

Toxicological effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles: a review of *in vitro* mammalian studies

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Abstract. – Background and Objective: Recent rapid advances in nanotechnology raise concerns about development, production route, and diffusion in industrial and consumer products of titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂-NPs). In fact, compared to recent increase in applications of this nanomaterial, the health effects of human exposure have not been systematically investigated. The aim of this review was to provide a comprehensive overview on the current knowledge regarding the effects of TiO₂-NPs on mammalian cells.

Evidence and Information Sources: This review is based on an analysis of the current literature on this topic.

State of the Art: Fine TiO₂ particles have been considered as safe and to pose little risk to humans, suggesting that exposure to this material is relatively harmless. However, available data in the literature showed that TiO₂-NPs can cause several adverse effects on mammalian cells such as increase of reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and cytokines levels, reduction of cell viability and proliferation, induction of apoptosis and genotoxicity.

Perspectives and Conclusions: Additional research is needed to obtain up-to-date knowledge on health effects of TiO₂-NPs and to avoid any potential risk correlated to their exposure. Consequently, future studies need to: (1) use an homogeneous and rigorous exposure classification to clarify how the physicochemical properties of TiO₂-NPs correlate with their toxicological effects; (2) assess the potential adverse effects of low level exposures to TiO₂-NPs, as most of the information currently available originates from studies in which exposure levels were excessively and unrealistically high; (3) identify the possible roles of TiO₂-NPs in genotoxicity and carcinogenicity (4) carry out epidemiologic studies of exposed workers to provide an assessment of possible risks correlated to the occupational exposure to TiO₂-NPs.

Key Words:

Titanium dioxide, Nanoparticles, *In vitro* studies, Effects, Genotoxicity.

Introduction

Nanotechnology is a broad interdisciplinary branch of science, grouping physical, chemical, biological, and engineering expertise, that has the ability to manipulate matter at the level of single atoms and small groups of atoms to produce new structures, materials and devices with unique physical and chemical properties¹. Research in nanoscale technologies is growing rapidly worldwide. The U.S. National Science Foundation² estimates that, by 2015, nanotechnology will have a \$1 trillion impact on the global economy and will employ 2 million workers. The industrial applications of nanomaterials are very wide including those that may lead to more efficient water purification, stronger and lighter building materials, increased computing power and speed, improved generation and conservation of energy, and new tools for the diagnosis and treatment of diseases³. To achieve these multiple objectives nanotechnology, in the manufacturing of different consumer and industrial products, uses several types of nanoparticles (NPs) such as carbon nanotubes, silica and metal NPs.

Among the manufactured NPs, titanium dioxide NPs (TiO₂-NPs) are the earliest industrially produced nanomaterials⁴ and, according to the U.S. National Nanotechnology Initiative, they are one of the most highly manufactured in the world⁵. In fact, they are widely used in paints, printing ink, rubber, paper, cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, sunscreens, car materials, cleaning air products, bio-medical ceramic and implanted biomaterials, sterilization, industrial photocatalytic processes and decomposing organic matters in wastewater⁶⁻⁸.

Titanium dioxide is a natural, highly insoluble, thermally stable and non-flammable, non-silicate mineral oxide found primarily in the form of the minerals rutile, anatase, brookite and as the iron-

containing mineral ilmenite⁹⁻¹³. The major natural source of TiO₂ is ilmenite, whereas rutile and anatase polymorphs are mainly manufactured commercially¹³. Though both rutile and anatase belong to the tetragonal crystal system, rutile has a denser arrangement of atoms. The luster and hardness of anatase and rutile are also similar, but their cleavages differ. Common impurities in rutile include iron, tantalum, niobium, chromium, vanadium and tin, whereas those in anatase include iron, tin, vanadium and niobium¹⁴. Due to its excellent physicochemical properties of good fatigue strength, resistance to corrosion, machineability, biocompatibility, whitening and photocatalysis, as well as its excellent optical performance and electrical properties, TiO₂ has a wide range of applications^{15,16}. In fact, it is used mainly in paints, varnishes, lacquer, paper, plastics, ceramics, printing ink, welding rod coatings, floor coverings, catalysts, coated fabrics and textiles, cosmetics, food colorants, glassware, pharmaceuticals, roofing granules, rubber tire manufacturing and in the production of electronic components and dental impressions^{14,17-19}.

The potential adverse health effects of TiO₂ have been investigated in different experimental investigations²⁰⁻²³ and in some epidemiological studies²⁴⁻²⁷. On the basis of results and data collected by researchers TiO₂ was considered to exhibit relatively low toxicity²⁸ and inhaled fine particles of this material are generally regarded, at least under nonoverload conditions^{29,30}, biologically inactive and physiologically inert^{21,29,31,32}. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has recently reclassified TiO₂³³ (IARC, 2006) as “possibly carcinogenic to humans” (group 2B) because high concentrations of pigment-grade (< 2.5 μm) and ultrafine (< 100 μm) TiO₂ dust can cause respiratory tract cancer in exposed rats^{34,35}. However, the epidemiological studies of workers exposed to pigment-grade TiO₂ have not been able to detect an association between occupational exposure and an increased risk for lung cancer^{36,37}.

With the advent of nanotechnology, some of the assumptions concerning the safety of TiO₂ would be challenged. In fact, the chemical, optical, magnetic, biological and structural properties of NPs may differ considerably from those of larger particles composed of the same materials^{38,39}. Since available data in the literature show that the physico-chemical characteristics of NPs are closely associated with their biological effects⁴⁰⁻⁴⁵, and considering that they are deeply unlike in TiO₂-NPs, respect to their bulk counter-

part, it is reasonable to assume that TiO₂-NPs have also a quite different toxicological profile. In the literature there are several *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies that have investigated the toxicological effects of TiO₂-NPs, even if the former studies are much more numerous and extremely useful means to investigate underlying mechanistic processes and to decide on the dose levels for the latter studies. Nevertheless, there is a lack of an overall evaluation on these effects to define an adequate risk assessment, in particular to protect exposed workers and general population subjects. Therefore, in this review we will evaluate current knowledge regarding the *in vitro* toxic effects of TiO₂-NPs to identify research areas where further studies should be carried out in order to reach a fuller understanding of TiO₂-NPs toxicity.

In vitro studies

Lung Cells

Studies conducted on lung cells (Table I) demonstrate that several parameters seem to be correlated with the toxicity of the TiO₂-NPs, principally the form of the TiO₂, but also the size, shape, surface chemistry and surface area of NPs.

Concerning the form of TiO₂, different studies have reported several toxic effects due to anatase TiO₂-NPs relative to other forms. In fact, anatase TiO₂-NPs have been found to produce greater responses, particularly a reduction of cell viability⁴⁶⁻⁵¹, an increase of inflammatory indices (e.g., lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and interleukin (IL)-8)⁴⁶ and an increase in radical oxygen species (ROS) generation^{46,49,51-54}, that in some studies was shown to be dose-dependent^{49,51}. Finally, anatase NPs are also able to induce cell death by an intrinsic apoptosis pathway⁵¹. This higher toxicity of anatase TiO₂-NPs may be correlated to their photocatalytic activity, as suggested by Sayes et al⁴⁶.

Furthermore, though the aforementioned studies were performed with all due diligence, it is important to note that it is difficult to extrapolate the toxic effects observed *in vitro* studies with monocellular cultures to the real *in vivo* situation of the lung, and consequently, these findings should be considered with caution. Indeed, this point of view is confirmed by the fact that in a triple culture model that simulates the real cellular conformation of the lung, exposed to anatase TiO₂-NPs, no statistically significant increases in

Table 1. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on lung cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Lung cells		Results
				Cell lines		
Stearns et al, 2001 – (67)	TiO ₂	50	0.25, 5, 40 µg/ml	A549 human lung epithelial cells		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phagocytized TiO₂ in vacuoles (early) or lamellar bodies; TiO₂ externally associated with plasma membrane.
Gurr et al, 2005 – (52)	Anatase TiO ₂	10; 20 200 > 200 200	10 µg/ml	Human bronchial epithelial cells (BEAS-2B)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of oxidative stress; Inhibition of cell growth.
Sayes et al, 2006 – (46)	Rutile TiO ₂ 100% anatase TiO ₂ 60% anatase - 40% rutile mixture TiO ₂ 100% rutile TiO ₂	10.1 ± 1.0 5.2 ± 0.34 3.2 ± 0.34	3 µg/ml-3 mg/ml for 48 hr	A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High LDH release; Decreased mitochondrial activity; Enhanced IL-8 production.
Chen et al, 2006 – (61)	≥ 99.5% pure rutile TiO ₂	21	0.1, 0.2, 0.5 µg/ml	Human monocytes THP-1 cells; A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased PIGF mRNA and protein levels and increased excl-5 mRNA levels; Increased MCP-1(CCL2) protein level (THP-1 cells);
Xia et al, 2006 – (57)	TiO ₂ P25 Degussa TiO ₂ : 80% anatase - 20% rutile	180-250 20-30	0.2 µg/ml 10 µg/ml	Murine alveolar macrophage cells (RAW 264.7) A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No or only a slight effect on the above-mentioned parameters TiO₂ failed to produce ROS, had no effect on GSH depletion and on Heme Oxygenase-1 expression; TiO₂ taken up into lose-fitting phagosomes.
Park et al, 2007 – (68)	TiO ₂	30; 1 µm	5- 200 µg/ml	A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase of granularity of cells (micro TiO₂ > nano TiO₂). Micro and nano TiO₂ located in cytosol as aggregates. 14-17% of apoptotic cells (micro and nano TiO₂); ~ 7-8% DNA fragmentation (micro and nano TiO₂).
Soto et al, 2007) – (47)	Anatase TiO ₂	5-40	5 µg/ml	RAW 264.7; Human alveolar macrophage cells (THB-1); A549.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anatase EC50 (cell death) was ~10, ~5, ~2 µg/ml for RAW 264.7, THB-1 and A549, respectively.
Singh et al, 2007 – (58)	Rutile TiO ₂ Pure anatase TiO ₂ P25 Degussa TiO ₂ : 80% anatase - 20% rutile	2-60 40-300 20-80	3, 16, 80, 400 µg/cm ²	A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂ incorporated in vacuoles and lamellar bodies; Increased ROS production (ultrafine TiO₂); Increased IL-8 levels (ultrafine TiO₂).
Monteiller et al, 2007 – (62)	TiO ₂ ; TiO ₂ -NPs	N.A.	15- 250 µg/ml	A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase of IL-8 mRNA and protein levels; GSH depletion with both TiO₂.
Bhattacharya et al, 2008 – (53)	Anatase TiO ₂ Vanadium pentoxide (V ₂ O ₅) treated anatase TiO ₂	30-50 30-50	1-100 µg/cm ²	Chinese hamster lung fibroblasts (V79)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of cell viability; Induction of ROS.

Continued

Table 1. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on lung cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Lung cells	Cell lines	Results
Bhattacharya et al, 2008 – (53)	Anatase TiO ₂ Vanadium pentoxide (V ₂ O ₅) treated anatase TiO ₂	30-50 30-50	1-100 µg/cm ²	Chinese hamster lung fibroblasts (V79)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of cell viability; Induction of ROS.
Bhattacharya et al, 2009 – (49)	Anatase TiO ₂	< 100	2-50 µg/cm ²	BEAS-2B; Human diploid bronchial fibroblasts (IMR 90)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂-NPs were clustered in cytoplasm vacuole like structures or lysosomes; Cytotoxic effects observed only in IMR90; Dose-dependent intracellular ROS production.
Park et al, 2008 – (59)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂	21	5-40 µg/ml	BEAS-2B		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose and time dependent reduction of cell viability; Dose and time dependent increase of ROS production; Decreased intracellular reduced GSH; Induction of oxidative stress related genes; Increased levels of IL-1, IL-6, IL-8, TNF-α and CXCL2; Induction of apoptosis.
Simon-Deckers et al, 2008 – (60)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ , 75% anatase CEA TiO ₂ , 95% anatase Sigma TiO ₂ , 100% anatase Sigma rutile TiO ₂ , 100% rutile	25 ± 7 12 ± 3 142 ± 36 9 ± 3	0.25-100 µg/ml	A549		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cell membrane damage; Reduction of cell viability; TiO₂-NPs located in the cytoplasm, isolated or in vacuoles.
Rothen-Rutishauser et al, 2007 – (55)	99.9% anatase TiO ₂	0.02-0.03 µm	5 µg/ml	A549 Human monocyte derivated macrophages (MDM); Human monocyte derivated dendritic cells (MDDC)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Membrane-bound aggregates; Single particles and small aggregates free in cytoplasm in all cell types; No increase in TNF-α release.
Rothen-Rutishauser et al, 2008 – (54)	99.9% anatase TiO ₂	0.02-0.03 µm	5 µg/ml	A549; MDM; MDDC.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Single particles unsurrounded by membranes and in membrane-bound agglomerates; Increased ROS production; No increase in TNF-α release.
Muller et al, 2010 – (56)	Anatase TiO ₂	20-30	2.5 µg/ml	A549; MDM; MDDC.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Internalization of TiO₂-NPs in all cell lines and culture types; Induction of ROS (except in MDDCs); In the triple co-culture the TAC, IL-8 and TNF-α values were lower than expected values.

Table 1. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on lung cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Lung cells		Results
			Doses of exposure	Cell lines	
Hussain et al, 2009 – (63)	99.9% anatase TiO ₂ ; 65% anatase - 35% rutile TiO ₂	15 25-75	5-160 µg/cm ²	Human bronchial epithelial cells (16HBE14o-)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aggregates inside endosomes or free in the cytoplasm; Increased ROS production in HE positive cells; 15 nm TiO₂ particles increased GM-CSF mRNA and GM-CSF release.
Val et al, 2009 – (50)	99.9% anatase TiO ₂	15	0-160 µg/cm ²	16HBE14o-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose dependent cytotoxic effects; Dose dependent increase of GM-CSF, IL-6, TNF-α mRNA; Increased intracellular cytokine contents; Absorption of GM-CSF and TNF-α by TiO₂-NPs.
Falck et al, 2009 – (48)	99.5% pure rutile TiO ₂ coated with SiO ₂ (< 5%) 99.9% rutile TiO ₂ 99.7% anatase TiO ₂	10 × 40 < 5 µm < 25	1-160 µg/cm ²	BEAS 2B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fine rutile showed the highest cytotoxicity, followed by anatase, while nanosized rutile was the least cytotoxic
Hamilton et al, 2009 – (64)	Anatase TiO ₂ nanospheres Anatase TiO ₂ long nanobelts	60-200 width: 60-300; length 15-30 width: 60-300; length 0.8-4 µm	0-250 µg/ml	C57BL/6 primary murine alveolar macrophages (AM); MARCO null mice AM;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂ nanospheres and short nanobelt were taken up in lysosomes, long nanobelt were “free-floating” in cytoplasm; MARCO receptor was involved in TiO₂ nanospheres uptake. Long nanobelt were cytotoxic and increased Cathepsin B levels; Increased ROS levels and lipid peroxidation; Increased IL-1β and IL-18 levels.
Magrez et al, 2009 – (65)	Anatase TiO ₂ short nanobelts Na (x) TiO _{2+x} or Hy TiO _{2+x}	12 nm nanotubes 75 nm nanowires	0.02-2 µg/ml cells (H596)	Human lung tumor C11-BODIPY (581-591) loaded AM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nanofilaments impaired cell proliferation; HyTiO_{2+x} were more toxic than Na(x)TiO_{2+x} forms; Nanofilaments were inside cells in needle-like structures and cell morphology was altered.
Shi et al, 2010 – (51)	99.7% anatase TiO ₂	< 25	0-100 µg/ml	BEAS-2B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose dependent reduction of cell viability; Induction of apoptosis; Dose dependent increase of ROS.
Rossi et al, 2010 – (66)	Rutile TiO ₂ Rutile/anatase TiO ₂ Anatase TiO ₂ Silica coated rutile TiO ₂	< 5 µm 30-40 25 ≈10 × 40 nm, needle-like	0-500 µg/ml	RAW 264.7; MDM; Human pulmonary fibroblasts (MRC-9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of TNF-α protein (RAW 264.7) and TNF-α mRNA and protein (MDM) by silica coated NPs; Induction of CXCL-1 and CXCL-8 mRNA expression (MDM) by silica coated NPs; Stimulation of MRC-9 fibroblasts with silica coated TiO₂ activated macrophage supernatants elicited CXCL-1 and CXCL-8 mRNA.

CCL2, chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2; CXCL-1, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1; CXCL2, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2; cxcl-5, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5; CXCL-8, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 8; GM-CSF, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; GSH, reduced glutathione; HE, hydroethidine; IL-1, interleukin-1; IL-1β, interleukin-1β; IL-6, interleukin-6; IL-8, interleukin-8; IL-18, interleukin-18; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; MCP-1, monocytes chemoattractant protein-1; N.A., not applicable; PIGF, placenta growth factor; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TAC, total antioxidant capacity; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α.

ROS production and inflammatory parameters (i.e., IL-8 and TNF- α) were observed⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶. Surprisingly, however, these parameters were actually lower than the expected values experimentally calculated from the monocultures used by the Authors.

Other investigations have reported conflicting data on the effects of another form of TiO₂-NPs: P25 Degussa. In fact, it was observed that P25 Degussa NPs are unable to induce ROS production⁵⁷, and subsequently, other research groups have shown that these NPs induce ROS generation^{58,59}, IL-8 release⁵⁸, decrease of glutathione (GSH) levels⁵⁹ and a time- and dose-dependent reduction of cell viability⁵⁹. Interestingly, increased ROS generation appeared to stimulate cytotoxicity by an apoptotic process, even if only in BEAS-2B cells⁵⁹.

Concerning the rutile form, several studies^{46-48,60} reported the minimal toxicity of this type of NPs even if in a single study⁶¹ toxic effects were observed. In particular it was shown a significant induction of placenta growth factor expression in the monocytes and A549 cells at the mRNA, protein and secreted protein levels.

Another study⁶⁰ analyzed the effects of exposure to NPs composed of different forms of TiO₂ in A549 cells and found that the size of the NPs has an important role in determining toxic effects. In fact, the Authors observed that the smallest anatase and P25 TiO₂-NPs exerted the greatest cytotoxic effects.

Conversely, other Authors have highlighted the importance of the surface area of TiO₂-NPs as being correlated to a stronger pro-inflammatory effect and oxidative stress^{62,63}.

Concerning the shape, as parameter of TiO₂-NP toxicity recently it has been observed that nanobelt- or nanofilament-shaped TiO₂-NPs, as opposed to other shapes of the same nanomaterial, induce cytotoxicity^{64,65}, likely via apoptosis⁶⁴.

The toxicity of TiO₂-NPs seems to be also correlated to the surface chemistry of nanomaterials⁶⁵, which affects inflammatory responses⁶⁶. In fact, different from other anatase and rutile NPs, only exposure of murine and human macrophages to silica-coated NPs resulted in significant induction of TNF- α and neutrophil-attracting chemokines.

Finally in several *in vitro* researches it was evaluated also the internalization of NPs in lung cells, another important aspect of TiO₂-NP toxicity, which was shown to be dose-^{67,68} and time-⁶⁷

dependent. However, internalization is neither influenced by the form of the TiO₂-NPs^{58,60,68} nor by their shape^{64,65}. Particles were detected in the cytosol of cells, particularly in the peri-region of the nucleus, and trapped in vacuoles, lamellar bodies and/or lysosomes^{49,58,59} even though free nanoparticles⁶⁰ and needle-like nanofilament structures⁶⁵ were observed at early treatment times. This phenomenon has been observed in all types of lung cells examined to date and in the triple cell co-culture model^{55,56}. The internalization was also correlated with the oxidative stress and inflammatory responses⁶³.

Nervous Cells

Different *in vitro* researches have evaluated the toxic effects of TiO₂-NPs and their internalization in nervous cells (Table II). The findings suggest that an important parameter determining NP toxicity is the form of TiO₂, in particular, P25 Degussa⁶⁹⁻⁷² and anatase NPs⁷³. Furthermore, a recent study⁷⁴ correlated the toxicity of these NPs with their surface chemistry investigating the effects of rutile TiO₂-NPs coated with SiO₂ on the immortalized murine neural stem cell line. After 24 h of incubation with these NPs, a dose-dependent decline in proliferation of cells and a differentiation tendency towards neurons from exposed neural stem cells were observed. Indeed, the Authors correlated these findings with the ability of TiO₂-NPs to induce neuronal differentiation. To gain insight into the possible molecular mechanism(s) of this neuronal differentiation, Liu et al⁷⁴ mapped target proteins in lysates of stem cells treated and untreated with TiO₂-NPs, and nine protein levels significantly changed. Subsequent mass spectrometric assay demonstrated that these altered proteins were signaling molecules, molecular chaperones, cytoskeletal components, and nucleoproteins. Furthermore, the Authors conducted also a gene expression analysis. They concluded by suggesting that the regulation of protein kinase C epsilon gene expression is indirectly correlated with the neuronal differentiation of this stem cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs.

The aforementioned researches also report the internalization of TiO₂-NPs by different types of neural cells, in particular, microglia cells^{69,70}, dopaminergic neurons⁷⁰ and neural stem cells⁷⁴. Particles were detected in the cytosol of cells as aggregates in membrane-bound vacuoles or in endosomal vesicles^{69,70,74}.

Table II. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on nervous cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Nervous cells	Cell lines	Results
Long et al, 2006 – (69)	Degussa P25 TiO ₂ ; 70% anatase - 30% rutile	~ 30	2.5-120 mg/kg	Immortalized mouse e brain microglia (BV2)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rapid and sustained release of H₂O₂ and O₂⁻; • Small clusters phagocytised and internalized into the cells cytoplasm; • Disrupted and swollen mitochondrial lying.
Long et al, 2007 – (70)	Degussa P25 TiO ₂ ; 70% anatase - 30% rutile	300-350; 800-1900 (aggregate size)	2.5-120 mg/kg	BV2; Rat N27 mesencephalic neurons; Primary cultures of embryonic rat striatum		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rapid release of H₂O₂ and of O₂⁻ (BV2 cells); • Internalization in BV2 and N27 cytoplasm; • Increased activity of caspase 3/7 in BV2 and N27 cells; • Induction of apoptosis in embryonic striatum cells • Up-regulation of genes involved with apoptosis, death receptor families, calcium signaling, inflammation, cell cycling and oxidative stress; • Down-regulation of genes associated with adaptive change, energy production and hypoxia pathways, Nrf2-mediated oxidative stress. • Increased ATP in N27.
Lai et al, 2008 – (73)	> 99% pure beta- rutile TiO ₂ 99.7% pure anatase TiO ₂	1-1.3 μm < 25	0.1-100 μg/ml	Human astrocytoma U87 cells; Human fibroblasts (HFF1)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Micro and nano TiO₂ particles caused a reduction of cell viability in U87 and HFF1 cells
Liu et al, 2010 – (72)	P25 TiO ₂ (largely anatase)	21	1-100 μg/ml	PC12 rat pheochromocytoma cells		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduction of cell viability; • Increase of percentage of apoptotic cells; • Dose-dependent increase of ROS levels.
Liu et al, 2010 – (74)	Rutile TiO ₂ coated by SiO ₂	80-100	0-250 μg/ml	Mouse neural stem cells (NSCs) line C17.2		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internalisation into cytoplasm (endosome vesicles); • Dose-dependent inhibition of cellular proliferation; • Up-regulated proteins: tumor reaction antigen gp96; pyrophosphatase (inorganic); Rho GDP dissociation inhibitor (GDI) alpha;
Shin et al, 2010 – (71)	100% rutile TiO ₂ TiO ₂ (80% anatase - 20% rutile)	1 μm (fine) 21 nm (ultrafine)	25-200 μg/ml	BV2 stimulated or not with LPS		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Down-regulated proteins: T-complex protein 1, pyrophosphoryle 1-like 1, peroxiredoxin-6 nuclear mitotic apparatus protein isoform CRA_b, tropomyosin 4, vimentin. • Ultrafine TiO₂ increased the LPS induced TNF-α; • Ultrafine TiO₂ augmented NF-κB activity in LPS stimulated cells.

H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; LPS, Lypopolysaccharide; NF-κB, nucleic factor-κB; Nrf2, Nuclear Factor-E2-related factor 2; O₂⁻, superoxide; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α.

Dermal and Mucosal Cells

The form of TiO₂ is also an important parameter of TiO₂-NP toxicity in dermal cells (Table III). In various studies^{46,75-78}, it has been reported that anatase TiO₂ is correlated with toxicity in human and murine dermal cells, though a recent study⁷⁹ failed to report these effects on primary human epithelial cells. The photocatalytic activity of the anatase form may explain this greater toxicity.

Some of the aforementioned studies have also reported NP internalization by dermal cells. In particular, it was reported that anatase TiO₂-NPs are internalized^{75,78} in the cytoplasm and, surprisingly, as aggregates in the nucleus of a small percentage of cells⁷⁹. Kiss et al⁷⁵ also reported that NP internalization is correlated to the type of cells.

Pan et al⁷⁷ showed that NP internalization in human dermal fibroblasts is independent of the NP forms; only anatase NPs induced vesiculated nuclei. Furthermore, these Authors underscored the importance of the NP surface chemistry, which, if changed, altered adhesion to and penetration of the cell membrane.

Unfortunately, the scientific value of these internalization investigations is limited because other *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that TiO₂-NPs do not penetrate intact human or pig skin. In fact, they were found only in the superficial layer of the stratum corneum but not in the epidermis and dermis. This phenomenon was observed with NPs of various forms, sizes, surface chemistries, and shapes, as well as with different applied formulations⁸⁰⁻⁸⁴. Finally, the lack of TiO₂-NP penetration in the skin was also observed in hair-removed skin, a model of damaged skin⁸⁴.

Cardiovascular Cells

Currently, there is only one *in vitro* study that investigated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on cardiac cells (Table IV). To this aim, Helfenstein et al⁸⁵ exposed patterned growth strands of cultured neonatal rat ventricular cardiomyocytes to anatase TiO₂-NPs. After 24 h it was observed a dose-dependent increase in impulse conduction velocity, maximal action potential upstroke velocity and ROS production. Moreover, laser scanning microscopy revealed that the myofibrillar structure in cells treated with a 0.25 µg/ml TiO₂ preparation was less organized than in unexposed cells. After a 24-h incubation with 2.5 µg/ml TiO₂-NPs, TEM analysis demonstrated that Z lines were thicker and not as regular as in control

cells. On the basis of these results, the Authors concluded that TiO₂-NPs directly cause cardiac cell damage, affecting the function of the cells. However, further researches are needed to verify if these effects are also caused by TiO₂-NPs with different characteristics and using other cardiac cell lines.

Few studies have investigated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on vascular cells (Table IV). Some studies⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸ examined the effects of NPs on human and murine endothelial cells but did not find significant effects, though the experimental models are limited. In particular, the Authors did not indicate the form of TiO₂ used, which, as we have previously seen, is an important parameter correlated with the toxicity of NPs. The lack of significant effects following TiO₂-NP exposure was also observed by Courtois et al^{89,90} using rat arteries that simulate the *in vivo* situation.

In conclusion, further research is needed, taking in consideration the characterization of the NPs and using experimental models that simulate the *in vivo* situation, to clarify the effects of TiO₂-NPs on vascular cells.

Hepatic and Intestinal cells

Few Authors have investigated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on hepatic and intestinal cells, and there are not *in vitro* investigations on gastric cells (Table V). Indeed, there are only four studies in the literature⁹¹⁻⁹⁴ on the toxicity of TiO₂-NPs on hepatic cells, and it seems that these NPs do not exert direct effects, with the exception of increase production of malonaldehyde (MDA) and ROS. On the contrary, after TiO₂-NP exposure, significant alterations were observed with contemporary exposure of cells to visible light or to dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (p,p'-DDT).

To date, there are only two articles that investigated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on intestinal cells. In the first⁹⁵, human colon carcinoma cells were exposed to TiO₂-NPs with or without UVA irradiation. The Authors observed that TiO₂-NPs alone were not cytotoxic. However, when the cells were exposed to UVA irradiation and TiO₂-NPs, they died at a much faster rate that was correlated to the NP concentration and duration of irradiation. The second study by Koeneman et al⁹⁶ investigated the pathways by which a mixture of anatase and rutile TiO₂-NPs crossed a model of the intestinal epithelium layer composed of human Caco-2 cells. The Authors reported that the NPs were able to cross the intestinal epithelium layer by transcytosis without damaging its in-

Table III. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on dermal and mucosal cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Dermal and mucosal cells	Cell lines	Results
Gamer et al, 2006 – (80)	T-Lite SF-S emulsion with 10% needle-like TiO ₂ particles coated with silica (2-5wt %) and methicone (4.5-6.5%) T-Lite SF emulsion with 10% needle-like TiO ₂ particles coated with methicone (3.5-5.5%)	30-60 × 10	4 mg/cm ²	Full thickness intact porcine skin		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The mean total Ti recoveries were 98-100% and 86-93% in the T-Lite SF-S and T-Lite S, respectively; All Ti applied was removed by washing; The Ti amount found in tape strips and skin preparations was in the order of analytical determination limit; No Ti in the receptor fluid.
Sayes et al, 2006 – (46)	100% anatase TiO ₂ 60% anatase - 40% rutile mixture TiO ₂ 100% rutile TiO ₂	10.1 ± 1.0 5.2 ± 0.34 3.2 ± 0.34	3 µg/ml- 3 mg/ml	Human dermal fibroblast (HDF).		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose and time-dependent decrease of cell viability; Anatase increased LDH release; Anatase decreased mitochondrial activity; Anatase induced greater levels of ROS compared to rutile.
Mavon et al, 2007 – (81)	UV emulsion with 3% T805 Degussa TiO ₂ particles hydrophobically coated with trimethylolylsilane	20	2 mg/cm ²	Abdominal human skin explants		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 50.7 µg/cm² TiO₂ (> 94.2%) was recovered in the stratum corneum, 5.6% in epidermis, < 0.1% in dermal compartment (88.8% recovery); No TiO₂ in the receptor fluid; TiO₂ was found in the first 10 tape strips.
Vileno et al, 2007 – (134)	Anatase TiO ₂	5	4 µg/ml	Normal human skin fibroblasts CCL-110 (ATCC)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> UVC alone or with TiO₂ and UVA in the presence of TiO₂ decreased cells stiffness; β-carotene prevented photo-oxidative stiffness alterations.
Kiss et al, 2008 – (75)	Anatase TiO ₂	9	0.15-15 µg/cm ²	Human immortalized HaCaT keratinocyte cell line; HDF; Human immortalized sebaceous gland cell line (SZ95); Primary human melanocytes.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂ was detected in the perinuclear area of HDFs and melanocyte cytoplasm; Slow and reversible elevation in [Ca²⁺] in fibroblasts and melanocytes. Dose and time dependent decrease of cellular growth; Differentiation markers: TiO₂ decreased involucrin, desmoglein-1 and P-Cadherin levels on keratinocytes
Jin et al, 2008 – (78)	100% anatase TiO ₂	5	3-600 µg/ml	Mouse subcutaneous fibroblasts (L929)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Round and shrank cells as TiO₂ dose increased, condensed fragmented chromatin and necrotic cells; Increased lysosomes, and damaged organelles; Dose-dependent reduction of cell viability; Increased ROS and LDH levels and decreased GSH and SOD levels.

Continued

Table III. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on dermal and mucosal cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Dermal and mucosal cells Doses of exposure	Cell lines	Results
Pan et al, 2009 – (77)	Rutile TiO ₂ Anatase TiO ₂	15.0 ± 3.5 200 ± 13	0.4, 0.8 mg/ml 0.1-0.5 mg/ml	HDF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decrease in the cells area (rutile), with actin fibers thinner and less extended (rutile and anatase TiO₂). Both particles types were internalised in cytoplasm; Reduction of cell viability; Weak traction forces, ~ 59% reduction in migration and less than 80% control decrease in contract matrix collagen. No Ti was detected in receptor fluid; Only a trace amount of Ti was detected in the first 5 tape strips (uppermost layers of the stratum corneum); TiO₂ was not detected in epidermis and dermis.
Wu et al, 2009 – (82)	99.5% pure anatase hydrophobic TiO ₂ 99.5% pure rutile hydrophilic TiO ₂	5 ± 1; 10 ± 1 25 ± 5; 60 ± 10; 90 ± 10.	5% (w/w) solution applied on 2 cm × 2 cm area	Isolated ear porcine skin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skin absorption was not detectable as assessed by a Bronaugh-type flow-through diffusion cell system.
Van der Merwe et al, 2009 – (83)	Nanocrystalline TiO ₂	< 1	50 mg/cm ²	Dermatomed human skin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of cell viability; Over-representation of genes involved in inflammation and cell adhesion. 7 nm TiO₂ altered expression levels of MMP-9 and MMP-10, fibronectin FN-1, integrin ITGB-6, and mucin MUC-4.
Fujita et al, 2009 – (76)	Bulk 100% anatase TiO ₂ (ST-01) Bulk 100% anatase TiO ₂ (ST-21) Bulk 100% anatase TiO ₂ (ST-41)	7 20 200	47.0, 58.8, 60.2 µg/ml	Human keratinocyte HaCaT cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose-dependent cytotoxic effects (higher for TiO₂-NPs); Induction of apoptosis (TiO₂-NPs); Activation of caspase 8, Bid, BAX and caspase 3, PARP cleavage, citochrome c and decrease of Bcl - 2.
Zhao et al, 2009 – (135)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (80% anatase - 20% rutile) Rutile TiO ₂	21 < 5 µm	0.1-100 µg/cm ²	Mouse epidermal JB6 cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No penetration in intact or stripped skin; Ti concentration was higher in hair-removed skin treated with coated 35 nm TiO₂; Ti was observed into vacant hair follicles but not into dermis or viable epidermis.
Senzui et al, 2010 – (84)	Uncoated rutile TiO ₂ Alumina/silica/silicon coated rutile TiO ₂ Mixture of alumina coated and silicon coated rutile TiO ₂ Anatase TiO ₂	35 and 250 35 10 × 100	2 µl of 10% TiO ₂ suspension applied on 1 cm ²	Intact, stripped and hair removed skin of Yucatan micropigs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uptake of TiO₂ (11% cells) and nucleus invasion (4% cells). No reduction of cell viability.
Hackenberg et al, 2010 – (79)		25	10-100 µg/ml	Epithelial cells of human nasal mucosa	

GSH, reduced glutathione; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; MMP-9, matrix metalloproteinase-9; MMP-10, matrix metalloproteinase-10; PARP, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SOD, superoxide dismutase; Ti, titanium; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; UVA, ultraviolet A; UVC, ultraviolet C.

Table IV. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on cardiovascular cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Cell lines	Results
Helfenstein et al, 2008 – (85)	Anatase TiO ₂	20-30	0.0025-2.5 µg/ml	Neonatal rat ventricular cardiomyocytes (NRVM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased impulse conduction velocity and maximal action potential upstroke; Dose-dependent increase of ROS levels; Myofibrillar structure resulted less organized, with Z lines thicker and not regular compared to control cells.
Peters et al, 2004 – (86)	TiO ₂	70 (range 20-160)	0.5-50 µg/ml	Human dermal microvascular endothelial cells (HDMVEC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂ was internalised into autophagic vacuoles; No reduction of cell viability and no effect on cell proliferation; Increased IL-8 release.
Courtois et al, 2008 – (89)	TiO ₂	15 0.14 µm	200 µg/ml	Segments of rat intrapulmonary arteries and/or bovine endothelial cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both TiO₂ particles did not impair Ach-induced relaxation.
Courtois et al, 2010 – (90)	Degussa P25 TiO ₂	15	0-200 µg/ml	Intralobar pulmonary rat arteries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No alterations of vascular tone; Contractile response to KCl or PGF2α and relaxant response to Ach were not modified.
Yu et al, 2010 – (87)	TiO ₂	28	0-10 µg/ml	Pulmonary C57BL/6J mice vascular endothelial cells (MPMVEC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No reduction of cell viability; No increase of DCF fluorescence and p38 phosphorylation; No time response increase of PAI-1 expression.
Peng et al, 2010 – (88)	TiO ₂ nanotubes	30 100	N.A.	Human aortic endothelial cells (HAECs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enhanced endothelial cell proliferation and motility; Decreased inflammatory and coagulation molecules.

Ach; acetylcholine; DCF, dichlorofluorescein; IL-8, interleukin-8; KCl, potassium chloride; N.A., not applicable; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, PGF2α, prostaglandin 2Fα; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles.

Table V. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on liver and intestinal cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Cell lines	Results
Linnainmaa et al, 1997 – (91)	P25 Degussa uncoated anatase TiO ₂ UV - TITAN M160 rutile TiO ₂ coated with alumina and stearic acid	20	0-200 µg/cm ²	Rat liver epithelial cells (RLE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Neither of the ultrafine TiO₂ was toxic to cells with or without UV irradiation.
Zhang and Sun, 2004 – (95)	TiO ₂	21.2	200-1000 µg/ml	Human colon carcinoma cell lines (LS-174-t)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of cell viability after UVA irradiation. TiO₂ alone resulted non cytotoxic; Condensed cellular shape and fragmented nuclei were observed. No cytotoxic effects was observed
Hussain et al, 2005 – (92)	TiO ₂	40	0-250 µg/ml	Immortalized rat liver cells (BRL 3A)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of apoptosis with visible light illumination for 10 min.
Wang et al, 2007 – (93)	Ce element (IV) doped anatase TiO ₂ (CDT)	21	10 µg/cm ³	Hepatoma cell line (Bel 7402)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TEER dropped 6 days after chronic exposure to 1000 µg/ml TiO₂; γ catenin could be seen in epithelial sheet at 1-100 µg/ml, but not at 1000 µg/ml TiO₂ after 10 day treatment; Weak reduction of cell viability; Changes in microvillar organization and increased intracellular free calcium.
Koeneman et al, 2010 – (96)	Mixture of anatase and rutile TiO ₂	< 40	1-1000 µg/ml	Human brush border expressing intestinal cell line, Caco-2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No dose and time response differences were observed between any treatment groups for cell viability and apoptosis; Every concentration of TiO₂ alone increased MDA levels, while only 1 µg/ml TiO₂ alone increased ROS levels; Mixed TiO₂ and p.p¹ - DDT had higher ROS and MDA compared to TiO₂ and p.p¹ - DDT alone.
Shi et al, 2010 – (94)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (80% anatase - 20% rutile)	25	0-1 µg/ml TiO ₂ combined with 0-0.1 µmol/l p.p ¹ -DDT	Human fetus hepatic cell line L-02.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TEER, trans epithelial electrical resistance; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TEER, trans epithelial electrical resistance; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; UV, ultraviolet; UVA, ultraviolet A.

tegrity and only causing subtle effects. The transcytosis of the epithelial cells, even at low levels, demonstrates the ability of NPs to be internalized by cells and supports the role of the gastrointestinal tract as a possible route of TiO₂-NP entry into organisms. The alterations reported in individual cells, although non-lethal, could impair the intestinal mucosal homeostasis, as well as nutrient absorption, with potentially health-impacting consequences, particularly in cases of chronic exposure. Moreover, these results suggest the need to discover markers of early tissue damages to detect toxic effects of TiO₂-NPs.

Finally, further researches are needed to verify the effects of TiO₂-NPs on hepatic and gastrointestinal cells, comparing to their characterization and NP internalization in these cells. Indeed, the limited number of the studies did not allow us to correlate any NP parameters (e.g., the form, size, surface area, etc. of the TiO₂-NPs) with adverse effects.

Hematopoietic Cells

Data regarding the effects of TiO₂-NPs on hematopoietic cells are heterogeneous due to the extremely different characteristics of these cells, particularly regarding their functional properties and the various endpoints evaluated by the published studies (Table VI).

White Blood Cells

Several Authors have investigated the cytotoxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on white blood cells. In particular, the cytotoxic effects of P25 Degussa TiO₂-NPs were studied on human peripheral blood lymphocytes by Kang et al¹⁹ that reported a dose- and time-dependent reduction in cell viability, a dose-dependent increase of ROS in TiO₂ treated cells which was inhibited by the addition of N-acetylcysteine. In a subsequent study⁹⁷, the same researchers found that P25 Degussa TiO₂-NPs caused apoptosis of human peripheral blood lymphocytes. Data regarding mixtures of anatase and rutile are conflicting. Both necrotic and apoptotic cells were detected when human lymphoma cells were treated with a suspension of mixed anatase and rutile NPs⁹⁸. Conversely, Wan et al⁹⁹ failed to observe cytotoxic effects of similar TiO₂-NPs on the same cell line.

The cytotoxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on human lymphoblastoid cells were observed by Wang et al¹⁰⁰.

In this investigation cell viability, decreased in a dose-dependent manner, but only the highest

NP dose induced a time-dependent viability reduction. TiO₂-NPs inhibited population growth according to a dose- and time-dependent relationship. Apoptosis was observed too. Unfortunately, details on the form of TiO₂ used are missing.

Similar effects were also observed in macrophage cell lines, particularly a decrease in cell viability and an increase in apoptosis¹⁰¹. However, no description of the TiO₂ form used is available. These findings also provide information on the functional impairment of white blood cells induced by TiO₂-NPs. Indeed, impairment of the phagocytic ability, phagosomal transport and cytoskeletal stiffness has been reported in murine macrophages. Previously, similar results were reported by Renwick et al¹⁰², though in this study, phagocytosis was more strongly inhibited by ultrafine TiO₂ than by fine TiO₂. Unfortunately, the form of the TiO₂ used is not described.

The pro-inflammatory action of TiO₂-NPs has also been described^{16,103,104}. In particular, Schanen et al¹⁰³ investigated the immunogenicity of anatase TiO₂-NPs, rutile TiO₂-NPs and TiO₂ nanotubes on a human immunologic system (MIM-IC) composed of blood vein endothelial cells and monocyte-derived dendritic cells (DCs). In particular it was observed an increase of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-8, INF- γ and TNF- α , and the maturation of DCs and the expression of co-stimulatory molecules on their surfaces. Finally, TiO₂-NP-pulsed DCs were able to activate naive CD4(+) T cells and promote their proliferation.

In a recent study¹⁰⁴, human neutrophils exposed to anatase TiO₂-NPs manifested morphological changes, such as irregular shape, in a dose-dependent manner. The exposure to NPs caused also a rapid tyrosine phosphorylation of multiple proteins, including P38 and the Erk-1/2 protein kinases.

Conversely, Morishige et al¹⁶ investigated the role of TiO₂ form and NP size/shape in the increased production of IL-1 β detected in THP-1 cells treated with TiO₂ particles with or without LPS stimulation. Considering the TiO₂ form, rutile and spicular particles caused greater IL-1 β production than anatase NPs at all concentrations. Considering particle size, the smallest (10-nm) anatase particles and the largest (<5- μ m) rutile particles induced higher IL-1 β levels than other particles of the same TiO₂ form, respectively. Moreover, the spicular rutile TiO₂ particles caused greater IL-1 β production than

Table VI. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on hematopoietic cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Hematopoietic cells	Cell lines	Results
Renwick, et al, 2001 – (102)	TiO ₂	29 250	0.0975-0.78 µg/mm ²	Mouse (BALB/C) tumor monocyte-macrophages cell line (J774.2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both TiO₂ types reduced and increased percentage of J774.2 cells capable and unable of phagocytosing indicator beads, respectively. 	
Möller et al, 2002 – (101)	TiO ₂	20	10-320 µg/ml	Beagle dog alveolar macrophages; (BD-AM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased retard relaxation in both cell types; Increased cytoskeleton stiffness in both cell types; Reduction of cell proliferation in J744A.1; 	
Wang et al, 2007 – (100)	99% pure TiO ₂	N.A.	0-130 µg/ml	BALB/c/NIH mouse macrophages (J744A.1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impaired phagocytic capacity in J744A.1 cells; Reduction of cell viability and enhanced apoptosis by 20 nm TiO₂ particles compared to 220 nm. 	
Kang et al, 2008 – (19)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (70-85% anatase, 30-15% rutile)	25	0-100 µg/ml	Human B-cell lymphoblastoid cell line (WIL2-NS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose and time dependent decrease of cell viability; Dose dependent increase of apoptotic cells. 	
Kang et al, 2009 – (97)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (70-85% anatase, 30-15% rutile)	25	20-100 µg/ml	Human peripheral blood lymphocytes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose and time dependent decrease of cell viability; Dose dependent increase of ROS levels. 	
Vamanu et al, 2008 – (98)	Anatase and rutile 99% pure TiO ₂	< 1 00	0.005-4 mg/ml	Human histiocytic lymphoma cells (U937)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased sub-G1 cells percentage; Activation of caspase 9, 3, 8 - Bid and PARP cleavage; Mitochondrial depolarisation. 	
Wan et al, 2008 – (99)	90% anatase and 10% rutile TiO ₂	20	0-20 µg/ml	Human histiocytic lymphoma cells (U937)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of apoptosis; TEM images revealed aspects of apoptosis and necrosis. 	
Schanen et al, 2009 – (103)	Anatase TiO ₂ Rutile TiO ₂ TiO ₂ nanotubes	7-10 15-20 diameter: 10-15; length: 70-150	0.05-100 µM	Human immunological construct (MIMIC); endothelial (HUVEC) and monocytes-derived dendritic cells (PBMC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No effect observed on cell viability; No increase of ROS levels; No significant expression changes neither in mRNA, nor in pro- MMP2 and MMP9 activities. Increased IL-1 α, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-8, INF-γ, and TNF-α levels; Increased of maturation (CD83, CCR7) and costimulatory (CD86) molecules on dendritic cells. 	

Continued

Table VI. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on hematopoietic cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Cell lines	Results
Morishige et al, 2010 – (16)	Anatase spherical TiO ₂	< 50 µm; < 25 nm;	20-500 µg/ml in absence or presence of LPS	Human acute monocytic leukaemia cell line (THP-1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rutile induced higher IL-1β, without LPS, while anatase and spicular rutile induced higher IL-1β, with LPS; Considering the form, rutile induced higher IL-1β than anatase; Considering the size, 10 nm anatase and < 5 µm rutile induced higher IL-1β than the other anatase and rutile particles, respectively;
	Rutile spherical TiO ₂	10 nm < 5 µm;			
	Rutile spicular TiO ₂	30-40 nm 10 × 40			
Gonçalves et al, 2010 – (104)	Anatase TiO ₂	4-6	0-100 µg/ml	Human neutrophils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose-dependent induction of irregular shape; Induction of tyrosine phosphorylation; Activation of P38 and Erk-1/2 MAPK; Dose-dependent decrease of apoptosis; Increase of IL-8 levels.
Rothen-Rutishauser et al, 2006 – (105)	99.9% anatase TiO ₂	0.02-0.03 µm.	5 µg/ml	Human red blood cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TiO₂ particles and small aggregates were found inside cells; Aggregates larger than 0.2 µm were attached to the membrane, not within cells.
Li et al, 2008 – (106)	99.8% anatase TiO ₂	20 200	0-800 µg/ml	Rabbit erythrocytes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased erythrocyte sedimentation rate (nano TiO₂); Induction of erythrocytes agglutination (nano TiO₂); Dose-dependent increase of hemolysis; Nano TiO₂ aggregates were mainly attached along the membrane; Dose-dependent increase of MDA (nano TiO₂).
Aisaka et al, 2009 – (107)	Anatase TiO ₂ Rutile TiO ₂ Amorphous TiO ₂	< 25 < 5000 < 25	0-20 mg/ml	Human erythrocytes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The TiO₂ estimated dose (µg/ml) causing 50% hemolysis was 444, 564, 4960, 32414 for anatase < 5000 nm, anatase < 25 nm, rutile and amorphous, respectively; Micro-anatase was 73, 11 and 1.3 times more potent than amorphous, rutile, and nano-anatase, respectively.
Bihari et al, 2009 – (109)	99.5% rutile TiO ₂	~10 × 40	0.1-0.2 mg/ml for 10 min	Human platelets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CD62P (P selectin) was not changed by TiO₂; No effect was observed on platelet granulocyte complexes.
Nemmar et al, 2008 – (108)	Rutile TiO ₂ nanorods	4-6	0.4-10 µg/ml	Rat whole blood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose-dependent increase of platelet aggregation.

INF-γ, interferon-γ; IL-1 α, interleukin-1α; IL-1β, interleukin-1β; IL-6, interleukin-6; IL-8, interleukin-8; LPS, Lypopolysaccaride; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MDA, malonaldehyde; MMP-2, matrix metalloproteinase-2; MMP-9, matrix metalloproteinase-9; N.A., not applicable; PARP, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TEM, transmission electron microscopy; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α.

spherical rutile particles, which only differed from the spicules in shape. In addition, TiO₂ induced IL-1 β production by caspase-1, ROS and cathepsin B.

In conclusion, these investigations suggest that the form, size and shape of NPs influence the effects of TiO₂-NPs, in particular, on the pro-inflammatory action of white blood cells. However, further studies are needed to clarify the role of these characteristics in the TiO₂-NP toxicity on white blood cells.

Red Blood Cells

There are few papers in the literature that investigated the response of red blood cells to TiO₂-NP exposure. Rothen-Rutishauser et al¹⁰⁵ incubated human red blood cells with anatase TiO₂-NPs for 4 to 24 h. TiO₂-NPs or < 0.2- μ m small aggregates were detected inside cells, while larger aggregates were observed only outside the cell, though attached to the membrane. These results are very important considering of the fact that erythrocytes have no specific phagocytic properties.

Furthermore, on the basis of their experiments, Li et al¹⁰⁶ suggested that the membrane attachment of similar NPs could change the native surface properties of the red blood cells, leading to hemoagglutination, while TiO₂-NP trans-membrane insertion breaks the erythrocytes causing hemolysis¹⁰⁶. Hemolysis was also observed in human erythrocytes in a subsequent study¹⁰⁷. The Authors exposed these erythrocytes to anatase TiO₂-NPs, anatase TiO₂ microparticles, rutile TiO₂ microparticles and amorphous TiO₂-NPs for 1 h. Hemolysis was then assessed by the percentage of hemoglobin released from the cells. Anatase TiO₂ microparticles resulted in approximately 73, 11, 1.3 times more hemolysis than amorphous TiO₂, rutile TiO₂ and nano-sized anatase TiO₂ particles, respectively. These findings suggest that hemolysis may also be correlated with the form of TiO₂.

Platelets

Data regarding platelet aggregation are conflicting. Nemmar et al¹⁰⁸ demonstrated dose-dependent platelet aggregation caused by rutile TiO₂ nanorods. However, Bihari et al¹⁰⁹ showed that incubation of human whole blood with rutile TiO₂-NPs for 10 min did not affect platelet P-selectin expression, nor the formation of platelet-granulocyte complexes.

Thus, further researches are needed to verify if these contrasting results are correlated to the dif-

ferent shape or size of these TiO₂ nanomaterials or if NPs with other characteristics cause similar or different effects.

Reproductive Cells

There are only three studies that investigated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on reproductive cells (Table VII). In the first study, Komatsu et al¹¹⁰ studied the direct effect of TiO₂-NPs on the mouse testis Leydig cell line. However, the form of TiO₂ used was not detailed. The findings showed that NPs were internalized by the cells and were found as agglomerates in the cytoplasm but not inside the nucleus. Furthermore it was also detected a dose-dependent reduction in cell viability. A concentration of 100 μ g/ml TiO₂-NPs for 24 h reduced proliferation, which, however, was restored after this time point. Additionally, no oxidative stress was determined by TiO₂-NP exposure.

The other two studies were conducted on a cell line of the female reproductive system, supporting a potential role of ROS production in inducing reproductive cellular alterations^{111,112}.

In conclusion, additional studies are needed to verify these findings and the presence of other effects, particularly those implicated in mutagenesis.

Renal Cells

In the literature, there is only one study¹¹³ that investigated the *in vitro* effects of TiO₂-NPs on renal cells (Table VII). This report indicates that TiO₂-NPs are cytotoxic for tubular but not mesangial cells. Further, the size of NPs seems to be implicated in the onset of this damage. Finally other *in vitro* studies are needed to verify these results and the observed internalization of TiO₂-NPs.

Bone Cells

There are two papers in the literature concerning the effects of TiO₂-NPs on bone cells^{114,115} (Table VII). The Authors demonstrated that in MG-63 cells cultured on anatase-coated disks, several genes were significantly up- or down-regulated. These genes are implicated in signal transduction, immunity, cell cycle regulation, lysosome composition and vesicular transport, cell adhesion, proliferation, apoptosis, and as cytoskeletal and extracellular matrix components. Unfortunately the release of TiO₂-NPs into the cell culture medium was not quantified. Thus, altered gene regulation cannot be correlated to specific doses of NPs released.

Table VII. *In vitro* studies that investigated the adverse effects of TiO₂-NPs on other mammalian cells (reproductive, renal, bone and muscular cells).

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Cell lines	Results
Komatsu et al, 2008 – (110)	TiO ₂	2-70	0 -1000 µg/ml	Mouse testis Leydig cell line TM3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dispersed TiO₂ agglomerates in the cytoplasm but not in nucleus; Dose-dependent reduction of cell viability; Reduction of cell proliferation.
Uchino et al, 2002 – (111)	F-6 TiO ₂ , 91% anatase, 9% rutile F-4 TiO ₂ , 75% anatase, 25% rutile Anatase form TiO ₂ , 81% anatase, 19% rutile F-1 TiO ₂ , 78% anatase, 22% rutile St-2 TiO ₂ , 99% anatase, 1% rutile Amorphous TiO ₂ St-3 TiO ₂ , > 1% anatase, < 99% rutile F1-R TiO ₂ , 3% anatase, 97% rutile	15 30 90	0-100 µg/ml	Chinese hamsters ovary cells (CHO)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose-dependent reduction of cell viability (anatase form) after UVA irradiation; High concentration of anatase form TiO₂ (100 µg/ml) induced cytotoxicity without UVA irradiation; Rutile did not affect viability.
Dodd et al, 2009 – (112)	Anatase TiO ₂	5	10-500 µg/ml	Chinese hamsters ovary-K1 cells (CHO-K1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Production of OH- and CO₂- radicals after UVA irradiation.
L'Azou et al, 2008 – (113)	98% anatase/ rutile TiO ₂ 65% anatase/ rutile TiO ₂	15 25-75	0.625-160 µg/cm ²	Human mesangial cell line (IP15); Normal pig kidney proximal epithelial tubular cell line (LLC-PK1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of cytotoxic effects; Vesicles of F-actin Abnormal cell size and surface detachment were observed in both cell lines; 15 nm TiO₂ were incorporated into cytoplasmic vesicles.
Sollazzo et al, 2008 – (114)	Anatase TiO ₂	N.A.	Cells cultured on anatase TiO ₂ coated disks	Osteoblast cell line (MG63)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Up- or down-regulation of genes involved in signal transduction, immunity, cell cycle regulation, lysosomes composition and vesicular transport, cell adhesion, proliferation and apoptosis. Induction of cytotoxic effects; Vesicles with phagocytosed materials were observed in treated cells.
Di Virgilio et al, 2010 – (115)	100% anatase TiO ₂	15	0-300 µg/ml	Rat osteosarcoma-derived cell line (UMR 106)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase of cell viability; Altered cell stiffness, histamine contraction and isoprotrenol relaxation.
Berntsen et al, 2010 – (116)	Degussa TiO ₂	25	0-200 µg/ml	Human airway smooth muscle cells (HASM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of cell proliferation; Reduction of inflammatory and coagulation molecules.
Peng et al, 2010 – (88)	TiO ₂ nanotubes	30	N.A.	Vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of inflammatory and coagulation molecules.

 CO₂, carboxyl radical; N.A., not applicable; OH-, hydroxyl radical; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; UVA, ultraviolet A.

Further, Di Virgilio et al¹¹⁵ studied the cytotoxic effects of 5 to 300 µg/ml anatase TiO₂-NPs applied for 24 h to rat osteosarcoma-derived cells. A significant increase in adsorbance was determined at ≥150 µg/ml and ≥25 µg/ml NPs, in both neutral red uptake and MTT assays, respectively. The trypan blue method revealed that cell proliferation also decreased with exposure to NP concentrations of up to 100 µg/ml for 24 to 96 h. TEM was also used to observe intracellular vesicles with phagocytosed material in cells treated with 50 or 100 µg/ml TiO₂-NPs for 24 h.

The findings of these studies, though limited, suggest toxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on bone cells, which should be further tested by *in vivo* studies. However, to our knowledge, such studies are lacking.

Muscular Cells

There are two recent articles that evaluated the effects of TiO₂-NPs on smooth muscle cells (Table VII). In the first study¹¹⁶, human airway smooth muscle cells were exposed to Degussa TiO₂-NPs. The researchers measured cell viability and cell stiffness and agonist-induced contractility, respectively. TiO₂ dose-dependently increased the nominal viability by up to 20% at 200 µg/ml. Further, doses of up to 50 µg/ml TiO₂ altered cell stiffness, the contraction induced by histamine and relaxation induced by isoproterenol by no more than 50%; these alterations exhibited no clear dose dependence. In the other study⁸⁸, gene expression analysis of vascular smooth muscle cells exposed to TiO₂ nanotubes for 24 h revealed a reduction in proliferation and in the expression of molecules involved in inflammation and coagulation.

The findings of these studies suggest that TiO₂-NPs affect smooth muscle cells independent of the form of TiO₂ and the shape of the NPs. Regardless, further research is required to clarify and evaluate other effects.

Genotoxicity

Data regarding the genotoxicity induced by TiO₂-NPs are conflicting and heterogeneous (Table VIII). Different studies have principally reported micronuclei (MN) formation^{11,19,48,52,53,93,94,100,117} or the presence of multinucleated cells^{100,118}. Some of these investigations reported also other genotoxic effects, such as inter-nucleosomal fragmentation¹¹ and DNA damage^{19,48,52,94}. In particular, Wang et al¹⁰⁰ also observed an increased frequency of mutations and an increase in DNA tail

length. An increased mutation frequency was also recently reported by Xu et al¹¹⁹. The other effect (i.e., an increase in DNA tail length) reported by Wang et al¹⁰⁰ was also previously shown by Nakagawa et al¹²⁰ who observed an increase in the frequency of aberrant chromosomes.

Finally, recently, Bhattacharya et al⁴⁹ reported an increase in DNA adduct formation and the absence of DNA damage.

Similar to the results above, other researches did not confirm the genotoxic effects (e.g., DNA damage⁷⁹, chromosome aberration¹²¹ and MN generation with or without UV irradiation⁹¹) of TiO₂-NPs.

All of these conflicting data do not reveal a clear correlation between genotoxicity and the characteristics of NPs, likely due to the different cell lines and TiO₂-NPs used, the various endpoints investigated, and the assays utilized. In any event, the studies suggest that care should be taken when considering parameters such as UV irradiation¹²⁰, co-exposure with other substances⁹⁴ and NP surface chemistry (which may play a role or have synergistic effects in inducing genotoxic alterations⁵³) for a correct interpretation of these results. Ultimately, further investigations are needed to clarify the genotoxic role of TiO₂-NPs.

Discussion

The recent rapid growth of nanotechnology and the specific attractive properties of nanomaterials have led to the widespread application of TiO₂-NPs in the field of life sciences, as well as in the biotechnology, pharmaceutical, cosmetics and textile industries. Several concerns regarding the potentially greater biological activity of TiO₂ in the nanoparticulate form, related to the smaller size and corresponding larger surface area¹²², and the increasing worldwide TiO₂-NP distribution, with the consequent augmented likelihood of human exposure, have emerged. Moreover, the yet-limited knowledge of TiO₂-NP toxicological properties do not allow one to extrapolate toxicological conclusions to TiO₂-NPs.

Based on the studies that we reviewed, though they differ in the cell lines, the intensity and duration of exposure, endpoint parameters, and measurement techniques, interesting and critical points emerge that we argue will be the object of future research.

Table VIII. *In vitro* studies that investigated the genotoxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on mammalian cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Genotoxicity	Cell lines	Results
Nakagawa et al, 1997 – (120)	P25 anatase TiO ₂ WA anatase TiO ₂ WR rutile TiO ₂ TP-3 rutile TiO ₂	0.021 µm 0.255 µm 0.255 µm 0.42 µm	0-3200 µg/ml		Mouse lymphoma cell line (L5178Y); Chinese hamster cell line CHL/IU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dose-dependent increase in mean tail length (p<25, WA and TP-3); P25 TiO₂ showed a dose-dependent increase in chromosome aberration frequency with irradiation.
Linmainmaa et al, 1997 – (91)	P25 Degussa uncoated anatase TiO ₂ UV - TITAN M160 rutile TiO ₂ coated with alumina and stearic acid Pigmentary uncoated anatase TiO ₂ with USP purity TiO ₂	20 170	0-200 µg/cm ²		RLE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Neither of the ultrafine TiO₂ was toxic to cells with or without UV irradiation; None TiO₂ samples increased MN with or without UV irradiation.
Rahman et al, 2002 – (11)		≤ 20 > 200	0.5-10 µg/cm ²		Syrian hamster embryo cells (SHE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ultrafine TiO₂ increased MN; Induction of cytotoxic effects (ultrafine TiO₂); Compaction and marginalization of chromatin at the nuclear periphery; Internucleosomal fragmentation of the DNA.
Gurr et al, 2005 – (52)	Anatase TiO ₂	10 and 20 > 200 200 200	10 µg/ml		BEAS-2B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Induction of oxidative DNA damage by 10, 20 nm anatase and 200 nm rutile; 10 and 200 nm sized anatase increased MN.
Wang et al, 2007 – (93)	Rutile TiO ₂ Ce element (IV) doped anatase TiO ₂ (CDT)	21	10 µg/cm ³		Hepatoma cell line (Bel 7402)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Detection of MN after 4 hr exposure with visible light illumination.
Wang et al, 2007 – (100)	99% pure TiO ₂	N.A.	0-130 µg/ml		WIL2-NS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased micronucleated binucleated cells; Decrease of cytokinesis block proliferation index; 5-fold increase in olive tail moment (Comet assay); 2.5-fold increase in mutation frequency (HPRT).
Warheit et al, 2007 – (121)	79% rutile-21% anatase TiO ₂	140 ± 44	25-100; 62.5-250; 750-2500 µg/ml		Chinese hamster ovary cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The percentage of cells with aberration in the treated groups was not increased above that of controls at any concentration.
Bhattacharya et al, 2008 – (53)	Anatase TiO ₂ Vanadium pentoxide (V ₂ O ₅) treated anatase TiO ₂	30-50	1-100 µg/cm ²		Chinese hamster lung fibroblasts (V79)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Genotoxic effects were induced by V₂O₅ treated anatase, not by untreated anatase; Threefold increase of MN (V₂O₅ anatase).

Continued

Table VIII. *In vitro* studies that investigated the genotoxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on mammalian cells.

Reference	Crystal phase composition	Particle size (Nm)	Doses of exposure	Genotoxicity	Cell lines	Results
Kang et al, 2008 – (19)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (70-85% anatase, 30-15% rutile)	25; ~30 nm in XRD	0-100 µg/ml		Human peripheral blood lymphocytes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dose-dependent increase of MN; • Dose and time dependent increased DNA breakage; • Accumulation of p53 and activation of DNA damage checkpoint kinases.
Falck et al, 2009 – (48)	99.5% pure rutile TiO ₂ coated with SiO ₂ (< 5%) 99.9% rutile TiO ₂ 99.7% anatase TiO ₂	10 × 40 < 5 µm < 25 < 100	1-100 µg/cm ²		BEAS 2B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Induction of DNA damage (fine rutile and anatase); • Increased frequency of micronucleated BEAS 2B cells (anatase).
Bhattacharya et al, 2009 – (49) Xu et al, 2009 – (119)	Anatase TiO ₂ 99.7% anatase TiO ₂ 99.9% anatase TiO ₂ ≥ 99% anatase TiO ₂	5 40 325 mesh in diameter 15	2-50 µg/cm ² 0.1-100 µg/ml for 24 hr; 0.1-30 µg/ml for 3 days		BEAS-2B; IMR 90 Gpt delta transgenic mouse primary embryo fibroblasts (MEF)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No induction of DNA-breakage; • Induction of 8-OHdG. • Dose-dependent reduction of cell viability (40 nm TiO₂); • Increase of mutation frequencies at red/gam gene loci; • Induction of oxidative stress.
Huang et al, 2009 – (117)	TiO ₂		0-50 µg/ml for 24-72 hr; 10 µg/ml every 3 days up to 12 wks		NIH 3T3; Human HFW fibroblasts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase of ROS production; • Dose and time-dependent activation of ERK1/2 cascade; • Increase of BNMN cells; • Increase of MN in long term exposure; • G2/M delay, affection of progression at anaphase and telophase, higher subG1 phase population at long term exposure.
Onuma et al, 2009 – (118)	Hydrophilic rutile TiO ₂ (84-92%) treated with ZrO ₂ Al(OH) ₃ Hydrophobic rutile TiO ₂ (77-86%) treated with ZrO ₂ Al(OH) ₃ and steric acid	40-70 minor axis; 200-300 major axis	312 µg/ml		QR2 fibrosarcoma cells	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase of ROS levels; • Higher cytotoxicity in hydrophobic than hydrophilic TiO₂; • Tumorigenic conversion was observed in both TiO₂ types co-cultures; • Hydrophobic TiO₂ led to interstices around nuclear membrane and multinucleated cells.
Shi et al, 2010 – (94)	P25 Degussa TiO ₂ (80% anatase-20% rutile)	25	0-1 µg/ml TiO ₂		Human fetus hepatic cell line L-02	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synergistic action of TiO₂ and p,p'-DDT as regards DNA breaks and MN; • Increase of 8-OHdG formation.
Hackenberg et al, 2010 – (79)	Anatase TiO ₂	< 25	10-100 µg/ml		Epithelial cells of human nasal mucosa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No DNA damage was observed by comet assay.

8-OHdG, 8-hydroxy|2-deoxyguanosine; BNMN, binucleated micronucleated; ERK 1/2, extracellular-receptor kinase 1/2; HPRT, hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase, MN, micronuclei; p,p'-DDT, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TiO₂-NPs, titanium dioxide nanoparticles; UV, ultraviolet.

Firstly, it should be noted that most of the effects observed in *in vitro* studies were obtained using excessively and unrealistically high doses of NPs^{15,123}. Thus, the direct extrapolation of these results to humans under realistic, lower exposure scenarios must be questioned¹²⁴. However, though the results of such studies have to be interpreted with caution and the relevance of these data is dubious, they could lead to focused future works on the detection of early signs of more severe damages induced by higher dose exposures.

From our review, it is evident that additional research is needed to more thoroughly investigate the toxic effects derived from NP exposure, particularly in relation to the particle characterization, which, in our opinion, is the first step to reach a comprehensive and appropriate identification of the TiO₂-NP hazards. Various physicochemical features (e.g., size, shape, composition, charge, crystallinity, solubility, added functional groups and impurities) can be combined in any particular type of NP, leading to different toxic potentials¹²⁵⁻¹²⁷. Unfortunately, the lack of and the heterogeneity in the TiO₂-NP parameters examined in different studies leads to a non-homogeneous classification of the exposures and to a biased assessment of the exposure-response relationships¹²⁵. To overcome this potential bias, a homogeneous exposure classification should be used in future studies to thoroughly clarify how the physicochemical properties of TiO₂ nanocrystals correlate with their toxicological effects. Useful parameters for systematic categorization could include the TiO₂ form, number concentration, surface area, mass concentration, weighted size distribution, state of agglomeration, surface reactivity (e.g., the ability to produce radicals and zeta potential), chemical composition and morphology³⁸.

Moreover, an argument that merits greater focus in future research (due to the limited number of studies in that regard) is the possible roles of TiO₂-NPs in genotoxicity and carcinogenicity. The IARC recently classified TiO₂ as possibly carcinogenic to humans (Group 2B)³³. TiO₂-NPs had a carcinogenic effect on lungs in rats¹²⁸, and several studies have reported positive *in vitro* and *in vivo* genotoxicity of this nanomaterial^{11,19,48,52,53,93,94,100,117-119,129}, though these effects were not detected in other studies^{79,91,121,130}. Differences in findings between studies may be due to how TiO₂-NPs differ in terms of production, particle size, degree of aggregation, preparation method, incubation or exposure conditions, dose

and susceptibility between cell types^{129,131,132}, implying that more studies are required to determine the conditions in which TiO₂-NP genotoxicity occurs. However, for these engineered nanomaterials, there is simply no adequate epidemiological information to conclude whether or not there is an association between exposure and lung cancer risk to date¹³³. In particular, it will be interesting to elucidate if TiO₂-NPs act by inducing modifications directly on DNA or regulating gene expression, namely through mutagenic or epigenetic mechanisms, respectively. Moreover, because carcinogenesis is a multistep process, the role of TiO₂-NP action in inducing the initiation event or in the subsequent processes of promotion or progression should be clarified. Tests evaluating mutagenicity should be widely performed in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies to confirm the alterations induced by TiO₂-NPs and in relation to the particle characteristics to understand the mechanisms of action and to establish threshold values.

The use of nanotechnological products will likely increase sharply over the next decade. Because of this increase, NP-related research should carefully balance the improvement of nanotechnology and human health through the optimal properties of nanomaterials with the need to identify potential hazards derived from unintentional or intentional exposures¹²². In fact, the same NP properties that may be useful for the development of nanomedicine and specific industrial processes (e.g., antioxidant activity, carrier capacity for therapeutics and catalytic capacity for chemical reactions) could be harmful when NPs interact with cells by inducing toxicity, oxidative stress or cellular dysfunction¹²². A database composed of the results of toxicological tests could provide a comprehensive set of information useful for TiO₂-NP material safety data sheets, as well as a basis for potential NP risk assessments and risk management¹²². Currently, the public awareness of nanotechnology in everyday life is limited. However, some pressing concerns are related to the risks posed by occupational exposure, particularly during manufacturing or processing for industrial applications. Nevertheless, evidence is not extensive or definitive, and there are no published studies on the risks of occupational exposure to engineered NPs¹²⁵. Moreover, studies on long-term exposure and chronic effects have not been carried out to date because such exposure is relatively recent and generally occurs in controlled situa-

tions. Therefore, given the increasing use of TiO₂-NPs, epidemiologic investigations of exposed workers will be needed in the near future to provide an assessment of possible risks. Epidemiologic investigation will form an important link in understanding health outcomes associated with exposure to potentially hazardous materials. Such studies will form the basis for quantitative risk estimations to establish levels that protect human health. Currently, only the U.S. National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health¹⁴ has recommended that exposure limits for nano-TiO₂ should be 0.1 mg/m³ as a Time Weighted Average (TWA) concentration for up to 10 h/day during a 40-h work week. In this occupational context, a better knowledge of the characteristics of different types of TiO₂-NPs could be useful both for improving the performance of nanomaterials, extending their specific applications in technological products and for detailing properties (such as photocatalytic ability) that could enhance cell alterations under particular exposure conditions (e.g., in presence or absence of UV-light irradiation). Moreover, a deeper understanding of TiO₂-NP biokinetics, target organs and potential health effects would be helpful in determining biological monitoring methods and establishing appropriate individual defense systems for workers exposed to TiO₂-NPs.

Our review highlights the lack of homogeneity among NP studies, which prevents a comprehensive interpretation of results and underscores the need to validate standard methods of measurement and methodological strategies that should, we argue, be the object of national or international consensus standards^{38,125}. Moreover, the lack of sufficiently standardized toxicological data on engineered TiO₂-NPs and conflicting results regarding their potential hazard impede an adequate risk assessment. Future studies using validated methods and strategies are needed in order to acquire a deeper understanding of the risks related to TiO₂-NP exposure. This step could be extremely important to achieve adequate risk communication and management. To date, because certain data regarding TiO₂-NPs are limited, these phases should be conducted with great caution, giving correct TiO₂-NP risk information to workers, adopting valuable measures of environmental and biological monitoring to obtain a correct evaluation of the exposure and providing measures of collective and individual protection (particularly of the respiratory airways) at present considered a primary route of exposure.

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