflammatory M1 to fibrogenic M2 subsets. The induction of OPN mRNA, at 1 and 28 days post CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure was also elevated in lung tissue in a time-dependent manner (Figure 8B).

## Discussion

We have established through cellular measurements and histological examinations that CeO<sub>2</sub> induces a significant pulmonary inflammatory

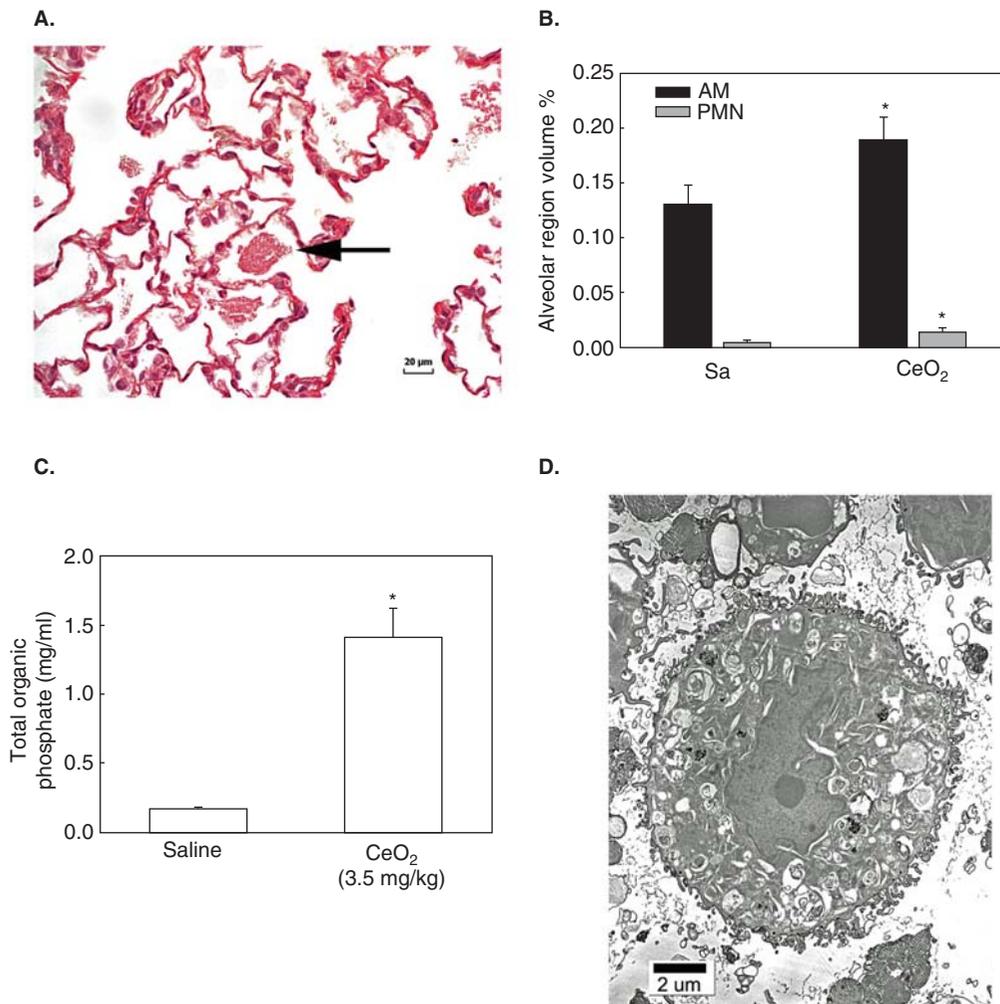


Figure 5. Exposure of rats to a single intratracheal instillation of CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced lung lipidosis at 28 days after exposure. Light micrograph lung tissues, produce large, sometimes alveolar sized, clumps of material in the airspace which were generally acellular and rich in surfactant and tubular myelin (arrow, scale bar = 20 μm) (A). The cellular volume of AM and PMN expressed as a percentage of the alveolar region volume in the saline or CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed lungs isolated at 28 days after exposure were determined using quantitative morphometric measurements (B). Phospholipids content in the BAL fluid collected from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rat at 28 days post-exposure (C). TEM of an AM harvested from a CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rat at 10 days post-exposure (D). \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

response that leads to lung injury and alteration of AM inflammatory activities. The inflammatory response was evidenced by delayed increase in AM and the rapid and sustained infiltration of PMN into the alveolar space, while lung injury was noted by leakage of LDH and albumin from cells and pulmonary capillary vessels, respectively. The histological evidence showed that AM in CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed lungs were significantly enlarged due to the accumulation of particles and excessive production of surfactant materials, leading to phospholipidosis. In addition, the histological examination showed that exposure of rats to CeO<sub>2</sub> for four weeks did not cause granulomatous lesions in the lung tissue, but there was an extended inflammation characterized by a significant elevation of AM and PMN alveolar volume in the lung

parenchyma as judged by quantitative morphometric measurement. These results further demonstrated that exposure of rats to CeO<sub>2</sub> by intratracheal instillation caused a significant lung response.

The results also show that CeO<sub>2</sub> significantly induced cellular activity and oxidative responses and apoptosis. At 1 day post exposure, CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure resulted in dose-dependent increase in the attachment of particles to AM, and enhanced ROS release by AM in response to zymosan stimulation. On the other hand, CeO<sub>2</sub> did not induce intracellular ROS release or alter mitochondrial potential, yet it induced apoptosis through activation of caspase 9 and caspase 3. These findings indicate that CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure can alter AM function. In contrast, our previous studies have shown that DEP exposure significantly

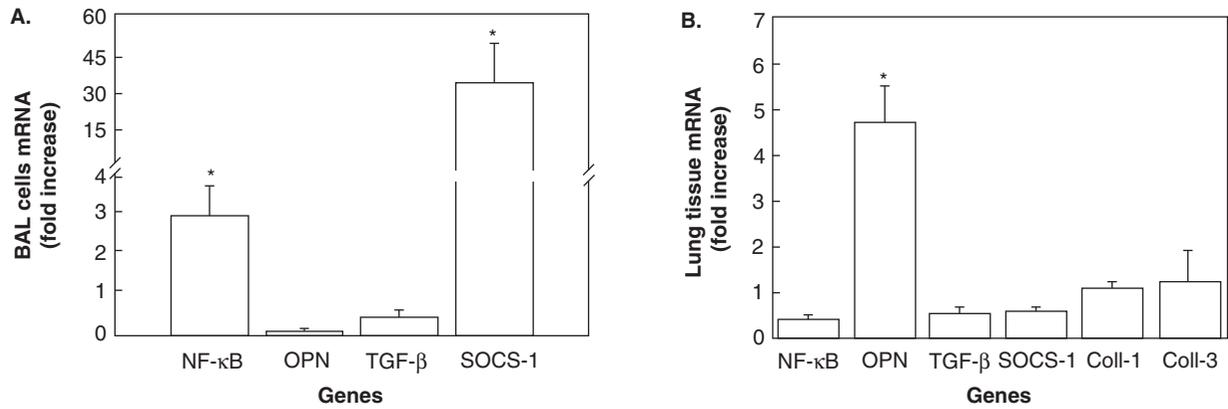


Figure 6. Selected mRNA gene expressions in AM and lung tissue. mRNA expression were determined in AM and lung tissue, collected from rats at 1 day after exposed to saline, or CeO<sub>2</sub> (3.5 mg/kg). \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

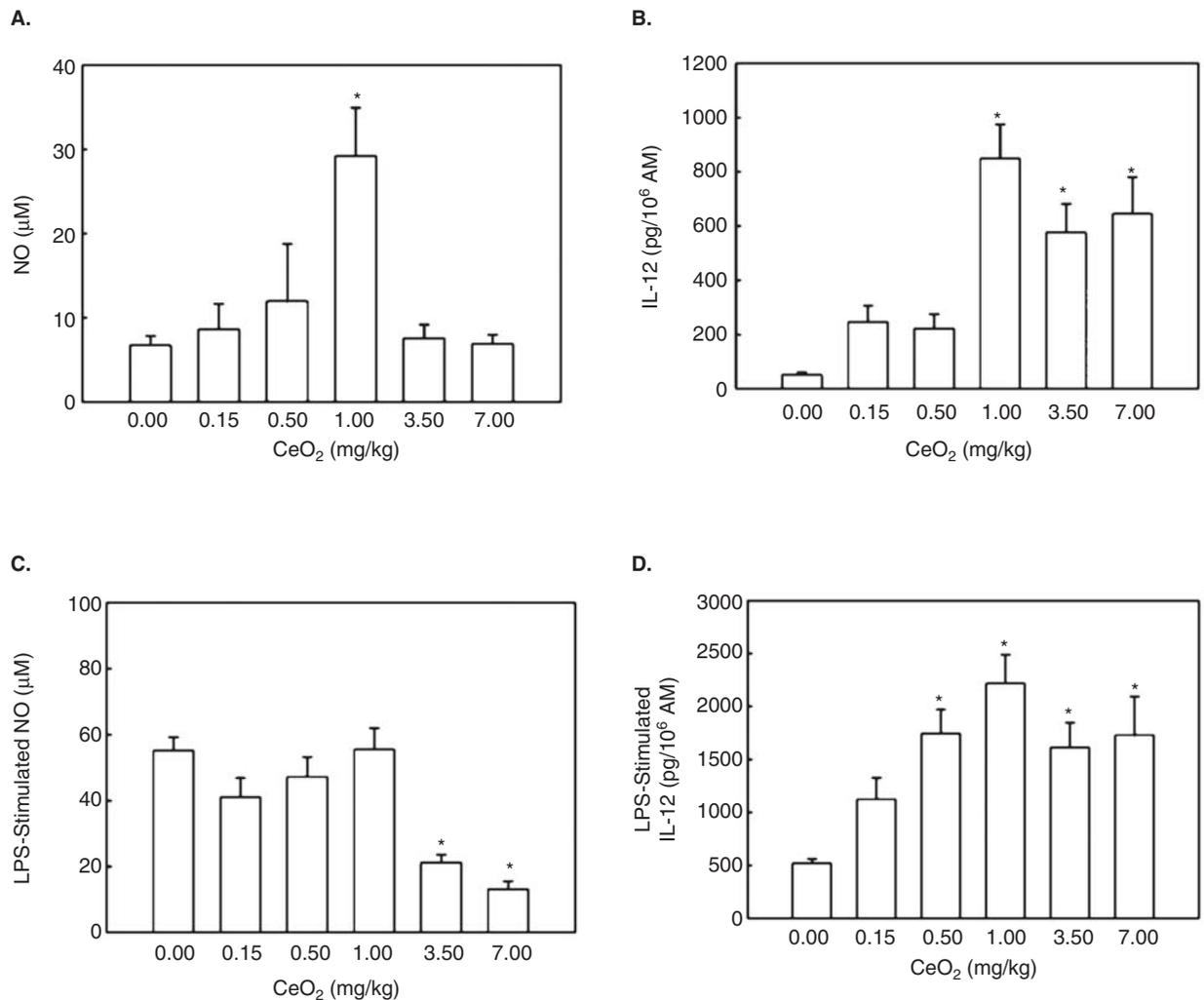


Figure 7. Effects of CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure on NO and IL-12 production by AM isolated at 1 day post exposure. AM were obtained by BAL and cultured for 24 h as described in *Methods*. The supernates were collected and analyzed for production of NO (A) and IL-12 (B) secreted in the AM culture medium. The production of NO and IL-12 in response to *ex vivo* LPS (0.1 μg/ml) challenge were presented in C and D, respectively. \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

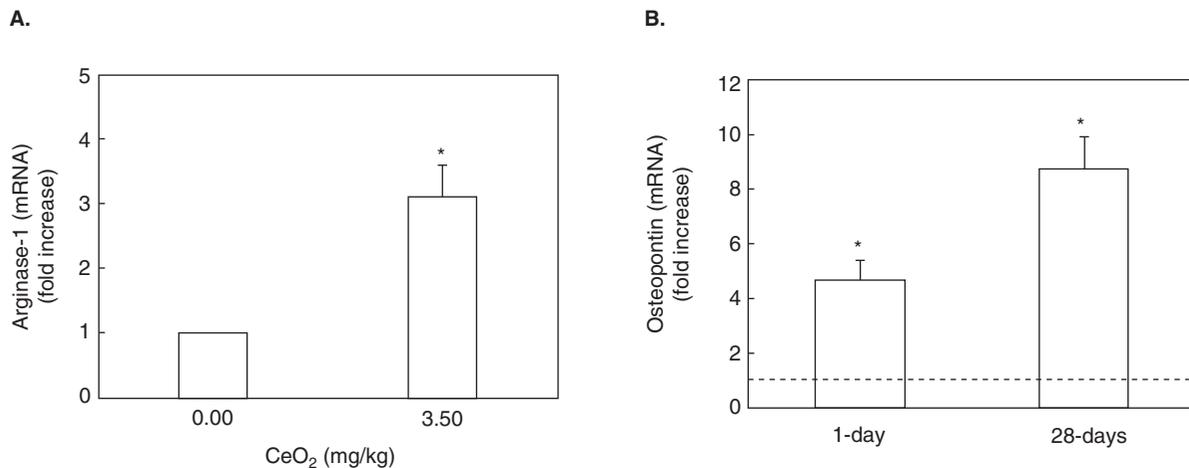


Figure 8. mRNA expression of Arg-1 and OPN. The mRNA of Arg-1 in BAL cells isolated from saline or CeO<sub>2</sub> (3.5 mg/kg) at 28 days post exposure (A). OPN mRNA expression in the lung tissues isolated from rats exposed to saline or CeO<sub>2</sub> (3.5 mg/kg) at 1 and 28 days post exposure (The dash line represents the control). \*Significantly different from saline control;  $p \leq 0.05$ .

induced intracellular ROS production and mitochondrial damage in AM and promoted apoptosis through a pathway involving cytochrome c release from mitochondria (Zhao et al. 2009). These findings suggest that the presence of CeO<sub>2</sub> in the diesel exhaust may alter DEP-induced lung toxicity. These results warrant further investigations, which are currently being conducted in our laboratory.

At the present time, the pulmonary cellular responses to *in vivo* CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure have not been fully investigated. Studies using cell lines in culture have demonstrated that CeO<sub>2</sub> was taken up into cellular compartments without cytotoxicity. CeO<sub>2</sub> also suppressed ROS production and induced cellular resistance to an exogenous source of oxidative stress (Xia et al. 2008). CeO<sub>2</sub> has also been shown to exhibit cardio-protective effects in animal models after intravenous administration (Niu et al. 2007), suggesting that CeO<sub>2</sub> attenuated myocardial oxidative stress and inflammatory processes through their autoregenerative antioxidant properties. The present study shows that CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure induced cytotoxicity and damage to the air/capillary barrier at 1 day after exposure, which was sustained throughout 28 days exposure time period. Zymosan-stimulated oxidant generation by CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed AM at 28 days post-exposure, although less than at 1 day, was still markedly higher than the controls, suggesting that CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced oxidant release by AM may be related to lung cell toxicity and injury in the animal model. At 1 day post CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure, AM showed increased IL-12 secretion and an apoptotic response. These results indicate that CeO<sub>2</sub> activates the inflammatory AM, M1, responsible for the lung inflammation in acute exposure. However, the lungs also responded

with a self-defense mechanism initiated through the induction of SOCS-1 by lung cells. This induction of SOCS-1 suggests that the particle-induced inflammatory response may trigger attempted self-defense mechanism(s) by AM to decrease further activation by inflammatory stimuli. SOCS-1 has been shown to negatively regulate IFN- $\gamma$ -mediated immune/inflammatory responses (Yoshimura et al. 2003) and to play a role in pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis (Shoda et al. 2007; Nakashima et al. 2008). It is likely that the balance of SOCS-1, IL-12 and other mediators would affect the final outcome of lung injury or recovery.

At 28 days after CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure, there was an increased expression of Arg-1 in lung cells. The induction of Arg-1 is a marker for phenotype switching of AM from M1 to M2. The metabolism of L-Arg to orthonine leads to proline formation and subsequent usage in collagen synthesis, which may play a role in the development of lung fibrosis (Munder et al. 1998). In addition, CeO<sub>2</sub> also induced OPN mRNA expression in lung tissue through out the 28-day exposure period in this study. This may also lead to pulmonary fibrosis. There is increasing evidence that OPN is an important mediator of the pulmonary fibrotic response, since it has been shown to work in concert with PDGF to induce fibroblast proliferation and is required for TGF- $\beta$ 1-mediated myofibroblast differentiation (Lenga et al. 2008), leading to the development of lung fibrosis. OPN has also been shown to accumulate in the regions of bleomycin- and silica-induced lung fibrosis in animal models (Nau et al. 1997; Takahashi et al. 2001). The role of a functional change of AM and/or the accumulation of surfactant material as evidenced by

phospholipidosis in the lung and accumulated surfactant materials in vacuoles in initiation and progression of pulmonary fibrosis is under investigation in our laboratory.

The projected human pulmonary dose for inhalation of CeO<sub>2</sub> in diesel exhaust from engines using a CeO<sub>2</sub> fuel additive is 0.09 µg/kg body weight for 8 h (Health Effects Institute [HEI] 2001). CeO<sub>2</sub> is insoluble particle, and studies have shown that the clearance of CeO<sub>2</sub> from the lung may take 20 years or more (Pairon et al. 1994). As a diesel exhaust product, it is likely that the potential exposure (occupational or environmental) to CeO<sub>2</sub> is continuous and the lung burden is cumulative. Assuming a person has been exposed to the projected dose for 40 years with 8 h working day, the total lung burden of CeO<sub>2</sub> will be 936 µg/kg (0.09 µg/kg.d × 5 d/week × 52 week/year × 40 years = 936 µg/kg). Usually, conversion from rodents to humans includes a safety factor of 10-fold. Therefore, it is not unreasonable then, to assess the potential toxicological consequence from the exposure to CeO<sub>2</sub> at 150 µg/kg to 7 mg/kg body weight, as done in this study.

However, when CeO<sub>2</sub> used as diesel fuel catalyst, CeO<sub>2</sub> and DEP co-exist in the diesel exhaust emissions. Studies have shown that exposure of animals to DEP mediated Th2 immune response (Yin et al. 2007), Th2 cytokines are known to play important role in mediating M2 induction (Goerdts and Orfanos 1999). These Th2 cytokines produced in the animals exposed to both CeO<sub>2</sub> and DEP may modify resultant lung toxicity. Thus, the cooperative effects between CeO<sub>2</sub> and DEP on lung toxicity also require in depth investigation.

In summary, our studies show that CeO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles cause dose-dependent inflammation and lung injury that includes sustained LDH leakage into the airspaces, recruitment of PMN and AM to the injury site, and apoptosis of AM. CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced AM apoptosis involves activation of caspases 9 and 3, but is independent of mitochondrial release of cytochrome c. AM obtained from CeO<sub>2</sub>-exposed rats (1 day) showed stimulated production of IL-12 and augmented ROS generation in response to zymosan challenge. SOCS-1 was also induced and may negatively regulate CeO<sub>2</sub>-induced inflammatory responses in the lung. The mRNA for Arg-1 was induced significantly after 28 days post CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure, indicating that there may be a switch of AM from the inflammatory M1 to the fibrogenic M2 subset. The CeO<sub>2</sub> exposure was also associated with increased expression of OPN in lung tissue through 28 days post-exposure. OPN has been shown to protect cells from cell death by promoting a fibrogenic response. Therefore, the present studies shows that

exposure of rats to CeO<sub>2</sub> resulted in significant lung responses, including lung inflammation, cytotoxicity, lung injury, AM functional changes, induction of phospholipidosis, and release of pro-inflammatory and fibrotic cytokines. These results suggest that the use of cerium compounds in diesel fuel, which results in the emission of mixed CeO<sub>2</sub> and DEP nanoparticles, may pose a serious health risk, and further investigation is warranted.

## Disclaimer

The findings and conclusions in this manuscript have not been formally disseminated by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health and should not be construed to represent any agency determination or policy.

**Declaration of interest:** The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.

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