

CLH report

Proposal for Harmonised Classification and Labelling

**Based on Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 (CLP Regulation),
Annex VI, Part 2**

Substance Name: Titanium dioxide

EC Number: 236-675-5

CAS Number: 13463-67-7

Index Number: -

Contact details for dossier submitter:

ANSES (on behalf of the French MSCA)

14 rue Pierre Marie Curie

F-94701 Maisons-Alfort Cedex

reach@anses.fr

Version number: 2

Date: May 2016

CONTENTS

Part A.

1	PROPOSAL FOR HARMONISED CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING	3
1.1	SUBSTANCE.....	3
1.2	HARMONISED CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING PROPOSAL	4
1.3	PROPOSED HARMONISED CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING BASED ON CLP REGULATION	4
2	BACKGROUND TO THE CLH PROPOSAL	7
2.1	HISTORY OF THE PREVIOUS CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING	7
2.2	SHORT SUMMARY OF THE SCIENTIFIC JUSTIFICATION FOR THE CLH PROPOSAL	7
2.3	CURRENT HARMONISED CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING.....	9
2.4	CURRENT SELF-CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING	9
2.4.1	<i>Current self-classification and labelling based on the CLP Regulation criteria</i>	<i>9</i>
3	JUSTIFICATION THAT ACTION IS NEEDED AT COMMUNITY LEVEL	10

Part B.

	SCIENTIFIC EVALUATION OF THE DATA	11
1	IDENTITY OF THE SUBSTANCE	11
1.1	NAME AND OTHER IDENTIFIERS OF THE SUBSTANCE.....	11
1.2	COMPOSITION OF THE SUBSTANCE	12
1.3	PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES	13
2	MANUFACTURE AND USES	15
2.1	MANUFACTURE.....	15
2.2	IDENTIFIED USES	15
3	CLASSIFICATION FOR PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES	16
4	HUMAN HEALTH HAZARD ASSESSMENT.....	16
4.1	CARCINOGENICITY	16
4.1.1	<i>Non-human information.....</i>	<i>19</i>
4.1.1.1	Carcinogenicity: oral.....	19
4.1.1.2	Carcinogenicity: inhalation	21
4.1.1.3	Carcinogenicity: other routes	33
4.1.1.4	Carcinogenicity: dermal	34
4.1.2	<i>Human information.....</i>	<i>38</i>
4.1.3	<i>Other relevant information</i>	<i>41</i>
4.1.4	<i>Summary and discussion of carcinogenicity.....</i>	<i>46</i>
4.1.5	<i>Comparison with criteria.....</i>	<i>66</i>
4.1.6	<i>Conclusions on classification and labelling</i>	<i>69</i>
5	ENVIRONMENTAL HAZARD ASSESSMENT OTHER INFORMATION	69
6	OTHER INFORMATION.....	69
7	REFERENCES.....	70
8	ANNEXES.....	84
	ANNEX I – SUMMARY OF GENOTOXICITY DATA.....	84
	ANNEX II. IN VITRO STUDIES ASSESSED BUT NOT SELECTED ACCORDING TO OUR CRITERIA. ..	139
	ANNEX III: LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	157

Part A.

1 PROPOSAL FOR HARMONISED CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING

1.1 Substance

Table 1: Substance identity

Substance name:	Titanium dioxide
EC number:	236-675-5
CAS number:	13463-67-7
Annex VI Index number:	-
Degree of purity:	>87%
Impurities:	Confidential

Substance name:	Anatase (TiO ₂)
EC number:	215-280-1
CAS number:	1317-70-0
Annex VI Index number:	-
Degree of purity:	>87%
Impurities:	Confidential

Substance name:	Rutile (TiO ₂)
EC number:	215-282-2
CAS number:	1317-80-2
Annex VI Index number:	-
Degree of purity:	>87%
Impurities:	Confidential

There is only one registration dossier (EC no 236-675-5) for “titanium dioxide” which indicates that there is sufficient data to support a mono-constituent substance under REACH of “all crystal phases&hydrates of titanium dioxide including rutile, anatase, monohydrate and dehydrate”. Crystal phase, morphology, lattice stabilizers or surface treatment included in the scope of this REACH registration dossier are not clearly reported. There is also one registration dossier for the specific crystal phase “rutile” TiO₂ under CAS 1317-80-2.

As further detailed in the dossier, TiO₂ is considered poorly soluble particles and the main proposed mechanism of carcinogenicity by inhalation is thus based on the low solubility and biopersistence of the particles leading to pulmonary inflammation then oxidative stress. Secondary genotoxicity and cell proliferation result in carcinogenicity. Nevertheless, possible direct genotoxicity cannot be excluded.

Based on available evidence and information in the registration dossier (e.g. mechanism of carcinogenicity, characterization of the particles), the proposed scope for the Annex VI entry is: **“Titanium dioxide in all phases and phase combinations; particles in all sizes/morphologies”**.

1.2 Harmonised classification and labelling proposal

Table 2: The current Annex VI entry and the proposed harmonised classification

	CLP Regulation
Current entry in Annex VI, CLP Regulation	None
Current proposal for consideration by RAC	Carc. 1B – H350i
Resulting harmonised classification (future entry in Annex VI, CLP Regulation)	Carc. 1B – H350i

1.3 Proposed harmonised classification and labelling based on CLP Regulation

Table 3: Proposed classification according to the CLP Regulation

CLP Annex I ref	Hazard class	Proposed classification	Proposed SCLs and/or M-factors	Current classification ¹⁾	Reason for no classification ²⁾
2.1.	Explosives				Not evaluated
2.2.	Flammable gases				Not evaluated
2.3.	Flammable aerosols				Not evaluated
2.4.	Oxidising gases				Not evaluated
2.5.	Gases under pressure				Not evaluated
2.6.	Flammable liquids				Not evaluated
2.7.	Flammable solids				Not evaluated
2.8.	Self-reactive substances and mixtures				Not evaluated
2.9.	Pyrophoric liquids				Not evaluated
2.10.	Pyrophoric solids				Not evaluated
2.11.	Self-heating substances and mixtures				Not evaluated
2.12.	Substances and mixtures which in contact with water emit flammable gases				Not evaluated
2.13.	Oxidising liquids				Not evaluated
2.14.	Oxidising solids				Not evaluated
2.15.	Organic peroxides				Not evaluated
2.16.	Substance and mixtures corrosive to metals				Not evaluated
3.1.	Acute toxicity - oral				Not evaluated
	Acute toxicity - dermal				Not evaluated
	Acute toxicity - inhalation				Not evaluated
3.2.	Skin corrosion / irritation				Not evaluated
3.3.	Serious eye damage / eye irritation				Not evaluated
3.4.	Respiratory sensitisation				Not evaluated
3.4.	Skin sensitisation				Not evaluated
3.5.	Germ cell mutagenicity				Inconclusive
3.6.	Carcinogenicity	Carc. 1B – H350i			Conclusive and sufficient for classification
3.7.	Reproductive toxicity				Not evaluated
3.8.	Specific target organ toxicity –single exposure				Not evaluated
3.9.	Specific target organ toxicity – repeated exposure				Not evaluated
3.10.	Aspiration hazard				Not evaluated

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

4.1.	Hazardous to the aquatic environment				Not evaluated
5.1.	Hazardous to the ozone layer				Not evaluated

¹⁾Including specific concentration limits (SCLs) and M-factors

²⁾Data lacking, inconclusive, or conclusive but not sufficient for classification

Labelling: Signal word: Danger

Hazard statements: H350i

Hazard pictogram: GHS08

2 BACKGROUND TO THE CLH PROPOSAL

2.1 History of the previous classification and labelling

There is no current harmonized classification for titanium dioxide.

2.2 Short summary of the scientific justification for the CLH proposal

Commercially, titanium dioxide (CAS no 13463-67-7) particles range from non-nano (bulk) to nanosizes that can aggregate or agglomerate. Primary particles are single crystals that are bound in crystal planes. Aggregates are sintered primary particles that are connected by crystal faces. Agglomerates are multiple primary particles and aggregates that are held together by van der Waal's forces (IARC, 2006). Three main crystal structures are clearly described: rutile (CAS no 1317-80-2), anatase (CAS no 1317-70-0) and brookite (CAS no 12188-41-9). Anatase and rutile are tetragonal, brookite is orthorhombic. In all polymorphs, titanium is coordinated octahedrally by oxygen, but the position of the octahedral differs between polymorphs. The structure of rutile is the densest and its unit cell is the smallest. Anatase has four formula units per unit cell with $a = 0.379$ nm and $c = 0.951$ nm; rutile has two with $a = 0.459$ nm and $c = 0.296$ nm; brookite has eight with $a = 0.917$ nm, $b = 0.546$ nm and $c = 0.514$ nm. Only the structures of rutile and anatase are reported in commercial products (IARC, 2006; INRS 2013) and could also be mixture combination of anatase/rutile (P25). Titanium dioxide can be formulated in different shapes (spheres, nanorods, nanowires, nanotubes, thin films or nanoporous structures...). Dimension of all these forms (from nanosize to bulk size) vary widely depending on the manufacturer and uses of titanium dioxide. Titanium dioxide can also be modified by using various coatings (including aluminum oxide, silicon dioxide, calcium salts...) or dopant agents to enhance or maintain its properties.

In the current REACH registration database there is one registration for "titanium dioxide" with 130 members in April 2016. This registration stated that it intends to cover "all crystal phases&hydrates of titanium dioxide including rutile, anatase, monohydrate and dihydrate". However, the types and number of compositions considered to be covered in terms of crystalline phase, morphology and surface chemistry are not transparently (and exhaustively) reported. Due to this lack of transparency, the impact on the hazard profile when the parameters vary cannot be established from the information included in the registration dossier. However it is clearly stated in the registration dossier that all possible variations are considered equivalent in terms of hazard profile. Taking these statements into account, the approach applied in the REACH dossier was used to support the scope of the proposed entry in Annex VI of CLP.

In the context of dossier evaluation under REACH, a final decision has been issued by ECHA to the lead registrant with requests to transparently report the scope of the registered substance in terms of crystalline phase, morphology and surface chemistry. The information was considered by ECHA to be a prerequisite to the assessment of the data submitted in accordance with Annexes VII-XI of the REACH Regulation.

In this context, FR-MSCA focuses on a hazard for which commonalities can be proposed independent of crystalline phase, morphology and surface chemistry variability (and all possible combinations thereof).

Although it was initially foreseen to propose a harmonized classification for mutagenicity, this hazard category has been put aside from the proposal because the existing data show too many

discrepancies that cannot be explained with the current state of the science. Indeed, the FR-MSCA was not able to identify specific physicochemical parameter justifying the discrepancies along the mutagenic results and whether the differences reported in the results could be due to different study protocols having been employed. For this endpoint, further data are necessary to consolidate the existing data and see if specific forms are leading to more severe toxicity than others. Genotoxicity dataset on TiO₂ is therefore only presented as supporting data for carcinogenicity endpoint, and summarized in Annex I.

This CLH report therefore focuses on carcinogenicity of TiO₂. Indeed, because the carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ seems to be rather due to inflammatory process and oxidative stress, it is believed that biopersistence and solubility are relevant to explain this toxicological effect. All possible crystal modifications, morphologies and surface chemistries in all possible combinations of TiO₂ are expected to be biopersistent and of poor solubility, and therefore covered by this CLH dossier. Indeed TiO₂ in all these combination is considered to behave in the same way as other poorly soluble low toxicity particles (e.g. coal dust, diesel exhaust particulates, toner ...). This statement does not preclude that some parameters (in particular shape and coating) might also lead to a more potent carcinogenicity or to other specific lesions *via* a specific mode of action. The proposal presented below is based on data considered sufficient by MSCA-FR to propose a general entry for classification of TiO₂ for Carcinogenicity by inhalation. In case new data is available, the entry may be modified upon submission of these data by the registrant.

Carcinogenicity

Human data do not suggest an association between occupational exposure to TiO₂ and risk for cancer. However, all these studies have methodological limitations and the level of exposure reported is debatable.

In experimental animal studies, lung tumours were reported after inhalation or intra-tracheal administration of TiO₂ (fine rutile, anatase/rutile P25 nano-TiO₂ and nano-rutile) in rats in an overload context. Overload is defined by an impairment of normal pulmonary clearance due to high accumulation of particles. Although inter-species variability was found in particle retention, the overload concept is relevant for humans, and in particular for workers exposed to high dust concentrations. Furthermore, it appears that lung retention and chronic pulmonary inflammation occurring in humans are consistent with the findings in rats. Although benign lung tumours (bronchioalveolar adenomas) were observed in both sexes, malignant tumours (squamous cell carcinomas and bronchioalveolar adenocarcinomas) were only reported in female rats. Cystic keratinizing tumours were also reported but the relevance to human remains unclear. Based on these effects, IARC (2006) concluded that there is sufficient evidence that TiO₂ is carcinogenic in animals.

Although the full mode of action is still unclear, an inflammatory process and indirect genotoxic effect through ROS production seems to be the major mechanism to explain the effects induced by TiO₂. It is considered that this mode of action is principally due to the biopersistence and poor solubility of the TiO₂ particles. However, a genotoxic effect by direct interaction with DNA cannot be excluded since TiO₂ was found in the cell nucleus in various *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies. The proposed mechanism is already described for other substances such as aluminium oxide, insoluble

nickel salts and iron oxides, acting as poorly soluble low toxicity particles, which elicit lung tumors in rats following prolonged exposure at sufficiently high concentrations.

Therefore, classification as Carc. Cat 1B – H350i is justified for TiO₂ considering the increase of both malignant and benign lung tumours in one species, reported in two studies by inhalation and two studies by instillation after exposure to TiO₂. Since the data provided cannot distinguish if a specific characteristic is linked to such effect, this classification applied to all existing possible crystal modifications, morphologies and surface chemistries in all possible combinations of TiO₂. The proposed classification focus on inhalation route because only local tumours were found after respiratory exposure and no carcinogenic concern was identified by oral and dermal routes. This last assumption is based on the negative results in different carcinogenicity studies that might be explained due to limited absorption reported in other studies and due to the hypothesized mode of action requiring a sufficient accumulation of particles to induce inflammation and proliferative lesions.

2.3 Current harmonised classification and labelling

There is no current harmonized classification for titanium dioxide.

2.4 Current self-classification and labelling

2.4.1 Current self-classification and labelling based on the CLP Regulation criteria

The following C&L inventory information is available for the general entry of Titanium dioxide (CAS 13463-67-7) on 11/04/2015.

Classification	Number of notifiers
Not classified	2387
Acute Tox 4 – H332	63
Acute Tox 4 – H312	4
Acute Tox 4 – H302	14
Skin Irrit 2 – H315	11
Eye Irrit 2 – H319	71
STOT SE 2 – H371	10
Resp Sens 1B – H334	1
STOT SE 3 – H335	76
STOT RE 1 – H372	69
STOT RE 2 – H373	1
Muta 2 – H341	1

Carc 1B – H350	9
Carc 2 – H351	115
Aqua Chronic 4 – H413	22

An additional C&L inventory is available for the specific crystalline form, Anatase (CAS 1317-70-0) on 11/04/2015.

Classification	Number of notifiers
Not classified	200
Acute Tox 4 – H302	5
Carc. 2 – H351	5
Skin Irrit 2 – H315	2
Eye Irrit 2 – H319	2
STOT SE 3 – H335	2

An additional C&L inventory is available for the specific crystalline form, Rutile (CAS 1317-80-2) on 05/04/2016.

Classification	Number of notifiers
Not classified	417
Acute Tox 4 – H302	5
Carc. 2 – H351	4
Skin Irrit 2 – H315	1
Eye Irrit 2 – H319	1
STOT SE 3 – H335	1

In conclusion, it can be noted that several notifiers titanium dioxide as a carcinogenic substance, including the anatase forms.

3 JUSTIFICATION THAT ACTION IS NEEDED AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

Available data show that TiO₂ has CMR property, i.e. carcinogenicity that is not currently harmonised and justify a harmonised classification and labelling according to article 36 of CLP.

Part B.

SCIENTIFIC EVALUATION OF THE DATA

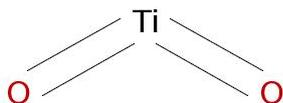
1 IDENTITY OF THE SUBSTANCE

1.1 Name and other identifiers of the substance

Table 5: Substance identity

EC number:	236-675-5
EC name:	Titanium dioxide
CAS number (EC inventory):	13463-67-7
CAS number:	13463-67-7
CAS name:	Titanium oxide (TiO ₂)
IUPAC name:	dioxotitanium
CLP Annex VI Index number:	-
Molecular formula:	TiO ₂
Molecular weight range:	79.8

Structural formula:



1.2 Composition of the substance

Table 6: Constituents (non-confidential information)

Constituent	Typical concentration	Concentration range	Remarks
Titanium dioxide EC no.: 236-675-5	98.0 % (w/w)	>= 87.0 — <= 100.0 % (w/w)	For purity, materials were tested as uncoated and untreated material.

*These data are taken from the REACH registration dossier for EC no 236-675-5. See also, for information, public data of FAO and IARC below

Table 7: Impurities

Impurity	Typical concentration	Concentration range	Remarks
Confidential			

See also, for information public, data of FAO and IARC below

Table 8: Additives (non-confidential information)

Additive	Function	Typical concentration	Concentration range	Remarks
Aluminium oxide EC no.: 215-691-6	Stabiliser	1.0 % (w/w)	>= 0.0 — < 2.0 % (w/w)	

*These data are taken from the REACH registration dossier. See also, for information, public data of FAO and IARC below

FR-MSCA acknowledge that the sum of minimum purity, the maximum content of the impurity and the additive, does not reach 100%. However, no more data are available on this point.

Data from FAO CTA 2006 chapter 4 characterization

Composition

Titanium dioxide can be prepared at a high level of purity. Specifications for food use currently contain a minimum purity assay of 99.0% (FCC, 2003; Japan, 2000; JECFA, 2006). Maximum limits for Loss on Drying (Japan, 2000; JECFA, 2006) and Loss on Ignition (FCC, 2003; Japan, 2000; JECFA, 2006) have also been established.

Data from FAO CTA 2006 chapter 4 characterization

Maximum Specified Limits for Impurities in Titanium Oxide

Impurity	JECFA (2006)	FCC (2003)	Japan (2000)
Aluminium oxide/silicon dioxide	2%	2.0%	---
Acid-soluble substances	0.5% (1.5% for products containing alumina or silica)	0.5%	0.50%

Water-soluble matter	0.5%	0.3%	0.25%
Antimony	2 mg/kg	1 mg/kg	(a)
Arsenic	1 mg/kg	2 mg/kg	1.3 mg/kg as As ₂ O ₃
Cadmium	1 mg/kg	---	(a)
Lead	10 mg/kg	10 mg/kg	(a)
Mercury	1 mg/kg	1 mg/kg	(a)

(a) 10 mg/kg total Heavy metals (as lead).

Data from American Chemistry Council (2005) available in IARC monograph 93(table 1.1)

Types of coating used for common grades of titanium dioxide pigment (normally titanium dioxide-rutile)

Surface treatment type	Composition, range (wt %)	Application
Alumina/TMP	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–5.5 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings
Alumina/zirconia/TMP	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–5.0 ZrO ₂ , 0.3–1.0 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings
Alumina/silica/siloxane	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1–6 SiO ₂ , 0.3–3 Total carbon, <0.3	Plastics
Alumina/silica/TMP	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–6.0 SiO ₂ , 0.5–13.0 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings/plastics
Alumina/TME	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–3.5 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings
Alumina/zirconia/TME	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–5.0 ZrO ₂ , 0.3–1.0 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings
Alumina/silica/TME	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.5–5.0 SiO ₂ , 1.5–3.5 Total carbon, <0.3	Paint/coatings
Alumina/silica/silane	Al ₂ O ₃ , 1.0–6.0 SiO ₂ , 0.3–3 Total carbon, <0.3	Plastics

TME, trimethylol ethane; TMP, trimethylol propane; wt, weight

1.3 Physico-chemical properties

The below information are extracted from registration dossier. These data have not been assessed in the context of this CLH dossier.

Table 9: Summary of physico - chemical properties

Property	Value	Reference	Comment (e.g. measured or estimated)
State of the substance at 20°C and 101,3 kPa	Solid, crystalline, white, odourless inorganic substance.	-CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics Lide, D.R. (Ed.) CRC Press, 4-96	
Melting/freezing point	Melting point of anatase: 1560 °C, rutile: 1843 °C, brookite: 1825 °C	-CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics Lide, D.R. (Ed.) CRC Press, 4-96 -RÖMPP Online, Version 3.1 – Titandioxid Georg Thieme Verlag, Dokumentkennung RD-20-01896	
Boiling point	ca. 3000 °C	-CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics Lide, D.R. (Ed.) CRC Press, 4-96 -RÖMPP Online, Version 3.1 – Titandioxid Georg Thieme Verlag, Dokumentkennung RD-20-01896	
Relative density	Relative density: anatase = 3.9, rutile = 4.26, brookite = 4.17	-CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics Lide, D.R. (Ed.) CRC Press, 4-96	
Water solubility	Not soluble	-Brouwers T 2009 -CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics Lide, D.R. (Ed.) CRC Press, 4-96	The water solubility of titanium dioxide was below the LOD of 1µg/L at pH 6, 7 and 8
Solubility in organic solvent	Not soluble		Hazardous Substances Data Bank
Partition coefficient n-octanol/water	Not soluble		
Granulometry	Not relevant		Titanium dioxide can be in very different forms from isolated nanoparticule to bulk material. Defining a single value is not relevant.

2 MANUFACTURE AND USES

2.1 Manufacture

Titanium dioxide is manufactured from mineral ores or from iron titanate or titanium slag. It is a solid, crystalline, white, odourless inorganic substance in the multiple morphologies of nano or non nanoparticles as primary particle size that will aggregate and agglomerate. It can also be engineered as nanosheets, nanotubes and nanofibres. The tonnage band registered in EU is 1,000,000 - 10,000,000 tons per annum.

2.2 Identified uses

Titanium dioxide is a pigment and an opacifying agent. Its other important properties are resistance to chemical attack, thermal stability, resistance to UV degradation (UV blocker) and photocatalysis potential.

Titanium dioxide is very widely used in industrial/professional settings and is included in numerous products and articles used by industrials, professionals and consumers. All existing process categories (PROC), environmental release categories (ERC), product categories (PC) and articles categories (AC) are claimed in the Reach registration dossier. Products/articles in which titanium dioxide is incorporated are numerous and include paints, varnishes, inks, coatings, plastics, rubbers, papers, plasters, adhesives, coated fabrics and textiles, glassware, ceramics, electroceramics, electronic components, catalysts, welding fluxes, welding rods, floor coverings, roofing granules, food additives (E 171), pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, dental impressions, etc. Due to its photocatalytic properties, when the size of the particle is reduced to the nanoscale in one or more dimensions, nano titanium dioxide is also used for water and surfaces treatment.

The uses of TiO₂ depend on its properties that are determined by the crystallinity, the size, the shape and surface chemistry of the TiO₂ particle.

No uses are reported as advised against in the Reach registration dossier.

3 CLASSIFICATION FOR PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Not evaluated.

4 HUMAN HEALTH HAZARD ASSESSMENT

4.1 Carcinogenicity

The following reported studies were all publications based on a bibliographic research carried out on all forms of TiO₂ (ended on August 2015). In addition, the information from the registration dossier on EC 236-675-5 published on ECHA website has been considered (date: 01/08/2015).

Table 4.1-01: Summary table of relevant carcinogenicity studies

Method	Results	Remarks	Reference Reliability
Oral route			
Fischer 344 rats and B6C3F1 mice (males and females) 0, 25 000, 50 000 ppm 103 weeks in diet (corresp. to 1250-2500 mg/kg bw/day in rats and 3750-7500 mg/kg bw/day with OECD conversion factors) Before guideline, no GLP status	Not carcinogenic by oral route. No firm conclusion in rats after reviewing by the Data Evaluation/Risk Assessment Subgroup of the Clearinghouse on Environmental Carcinogens.	TiO ₂ anatase, purity ≥ 98%, size unspecified Tested material not fully characterized (at least size lacking) and very high tested doses	NCI, 1979 R2
Fischer 344 rats (males and females) 0, 1.0, 2.0, 5.0 % up to 130 weeks in diet (corresp. to 500, 1000, 2500 mg/kg bw/day with OECD conversion factors) Similar to guideline, no GLP status	Not carcinogenic by oral route.	TiO ₂ -coated mica (flat platelets, longest dimension, 10-35 µm; 28% titanium dioxide; 72% mica) Tested material not fully characterized (at least crystallinity and purity lacking) and high tested doses	Bernard, 1990 R2
Inhalation route			
CrI:CD rats (males and females) Exposure by inhalation whole body: 0, 10, 50 or 250 mg/m ³ , 6 h/day, 5 days/week for 2 years Similar to guideline, no GLP status	↑ bronchioalveolar adenoma in ♀ and ♂ and squamous lesions (mostly keratin cysts) in ♀ at 250 mg/m ³ . Impairment of clearance function, pulmonary inflammation and cell proliferative responses from 50 mg/m ³ .	TiO ₂ (purity 99.0%), rutile particles; MMD = 1.5-1.7 µm	Lee, 1985 R2
Female Wistar rats [CrI:(WI)BR] and NMRI mice Whole body exposure by inhalation: 18h/d, 5 days/week: 7.2 mg/m ³ for the first 4 months, then 14.8 mg/m ³ for 4 months followed by 9.4 mg/m ³ for 16 months for rats and 5.5 months for mice. Not guideline, no GLP status	↑ benign keratinizing cystic squamous cell tumours, squamous-cell carcinomas, bronchioalveolar adenomas and adenocarcinomas in rats. Not carcinogenic in mice. ↑ mortality and ↓ body weight in both species. Impairment of clearance function, bronchioalveolar hyperplasia and interstitial fibrosis in rats.	TiO ₂ , 15-40 nm, P25 (≈ 80% anatase and ≈ 20% rutile) Purity lacking. One concentration varying during the experiment, only females tested.	Heinrich, 1995 R3
F-344 rats (males and females) Whole body exposure by inhalation, 6h/day, 5 days/week to 5 mg/m ³ TiO ₂ (respirable concentration of 3.87 mg/m ³) for 24 months Not guideline, no GLP status	Not carcinogenic by inhalation. Inflammatory reaction with bronchoalveolar hyperplasia.	TiO ₂ , type Bayertitan T, 99.5 % rutile, MMAD = 1.1 µm Purity lacking. One low concentration tested.	Muhle, 1989 R3
SD rats (males and females) 0 or 15.95 mg/m ³ by inhalation	Not carcinogenic by inhalation. Inflammatory reaction.	TiO ₂ , “standard size” with 99.9% < 0.5 µm	Thyssen, 1978

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

for 12 weeks, 6h/day, 5d/week Not guideline, no GLP status		Tested material not fully characterized (at least size and crystallinity lacking); one low concentration tested and short exposure duration.	R3
Instillation route			
Hras 128 transgenic female rats DHPN (initiation) for 2 weeks. Then, 250 µg/ml or 500 µg/ml TiO ₂ once every 2 weeks from the end of the week 4 to week 16 by instillation. Not guideline, no GLP status	Promotor effect observed: ↑ multiplicity of DHPN-induced alveolar cell hyperplasias and adenomas in the lung at all doses, and the multiplicity of mammary adenocarcinomas at 500 µg/ml. No carcinogenic without pre-treatment with DHPN.	TiO ₂ non coated, rutile, 20 nm Purity lacking. Little experience with this model. No positive control included. Only females tested.	Xu, 2010 R3
F344/DuCrI Crj male rats DHPN (initiation) for 2 weeks, then 0.5 mg/rat TiO ₂ once in week 4 by instillation. Not guideline, no GLP status	Not promotor potential by instillation. No lung lesion without pretreatment with DHPN.	Micro-TiO ₂ , rutile form, < 5 µm Nano-TiO ₂ , 80 nm (no clear crystalline identification) Many parameters did not match with standard protocol for carcinogenesis assessment; no valid positive control; only males tested.	Yokohira, 2009 R3
SPF Wistar female rats TiO ₂ P25: 5x3mg, 5x6 mg or 10x6 mg by instillations TiO ₂ P805: 15x0.5 mg or 30 x0.5 mg by instillation Micro TiO ₂ : 10x6 mg or 20x6 mg by instillation Animals sacrificed after 30 months. Not guideline, no GLP status	↑ benign tumours (adenomas and epitheliomas) and malignant tumours (adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas) with nano and micro TiO ₂ at all tested doses. Higher number of tumours with nano-TiO ₂ compared to fine TiO ₂ .	Nano-TiO ₂ P25, majority anatase, 25 nm Nano-TiO ₂ P805 (P25 coated with trimethoxyoctylsilane), 21 nm Micro-TiO ₂ anatase, 0.2 µm Purity lacking. Only females tested.	Pott, 2005 R2
Dermal route			
CD1(ICR) female mice DMBA (initiation) one time. One week after: 5, 10 and 20 mg/animal TiO ₂ twice weekly for 19 weeks by dermal route. Two-stage skin carcinogenesis Japanese guideline 3.2; GLP compliant	No promotor potential by dermal route.	TiO ₂ coated: 79.2%, spindle shape, long axis of 50-100 nm, short axis of 10-20 nm TiO ₂ non coated: 96.0%, spindle shape, long axis of 50-100 nm, short axis of 10-20 nm No information on crystallinity. Positive control valid; only females tested.	Furukawa, 2011 R2
Male transgenic Hras 128 rats and wild-type SD rats DMBA (initiation) one time. Two weeks later: 50 or 100 mg TiO ₂ twice a week until week 40 by dermal route. Two-stage skin carcinogenesis	No promotor potential by dermal route.	TiO ₂ non coated, rutile, 20 nm. Little experience with this model. No positive control; only males tested. High tumour activity with	Sagawa, 2012 R3

Not guideline, no GLP status		DMBA alone in Has 128 rats.	
Female CD1 mice DMBA (initiation) one time. Two weeks later: 10 or 20 mg TiO ₂ twice a week until week 52 by dermal route. Two-stage skin carcinogenesis Not guideline, no GLP status	No promotor potential by dermal route.	TiO ₂ non coated, rutile, 20 nm Positive control valid; only females tested.	Sagawa, 2012 R3
Female transgenic rasH2 mice and wild type CB6F1 mice DMBA (initiation) one time. Two weeks later: 10 or 20 mg TiO ₂ , 5 times per week until week 8 for transgenic mice and week 40 for wild-type mice by dermal route. Two-stage skin carcinogenesis Not guideline, no GLP status	No promotor potential by dermal route.	TiO ₂ coated with silicone, 35 nm No positive control; only females tested. High tumour activity in the initiated rasH2 mice.	Sagawa, 2012 R3
Hras 128 rats and wild-type rats (males and females) UVB (initiation) twice weekly for 10 weeks, then 50 mg TiO ₂ twice weekly until week 52 by dermal route. Two-stage skin carcinogenesis Not guideline, no GLP status	No promotor potential by dermal route.	TiO ₂ non coated, rutile, 20 nm No positive control. Little experience with this model	Xu, 2011 R3

4.1.1 Non-human information

4.1.1.1 Carcinogenicity: oral

Fischer 344 rats and B6C3F1 mice (50/sex/group) were administered TiO₂ (3 lots of anatase Unitane[®] 0-220, purity ≥ 98%, size unspecified) in the diet at 0, 25,000 or 50,000 ppm for 103 weeks and then observed for one additional week (NCI, 1979). According to the conversion factors provided by the OECD (2002), the tested doses correspond to 1250 mg/kg bw/day and 2500 mg/kg bw/day in rats and to 3750 mg/kg bw/day and 7500 mg/kg bw/day in mice; doses higher than what is generally recommended in the OECD guideline. Surviving animals were killed at 104 weeks. The tested doses were selected from a subchronic studies performed in rats and mice at doses up to 100,000 ppm. There was no mortality, no effect on body gain and no gross or microscopic pathology at the highest tested dose. The maximum tested dose of 50,000 ppm in the carcinogenicity study was chosen as the maximum amount allowed for use in chronic bioassays in the Carcinogenicity Testing Program.

Administration of TiO₂ had no appreciable effect on the mean body weights of rats and mice. With the exception of white faeces observed in male and female rats and mice, there was no other clinical sign that was considered treatment-related. Survival of rats and male mice at the end of the bioassay was not affected by the tested substance; in female mice, a dose-related trend in decreased survival

was noted. Sufficient numbers of dosed and control rats and mice of each sex were at risk for development of late-appearing tumours.

In the female rats, C-cell adenomas or carcinomas of the thyroid occurred at incidences that were dose related ($P = 0.013$), but were not high enough ($P = 0.043$ for direct comparison of the high-dose group with the control group) to meet the level of $P = 0.025$ required by the Bonferroni criterion (controls 1/48, low dose 0/47, high dose 6/44). Thus, these tumours of the thyroid were not considered to be related to the administration of the test chemical. Also in female rats, endometrial stromal polyps of the endometrium/uterus occurred at higher incidences in the dosed groups than in controls, but the incidences were not dose-related and were not high enough ($P = 0.045$ for direct comparison of the low-dose group with the control group) to meet the requirements of the Bonferroni criterion (controls 7/50, low dose 15/50, high dose 10/50). In male and female mice, no tumours occurred in dosed groups at incidences that were significantly higher than those of the corresponding control groups. It was concluded that under the conditions of this bioassay, TiO_2 was not carcinogenic by the oral route for Fischer 344 rats or B6C3F1 mice.

This study was reviewed by the Data Evaluation/Risk Assessment Subgroup of the Clearinghouse on Environmental Carcinogens in 1978. The primary reviewer considered that the evidence was insufficient to conclude that TiO_2 was not carcinogenic in female rats based on the increased incidence in C-cell adenomas and carcinomas of the thyroid. This reviewer recommended to modify the above conclusion and suggested that TiO_2 should be retested. In contrast, the second reviewer considered the study adequate and concluded that TiO_2 would not appear to pose a carcinogenic risk to humans. The following revised conclusion was agreed: "*it was concluded that, under the conditions of this bioassay, TiO_2 was not carcinogenic by the oral route of exposure for B6C3F1 mice, but that no firm conclusion can be reached about the possible carcinogenicity of this compound to Fischer 344 rats, at this time*". There was no objection to the recommendation that TiO_2 be considered for retest.

Another study was summarized in the IARC monograph, volume 93. Fischer 344 rats (60/sex/group) fed diets containing 0, 1.0, 2.0 or 5.0% TiO_2 -coated mica (flat platelets, longest dimension, 10-35 μm ; 28% TiO_2 ; 72% mica) for up to 130 weeks. According to the conversion factors provided by the OECD (2002), the tested doses correspond to 500, 1000 and 2500 mg/kg bw/day, with the highest dose higher than what is generally recommended in the OECD guideline. Low survival rates were noted, in particular for the females exposed to 1.0% TiO_2 -coated mica (only 12/50). Reduction of body weight was observed but was reversible at termination of the study. The only treatment-related clinical sign was silver-colored feces. A significant increase in the overall incidence of adrenal medullary hyperplasia was found in the high dose males, without any progression. There was also a marginally elevated overall incidence of mononuclear cell leukemia in this group, judged to be of no biological significance. The authors concluded that there was no evidence of a carcinogenic effect (Bernard, 1990).

4.1.1.2 Carcinogenicity: inhalation

CrI:CD rats (100/sex/group) were exposed whole body to TiO₂ (purity 99.0%), rutile particles with a spherical configuration, by inhalation at concentrations of 0, 10, 50 or 250 mg/m³, 6 hr/day, 5 days/week for 2 years (Lee et al. 1985a; 1985b; 1986; Trochimowicz, 1988). Five males and five females from each group were killed after 3 and 6 months of exposure, and subsequently, 10 males and 10 females were killed after 1 year of exposure. All rats sacrificed by design, found dead, or sacrificed in extremis were submitted for gross and microscopic evaluation. All remaining rats were killed at the end of 2 years of exposure.

Table 4.1.1.2-01. Chamber concentrations and particle size distributions of TiO₂

Chamber concentrations ^a (mg/m ³)	MMD ^b (µm)	Respirable fraction ^c (%)
10.6 ± 2.1	1.5	78.2
50.3 ± 8.8	1.7	88.6
250.1 ± 24.7	1.6	84.3

^a Mean ± Standard deviation (gravimetric determination)

^b Mass median diameter (MMD), average of at least six determinations

^c The average percentage of TiO₂ particles with MMD less than 13 µm

There were no abnormal clinical signs, body weight changes, excess of morbidity or mortality in any exposed group when compared to control group. There were no significant compound-related pathological lesions other than in the respiratory organs and the thoracic lymph nodes.

Lung weights at 10 mg/m³ were comparable to those of the control group, but at 50 mg/m³, lung weights (relative and absolute) were statistically significantly increased from 6 months throughout 2 years exposure. At 250 mg/m³, the lungs showed a marked increase in weight from 3 months of exposure and were more than twice the weight of control lungs after 1 and 2 years exposure.

Macroscopically, accumulation of white foci was seen in the lungs of rats exposed to TiO₂ at all concentrations. White foci were observed at 3 months of exposure and increased in number and/or size from 6 months through 2 years of exposure. At the highest concentration, the lungs were markedly voluminous and failed to collapse. The tracheobronchial lymph nodes were markedly enlarged with a concentration and exposure time relationship.

TiO₂ retention in lung at 24 months of exposure was 3.1 % (26.5 mg per dried lung) at 10 mg/m³, 9.6% (124 mg per dried lung) at 50 mg/m³ and 28 % (665 mg per dried lung) at 250 mg/m³. The lung clearance mechanism appeared to be overwhelmed by 12 months of exposure to 250 mg/m³ and TiO₂ was accumulated markedly throughout 2 years of exposure. There was no significant difference in dust clearance between 10 and 50 mg/m³ groups.

Incidence of main non-neoplastic lesions in the nasal cavity and trachea are summarized in the Table 4.1.1.2-02.

No tumours were observed. A significant increase in the incidence of rhinitis, tracheitis and pneumonia was found in all groups of exposed rats. The severity of the lesions was dose dependent and was minimal at 10 mg/m³. The anterior nasal cavity often revealed acute and chronic inflammation with squamous cell metaplasia.

Table 4.1.1.2-02. Incidence of main non-neoplastic lesions in the nasal cavity and trachea

	Control		10 mg/m ³		50 mg/m ³		250 mg/m ³	
	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)
Nasal cavity (number of rats examined)	79	76	71	74	73	74	76	73
Rhinitis, anterior	25	18	57	36	48	34	70	63
Rhinitis, posterior	13	3	13	10	3	1	14	18
Squamous metaplasia, anterior	8	7	26	14	20	21	44	40
Squamous metaplasia, posterior	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
Trachea (number of rats examined)	79	77	68	74	74	69	77	65
Tracheitis	2	1	52	34	53	37	61	28

Incidences of main neoplastic and non-neoplastic lesions in the lung were summarized in the Table 4.1.1.2-03.

Exposure to TiO₂ produced impairment of alveolar macrophage clearance functions, sustained persistence pulmonary inflammation and enhanced cell proliferative responses. The first manifestation of the pulmonary response to an overloaded lung clearance mechanism was an *accumulation of foamy dust cells* at 50 mg/m³ after 1 year of exposure and at 250 mg/m³ after 6 months exposure. *Alveolar proteinosis (lipoproteinosis)* also appeared to be an important marker indicating an overloaded lung clearance. It seemed to occur because of failure of lung clearance due to overwhelmed alveolar macrophages, since they were overloaded with fine TiO₂ particles and excessive alveolar surfactant derived from hyperplastic type II pneumocytes. *Cholesterol granulomas* were also developed at 50 and 250 mg/m³ after 1 year exposure and were related to massive accumulation of foamy dust cells in the alveoli. The disintegrated foamy dust cell could release lysosomal enzymes to provoke a granulomatous tissue response. However, cholesterol granulomas appear to be species-specific tissue responses to excessive dust exposure since they are relatively rare and not associated with dust exposure in man. *Type II pneumocyte hyperplasia* was observed at all tested concentrations. This effect is known as a reversible adaptive and reparative tissue response to damaged type I pneumocytes. *Alveolar bronchiolarization* found at 50 and 250 mg/m³ was characterized by epithelialization of ciliated columnar cells and mucous cells in some alveoli adjacent to the terminal bronchioles. This lesion appears to be another adaptive tissue response to dust accumulation by extension of the mucoesalator capacity to the alveolar walls from adjacent terminal bronchioles for rapid removal of particles via the airways.

Concerning the neoplastic lesions, an increase of bronchiolarveolar adenoma and squamous cell carcinoma occurred at 250 mg/m³. Bronchioalveolar adenoma originated from areas of alveoli showing marked hyperplasia of type II pneumocytes with dust cell aggregates. The squamous cell carcinomas were characterized by a dermoid, cyst-like appearance with a cystic space filled with laminated keratin material. They were developed from the squamous metaplasia in the alveoli showing bronchiolarization adjacent to the alveolar ducts. In most cases, they were extremely difficult to differentiate from keratinized squamous metaplasia. In the publication, the authors classified this pulmonary lesion as a cystic keratinizing squamous cell carcinoma even in the absence of a biological behaviour indicating malignancy. There were no signs of metastasis to regional lymph nodes or other organs.

A microscopic review of the proliferative squamous lesions observed in this study was published in 2006 (Warheit et al. 2006). These lesions were evaluated by four pathologists using current diagnostic criteria. Two of the lesions were diagnosed as squamous metaplasia, one as a poorly keratinizing squamous cell carcinoma and the remaining lesions as non-neoplastic pulmonary keratin cysts.

Table 4.1.1.2-03. Incidences of main neoplastic and non-neoplastic lesions in the lung

	Control		10 mg/m ³		50 mg/m ³		250 mg/m ³	
	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)	(♂)	(♀)
Lung (number of rats examined)	79	77	71	75	75	74	77	74
Aggregates, foamy alveolar macrophage	14	8	19	15	53	70	76	74
Alveolar cell hyperplasia, TiO ₂ deposition	-	-	67	72	75	74	77	74
Alveolar proteinosis	-	-	-	-	38	45	75	71
Bronchiolarization, alveoli	1	1	-	3	24	57	63	73
Broncho/bronchiolar pneumonia	1	1	7	11	8	10	7	5
Cholesterol granuloma	7	2	9	6	56	53	75	71
Collagenized fibrosis	11	3	7	4	49	41	76	73
Pleurisy	4	2	7	7	28	26	55	66
Anaplastic carcinoma, large cell	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Bronchioalveolar adenoma	2	-	1	-	1	-	12	13
Squamous cell carcinoma	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	13
Classification of squamous lesions after re-evaluation (Warheit et al. 2006)								
Squamous metaplasia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Pulmonary keratin cyst	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	11
Squamous cell carcinoma	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Female Wistar rats [CrI:(WI)BR] and NMRI mice were exposed whole body to aerosol of TiO₂ (P25, CAS no. 13463-67-7, primary particle size 15-40 nm, ≈ 80% anatase and ≈ 20% rutile) (Heinrich, 1995). Rats were exposed for up to 24 months (intermediate sacrifice 6 and 12 months) and mice for 13.5 months 18h/d, 5 days/week. Rats and mice were kept together in the same TiO₂ exposure atmospheres. The mean particle mass exposure concentrations were 7.2 mg/m³ for the first 4 months, followed by 14.8 mg/m³ for 4 months and 9.4 mg/m³ for 16 months for rats and 5.5 months for mice. The reason for changing the exposure concentrations of TiO₂ was to obtain a similar particle lung load in rats exposed to high diesel soot and carbon black particle concentrations, substances also tested in this study. The cumulative particle exposure, calculated by multiplying the mean particle mass exposure concentration by the actual exposure time per day, corresponded to 88.1 g/m³ x h for rats and 51.5 g/m³ x h for mice. Following the exposure period, the animals were removed from the inhalation chambers and kept under clean air conditions for an additional 6 months for rats and 9.5 months for mice. The total experimental test lasted 30 months for rats and 23 months for mice.

The aerosol was generated by a dry dispersion technique using a screw feeder and a pressurized air dispersion nozzle. The median aerodynamic diameter (MMAD) of aggregates/ agglomerates was about 1.5 µm. In order to increase the deposition efficiency of the test aerosol in the deep lung, the particle size distribution was shifted toward smaller particles in the submicrometer regime by removing the coarse particles using a cyclone. The MMAD and the geometric standard deviation of the particles in the exposure chambers measured every month was 0.80 (1.80) µm. The specific surface area of the particles determined by the BET method was 48 (± 2.0) m²/g.

The following table shows the number of animals used for the different biological tests performed in the study.

Table 4.1.1.2-04. Number of animals used and investigations performed

Investigations	Rats		Mice	
	Clean air control	TiO ₂	Clean air control	TiO ₂
Carcinogenicity	220	100	80	80
Histology (serial sacrifice)	80	80	40	40
DNA adducts (24 months)	14	14	-	-
Particle mass/lung (serial sacrifice)	66	66	40	40
Alveolar lung clearance	28	28	-	-

After 24 months, the mortality in rats was 60 % in the TiO₂ group compared to 42 % in the control group. At the end of the 130-week experimental time (exposure time and clean air period), the mean lifetime of the rats exposed to TiO₂ was significantly shortened compared to the control (90% mortality in the TiO₂ group versus 85 % in the control group). In mice, the mortality rate was 33% in the exposed group compared to 10 % in the clean air control group 13.5 months after the start of

exposure. A mortality rate of 50 % was reached after 17 months compared to 20% in the control group.

The body weight of the exposed rats was significantly lower from day 400 compared to the control and at the end of the 2-year exposure, the body weight was 365 g in exposed animals compared to 417 g in controls. In mice, the body weight was also significantly lower (5-7%) compared to the clean air control group after 8 months up to 17 months. During the last months, there was no significant difference in body weight between the control and exposed groups.

In rats and mice, the exposure to TiO₂ led to a substantial increase in lung wet weight, progressing with study duration. In mice, a slight decrease in lung wet weight was found in the TiO₂ group during the recovery phase.

In rats, alveolar lung clearance was already significantly compromised after inhalation of TiO₂ after 3 months of exposure (half-times of pulmonary clearance = 208 days in TiO₂ group versus 61 days in control group). After 18 months of exposure and 3 months of recovery time without particle exposure, no reversibility of the alveolar lung clearance damage could be detected (half-times of pulmonary clearance = 368 days in TiO₂ group after 3-month recovery period versus 357 days just after 18 months of exposure without recovery ; 93 days in control group). Alveolar lung clearance was not examined in mice.

After 6 months of exposure, slight bronchioalveolar hyperplasia and very slight to slight interstitial fibrosis were found in the lung of sacrificed rats. After 2 years of exposure, 99/100 rats showed bronchioalveolar hyperplasia and slight to moderate interstitial fibrosis was observed in the lungs of all rats. The presence of non-neoplastic findings in mice was not reported in the publication.

There were no lung tumours in the 20 satellite rats exposed to TiO₂ after 6 and 12 months. Lung tumours were found in 5/20 rats sacrificed after 18 months of exposure. After an exposure time of 24 months followed by 6 months of clean air, lung tumour rate was 32% in rats exposed to TiO₂. Among these animals, 8 showed 2 tumours in their lungs. Mostly benign keratinizing cystic squamous cell tumours and some squamous-cell carcinomas were found. Bronchioalveolar adenomas and adenocarcinomas were also observed at a high frequency. Only one lung tumour (adenocarcinoma) was found in 217 control rats. Tumour incidence in rats is summarised in Table 4.1.1.2-05 below.

In mice, the only types of lung tumours observed were adenomas and adenocarcinomas. The percentage of adenomas/adenocarcinomas was 11.3%/2.5% in TiO₂ group and 25%/15.4% in the control group. The lung tumour rate in the TiO₂ group (13.8 %) was lower than in the control group (30%) but not significantly different. Other effects than carcinogenic lesions in mice are poorly reported, therefore it is difficult to conclude on mice results in this study.

Table 4.1.1.2-05. Lung tumours in serial sacrifice groups of rats exposed to TiO₂ (between 7.2 to 14.8 mg/m³) for 6, 12, 18 and 24 months and in rats after an experimental time of 30 months (24 months of exposure and 6 months of recovery)

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

Exposure period/ type of tumour	Clean air control	TiO ₂
6 months	0/21	0/20
12 months	0/21	0/20
18 months		
Benign squamous-cell tumour ^a	0/18	2/20
Adenocarcinoma	0/18	2/20
Squamous-cell carcinoma ^b	0/18	3/20
Number of rats with tumour	0/18	5/20*
24 months		
Benign squamous-cell tumour	0/10	2/9
Adenocarcinoma	0/10	1/9
Squamous-cell carcinoma ^c	0/10	2/9
Number of rats with tumour	0/10	4/9*
30 months		
Benign squamous-cell tumour	0/217	20/100
Squamous-cell carcinoma	0/217	3/100
Adenoma	0/217	4/100
Adenocarcinoma	1/217	13/100*
Hemangioma	0/217	0/100
Number of rats with tumour ^d	1/217	32/100 (19/100) ^e

* Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (Fisher's exact test)

^a Benign keratinizing cystic squamous-cell tumour

^b Sometimes together with adenocarcinoma and benign-cell tumour

^c Sometimes together with benign squamous-cell tumour

^d Some animals had two lung tumours

^e Count without benign keratinizing cystic squamous-cell tumours given in parentheses

A chronic inhalation study of a test toner was conducting using TiO₂ (type Bayertitan T) as negative control for fibrogenicity (Muhle, 1989, 1991, 1995). By chemical analysis, the material was 99.5 % rutile TiO₂. The MMAD was about 1.1 μm , with a geometric standard deviation of 1.6 and the respirable fraction was 78%. Males and females F-344 rats (50/sex/group) were exposed whole body 6h/day, 5 days/week to 5 mg/m³ TiO₂ (corresponding to a respirable concentration of 3.87 mg/m³) for 24 months using a dry aerosol dispersion technique. The animals were kept without further exposure for an additional 1.5-month observation period.

Exposure to TiO₂ did not cause overt signs of toxicity. No influence of treatment was found on food consumption, body weight development, clinical appearance, clinical chemistry values and mean survival.

No changes in lung weight were reported in the TiO₂ group although TiO₂ accumulated progressively in the lungs. The mean quantity retained in the lungs of rats at 24 months was 2.72 mg/lung. Inflammatory reactions induced by inhalation of TiO₂ were characterized in the bronchoalveolar lavage by minor changes at 15 months of exposure (such as decreased macrophages and increase of polymorphonuclear leukocytes and lymphocytes). The levels of

cytoplasmic and lysosomal enzymes and total protein in the lavage fluid were comparable to those of air-only controls.

At microscopical examination, the extent of particle-laden macrophages increased with exposure time in the lung. A small but statistically insignificant incidence of fibrosis was seen in the TiO₂ group. Bronchoalveolar hyperplasia of the alveolar type, characterized by Type II pneumocytes was a rare finding in the control group and was observed in 9% of the rats exposed to TiO₂. The incidence of primary lung tumours was comparable among the TiO₂ and the air-only controls, and was consistent with historical background values. Two adenomas and one adenocarcinoma were observed in the air-only control group while one tumour of each type was detected in the TiO₂ control group. Only one concentration, relatively low, was tested in this study leading to no carcinogenic lesions. However, the fibrosis and bronchoalveolar hyperplasia observed can be considered as precursor lesions of carcinogenicity.

In a last publication (Thyssen, 1978), male and female Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed to TiO₂ as negative control for assessing the inhalation toxicity of polyurethane foam dust. Animals were exposed to 0 or 15.95 mg/m³ of TiO₂ (“standard size” with 99.9% < 0.5 µm) for 12 weeks, 6h/day, 5d/week. Animals surviving 140 weeks were sacrificed.

After 140 weeks, 44/50 males and 45/50 female died in the treated group in comparison to 39/50 males and 45/50 females in the air alone group. The average lifespan was between 113 and 120 weeks in the TiO₂ group and 114-116 weeks in the air alone group.

A number of neoplasms were observed in the respiratory tract in both groups (4 in treated/ 2 in controls). One case of adenoma and squamous cell papilloma in the larynx, one squamous cell papilloma in the trachea and one case of lung adenoma were observed in the treated TiO₂ group. In comparison, one squamous cell papilloma in the trachea and one case of lung adenoma were reported in the air alone group. Other neoplasms seen in the lung were metastases from tumours from other sites. In addition, respiratory segments revealed mild to severe inflammatory reactions. Therefore, no treatment-related carcinogenic effect following inhalation of TiO₂ was observed in this study on the respiratory tract. It should be noted that this study was performed with only one concentration of an unspecified titanium dioxide for a relatively short exposure duration.

The following studies were performed by intra-tracheal route. They are presented as supportive data for carcinogenic effects of TiO₂ after respiratory exposure.

Xu et al (2010) conducted a study to detect carcinogenic activity of nanoscale TiO₂ administered by an intrapulmonary spraying (IPS) - initiation-promotion protocol in rat lung. TiO₂ was a rutile type, mean diameter 20 nm, without coating. Hras 128 transgenic female rats, which are known to have the same carcinogen susceptibility phenotype in the lung as wild-type rats but are highly susceptible to mammary tumor induction, were treated by N-bis(2-hydroxypropyl)nitrosamine (DHPN) in drinking water for 2 weeks to initiate carcinogenesis. Two weeks later, the rats were divided into 4 groups: DHPN alone (group 1), DHPN followed by 250 µg/ml TiO₂ (group 2), DHPN followed by 500 µg/ml TiO₂ (group 3) and 500 µg/ml TiO₂ without

DHPN (group 4). No positive control was included. For this, TiO₂ was suspended in saline, autoclaved and sonicated for 20 minutes just before use; then the suspension was intratracheally administered to animals under isoflurane anesthesia using a Microsprayer connected to a 1 mL syringe; the nozzle of the sprayer was inserted into the trachea through the larynx and a total of 0.5 mL suspension was sprayed into the lungs synchronizing with spontaneous respiratory inhalation. The preparations were administered by IPS once every 2 weeks from the end of the week 4 to week 16 (total of seven times). The total amount of TiO₂ administered was 0, 0.875, 1.75 and 1.75 mg/rat, for groups 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively. Three days after the last treatment, animals were killed and brain, lung, liver, spleen, kidney, mammary gland, ovaries, uterus and neck lymph nodes were examined.

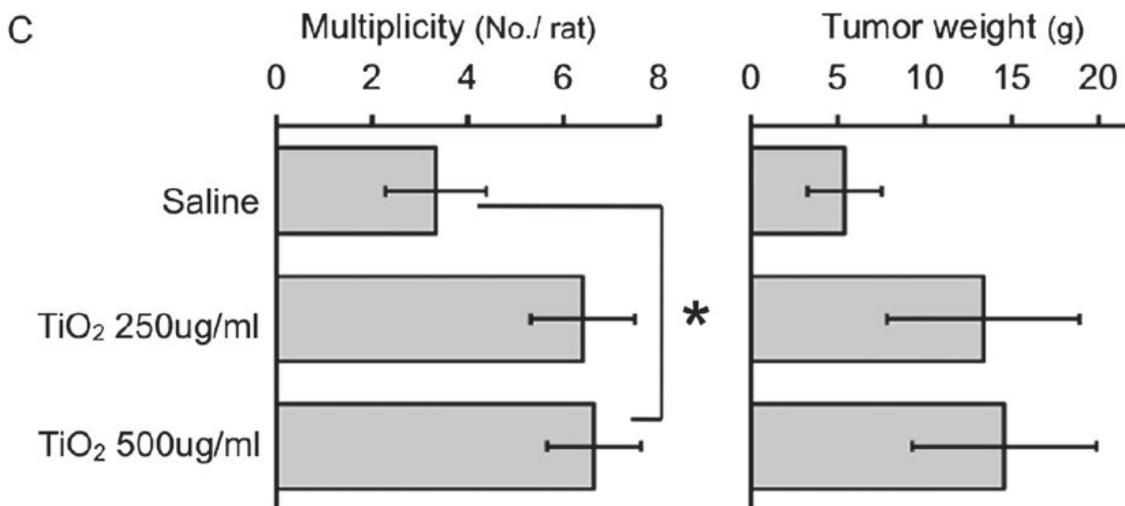
TiO₂ treatment significantly increased the multiplicity of DHPN-induced alveolar cell hyperplasias and adenomas in the lung, and the multiplicity of mammary adenocarcinomas. Alveolar proliferative lesions were not observed in rats receiving TiO₂ treatment without prior DHPN treatment, although slight inflammatory lesions were noted. According to the authors, this could be due to the weak carcinogenic potential and short duration of exposure.

Table 4.1.1.2-06. Effect of TiO₂ on incidence and multiplicity of DHPN-induced alveolar hyperplasia and adenoma of the lung

Treatment	No of rats	Alveolar hyperplasia		Lung adenoma	
		Incidence (%)	Multiplicity (no./cm ²)# #	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity (no./cm ²) #
Saline	9	9 (100)	5.91±1.19	0	0
TiO ₂ 250 µg/ml	10	10 (100)	7.36±0.97*	1 (10)	0.10±0.10
TiO ₂ 500 µg/ml	11	11 (100)	11.05±0.87**	4 (36)	0.46±0.21*

* P < 0.05; ** P < 0.001 versus saline control
 # P < 0.05; ## P < 0.001 in trend test (Spearman's rank correlation test)

Figure 4.1.1-2-01. Effect of TiO₂ on multiplicity of adenocarcinomas in the mammary gland and on the size of mammary tumors



TiO₂ was distributed primarily to the lung, but minor amounts of TiO₂ were also found in other organs. Various sizes of TiO₂ aggregates were observed in alveolar macrophages. Of 452 particle aggregates examined, 362 (80.1%) were nanosize, i.e., < 100 nm. Overall, the average size was 84.9 nm and the median size was 44.4 nm.

To investigate the underlying mechanism of its carcinogenic effects, a suspension of 500 µg/ml of TiO₂ was administered to wild-type SD rats by IPS five times over 9 days. The total amount of TiO₂ administered was 1.25 mg/rat. Microscopic observation showed scattered inflammatory lesions with infiltration of numerous macrophages mixed with a few neutrophils and lymphocytes. Alveolar proliferative lesions were not observed. Morphologically, TiO₂ particles were observed as yellowish, polygonal bodies in the cytoplasm of cells. These cells are morphologically distinct from neutrophils and strongly positive for CD68, indicating that the TiO₂ engulfing cells were macrophages. TiO₂ aggregates of various sizes were found in macrophages, and aggregates larger than a macrophage were surrounded by multiple macrophages. Of 2571 particle aggregates examined, 1970 (76.6%) were < 100 nm and five particles were > 4000 nm in size. Overall, the average size was 107.4 nm and the median size was 48.1 nm. TiO₂ treatment significantly increased 8-OH-dG, superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity and macrophage inflammatory protein 1α (MIP1α) expression in the lung which is a member of the CC chemokine family and is primarily associated with cell adhesion and migration, proliferation and survival of myeloma cells.

The authors concluded that TiO₂ had lung carcinogenic activity. They suggest the following mechanism: phagocytosis of TiO₂ particles by alveolar macrophages resulting in ROS production and DNA damage and increasing MIP1α. MIP1α in turn was able to enhance proliferation of lung epithelium cells. The authors also suggest that TiO₂ exposure can be a risk factor for mammary carcinogenesis in predisposed population, such as individuals with BRCA mutations. The hypothesis proposed in this publication is that MIP1α secreted by alveolar macrophages and transported via the circulatory system caused proliferation of mammary epithelial cells and thereby promoted mammary carcinogenesis. This result can be an indication that TiO₂ can have a promoting activity away from contact site, suggesting induction of indirect systemic effect. However, it should be noted that these results have to be taken with caution considering the limited experience with this model.

Yokohira et al. (2009) assessed the carcinogenic potential of instilled TiO₂. For this, groups of 5 or 15 F344/DuCrI Crj male rats each were intratracheally treated either with 0.5 mg/rat micro-TiO₂ (rutile form, diameter less than 5 µm) or nano-TiO₂ (particle diameter of 80 nm; no clear crystalline identification) in week 4 with or without a pre-treatment with an initiator, i.e., 0.1% of DHPN given orally in drinking water for the 2 first weeks. An untreated control group and a DHPN alone treated group were added. No positive controls were included. Instead, groups consisting on intra-tracheal administration of quartz, as typical lung toxicant agent, +/- DHPN pre-treatment were included. However, no influence of quartz administration was found on the development of lung tumour. All rats were sacrificed at week 30. Lungs, liver and kidneys were weighed and subjected to histopathological examination.

No significant changes were found in organ weights. No lung lesions were observed with TiO₂ micro or nano without pre-treatment. All the DHPN groups displayed hyperplasias, adenomas and adenocarcinomas in the lungs. There were no significant intergroup differences in the lung neoplastic lesions induced by DHPN, although the areas of neoplastic lesions induced by the nanoparticles of TiO₂ demonstrated a tendency to increase compared with the microparticles administration. However, the large variability of results for adenocarcinomas areas can explain that no significant intergroup difference was found. Finally, it should be stressed that many experimental parameters did not match with the standard protocol for carcinogenesis assessment (e.g., treatment schedule with only 1 treatment; few number of animals /group; only few organ examined, no valid positive control...).

Table 4.1.1.2-07: Number of histopathological lesions per cm² of lung

Treatment	Instilled particles	No.	Hyperplasia	Adenoma	Adeno-carcinoma	Total	Adenoma + Adeno-carcinoma
DHPN	Micro-TiO ₂	15	19.9 ± 5.6	2.5 ± 1.5	0.1 ± 0.3	22.5 ± 6.3	2.6 ± 1.5
DHPN	Nano-TiO ₂	15	20.0 ± 4.7	2.6 ± 1.4	0.3 ± 0.5	22.9 ± 5.4	2.9 ± 1.5
DHPN	Untreated	15	17.9 ± 2.8	2.0 ± 1.2	0.2 ± 0.6	20.1 ± 3.4	2.2 ± 1.1

In instillation experiments carried out by Pott and Roller (2005), SPF Wistar female rats were exposed by repeated intra-tracheal instillation (from age 8-9 weeks) of TiO₂ over 19 different dusts. Animals received up to 30 instillations of two types of nano-TiO₂ and one type of fine TiO₂, administered at weekly intervals. The dusts were suspended by ultrasonification in phosphate buffered sodium chloride solution and Tween 80[®] was added to improve the homogeneity of the dosed suspensions. The study was terminated after 30 months.

Table 4.1.1.2-08: Characteristics of the TiO₂ dusts

Substance	Particle size, mean(µm)	Density (g/ml)	Specific surface area (BET) (m ² /g)
TiO ₂ P25, hydrophilic, majority anatase	0.030/0.021 0.025 ^a	3.8	52
TiO ₂ P805 ^b , AL 90,003-2, hydrophobic ^c	0.021 (data of T805)	3.8	32.5
TiO ₂ anatase AL 23,203-3 [1317-70-0], (hydrophilic)	0.2	3.9	9.9

^aThere are no clearly measured values or more than one piece of information. On the basis of the data available, the value with footnote a was assumed to be close to the correct value

^bTitanium dioxide T 805 from Degussa was ordered from Sigma-Aldrich, but the supplier only offered an amount of at least 40 kg P 805. Neither Sigma-Aldrich nor Degussa answered at all clearly when questioned insistently as to the difference between T 805 and P 805. So, it is not proven that P 805 is identical with T 805 from Degussa. In the IARC monograph volume 93, it is assumed that T805 is similar to P805

^cIn the case of T 805, ultrafine TiO₂ with the specification P 25 is coated with trimethoxyoctyl-silane to change the particle surface from hydrophilic to hydrophobic.

An increase of benign tumours (adenomas and epitheliomas) and malignant tumours (adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas) was observed after treatment with both types of TiO₂; with a higher number of tumours with nano-TiO₂ (P25, hydrophilic form) by comparison with exposure to fine TiO₂. When a total of 60 mg of nano-TiO₂ per animal were administered (10 instillations × 6 mg), a tumour incidence of up to 70% was observed, compared with 30% in animals exposed to fine TiO₂ particles with the same experimental design. When animals were treated with a total of 15 mg (5 instillations × 3 mg) or 30 mg of P25 nano-TiO₂ (5 instillations × 6 mg), 52% and 67% of the rats studied developed tumours, respectively.

For hydrophobic TiO₂, the initial plan of dosage contained repeated instillations of 6 mg, but the acute mortality after the first instillation (rats died within half an hour of instillation) called for a drastic reduction of the single doses to 0.5 mg. After further tests, 0.5 mg was instilled 15 or 30 times respectively. According to the authors, the pathophysiological mechanisms of the acute lethal effect can be discussed as follows: 1) the lipophilic surface mediates a fast distribution of the ultrafine particles in the surfactant layer on the alveolar walls; 2) the organic silicon compound dissolves from the particle surface, damages the surfactant and the membranes of pneumocytes and capillaries; 3) the alveolo-capillary membranes swell, which results in a capillary block and hemorrhage in the alveoli: dark red spots were macroscopically detected on the lung surface by autopsy and erythrocytes were seen in the alveoli. According to Warheit (2006), a confounding factor which had not been addressed or properly controlled was the potential toxicity of 1% Tween, which was added as detergent selectively to the T-085 sample but not to P25 sample, creating an additional variable in the study.

Table 4.1.1.2-09: Animal groups in the sequence of the experiment, doses instilled (mass and volume dose), estimated dust volume retained in the lungs for a longer period, rats at risk, survival times, lung tumour incidences macroscopically and microscopically, and tumour incidence per µl dust burden in the lung

Dust, size class	Dose instilled		Dust volume / lung (ml)	Rats at start / at risk ^c	Survival 50% ^d (wks)	Lungs with tumour(s) (%)					Lungs (%) with metastases of other tumours	Tum./ lung of dust ^h (%/µl)
	No. of inst. x mg	Vol. ^b (µl)				Macroscopy		Microscopy (primary) ^g				
						Total ^e	Primary ^f	Benign	Malign	Total		
TiO ₂ , UF ^a P25	5 x 3	3.9	2.6	48/42	114	47.6	35.7	21.4	31	52.4	14.3	20.2
	5 x 6	7.9	5.3	48/46	114	52.2	47.8	17.4	50	67.4	15.2	12.7
	10 x 6	16	11	48/46	104	54.3	43.5	23.9	45.7	69.6	15.2	6.3
TiO ₂ , UF ^a P805	15 x 0.5 ⁱ	2.0	(toxic)	24/11	86	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.1	-
	30 x 0.5 ⁱ	3.9		48/15	114	20.0	20.0	6.7	0.0	6.7	6.7	
TiO ₂ , anatase F-sm ^a	10 x 6	15	10	48/44	108	22.7	22.7	15.9	13.6	29.5	11.4	3.0
	20 x 6	31	21	48/44	113	36.4	36.4	38.6	25.0	63.6	2.3	3.0

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

No treatment	-	-	-	48/46	113	6.5	0	0	0	0	13.0	-
--------------	---	---	---	-------	-----	-----	---	---	---	---	------	---

^aUF = ultrafine; F-sm = small fine.

^bTotal volume calculated from mass instilled and density. A standard for a "non-overload situation" in rats was set at a lung burden of 1 µl dust per g wet weight of control lungs deduced from experiments with Fischer rats. At this level, the halftime of lung clearance is about doubled. The lung wet weight of the control rats (Fischer strain) is given as 1.5 g.

^cNumber of sufficiently examined rats which survived at least 26 weeks after first instillation.

^dPeriod after first instillation in which 50 % of the animals died excluding rats which died immediately after anesthesia.

^ePercentage of rats with any macroscopically diagnosed lung tumour regardless of existing tumours located at other sites which lead to the conclusion that the lung tumour detected might be a metastasis.

^fPercentage of rats with lung tumour(s) which are probably not a metastasis of a tumour located at other sites; these lung tumours were classified as macroscopically primary lung tumours.

^gPrimary lung tumour types diagnosed: benign: adenoma, epithelioma; malignant: adenocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma. Lungs with one or more malignant tumours may additionally have benign tumours.

^hRelation of percentage of rats with primary lung tumours to the dust volume dose in the lung as a measure of the carcinogenic potency in this experimental group.

ⁱThe doses had to be reduced because of unexpected acute toxicity.

A re-evaluation of the histopathological findings of this study established that 30 mg of instilled nano-TiO₂ induced tumours in 50% of the animals studied, whereas after instillation of a total of 60 mg of fine TiO₂, tumours were found in 21% of the animals studied. The findings were interpreted to mean that the higher incidence of tumours was a result of direct effects of epithelial translocation of the nanomaterials into the interstitium (Becker, 2011).

According to Mohr *et al.*, 2006, in a study performed by Pott and Roller (2005), eleven dusts were tested separately in rats and were classified as respirable granular bio-durable particles (GBP) without known significant specific toxicity. These dusts included: Carbon black, Titanium dioxide, Al-oxide, Al-silicate, Kaolin, Diesel soot, toner, zirconium oxide.

In 579 (58%) lungs of 1002 rats which survived more than 26 weeks after the first instillation of GBP, at least one primary lung tumor type was observed, and in 306 (31%) at least two types. Three benign tumor types were diagnosed in the 579 tumor-bearing rats: bronchiolo-alveolar adenoma in 46%, cystic keratinizing epithelioma in 53%, and non-keratinizing epithelioma in 2.6% of the rats. Two of three malignant tumour types (bronchiolo-alveolar carcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma) occurred in 46% and 31% of the tumour-bearing rats, respectively, and adenosquamous carcinoma was diagnosed in 0.9%. Numerous lungs with a malignant tumor also showed one or more benign tumor types. The proportionate incidences of the four predominantly diagnosed tumour types were compared with three summarized experimental groups which were exposed either to carbon black (two size classes), to titanium dioxide (two size classes), or to the total of the other nine GBP. No significant difference was detected. The same results were found with the fibrogenicity of ultra-fine GBP (Bellmann *et al.* 2006).

Another essential outcome of the 19-dust study is that GBP volume in connection with particle size turned out to be the most adequate dose metric for the carcinogenicity of GBP. The 4 tested GBP-ultra-fine were about 2 times more effective than the "small" GBP-small-fine and 5- to 6 times more effective than the "large" GBP-large-fine, mean diameters 1.8 - 4 µm).

Other data were available from the IARC monograph volume 93.

No difference in the incidence of lung tumours (17/24 *versus* 19/22 controls) or tumour multiplicity (2.24 ± 1.35 *versus* 1.42 ± 0.77) was noted in 20 week-A/J female mice receiving a single *intratracheal instillation* of a suspension of 0.5 mg TiO₂ (> 99.9% pure; size unspecified) in saline or saline alone and maintained until 105 weeks of age (Koizumi, 1993). However, this study was performed at only one unique low dose.

No respiratory tract tumours were found in male and female Syrian golden hamsters receiving 0 or 3 mg TiO₂ (purity unspecified, particle size: 97% < 5 µm; 51% < 0.5 µm) in 0.2 ml saline once a week for 15 weeks and observed until spontaneous death (between 110-120 weeks for controls and 70-80 weeks for treated group). This decreased lifespan was not explained further in the IARC monograph. In comparison, two tracheal papillomas were found in untreated controls (Stenbäck, 1976). In a further study, Syrian golden hamsters received intratracheal instillations of 3 mg TiO₂ (purity unspecified, particle size: 97% < 5 µm; 51% < 0.5 µm) + benzo[*a*]pyrene or benzo[*a*]pyrene alone once a week for 15 weeks. Animals were observed until spontaneous death, occurring by 90-100 weeks for benzo[*a*]pyrene control group and 60-70 weeks for treated group. TiO₂ + benzo[*a*]pyrene induced tumours in the larynx (11/48 papillomas and 5/48 squamous-cell carcinomas), in the trachea (3/48 papillomas, 14/48 squamous cell carcinomas and 1/48 adenocarcinoma) and lung (1/48 adenoma, 1/48 adenocarcinoma, 15/48 squamous-cell carcinomas and 1/48 anaplastic carcinoma). Two papillomas occurred in the trachea of the benzo[*a*]pyrene control group (Stenbäck, 1976).

4.1.1.3 Carcinogenicity: other routes**The following data has been extracted from the IARC monograph volume 93.**

After a single *subcutaneous injection* of saline or 30 mg of one of the 3 preparations of TiO₂ (> 99% pure (size unspecified in the IARC monograph), coated with antimony trioxide; > 95% pure, coated with aluminium oxide; or > 85% pure, coated with both compounds) in saline, Sprague-Dawley rats were observed until spontaneous death (136, 126, 146, 133 weeks in the control and the three TiO₂ groups, respectively). No tumour was observed at the site of injection in any group (Maltoni, 1982). The IARC noted the inadequate reporting of the study.

No difference in the incidence of local or distant tumours was observed in groups of Marsh-Buffalo mice receiving a single *intraperitoneal injection* of either saline or 25 mg TiO₂ (purity > 98%, size unspecified in the IARC monograph) in saline and observed until 18 months after treatment (Bischoff, 1982). In another study, Wistar rats received intraperitoneal injections of TiO₂ (P25) in saline solution: the first group received a total of 90 mg/animal in 5 weekly injections, the second group received a single injection of 5 mg/animal and the third group three injections of 2, 4 and 4 mg/animal. A concurrent control received a single injection of saline alone. Average lifespans were

120, 102, 130 and 120 weeks, respectively. No intra-abdominal tumour was reported in 47 and 32 rats that were examined in the second and third groups, 6/113 rats (5.3%) examined in the first group had sarcomas, mesotheliomas or carcinomas of the abdominal cavity. Two of 32 controls (6.3%) had abdominal tumours (type not specified). In a similar experiment with female Sprague-Dawley rats receiving a single intraperitoneal injection of 5 mg/animal TiO₂, 2/52 rats (3.8%) developed abdominal tumours (type not specified) (average lifespan of 99 weeks). However, no control group was available for comparison (Pott, 1987). The IARC noted the limited reporting of the study. In a last intraperitoneal study, Fischer rats received a single injection of several man-made mineral fibres, including TiO₂ (rutile) whiskers (fibre length about 2.5 µm; fibre diameter about 0.125 µm). The fibres were given at 5, 10 or 20 mg with 1mg of dust suspended in saline before injection. Two years after administration, no peritoneal mesothelioma was induced by titanium dioxide whiskers (Adachi, 2001). The IARC noted the inadequate reporting of the study.

4.1.1.4 Carcinogenicity: dermal

A two-stage mouse skin carcinogenesis bioassay was performed to examine the promoter potential of coated and uncoated TiO₂ nanoparticles via dermal route (Furukawa, 2011). The study was performed with the GLP of the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare Ordinance No. 21 (1997) and in compliance with guideline for Carcinogenicity studies of Drugs 3.2 (in vivo additional tests for detection of carcinogenicity) of the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare (1999). The coated TiO₂ was characterized by a TiO₂ content of 79.2%, spindle shape with long axis of 50-100 nm and short axis of 10-20 nm. The uncoated TiO₂ was characterized by a TiO₂ content of 96.0%, spindle shape with long axis of 50-100 nm and short axis of 10-20 nm. No information on crystallinity was reported for these types of TiO₂. As initiation treatment, 7,12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene (DMBA) [used as initiator] or vehicle alone (acetone) was applied to fur clipped back skin of CD1(ICR) female mice one time. Starting 1 week after the initiation treatment, TiO₂ (5, 10 and 20 mg/animal) in Pentalan 408 or 12-o-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate (TPA; used as positive control promoter) were applied twice weekly for 19 weeks as post-initiation treatments. A further group received Pentalan 408 only as a vehicle control.

No changes in survival, general condition and body weight related to treatment were observed. On macroscopic observation, 1–2 nodules/group on the skin were observed in groups exposed to both coated and uncoated TiO₂ as well as the control group after DMBA initiation. The nodules were histopathologically diagnosed as squamous cell hyperplasia, sebaceous gland hyperplasia, squamous cell papilloma and keratoacanthoma. In contrast, the positive control group was effective, with 100% of the animals developing nodules. Other findings included the presence of foreign bodies (possibly TiO₂) on the surface of the mouse skin suggesting that significant amounts of TiO₂ did not penetrate the dermis. Furthermore, enlargement of mandibular and abdominal region lymph nodes, spleen and thymus was also observed but without dose-response relationship. The authors concluded that TiO₂-NP do not possess post-initiation potential for mouse skin carcinogenesis, mainly because of the lack of penetration.

A second two-stage skin carcinogenicity study was performed in rats and mice (Sagawa, 2012). The tested TiO₂ was a non-coated rutile form and a particle size of 20 nm. When diluted in Pentalan 408 solution, the mean length of TiO₂ was 4.97 ± 0.50 μm. The back skin of male Hras 128 rats and wild-type SD rats received a single topical application (painting) of 0.5 ml DMBA solution as initiation treatment. Two weeks later, the animals were divided into 3 groups: vehicle alone (Pentalan 408) (group 1); 50 mg TiO₂ in Pentalan 408 (group 2) or 100 mg TiO₂ in Pentalan 408 (group 3). Treatment was administered twice a week until week 40. TiO₂ was also applied on back skin of female CD1 mice, 2-week after a single application of DMBA, at 10 mg or 20 mg twice a week until week 52. A further group received DMBA as initiator and then TPA as positive control promoter.

No statistically significant differences were found in tumor incidence (squamous cell carcinomas and papillomas) or multiplicity between treated and control groups of Hras 128 rats, wild-type SD rats or CD1 mice.

Table 4.1.1.4-01. Effect of non-coated TiO₂ on skin carcinogenesis

Group	Treatment	No of rats	SCP		SCC		SCP + SCC	
			Incidence (%)	Multiplicity	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity
<i>Experiment with Hras128 rats</i>								
1	DMBA + Pentalan 408	17	16 (94)	9.65±7.05	0	0	16 (94)	9.65±7.05
2	DMBA + 50 mg TiO ₂	16	14 (88)	6.81±6.21	2 (13)	0.19±0.54	14 (88)	7.00±6.52
3	DMBA + 100 mg TiO ₂	17	16 (94)	7.59±3.86	2 (12)	0.12±0.331	16 (94)	7.71±3.93
<i>Experiment with wild-type SD rats</i>								
1	DMBA + Pentalan 408	12	3 (25)	0.25±0.45	0	0	3 (25)	0.25±0.45
2	DMBA + 50 mg TiO ₂	12	2 (17)	0.17±0.39	2 (17)	0.17±0.39	4 (33)	0.33±0.49
3	DMBA + 100 mg TiO ₂	12	1 (8)	0.08±0.29	0	0	1 (8)	0.08±0.29
<i>Experiment with wild-type CDI mice</i>								
1	DMBA + Pentalan 408	16	3 (19)	0.25±1.30	0	0	3 (19)	0.25±1.30
2	DMBA + 50 mg TiO ₂	16	1 (6)	0.06±0.25	0	0	1 (6)	0.06±0.25
3	DMBA + 100 mg TiO ₂	15	2 (13)	0.13±0.35	0	0	2 (13)	0.13±0.35
4	DMBA + TPA	15	13 (87)*	2.00±1.41*	2 (13)	0.13±0.35	13 (87)*	2.00±1.41*

SCP: squamous cell papillomas; SCC: squamous cell carcinoma

* Significantly different from group 1 (control) by Student's t-test (p <0.001).

The authors concluded that TiO₂ did not cause skin tumour promotion in the skin carcinogenesis-sensitive Hras 128 rat model or in CD1 mice. This was probably due to the lack of penetration of the particles through the epidermis to the dermis where cytogenetic cells responsible for skin carcinogenesis reside. This study was reviewed by the SCCS in 2013 which concluded that since 94% of the Hras rats treated with DMBA alone developed tumours, the model is not adequate and no conclusion can be drawn from the study.

A further experiment was performed with a TiO₂ coated with silicone (mean particle diameter of 35 nm). This type of coating is used to prevent aggregate formation and to enhance dispersal. Female rasH2 mice and wild type CB6F1 mice received single application of DMBA. Two weeks later, the animals were divided in 3 groups. Group 1 received vehicle only (silicone oil), group 2 received 10 mg of TiO₂ in silicone oil and group 3, 20 mg of TiO₂ in silicone oil. A further group received 20 mg of TiO₂ without pre-treatment with DMBA. Mice were painted 5 times per week. The rasH2 mice were killed after 8 weeks and the wild-type mice after 40 weeks. No positive control was included.

An increase in the number of tumours was found in mice initiated with DMBA but this was not significant. No conclusion can be drawn from this study according to SCCS opinion (2013) due to the lack of positive controls and very high tumour incidence in the “initiated” mice. In the group only treated with TiO₂, neither squamous cell papillomas nor squamous cell carcinoma were found.

Table 4.1.1.4-02. Effect of coated TiO₂ on skin carcinogenesis

Group	Treatment	No of rats	SCP		SCC		SCP + SCC	
			Incidence (%)	Multiplicity	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity
<i>Experiment with rasH2 mice</i>								
1	DMBA + silicone	15	14 (93)	7.27±4.74	5 (33)	0.60±0.99	14 (93)	7.87±5.17
2	DMBA + 10 mg TiO ₂	15	15 (100)	8.13±3.66	9 (60)	1.00±1.00	15 (100)	9.13±3.76
3	DMBA + 20 mg TiO ₂	15	15 (100)	6.80±3.88	8 (53)	0.73±0.80	15 (100)	7.53±3.31
4	20 mg TiO ₂	15	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Experiment with wild-type CB6F1 mice</i>								
1	DMBA + silicone	15	1 (7)	0.07±0.26	1 (7)	0.07±0.26	2 (13)	0.13±0.35
2	DMBA + 10 mg TiO ₂	15	2 (13)	0.13±0.35	0	0	2 (13)	0.13±0.35
3	DMBA + 20 mg TiO ₂	15	2 (13)	0.20±0.56	0	0	2 (13)	0.20±0.56
4	20 mg TiO ₂	15	0	0	0	0	0	0

SCP: squamous cell papillomas; SCC: squamous cell carcinoma

A third study using the two-stage skin model was performed in rats with ultraviolet B radiation as initiation treatment (Xu, 2011). The tested TiO₂ was of rutile type, without coating and had a mean primary diameter of 20 nm. When diluted in Pentalan 408, the size of TiO₂ particles ranged from 10 nm to 300 μm. Hras 128 rats and wild-type rats were exposed to UVB (ultraviolet B) radiation on shaved back skin twice weekly for 10 weeks. Then, the shaved area was painted with 50 mg of TiO₂ in Pentalan 408 twice weekly until sacrifice planned on week 52. Female Hras 128 rats were sacrificed at week 16 because of early mammary tumor development. A further group received TiO₂ without UVB radiation pre-treatment. However, no negative (vehicle alone without UVB radiation) and positive control groups was included.

In male Hras 128 rats, skin papillomas developed from week 32 and the incidence was 1/8 in the groups treated with TiO₂ with and without UVB. No skin tumors were observed in female Hras 128 rats and wild-type rats of both sexes. Eye lid squamous cell papillomas were found in wild-type female rats exposed to UVB with or without TiO₂ with incidences of 12.5% and 14.3%, respectively. No statistically significant inter-group differences in incidence, multiplicity or weight were found. Mammary tumors, diagnosed as adenocarcinomas, were induced with high incidence in Hras128 rats of both sexes. Wild-type female rats also had a relatively high incidence of mammary tumors compared with historical controls of spontaneous mammary tumor development. No statistically significant inter-group differences in incidence, multiplicity or weight were observed. TiO₂ aggregates of various sizes were observed in the upper *stratum corneum* and in some hair follicles at the level of granular cell layer, but TiO₂ was not found in the underlying epidermis, dermis or subcutaneous tissue.

Table 4.1.1.4-03. Skin and mammary tumors in Hras128 and wild-type rats

Group	Treatment	No of rats	Skin tumor		Mammary tumor	
			Incidence (%)	Multiplicity	Incidence (%)	Multiplicity
<i>Experiment with Hras128 rats</i>						
Males						
1	UVB + TiO ₂	8	1 (12.5)	0.13±0.35	4 (50)	0.50±0.53
2	UVB	8	0	0	3 (36)	0.38±0.51
3	TiO ₂	8	1 (12.5)	0.13±0.35	4 (50)	0.50±0.53
Females						
1	UVB + TiO ₂	6	0	0	5 (83)	1.67±1.37
2	UVB	5	0	0	2 (40)	0.60±0.89
3	TiO ₂	6	0	0	6 (100)	1.33±0.52
<i>Experiment with wild-type rats</i>						
Males						
1	UVB + TiO ₂	6	0	0	0	0
2	UVB	5	0	0	0	0
3	TiO ₂	5	0	0	0	0
Females						
1	UVB + TiO ₂	8	1 (12.5)	0.13±0.35	1 (12.5)	0.13±0.35
2	UVB	7	1 (14.3)	0.14±0.38	1 (14.3)	0.14±0.38
3	TiO ₂	8	0	0	0	0

The authors concluded that the lack of skin carcinogenesis promotion activity was probably due to the lack of penetration of TiO₂ particles through the epidermis to the dermis, where skin tumours arise. This study was reviewed by the SCCS in 2013 which concluded that this model is not generally accepted for studying initiation and promotion of skin tumours. Since no positive control was included it is not possible to make any conclusion with regard to potential carcinogenic properties of TiO₂ from this study.

4.1.2 Human information

Case reports

Yamadori et al. (1986) reported a titanium dioxide pneumoconiosis accompanied by a papillary adenocarcinoma of the lung in a 53-year-old male who was engaged in packing TiO₂ for about 13 years and with a 40-year history of tobacco smoking. Titanium was diffusely deposited in the lung and was engulfed by macrophages in the interstitium and alveolar spaces. Slight fibrosis of the interstitium around bronchioles and vessels was noticed.

Other case reports were summarized in IARC monograph vol. 93 and NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin (CIB) 63. None of these case reports provided quantitative industrial hygiene information about workers' TiO₂ dust exposure. Deposits of titanium dioxide in lung tissue as well as in lymph nodes were found. Non-neoplastic respiratory effects were observed in workers, including decline in lung function, pleural disease with plaques and pleural thickening and mild fibrosis changes. More severe reactions were observed in a few cases. However, the workers in these studies were also exposed to asbestos and/or silica.

Case-control studies

The risk of inhabitants of Montreal developing lung cancer was studied in a case-referent study conducted between 1979 and 1985 (Boffetta et al., 2001). For the purpose of this analysis, 857 histopathologically confirmed cases of lung cancer in the male population (aged 35–70 years) were selected. The control groups consisted of 533 randomly selected healthy people and 533 people with cancer in organs other than the lung. The cases and referents were similar with respect to age and ethnicity. However, the cases smoked more than the referents and asbestos and benzo(a)pyrene was slightly more prevalent among the cases. Three main circumstances of exposure were considered: TiO₂ production, manufacture and use of TiO₂ containing products, mainly paints and metal arc welding. Exposure to TiO₂ or TiO₂ components was assessed on the basis of a questionnaire. Three concentration categories were defined: 0.05-1 mg/m³, 1-10 mg/m³ and over 10 mg/m³. Thirty-three cases and 43 controls were classified as ever exposed to TiO₂. Results of unconditional logistic models were adjusted for age, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, respondent status (i.e. self or proxy), tobacco smoking, asbestos and exposure to benzo[a]pyrene. There was no indication of a correlation between lung cancer development and the frequency, level or duration of TiO₂ exposure. According to IARC monograph volume 93, the main limitations of

this study are the reliance on self-reported occupational histories and expert opinion rather than measurement of exposure. A strength of this study was the availability of lifetime smoking histories and other covariates. Additional limitations reported by the NIOSH were the use of surrogate indices for exposure, the absence of particle size characterization and the non-statistically significant lung cancer OR (odd ratio) for exposure to TiO₂ fumes, which was based on a small group of subjects and most were also exposed to nickel and chromium.

Ramanakumar et al., 2008 described two case-control studies performed in Montréal. Interviews were conducted in 1979-1986 for the first study (857 cases, 533 population controls, 1,349 cancer controls) and in 1996-2001 for the second study (1,236 cases and 1,512 controls). Some results from the first study have already been described in the publication Boffetta (2001), however, the publication of Ramanakumar (2008) described a new statistical approach and combined results of the two studies. Forty percent of workers exposed to TiO₂ were painting industry workers, 19% were construction labourers and 17% were motor-body repairmen. The lifetime prevalence of exposure to TiO₂ was about 4%. Concentration levels were defined as low, medium and high. Lung cancer risk was analysed in relation to each exposure, adjusting for several potential confounders, including smoking. Although some odd ratios of lung cancers were above 1.0, none were statistically significantly increased. Subjects with occupational exposure to TiO₂ did not experience any detectable excess risk of lung cancer. Limitations are the same as reported for Boffetta, 2001.

A further hypothesis-generating case-control study in Montréal, Canada is described in the IARC monograph volume 93 (Siemiatycki, 1991). More than 4000 subjects were interviewed and included patients with 20 different types of cancer and a series of population controls. A panel of industrial hygienists reviewed each job history reported by study subjects and assessed exposure to 293 substances. Results on associations between TiO₂ and several sites of cancer were reported. Some indications of excess risk were found in relation to squamous-cell lung cancer (OR: 1.6; 90% CI, 0.9–3.0; 20 cases) and urinary bladder cancer (OR: 1.7; 90% CI, 1.1–2.6; 28 cases). No excesses were observed for any exposure to TiO₂ for all lung cancer combined (OR: 1.0; 90% CI, 0.7–1.5; 38 cases), for kidney cancer (OR: 1.1; 90% CI, 0.6–2.1; seven cases) or for cancer at several other sites other than the urinary bladder.

Cohort studies

In a cohort study with a nested case-control study, 1575 workers exposed to TiO₂ and employed for more than one year in two US factories were observed between 1956 and 1985 for cancer and chronic respiratory disease incidence and from 1935 to 1983 for mortality (Chen et al, 1988). TiO₂ exposure varied from 0 to more than 20 mg/m³. Observed numbers of incident cases of cancer were compared with expected numbers based on company rates, and the observed numbers of deaths were compared with both company rates and rates in the USA. The observed number of all cancer cases was slightly higher than expected in the TiO₂-exposed cohort (38 observed, 32.6 expected). There were 8 lung cancer cases compared to 7.7 expected; this difference is not statistically significant. Cohort analysis suggested that the risks of developing lung cancer and other fatal respiratory diseases were not higher for TiO₂-exposed employees than for the

referent groups. Nested case-control analysis found no statistically significant associations between TiO₂ exposure and risk of lung cancer, chronic respiratory disease and chest roentgenogram (X-ray) abnormalities. No cases of pulmonary fibrosis were observed among TiO₂-exposed employees. According to IARC monograph volume 93, it is noted that details of exposure to TiO₂ and other factors were not described, that cancer mortality and specific cancer sites were not reported in detail, that incident cases of cancer only in actively employed persons were used for both observed and company reference rates, and that the numbers of incident cases were compared only with company rates. Similar comments concerning the lack of details were made by the NIOSH (2011). It has also been noted that the presence of other chemicals and asbestos could have acted as confounders.

A retrospective cohort mortality study was conducted among 4,241 workers handling TiO₂ in four US companies (Fryzek et al., 2003). Participants were employed from January 1960 for at least 6 months and were observed until December 2000. The heaviest exposure to TiO₂ occurs in the milling and packing areas where TiO₂ is finely processed by the micronizers and dust from the bags used for shipment is dispersed through the air during bagging by the packers. Most of the exposure measurements were area samples rather than personal samples. Geometric mean of the sampling data ranged from 1 to 6.1 mg/m³, with exposure decreasing over time. The number of expected deaths was based on mortality rates by sex, age, race, time period and the state in which the plant was located. Cox proportional hazard models that adjusted for the effects of age, sex, geographical area and date of first employment were used to estimate relative risks of exposure to titanium dioxide (i.e. average intensity, duration and cumulative exposure) in medium- or high-exposure groups versus the lowest exposure group. The SMR (standardized mortality ratio) for all causes of death was significantly less than expected (SMR = 0.8; 95% CI = 0.8-0.9). The total observed number of lung cancers were within the expected range for TiO₂ exposed workers (SMR = 1.0; 95% CI = 0.8-1.3). A significantly elevated SMR for lung cancer (SMR = 1.5; 95% CI = 1.0-2.3) was found among short-term workers (worked 9 or fewer years) after 20 or more years of follow-up. However, SMRs for mortality from all causes and mortality due to lung cancer and non-malignant respiratory disease decreased with longer durations of employment. Additional analyses were performed in response to a suggestion that the RRs (risk ratios) may have been artificially low, especially in the highest category of cumulative exposure, because of statistical methods used. The new analyses yielded hazard ratio similar to those in the original analysis. According to IARC monograph volume 93, this cohort was relatively young (about half were born after 1940) making the duration of exposure to TiO₂ and the latency period for the development of lung cancer rather short. Moreover, the oldest company reports were not available for the authors to evaluate. Additional limitations reported by the NIOSH consisted in the lack of information about ultrafine exposure and the limited data on non-occupational factors (e.g. smoking).

A mortality follow-up study of 15,017 workers (employment started from 1927-69 and ended 1995-2001) was carried out in 11 European companies (from Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Norway and UK) manufacturing TiO₂ (Boffetta et al., 2004). The factories predominantly produced pigment-grade TiO₂ using sulfate and/or chloride processes. The follow-up ranged from 27 years in Italy to 47 years in the UK. The overall proportion of cohort members lost to follow-up was 3.3% and that to emigration was 0.7%. During the follow-up, cohort members accumulated

371,067 person-years of observation (with 95.5% of men) and 2652 members died. The yearly average estimated exposure to TiO₂ dust by factory varied from 1.0 to 0.1 mg/m³; however, average levels ranged up to 5 mg/m³ for individual occupational titles. The median estimated cumulative exposure to respirable TiO₂ dust in the cohort was 1.98 mg/m³ year. Workers employed in the surface treatment area (drying, packing, blending) and mixed jobs had the highest estimated cumulative exposure. Exposure to other pollutants was generally low. The prevalence of smokers was higher among cohort members compared to the national population in Finland, Germany and Italy. The only cause of death with a statistically significant increased SMR was lung cancer (1.23; 95% CI 1.10-1.38) based on a fixed-effects statistical model. However, there was no relationship with exposure to TiO₂ considering duration of employment and concentration. The SMRs varied from 0.76 (95% CI 0.39–1.32) in Finland to 1.51 (95% CI, 1.26–1.79) in Germany. Because the heterogeneity between countries was of borderline significance (p-value=0.05), a random-effects model was also fitted and gave a SMR of 1.19 (95% CI 0.96–1.48). A positive, non-significant dose–response relationship was suggested between estimated cumulative exposure to TiO₂ dust and mortality from kidney cancer. No increase was found for this neoplasm in the SMR analysis: the SMRs for the three categories of estimated cumulative exposure to TiO₂ dust (< 4 mg/m³; 4-13.9 mg/m³; ≥ 14 mg/m³ – year) were 0.45 (95% CI, 0.12–1.16), 1.15 (95% CI, 0.31–2.89) and 1.18 (95% CI 0.37–2.67). According to IARC monograph volume 93, the strengths of this study are the large size, the high follow-up rate and the detailed exposure assessment. The availability of data on tobacco smoking, although limited to slightly more than one-third of the cohort, provided some reassurance that tobacco smoking was unlikely to be a confounder. Besides the lack of adjustment for smoking, other limitations are possible exposure misclassification, the exclusion of part of the early experience of the cohort from the analysis, which reduces the power of the study to detect an association, and the relatively recent beginning of operation of some of the factories that resulted in a follow-up period that was too short to allow the detection of an increase in risk for lung cancer.

4.1.3 Other relevant information

a) Acute toxicity studies

A total of 3 publications describing animal studies with acute intratracheal instillation were reported here since they bring some information on the impact of physico-chemical properties on the toxicity of TiO₂.

Four laboratories evaluated lung responses in C57BL/6 mice to engineering nanomaterials delivered by oropharyngeal aspiration, and three laboratories evaluated Sprague-Dawley or Fisher 344 rats following intratracheal instillation (Bonner, 2013). The nanomaterials tested included three forms of TiO₂ [anatase/rutile spheres (TiO₂-P25), anatase spheres (TiO₂-A), and anatase nanobelts (TiO₂-NBs)].

Table 4.1.3-01. Physicochemical characterization (taken from Xia, 2013)

Quality	Technique	TiO ₂ -P25	TiO ₂ -A	TiO ₂ -NBs
Size (nm)	TEM	~ 24	~ 28	L:7000; W:200; T:10
Size in H ₂ O (intensity-based) (nm ± SD)	DLS	209 ± 8 (Pdl 0.065)	292 ± 70	2,897 ± 117
Phase and structure	XRD	81% anatase and 19% rutile	100% anatase	100% anatase
Shape/morphology	TEM	Spheroid	Spherical	Belt
Surface area (m ² /g)	BET	53	173	18
Zeta potential in H ₂ O at pH 6.0 (mV ± SD)	Zetasizer	-34.4 ± 1.6	-30.7 ± 0.8	-30.3 ± 2.8
Elemental analysis (weight percent)	ICP-MS	98.6	NA	NA

Abbreviations: L, length; NA, not available; Pdl, polydispersity index; T, thickness; W, width; XRD, X-ray diffraction.

The concentrations used were: 0, 10, 20 or 40 µg for the oropharyngeal aspiration and 0, 20, 70, 200 µg for intra-tracheal instillation. One day after treatment, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid was collected to determine differential cell counts, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and protein. Lungs were fixed for histopathology. Responses were also examined at 7 days after treatment. All types of titanium dioxide caused significant neutrophilia in mice at 1 day in three of four labs at the highest concentration. TiO₂-NB caused neutrophilia in rats at 1 day in two of three labs, and TiO₂-P25 and TiO₂-A had no significant effect in any of the labs. Inflammation induced by TiO₂ in mice and rats resolved by day 7. In conclusion, the different types of TiO₂ produced similar patterns of neutrophilia and pathology in rats (by intra-tracheal instillation) and mice (by oropharyngeal aspiration) after a single intra-tracheal instillation, despite some variability in the degree of neutrophilia.

The pulmonary toxicity of three commercially available forms of nano-TiO₂ was assessed in Crl:CD[®](SD)IGS BR male rats (Warheit et al., 2007). The 3 nano-TiO₂ tested were P25, uf-1 and uf-2 and were compared with fine TiO₂ (R-100). Particles were administered diluted in PBS (phosphate-buffered saline) intra-tracheally once at 1 mg and 5 mg/kg bw. Following exposure, the lungs were evaluated for bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid inflammatory markers, cell proliferation, and by histopathology at post-instillation time points of 24 h, 1 week, 1 and 3 months.

Table 4.1.3-02. Summary of physicochemical properties of the tested TiO₂

	P25	uf-1	uf-2	fine TiO ₂
Crystallinity	80/20 anatase/rutile	rutile	rutile	R-100, rutile
Composition	100% TiO ₂	98% TiO ₂ and 2% Al	88% TiO ₂ core with SiO ₂ (7%) and aluminium (5%) coating	99% TiO ₂ and 1% alumina
Primary particle size (nm)	25	100	100	300
Median size in water (nm)	130	136	149	382
Median size in PBS (nm)	2692	2144	2891	2667
Surface area (m ² /g)	53	18	36	5.8
pH in deionized water	3.28	5.64	7.14	7.49
pH in PBS	6.70	6.78	6.78	6.75
Chemical reactivity (delta b)	23.8	10.1	1.2	0.4

In all cases, inflammation was observed, as evidenced by an increase of percent neutrophils in the BAL fluid. P25 caused more pronounced inflammatory with significant pulmonary inflammation and cytotoxic effects lasting through 1 month post-exposure. Only transient pulmonary inflammatory response was found with the other types of TiO₂. A significantly higher lung parenchymal proliferation index occurred in the P25 group at 5 mg/kg after 24 h and 3 months. No histopathological lung findings were observed with uf-1, uf-2 and fine TiO₂. Vigorous

macrophages accumulation, concomitant with a sequestration of the aggregated macrophages within the alveolar regions of the lungs was found with P25.

Differences in responses to anatase/rutile TiO₂ particles *versus* the rutile uf-1 and uf-2 TiO₂ particles could be related to crystal structure, inherent pH of the particles, or surface chemical reactivity. According to the authors, based on these results, inhaled rutile ultrafine-TiO₂ particles are expected to have a low risk potential for producing adverse pulmonary health effects. Authors also concluded that the lung toxicity of anatase/rutile TiO₂ should not be viewed as representative for all ultrafine-TiO₂ particle-types. In conclusion, the findings point to the significance of surface modification (coating) and crystallinity (anatase/rutile) for toxic potential.

Chen et al. (2006) exposed adult male ICR mice to intratracheal single dose of 0.1 or 0.5 mg nanoTiO₂ in order to investigate pulmonary toxicity and its molecular pathogenesis. Lung tissues were collected at 3rd day, 1st week, and 2nd week for morphometric, microarray gene expression, and pathway analyses. The characteristics of the tested nanoTiO₂ were the following: rutile crystal phase, highly dispersed and hydrophilic fumed TiO₂ with a diameter of 19–21 nm, a specific surface area of 50 ± 15 m²/g, and a purity of ± 99.5%. In order to avoid aggregation, the nano TiO₂ suspension was ultrasonicated before it was used. The authors demonstrated that nanoTiO₂ can induce severe pulmonary inflammation and emphysema. NanoTiO₂ induced differential expression of hundreds of genes including activation of pathways involved in cell cycle, apoptosis, chemokines, and complement cascades. The results indicated that pulmonary emphysema is triggered by nano TiO₂ activation of macrophage, up-regulations of placenta growth factor (PIGF) and other inflammatory cytokines (CXCL1, CXCL5, and CCL3) that resulted in disruption of alveolar septa, type II pneumocyte hyperplasia, and epithelial cell apoptosis. No significant pathological changes were seen using the same dose of micro TiO₂ (180-250 nm) suggesting that nano-TiO₂ caused a significantly greater pulmonary inflammatory response.

b) Repeated-dose toxicity studies

Several studies from subacute to chronic exposure were performed with TiO₂. These studies were summarized in different published reviews (IARC, 2010; SCCS, 2014; NIOSH, 2011). The main common effect observed after TiO₂ exposure was an inflammation associated with pulmonary effects including lung epithelial cell injury, cholesterol granulomas and fibrosis. Some of the studies aimed to investigate the impact of physico-chemical properties of TiO₂ (particle size, coating, crystallinity...) on the toxicity, while other studies compared the effects of TiO₂ in several rodent species.

Among all these studies, 3 assays by inhalation were further described here since they bring information on inter-species differences, possible specific mechanisms of toxic action, reversibility and impact of physico-chemical properties on the toxicity of TiO₂.

In subchronic inhalation studies (Everitt et al, 2000; Bermudez et al, 2002, 2004; Hext et al, 2005), female CDF(F344)/CrIBR rats, B3C3F1/CrIBR mice and Lak:LVG(SYR)BR hamsters

were treated with aerosol concentrations of 0.5, 2 or 10 mg/m³ of nano-TiO₂ (P25, average primary particle size of 21 nm) or 10, 50 or 250 mg/m³ of fine TiO₂ for 13 weeks. Groups of 25 animals for each species and time point were used in the study performed with ultrafine TiO₂. Sixty-five rats and mice and 73 hamsters were used in the study with fine TiO₂. Following the exposure period, animals were held for recovery periods of 4, 13, 26 or 52 weeks (46 weeks for fine-TiO₂-exposed hamster or 49 weeks for the nano-TiO₂-exposed hamsters). At each time point, burdens in the lung and lymph nodes and selected lung responses were examined. The responses studied were chosen to assess a variety of pulmonary parameters, including inflammation, cytotoxicity, lung cell proliferation and histopathological alterations.

Particle size analysis and chamber concentrations of fine (pigmentary) and ultrafine (nano) TiO₂ aerosol are given hereafter (Table 4.7.1.2-01). It can be noted that the aerosol generated for ultrafine TiO₂ was made up of particle aggregates.

Table 4.1.3-03. Summary of exposure conditions

Species	Fine TiO ₂ (rutile)		Ultrafine (nano)-TiO ₂ (P25)	
	Chamber concentrations (mg/m ³)	Mass median aerodynamic diameter (µm)	Chamber concentrations (mg/m ³)	Mass median aerodynamic diameter (µm)
Hamster	9.9 ± 1.0 mg/m ³ 49.7 ± 4.0 mg/m ³ 251.1 ± 17.3 mg/m ³	1.36 ± 0.07	0.54 ± 0.06 mg/m ³ 2.2 ± 0.1 mg/m ³ 10.8 ± 1.0 mg/m ³	1.29 ± 0.30
Mouse	9.5 ± 1.2 mg/m ³ 47.0 ± 4.6 mg/m ³ 240.3 ± 20.0 mg/m ³	1.39 ± 0.04	0.52 ± 0.03 mg/m ³ 2.1 ± 0.1 mg/m ³ 10.5 ± 0.7 mg/m ³	1.45 ± 0.49
Rat	9.6 ± 1.1 mg/m ³ 47.7 ± 5.1 mg/m ³ 239.1 ± 19.3 mg/m ³	1.44 ± 0.09	0.53 ± 0.03 mg/m ³ 2.1 ± 0.1 mg/m ³ 10.7 ± 0.6 mg/m ³	1.44 ± 0.57

During exposure phase, no significant mortalities occurred with fine TiO₂ although treatment-related deaths were noted in mice exposed to ultrafine TiO₂. In the post-exposure phase, morbidity and mortality was principally found in hamsters due to severe chronic renal disease in both studies with ultrafine and fine TiO₂.

Following the end of the exposure period, a depression in body weight was noted in all groups and all species exposed to both types of TiO₂ (4-5% in mice, 2-3% in rats and 5-11% in hamsters). A more marked body weight loss was noted in hamsters exposed to ultrafine TiO₂. Recovery occurred over the next three to four weeks in mice and rats but was slower in hamsters, with recovery within approximately 6 weeks.

Clear species differences in pulmonary clearance and lesions were observed.

In the study performed with fine TiO₂, the dose-related increase in TiO₂ lung burdens were higher in mice followed by rats and then hamsters after 13 weeks of exposure. At the end of the recovery period, rats and mice of the high-dose group retained approximately 75% of the initial burden whereas hamsters retained approximately 10%. The calculated particle retention half-time for the three dose levels was 100, 324 and 838 days in rats, 50, 417 and 621 days in mice and less than 110 days in hamsters. In the study performed with ultrafine TiO₂, rats and mice exhibited equivalent

TiO₂ lung burdens whereas lung burdens in hamsters were approximately 2 to 5 fold lower than those of rats and mice after 13 weeks of exposure. At the end of the recovery period, rats of the high-dose group retained approximately 57% of the initial burden compared to approximately 46% for mice and approximately 3% for hamsters. The calculated particle retention half-time for the three dose levels was 63, 132 and 395 days in rats, 48, 40 and 319 days in mice and 33, 37 and 39 days in hamsters. Therefore, under the conditions of these studies, hamsters were better able to clear TiO₂ particles than were similarly exposed mice and rats.

Inflammation, as evidenced by increases in macrophage and neutrophil numbers and in soluble indices of inflammation (LDH and protein) in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, was noted in all three species exposed to 50 and 250 mg/m³ of fine TiO₂ and in rats and mice at 10 mg/m³ of ultrafine TiO₂.

Pulmonary lesions were most severe in rats exposed to both types of TiO₂ with epithelial and fibroproliferative lesions which were progressive even following cessation of particle exposure and diminution of pulmonary inflammation. These effects consisted of alveolar hypertrophy and hyperplasia of type II epithelial cells surrounding aggregations of particle-laden macrophages of minimal to mild severity at the mid dose of fine and ultrafine TiO₂ and which became more severe at the highest concentration of 250 mg/m³ for fine TiO₂ and 10 mg/m³ for ultrafine TiO₂. Alveolar metaplasia (bronchiolization) and septal fibrosis were also noted in rats of the high dose groups by 52 weeks post-exposure. After exposure to fine TiO₂, hamsters developed minimal alveolar type II cell hypertrophy and hyperplasia in both mid and high dose groups and only alveolar type II cell hypertrophy was found in mice. Epithelial, metaplastic and fibroproliferative changes were not noted in both mice and hamsters. In conclusion, rats were unique in the development of a progressive fibroproliferative lesion and alveolar epithelial metaplasia in response to a subchronic exposure to a high concentration of p-TiO₂ and uf-TiO₂.

In Baggs et al study (1997), male Fisher 344 rats were exposed whole body for 6 h/d, 5 days/week for 12 weeks to filtered air (negative control), pigment-grade TiO₂ (TiO₂-F, particle size 250 nm) at 22.3 mg/m³, ultrafine TiO₂ (TiO₂-D, particle size 20 nm) at 23.5 mg/m³ or cristobalite (positive control fibrogenic particle) at 1.3 mg/m³. Groups of 3 or 4 animals were sacrificed at 6 and 12 months after the completion of exposure. After completion of the study, lung burdens were 5.22 ± 0.75 mg for TiO₂-D and 6.62 ± 1.22 mg for TiO₂-F. These values decreased to 3.14 ± 0.59 mg and 1.66 ± 0.76 mg 12 months after exposure of TiO₂-D or TiO₂-F, respectively. Interstitial fibrosis in the lung was found in TiO₂ groups at 6 months post-exposure with significant increase of septal collagen levels. Slightly more fibrosis was found in animals treated with nano-TiO₂ than with fine TiO₂, suggesting that ultrafine particles can have a greater biological activity than larger ones. One year post-exposure, the amount of interstitial fibrosis in TiO₂ groups was not significantly greater than in the negative control group. However, increased number of alveolar macrophages persisted, usually with retained particles. In comparison, moderate focal interstitial fibrosis and moderately severe focal alveolitis were observed 6 months after exposure to SiO₂. After 1 year, fibrosis decreased but was still present.

Warheit et al. 2005 assessed the pulmonary toxicity of inhaled or intra-tracheally instilled TiO₂ particle formulations with various surface treatments in male Crl:CD(SD)IGS BR rats. The pulmonary effects were compared with those of a non-surface TiO₂ (“base TiO₂”) and control. In the first study, rats were exposed to TiO₂ formulation for 4 weeks at aerosol concentrations ranging from 1130-1300 mg/m³ (MMAD = 1.3-1.8 µm) and lung tissues were evaluated by histopathology immediately after exposure, as well as at 2 weeks and 3, 6, and 12 months post-exposure. In the second study, rats were intra-tracheally instilled with nearly identical TiO₂ particles formulations at 2 and 10 mg/kg. The exposure period was followed by 24h, 1 week, 1 month and 3 month recovery period. BAL biomarkers and histopathology of lung tissues were assessed at the end of each recovery period.

Table 4.1.3-04. Composition of TiO₂ particle formulations tested

	Inhalation studies	Instillation studies
Base TiO ₂	99% TiO ₂ – 1% Al	99% TiO ₂ – 1% Al
TiO ₂ -I	99% TiO ₂ – 1% Al + organic	99% TiO ₂ – 1% Al + organic
TiO ₂ -II	96% TiO ₂ – 4% Al	96% TiO ₂ – 4% Al
TiO ₂ -III	85% TiO ₂ –7% Al + 8% AMO	82% TiO ₂ – 7% Al + 11% AMO
TiO ₂ -IV	92% TiO ₂ –2% Al + 6% AMO	92% TiO ₂ – 2% Al + 6% AMO
TiO ₂ -V	94% TiO ₂ –3% Al + 3% AMO	94% TiO ₂ – 3% Al + 3% AMO

Al = alumina = Al₂O₃. AMO = amorphous silica – SiO₂. Organic, refers to triethanolamine. Base TiO₂, and TiO₂-I, -II, -IV, and -V formulations are identical between the two studies. TiO₂-III formulations differ slightly between the two studies. All TiO₂ particles were rutile type and particles size ranged from 290 nm (TiO₂-V) to 440 nm (TiO₂-III).

Although all formulation induced minor pulmonary inflammation with accumulation of TiO₂ particles, the results from these studies demonstrated that for both inhalation and instillation, only TiO₂ formulation with the largest components of both alumina and amorphous silica surface treatments produced mildly adverse pulmonary effects (with collagen deposition) when compared to the reference particles. The authors concluded that the surface treatments can influence the toxicity of TiO₂ particles in the lung and that the intra-tracheal installation-derived, pulmonary bioassay studies represent an effective preliminary screening tool for inhalation studies.

Comparing these studies, results demonstrate many similarities since the type of effects and the response of the different animal species are similar for nano and fine TiO₂. Furthermore, a comparison of the lung burdens, using surface area as dose-metrics, reveals that the lung burdens in animals exposed for 13 weeks to 10 mg/m³ of ultrafine-TiO₂ or to 50 mg/m³ of pigmentary TiO₂ were approximately the same for all three species.

4.1.4 Summary and discussion of carcinogenicity

Summary of carcinogenicity studies

Oral route:

Two studies assessed the carcinogenic potential of TiO₂ administered in diet at doses up to 50 000 ppm to rats and mice. Low level of characterization is available: in the first study (NCI, 1979), TiO₂ was characterized by an anatase form (unspecified size) and in the second study (Bernard, 1990), it was a fine TiO₂-coated mica of 10-35 µm (unspecified crystalline phase). From these studies, the overall conclusion is that TiO₂ is not carcinogenic by the oral route although no firm conclusion can be reached about the possible carcinogenicity of this compound to Fischer 344 based on an increase of adenoma/adenocarcinomas of the thyroid according to one reviewer of the NCI (1979) study. However, it should be noted that the doses were very high, often higher than that is recommended in the OECD guideline.

Some studies investigated the uptake and translation of TiO₂ ingested via oral route. When the most recent publications were considered, most of them concluded on a rather low systemic availability of TiO₂, although some accumulation was reported in different organs. Systemic uptake of TiO₂ would possibly occur via translocation through both the regular epithelium lining the ileum and through Peyer's patches as demonstrated by Brun (2014) with TiO₂ NP (anatase) in *ex vivo* and *in vivo* rodent models. Although the potential for absorption and accumulation seems to be likely dependent on the concentration and size of the TiO₂ particles (Jovanovic, 2015), only low to no accumulation of TiO₂ was found in organs after oral administration in experimental animals. For example, low increased total Ti tissue levels in spleen and ovaries with some alterations in thyroid, adrenal and ovaries were found in rats exposed for 5 day to anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles (primary size < 25 nm) at 1 and 2 mg/kg bw/day (Tassinari, 2014). Nanogenotox WP7 report (*identification of target organs and biodistribution including ADME parameters*) concluded that oral administration of different nanoparticles of TiO₂ (anatase, rutile, anatase/rutile) results in a rather low uptake via gastrointestinal tract even after a 5-day oral administration, with very low levels in the liver and spleen. MacNicoll (2015) did not find any significant internal exposure after oral ingestion of both nano or larger particles of TiO₂, with administered TiO₂ found in the faeces of rats. Extremely low absorption was also reported by Cho (2013) when rats were exposed to nano-TiO₂ for 13 weeks. *In vivo* genotoxicity studies in rodents can also bring some information on systemic uptake of TiO₂ after oral administration. Sheng (2013), Gui (2013) and Nanogenotox WP6 report (2013) reported some accumulation of TiO₂ in different organs after oral exposure to nano-TiO₂ for up to 90 days (see Annex I). Similar results were obtained from human studies. In a study performed after an oral challenge, very little TiO₂ (< 0.1 %) was absorbed gastro-intestinally with no difference in absorption for any of the three particles tested (anatase of 15 nm, rutile of 70 nm and 1.8 µm) (Jones, 2015). A fraction of pharmaceutical/food grade anatase titanium dioxide has been shown to be absorbed systemically by human with normal gut permeability following a single ingestion of 100 mg, as reflected by the presence of particles in the blood (Pele, 2015).

In conclusion, no carcinogenic concern has been identified after oral exposure to TiO₂. Oral uptake of TiO₂ seems to be rather limited even if it cannot be excluded that some forms of TiO₂ could be better absorbed, in particular with specific coating and/or size. Considering the presented carcinogenic mode of action (see paragraph Carcinogenic mode of action) of TiO₂ requiring a sufficient accumulation of particles, the low absorption of different forms of TiO₂ reported in various kinetics studies might explain the negative carcinogenic outcome in the 2 studies available.

Dermal route:

Three two-stage skin carcinogenesis studies were performed to examine the promotor potential of TiO₂. In the first well-performed study, coated and uncoated nano-TiO₂ (unspecified crystalline phase) administered to CD1(ICR) female mice did not cause skin tumour promotion (Furukawa, 2011). Similar negative results were obtained from the two other studies of low quality comparing effects of TiO₂ in transgenic or wild-type rats and mice. In Sagawa (2012) study, a non-coated rutile nano-TiO₂ was administered to transgenic (Hras 128), wild-type SD rats and CD1 mice; and a nano-TiO₂ coated with silicone was administered to transgenic (rasH2) and wild type CB6F1 mice. In the Xu (2011) study, a non-coated rutile nano-TiO₂ was administered to transgenic (Hras 128) and wild-type rats. However, according to the SCCS opinion (2013), it is difficult to draw a firm conclusion from these two studies due to lack of positive control and since little experience with the rat model is currently available. Furthermore, in Sagawa (2012), there was a very high tumour activity in the “initiated transgenic mice”.

Skin penetration of TiO₂ was assessed in these studies and showed that TiO₂ was in the *stratum corneum* but did not penetrate the dermis. Based on these observations, the authors suggested that the lack of skin tumour promotion of TiO₂ can be due to the lack of penetration of the particles through the dermis. This was supported by results from many *in vitro* and *in vivo* dermal penetration studies detailed in the SCCS opinion (2013). However, it remains somewhat uncertain if particles can penetrate through damaged skin or during repeated or long term applications, since a number of studies have indicated that TiO₂ nanoparticles can enter the hair follicles and sweat glands.

In conclusion, no carcinogenic concern has been identified after dermal exposure to TiO₂. Dermal penetration of TiO₂ seems to be rather limited even if it cannot be excluded that some forms of TiO₂ could be better absorbed, in particular with specific coating and/or size. Considering the presented carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ (see paragraph Carcinogenic mode of action) requiring a sufficient accumulation of particles, the low absorption might explain the lack of systemic carcinogenic effect reported in the available studies.

Inhalation route - Human data:

Human data were available from case reports, case-control studies and cohort studies. A significantly elevated risk for lung cancer was observed in two of the three cohort studies. In the first study (Fryzek, 2003), elevated SMR was found in short-term workers (≤ 9 years) after 20 or more years of follow-up in US companies. However, it decreased with longer duration of employment. In the second study (Boffetta, 2004), the statistical significance of the increased SMR for lung cancer compared to the general population was not reached in all the European countries considered, showing heterogeneity of the observations between countries. For both studies, there was no evidence of relationship with concentration and duration of exposure to TiO₂. In the Boffetta (2004) study, although not significant, a dose-response relationship was suggested between exposure to TiO₂ and mortality from kidney cancer. The other cohorts did not report an increased risk of kidney cancer. Methodological limitations were noted for all studies. In addition data on

primary particle size or size distribution of the TiO₂ particles were lacking. In this context, epidemiological data are considered inadequate.

Inhalation route - animal data:

Lung tumours were observed in rats following chronic inhalation of TiO₂ in 2 publications (Lee, 1985 and Heinrich, 1995) out of 4 studies. Among these studies, only one (Lee, 1985) has a protocol similar to guideline when considering the number of animals and dose levels, the route of exposure and the duration of the study. Other studies were only performed with one low concentration. Furthermore, Thyssen (1978) exposed rats only for 12 weeks.

In the first study (Lee, 1985), 12/77 males and 13/74 females presented bronchioalveolar adenoma in rats exposed to 250 mg/m³ of fine TiO₂ (rutile form; MMD = 1.5-0.7 µm) for 2 years. Squamous cell lesions, classified as cystic keratinizing squamous cell carcinoma by the authors, were found in 1 male and 13 females at the same exposure concentration. A re-evaluation of the proliferative squamous lesions found in this study showed that over the 13 reported in females, only one was confirmed as squamous cell carcinoma (Warheit and Frame, 2006).

In the second study (Heinrich, 1995), 32/100 females rats showed lung tumours, consisting on benign keratinizing cystic squamous cell tumours, squamous-cell carcinomas and bronchioalveolar adenomas or adenocarcinoma after exposure to a cumulative particle exposure of 88.1 g/m³ x h (or about 10 mg/m³) of ultrafine TiO₂ (P25, 80%/20% anatase/rutile, 15-40 nm) for 24 months. No increase of lung tumour was found in female mice, but the 30% lung tumour prevalence in controls may have decrease the sensitivity for detecting carcinogenic effects in this study. Since diesel exhaust was also tested in this study, it is possible to compare the carcinogenicity of TiO₂ to a substance presenting sufficient evidence for carcinogenicity in experimental animals (IARC, 2012). The incidence of tumours induced by nano-TiO₂ (32% after 88.1 g/m³ x h of TiO₂) in rats was approximately similar to that induced by diesel exhaust (22% after 61.7 g/m³ x h).

No increase of lung tumours was reported in two other inhalation studies performed in rats with TiO₂, type Bayertitan T, 99.5 % rutile (Muhle, 1989, 1991, 1995) or with TiO₂, “standard size” with 99.9% < 0.5 µm (Thyssen, 1978). However, the Muhle study was performed at a concentration lower than those associated with lung tumour in the 2 above studies. The Thyssen study was only performed for 12 weeks, a duration not sufficient to adequately assess any carcinogenicity potential.

Supportive information can be obtained from intra-tracheal studies. Among these studies, two assessed the promotor potential of TiO₂ (Xu, 2010 and Yokohira, 2009) and one assessed the occurrence of tumours, 30 months after a repeated administration of TiO₂ (Pott, 2005). Although instillation is not a physiological route for human exposure and even if differences in terms of dose rate, particle distribution or clearance were noted compared to inhalation, similar types of lung tumours (benign adenomas and epitheliomas, adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas) were observed after instillations of TiO₂ (fine anatase or ultrafine P25) in female rats (Pott, 2005). The incidence of tumours was ≥ 50% for ultrafine TiO₂ (from 15 mg) and ≥ 20% for fine TiO₂ (from 60 mg). In comparison, diesel soot at 15 and 30 mg and quartz at 5 mg, both known as carcinogenic, induced a tumour incidence of 26%, 40% and 66%, respectively. Xu (2010) also

reported a carcinogenic promotor potential of nano-TiO₂ (rutile type, 20 nm) in transgenic Hras 128 female rats initiated with DHPN. The incidence of lung adenomas was 10% after a total dose of 0.875 mg and 36% after a total dose of 1.75 mg, with a significant statistically increased multiplicity at the highest dose. In this study, an increase of multiplicity of mammary adenocarcinomas was also reported, suggesting some promoting activity of TiO₂ away from the contact site in predisposed animals. However, the results from Xu (2010) study need to be taken with caution considering the little experience with this model. In contrast, no promotor potential was reported in the Yokohira et al. publication (2009). However, this study is not judged reliable as many experimental parameters did not match with the standard protocol for carcinogenesis assessment (e.g., treatment schedule with only 1 treatment; few numbers of animals/group; biological parameters actually measured...).

In conclusion, although no definitive conclusion can be drawn about the carcinogenic effect after inhalation of TiO₂ based on human data, lung tumours were reported in one inhalation study and one intra-tracheal study of acceptable quality. Carcinogenic potential was also reported in two further (inhalation or intra-tracheal) studies of lower reliability but of adequate relevance.

Role of physicochemical properties of TiO₂ (size, crystalline phase, coating) on carcinogenicity

Since TiO₂ compositions vary in crystalline phase, morphology and surface chemistry (and all combinations thereof), the impact of variability of these characteristics on the hazard profile has to be considered.

Impact of the size: nanoform versus microform of TiO₂

TiO₂ can be non-nano (bulk) and nano sized. In the registration dossier submitted for the substance identified as “titanium dioxide” for EC no 236-675-5, some data are provided on 4 different titanium dioxide samples as MMAD + Geometric standard deviation. However, the MSCA-FR noted that the data included would not cover all the possible morphologies that is stated in the registration dossier as being within the scope of the registered substance.

The impact of the size on carcinogenic potential of TiO₂ was assessed based on the data presented in this proposal as the registration dossier did not include (data allowing) discussion of the impact of this parameter on the hazard profile.

For reasons that are not yet fully understood, the phagocytic clearance of nanoparticles is less efficient than clearance of fine particles of the same material (Ferin, 1992; Oberdörster, 1994). This lower efficiency could be related to agglomeration of nanoparticles, which is more likely to lead to volumetric overload (Pauluhn, 2009). Additionally the contribution of direct cytotoxic effects – resulting from the greater surface area and therefore higher reactivity – cannot be ruled out (Borm, 2004; Sager, 2008). Thus, a higher effect of nanoparticles in comparison to fine particles can be expected in the lung.

Increased incidences of lung tumours were found in studies performed with both fine and ultrafine TiO₂, with some indications of a higher carcinogenic potential of ultrafine TiO₂. Indeed, increased

lung tumours were found at lower concentration with TiO₂-NP: at a mean concentration of about 10 mg/m³ of ultrafine P25 TiO₂ (Heinrich, 1995) and at 250 mg/m³ for fine TiO₂ (Lee, 1985) for 24 months in rats. However, the higher duration of the post-exposure period in the Heinrich study (6 months versus one week in the Lee study) may have increased the likelihood of detecting lung tumours in the ultrafine TiO₂-exposed rats. Furthermore, differences in the exposure duration per day (6h in the Lee study versus 18h in the Heinrich study) were noted and can have an impact on the retained particle lung burden. Finally, it can be noted that the “mg/m³” metrics is might not be the best metrics for nanoparticles and thus a comparison of the concentrations at which the tumours occurred can be not appropriate to conclude on a higher toxicity of one form over the other.

The higher carcinogenicity of TiO₂-NP was also reported where administered by the intra-tracheal route, since lung tumours were found at a higher incidence in the group treated with ultrafine TiO₂ (tumour incidence of about 70 % after nano-TiO₂ P25 exposure compared to about 30% after fine TiO₂ anatase exposure at a total dose of 60 mg) (Pott, 2005). In term of types of tumours, these studies do not specifically support a conclusion of nano-specific tumour lesions since similar tumours were reported with both fine and ultrafine TiO₂ (bronchioalveolar adenomas/adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas).

In conclusion, a higher carcinogenic potential of ultrafine TiO₂ can be suggested from these studies, but cannot be confirmed because confounding factors such as route of exposure, concentrations, exposure duration and post-exposure follow-up are present in the studies available.

Based on these studies, IARC (2010) classified TiO₂ as possibly carcinogenic to humans (Group 2B) without differentiation between ultrafine and fine TiO₂ particles. However, based on the same studies, the NIOSH (2011) concludes that although ultrafine TiO₂ should be considered a potential occupational carcinogen, there are insufficient data at this time to classify fine TiO₂ as a potential occupational carcinogen since effects were observed at concentration (250 mg/m³) that was significantly higher than currently accepted inhalation toxicology practice. However, they noted that when TiO₂ is expressed as particle surface area dose, both fine and ultrafine TiO₂ fit the same dose-response curve.

Additional information can be provided by single or repeated-dose toxicity studies comparing effect of fine and ultrafine TiO₂ on lung. Although pathological changes (severe pulmonary inflammation and emphysema) were found in lung after a single intra-tracheal administration of nano-rutile; similar effects were not observed with the same dose of micro-TiO₂ (Chen, 2006). In the Baggs et al. study (1997), male Fisher 344 rats developed slightly more fibrosis with nano-TiO₂ (20 nm) than animals that had inhaled fine TiO₂ particles (250 nm) after a 3-month inhalation exposure. This supports that ultrafine TiO₂ particles may have a greater biological activity than larger ones. In the contrary, according to Bermudez et al (2002, 2004) and Hext et al. (2005), the type of effects and the response of the different tested animal species are similar for both nano and fine TiO₂. In this study, lung effects occurred after inhalation exposure from 10 mg/m³ with ultrafine TiO₂ (P25, 21 nm) and from 50 mg/m³ with fine TiO₂. However, the lung burden at 10 mg/m³ of nano-TiO₂ was comparable with the burden at 50 mg/m³ of fine TiO₂, when surface area was used as dose-metrics.

Moreno-horn&Gebel, 2014 reviewed the evidence for systemic toxicity for granular biodurable nanomaterials and conclude that there was no evidence that toxicological properties of nanomaterial differs from their micromaterial counterparts. They did not conclude on the possible long-term systemic effects of these particles.

In summary, even if several studies tend to demonstrate that the nano-form is more “reactive” (biologically active) than the micro-form, none was able to clearly correlate the hazard to specific forms or categories. In addition, carcinogenic effects were reported for nano and micro-forms. Classifying all the titanium dioxide particle sizes for carcinogenicity is therefore justified.

Impact of the crystallinity: rutile, anatase or mix anatase/rutile

TiO₂ exists under different crystal phases, such as rutile, anatase and brookite, which might have an impact on toxicological properties. Although no carcinogenicity data is available on brookite form, studies were performed with rutile, anatase or a mix of the anatase/rutile forms.

Carcinogenic effects were found with nano-P25 TiO₂ (80/20% anatase/rutile) after inhalation (Heinrich, 1995) and intra-tracheal instillations (Pott, 2005), with micro-rutile TiO₂ after inhalation (Lee, 1985) and with micro-anatase TiO₂ after intra-tracheal instillation (Pott, 2005). Nano-rutile TiO₂ also showed a promoter effect after administration by intra-tracheal instillation in a study of questionable validity (Xu, 2010). Nano-rutile was negative in a carcinogenicity study by inhalation at low concentration (Muhle, 1989). None of the studies assessed the toxicity of TiO₂ of different crystallinity but with a similar size; thus no clear conclusion can be made on the impact of the crystallinity alone on carcinogenic potential of TiO₂. Based on these results, it rather seems that the crystalline form has no significant impact on the carcinogenicity potential of TiO₂ since carcinogenic effect was observed with anatase, mix anatase/rutile and rutile forms.

However, some studies showed that crystallinity can have a significant impact on toxic potential with anatase form being more reactive than rutile in terms of inflammation. Warheit et al (2007) compared pulmonary toxicity after a single intra-tracheal administration of different forms of TiO₂: P25 (80/20% anatase rutile) and three forms of rutile (non-coated nano-rutile, coated nano-rutile and fine rutile). P25 caused more pronounced inflammation than the rutile forms. According to the authors, based on these results, inhaled rutile ultrafine-TiO₂ particles are expected to have a low risk potential for producing adverse pulmonary health effects. They also concluded that the lung toxicity of anatase/rutile TiO₂ should not be viewed as representative for all ultrafine-TiO₂ particle-types. In contrast, when lung responses to P25 and to two anatase forms of TiO₂ (spheres and nanobelt) were compared after intra-tracheal instillation, all forms produced similar pattern of neutrophilia and pathology in rats and mice (Bonner, 2013). *In vitro* studies, as summarized in the NIOSH report (2011), report that crystal structure influences particle surface ROS generation.

In conclusion, although some *in vitro* or *in vivo* acute exposure to TiO₂ suggests an impact of the crystallinity on inflammation responses, the available data on rutile and anatase do not allow drawing strong conclusion on which crystallinity is the most toxic and to which extent. In contrast, in chronic studies, no difference between crystalline forms was found in term of carcinogenic potential. Classifying all the crystalline forms for carcinogenicity is therefore justified.

Impact of the coating

TiO₂ can be modified by using various coatings to enhance or maintain its properties. With the exception of some composition of titanium dioxide used as a food additive, all commercially produced titanium dioxide (micro or nanosize) is coated by a variety organic or inorganic coating materials. The coating includes hydrophilic, hydrophobic and amphiphilic materials. The most common coatings are composed of oxyhydrates and oxides of aluminium and silicone. Oxides and oxyhydrates of zirconium, tin, zinc, phosphorous, cerium and boron are also used. The stability of the coating may differ between the different coating materials. If new data are available on specific coated material of titanium dioxide, that demonstrate that this type of specific test material does not behave as titanium dioxide in the scope of this dossier, the entry may be revised later *via* a proposal to exclude specific forms.

The impact of coating on carcinogenic potential is difficult to assess since only one study was performed with a nano-coated (P805) TiO₂ (P25 coated with trimethoxyoctyl-silane) by intratracheal route (Pott and Roller, 2005). High acute toxicity was observed with the coated TiO₂ leading to a reduction of the initial dosage plan. Only one benign tumour (6.7%) was found with 30 instillations of 0.5 mg of P805 compared to about 50% with 5 instillations of 3 mg of P25. However, interpretation of the results is difficult since only few animals survived at the end of the experiment. Furthermore, no direct comparison can be made from this study considering the different dosage protocol.

Supporting information can be provided by acute and repeated dose toxicity studies performed with different forms of coated titanium dioxide.

In 2001, Oberdörster reported that 500µg hydrophobic and silanized ultrafine TiO₂ did not show toxicity and a much lower pulmonary inflammation was induced in comparison to the hydrophilic uncoated TiO₂ in rat lung.

In the study of Höhr et al. (2002), acute inflammatory responses and cell damage were investigated 16h after instillation of surface modified (hydrophilic and hydrophobic) fine and ultrafine TiO₂ particles at equivalent doses in rats. The authors observed that for the same surface area, the inflammatory response in female rats to uncoated TiO₂ covered with surface hydroxyl groups was similar to that of TiO₂ particles with surface OCH₃-groups (hydrophobic). The authors concluded that the surface area rather than hydrophobic surface determines acute pulmonary inflammation by both fine and ultrafine Titanium dioxide.

Warheit et al., 2003 assessed and compared the acute lung toxicity of intratracheally instilled hydrophobic in comparison to hydrophilic surface-coated titanium dioxide (TiO₂) particles. To conduct toxicity comparisons, the surface coatings of base pigment-grade TiO₂ particles were made hydrophobic by application of triethoxyoctylsilane (OTES), a commercial product used in plastics applications. Rats were intratracheally instilled with 2 or 10 mg/kg of the following TiO₂ particle-types: (1) base (hydrophilic) TiO₂ particles; (2) TiO₂ with OTES surface coating; (3) base TiO₂ with Tween 80; or (4) OTES TiO₂ with Tween 80. Saline instilled rats served as controls. Following

exposures, the lungs of rats were assessed using bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) biomarkers and histopathology of lung tissue at 24 hours, 1 week, 1 month, and 3 months post exposure. The results demonstrated that only the base, high-dose (10 mg/kg) pigment-grade TiO₂ particles and those with particle-types containing Tween 80 produced a transient pulmonary inflammatory response, and this was reversible within 1 week post-exposure. Based on the abstract it is not specified how the inflammatory response was measured. The authors conclude that the OTES hydrophobic coating on the pigment-grade TiO₂ particle does not cause significant pulmonary toxicity.

As described below, the surface coating of TiO₂ with aluminum oxide and/or silica has been shown to produce higher pulmonary inflammation (PMNs in BALF) than the uncoated TiO₂ at 24 h in SD rats administered a large dose of 10 mg/kg (Warheit, 2005)

Warheit et al. (2007) showed that P25 (anatase/rutile) induced a higher inflammatory response than three forms of TiO₂ with an aluminium coating after a single intra-tracheally administration. In contrast, fine coated TiO₂ (with alumina or amorphous silica) produced higher inflammation than uncoated TiO₂ after an intra-tracheal administration or after inhalation exposure for 30 days (Warheit, 2007).

Rossi et al., 2010 studied five different types of TiO₂ particles. The TiO₂ materials were rutile in microsize, rutile/anatase in nanosize, nanosize anatase, nanosize anatase/brookite and silica coated nano-sized rutile. Nanosize SiO₂ particles were also tested in the study. BALB/c mice were exposed by whole body inhalation to the particles (8 mice/group) for either 2 hours, 2 hours on four consecutive days for four weeks at 10 mg/m³. In addition, effects of *in vitro* exposure of human macrophages and fibroblasts (MRC- 9) to the different particles were assessed. SiO₂-coated rutile TiO₂ nanoparticles (cnTiO₂) was the only sample tested that elicited clear increase in pulmonary neutrophilia as determined by neutrophils infiltration to bronchoalveolar lavage. Uncoated rutile and anatase as well as nanosize SiO₂ did not induce significant inflammation. Inhalation exposure to nanosized SiO₂, used as a model for the coating material did not induce pulmonary inflammation. In order to explore the mechanism of pulmonary neutrophilia induce by cnTiO₂, murine and human macrophages were exposed *in vitro* to cnTiO₂. Significant induction of TNF- α and neutrophil attracting chemokines was observed. Stimulation of human fibroblasts with cnTiO₂-activated macrophage supernatant induced high expression of neutrophil attracting chemokines, CXCL1 and CXCL8. Interestingly, the level of lung inflammation could not be explained by the surface area of the particles, their primary or agglomerate particle size or radical formation capacity, but was rather explained by the surface coating. The authors concluded that the level of lung inflammation could not be explained by the surface area of the particles, their primary or agglomerate particle size, or free radical formation capacity but rather by surface coating.

Mature female mice ($n = 9$ /controls, 8/treated) were exposed for 1 hour per day for 11 consecutive days to 42.4 ± 2.9 (SEM) mg/m³ nanoTiO₂ particles (Halappanavar et al., 2011). Physicochemical characteristics of the nanoTiO₂ consisted of rutile TiO₂-based material, nanosized particles, modified with amounts of zirconium, silicon, aluminum, and coated with polyalcohol. The aim of the study was to assess inflammatory response to nanoTiO₂ exposure in mouse lungs. Pulmonary response was assessed using DNA microarrays and pathway specific PCR arrays related to

pulmonary inflammation from bronchial lavage. The bronchoalveolar lavage fluid analysis was published by Hougaard et al. (2010). The percentage of neutrophils was significantly increased in the nano-tiO₂ group compare to control. However the number of macrophage was significantly decreased. The authors observed changes in the expression of the genes associated with proinflammatory, immune response and complement cascade-related genes with concomitant changes in microRNAs that persist for up to five days after exposure.

In the study of Leppänen, 2015, irritation and inflammation potential of commercially available silica-coated TiO₂ engineered nanomaterials (10_40 nm, rutile) were studied. The thorough characterization of the particles has been described by Rossi et al., 2010 and the very same silica-coated TiO₂ particles were used in the study. Single exposure (30 min) at mass concentrations 5, 10, 20 and 30 mg/m³, and repeated exposure (altogether 16 h, 1 h/day, 4 days/week for 4 weeks) was performed in male and female mice respectively. Mass concentration of 30 mg/m³ to silica-coated TiO₂ induced first phase of pulmonary irritation (P1), which was seen as rapid, shallow breathing. During repeated exposures, pulmonary irritation evolved into more intense pulmonary irritation: inflammatory cells infiltrated in peribronchial and perivascular areas of the lungs, neutrophils were found in BAL fluids, and the number of CD3 and CD4 positive T cells increased significantly. In line with these results, pulmonary mRNA expression of chemokines CXCL1, CXCL5 and CXCL9 was enhanced. Also expression of mRNA levels of proinflammatory cytokines TNF- α and IL-6 were elevated after repeated exposures. Also sensory irritation was observed at the beginning of both single and repeated exposure periods, and the effect intensified during repeated exposures. Airflow limitation started to develop during repeated exposures. The authors concludes that taken together, these results indicated that silica-coated TiO₂ induce pulmonary and sensory irritation after single and repeated exposure, and airflow limitation and pulmonary inflammation after repeated exposure.

In the study of Landsiedel et al., 2014, a standard short-term inhalation study was applied for hazard assessment of 13 metal oxide nanomaterials and micron-scale zinc oxide. Rats were exposed to test material aerosols (ranging from 0.5 to 50 mg/m³) for five consecutive days with 14- or 21-day post-exposure observation. In this study, the form of TiO₂ was rutile (with minimally anatase), as a fiber, in nanosize, with surface coating (Ti: 16; O: 63; C: 9; Al: 7; Si: 5; Na: <1; dimethicone/ Methicone copolymer as surface coating). Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) and histopathological sections of the entire respiratory tract were examined. Pulmonary deposition and clearance and test material translocation into extra-pulmonary organs were assessed. Eight nanomaterials did not elicit pulmonary effects. Five materials (coated nano-TiO₂, coated nano ZnO and micro ZnO, nano-CeO₂ and Al-doped nano-CeO₂) evoked concentration-dependent transient pulmonary inflammation. Overall, coated nano-TiO₂ caused mild pulmonary inflammation that was not fully reversible with a NOAEC of 0.5 mg/m³. In this study, the materials were ranked by increasing toxic potency into 3 grades:

- lower toxic potency: BaSO₄; SiO₂. acrylate (by local NOAEC); SiO₂.PEG; SiO₂.phosphate; SiO₂.amino; nano-ZrO₂; ZrO₂.TODA; ZrO₂.acrylate;
- medium toxic potency: SiO₂.naked;
- higher toxic potency: coated nano-TiO₂; nano-CeO₂; Al-doped nano-CeO₂; micron scale ZnO; coated nano-ZnO.

According to the authors, the study revealed the type of effects of 13 nanomaterials, and micron-scale ZnO, information on their toxic potency, and the location and reversibility of effects.

The impact of surface coating and the ROS mechanism in lung toxicity of TiO₂ has been reviewed in the publication of Wang et al., 2014. The authors concluded that size, shape, crystal phase and surface coating should be appropriately characterized when evaluating the potential biological effects of nanoparticles.

In the study of Farcas et al., 2015, six representative oxide nanomaterials provided by the EC-JRC Nanomaterials Repository were tested in nine laboratories. The *in vitro* toxicity of the nanomaterials was evaluated in 12 cellular models representing 6 different target organs/systems (immune system, respiratory system, gastrointestinal system, reproductive organs, kidney and embryonic tissues). The toxicity assessment was conducted using 10 different assays for cytotoxicity, embryotoxicity, epithelial integrity, cytokine secretion and oxidative stress. Thorough physico-chemical characterization was performed for all tested nanomaterials. Commercially relevant nanomaterials with different physico-chemical properties were selected: two pure rutile nanosize TiO₂ with different surface chemistry – hydrophilic (NM-103) and hydrophobic (NM-104) both coated with Al, two forms of ZnO – uncoated (NM-110) and coated with triethoxycapryl silane (NM-111) and two SiO₂ produced by two different manufacturing techniques – precipitated (NM-200) and pyrogenic (NM-203). The reactivity, solubility and biodurability of TiO₂ was tested in different media. Dissolution studies showed that TiO₂ is almost insoluble, whereas Al impurities, which may originate from external coating or from the NM themselves, were partially soluble. In addition, Si impurities were also detected. The authors conclude that the Al coatings may be unstable under *in vitro* conditions. The authors concluded that the results could not establish a consistent difference between the hazardous properties of the titanium dioxide NM-103 (hydrophilic) and NM-104 (hydrophobic) in any of the cell models adopted; cell specific toxicity effects of all NMs were observed; With regard to ZnO, coating of ZnO may influence the toxic however, contradictory results were obtained.

The hydrophilic/hydrophobic properties of a variety of commercial TiO₂ as nanoparticles, to be employed as inorganic filters in sunscreen lotions, were investigated both as such (dry powders) and dispersed in aqueous media (Bolis, 2012). The possible *in vitro* neuro-toxicological effect on dorsal root ganglion (DRG) cells upon exposure to TiO₂, as a function of crystal phase, surface area and coating was investigated in the study. All investigated materials, with the only exception of the uncoated rutile, were found to induce apoptosis on DRG cells; the inorganic/organic surface coating did not protect against the TiO₂-induced apoptosis. The risk profile for DRG cells, which varied for the uncoated samples in the same sequence as the photo-catalytic activity of the different polymorphs: anatase-rutile>anatase>>rutile, was not correlated with the surface hydrophilicity of the uncoated/coated specimens. Aggregates/agglomerates hydrodynamic diameter was comprised in the ~200-400 nm range, compatible with the internalization within DRG cells.

It is also reported in the SCCS report (2014) that appropriate coating of nanomaterial to quench surface photocatalytic activity can reduce the likelihood of generation of reactive oxygen species.

Since oxidative stress is involved in the carcinogenic potential of TiO₂, it could be expected that this response can be modulated by some coatings at an unknown level.

The data presented above show that coating can impact the toxicity of TiO₂ and that the inflammation response can differ between different forms although a clear pattern cannot be drawn from the existing data. Carcinogenicity was observed with both anatase and rutile titanium dioxide. Between these two crystal phases, ROS generation and pulmonary inflammation response differs. Indeed, the quantitative aspects of the inflammatory response that are sufficient to cause a high probability of lung tumor development are not known. Therefore, it is impossible to identify a threshold of inflammation below which carcinogenicity would not occur. It is also impossible to distinguish which coating, if any, will induce inflammation below this threshold.

Moreover, based on the data generated/collected in the registration dossier and in compliance with the Annex VII-XI information requirements, that all entities they consider as “titanium dioxide” are hazard equivalent, can be registered as one substance and have the same classification. They also considered that the impact of surface treatment on titanium dioxide particles irrespective of the specific surface area or the type of chemical treatment undertaken does not impact the properties relevant for hazard. Again taking this statement at face value, it implies that they have concluded that the hazard profile of titanium dioxide in any phase or phase combination, non-surface treated and surface treated for all specific surface areas are equivalent.

FR-MSCA therefore considers that coating is not a parameter to consider for classification.

Impact of the shape

TiO₂ can be in all possible crystal phases and their combinations, such as spheres, nanorods, nanowires, nanotubes, thin films or nanoporous structures.

From carcinogenicity studies by the respiratory route, it seems that all were carried out with the spherical form of TiO₂, even it was not clearly characterized in all the publications (Muhle, 1989; Thyssen, 1978; Xu, 2010; Yokohira, 2009). Therefore, the impact of shape on carcinogenicity cannot be clearly assessed from these studies.

Very few toxicological data, such as short or medium *in vivo* studies, are available with non-spherical TiO₂. Similar patterns of neutrophilia and pathology were found with two types of spheres (including P25) and one nanobelt after a single intra-tracheal or oropharyngeal aspiration in rodents (Bonner, 2013). A further study (Warheit (2006)) summarized in the NIOSH report showed a reversible increase in the percentage of polymorphonuclear leukocytes with two types of nanoscale TiO₂ rods, nanoscale TiO₂ dots and microscale rutile after an intra-tracheal administration in rats.

Shapes of TiO₂ could be divided in two main types, spherical and elongated-like shapes. It might be hypothesized that elongated-like shapes would have a similar behaviour to fibres. It is generally recognised that the main difference of carcinogenic mode of action between fibres and granular particles is that fibres can translocate to the pleura to induce malignant mesotheliomas while this mode of action is not reported with granular spherical particles. However, both fibres and granular

particles induced lung tumours with a similar mode of action consisting in a persistent inflammation due to an incomplete phagocytosis and a release of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species.

In conclusion, it seems that both spherical and non-spherical particles have the potential to induce lung tumours, secondary to a persistent inflammation. Non-spherical particles, translocating to the pleura, could induce additional tumours in this tissue.

It has been concluded based on the data generated/collected in the registration dossier and in compliance with the Annex VII-XI information requirements, that all entities they consider as “titanium dioxide” are hazard equivalent, can be registered as one substance and have the same classification. Taking this statement at face value, it implies that no combinations of phase, particle size and surface chemistry are considered to impact on properties relevant for the hazard profile and that all combinations of phase, particle size and surface chemistry can therefore be considered equivalent.

In summary, all forms of TiO₂ are susceptible to induce lung tumours, secondary to oxidative stress and chronic inflammation. Biopersistence and poor solubility are believed to be the most important factors in this toxicity. These parameters appear to be applicable to TiO₂ whatever its other physico-chemical properties. In this context, no separate evaluation has been done for this CLH report and the classification proposal covers all commercialized titanium dioxide in all phases and phase combinations; Particles in all sizes/morphologies .

Carcinogenic mode of action

- Inflammation and oxidative stress

Particle toxicology currently favors secondary genotoxicity as the major mechanism underlying tumor formation of TiO₂, *i.e.* indirect oxidative stress and chronic inflammation processes. Indeed, pulmonary inflammation was reported in several studies from single to chronic exposures. As a defense mechanism following TiO₂ inhalation, macrophages and neutrophils are recruited to clear the foreign material. Biopersistence and poor solubility of the particle are believed to be important factors in the efficiency of the clearance. Indeed, biopersistent particles of poor solubility, such as TiO₂, cannot be fully phagocytosed by the macrophages and thus accumulate in the lungs. In case of prolonged exposure, clearance capacity is thus overloaded leading to lung tissue damage and epithelial cell proliferation. Oxidative stress is considered as the underlying mechanism of proliferative responses to TiO₂: ROS are released by inflammatory cells and/or by particle reactive surfaces whether spontaneously or when interacting with cellular components; oxidants can thereafter damage lung epithelial tissue and also induce genetic damages. Some data suggest that the extent of inflammation varies with certain forms, with higher toxicity with nano versus fine forms and anatase versus rutile forms (Chen, 2006; Baggs, 1997; Warheit, 2007, Warheit, 2005). However, at this time, it is considered that there is not enough data to identify the most toxic form and those that are not. More important, even if different severities in term of inflammation and ROS release can be expected depending on the physico-chemical properties, it seems that all forms have a potential for lung carcinogenicity.

- **Genotoxicity**

Positive results were obtained in several *in vivo* and *in vitro* genotoxicity studies (genotoxicity data are summarised in Annex I).

Available studies greatly differ in terms of quality and in order to make a reliable assessment of the results, the following parameters were taken into account: sufficient characterization of the tested material, use of known or validated protocols reported with sufficient level of details, inclusion of negative and positive controls and evidence of uptake or cytotoxicity in case of negative results.

Considering these criteria: only 1/6 experiments (Comet assay) among the reliable *in vivo* studies was positive. Among the *in vitro* studies, 93/170 experiments (16/34 micronucleus tests, 76/125 Comet tests and 1/4 Chromosomal Aberrations tests) were positive. An experiment has been defined by one form of TiO₂ and a specific protocol (ex. cells, media, exposure-duration, standard or modified protocol...). Physico-chemical properties seems to have an impact on the response but the data provided cannot distinguish which specific characteristics might lead to such effect. Furthermore, the different test conditions used (cells/organs examined, route and duration of exposure, method of dispersion...) do not permit an easy comparison of the studies and a firm conclusion of the impact of such protocol among others. It was also noted that in many cases, the statistical test used was inappropriate and the interaction with the system was not correctly addressed.

From all these studies, a mechanism of action can be hypothesized even if a clear conclusion cannot be reached. Genotoxicity of TiO₂ is rather due to oxidative lesions, as observed by increase of oxidative DNA lesions measured whether directly (8-oxo-dG) or indirectly (using modified-Comet assays). Evidence for induction of oxidative stress was also observed by decrease of intracellular antioxidant defenses (such as SOD, GSH-Px), increase of lipid peroxidation, production of ROS or alteration of genes expression involved in stress responses from transcriptomic analyses. In addition, some accumulation of particles in nucleus cells was reported in few publications. Thus, even if the presence of particles in the nucleus, with quantitative data, are rarely evaluated in the publication, a primary genotoxic mechanism by direct particle interaction with DNA cannot be totally ruled out.

- **Mechanism of toxicity of biodurable granular particles**

Many inorganic particles equally insoluble and biopersistent are associated with increased risk of lung cancer. Particles (fine or ultrafine) are thought to impact on genotoxicity and cell proliferation by their abilities to generate reactive oxygen species. Several reviews have been published in which this carcinogenic mode of action has been described (Stone et al., 2007; Donaldson and Tran 2002; Driscoll et al. 1996, 1997; Green 2000; Knaapen et al. 1999, 2004, 2006; Lehnert 1993; Oberdörster 1988, 1994, 1995; Oberdörster et al. 1994 a, 2005, 2007; Nel et al., 2006; Vallyathan, 1998; ILSI, 2000, NIOSH, 2011). The term biodurable granular particules (GBP), low toxicity dusts, poorly soluble particles or poorly soluble low toxicity particles (PSLT) are used for these types of substances.

In the report of NIOSH (2011) on occupational exposure of titanium dioxide, pulmonary response of PSLT is discussed. The dose-response relationships for both the inflammation and tumorigenicity associated with TiO₂ exposure are consistent with those for other PSLT. Based on this evidence, NIOSH concluded that the adverse effects produced by TiO₂ exposure in the lungs are likely not

substance-specific, but may be due to a nonchemical-specific effect of PSLT particles in the lungs at sufficiently high particle surface area exposures. PSLT particles included titanium dioxide, toner, diesel exhaust particulate, carbon black, and to a lesser extent talc, coal dust and barium sulphate.

Roller (2009) considers that the EU criteria (67/548/EEC) for Carcinogenicity category 2 (ie Carc.1B based on regulation (EC) 1272/2008) appear to be fulfilled for bio-durable nanoparticles, including TiO₂, based on a clear positive evidence for the carcinogenicity of nano-GBP¹ in one species, together with supporting evidence such as genotoxicity data and structural relationship with substances that are regarded as carcinogens or for which data from epidemiological studies suggest an association.

German MAK commission has proposed recommendations for general threshold limit value and for carcinogen classification of granular bio-durable particles (GBP), which include titanium dioxide.

The following toxic effects and mechanism of action is proposed by the German MAK commission for the bio-durable particles: “Following inhalation, biopersistent granular dusts may accumulate in the lungs and cause impairment of lung clearance. Animal studies revealed inflammatory reactions, fibrosis and tumours in the lungs after repeated inhalation and intratracheal instillation of biopersistent granular dusts. Genotoxicity studies *in vitro* led to mainly negative results. In *in vivo* studies carried out with intratracheal instillation, titanium dioxide and carbon black induced mutations in pulmonary epithelial cells only at concentrations that also caused significant inflammatory reactions and epithelial hyperplasia in the lungs.”

A number of conclusions were drawn related to the establishment of cancer classification:

- GBP cause lung cancer in rats due to chronic inflammation as a result of dust overload in the alveolar region of the lung;
- If clearance mechanisms are not overwhelmed and, thus, inflammation is prevented, lung cancer risk will not be increased.
- The lung overload effect observed in rat inhalation studies is relevant for human risk assessment. Thus, a HEC (human equivalent concentration) exists that relates to the NOAEC, the maximum concentration that avoids lung overload in rats.
- All GBP are carcinogenic to humans with a threshold effect.

Interspecies comparison

Interspecies variations in experimental animals

Clear species differences in pulmonary clearance and lung lesions were observed after inhalation exposure to TiO₂ for 13 weeks (Bermudez et al., 2002, 2004). Although qualitatively similar early lung response was observed in rats, mice and hamster, pulmonary lesions were more severe and occurred at a lower concentration in rats and, only this species developed progressive fibro proliferative lesions and alveolar epithelial metaplasia.

In mice, impaired pulmonary clearance and inflammation with proliferative epithelial changes were reported, without metaplasia or fibrosis (Bermudez et al., 2002, 2004). This can be explained by the increase of antioxidant (glutathione) levels in lung tissue during particle exposure found in mice but

¹ GBP: respirable granular bio-durable particles without known significant specific toxicity

not in rats which can suggest that mice are less sensitive to oxidative damage (Oberdörster, 1995). Although no carcinogenicity study was performed with the same strain of mice (B3C3F1/Cr1BR) used in the Bermudez (2002) study, Heinrich (1995) did not report any lung tumour in NMRI mice. However, the high background tumour response in the control group might have limited the ability to detect any carcinogenic effects in this study. Finally, a comparison of the sensitivity of different strains of mice to TiO₂ was not possible since there is no information on non-neoplastic lesion and pulmonary clearance in the carcinogenicity study.

In hamsters, only little lung adverse effect was observed in the Bermudez (2002) study. This can be related to a well effective lung clearance system represented by a markedly lower retention half-time compared to that in rats and mice. Furthermore, hamsters have antioxidant protection mechanisms different from rats and humans (Driscoll et al., 2002), suggesting that this species is not adequate for testing particulate substances which may elicit inflammatory oxidative damage.

Finally, although no lung tumour was found in mice and hamsters, they are known to give false negatives to a greater extent than rats in bioassays for some particulates that have been classified by IARC as human carcinogens (limited or sufficient evidence), including crystalline silica and nickel subsulfide. The lung tumour response to other known human particulate carcinogens (such as tobacco smoke, asbestos, diesel exhaust...) is significantly less in mice than in rats. Therefore, the risk of several known human particulate carcinogens would be underestimated by using dose-response data & hazard properties from rodent models other than rats.

Extrapolation to humans

The relevance of rat model predicting human response to inhaled particles is the subject of controversial discussion. A comparison of lung tumor types in rats and humans and the relevance of rat model in risk assessment are well described by the NIOSH (2011):

First concerning comparison of human and rat lung structure, some differences in the small airways were presented (e.g. lack of well-defined respiratory bronchioles in rats); however, this region of the lungs is the primary site of particle deposition in both species, and particles that deposit in this region can translocate into the *interstitium* where they can elicit inflammatory and fibrotic response. Furthermore, humans and rats display some consistency in response to dust exposure: inflammatory reaction with fibrosis at high concentrations. Some variability in terms of severity of response can nevertheless be found between humans and rats. For example, centriacinar fibrotic response was more severe in humans exposed to silica or coal dust compared to rats exposed to the same dust; on the contrary, rats showed more severe intra-alveolar acute inflammation, lipoproteinosis and alveolar epithelial hyperplasia response than humans when they were chronically exposed to silica, talc or coal dust. However, quantitative comparison between rats and humans is not possible since exposure duration and concentrations and confounding factors were often poorly reported in human studies.

Lung tumours observed after TiO₂ inhalation in rats occurred in an overload context. Lung overload consists on a failure of the lung clearance associated with increase of particle lung burden and possible translocation to the interstitium and lymph nodes. The observed altered particle

accumulation/retention and chronic inflammation can indicate that the maximum tolerated dose has been exceeded. Although lung overload was observed after TiO₂ inhalation in rats and mice, this was not found in hamsters. Furthermore, different patterns of particle retention have been observed in rats, monkeys and humans when exposed to coal dust or diesel exhaust particles, with higher volume percentage in the alveolar lumen in rats and in the interstitium in monkeys and humans. In addition, particle deposition in humans is not uniform with hot-spots, containing high deposition of particles, at bifurcations in the terminal airways. Interestingly, the localization of human lung tumours in this region is rather high. This can suggest that local overload may occur in humans at concentrations lower than those inducing a generalized overload in the lung. Case studies in workers exposed to TiO₂ showed that TiO₂ persist in the lungs with extensive pulmonary deposition even after workplace exposure to TiO₂ had ceased. Furthermore, it has been shown that lung clearance of particles is slower in humans than in rats, by approximately an order of magnitude and some humans, in particular workers, may be exposed to concentrations resulting in doses that would overload particle clearance. For example, lung overload condition had been clearly reached in coal workers exposed to high concentrations of airborne particles; this finding being thus consistent with what has been found in experimental animals (Oberdörster, 1995). In addition, lung overload after TiO₂ inhalation is characterized among other by lipoproteinosis, fibrosis and metaplasia in rats. Although these effects were not observed in mice and hamsters (Bermudez (2002) study), these lesions have been reported in humans exposed to TiO₂. In conclusion, it appears that lung retention and chronic pulmonary inflammation are more consistent with the findings in rats than in mice and hamsters. Thus, the overload concept seems to be also relevant for humans, and in particular for workers exposed to high dust exposure.

Controversy exists over the biological significance of cystic keratinizing squamous cell tumours, which developed in response to chronic inhalation of diverse particulate materials, and their relevance to humans. In fact, this type of lesion appears to be a unique rat tumour occurring under exaggerated exposure conditions, with a possible trend to gender specificity, since it is found at a higher incidence in females. These lesions have not been reported in the literature in mice or hamsters exposed to dust under similar conditions and have not usually been seen in humans. A workshop with different pathologists took place in USA in 1992 in order to obtain a consensus on a suitable descriptive diagnostic term for cystic keratinizing pulmonary lesions by TiO₂. Participants all agreed that the lesions were not malignant neoplasms. Although most considered this lesion as not neoplastic, 3/13 considered it as probably benign tumour. The workshop members preferred the term "proliferative keratin cyst" (Carlton, 1994). In contrast, Kittel et al (1993) concluded that keratinizing cystic squamous cell lesions of the lung (review of 691 cases from 6 studies) are true neoplasms and that the growth pattern of these cystic lesions is inconsistent with that of a simple cyst. In a further international workshop in Germany, there was an agreement that the cystic keratinizing lesions were looked upon a family of related morphological changes ranging from squamous metaplasia with marked keratinization through pulmonary keratinizing cysts to cystic keratinizing epithelioma and finally pulmonary squamous cell carcinoma (Boorman, 1996). This opinion was further supported by Rittinghausen et al (1997) who concluded that cystic keratinizing epitheliomas are not necessarily an endpoint of development, but may progress to (cystic keratinizing) squamous cell carcinomas. In summary, at this time, the relevance of these tumors to man remain unclear. However, other types of tumours (adenomas, adenocarcinomas, squamous cell

carcinomas) found in rats exposed to TiO₂ do occur in humans. Indeed, in humans, the major cell types of lung cancer worldwide are adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinomas (also seen in rats) and small- and large-cell anaplastic carcinomas (not seen in rats). If smoking-related tumour types were eliminated, then the major lung tumour types in humans would be adenocarcinomas and bronchioalveolar carcinomas, which correspond closely to the types of lung tumours occurring in rodents after TiO₂ exposure.

Although not fully understood, the hypothesized carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ seems to be mainly due to secondary genotoxicity, i.e. indirect oxidative stress and chronic inflammation. In humans, chronic inflammation has also been associated with non-neoplastic lung diseases in workers with dusty jobs and can increase the risk of lung cancers. Furthermore, a direct genotoxic mechanism, with a direct interaction between DNA and TiO₂, cannot be ruled out in particular for nanoscale TiO₂, since particles were observed in cells, including nucleus. Therefore, there is no reason to consider that such mechanisms of action are not relevant to humans.

Expert advisory panels have concluded that chronic inhalation studies in rats are the most appropriate tests for predicting the inhalation hazard and risk of fibers to humans. In absence of mechanistic data to the contrary, the rat model is adequate to identify potential carcinogenic hazards of poorly soluble particles to humans, such as TiO₂.

Assessment by scientific and regulatory bodies

The toxicological profile, and in particular carcinogenic potential, of TiO₂ was reviewed by several scientific and regulatory bodies.

In 2006, *the IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer)* evaluated carcinogenic risks to humans related to TiO₂ exposure (monograph published in 2010). The IARC assessment was based on epidemiological studies (3 epidemiological cohort studies and one population-based case-control study from North America and western Europe) and on experimental carcinogenicity studies in rats, mice and hamsters by different routes of exposure (oral, inhalation, intratracheal, subcutaneous and intraperitoneal administrations). Briefly, following IARC, human carcinogenicity data do not suggest an association between occupational exposure to TiO₂ and risk for cancer. All the studies had methodological limitations and misclassification of exposure could not be ruled out. None of the studies was designed to assess the impact of particle size (fine or ultrafine) or the potential effect of the coating compounds on the risk of lung cancer. Regarding animal carcinogenicity data, the incidence of benign and malignant lung tumours was increased in female rats in one inhalation study while in another inhalation study, the incidence of benign lung tumours was increased in the high-dose groups of male and female rats. Cystic keratinizing lesions that were diagnosed as squamous-cell carcinomas but re-evaluated as non-neoplastic pulmonary keratinizing cysts were also observed in the high-dose groups of female rats. Furthermore, intratracheally instilled female rats showed an increased incidence of both benign and malignant lung tumours following treatment with two types of TiO₂. In contrast, tumour incidence was not increased in intratracheally instilled hamsters and female mice, and two inhalation studies (one in male and female rats and one in female mice) gave negative results. Moreover, oral, subcutaneous and intraperitoneal administrations did not produce a significant increase in the frequency of any type of tumour in

mice or rats. The IARC concluded that TiO₂ should be classified as possibly carcinogenic to humans (Group 2B). The classification results from the fact that, although there is a clear indication of carcinogenic potential in animal tests, the epidemiological data situation is inadequate. It should be noted that the IARC classification does not differentiate between ultrafine particles (nano-TiO₂) and fine TiO₂ particles.

In 2008, *the German MAK Commission* for the Investigation of Health Hazards of Chemical Compounds in the Work Area provisionally classified TiO₂ as a Category 3A carcinogenic substance i.e. a carcinogenic mode of action is known, but there is insufficient data to establish a maximum workplace concentration value because a benchmark dose or a NOAEC could not be derived from the existing animal experiments. However, the current MAK classification procedure does not take ultrafine particles (i.e. nanoparticles) into account in its assessment (Becker et al., 2011). The proposed mechanism of action for tumour formation is a primarily non-genotoxic mechanism consisting on pulmonary inflammation characterized by the increased infiltration of macrophages, granulocytes and, to a limited extent, lymphocytes. The phagocytes absorb titanium dioxide particles and try to degrade the particles with reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. The intensive production and release of these species damages the genomic DNA of the immediately adjacent cells, including the DNA of Type II alveolar epithelial cells, precursor cells in lung tumours. The accumulation of genetic changes results in alveolar hyperplasia and metaplasia of type II cells which are precursor stages of lung tumours.

In 2009, *Tsuda* published a mini-review of carcinogenic potential of engineered nanomaterials and concluded that nanoparticles, including TiO₂, are clearly potentially toxic/carcinogenic to humans based on the increased lung tumours found in female rats. Direct production of ROS by TiO₂ or production of ROS by macrophages to destroy the foreign material in the inflammation is proposed as a possible mechanism of action. The same year, as summaries below, *Roller (2009)* considers that the EU criteria (67/548/EEC) for Carcinogenicity category 2 appear to be fulfilled for bio-durable nanoparticles, including TiO₂, based on a clear positive evidence for the carcinogenicity of nano-GBP in one species, together with supporting evidence such as genotoxicity data and structural relationship with substances that are regarded as carcinogens or for which data from epidemiological studies suggest an association.

A critical review by a working group of the German Federal Environment Agency and the German Federal Institute for Risk Assessment on the carcinogenic potential of nanomaterials, including TiO₂, has been summarized by *Becker et al (2011)*. It was concluded that inhalation studies in rats point a possible carcinogenic potential of nano-TiO₂ at high concentration but epidemiological studies are inconclusive. The hypothesized mode of action behind tumour formation favours secondary genotoxicity i.e. oxidative stress and chronic inflammation processes. However, a primary genotoxic mechanism by direct particle interaction with DNA cannot be ruled out. The small size of the nanoparticles and their ability to reach intracellular structures including the nucleus, point to this possibility. Concerning interspecies comparison, extrapolation of results from inhalation and instillation studies in rats to humans is still subject of controversial discussion. Indeed, it appears that overload concept holds true for rats and to a lesser extent for mice, but not for hamsters. Hamsters have antioxidant protection mechanisms different from rats and humans and

this physiological characteristic does not favour the use of hamsters for testing particulate substances which may elicit inflammatory oxidative damage. Finally, for regulatory purposes, data from the most sensitive animal species will be used for hazard assessment, provided no adequate argument for making an exception to this rule exists.

In 2011, *the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)* reviewed the animals and human data relevant to assessing carcinogenicity of TiO₂. TiO₂ particles of fine and ultrafine sizes show a consistent dose-response relationship for adverse pulmonary responses in rats, including persistent pulmonary inflammation and lung tumours, when dose is expressed as particle surface area. NIOSH concluded that TiO₂ is not a direct-acting carcinogen, but acts through a secondary genotoxicity mechanism. The toxicity may not be material-specific but appear to be due to a generic effect of poorly soluble, low-toxicity particles in the lungs at sufficiently high exposure. It was concluded that there are insufficient data at this time to classify fine TiO₂ as a potential occupational carcinogen since the tumorigenic dose (250 mg/m³) was significantly higher than currently accepted inhalation toxicology practice. Although data on the cancer hazard for fine TiO₂ are insufficient, the tumour-response data are consistent with that observed for ultrafine TiO₂ when converted to a particle surface area metric. Thus to be cautious, NIOSH used all of the animal tumour response data when conducting dose-response modelling and determining separate RELs for ultrafine and fine TiO₂. Finally, NIOSH is concerned about the potential carcinogenicity of ultrafine and engineered nanoscale TiO₂ if workers are exposed at the current mass-based exposure limits for respirable or total mass fractions of TiO₂.

A review of toxicological data on TiO₂ nanoparticles was published in 2013 by *Shi et al* that reaches similar conclusion as described above with carcinogenic effect in animals not confirmed by epidemiological studies. Although the mechanism is not well understood, both genetic and non-genetic factors elicited by TiO₂-NP in cells may predispose to carcinogenicity. In summary, it was concluded that there is still much remaining to elucidate. For this, a better characterization of tested materials in future studies, long-term animal studies, toxicokinetics studies and further investigations on molecular mechanisms underlying cancer occurrence are needed.

In 2014, the *Scientific Committee on Consumer Safety (SCCS)* published a revised opinion on TiO₂ (nano form). Concerning genotoxicity, the SCCS considers that the current evidence in relation to potential genotoxicity of TiO₂ nanomaterials is not conclusive since some TiO₂ nanoparticles have been shown to be able to damage DNA and should be considered genotoxic but negative results have also been reported. For carcinogenicity, they concluded that TiO₂ particles have shown to lead to carcinogenic effects after inhalation based on a two-stage rat lung carcinogenicity study showing a promotor activity of non-coated TiO₂ after intra-pulmonary spraying. Based on these results, the SCCS does not recommend the use of nano-TiO₂ in sprayable applications.

In conclusion, scientific and regulatory bodies have also considered TiO₂ as a possible carcinogen to human when inhaled.

4.1.5 Comparison with criteria

For this CLH report, data on TiO₂, whatever its morphologies, crystal phase and surface treatment, were taken into account. Based on the analysed dataset, it is concluded that criteria for classification as Carc. 1B – H350i for TiO₂ by inhalation are fulfilled.

A substance is classified in Category 1A for carcinogenicity if the substance is known to have carcinogenic potential for humans, mainly based on human evidence.

Available human data on the effects of titanium dioxide are rare, exposure was generally indirect, with possible co-exposure to other nanoparticles. The studies were not conclusive and had weaknesses. Human data are therefore insufficient to classify titanium dioxide as Carc. 1A.

Category 1B is applicable to substances presumed to have carcinogenic potential for humans, based largely on animal evidence.

No carcinogenic effect was reported after oral administration of TiO₂, even if no firm conclusion can be made for rats in one of the two available studies. After dermal administration, TiO₂ has no promoter potential in mice. Limited absorption was reported, although some studies indicated that TiO₂ can accumulate slightly in organs after oral administration and can enter the hair follicles and sweat glands after dermal application. Furthermore, it cannot be excluded that some forms of TiO₂ could be better absorbed, in particular with specific coating and/or size. However, considering the hypothesized carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ requiring a sufficient accumulation of particles, the low absorption of the TiO₂ might explain the lack of systemic carcinogenic effect reported in the available studies by oral and dermal routes. Would a specific form of TiO₂ be so easily absorbed via dermal or oral route that it would significantly accumulate, its carcinogenic potential via these routes should be questioned.

Although no definitive conclusion can be drawn about the carcinogenic effect after inhalation of TiO₂ based on human data, lung tumours were reported in 2 inhalation studies in animals, with fine rutile TiO₂ (Lee, 1985) and nano anatase/rutile P25 TiO₂ (Heinrich, 1995), respectively. In the Lee (1985) study, performed with a protocol similar to OECD guideline, increase of bronchioalveolar adenoma was reported in both sexes. In the Heinrich (1995) study, the tumours consisted in bronchioalveolar adenoma, bronchioalveolar adenocarcinoma, cystic keratinizing squamous cell tumours and squamous cell carcinoma. This study is of lower quality since it was performed in females only and with a unique concentration level varying during the experiment. However, since the effects are consistent with those of the other studies, they are considered relevant. Indeed, similar types of lung tumours were reported by Pott (2005) after intra-tracheal administration of fine anatase TiO₂ and nano anatase/rutile P25 TiO₂. A further study (Xu, 2010) reported a carcinogenic promoter potential (increased multiplicity of lung adenomas and mammary adenocarcinomas) of nano-TiO₂ (rutile type, 20 nm) administrated by IPS in transgenic Hras 128 female rats initiated with DHPN. However, this effect needs to be taken with caution since there is only little experience with this model.

The IARC Working Group concluded that there was **sufficient evidence that TiO₂ is carcinogenic in experimental animals based on a similar dataset (except Xu (2010)) (IARC, 2006)**. It should

be noted that, although it cannot be directly transposable, there is a strong link between CLP and the IARC classification criteria since the definition of sufficient and limited evidence are part of the CLP criteria (guidance on the Application of the CLP criteria (version 4.1 – June 2015)).

Benign and malignant lung tumours were reported in different studies. The malignant responses were observed in a single species and a single sex (Heinrich, 1995; Pott, 2005; Xu, 2010). Indeed, bronchioalveolar adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma were only observed in female rats. Nevertheless, it should be noted that only females were tested in Heinrich (1995), Pott (2005) and Xu (2010) studies. In contrast, only benign tumours (bronchioalveolar adenomas) were found in both sexes in Lee (1985) study when considering the re-evaluation by Warheit (2006). However, considering the type of lung tumours reported and the hypothesized mode of action, a sex-specificity is not expected. Furthermore, although difference in sensitivity to oxidative damage and/or in clearance efficient may explain species differences, it is noted that only one study (Heinrich, 1995) assessed carcinogenic effect of TiO₂ (nano anatase/rutile P25) in mice but the high background tumour response in the control group might have limited the ability to detect any carcinogenic effects in this study.

Relevance of these tumours to humans needs to be assessed in order to conclude on the need for classification. First, lung tumours observed after TiO₂ inhalation in rats occurred in an overload context, which could suggest that the maximum tolerated dose has been exceeded. Although inter-species variability was found in particle retention, the overload concept seems to be relevant for humans (in particular for workers exposed to high dust exposure) since it appears that lung retention and chronic pulmonary inflammation in humans are consistent with the findings in rats.

Controversy exists over the biological significance of cystic keratinizing squamous cell tumour because this type of lesion appears to be a unique rat tumour occurring under exaggerated exposure conditions and has not usually been seen in humans. Several workshops have discussed the definition of cystic keratinizing pulmonary lesions, which were in the end seen as a family of related morphological changes ranging from squamous metaplasia with marked keratinization through pulmonary keratinizing cysts to cystic keratinizing epithelioma and finally pulmonary squamous cell carcinoma. In conclusion, although at this time, the relevance of keratinizing cystic tumour to humans remains unclear; other types of tumours (bronchioalveolar adenomas or adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas) found in rats exposed to TiO₂ do occur in humans.

Finally, the hypothesized carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ seems to be mainly due to secondary genotoxicity based on inflammation and induction of oxidative lesions reported in repeated-dose toxicity studies and/or in genotoxicity studies. However, a direct genotoxic mechanism, with interaction between DNA and TiO₂, cannot be ruled out since particles were found to accumulate in cell nuclei. Therefore, there is no sufficient justification not to consider the carcinogenic effects and the underlying mode of action as not relevant to humans.

In summary, no carcinogenic concern was reported by both oral and dermal routes but there is sufficient evidence of carcinogenicity in experimental animals after inhalation. Indeed, a causal relationship has been established between TiO₂ and the increase of malignant lung tumours in

female rats and benign lung tumours in males and female rats in 2 inhalation and 2 instillation studies.

It is proposed to classify TiO₂ specifically by inhalation: Carc Cat 1B- H350i. The specification of the route of exposure was based on the following considerations:

- Only local tumours were reported after inhalation exposure;
- No carcinogenic concern after oral and dermal administrations was identified for the tested forms;
- A low absorption is expected by oral and dermal routes. Since the hypothesized mode of action of TiO₂ is mainly due to inflammatory processes, it is considered that sufficient concentration of particles in a tissue is required to reach a failure of clearance mechanisms and thus proliferative lesions. Although it cannot be excluded that some forms of TiO₂ could be better absorbed than others, no significant accumulation of TiO₂ is expected. Therefore, it is considered that exposure to TiO₂ by oral or dermal routes would not lead to sufficient accumulation of particles to induce a carcinogenic effect.

TiO₂ was not proposed to be placed in Category 2 since malignant tumours were reported in more than one experiment of adequate quality. These malignant findings are only found in rats, the unique tested species. It is also recognised that other rodent species would be less sensitive for the hypothesized mode of action leading to an underestimation of carcinogenicity.

Since TiO₂ exists under several forms (characterized by morphology, crystallinity, surface treatment), the impact of the physico-chemical properties on carcinogenic potential was assessed. Nevertheless, the data available (exclusively from scientific literature) is limited to only few forms (different crystal forms and morphologies, non surface-treated). From some studies, it can be suggested that the nano-form is more “reactive” (biologically active) than the micro-form since carcinogenic effects appears at a lower concentrations with nano-forms. However, the mass concentration used may not be the best metrics for nanoparticles and a direct comparison of concentrations at which the tumours occurred may not be appropriate to conclude that ultrafine TiO₂ is more toxic than fine TiO₂. Furthermore, since the types of tumours reported after inhalation or instillation of fine and ultrafine TiO₂ were the same (bronchioalveolar adenomas/adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas), it supports the conclusion that carcinogenicity is not nano-specific. Concerning crystallinity, it cannot be concluded that these properties have a significant impact on the carcinogenicity potential of TiO₂ since carcinogenic effects were reported with TiO₂ of rutile, mix anatase/rutile and anatase phases. Regarding impact of the coating, only one intra-tracheal study assessed carcinogenicity effect of a coated-TiO₂. In this study, the administration of the substance led to a high acute toxicity and only few animals survived at the end of the experiment. Thus, the results are not easily interpretable. However, acute and repeated dose toxicity studies showed that different coated-TiO₂ induced inflammatory response after respiratory exposure. Considering that the hypothesized carcinogenic mode of action of TiO₂ seems to be mainly due to secondary genotoxicity based on inflammation and induction of oxidative lesions, it can be hypothesis that coated forms also have a potential to produce lung tumours by this way. Finally, TiO₂ can be formulated under different shapes, in particular spherical and non-spherical particles. No carcinogenicity study is available on non-spherical TiO₂ but it can be

hypothesized that these forms can have a similar carcinogenic behaviour as fibres. It is generally recognised that the main difference of carcinogenic mode of action between fibres and granular particles is that fibres can translocate to the pleura to induce malignant mesotheliomas although it was not reported with granular particles. However, both fibres and granular particles induced lung tumours with a similar mode of action consisting in a persistent inflammation due to an incomplete phagocytosis and a release of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. In conclusion, no significant impact of size, crystallinity, coating and shape on carcinogenicity can be identified from the available studies. In contrast, it is believed that the biopersistence and poor solubility of TiO₂ is rather more relevant than the other physico-chemical parameters to explain carcinogenic potential of TiO₂. In this context, no separate evaluation has been done for the carcinogenicity endpoint and the classification proposal covers all the existing forms of TiO₂.

It is also known that there are other substances with this specific property of behaving like GBP which result in the same type of lung effects with this mode of action. Biopersistent granular dusts elicited neoplasms in rats are considered relevant for humans.

Different specific considerations are required in order to conclude on the level of concern and the classification category, such as the occurrence of benign and/or malignant tumours in one or several sites, response in one of both sexes of one or more species, mode of action and relevance to humans.

Even if only some compositions without treatment of titanium dioxide have been tested for carcinogenicity, a classification as Carcinogen Category 2 for the other crystal forms, morphologies and surface treatment might underestimate the hazard since the proposed mode of action is mediated by inflammation is also considered relevant to all the forms including in the scope of the dossier.

4.1.6 Conclusions on classification and labelling

TiO₂ should be considered as being potentially carcinogenic to humans when inhaled and thus be classified Carc. Cat 1B – H350i. This classification applied for both fine particles and nanomaterials of TiO₂ without being able of any distinction in terms of morphology, crystal phase, and surface treatment.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL HAZARD ASSESSMENT OTHER INFORMATION

Not assessed.

6 OTHER INFORMATION

7 REFERENCES

- Adachi S, Kawamura K, Takemoto K. A trial on the quantitative risk assessment of man-made mineral fibers by the rat intraperitoneal administration assay using the JFM standard fibrous samples. *Ind Health*. 2001 Apr;39(2):168-74.
- Baan RA. Carcinogenic Hazards from Inhaled Carbon Black, Titanium Dioxide, and Talc not Containing Asbestos or Asbestiform Fibers: Recent Evaluations by an IARC Monographs Working Group. *Inhal Toxicol*. 2007; 19 Suppl 1:213-28.
- Baggs R.B, Ferin J, Oberdörster G. Regression of pulmonary lesions produced by inhaled titanium dioxide in rats. *Vet Pathol* 1997; 34(6): 592-7.
- Barillet S., Simon-Deckers A., Herlin-Boime N., Mayne-L'Hermite M., Reynaud C., Cassio D., Gouget B., Carrière M. Toxicological consequences of TiO₂, SiC nanoparticles and multi-walled carbon nanotubes exposure in several mammalian cell types: an in vitro study. *J Nanopart Res*. 2010; 12(1): 61-73.
- Becker H, Herzberg F, Schulte A, Kolossa-Gehring M. The carcinogenic potential of nanomaterials, their release from products and options for regulating them. *Int J Hyg Environ Health*. 2011 Jun; 214(3):231-8.
- Bermudez E, Mangum J.B, Asgharian B, Wrong B. A, Reverdy E.E, Janszen D.B, Hext P.M, Warheit D.B, Everitt J.I. Long-term pulmonary responses of three laboratory rodent species to subchronic inhalation of pigmentary titanium dioxide particles. *Toxicological Sciences*. 2002; 70(1): 86-97.
- Bermudez E, Mangum J.B, Wrong B, Asgharian A B, Hext P.M, Warheit D.B, Everitt J.I. Pulmonary responses of mice, rats and hamsters to subchronic inhalation of ultrafine titanium dioxide particles. *Toxicological Sciences*. 2004; 77(2): 347-57.
- Bernard BK, Osheroff MR, Hofmann A, Mennear JH. Toxicology and carcinogenesis studies of dietary titanium dioxide-coated mica in male and female Fischer 344 rats. *J Toxicol Environ Health*. 1990; 29(4):417-29.
- Bischoff F, Bryson G. Tissue reaction to and fate of parenterally administered titanium dioxide. I. The intraperitoneal site in male Marsh-Buffalo mice. *Res Commun Chem Pathol Pharmacol*. 1982 Nov;38(2):279-90.
- Boffetta P, Gaborieau V, Nadon L, Parent MF, Weiderpass E, Siemiatycki J. Exposure to titanium dioxide and risk of lung cancer in a population-based study from Montreal. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2001 Aug; 27(4):227-32.
- Boffetta P, Soutar A, Cherrie JW, Granath F, Andersen A, Anttila A, Blettner M, Gaborieau V, Klug SJ, Langard S, Luce D, Merletti F, Miller B, Mirabelli D, Pukkala E, Adami HO, Weiderpass E. Mortality among workers employed in the titanium dioxide production industry in Europe. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2004 Sep; 15(7):697-706.
- Boisen AM, Shipley T, Jackson P, Hougaard KS, Wallin H, Yauk CL, Vogel U. NanoTiO₂ (UV-Titan) does not induce ESTR mutations in the germline of prenatally exposed female mice. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2012 Jun 1;9:19.

Bolis V, Busco C, Ciarletta M, Distasi C, Erriquez J, Fenoglio I, Livraghi S, Morel S. Hydrophilic/hydrophobic features of TiO₂ nanoparticles as a function of crystal phase, surface area and coating, in relation to their potential toxicity in peripheral nervous system. *J Colloid Interface Sci.* 2012 Mar 1;369(1):28-39.

Bonner JC, Silva RM, Taylor AJ, Brown JM, Hilderbrand SC, Castranova V, Porter D, Elder A, Oberdörster G, Harkema JR, Bramble LA, Kavanagh TJ, Botta D, Nel A, Pinkerton KE. Interlaboratory Evaluation of Rodent Pulmonary Responses to Engineered Nanomaterials: The NIEHS Nano GO Consortium. *Environmental Health Perspectives.* 2013 Jun; 121(6): 676-82

Boorman GA, Brockmann M, Carlton WW, Davis JM, Dungworth DL, Hahn FF, Mohr U, Reichhelm HB, Turusov VS, Wagner BM. Classification of cystic keratinizing squamous lesions of the rat lung: report of a workshop. *Toxicol Pathol.* 1996 Sep-Oct; 24(5):564-72.

Borm, P.J.A., Schins, R.P.F., Albrecht, C.. Inhaled particles and lung cancer. Part B: Paradigms and risk assessment. *Int. J. Cancer.* 2004 May 20; 110(1): 3–14.

Botelho MC, Costa C, Silva S, Costa S, Dhawan A, Oliveira PA, Teixeira JP. Effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles in human gastric epithelial cells *in vitro*. *Biomed Pharmacother.* 2014 Feb; 68(1):59-64.

Browning CL, The T, Mason MD, Wise JP. Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles are not Cytotoxic or Clastogenic in Human Skin Cells. *Environ Anal Toxicol* 2014, 4:6.

Brun E, Barreau F, Veronesi G, Fayard B, Sorieul S, Chanéac C, Carapito C, Rabilloud T, Mabondzo A, Herlin-Boime N, Carrière M. Titanium dioxide nanoparticle impact and translocation through *ex vivo*, *in vivo* and *in vitro* gut epithelia. *Part Fibre Toxicol.* 2014 Mar 25;11:13.

Carlton WW. "Proliferative keratin cyst," a lesion in the lungs of rats following chronic exposure to para-aramid fibrils. *Fundam Appl Toxicol.* 1994 Aug; 23(2):304-7.

Carmona ER, Escobar B, Vales G, Marcos R. Genotoxic testing of titanium dioxide anatase nanoparticles using the wing-spot test and the comet assay in *Drosophila*. *Mutat Res Genet Toxicol Environ Mutagen.* 2015 Jan 15;778:12-21

Catalán J, Järventaus H, Vippola M, Savolainen K, Norppa H. Induction of chromosomal aberrations by carbon nanotubes and titanium dioxide nanoparticles in human lymphocytes *in vitro*. *Nanotoxicology* 2012 Dec; 6:825-36.

Chen JL, Fayerweather WE. Epidemiologic study of workers exposed to titanium dioxide. *J Occup Med.* 1988 Dec; 30(12):937-42

Chen Z, Wang Y, Ba T, Li Y, Pu J, Chen T, Song Y, Gu Y, Qian Q, Yang J, Jia G. Genotoxic evaluation of titanium dioxide nanoparticles *in vivo* and *in vitro*. *Toxicol Lett.* 2014; 226(3):314-9.

Chen T, Yan J, Li Y. Review Genotoxicity of titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *J Food Drug Anal.* 2014;22(1):95-104.

Chen HW, Su SF, Chien CT, Lin WH, Yu SL, Chou CC, Chen JJ, Yang PC. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles induce emphysema-like lung injury in mice. *FASEB J.* 2006 Nov; 20(13):2393-5.

Cho WS, Kang BC, Lee JK, Jeong J, Che JH, Seok SH. Comparative absorption, distribution, and excretion of titanium dioxide and zinc oxide nanoparticles after repeated oral administration. Part Fibre Toxicol. 2013 Mar 26;10:9.

Corradi S, Gonzalez L, Thomassen LC, Bilaničová D, Birkedal RK, Pojana G, Marcomini A, Jensen KA, Leyns L, Kirsch-Volders M. Influence of serum on *in situ* proliferation and genotoxicity in A549 human lung cells exposed to nanomaterials. Mutat Res. 2012 Jun 14; 745(1-2):21-7.

Creutzenberg O, Pohlmann G, Hansen T, Rittinghausen S, Taugner F, Ziemann C. Nano- and microscaled titanium dioxide: Comparative study on the inflammatory and genotoxic effects after a 3-week inhalation in rats. Toxicology Letters 2009, 189, Supplement Abstracts of the 46th Congress of the European Societies of Toxicology, Pages S182.

Cui Y, Chen X, Zhou Z, Lei Y, Ma M, Cao R, Sun T, Xu J, Huo M, Cao R, Wen C, Che Y. Prenatal exposure to nanoparticulate titanium dioxide enhances depressive-like behaviors in adult rats. Chemosphere. 2014 Feb; 96:99-104.

Demir E, Akça H, Turna F, Aksakal S, Burgucu D, Kaya B, Tokgün O, Vales G, Creus A, Marcos R. Genotoxic and cell-transforming effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles. Environ Res. 2015 Jan; 136:300-8.

Demir E, Turna F, Vales G, Kaya B, Creus A, Marcos R. In vivo genotoxicity assessment of titanium, zirconium and aluminium nanoparticles, and their microparticulated forms, in *Drosophila*. Chemosphere. 2013;93(10):2304-10.

Demir E, Burgucu D, Turna F, Aksakal S, Kaya B. Determination of TiO₂, ZrO₂, and Al₂O₃ nanoparticles on genotoxic responses in human peripheral blood lymphocytes and cultured embryonic kidney cells. J Toxicol Environ Health A. 2013; 76(16):990-1002.

Di Virgilio AL, Reigosa M, Arnal PM, Fernández Lorenzo de Mele M. Comparative study of the cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of titanium oxide and aluminium oxide nanoparticles in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1) cells. J Hazard Mater. 2010 May 15; 177(1-3):711-8.

Doak SH, Manshian B, Jenkins GJ, Singh N. *In vitro* genotoxicity testing strategy for nanomaterials and the adaptation of current OECD guidelines. Mutat Res. 2012; 745(1-2):104-11.

Dobrzyńska MM, Gajowik A, Radzikowska J, Lankoff A, Dušínská M, Kruszewski M. Genotoxicity of silver and titanium dioxide nanoparticles in bone marrow cells of rats *in vivo*. Toxicology. 2014 Jan 6 ;315:86-91.

Donaldson K, Tran CL. Inflammation caused by particles and fibers. 2002; Inhal Toxicol 14: 5–27

Driscoll KE, Carter JM, Howard BW, Hassenbein DG, Pepelko W, Baggs RB, Oberdörster G (1996) Pulmonary inflammatory, chemokine, and mutagenic responses in rats after subchronic inhalation of carbon black. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 136: 372–380

Driscoll KE, Deyo LC, Carter JM, Howard BW, Hassenbein DG, Bertram TA. Effects of particle exposure and particle-elicited inflammatory cells on mutation in rat alveolar epithelial cells. Carcinogenesis 1997 Feb; 18(2):423–30.

ECHA website – registration data (07/08/2015) -

<http://apps.echa.europa.eu/registered/data/dossiers/DISS-9eaff323-014a-482f-e044-00144f67d031/DISS-9eaff323-014a-482f-e044-00144f67d031 DISS-9eaff323-014a-482f-e044-00144f67d031.html>

El-Ghor A, Noshay MM, Galal A, Mohamed HR. Normalization of nano-sized TiO₂-induced clastogenicity, genotoxicity and mutagenicity by chlorophyllin administration in mice brain, liver, and bone marrow cells. *Toxicol Sci.* 2014 Nov; 142(1):21-32.

Everitt JI, Mangum JB, Bermudez E, Wong BA, Asgharian B, Reverdy EE. Comparison of selected pulmonary responses of rats, mice and Syrian Golden hamsters to inhaled pigmentary titanium dioxide. *Inhalation Toxicology.* 2000; 12 (supplement 3): 275-82.

Farcas L, Torres Andón F, Di Cristo L, Rotoli BM, Bussolati O, Bergamaschi E, Mech A, Hartmann NB, Rasmussen K, Riego-Sintes J, Ponti J, Kinsner-Ovaskainen A, Rossi F, Oomen A, Bos P, Chen R, Bai R, Chen C, Rocks L, Fulton N, Ross B, Hutchison G, Tran L, Mues S, Ossig R, Schnekenburger J, Campagnolo L, Vecchione L, Pietroiusti A, Fadeel. Comprehensive In Vitro Toxicity Testing of a Panel of Representative Oxide Nanomaterials: First Steps towards an Intelligent Testing Strategy. *PLoS One.* 2015 May 21;10(5):e0127174.

Ferin, J., Oberdorster, G., Penney, D.P., 1992. Pulmonary retention of ultrafine and fine particles in rats. *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.* 1992 May; 6(5): 535–42.

Fryzek JP, Chadda B, Marano D, White K, Schweitzer S, McLaughlin JK, Blot WJ. A cohort mortality study among titanium dioxide manufacturing workers in the United States. *J Occup Environ Med.* 2003 Apr; 45(4):400-9.

Furukawa F, Doi Y, Suguro M, Morita O, Kuwahara H, Masunaga T, Hatakeyama Y, Mori F. Lack of skin carcinogenicity of topically applied titanium dioxide nanoparticles in the mouse. *Food and Chemical Toxicology.* 2011 Apr; 49(4):744–9.

Gao G, Ze Y, Li B, Zhao X, Zhang T, Sheng L, Hu R, Gui S, Sang X, Sun Q, Cheng J, Cheng Z, Wang L, Tang M, Hong F. Ovarian dysfunction and gene-expressed characteristics of female mice caused by long-term exposure to titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *J Hazard Mater.* 2012 Dec; 243:19-27.

Gallagher J, Heinrich U, George M, Hendee L, Phillips DH, Lewtas J. Formation of DNA adducts in rat lung following chronic inhalation of diesel emissions, carbon black and titanium dioxide particles. *Carcinogenesis.* 1994; 15(7):1291-9.

Gerloff K, Fenoglio I, Carella E, Kolling J, Albrecht C, Boots AW, Förster I, Schins RP. Distinctive toxicity of TiO₂ rutile/anatase mixed phase nanoparticles on Caco-2 cells. *Chem Res Toxicol.* 2012; 25(3):646-55.

German MAK Commission. Titanium dioxide (respirable fraction). The MAK collection for Occupational Health and Safety. 2014 Apr 16. DOI: 10.1002/3527600418.mb1346367e4714

Ghosh M, Chakraborty A, Mukherjee A. Cytotoxic, genotoxic and the hemolytic effect of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles on human erythrocyte and lymphocyte cells *in vitro*. *J Appl Toxicol*. 2013 Oct; 33(10):1097-110.

Green FH (2000) Pulmonary responses to inhaled poorly soluble particulate in the human. *Inhal Toxicol* 12: 59–95

Gui S, Sang X, Zheng L, Ze Y, Zhao X, Sheng L, Sun Q, Cheng Z, Cheng J, Hu R, Wang L, Hong F, Tang M. Intragastric exposure to titanium dioxide nanoparticles induced nephrotoxicity in mice, assessed by physiological and gene expression modifications. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2013 Feb 13;10:4.

Guichard Y, Schmit J, Darne C, Gaté L, Goutet M, Rousset D, Rastoix O, Wrobel R, Witschger O, Martin A, Fierro V, Binet S. Cytotoxicity and genotoxicity of nanosized and microsized titanium dioxide and iron oxide particles in Syrian hamster embryo cells. *Ann Occup Hyg*. 2012; 56(5):631-44.

Hackenberg S, Friehs G, Froelich K, Ginzkey C, Koehler C, Scherzed A, Burghartz M, Hagen R, Kleinsasser N. Intracellular distribution, geno- and cytotoxic effects of nanosized titanium dioxide particles in the anatase crystal phase on human nasal mucosa cells. *Toxicol Lett*. 2010 May 19;195(1):9-14.

Hackenberg S, Friehs G, Kessler M, Froelich K, Ginzkey C, Koehler C, Scherzed A, Burghartz M, Kleinsasser N. Nanosized Titanium Dioxide Particles do not Induce DNA Damage in Human Peripheral Blood Lymphocytes *Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis*. 2011; 52:264-268.

Halappanavar S, Jackson P, Williams A, Jensen KA, Hougaard K, Vogel U, Yauk CL, Wallin H. Pulmonary response to Surface-coated nanotitanium Dioxide particles induction of acute phase response Genes, Inflammatory cascades and Changes in MicroRNAs: a toxicogenomic Study. *Env and Mol Mutagenesis*. 2001; 52:425-439. Hamzeh M, Sunahara GI. *In vitro* cytotoxicity and genotoxicity studies of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles in Chinese hamster lung fibroblast cells. *Toxicol In Vitro*. 2013 Mar; 27(2):864-73.

Heinrich U, Fuhst R, Rittinghausen S, Creutzenberg O, Bellmann B, Koch W, Levsen K. Chronic inhalation exposure of Wistar rats and two different strains of mice to diesel engine exhaust, carbon black, and titanium dioxide. *Inhalation Toxicology*. 1995; 7(4):533-56.

Hext PM, Tomenson JA, Thompson P. Titanium dioxide: inhalation toxicology and epidemiology. *Ann Occup Hyg*. 2005 Aug; 49(6):461-72.

Höhr D, Steinfartz Y; Schins RPF, Knaapen AM, Martra G, Fubini B, Borm PJA. The surface area rather than the surface coating determines the acute inflammatory response after instillation of fine and ultrafine TiO₂ in the rat *Int. J. Hyg. Environ. Health* 205, 239 ± 244 (2002)

IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer), “Titanium dioxide group 2B,” in *IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans*, vol. 9, International Agency for Research on Cancer, World Health Organization, Lyon, France, 2006.

IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer), “Carbon black, titanium dioxide, and talc,” in IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans, vol. 93, International Agency for Research France, 2010.

IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer), “Diesel and Gasoline Engine Exhausts and some nitroarenes” in IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans, vol. 105, International Agency for Research France, 2012. ILSI (International Life Sciences Institute) (2000) The relevance of the rat lung response to particle overload for human risk assessment: a workshop consensus report. In: Gardner DE (Ed.) ILSI Risk Science Institute Workshop: the relevance of the rat lung response to particle overload for human risk assessment. March 1998. *Inhal Toxicol* 12: 1–17

INRS 2013, fiche toxicologique n°291.

Jackson P, Halappanavar S, Hougaard KS, Williams A, Madsen AM, Lamson JS, Andersen O, Yauk C, Wallin H, Vogel U. Maternal inhalation of surface-coated nanosized titanium dioxide (UV-Titan) in C57BL/6 mice: effects in prenatally exposed offspring on hepatic DNA damage and gene expression. *Nanotoxicology*. 2013;7(1):85-96.

Jaeger A, Weiss DG, Jonas L, Kriehuber R. Oxidative stress-induced cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of nano-sized titanium dioxide particles in human HaCaT keratinocytes. *Toxicology*. 2012 Jun 14; 296(1-3):27-36.

Jin C, Tang Y, Fan XY, Ye XT, Li XL, Tang K, Zhang YF, Li AG, Yang YJ. *In vivo* evaluation of the interaction between titanium dioxide nanoparticle and rat liver DNA. *Toxicol Ind Health*. 2013; 29(3):235-44.

Jin C, Tang Y, Yang FG, Li XL, Xu S, Fan XY, Huang YY, Yang YJ. Cellular toxicity of TiO₂ nanoparticles in anatase and rutile crystal phase. *Biol Trace Elem Res*. 2011; 141(1-3):3-15.

Jomini S, Labille J, Bauda P, Pagnout C. Modifications of the bacterial reverse mutation test reveals mutagenicity of TiO₂ nanoparticles and byproducts from a sunscreen TiO₂-based nanocomposite. *Toxicol Lett*. 2012 Nov 23; 215(1):54-61.

Jones K, Morton J, Smith I, Jurkschat K, Harding AH, Evans G. Human *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies on gastrointestinal absorption of titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *Toxicology Letters* 233. 2015; 95–101.

Jovanović B. Critical review of public health regulations of titanium dioxide, a human food additive. *Integr Environ Assess Manag*. 2015 Jan;11(1):10-20.

Jugan ML, Barillet S, Simon-Deckers A, Herlin-Boime N, Sauvaigo S, Douki T, Carriere M. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles exhibit genotoxicity and impair DNA repair activity in A549 cells. *Nanotoxicology*. 2012 Aug; 6(5):501-13.

Jugan ML, Barillet S, Simon-Deckers A, Sauvaigo S, Douki T, Herlin N, Carrière M. Cytotoxic and genotoxic impact of TiO₂ nanoparticles on A549 cells. *J Biomed Nanotechnol*. 2011 Feb; 7(1):22-3.

Kain J, Karlsson HL, Möller L. DNA damage induced by micro- and nanoparticles--interaction with FPG influences the detection of DNA oxidation in the comet assay. *Mutagenesis*. 2012; 27(4):491-500.

Kansara K, Patel P, Shah D, Shukla RK, Singh S, Kumar A, Dhawan A. TiO₂ nanoparticles induce DNA double strand breaks and cell cycle arrest in human alveolar cells. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2015 Mar; 56(2):204-17.

Karlsson HL. The comet assay in nanotoxicology research. *Anal Bioanal Chem*. 2010; 398(2):651-66.

Karlsson HL, Di Bucchianico S, Collins AR, Dusinska M. Can the comet assay be used reliably to detect nanoparticle-induced genotoxicity? *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2015 Mar; 56(2):82-96.

Kermanizadeh A, Vranic S, Boland S, Moreau K, Baeza-Squiban A, Gaiser BK, Andrzejczuk LA, Stone V. An *in vitro* assessment of panel of engineered nanomaterials using a human renal cell line: cytotoxicity, pro-inflammatory response, oxidative stress and genotoxicity. *BMC Nephrol*. 2013; 14:96.

Kermanizadeh A, Løhr M, Roursgaard M, Messner S, Gunness P, Kelm JM, Møller P, Stone V, Loft S. Hepatic toxicology following single and multiple exposure of engineered nanomaterials utilising a novel primary human 3D liver microtissue model. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2014; 11(1):56.

Kermanizadeh A, Gaiser BK, Hutchison GR, Stone V. An *in vitro* liver model--assessing oxidative stress and genotoxicity following exposure of hepatocytes to a panel of engineered nanomaterials. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2012 Jul 19;9:28.

Kittel B, Ernst H, Dungworth DL, Rittinghausen S, Nolte T, Kamino K, Stuart B, Lake SG, Cardesa A, Morawietz G, et al. Morphological comparison between benign keratinizing cystic squamous cell tumours of the lung and squamous lesions of the skin in rats. *Exp Toxicol Pathol*. 1993 Oct; 45(5-6):257-67.

Knaapen AM, Seiler F, Schilderman PA, Nehls P, Bruch J, Schins RP, Borm PJ (1999) Neutrophils cause oxidative DNA damage in alveolar epithelial cells. *Free Radic Biol Med* 27: 234–240

Knaapen AM, Borm PJ, Albrecht C, Schins RP (2004) Inhaled particles and lung cancer. Part A: mechanisms. *Int J Cancer* 109: 799–809

Knaapen AM, Güngör N, Schins RP, Borm PJ, van Schooten FJ (2006) Neutrophils and respiratory tract DNA damage and mutagenesis: a review. *Mutagenesis* 21: 225–236

Koizumi A, Tsukada M, Hirano S, Kamiyama S, Masuda H, Suzuki KT. Energy restriction that inhibits cellular proliferation by torpor can decrease susceptibility to spontaneous and asbestos-induced lung tumors in A/J mice. *Lab Invest*. 1993 Jun; 68(6):728-39.

Landsiedel R, Ma-Hock L, Van Ravenzwaay B, Schulz M, Wiench K, Champ S, Schulte S, Wohlleben W, Oesch F. Gene toxicity studies on titanium dioxide and zinc oxide nanomaterials used for UV-protection in cosmetic formulations. *Nanotoxicology*. 2010 Dec; 4:364-81.

Landsiedel R, Ma-Hock L, Hofmann T, Wiemann M, Strauss V, Treumann S, Wohlleben W, Gröters S, Wiench K, van Ravenzwaay B. Application of short-term inhalation studies to assess the inhalation toxicity of nanomaterials. *Part Fibre Toxicol*. 2014 Apr 4;11:16. doi: 10.1186/1743-8977-11-16.

Lee K.P, Trochimowicz H.J, Reinhardt C.F. Transmigration of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) particles in rats after inhalation exposure. *Experimental and molecular pathology*. 1985 Jun; 42(3): 331-43.

Lee K.P, Norman W. Henry III, Trochimowicz H.J, Reinhardt C.F. Pulmonary response to impaired lung clearance in rats following excessive TiO₂ dust deposition. *Environmental Research*. 1986 Oct; 41(1): 144-167.

Lee K.P, Trochimowicz H.J, Reinhardt C.F. Pulmonary response of rats exposed to titanium dioxide (TiO₂) by inhalation for two years. *Toxicology and applied pharmacology*. 1985 Jun 30; 79(2): 179-92.

Lehnert BE (1993) Defense mechanisms against inhaled particles and associated particle-cell interactions. *Rev Mineral* 28: 427–469.

Leppänen M, Korpi A, Mikkonen S, Yli-Pirilä P, Lehto M, Pylkkänen L, Wolff H, Kosma VM, Alenius H, Joutsensaari J, Pasanen P. Inhaled silica-coated TiO₂ nanoparticles induced airway irritation, airflow limitation and inflammation in mice. *Nanotoxicology*. 2015 Mar;9(2):210-8.

Li N, Ma LL, Wang J, Zheng L, Liu J, Duan YM, et al. Interaction between nano-anatase TiO₂ and liver DNA from mice *in vivo*. *Nanoscale Res Lett*. 2009 Oct 13; 5(1): 108-15.

Li B, Ze Y, Sun Q, Zhang T, Sang X, Cui Y, Wang X, Gui S, Tan D, Zhu M, Zhao X, Sheng L, Wang L, Hong F, Tang M. Molecular mechanisms of nanosized titanium dioxide-induced pulmonary injury in mice. *PLoS One*. 2013; 8(2):e55563.

Lindberg HK, Falck GC, Catalán J, Koivisto AJ, Suhonen S, Järventaus H, Rossi EM, Nykäsenoja H, Peltonen Y, Moreno C, Alenius H, Tuomi T, Savolainen KM, Norppa H. Genotoxicity of inhaled nanosized TiO₂ in mice. *Mutat Res*. 2012; 745(1-2):58-64.

Louro H, Tavares A, Vital N, Costa PM, Alverca E, Zwart E, de Jong WH, Fessard V, Lavinha J, Silva MJ. Integrated approach to the *in vivo* genotoxic effects of a titanium dioxide nanomaterial using LacZ plasmid-based transgenic mice. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2014; 55(6):500-9.

MacNicoll A, Kelly M, Aksoy H, Kramer E, Bouwmeester H, Chaudhry Q. A study of the uptake and biodistribution of nano-titanium dioxide using *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of oral intake. *J Nanopart Res*. 2015; 17:66.

Magdolenova Z, Bilaničová D, Pojana G, Fjellsbø LM, Hudecova A, Hasplova K, Marcomini A, Dusinska M. Impact of agglomeration and different dispersions of titanium dioxide nanoparticles on the human related *in vitro* cytotoxicity and genotoxicity. *J Environ Monit*. 2012; 14(2):455-64.

Mohr U, Ernst H, Roller M, Pott F. Pulmonary tumor types induced in Wistar rats of the so-called “19-dust study”. *Experimental and toxicologic pathology* 58 (2006) 13-20.

MAK Collection Part I, Mak value documentations 2014, DFG. General threshold limit value for dust (R fraction) (biopersistent granular dusts). 2014 Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA

Maltoni C, Morisi L, Chieco P. Experimental Approach To The Assessment Of The Carcinogenic Risk Of Industrial Inorganic Pigments. *Advances in Modern Environmental Toxicology*. 1982; 2: 77-92.

Meena R, Kajal K, R P. Cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles in testicular cells of male wistar rat. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*. 2015 Jan; 175(2):825-40.

Meena R, Rani M, Pal R, Rajamani P. Nano-TiO₂-induced apoptosis by oxidative stress-mediated DNA damage and activation of p53 in human embryonic kidney cells. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*. 2012 Jun;167(4):791-808.

Msiska Z, Pacurari M, Mishra A, Leonard SS, Castranova V, Vallyathan V. DNA double-strand breaks by asbestos, silica, and titanium dioxide: possible biomarker of carcinogenic potential? *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol*. 2010; 43(2):210-9.

Moreno-Horn M & Gebel T. granular biodurable nanomaterials: no convincing evidence for systemic toxicity. *Crit Rev Toxicol*, 2014; 44(10):849-875.

Muhle H, Mermelstein R, Dasenbrock C, Takenaka S, Mohr U, Kilpper R, MacKenzie J, Morrow P. Lung response to test toner upon 2-year inhalation exposure in rats. *Exp Pathol*. 1989; 37(1-4):239-42.

Muhle H, Kittel B, Ernst H, Mohr U, Mermelstein R. Neoplastic lung lesions in rat after chronic exposure to crystalline silica. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 1995; 21 suppl 2:27-9.

Muhle H, Bellmann B, Creutzenberg O, Dasenbrock C, Ernst H, Kilpper R, MacKenzie J.C, Morrow P, Mohr U, Takenaka S, Mermelstein R. Pulmonary response to toner upon chronic inhalation exposure in rats. *Fundamental and applied toxicology*. 1991 Aug; 17(2): 280-299.

Nanogenotox deliverables (2013). www.nanogenotox.eu

NCI. Bioassay of titanium dioxide for possible carcinogenicity. *Natl Cancer Inst Carcinog Tech Rep Ser*. 1979; 97: 1-123.

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. *Current Intelligence Bulletin 63: Occupational Exposure to Titanium Dioxide*, April 2011.

Naya M, Kobayashi N, Ema M, Kasamoto S, Fukumuro M, Takami S, Nakajima M, Hayashi M, Nakanishi J. *In vivo* genotoxicity study of titanium dioxide nanoparticles using comet assay following intratracheal instillation in rats. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol*. 2012 Feb; 62(1):1-6.

Numano T, Xu J, Futakuchi M, Fukamachi K, Alexander DB, Furukawa F, Kanno J, Hirose A, Tsuda H, Suzui M. Comparative study of toxic effects of anatase and rutile type nanosized titanium dioxide particles *in vivo* and *in vitro*. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev*. 2014; 15(2):929-35.

Oberdörster G (1988) Lung clearance of inhaled insoluble and soluble particles. *J Aerosol Med* 1: 289–320

Oberdörster G (1994) Extrapolation of results from animal inhalation studies with particles to humans? In: Mohr U, Dungworth DL, Mauderly JL, Oberdörster G (Eds) *Toxic and carcinogenic effects of solid particles in the respiratory tract (ILSI Monographs)*, ILSI Press, WashingtonDC, USA, 335–353

Oberdörster, G., Ferin, J., Lehnert, B.E. Correlation between particle size, *in vivo* particle persistence, and lung injury. *Environ Health Perspect*. 1994 Oct; 102 Suppl 5, 173–9.

Oberdörster, G. Lung particle overload: implications for occupational exposures to particles. *Regul. Toxicol. Pharmacol*. 1995; 21 (1), 123–35.

- Oberdörster, G. pulmonary effects of inhaled ultrafine particles. (2002) *Int. Arch occup Environ Health* 74,1-8
- Oberdörster G, Oberdörster E, Oberdörster J (2005) Nanotoxicology: an emerging discipline evolving from studies of ultrafine particles. *Environ Health Perspect* 113: 823–839
- Oberdörster G, Oberdörster E, Oberdörster J (2007) Concepts of nanoparticle dose metric and response metric (Abstract). *Environ Health Perspect* 115: A290
- Osman IF, Baumgartner A, Cemeli E, Fletcher JN, Anderson D. Genotoxicity and cytotoxicity of zinc oxide and titanium dioxide in HEP-2 cells. *Nanomedicine (Lond)*. 2010 Oct;5(8):1193-203.
- Pan R, Liu Y, Chen W, Dawson G, Wang X, Li Y, Dong B, Zhu Y. The toxicity evaluation of nano-trititanate with bactericidal properties *in vitro*. *Nanotoxicology*. 2012; 6(3):327-37.
- Pauluhn, J. Comparative pulmonary response to inhaled nanostructures: considerations on test design and endpoints. *Inhal. Toxicol*. 2009; 21 Suppl 1: 40–54.
- Petkovic J, Kuzma T, Rade K, Novak S, Filipič M. Pre-irradiation of anatase TiO₂ particles with UV enhances their cytotoxic and genotoxic potential in human hepatoma HepG2 cells. *J Hazard Mater*. 2011a; 196:145-52.
- Petkovic J, Zegura B, Stevanovic M, Drnovsek N, Uskokovic D, Novak S, Filipic M. DNA damage and alterations in expression of DNA damage responsive genes induced by TiO₂ nanoparticles in human hepatoma HepG2 cells. *Nanotoxicology* 2011b; 5:341–353.
- Pott F, Roller M. Carcinogenicity study with nineteen granular dusts in rats. *Eur J Oncol*. 2005; 10(4):249–81.
- Pott F, Ziem U, Reiffer FJ, Huth F, Ernst H, Mohr U. Carcinogenicity studies on fibres, metal compounds, and some other dusts in rats. *Exp Pathol*. 1987; 32(3):129-52.
- Prasad RY, Simmons SO, Killius MG, Zucker RM, Kligerman AD, Blackman CF, Fry RC, Demarini DM. Cellular interactions and biological responses to titanium dioxide nanoparticles in HepG2 and BEAS-2B cells: role of cell culture media. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2014 May; 55(4):336-42.
- Prasad RY, Wallace K, Daniel KM, Tennant AH, Zucker RM, Strickland J, Dreher K, Kligerman AD, Blackman CF, Demarini DM. Effect of treatment media on the agglomeration of titanium dioxide nanoparticles: impact on genotoxicity, cellular interaction, and cell cycle. *ACS Nano*. 2013 Mar 26; 7(3):1929-42.
- Rad JS, Alfatemi MH, Rad MS, Rad MS, Sen DJ, Mohsenzadeh S. *In-vivo* Titanium Dioxide (TiO₂) Nanoparticles Effects on Chromosomal Abnormalities and Lactate Dehydrogenase Activity. *American Journal of Advanced Drug Delivery*. 2013; 1(3):232-7.
- Ramanakumar AV, Parent ME, Latreille B, Siemiatycki J. Risk of lung cancer following exposure to carbon black, titanium dioxide and talc: results from two case-control studies in Montreal. *Int J Cancer*. 2008 Jan 1; 122(1):183-9.
- Rehn B, Seiler F, Rehn S, Bruch J, Maier M. Investigations on the inflammatory and genotoxic lung effects of two types of titanium dioxide: untreated and surface treated. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol*. 2003 Jun 1; 189(2):84-95.

Rittinghausen S, Mohr U, Dungworth DL. Pulmonary cystic keratinizing squamous cell lesions of rats after inhalation/instillation of different particles. *Exp Toxicol Pathol.* 1997 Dec;49(6):433-46.

Roller M. Carcinogenicity of inhaled nanoparticles. *Inhalation Toxicology.* 2009; 21(S1): 144-57.

Rossi EM, Pylkkänen L, Koivisto AJ, Vippola M, Jensen KA, Miettinen M, Sirola K, Nykäsenoja H, Karisola P, Stjernvall T, Vanhala E, Kiilunen M, Pasanen P, Mäkinen M, Hämeri K, Joutsensaari J, Tuomi T, Jokiniemi J, Wolff H, Savolainen K, Matikainen S, Alenius H. Airway exposure to silica-coated TiO₂ nanoparticles induces pulmonary neutrophilia in mice. *Toxicol Sci.* 2010 Feb;113(2):422-33.

Rozzak J, Stępnik M, Nocuń M, Ferlińska M, Smok-Pieniążek A, Grobelny J, Tomaszewska E, Wąsowicz W, Cieślak M. A strategy for *in vitro* safety testing of nanotitania-modified textile products. *J Hazard Mater.* 2013; 256-257:67-75.

Saber AT, Jacobsen NR, Mortensen A, Szarek J, Jackson P, Madsen AM, Jensen KA, Koponen IK, Brunborg G, Gützkow KB, Vogel U, Wallin H. Nanotitanium dioxide toxicity in mouse lung is reduced in sanding dust from paint. *Part Fibre Toxicol.* 2012 Feb 2; 9:4.

Sadiq R, Bhalli JA, Yan J, Woodruff RS, Pearce MG, Li Y, Mustafa T, Watanabe F, Pack LM, Biris AS, Khan QM, Chen T. Genotoxicity of TiO₂ anatase nanoparticles in B6C3F1 male mice evaluated using Pig-a and flow cytometric micronucleus assays. *Mutat Res.* 2012; 745(1-2):65-72.

Sagawa Y, Futakuchi M, Xu J, Fukamachi K, Sakai Y, Ikarashi Y, Nishimura T, Suzui M, Tsuda H, Morita A. Lack of promoting effect of titanium dioxide particles on chemically-induced skin carcinogenesis in rats and mice. *J Toxicol Sci.* 2012; 37(2):317-27.

Sager TM, Kommineni C, Castranova V. Pulmonary response to intratracheal instillation of ultrafine versus fine titanium dioxide: role of particle surface area. *Particle Fibre Toxicol.* 2008 Dec 1; 5:17.

Saghiri Z, Saleh-Moghadama M, Nabavi MS. Effect Evaluation of anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles on induction of chromosomal damage in mice bone marrow *in vivo*. Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Nanostructures (ICNS4) 12-14 March, 2012, Kish Island, I.R. Iran.

SCCS opinion on Titanium Dioxide (nano form). Colipa n° S75. SCCS/1516/13. Revision of 22 April 2014.

Setyawati MI, Khoo PK, Eng BH, Xiong S, Zhao X, Das GK, Tan TT, Loo JS, Leong DT, Ng KW. Cytotoxic and genotoxic characterization of titanium dioxide, gadolinium oxide, and poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) nanoparticles in human fibroblasts. *J Biomed Mater Res A.* 2013 Mar; 101(3):633-40.

Shelby MD, Erexson GL, Hook GJ, Tice RR. Evaluation of a three-exposure mouse bone marrow micronucleus protocol: results with 49 chemicals. *Environ Mol Mutagen.* 1993; 21(2):160-79.

Shelby MD, Witt KL. Comparison of results from mouse bone marrow chromosome aberration and micronucleus tests. *Environ Mol Mutagen.* 1995; 25(4):302-13.

Sheng L, Wang X, Sang X, Ze Y, Zhao X, Liu D, Gui S, Sun Q, Cheng J, Cheng Z, Hu R, Wang L, Hong F. Cardiac oxidative damage in mice following exposure to nanoparticulate titanium dioxide. *J Biomed Mater Res Part A* 2013; 101(11):3238–46.

Shi H, Magaye R, Castranova V, Zhao J. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles: a review of current toxicological data. *Part Fibre Toxicol.* 2013 Apr 15;10:15.

Shi Y, Zhang JH, Jiang M, Zhu LH, Tan HQ, Lu B. Synergistic genotoxicity caused by low concentration of titanium dioxide nanoparticles and p,p'-DDT in human hepatocytes. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2010 Apr; 51(3):192-204.

Shukla RK, Kumar A, Gurbani D, Pandey AK, Singh S, Dhawan A. TiO₂ nanoparticles induce oxidative DNA damage and apoptosis in human liver cells. *Nanotoxicology*. 2013 Feb; 7(1):48-60.

Shukla RK, Sharma V, Pandey AK, Singh S, Sultana S, Dhawan A. ROS-mediated genotoxicity induced by titanium dioxide nanoparticles in human epidermal cells. *Toxicol In Vitro*. 2011; 25(1):231-41

Siemiatycki J. *Risk Factors for Cancer in the Workplace*, CRC Press, Boca Raton FL. 1991.

Song MF, Li YS, Kasai H, Kawai K. Metal nanoparticle-induced micronuclei and oxidative DNA damage in mice. *Clin. Biochem. Nutr*. 2012 May; 50 (3): 211–6.

Srivastava RK, Rahman Q, Kashyap MP, Lohani M, Pant AB. Ameliorative effects of dimethylthiourea and N-acetylcysteine on nanoparticles induced cyto-genotoxicity in human lung cancer cells-A549. *PLoS One*. 2011; 6(9):e25767.

Srivastava RK, Rahman Q, Kashyap MP, Singh AK, Jain G, Jahan S, Lohani M, Lantow M, Pant AB. Nano-titanium dioxide induces genotoxicity and apoptosis in human lung cancer cell line, A549. *Hum Exp Toxicol*. 2013 Feb; 32(2):153-66.

Stenbäck F, Rowland J, Sellakumar A. Carcinogenicity of benzo(a)pyrene and dusts in the hamster lung (instilled intratracheally with titanium oxide, aluminum oxide, carbon and ferric oxide). *Oncology*. 1976; 33(1):29–34.

Stone V, Johnson H, Clift MJD. Air pollution, ultrafine and nanoparticle Toxicology: cellular and molecular interaction. *IEEE transactions on nanobioscience*, 2007 6(4)331:340

Sycheva LP, Zhurkov VS, Iurchenko VV, Daugel-Dauge NO, Kovalenko MA, Krivtsova EK, Durnev AD. Investigation of genotoxic and cytotoxic effects of micro- and nanosized titanium dioxide in six organs of mice *in vivo*. *Mutat Res*. 2011 Nov 27; 726(1):8-14.

Tassinari R, Cubadda F, Moracci G, Aureli F, D'Amato M, Valeri M, De Berardis B, Raggi A, Mantovani A, Passeri D, Rossi M, Maranghi F. Oral, short-term exposure to titanium dioxide nanoparticles in Sprague-Dawley rat: focus on reproductive and endocrine systems and spleen. *Nanotoxicology*. 2014 Sep;8(6):654-62.

Tavares AM, Louro H, Antunes S, Quarré S, Simar S, De Temmerman PJ, Verleysen E, Mast J, Jensen KA, Norppa H, Nesslany F, Silva MJ. Genotoxicity evaluation of nanosized titanium dioxide, synthetic amorphous silica and multi-walled carbon nanotubes in human lymphocytes. *Toxicol In Vitro*. 2014 Feb; 28(1):60-9.

Thyssen J, Kimmerle G. Inhalation studies with polyurethane foam dust in relation to respiratory tract carcinogenesis. *J Environ Pathol Toxicol*. 1978 Mar-Apr; 1(4):501-8.

Tiano L, Armeni T, Venditti E, Barucca G, Mincarelli L, Damiani E. Modified TiO₂ particles differentially affect human skin fibroblasts exposed to UVA light. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2010; 49(3):408-15.

Toyooka T, Amano T, Ibuki Y. Titanium dioxide particles phosphorylate histone H2AX independent of ROS production. *Mutat Res.* 2012; 742(1-2):84-91.

Tran CL, Cullen RT, Buchanan D, Jones AD, Miller BG, Searl A, Davis JMG, Donaldson K. Investigation and prediction of pulmonary responses to dust. Part II. In: Investigations into the pulmonary effects of low toxicity dusts. Parts I and II. Suffolk, UK: Health and Safety Executive, Contract Research Report 216/1999, 1999

Trochimowicz HJ, Kimmerle G, Dickhaus S. Chronic inhalation exposure of rats to titanium dioxide dust. *J. Appl Toxicol.* 1988 Dec; 8(6):383-5.

Trouiller B, Reliene R, Westbrook A, Solaimani P, Schiestl RH. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles induce DNA damage and genetic instability *in vivo* in mice. *Cancer Res.* 2009 Nov 15; 69(22):8784-9.

Tsuda H, Xu J, Sakai Y, Futakuchi M, Fukamachi K. Toxicology of engineered nanomaterials - a review of carcinogenic potential. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev.* 2009; 10(6):975-80.

Turkez H. The role of ascorbic acid on titanium dioxide-induced genetic damage assessed by the comet assay and cytogenetic tests. *Exp Toxicol Pathol.* 2011 Jul; 63(5):453-7.

Ursini CL, Cavallo D, Fresegna AM, Ciervo A, Maiello R, Tassone P, Buresti G, Casciardi S, Iavicoli S. Evaluation of cytotoxic, genotoxic and inflammatory response in human alveolar and bronchial epithelial cells exposed to titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *J Appl Toxicol.* 2014 Nov; 34(11):1209-19.

Valdiglesias V, Costa C, Sharma V, Kiliç G, Pásaro E, Teixeira JP, Dhawan A, Laffon B. Comparative study on effects of two different types of titanium dioxide nanoparticles on human neuronal cells. *Food Chem Toxicol.* 2013 Jul; 57:352-61.

Vales G, Rubio L, Marcos R. Long-term exposures to low doses of titanium dioxide nanoparticles induce cell transformation, but not genotoxic damage in BEAS-2B cells. *Nanotoxicology* 2014 Aug 9; 568-78.

Wan R, Mo Y, Feng L, Chien S, Tollerud DJ. DNA damage caused by metal nanoparticles: involvement of oxidative stress and activation of ATM. *Chem Res Toxicol.* 2012 Jul 16; 25(7):1402-11.

Wang J, Fan Y. Lung injury induced by TiO₂ nanoparticles depends on their structural features: size, shape, crystal phases, and surface coating. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2014 Dec 3; 15(12):22258-78.

Wang S, Hunter LA, Arslan Z, Wilkerson MG, Wickliffe JK. Chronic exposure to nanosized, anatase titanium dioxide is not cyto- or genotoxic to Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Environ Mol Mutagen.* 2011 Oct; 52(8):614-22.

Warheit DB, Reed KL, Webb TR. Pulmonary toxicity studies in rats with triethoxyoctylsilane (OTES)-coated, pigment-grade titanium dioxide particles: bridging studies to predict inhalation hazard. *Exp Lung Res.* 2003 Dec;29(8):593-606.

Warheit DB, Brock W J, Lee K, Webb T.R, Reed K.L. Comparative Pulmonary Toxicity Inhalation and Instillation Studies with Different TiO₂ Particle Formulations: Impact of Surface Treatments on Particle Toxicity. *Toxicological Sciences*. 2005; 88(2): 514–524.

Warheit DB, Frame SR. Characterization and reclassification of titanium dioxide-related pulmonary lesions. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2006 Dec; 48(12):1308-13.

Warheit DB, Webb TR, Reed KL, Frerichs S, Sayes CM. Pulmonary toxicity study in rats with three forms of ultrafine-TiO₂ particles: differential responses related to surface properties. *Toxicology*. 2007 Jan 25; 230(1):90-104.

Woodruff RS, Li Y, Yan J, Bishop M, Jones MY, Watanabe F, Biris AS, Rice P, Zhou T, Chen T. Genotoxicity evaluation of titanium dioxide nanoparticles using the Ames test and Comet assay. *J Appl Toxicol*. 2012 Nov; 32(11):934-43.

Xia T, Hamilton RF, Bonner JC, Crandall ED, Elder A, Fazlollahi F, Girtsman TA, Kim K, Mitra S, Ntim SA, Orr G, Tagmount M, Taylor AJ, Telesca D, Tolic A, Vulpe CD, Walker AJ, Wang X, Witzmann FA, Wu N, Xie Y, Zink JI, Nel A, Holian A. Interlaboratory Evaluation of in Vitro Cytotoxicity and Inflammatory Responses to Engineered Nanomaterials: The NIEHS Nano GO Consortium. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2013 Jun;121(6):683-90.

Xu J, Shi H, Ruth M, Yu H, Lazar L, Zou B, Yang C, Wu A, Zhao J. Acute toxicity of intravenously administered titanium dioxide nanoparticles in mice. *PLoS One*. 2013 Aug 8; 8(8):e70618.

Xu J, Futakuchi M, Iigo M, Fukamachi K, Alexander DB, Shimizu H, Sakai Y, Tamano S, Furukawa F, Uchino T, Tokunaga H, Nishimura T, Hirose A, Kanno J, Tsuda H. Involvement of macrophage inflammatory protein 1alpha (MIP1alpha) in promotion of rat lung and mammary carcinogenic activity of nanoscale titanium dioxide particles administered by intra-pulmonary spraying. *Carcinogenesis*. 2010 May; 31(5):927-35.

Xue C, Wu J, Lan F, Liu W, Yang X, Zeng F, Xu H. Nano titanium dioxide induces the generation of ROS and potential damage in HaCaT cells under UVA irradiation. *J Nanosci Nanotechnol* 2010 Dec; 10(12):8500–7.

Xu J, Sagawa Y, Futakuchi M, Fukamachi K, Alexander DB, Furukawa F, Ikarashi Y, Uchino T, Nishimura T, Morita A, Suzui M, Tsuda H. Lack of promoting effect of titanium dioxide particles on ultraviolet B-initiated skin carcinogenesis in rats. *Food Chem Toxicol*. 2011 Jun; 49(6):1298-302.

Yamadori I, Ohsumi S, Taguchi K. Titanium dioxide deposition and adenocarcinoma of the lung. *Acta Pathol Jpn*. 1986 May; 36(5):783–90.

Yokohira M, Hashimoto N, Yamakawa K, Suzuki S, Saoo K, Kuno T, Imaida K. Lung Carcinogenic Bioassay of CuO and TiO₂ Nanoparticles with Intratracheal Instillation Using F344 Male Rats. *J Toxicol Pathol*. 2009 Mar; 22(1):71-8.

Zheng D, Wang N, Wang X, Tang Y, Zhu L, Huang Z, Tang H, Shi Y, Wu Y, Zhang M, Lu B. Effects of the interaction of TiO₂ nanoparticles with bisphenol A on their physicochemical properties and in vitro toxicity. *J Hazard Mater*. 2012 Jan 15; 199-200:426-32.

8 ANNEXES

ANNEX I – SUMMARY OF GENOTOXICITY DATA

1. In vitro data

A literature research including published reviews, projects and studies was performed (ended on 30/04/2015). In addition, information from the registration dossier which has been published on ECHA website has been considered (date: 01/08/2015). All forms of TiO₂ have been taken into account. Due to the high number of *in vitro* genotoxicity assays found, an exhaustive reporting of studies was judged neither feasible nor of any added values.

As a first step, only the most recent studies, published between 2010 and 2015, were assessed. After, these studies (2010-2015) were sorted based on the following criteria in order to keep only the more reliable data:

- Characterization of the tested materials (at least size, crystallinity and coating) and description of dispersion of tested materials. Although the publications do not always provide the physico-chemical characteristics of the material tested, the most recent (2010-2015) generally give few characteristics after addition to the cell culture medium as well as their stability during the assay. However, it can be highlighted that the PDI (polydispersity Index) which gives an idea of the stability of a solution is rarely provided in the publications. Papers published before 2010 have generally missing information on the physico-chemical characteristics and were not assessed.
- Assays with recognized protocols and mainly regulatory tests: Micronucleus assay, Gene mutation assay and Chromosomal Aberrations assay. Comet assay was also used as supportive data (even if no harmonized guideline is currently available). The results from the Comet assay were also included as they may bring information on the mechanism of action especially if the genotoxic effect might be due to some oxidative stress induced by the TiO₂. Furthermore, some protocols such as Ames test do not appear to be suitable because bacterial cells will not easily uptake TiO₂ and also because some NM can harbour antimicrobial activity (Doak, 2012). Indeed, Woodruff (2012) showed that TiO₂ NPs (nanoparticle) were not able to enter the bacterial cell. Therefore, the data from Ames tests were not considered for nanoforms of TiO₂, except when a modified protocol which would promote the uptake was proposed as reported by Jomini (2012).
- Studies with data assessing uptake into the cells in particular in case of negative results. Indeed, uptake should be ensured to conclude that the lack of genotoxicity observed is not due to a lack of exposure. If uptake was not assessed, cytotoxicity data are useful as a proof of adequate cell exposure.

- Inclusion of negative and positive controls and use of replicates.

Several studies published between 2010 and 2015 were deleted from this selection because one or more of the above criteria was not fulfilled. After selection, the total number of studies collected was 39, with 14 micronucleus assays, 20 Comet assays, 2 Chromosomal Aberrations studies and 3 others types studies. The studies which were excluded (9 micronucleus assays, 18 Comet assays 1 Chromosomal Aberrations test and 1 Gene Mutation assay and 11 others types of studies) are included in Annex II Table 1 for transparency.

• **Micronucleus assays**

Table I-01. Summaries of *in vitro* micronucleus assays which fulfil our selected criteria (published between 2010-2015; characterization of the tested materials; data on uptake and/or cytotoxicity; presence of negative and positive controls and use of several replicates)

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Jugan et al. 2012	TiO ₂ -A12 NP 95% <u>anatase</u> , spherical <u>12 nm</u> ; 92 m ² /g; PZC: 6.4	Dispersion in ultrapure sterile water (pH5.5) by sonication for 30 min at 4 C, in pulsed mode (1 s on/1 s off), NPs suspensions were diluted in DMEM without serum.	A549 human lung carcinoma cells (CCL-185)	Cytotoxic MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml of NP suspensions for 4–48 h) No data during MN assay.	Negative CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 50-100-200 µg/ml for 24h; negative and positive controls; triplicate.	Unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus of cells
	TiO ₂ -A25 (AEROXIDE P25) 86% <u>anatase</u> /14% <u>rutile</u> , spherical <u>24 nm</u> ; 46 m ² /g; PZS: 7.0					Unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the cytoplasm
Prasad et al. 2013	P25 AEROXIDE TiO ₂ 86% <u>anatase</u> /14% <u>rutile</u> ; 95.1% purity, <u>27.5 nm</u> (14.2-64.6 nm); 49 m ² /g	Dispersion in DI water: Hydrodynamic diameter: 273 to 309 nm; ZP: -8.7 to -17.2 mV 3 media tested: (a) KB (keratinocyte growth medium (KGM) + 0.1% BSA), with 0.1% BSA; largest agglomerates (800-2000 nm) (b) DM (PBS + 0.6% BSA + 0.001% surfactant DSPC): agglomerates (400-800 nm) (c) KF (KGM + 10% FBS): agglomerates of 200 nm PDI between 0.2 and 0.8. ZP :-0.53 to -8.47 mV => NP dispersions were unstable, aggregating and separating out of	Human bronchial epithelial cell (BEAS-2B)	Non-cytotoxic (< 10% decrease of cell viability at the highest concentration). Live/dead assay using a propidium iodide/calcein-AM commercial kit. Conditions tested: 24h; 20-100 µg/mL Concentration-dependent decreased CBPI in the MN assay.	Negative with KB and DM media Positive with KF media: from 20 µg/ml – dose-dependent CBMN assay at 10, 20, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24h; negative and positive controls. Two independent experiments conducted for all concentrations in all three treatment media.	The smaller TiO ₂ nanoparticle agglomerates, which occur in the KF medium, interact more with the cells than do those formed in the other two media, which are larger agglomerates.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		the liquid phase.				
Shukla et al 2011	Titanium (IV) oxide nanopowder 99.7%, <u>anatase, 10 nm</u>	Dispersion in two different media (a) milliQ water: mean hydrodynamic diameter: 124.9 nm and ZP: -17.6 mV (b) DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS: mean hydrodynamic diameter: 171.4 nm and ZP: -11.5 mV Probe sonicated treatment at 30W for 10 min for both media	Human epidermal cell line (A431)	Cytotoxic with NRU and MTT assays at 8 and 80 µg/ml after 48 hours. Conditions tested: 0.008- 80 µg/mL for 6, 24, 48 hours. Not cytotoxic with CBPI data in MN assay.	Positive: from 10 µg/ml –dose-dependent CBMN assay: from 0.008 to 80 µg/mL for 6h ; 2000 binucleated cells scored per condition; 3 independent experiments; 2 replicates; negative and positive controls.	Significant concentration-dependent increase in the cellular internalization of TiO ₂ NPs after 6 h exposure (flow cytometer method). Subcellular localization of TiO ₂ NPs inside cytoplasm and nucleus confirmed using TEM.
Shukla et al, 2013	Titanium (IV) oxide nanopowder 99.7%, <u>anatase 30-70 nm</u>	NP suspended in IMEM (medium without FBS) and probe sonicated for 10 min. Dilution of suspensions in CMEM (medium with 10% FBS) DLS: 192.5 ± 2.00 nm; PDI: 0.18 ± 0.01 nm; ZP: -11.4 ± 0.25 mV	HepG2 cells	Cytotoxic with MTT and NRU assays: significant reduction of enzymatic activity at 40 and 80 µg/mL after 24 and 48 h; but no cytotoxicity after 6h. Conditions tested: 0, 1, 10, 20, 40 and 80 mg/ml Interference checked with assay reagents but not with cells No data on the CBPI in the MN assay.	Positive: from 10 µg/ml – no dose-dependent (max increase at 20 µg/ml) CBMN assay: from 1 to 80 µg/ml for 6h; 2000 binucleated cells scored per condition; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	Internalization concluded from flow cytometry as well as from TEM (apparently numerous individualized NPs inside the cells)

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

Valdiglesias et al, 2013	TiO ₂ -D <u>80% anatase and 20% rutile, 25 nm</u> ; 35-45 m ² /g	TiO ₂ NPs suspended in either deionized water or complete cell culture medium (with FBS) and ultrasonicated at 30W for 5 min TiO ₂ -D: DI water: 160.5 nm; ZP:-27.8 mV Complete medium: 228.3 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV TiO ₂ -S: DI water: 447.9 nm; ZP:-9.96 mV Complete medium: 504.5 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV	Human SHSY5Y neuronal cells	Non cytotoxic in MTT and NRU assays. Conditions tested: 20-150 µg/ml for 3, 6, 24h. Interference: no interaction between NP and dyes used. No data on CBPI in the MN assay.	Negative (3 h exposure) Positive (6h exposure): all doses - dose-dependent for TiO ₂ -S ; not clear dose-relation for TiO ₂ -D (max at 120 µg/ml) MN assay: 80, 120 and 150 µg/ml for 3 or 6 hours; min 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	Uptake increase with time of treatment (flow cytometry) – Uptake was always lower for TiO ₂ -D NPs than for TiO ₂ -S NPs
	TiO ₂ -S <u>100% anatase, 25 nm</u> 200-220 m ² /g					

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Guichard et al, 2012</p>	<p>TiO₂ A nano <u>Anatase, 14 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 149 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p> <p>TiO₂ A micro <u>Anatase, 160 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 9 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p> <p>TiO₂ R nano <u>Rutile, 62 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 177 m²/g Coating: 11% SiO₂, 1% Na₂O and 1% SO₄</p> <p>TiO₂ R micro <u>Rutile, 530 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 3 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p> <p>TiO₂ P25 (Aeroxide) <u>80% anatase; 20% rutile, 25 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 58 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p>	<p>Sonication for 20 min at 40 Watt using a sonicator bath. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum and antibiotics (Penicillin, Steptomycin). At 80% confluence, cells were harvested using 0.25% trypsin and 0.53 mM ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid (EDTA). All particle suspensions in the SHE culture medium consisted of mainly agglomerated particles: particle diameters determined by DLS (dZ) varied from 300 to 700 nm depending on the particle type.</p> <p>Suspension of anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles led to coarser particle formation than its micro-sized counterpart. The contrary was observed for rutile TiO₂.</p>	<p>Syrian hamster embryo cells (SHE)</p>	<p>Cytotoxic based on decrease of RCC.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 0,5 - 200 µg/cm² for 24 and 72 hours => Nanoparticles were more cytotoxic than their micrometer counterparts.</p> <p>Micronucleus assay: cytotoxic with a decrease in RICC of 50% for all particles.</p>	<p>Negative for all TiO₂ NP tested.</p> <p>The decreases in micronucleus frequency observed at the highest concentration of TiO₂ particles when compared to the control may be explained either by some blockage to division induced by the treatment or by the presence of particles on the slide which disturbed micronucleus scoring.</p> <p>MN assay; 5, 10, 50 µg/cm² for 24 hours; around 1000 cells per slide analyzed; each experiment performed at least 3 times; positive and negative controls.</p>	<p>All particles are able to penetrate cells in the form of individual particles and agglomerates (TEM)</p>
<p>Srivastava et al, 2013</p>	<p>TiO₂ <u>Anatase</u> without coating, < 25 nm SSA = 200-220 m²/g</p>	<p>Stock solution of TiO₂ NPs was prepared in complete DMEM-F12 medium containing 10% serum and then sonicated intermittently for 5 min with each stretch of 1 min at 100 Hz.</p> <p>Mean hydrodynamic diameter (DLS) = 434.1 nm and ZP = -7.83 mV</p>	<p>Human lung cancer cell line (A549)</p>	<p>Concentration and time-dependent decrease in percentage cell viability following 6–48 h exposure of TiO₂ NPs in MTT and LDH assays.</p> <p>Cytotoxic after 24 h exposure (10, 50 and 100 µg/ml) and more intense during the 48 h exposure period (10, 50 and 100 µg/ml) in MTT assay. The results of LDH assay were similar to MTT assay. Exposure for 6 h was found to be effective only at 100 µg/ml</p> <p>Conditions tested: 0, 1, 5, 10,</p>	<p>Positive from 10 µg/ml – dose dependent.</p> <p>CBMN: 0, 1, 10, 50 µg/ml for 24 h; minimum of 1000 binucleated cells scored; at least 3 independent experiments; positive and negative controls.</p>	<p>The internalization of TiO₂ NPs in A549 cells through TEM analysis was found to be dose dependent. The particles adhered on the cell surface when incubated for 30 min and subsequently internalized in small vacuoles at cortical cytoplasm in extending incubations and reached to deep cell center near the mitochondria and Golgi apparatus in larger vacuoles over 48 h of exposure</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

				50, 100 µg/ml for 6, 24 and 48 hours. Interferences: no major interaction between colors of dyes and NPs as in cell-free system. No data on CBPI in the MN assay.		
Srivastava et al, 2011	TiO ₂ <u>Anatase</u> ; tetragonal in crystallographic system, spherical in shape without any coating <u>5-20 nm</u> (TEM) Specific surface area = 200-220 m ² /g Purity= 99.7%, pure trace metal basis	Stock solutions of nanoparticles were sonicated before being diluted with DMEM/F-12 (Hams) supplemented with fetal bovine serum (FBS), sodium bicarbonate, and antibiotic/antimycotic solution. Mean hydrodynamic diameter (DLS) in complete medium: 417.7 nm; zeta potential : (-) 7.83 mV	Human lung cancer cell line (A549)	Cytotoxic: significant decrease of % cell viability at all doses; MTT (most sensitive), NRU and LDH assays. Conditions tested: 10 or 50 mM for 24h. Pre-treatment with DMTU, OH [•] radical trapper (30 min), induced significant protection in viability. No data on CBPI in the MN assay.	Positive at all doses- dose dependent. CBMN assay, 10 or 50 µg/ml for 24h; 1000 binucleated cells with well-defined cytoplasm scored; at least 3 independent experiments; positive and negative controls. Both DMTU and NAC (glutathione precursor/H ₂ O ₂ scavenger) were found to be effective in reducing MN significantly.	The particles were adhered on the cell surface between microvilli and pseudopodes, when incubated for 24 h, subsequently internalized in small vacuoles at cortical cytoplasm (TEM)
Vales et al. 2014	NM 102 <u>Anatase</u> , primary particle size: <u>21.7±0.6 nm</u>	Nanogenotox protocol: pre-wetted in 0.5% absolute ethanol and afterwards dispersed in bovine serum albumin (BSA) in MilliQ water, the nanoparticles in the dispersion medium were sonicated for 16 min to obtain a stock dispersion of 2.56 mg/mL In exposure medium: 575.9 nm; PDI: 0.471 (DLS), ZP: -19.5 mV (LDV)	BEAS-2B cells	Not reported.	Negative CBMN assay, conditions tested: 1, 10, 20µg/ml for 24h, 1 or 3 weeks; 1000 binucleated cells per sub-culture scored; duplicate; negative and positive controls.	Uptake after 24h to 20 µg/ml (TEM)
Demir et al. 2015	<u>Micro</u> TiO ₂ 99% to 100.5% purity	No information	Human embryonic kidney (HEK293) and mouse embryonic fibroblast (NIH/3T3)	Not cytotoxic with CBPI at 10-100-1000 µg/ml for 48 h	Negative CBMN; conditions tested: 0-100-1000 µg/ml for 48 h; 2 independent experiments and 2 replicates of each one; negative and positive controls. Very high concentrations tested.	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>Nano TiO₂ <u>Anatase, 21 nm</u>; > 99.5% purity</p> <p>Nano TiO₂ <u>Anatase, 50 nm</u>, > 98% purity</p>	<p>Dispersed at the concentration of 2.56 mg/mL prepared in bovine serum albumin (BSA) in water, subjected to ultrasonication at 20kHz for 16 min in an ice-cooled bath; (in agreement of the proposal from Nanogenotox EU project).</p> <p>No important agglomerations observed following the dispersion protocol used.</p> <p>Nano-TiO₂ (21 nm) : 22.94± 0.3 nm (DLS) and ZP : 8.71mV Nano-TiO₂ (50 nm) : 50.72±0.4 nm (DLS) and ZP: 9.38mV</p>		<p>Cytotoxic at 1000 µg/ml after 48h of exposure with a CBPI decrease around 50% for HEK293 but less important for NIH/3T3</p>	<p>Positive: significant increases in the frequency of BNMN in the two cell lines at 1000 µg/ml.</p> <p>CBMN assay; conditions tested: 0-100-1000 µg/ml for 48 h; 1000 binucleated cells scored; 2 independent experiments and 2 replicates of each one; negative and positive controls. Very high concentrations tested.</p>	
Roszak et al 2013	<p>TiO₂ Mixture of <u>rutile and anatase forms</u> TiO₂ aggregates (SEM), irregular shape broad size distribution <u>from 10 nm up to µm</u> (ATM)</p>	<p>Prepared in MilliQ water DLS size = 220 nm (stable at least 72 h); ZP: 40 mV; Specific BET 27.1 m²/g (non-porous).</p> <p>Then immediately (within 10 min) mixed with fresh culture medium and applied onto the cells.</p> <p>DLS size 300 nm (stable 30 h) in culture medium with FBS (1:9)</p>	Human lymphocytes	<p>No effect on CBPI in the MN assay.</p>	<p>Positive from 60 µg/ml; dose dependent.</p> <p>CBMN assay; conditions tested: 20 -250 µg/ml for 6 or 24 h; duplicate, negative and positive controls.</p>	Not reported.
			Hamster lung V79 fibroblasts	<p>Cytotoxic at 100-250 µg/ml after 72h in WST1 reduction assay</p> <p>Interference with test system excluded. Error or number of cells seeded for cytotoxicity test seems to be very low.</p> <p>Concentration-dependent decreased CBPI.</p>	<p>Negative</p> <p>Identification of micronuclei during microscopic analysis was hampered by the presence of artifacts originating probably from particles interacting with cellular components.</p> <p>CBMN assay, conditions tested: 20 -250 µg/ml for 6 or 24 h; duplicate; negative and positive controls.</p>	
Prasad et al. 2014	<p>Nano P25 <u>86% anatase and 14% rutile</u></p>	<p>Suspended in DMEM supplemented with 0.1% BSA or DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, at 1 mg/ml and probe sonicated at 7 W for 2 min on ice.</p> <p>No significant differences on PI and</p>	HepG2 and BEAS 2B	<p>No decrease in viability of HepG2 (CellTiter-Blue® Cell Viability Assay)</p> <p>MN assay: Decrease of the CBPI at all concentrations indicating some cytotoxicity.</p>	<p>Positive: Dose dependent increase from 10 µg/ml in both treatment media (statistically significant from 50 µg/ml)</p> <p>CBMN: conditions tested: 10-100 µg/ml for 24h; 2 replicates;</p>	Uptake of agglomerates of TiO ₂ NP in cytoplasm of BEAS-2B cells exposed 24h to 20-100 µg/ml

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		ZP between the two media.			3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	
Kansara et al 2015	NM-102 99.7% purity, <u>anatase</u> <u>4-8 nm</u> ; 12-15 m ² /g	Suspended in MilliQ water and complete DMEM F-12 medium. In MilliQ water: 106.7 ± 8.0 nm and 213 ± 0.9 mV In complete DMEM F-12 medium supplemented with 10% FBS: 23.28 ± 2.0 nm and 10.1 ± 1.0 mV. Particles stable up to 72h.	A549 human pulmonary cells	Cytotoxic at 150 and 200 mg/ml after 48 h but not at 6 and 24 h in the MTT assay. Cytotoxic at 100, 150, and 200 mg/ml after 48 h exposure, but not at 6 and 24 hours in the NRU assay. Conditions tested: 1-200 µg/ml for 6, 24 and 48h. NP interference with assay reagent checked. MN assay: No data on the level of binucleated cells and CBPI data not given.	Positive: Increase from 75 µg/ml – dose dependent CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 25-100 µg/ml for 6 h; 2000 binucleated cells from each concentration scored; three independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	Not reported.
Tavares et al, 2014	NM-102: <u>Anatase</u> ; Primary particles were polyhedral. SSA: 90 m ² /g, PPS: <u>20.8-33 nm</u> ; aggregates/agglomerates: 43 nm (25%), 54 nm (median), 72 nm (75%) NM-103: <u>Rutile</u> hydrophobic; <u>coating</u> : dimethicone 2%; Primary particles were polyhedral. SSA: 60 m ² /g, PPS: <u>21.9-37.9 nm</u> , aggregates/agglomerates: 33 nm (25%), 67 nm (median), 129 nm (75%) NM-104: <u>Rutile</u> hydrophobic;	Prewetting powder in 0.5 vol% ethanol (96%) followed by addition of sterile-filtered 0.05 wt% BSA-water and dispersion by 16 min of probe sonication of the sample, cooled in an ice-water bath. According to the protocol, the batch dispersions are metastable and, for most samples, maintained for at least 1 h. Characterization in batch dispersion: NM-102: 22.4 nm and ca. 615 nm in the 0.05% BSA batch dispersion; PDI : from 0.135 ± 0.017 to 0.324 ± 0.020 NM-103: 78.8 nm and ca. 300 nm in the 0.05% BSA batch dispersion; PDI = 0.324 ± 0.020 NM-104: 78.8 nm and 122.4 nm; PDI from 0.135 ± 0.017 to 0.324 ±	Human peripheral lymphocytes	Not cytotoxic: cell viability and cell cycle progression were not affected by any of the TiO ₂ NMs treatments (RI and CBPI).	Positive (NM-102): Increased MN at 125 µg/ml without dose-relationship; Positive (NM-103): Increased MN at 5 and 45 µg/ml without dose-relationship. Positive (NM-104): Increased MN at 5 and 45 µg/ml without dose-relationship. Negative (NM-105). CBMN assay; from 0 to 256 µg/ml for 30 h of exposure; At least 2 replicate culture and 2000 binucleated cells and 1000 mononucleated cells from 2 independent cultures; positive and negative control valid.	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>coating: glycerine; Primary particles were polyhedral SSA: 60 m²/g; PPS: <u>19.0-25.8 nm</u>, aggregates/ agglomerates: 33 nm (25%), 60 nm (median), 112 nm (75%)</p> <p>NM-105: <u>Rutile/anatase</u> (15-85%); primary particles were polyhedral; SSA: 61 m²/g; PPS: <u>20.0-29.6 nm</u>; Aggregates/Agglomerate s: 55 nm (25%), 90 nm (median), 144 nm (75%)</p>	<p>0.020 NM-105: from 78.8 nm to 122.4 nm; PDI = 0.135 ± 0.017</p> <p>Characterization in exposure media: RPMI 1640 cell media added 15–20% w/v fetal calf serum and phytohemagglutinin A.</p> <p>NM-102: Extensive sedimentation after 6 hours: ca 75% NM-103: Extensive sedimentation after 6 hours: ca 25%. NM-104: Extensive sedimentation after 6 hours: ca 60%. Strong component of total sedimentation.</p>				
--	---	---	--	--	--	--

• Comet assays

Table I-02. Summaries of *in vitro* Comet assays which fulfil our selected criteria (published between 2010-2015; characterization of the tested materials; data on uptake and/or cytotoxicity; presence of negative and positive controls and use of several replicates)

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Hamzeh et al, 2013	Nano-TiO ₂ MTI5 anatase 5.9 nm; ≥ 99.5% pure	Suspension in a serum-containing culture media and sonication for 60 s at 30% amplitude and 20 kHz f (ice/water bath). The suspension was immediately added to cultured cells (in DMEM without phenol red and supplemented with FBS, sodium pyruvate, L-glutamine and pen-strep antibiotics) In media: MTI5: 460 nm (DLS); ZP: -12 mV P25: 400 nm (DLS); ZP : -12 mV Nanofilament: 420 nm (DLS); ZP: -12 mV Hombitan LW-S: 365 nm (DLS); ZP : -13 mV Vive Nano Titania: 600 nm (DLS); ZP: -19 mV	Chinese hamster lung fibroblast cells (V79)	Cytotoxic: decrease of cell viability at 10 and 100 mg/l (24h and 48h) for non-coated TiO ₂ . Nanofilament caused the highest decreased and Hombitan LW-S the lowest. For coated TiO ₂ : cell viability was decreased at 100 mg/l. MTT assay. Conditions tested: 1, 10, 100 mg/l for 24 or 48h, Negative and positive toxic controls. Increased apoptosis/necrosis rate of cells exposed to 100 mg/L (flow cytometry). Comet assay: cell viability more than 40% at 100 mg/l.	Positive at 100 mg/l (OTM or %Tail DNA) for MIT5, P25 and Nanofilament Negative for H. Bulk and Vive Nano. Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10 and 100 mg/l for 24 h; at least 3 independent experiments; 2 replicates; negative and positive controls.	MTI 5 and Hombitan LW-S could penetrate inside the cells and change cellular morphology Vive Nano Titania particles mostly formed large agglomerates and remained outside the cells.
	P25 83% anatase and 17% rutile 34.1 nm; ≥ 99.5% pure					
	Nanofilament rutile 15 nm; ≥ 99.5% pure					
	Hombitan LW-S Bulk anatase, ≥ 99.5% pure, 169.4 nm					
	Vive Nano Titania Rutile coated 78% (w/w) polymer and 22% nano-TiO ₂ , ≥ 99.5% pure, 1-10 nm					
Prasad et al, 2013	P25 AEROXIDE TiO ₂ 86% anatase/14% rutile 27.5 nm (14.2-64.6 nm); 49 m ² /g; 95.1% purity	Dispersion in DI water: Hydrodynamic diameter: 273 to 309 nm; ZP: -8.7 to -17.2 mV 3 media tested: (a) KB (keratinocyte growth medium (KGM) + 0.1% BSA, with 0.1% BSA; largest agglomerates (800-2000 nm), (b) DM (PBS + 0.6% BSA + 0.001% surfactant DSPC):	Human bronchial epithelial cell (BEAS-2B)	Non-cytotoxic (<10% decrease of cell viability at the highest concentration). Live/dead assay using a propidium iodide/calcein-AM commercial kit. Conditions tested: 24h; 20-100 µg/ml	Positive: Concentration-dependent increase in DNA damage in all three treatment media (% tail DNA) Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10-100 µg/ml for 24h; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	The smaller TiO ₂ nanoparticle agglomerates, which occur in the KF medium, interact more with the cells than do those formed in the other two media, which are larger

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		agglomerates (400-800 nm), (c) KF (KGM + 10% FBS): agglomerates of 200 nm PDI between 0.2 and 0.8. ZP :-0.53 to -8.47 mV => NP dispersions were unstable, aggregating and separating out of the liquid phase.				agglomerates.
Saquib et al, 2012	TiO ₂ -NPs <u>rutile</u> , crystallites with polyhedral morphologies <u>30.6 nm</u> (heterogeneous dispersion : presence of both primary particles and larger aggregates)	TiO ₂ were suspended in Milli-Q water and subjected to sonication for 15 min at 40W. Stock suspension was then instantly diluted in Milli-Q water and RPMI cell culture medium. In DI water: large particle aggregates of 380 nm. In RPMI cell culture medium: small population of an average 13 nm particle size and larger aggregates of 152 nm.	Human amnion epithelial (WISH) cells	Cytotoxic: concentration dependent decline in the cell survival at all doses in MTT assay. Conditions tested: 0.625 to 10 µg/ml for 24 h; min 3 independent experiments Cytotoxic: a concentration dependent decline in the survival of cells (significant from 2.5 µg/ml) in a NRU assay. Conditions tested: 0.625 to 10 µg/ml for 24 h; min 3 independent experiments No interferences between TiO ₂ NP and NR dye up to 10 µg/ml	Positive: significant induction of DNA damage at 20 µg/ml (OTM) Neutral Comet assay. Conditions tested: 0.625 to 20 µg/ml for 6hrs; at least 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	Aggregates of NPs, localized either inside the vesicles or free in cytoplasm (more than 85% of the analyzed cell sections exhibited internalized TiO ₂ - NPs aggregates)
Shukla et al, 2013	Titanium (IV) oxide nanopowder 99.7%, <u>anatase</u> , <u>30-70 nm</u>	NP suspended in IMEM (medium without FBS) and probe sonicated for 10 min. Dilution of suspensions in CMEM (medium with 10% FBS). DLS: 192.5 ± 2.00 nm; PDI: 0.18 ± 0.01 nm; ZP: -11.4 ± 0.25 mV	HepG2 cells	Cytotoxic with MTT and NRU assays: significant reduction of enzymatic activity at 40 and 80 µg/mL after 24 and 48 h; but no cytotoxicity after 6h (0, 1, 10, 20, 40 and 80 mg/ml) Interference checked with assay reagents but not with cells	Positive Without Fpg: Increased OTM from 10 µg/ml – dose dependent and increased %tail DNA from 20 µg/ml – dose dependent. With Fpg: Increased OTM at all doses – dose dependent and increased %tail DNA from 10 µg/ml. Standard and Fpg modified Comet assay. Conditions tested: 1, 10, 20, 40 and 80 mg/ml for 6	Internalization concluded from flow cytometry as well as from TEM (apparently numerous individualized NPs inside the cells)

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

					h; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	
Guichard et al, 2012	<p>TiO₂ A nano (Sigma 637254) <u>Anatase, 14 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 149 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p> <p>TiO₂ A micro (Sigma 232033) <u>Anatase, 160 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 9 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0.5%</p> <p>TiO₂ R nano (Sigma 637262), <u>rutile, 62 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 177 m²/g, 11% SiO₂, 1% Na₂O and 1% SO₄</p> <p>TiO₂ R micro (Sigma 224227), <u>rutile, 530 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 3 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0,5%</p> <p>TiO₂ P25 (Aeroxide), 80% anatase; 20% <u>rutile, 25 nm</u> (TEM); BET = 58 m²/g, chemical impurity < 0,5%</p>	<p>Sonication for 20 min at 40 Watt using a sonicator bath. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum and antibiotics (Penicillin, Steptomycin). At 80% confluence, cells were harvested using 0.25% trypsin and 0.53 mM ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid (EDTA) and were sub-cultured into a culture support appropriate for the type of experiment selected.</p> <p>All particle suspensions in the SHE culture medium consisted of mainly agglomerated particles: particle diameters determined by DLS (dZ) varied from 300 to 700 nm depending on the particle type. Suspension of anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles led to coarser particle formation than its microsized counterpart. The contrary was observed for rutile TiO₂.</p>	Syrian hamster embryo cells (SHE)	<p>Cytotoxic based on decrease of RCC.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 0,5 - 200 µg/cm² for 24 and 72 hours => Nanoparticles were more cytotoxic than their micrometer counterparts.</p>	<p>TiO₂ A nano: Positive at 50 µg/cm²</p> <p>TiO₂ A micro: Positive from 25 µg/cm²</p> <p>Anatase produced the highest level of DNA damage, with no significant difference between nano and microparticles.</p> <p>TiO₂ R nano: Negative</p> <p>TiO₂ R micro: Positive from 25 µg/cm²</p> <p>TiO₂ P25: Positive at all concentrations.</p> <p>Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10, 25, 50 µg/cm² for 24 hours; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls. Genotoxicity as % Tail DNA</p>	All particles are able to penetrate cells in the form of individual particles and agglomerates (TEM)

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Hackenberg et al, 2011</p>	<p>TiO₂ <u>Anatase</u> <u>< 25 nm</u> (manufacturer specification) - 15-30 nm (TEM)</p>	<p>Sonication and dilution in PBS. In PBS: Only small fraction of particles dispersed. High level of compact aggregations: 285 ± 52 nm (TEM)</p>	<p>Human peripheral blood lymphocytes from 10 healthy male donors</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic: Percentage of stained cells < 20%, viable cells 81-94% in Trypan blue exclusion test. Conditions tested: 20, 50, 100, 200 µg/ml for 24h</p>	<p>Negative (Tail DNA, Tail length and OTM) Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 20, 50, 100, 200 µg/ml for 24 hours; 2 slides per cells; positive and negative controls.</p>	<p>The rate of cells with NP transferred to the cytoplasm was low: in 100 counted lymphocytes, intracytoplasmatic TiO₂-NPs could be demonstrated in 5 cells. Mainly large-sized particle aggregates up to 500 nm in diameter were seen and NP invasion into the nucleus was observed in one cell.</p>
<p>Woodruff et al, 2012</p>	<p><u>Anatase</u> <u>10 nm</u>; dry size distribution: 10x30nm: heavily aggregated not only in dry powder but also in solution (130-170 nm)</p>	<p>Dispersion by vortexing for 5 min followed by 10 min of bath sonication (size in solution treatment: around 130 nm). Then added to RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Size in cell culture: 170 nm.</p>	<p>TK6 human lymphoblastoid cells</p>	<p>Cytotoxic: significant concentration-dependent decrease of cell viability at all doses (at 200 µg/ml: viability about 55%) in Trypan blue exclusion assay. Conditions tested: 50-200 µg/ml for 24h.</p>	<p>Negative (%Tail DNA) Standard alkaline Comet assay and endoIII and hOGG1-modified Comet assays. Conditions tested: 0, 50, 100, 150, 200 µg/ml 24 hours; 3 independent assays; negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>Cells treated with 200 µg/ml TiO₂ in RPMI-1640 culture medium for 24 hours: TiO₂-NPs were found in nearly every TEM image prepared with the TK6 cells treated with the TiO₂-NPs</p>
<p>Vales et al. 2014</p>	<p>NM 102 <u>Anatase</u>; primary particle size: <u>21.7±0.6 nm</u></p>	<p>Nanogenotox protocol: pre-wetted in 0.5% absolute ethanol and afterwards dispersed in 0.05% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in MilliQ water, the nanoparticles in the dispersion medium were sonicated for 16 min to obtain a stock dispersion of 2.56 mg/mL. In exposure medium: 575.9 nm; PDI: 0.471 (DLS), ZP: -19.5 mV</p>	<p>BEAS-2B cells</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>	<p>Negative (%Tail DNA) Alkaline and Fpg modified Comet assay. Conditions tested: 1, 10, 20µg/ml for 24h, 1 or 3 weeks. Experiment on duplicate cultures but done only once; negative and positive controls; high value of tail DNA in controls.</p>	<p>Uptake after 24h to 20 µg/ml (TEM)</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		(LDV)				
Rozsak et al. 2013	TiO ₂ Mixture of <u>rutile and anatase forms</u> TiO ₂ aggregates (SEM), irregular shape broad size distribution <u>from 10 nm up to 10 μm</u> (ATM)	Prepared in MilliQ water DLS size = 220 nm (stable at least 72 h); ZP: 40 mV; Specific BET 27.1 m ² /g (non-porous). Then immediately (within 10 min) mixed with fresh culture medium and applied onto the cells. DLS size: 300 nm (stable 30 h) in culture medium with FBS (1:9)	Balb/3T3 fibroblasts	Cytotoxic at 100-250 μg/ml after 72h in WST1 reduction assay. Interference with applied detection systems was excluded. Error or number of cells seeded for cytotoxicity test seems to be very low.	Positive: slight but clear dose-effect in tail moment from 100 μg/ml after 3h exposure and at 250 μg/ml after 24h exposure. Not effect on tail intensity. Comet assay. Conditions tested not well developed; 10-250 μg/ml for 3 or 24h; 4 samples; negative and positive controls.	Not reported.
Shukla et al. 2011	Titanium (IV) oxide nanopowder; 99.7%, <u>anatase, 10 nm</u>	Dispersion in two different media (a) milliQ water: mean hydrodynamic diameter: 124.9 nm and ZP: -17.6 mV (b) DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS: mean hydrodynamic diameter: 171.4 nm and ZP: -11.5 mV Probe sonicated treatment at 30W for 10 min for both media	Human epidermal cell line (A431)	Cytotoxic with NRU and MTT assays at 8 and 80 μg/ml after 48 hours. Conditions tested: 0.008-80 μg/ml for 6, 24, 48 hours.	Positive Increased OTM from 8 μg/ml without Fpg and from 0.8 μg/ml with Fpg (dose-dependent) Increased %Tail DNA from 8 μg/ml without Fpg and from 0.8 μg/ml with Fpg (dose-dependent) Standard and Fpg modified Comet assay. Conditions tested: 0.008-80 μg/ml for 6h exposure; 3 independent experiments; 2 replicates; negative and positive controls.	Significant concentration-dependent increase in the cellular internalization of TiO ₂ NPs after 6 h exposure (flow cytometer method). Subcellular localization of TiO ₂ NPs inside cytoplasm and nucleus was confirmed using TEM
Kansara et al, 2015	NM 102 99.7%, <u>anatase; 1.7±0.6 nm</u>	Suspended in MilliQ water and complete DMEM F-12 medium. In MilliQ water: 106.7 ± 8.0 nm and 213 ±0.9 mV In complete DMEM F-12 medium supplemented with 10% FBS: 23.28 ± 2.0 nm and 10.1 ± 1.0 mV. Particles stable up to 72h.	A549 human pulmonary cells	Cytotoxic at 150 and 200 μg/ml after 48 h but not at 6 and 24 h in the MTT assay. Cytotoxic at 100, 150, and 200 μg/ml after 48 h exposure, but not at 6 and 24 hours in the NRU assay. Conditions tested: 1-200 μg/ml for 6, 24 and 48h. NP interference with assay reagent checked.	Positive from 75 μg/ml (OTM and %Tail DNA) – dose-dependent. Comet assay. Conditions tested: 25-100 μg/ml for 6h; 3 independent experiments; 2 replicates; negative and positive controls.	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Valdiglesias et al, 2013</p>	<p>TiO₂-S 100% <u>anatase</u> <u>25 nm</u> ; 200-225 m²/g</p>	<p>TiO₂ NPs suspended in either deionized water or complete cell culture medium (with FBS) and ultrasonicated at 30W for 5 min</p>	<p>Human SHSY5Y neuronal cells</p>	<p>Non cytotoxic in MTT and NRU assays</p>	<p>Positive</p>	<p>Uptake increase with time of treatment (flow cytometry) – Uptake was always lower for TiO₂-D NPs than for TiO₂-S NPs</p>
	<p>TiO₂-D <u>80% anatase and 20% rutile; 25 nm</u> ; 35-45 m²/g</p>	<p>TiO₂-D: DI water: 160.5 nm; ZP:-27.8 mV Complete medium: 228.3 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV</p>		<p>Conditions tested: 20-150 µg/ml for 3, 6, 24 h.</p>	<p>TiO₂-S: increased %Tail DNA at all concentration in the 3h treatment group – dose-related and at 80 and 120 µg/ml in the 6h treatment group – not dose related.</p>	
		<p>TiO₂-S: DI water: 447.9 nm; ZP:-9.96 mV Complete medium: 504.5 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV</p>		<p>Interference: no interaction between NP and dyes used.</p>	<p>TiO₂-D: increased %Tail DNA at 150 µg/ml in the 3h treatment group – dose-related and at 80 and 120 µg/ml in the 6h treatment group – not dose related.</p>	
					<p>Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 80, 120 and 150 µg/ml for 3 or 6 h A minimum of 3 independent experiments; 2 replicates; negative and positive controls.</p>	
<p>Gerloff, 2012</p>	<p>Aeroxide P25 Pyrogenic nanometric <u>Anatase/rutile</u> powder (77%/23%) Purity > 99.6%, ZP: -21.5 (water, pH 7.4); SSA: 52.6 m²/g; primary particle mean diameter: <u>25.20 nm</u>; Z-average hydrodynamic diameter: 214.5 nm (water, pH 9) (DLS)</p>	<p>Samples were suspended in serum free cellular media, sonicated for 10 min in a water bath sonicator and used directly. Cell culture media: MEM with Earle's salts and nonessential amino acids, supplemented with L-glutamine, and penicillin–streptomycin.</p>	<p>Caco-2 cells (human colon adenocarcinoma)</p>	<p>Cytotoxic at 80 µg/cm² at 4 (only LDH assay) and at 24h (WST-1 and LDH assays).</p>	<p>Positive without Fpg The actual level of DNA damage was relatively close to the background, in contrast to the tested positive control and is therefore considered low.</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>
	<p>TUFA/RII Nanometric <u>anatase/rutile</u> powder (90/10%) Purity > 99.7%; ZP: -23.5 (water, pH 7,4); SSA: 52.8 m²/g; primary particle mean diameter: <u>21.90 nm</u>;</p>	<p>P25: CE diameter in serum free cellular media (FPIA-3000): 11.8 µm TUFA/RII: CE diameter in serum free cellular media (FPIA-3000): 12.0 µm JRC12: CE diameter in serum free cellular media (FPIA-3000): 6.5 µm Hombikat UV100: CE diameter in serum free cellular media (FPIA-3000): 6.1 µm TEA: CE diameter in serum free</p>		<p>Cytotoxic at 80 µg/cm² at 4 and 24h for WST-1and LDH assays.</p>	<p>Negative with Fpg Standard and Fpg-modified comet assay. Conditions tested: 20 µg/cm² for 4 h; 3 experiments; negative and positive controls.</p>	
				<p>Conditions tested: 20 or 80 µg/cm² for 4 or 24h.</p>	<p>Negative Standard and Fpg-modified comet assay. Conditions tested: 20 µg/cm² for 4 h; 3 experiments; negative and positive controls.</p>	

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>Z-average hydrodynamic diameter: 327.5 nm (water, pH 9) (DLS)</p>	<p>cellular media (FPIA-3000): 6.2 µm</p>				
	<p>JRC12 Nanometric <u>anatase</u> powder (100% anatase) Purity > 99.3%; ZP: -36.5 (water, pH 7,4); SSA: 282.3 m²/g; primary particle mean diameter: <u>6.7 nm</u>; Z-average hydrodynamic diameter: 455.2 nm (water, pH 9) (DLS)</p>		<p>Not cytotoxic in LDH assay. Cytotoxic in WST-1 assay at 20 µg/cm² after 4 hours and at 80 µg/cm² after 4 and 24h. Conditions tested: 20 or 80 µg/cm² for 4 or 24h.</p>			
	<p>Hombikat UV100 Nanometric <u>anatase</u> powder (100% anatase) Purity > 99.5%; ZP: -38,3 (water, pH 7,4); SSA: 342.4 m²/g; primary particle mean diameter: <u>3.94 nm</u>; Z-average hydrodynamic diameter: 291.1 nm (water, pH 9) (DLS)</p>		<p>Not cytotoxic in LDH assay. Cytotoxic in WST-1 assay at 80 µg/cm² after 24h. Conditions tested: 20 or 80 µg/cm² for 4 or 24h.</p>			
	<p>TFA Fine (micrometric) <u>anatase</u> powder (100% anatase) Purity > 99%; ZP: -48,9 (water, pH 7,4); SSA: 10 m²/g; primary particle mean diameter: <u>215 nm</u>; Z-average hydrodynamic diameter: 374 nm (water, pH 9) (DLS)</p>		<p>Not cytotoxic in LDH assay. Cytotoxic in WST-1 assay at 20 µg/cm² after 4h. Conditions tested: 20 or 80 µg/cm² for 4 or 24h.</p>			

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Kermanizadeh et al, 2012</p>	<p>NM101: Hombikat UV100 <u>Rutile with minor anatase</u> <u>9 nm</u> (XRD); 322 m²/g; no known coating</p> <p>NRCWE 001 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles; no coating <u>10 nm</u>; 99 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 002 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles <u>10 nm with positive charge</u>; 84 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 003 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles <u>10 nm with negative charge</u>; 84 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 004 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; 94 nm</p>	<p>Dispersion utilising MilliQ de-ionised water with 2% FCS. The NMs were sonicated for 16 mins without pause following the protocol developed for ENPRA. Following sonication, all samples were kept on ice until dilution in complete medium: MEM with FCS, Lglutamine, Penicillin/Streptomycin, sodium pyruvate, and non-essential amino acids</p> <p>Size in MEM: M101: 185.742 nm NRCWE 001 : 203 nm NRCWE 002 : 287 nm NRCWE 003: 240 nm NRCWE 004 : 339 nm</p>	<p>Human hepatoblastoma C3A cells</p>	<p>NM101: increased % cytotoxicity but not significant.</p> <p>NRCWE 001; 002; 003; 004: cytotoxic at all concentrations</p> <p>Conditions tested: 5-80 µg/cm² for 24h.</p> <p>Pre-treatment with Trolox (antioxidant) prevent the cytotoxicity.</p>	<p>NM101: Positive: at 20 µg/cm² without Fpg and from 5 µg/cm² with Fpg (most evident DNA damage) (%Tail DNA) – dose-dependent.</p> <p>NRCWE 001: Positive at 10 µg/cm² only with Fpg (small but significant increase in % tail DNA) – dose-dependent. Negative without Fpg</p> <p>NRCWE 002: Positive: at 5 µg/cm² without Fpg and at all doses with Fpg (most evident DNA damage) – dose-dependent.</p> <p>NRCWE 003: Negative</p> <p>NRCWE 004: Positive: at 10 µg/cm² only with Fpg (small but significant increase in % tail DNA) (small but significant increase in percentage tail DNA) – dose-dependent. Negative without Fpg</p> <p>Standard and Fpg modified Comet assay. Conditions tested: 5, 10, 20 µg/cm² for 4h for NM101, NRCWE 003 and 004 or 2.5, 5, 10 µg/cm² for 4h for NRCWE 001 and 002. All experiments were repeated a minimum of three times; negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>Not reported</p>
--	---	--	---------------------------------------	---	---	---------------------

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Kermanizadeh et al. 2013</p>	<p>NM101: Hombikat UV100 <u>Rutile with minor anatase</u> <u>9 nm</u> (XRD); 322 m²/g; no known coating</p> <p>NRCWE 001 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles; no coating <u>10 nm</u>; 99 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 002 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles <u>10 nm with positive charge</u>; 84 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 003 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Irregular euhedral particles <u>10 nm with negative charge</u>; 84 m²/g</p> <p>NRCWE 004 TiO₂ <u>Rutile</u>; Appr. 100 nm</p> <p>Five different particle types were identified: 1) irregular spheres, 1–4 nm (av. Diameter); 2) irregular euhedral particles, 10–100 nm (longest dimension); 3) fractal-like structures in long chains, 100–200 nm (longest dimension); 4) big irregular polyhedral particles, 1-2 μm (longest dimension); 5) large irregular particles with jagged</p>	<p>NMs were dispersed in MilliQ deionised water with 2% FCS. The nanomaterials were sonicated for 16 mins without pause following the protocol developed for ENPRA. Following the sonication step, all samples were immediately transferred to ice.</p> <p>Size in complete renal cell medium (K-SFM): NM101: 221 nm NRCWE 001 : 349 nm NRCWE 002 : 314 nm NRCWE 003: 384 nm NRCWE 004 : 396 nm</p> <p>Size in RPMI with 10% FCS: M101: 358 nm NRCWE 001 : 337.5 nm NRCWE 002 : 378.8 nm NRCWE 003: 423.6 nm NRCWE 004 : 482.6 nm</p>	<p>Immortalized adult human renal proximal tubule epithelial cells HK-2</p>	<p>All of the TiO₂ were considered to be low toxicity materials as the LC₅₀ was not reached.</p> <p>WST-1 cell viability assay. Conditions tested: 0.16-80 μg/cm² (0.5-256 μg/ml) for 24h.</p> <p>Interferences: No toxicity of the dispersants to HK-2 cells.</p>	<p>NM101: positive at all concentrations without and with Fpg (dose-dependent) (%Tail DNA)</p> <p>NRCWE 001 : negative (%Tail DNA)</p> <p>NRCWE 002 : positive at all concentrations without Fpg (not dose-related) and from 40 μg/cm² with Fpg (dose-related) (%Tail DNA)</p> <p>NRCWE 003: negative without Fpg and positive at 40 μg/cm² with Fpg (not dose-related) (%Tail DNA)</p> <p>NRCWE 004 : positive at 40 μg/cm² without Fpg (dose-related) and from 20 μg/cm² with Fpg (not dose-related) (%Tail DNA)</p> <p>Alkaline and Fpg Comet assay. Conditions tested: 20, 40, 80 μg/cm² (NRCWE 002, NM101, NRCWE 001) or 10, 20, 40 μg/cm² (NRCWE 004, NRCWE 003) for 4h; triplicate; negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>Not reported</p>
--	---	---	---	---	---	---------------------

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	boundaries, 1–2 µm (longest dimension).					
Hackenberg et al. 2010	TiO ₂ -NPs <u>Anatase ; < 25 nm</u>	Dispersed in DI water. Then sonicated for 60s at a high energy level of 4.2×10 ⁵ kJ/m ³ using a continuous mode to create an optimal grade of dispersion, BSA was added as a stabilizer at an end concentration of 1.5 mg/ml. Finally, PBS was added to achieve a physiological salt concentration and pH of 7.4. In stock suspension: 15-30 nm, high level of compact aggregations sized 285±52 nm. In particular cases, aggregates could reach diameters up to 2000 nm.	Human nasal mucosa cells from 10 donors	Not cytotoxic for both cytotoxicity tests: Trypan blue test: death cells below 20% and FDA assay: cell viability between 95 and 76%. Conditions tested: 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24 h	Negative (tail DNA, tail length and OTM) Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24h; negative and positive controls; 10 donors used per concentration; 2 slides per cells.	11% of the nasal mucosa cells presented nanoparticles in the cytoplasm. In cases of cell invasion, large-sized particle aggregates up to 1000 nm in diameter could be described, being surrounded by vesicles. Invasion into the cell nucleus was observed in 4%
Demir et al. 2015	<u>Micro TiO₂</u> 99% to 100.5% purity	No information	Human embryonic kidney (HEK293) Mouse embryonic fibroblast (NIH/3T3)	Only information from CBPI in the MN assay: Micro-TiO ₂ : no effect on CBPI Nano-TiO ₂ : decrease of CBPI	Micro-TiO ₂ : Negative with both cell lines (%DNA tail) Nano TiO ₂ (21 and 50 nm): Positive at 1000 µg/ml (%DNA tail) only in the standard Comet assay – dose-dependent. Negative in the Fpg modified assay. Standard and modified Fpg Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10-100-1000 µg/ml for 1h; negative and positive controls; 2 independent experiments with 2 replicates. Very high concentrations tested.	Not reported.
	<u>Nano TiO₂</u> <u>Anatase, 21 nm</u> ; > 99.5% purity	Dispersed at the concentration of 2.56 mg/mL prepared in a 0.05% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in water, subjected to ultrasonication at 20kHz for 16 min in an ice-cooled bath; (in agreement of the proposal from Nanogenotox EU project). No important agglomerations observed following the dispersion protocol used. Nano-TiO ₂ (21 nm) : 22.94± 0.3 nm (DLS) and ZP : 8.71mV				
	<u>Nano TiO₂</u> <u>Anatase, 50 nm</u> , > 98% purity	Nano-TiO ₂ (50 nm) : 50.72±0.4 nm (DLS) and ZP: 9.38mV				

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Ursini et al. 2014</p>	<p>Purity up to 97%; 1% Mn as dopant.</p> <p>Typical spherical shape characterized by extremely variable dimensions (TEM), 79/21% <u>anatase/rutile</u>, primary diameter: <u>43.8 + 17 nm</u> (TEM); SSA: 14.9m²/g (BET)</p>	<p>Solution was prepared in ultrapure sterile water, vortexed for 1 min and sonicated for 5 min. Then diluted in culture medium and sonicated in 2 steps of 5 min with a pause of 30s, before added to the cells.</p> <p>Cell culture medium for A549: RPMI-1640 with FBS.</p> <p>Cell culture medium for BEASB-2B: BEGM BulletKit.</p> <p>DLS: more negative ZP and smaller agglomerate sizes in water in respect to cell culture media. Agglomerate sizes were significantly smaller in RPMI medium with FBS than in BEGM medium (TEM and DLS). TiO₂ remained stable during the entire exposure period although in BEGM, TiO₂ suspension showed a very slight sedimentation after 24h (DLS).</p> <p>In water: ZP: -32.2 mV, 140 nm In RPMI/FBS: ZP: -9.13mV, 151 nm In BEGM: ZP: -11.7mV, 186 nm</p>	<p>A549 human pulmonary cells.</p> <p>Bronchial epithelial BEAS-2B</p>	<p>Cytotoxic with A459 cells only at 40 µg/ml and with BEAS from 10 µg/ml in WST-1 assay.</p> <p>Cytotoxic with A459 cells at 40 µg/ml after 30 min and 2 h and with BEAS-2B cells from 10 µg/ml at 30 min and 2 h in LDH assay.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 1-40 µg/ml for 24h (WST-1 assay) or 30 min, 2 and 24h (LDH assay).</p>	<p>Positive in A549 cells at 40 µg/ml, after 2 h, – with and without Fpg (%Tail DNA).</p> <p>Negative in BEAS-2B</p> <p>Standard and Fpg modified comet assay. Conditions tested: 1, 5, 10, 20, 40 µg/ml for 2 and 24h; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>
<p>Petkovic, 2011a</p>	<p>TiO₂-B > 100 nm; <u>anatase</u>, surface area: 8.6 m²/g (BET)</p> <p>TiO₂-A < 25 nm, <u>anatase</u>, surface area: 129.3 m²/g (BET)</p>	<p>UV pre-irradiation: 24h irradiation in a UV chamber.</p> <p>For both non-irradiated and UV-irradiated TiO₂ particles, the stock suspensions were prepared in PBS. These were sonicated for 30 min in an ultrasonic bath at a frequency of 60 kHz. These stock suspensions were subsequently diluted in cell-growth medium. These samples were then sonicated for 30 min before addition to the cells in</p>	<p>HepG2 cells</p>	<p>Non-irradiated TiO₂-A and TiO₂-B: not cytotoxic.</p> <p>Irradiated TiO₂-A and TiO₂-B: decreased viability at the 2 highest concentrations; already evident after 4h exposure.</p> <p>MTT assay. Conditions tested: 1-250 µg/ml for 4, 24 or 48h; positive control</p>	<p><u>Non-irradiated TiO₂-A:</u> Without Fpg: positive at the highest concentration after 2, 4 and 24h – dose-related. With Fpg: positive at 250 µg/ml at 2h, from 100 µg/ml at 4h and from 10 µg/ml at 24h – dose-related.</p> <p><u>Non-irradiated TiO₂-B:</u> Without Fpg: negative at 2h but positive from 100 µg/ml at 4 and</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		<p>culture.</p> <p>During the experimental work, illumination of the particles was avoided as much as possible; however, the experiments were not conducted in complete darkness. During the exposure of the cells to the TiO₂-A and TiO₂-B, the incubations were kept in complete darkness.</p> <p>In suspension: TiO₂-A: fast sedimentation; ZP in medium: -8.7 mV TiO₂-B: stable for days; ZP in medium: -13.5 mV</p>		<p>included.</p>	<p>24h – dose-related With Fpg: positive at 250 µg/ml at 2 h – dose-related but negative at 4 and 24h.</p> <p><u>Irradiated TiO₂-A:</u> Without Fpg: positive from 10 µg/ml at 2h, at 250 µg/ml at 4h and 100 µg/ml at 24h – dose-related. With Fpg: positive at all doses at 2, 4 and 24h – dose-related.</p> <p><u>Irradiated TiO₂-B:</u> Without Fpg: positive from 100 µg/ml at 2, 4 and 24h – dose-related. With Fpg: positive at all doses at 2 and 4h and from 10 µg/ml at 24h – dose-related.</p> <p>Standard and Fpg modified Comet assay. Conditions tested: 1-250 µg/ml for 2, 4 or 24h; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls. % tail DNA used.</p>	
<p>Petkovic, 2011b</p>	<p>TiO₂-An <u>< 25 nm, anatase,</u> BET: 129.3 m²/g</p> <p>TiO₂-Ru <u>< 100 nm, rutile,</u> BET: 116.7 m²/g</p>	<p>Powdered TiO₂ NPs were suspended in PBS and sonicated for 30 min in an ultrasonic bath at a frequency of 60 kHz, voltage of 220 V and an electric current of 0.5 A. This stock solution was then diluted in the complete cell growth medium. These samples were then sonicated for 30 min.</p> <p>Cell culture medium: EMEM containing fetal bovine serum, non-essential amino acid solution, glutamine and penicillin + streptomycin</p>	<p>HepG2 cells</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic.</p> <p>MTT assay. Conditions tested: 1-250 µg/ml for 4, 24 or 48h.</p>	<p><u>TiO₂-An</u> Standard assay: positive at the highest dose at 2 and 24h; positive at 1 and 250 µg/ml at 4h – no clear dose-relation.</p> <p>With Fpg: positive from 10 µg/ml at 2 and 24h and from 100 µg/ml at 4h – dose-dependent.</p> <p>With Endo III: positive at 250 µg/ml at 2h, at 100 µg/ml at 4h and at 10 µg/ml at 24h – not dose-dependent.</p> <p><u>TiO₂-Ru</u></p>	<p>Not reported.</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		<p>In the medium both types of TiO₂ NPs are highly aggregated and agglomerated with an average size of aggregates and agglomerate size at the micron level (TiO₂-An: 915 ± 453 nm; TiO₂-Ru: 1542 ± 760 nm). However, the portion of submicron-sized particles is much lower in the case of the TiO₂-An than in TiO₂-Ru.</p>			<p>Standard assay: negative at 2 and 24h; positive at 100 µg/ml at 4h – not-dose related.</p> <p>With Fpg: negative at 2 and 4h and positive at 10 and 100 µg/ml at 24h – not dose-dependent.</p> <p>With Endo III: positive at 250 µg/ml at 2h and 24h; but negative at 4h.</p> <p>Standard, Fpg and Endo III modified Comet assays. Conditions tested: 1, 10, 100, 250 µg/ml for 2, 4 or 24h; 3 independent experiments for standard Comet assay and 2 for Fpg and Endo III Comet assays; negative and positive controls.</p>	
--	--	--	--	--	---	--

• **Chromosomal aberrations**

Table I-03. Summaries of the *in vitro* Chromosomal Aberration assays which fulfill our selected criteria (published between 2010-2015; characterization of the tested materials; data on uptake and/or cytotoxicity; presence of negative and positive controls and use of several replicates)

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Browning et al. 2014	Aeroxide TiO ₂ P25 spherical in shape, uncoated, vary between <u>78-85% anatase</u> , <u>14-17% rutile</u> and 0-13% amorphous; <u>25 nm</u> ; ZP: -36.4 mV; SSA: 46 m ² /g	<p>Suspension in deionized water and probe sonicated at 10 KHz for 5 min. Dilutions prepared in cold deionized water filtered with a 0.22 µm filter.</p> <p>Dilution in complete media (serum containing) and media without serum. The media contained DMEM/F12 50 : 50 mixture, supplemented with cosmic calf serum, GlutaGRO, penicillin/streptomycin and sodium pyruvate.</p> <p>In extracellular medium: peak distribution less than 100 nm when cells treated with 10 µg/cm² and at 225 nm when cells treated at 100 µg/cm².</p> <p>TiO₂ aggregates were comparable in size in the complete medium and the extracellular medium while they were larger in the serum-free media.</p>	<p>Primary human skin fibroblasts (BJ cells)</p> <p>Human skin fibroblast cells immortalized with hTERT (BJhTERT cells)</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic in a clonogenic survival assay.</p> <p>No effect on cell count.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 10-100 µg/cm² for 24h.</p>	<p>Negative</p> <p>Clastogenicity assay. Conditions tested: 10-100 µg/cm² for 24h; 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.</p>	Identified in the cytoplasm, often associated with lysosomes and in the nucleus (monolayer of skin fibroblasts treated with 50 µg/cm ² TiO ₂ for 24h – TEM)
Catalan et al. 2012	TiO ₂ from Sigma Aldrich; <u>Anatase</u> ; 99.7% purity; <u>< 25 nm</u> ; 222 m ² /g	Dispersion in RPMI-1640 medium with 15% foetal bovine serum and ultrasonication at 37 kHz for 20 min in a 37 C water bath.	Human lymphocytes	<p>Not cytotoxic with propidium iodide incorporation method.</p> <p>Cytotoxicity did not reach the 50% level.</p>	<p>Positive: increased frequency of cells with CAs after the 48-h exposure (gap included, excluded and total CA) with a difference to the control at 300 µg/ml for chromatid-type CAs gaps excluded, from 12.5 µg/ml for chromatid type CAs gaps included, and from 100 µg/ml for total aberrations with or without gaps. Effects dose-dependent.</p>	Among the chromosomes, agglomerates of NM which were still left with the cells despite the multiples washes. It was especially difficult to separate TiO ₂ from the cells and for a few

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

				<p>Conditions tested: 6.25-600 µg/ml for 24, 48 or 72h.</p> <p>Mitotic index not affected in the CA test.</p>	<p>Negative with 24 and 72h exposure.</p> <p>Chromosomal Aberrations assay. Conditions tested: 6.25-300 µg/ml for 24, 48 or 72h; duplicate; negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>metaphases, chromosomal aberrations examination could not be performed (microscopic images).</p>
--	--	--	--	---	---	---

• **Non-standardized studies**

This section includes types of studies which do not follow any current recognized guidelines and are less commonly used than *in vitro* Comet assay. Only γ -H2AX assays detecting DNA double strand breaks were sorted based on our criteria.

Table I-04. Summaries of non-standardized *in vitro* studies which fulfil our selected criteria (published between 2010-2015; characterization of the tested materials; data on uptake and/or cytotoxicity; presence of negative and positive controls and use of several replicates)

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Barillet et al. 2010	TiO ₂ -CEA 95% <u>anatase</u> ; spherical, <u>12 nm</u> (TEM) and 17 nm (BET), 92 m ² /g (SSA), PZC: 6.4	Nanoparticles were dispersed by sonication in ultrapure sterile water (pH 5.5). Then diluted in cell culture medium (DMEM medium supplemented with 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin.	NRK-52E rat kidney proximal cells	Not cytotoxic for exposure periods < 24h. After 48h exposure, cell mortality rapidly reached a plateau for concentrations higher than 20 or 40 µg/ml. Statistically lower cytotoxicity with the largest NP. No conclusion on the impact of crystalline phase on toxicity (MTT assay). Similar results in LDH assay. MTT and LDH release assays. Conditions tested: 0.25 to 100 µg/ml for 1-72h.	Negative γ -H2AX immunostaining. Conditions tested: 20-200 µg/ml for 24 h; at least 3 assays; negative and positive controls.	All NP were uptaken by cells. NP were localized in the cytoplasm, either in vesicles or isolated. Nanoparticles were rarely observed in cell nuclei (TEM).
	TiO ₂ -P25 (Aeroxide P25),89% <u>anatase</u> ; spherical, <u>24 nm</u> (TEM) and 33 nm (BET), 46 m ² /g (SSA), PZC: 7					
	TiO ₂ -Sigma 100% <u>anatase</u> ; spherical, <u>142 nm</u> (TEM) and 152 nm (BET), 10 m ² /g (SSA), PZC: 5.2	TiO ₂ were slightly agglomerated and/or aggregated when dispersed in water. In cell culture medium, NP agglomerated as 200-400 nm clusters except for TiO ₂ -Sigma particles which agglomerated to > 3 µm clusters.				
	TiO ₂ -Sigma-R 100% <u>rutile</u> ; elongated, <u>68*9 nm</u> (TEM), 118 m ² /g (SSA); silicium as impurity					
Jugan et al. 2012	TiO ₂ -A12 NP 95% <u>anatase</u> , spherical <u>12 nm</u> ; 92 m ² /g; PZC: 6.4	Dispersion in ultrapure sterile water (pH5.5) by sonication for 30 min at 4 C, in pulsed mode (1 s on/1 s off), NPs suspensions were diluted in DMEM without serum.	A549 human pulmonary cells	Cytotoxic MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml of NP suspensions for 4–48 h)	Negative γ -H2AX immunostaining. Conditions tested: 50-200 µg/ml for 24h; negative and positive controls.	Unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus of cells
	TiO ₂ -A25 (AEROXIDE P25) 86% <u>anatase</u> / 14% <u>rutile</u> , spherical <u>24 nm</u> ; 46 m ² /g; PZS: 7.0					Unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the cytoplasm

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

Valdiglesi as et al, 2013	TiO ₂ -S <u>100% anatase, 25 nm ; 200-220 m²/g</u>	TiO ₂ NPs suspended in either deionized water or complete cell culture medium (with FBS) and ultrasonicated at 30W for 5 min	Human SHSY5Y neuronal cells	Non cytotoxic in MTT and NRU assays. Conditions tested: 20-150 µg/ml for 3, 6, 24 h. Interference: no interaction between NP and dyes used	Negative γ-H2AX phosphorylation. Conditions tested: 80, 120, 150 µg/ml for 3 or 6h; minimum of 3 independent experiments; negative and positive controls.	Uptake increase with time of treatment (flow cytometry) – Uptake was always lower for TiO ₂ -D NPs than for TiO ₂ -S NPs
	TiO ₂ -D <u>80% anatase and 20% rutile; 25 nm ; 35-45 m²/g</u>	TiO ₂ -D: DI water: 160.5 nm; ZP:-27.8 mV Complete medium: 228.3 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV TiO ₂ -S: DI water: 447.9 nm; ZP:-9.96 mV Complete medium: 504.5 nm; ZP: -10.7 mV				

Conclusion on *in vitro* genotoxicity assays

The list of above studies was based on a literature research including published reviews, projects and studies (2010-2015) and on information from the registration dossier which has been published on ECHA website (date: 01/08/2015). All forms of TiO₂ have been taken into account. Due to the high number of *in vitro* genotoxicity assays found, an exhaustive reporting of studies was judged neither feasible nor of any added values and only the studies fulfilling the following criteria were summarized:

- Characterization of the tested material (at least size, crystallinity and coating);
- Information on dispersion and exposure protocols;
- Inclusion of negative and positive controls to validate the system and avoid under or over responses;
- Use of known or validated protocols;
- Use of replicates or independent experiments for *in vitro* assays;
- Evidence of uptake or cytotoxicity in case of negative results. Indeed, false negative results may be induced if there is no uptake of TiO₂ by the cells. This can be assessed by specific uptake data or by the presence of cytotoxicity. Furthermore, the time point selected for the genotoxicity endpoint measurement should be appropriately chosen.

Although a large number of data on *in vitro* genotoxicity of TiO₂ are available, most of the published results refer to nano-TiO₂ and especially to the anatase form as well as the mixture of anatase and rutile (generally P25). Very few studies assessed the genotoxicity of fine or coated TiO₂ as well as rutile forms (Table I-05).

Table I-05: Number of studies performed depending on the form of the tested TiO₂

Number of studies	MN assay	Comet assay	Chromosomal Aberrations	Non-standardized studies	Total
Nanoforms					
Anatase	12	16	1	2	31
Rutile	0	9	0	1	10
Mixture anatase/rutile	7	8	1	4	20
Coated-rutile	3	5	0	0	8
Total	22	38	2	7	69
Microforms					
Anatase	1	4	0	1	6
Rutile	1	1	0	0	2
Not defined	1	1	0	0	2
Total	3	6	0	1	10

Some studies included different genotoxicity assays and/or were performed with different forms of TiO₂. Each of them is counted in all the corresponding sections.

Most of the positive results were found in MN and Comet assays (Table I-06). Inconsistencies in the results of the studies may be the result of differences in test materials (size, crystallinity, coating...). Based on the table below, nanoforms seem to induce more positive results in *in vitro* genotoxicity studies. However, this impression comes mainly on the fact that very few studies on microforms are available. Furthermore, it can be suggested that anatase forms would be more cytotoxic than rutile or anatase/rutile ones because of photocatalytic properties of anatase (Xue, 2010; Wang, 2014). Based on *in vitro* genotoxicity studies, although some publications showed a higher genotoxicity potential of anatase (Petkovic, 2011b; Guichard, 2012; Tavares, 2014), other reported no difference as function of crystallinity (Jugan, 2012; Valdiglesias, 2013; Guichard, 2012). Despite a systematic review of the different characteristics that may explain the discrepancies observed in the studies, it remains difficult to highlight which parameter(s) can drive them. Inconsistencies in the results can also be explained by the various test conditions used, including dispersal of the material, concentrations and exposure duration, cell/organ examined and parameter assessed. It was also noticed that in several cases the statistical test performed was inappropriate that can lead to inappropriate interpretations and inconsistent results. Moreover, numerous interferences with TiO₂ can occur due to fluorescence and absorbance interaction, but also probable interactions with the proteins, the enzymes... used during the assay; unfortunately, these interferences are not properly tested in most of the publications. All these differences do not permit an easy comparison of the studies.

Table I-06: Number of positive results* depending on the form of the tested TiO₂

Number of experiments	MN assay	Comet assay	Chromosomal Aberrations assay	Others types of assays	Total
Nanoforms					
Anatase	9/15	34/53	1/3	0/2	44/73
Rutile	0/0	14/24	0/0	0/1	14/25
Mixture anatase/rutile	5/13	12/17	0/1	0/3	17/34
Coated-rutile	2/3	5/10	0/0	0/0	7/13
Microforms					
Anatase	0/1	10/16	0/0	0/1	10/18
Rutile	0/1	1/1	0/0	0/0	1/1
Not defined	0/1	0/4	0/0	0/0	0/5
Total	16/34	76/125	1/4	0/7	93/170

*According to the authors

One experiment was defined by one form of TiO₂ and a specific protocol (ex. cells, media, exposure-duration, standard or modified protocol...)

2. *In vivo* data

A literature research including published reviews, projects and studies was performed (ended on 30/04/2015). In addition, information from the registration dossier which has been published on ECHA website has been considered (date: 01/08/2015). All published available studies with any forms of TiO₂ have been summarized below.

- Micronucleus assays

Table I-07. Summaries of *in vivo* micronucleus assays found in the literature

Reference	Nanoparticle characterisation	Protocol	Results	NM uptake	Toxicity
<i>Oral route</i>					
Sycheva, 2011	TiO ₂ , simethicone <u>Anatase, 33 nm</u>	CBAxB6 male mice (5/group) TiO ₂ dispersed in distilled water. 40, 200, 1000 mg/kg, gavage daily for 7 days. Poly-organ karyological assay, including bone marrow micronucleus assay 1000 PCE assessed for MN. 200 erythrocytes assessed for toxicity. Negative control included but no positive control.	Negative (bone marrow)	Not reported	Not reported.
	Micro-TiO ₂ , <u>anatase, 160 nm</u>		Positive (bone marrow, only at 1000 mg/kg)		No cytotoxicity (immature PCE/total erythrocytes)
Nanogenotox WP6, 2013	NM-102 <u>Anatase, about 20 nm, no coating</u>	Rats Wistar, male (4-5/group) TiO ₂ was prewetted in ethanol followed by dispersion in rat serum albumin in ultrapure water. Sonication on ice for 16 min. 6.5 to 26 mg/kg (NM-102, 103, 105) 7.5 to 31 mg/kg (NM-104) Gavage, 3 consecutive days, samples 3 to 6h after the last administration. Negative control. Methylmethanesulfonate as positive control.	Negative (bone marrow)	Small detectable Ti content only at the highest dose (liver, kidney, spleen, stomach, jejunum and colon). Highest Ti concentration in liver and spleen for NM-105. Ti was also detected in the GI tract.	Gavage was well tolerated in all animals, expect diarrhea in 3 animals on day 3 exposed to 26 mg/kg bw of NM-105. No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE ratio.
	NM-103 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u> In suspension: agglomerate: 80-90 nm				
	NM-104 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u> In suspension: agglomerate: 80-90 nm				
	NM-105 <u>Rutile/anatase, about 25 nm</u> In suspension:				

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<p>Chen et al 2014</p>	<p>agglomerate: 80-90 nm <u>Anatase</u> Purity: 99.90% 75 ± 15 nm, specific surface area: 63.95 m²/g In exposure medium, TiO₂ tend to agglomerate into 473.6 nm and 486.8 nm size when suspended in H₂O and FBS-free DMEM.</p>	<p>Rats SD, male (7/group) TiO₂ dispersed in ultrapure water and ultrasonic vibrated for 15 min. 10, 50, 200 mg/kg by intragastric administration, once a day for 30 consecutive days. Sacrifice immediately after the last administration. 1000 PCE scored for MN and 200 erythrocytes for PCE/NCE ratio. Negative control but no positive control.</p>	<p>Negative (bone marrow)</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>	<p>No abnormal behaviour and symptoms, no significant changes in the body weight. No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE ratio.</p>
<p>Trouiller et al 2009</p>	<p>P25, purity ≥ 99.5% TiO₂ 75% anatase / 25% rutile, 21 nm, specific surface area: 50±15 m²/g In water: mean size: 160 nm.</p>	<p>C57Bl/6Jp^{um}/p^{um} mice (5/group) TiO₂ dispersed by ultrasonication for 15 min 50, 100, 250, 500 mg/kg for 5 days in drinking water. 2000 erythrocytes scored per animal. Negative control included but no positive control.</p>	<p>Positive at 500 mg/kg bw/day (peripheral blood erythrocytes)</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>	<p>Inflammation: upregulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines.</p>
<p>Registration data 2014-07-22 2014-07-30</p>	<p>TiO₂ pg-1 Rutile= 10.7% Anatase= 89.3% Particle size: D₅₀ (laser diffraction, 10mg/mL loading) =3.691 µm D₅₀ (TEM ECD) = 23 nm D₅₀ (corrected XSDC) =20 nm Density (g/cm³)= 3.861 BET surface area= 50.4m²/g</p>	<p>CrI:CD(SD) rat male/female (5/sex; except for 2000 mg/kg bw: 7/sex) TiO₂ in sterile water 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg bw once by gavage Blood samples collected at 24 and 72h after treatment. Whenever feasible, at least 20,000 reticulocytes analyzed per blood sample Negative and positive control (cyclophosphamide) included.</p>	<p>Negative (peripheral blood erythrocytes)</p>	<p>Single oral gavage administration resulted in no discernible dose-dependent increases of TiO₂ in the blood and liver of treated rats relative to control rats.</p>	<p>No toxicity</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>TiO₂ uf-3 <u>Rutile</u> Particle size D₅₀ (laser diffraction, 10mg/mL loading): 11.22 μm, D₅₀ (TEM ECD):22 nm D₅₀ (corrected XSDC):<u>24 nm</u> Density(g/cm³): 3.999 BET surface area: 58.8m²/g</p>			Not reported	No toxicity
<p>Registration data 2014-05-04 2014-07-30</p>	<p>TiO₂ pg-2 <u>Rutile</u> Particle size D₅₀ (laser diffraction, 10mg/mL loading):1.734 μm, D₅₀ (TEM ECD):165 nm D₅₀ (corrected XSDC):<u>162 nm</u> BET surface area= 7.1 m²/g</p>	<p>Wistar rat male/female (5/sex) TiO₂ in sterile water 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg bw once by gavage Blood samples collected at 24 and 72h after treatment. At least 20,000 immature erythrocytes per animal scored Negative and positive control (cyclophosphamide) included.</p>	<p>Negative (peripheral blood erythrocytes)</p>	Not reported	No toxicity
	<p>TiO₂ pg-3 <u>Rutile</u> Particle size D₅₀ (laser diffraction, 10mg/mL loading):0.349 μm, D₅₀ (TEM ECD):132 nm D₅₀ (corrected XSDC):<u>179 nm</u> Density(g/cm³): 3.976 BET surface area: 17.1 m²/g</p>				
<p>Registration data 2014-05-06 2014-07-30</p>	<p>TiO₂ uf-2 <u>Anatase</u> Particle size D₅₀ (laser diffraction, 10mg/mL loading): 1.349 μm, D₅₀ (TEM ECD): 19 nm</p>	<p>Wistar rat male/female (5/sex) TiO₂ in sterile water 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg bw once by gavage Blood samples collected at 24 and 72h after treatment. At least 20,000 immature erythrocytes per animal scored</p>	<p>Negative (peripheral blood erythrocytes)</p> <p>Statistically significant increase of MN at 200 mg/kg in males at 72h but within the range of control data mentioned in the</p>	Not reported	No toxicity

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	D ₅₀ (corrected XSDC): <u>19 nm</u> BET surface area= 82 m ² /g	Negative and positive control (cyclophosphamide) included.	literature		
Registration data 2011-02-21	H-29865	ICR mice male/female (10/sex, except high dose with 14/sex) TiO ₂ in aqueous methylcellulose prepared with deionized water Single dose 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg Sacrifice 24 and 48 after treatment At least 20,000 immature erythrocytes per animal scored Negative and positive control (cyclophosphamide) included.	Negative (bone marrow)	Not reported	No toxicity
<i>Inhalation route</i>					
Lindberg et al 2012	74% anatase and 26% brookite Primary particle size: <u>21 nm</u> , specific surface area = 61 m ² /g Geometric mean mobile diameter of the aerosol was about 80 nm	C57Bl/6 mice (6/group) 0.8, 7.2, 28.5 mg/m ³ 4h/day for 5 days, whole body inhalation. Blood sample collected 48h after the last exposure. 2000 PCE and 2000 NCE per mouse scored for MN. Negative control. Ethylene oxide as gaseous positive control.	Negative (peripheral blood erythrocytes)	Content of TiO ₂ retained in the lung was less than 10% of the inhaled dose	Inflammatory response as percentage of neutrophils among BALf cells at 28.5 mg/m ³ . No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE ratio.
<i>Intra-tracheal route</i>					
Nanogenotox WP6, 2013	NM101 <u>Anatase, <10 nm, 8% organic coating</u> In suspension: agglomerate: 140-150 nm NM102 <u>Anatase, about 20 nm, no coating</u> In suspension: agglomerate: 140-150 nm NM 103 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u> In suspension: agglomerate: 80-90 nm NM104 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u> In suspension:	Rats SD, male (4-5/group) TiO ₂ was prewetted in ethanol followed by dispersion in rat serum albumin in ultrapure water. Sonication on ice for 16 min. 1.15, 2.3, 4.6 mg/kg by IT, 3 consecutive days, samples 3 to 6h after the last administration. A total of 203 slides were received in duplicate. Bone marrow slides of 40/115 animals could not be read due to the abundance of cells in the slide preparation. Both slides from the right and left femurs were scored. Negative control. Methylmethanesulfonate as positive control.	Negative (bone marrow)	Not reported	No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE ratio.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	agglomerate: 80-90 nm NM 105 Rutile/anatase, about 25 nm In suspension: agglomerate: 80-90 nm				
<i>Intravenous route</i>					
Sadiq et al 2012	TiO₂-NP Anatase, 10 nm, powder form	B6C3F1 mice, male (5/group) TiO ₂ was suspended in PBS with vigorous mixing and sonication. 0.5, 5.0, 50 mg/kg, 3 consecutive days by IV Blood collected on day 4 was used to measure MN. Frequency of MN-RET was determined on approx. 2x10 ⁴ CD71-positive RETs for each animal. Negative control and ENU as positive control.	Negative (blood)	Analysis of Ti level in bone marrow after administration of 50 mg/kg: Ti levels increased at 4, 24 and 48h (x 12.1-14.2) after the last treatment.	Reduction in %RET on day 4 suggested a treatment related cytotoxicity. A rebound was recorded on week 1 and level was normal later.
Xu et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP Purity: 99.99% <u>Anatase, 40 nm</u> Impurities: Pb < 2 ppm, Cd < 1 ppm, As < 1 ppm, Hg < 1 ppm, Ni < 1 ppm. Size distribution of TiO ₂ aggregates in saline.	ICR mice, male and female (4/sex/group) TiO ₂ was suspended in saline by sonication for 30 seconds. The particle suspensions were kept on ice for 15 seconds and sonicated on ice for 3 min. 140, 300, 645, 1387 mg/kg by IV, once. Sacrifice 14 days after treatment. Due to mortality, the dose of 1387 mg/kg was only used for histopathology of tissues and not assessed for MN. 1000 PCE/animal analysed for MN. Negative control and cyclophamide as positive control.	Negative (bone marrow)	Not reported.	Decreased food and water intake, decreased physical activity, mortality at 1387 mg/kg. Biochemical changes with damage in brain, lung, spleen, liver and kidney.
Dobrzynska et al 2014	NM 105 (P25) <u>Anatase/rutile, 21 nm</u>	Rats Wistar, male (7) TiO ₂ dispersed in H ₂ O with DMSO and sonicated for 5 min 5 mg/kg by IV, sacrifice after 24h, 1 and 4 weeks 200 PCE and 100 reticulocytes per rat analyzed for MN. Negative control included but no positive control.	Negative (bone marrow reticulocytes) Positive only after 24 hours (bone marrow PCE) – not after 1 or 4 weeks.	Not reported.	No cytotoxicity to bone marrow's red and white blood cells
Louro et al 2014	NM102 <u>Anatase non coated, 22 nm</u>	LacZ transgenic C57Bl/6 mice (5-6/group) TiO ₂ was pre-wetted in ethanol followed by addition of sterile-filtered serum albumin and probe sonication for 16 min. 10 and 15 mg/kg on 2 consecutive days by IV, sacrifice 42 h after the last injection. 2000 reticulocytes per mouse scored for MN. Percentage of reticulocytes as measure of toxicity.	Negative (peripheral blood)	Uptake in the liver: colorless, irregularly sized and shaped particles (about 1-1.5 µm) of refractory material diffusively present in the tissue, either inside of between	No changes in body weight, behaviour or general health. No gross macroscopic changes at necropsy. Leukocytic aggregation and infiltration suggest a low-moderate

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		Negative control. N-ethyl-N-nitrosurea as positive control.		hepatocytes as well as inside macrophages (including Kupffer cells) at both doses. Particles also found inside some of the nuclei of hepatocytes without clear dose-related effect.	inflammatory response. No decrease in the percentage of reticulocytes suggesting that NM-102 was not cytotoxic.
Nanogenotox WP6, 2013	NM 103 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u> NM104 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u>	Rats male and female TiO ₂ was prewetted in ethanol followed by dispersion in rat serum albumin in ultrapure water. Sonication on ice for 16 min. 8.7 – 9.7 mg/kg for males and 12.4 – 13.7 mg/kg for females by IV, single or 5 days injection, sacrifice 24h after the last injection Negative control. Methylmethanesulfonate as positive control.	Negative (bone marrow)	Not reported	Not reported
<i>Intraperitoneal route</i>					
Saghiri et al 2012	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 20 nm</u>	Balb/c mice, male (4/group) TiO ₂ was diluted in sterile double-distilled water and ultrasonicated. 100, 500, 1000 mg/kg single IP administration, sacrifice 24h after. 2000 PCE scored per animal for MN. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (bone marrow at 1000 mg/kg– dose dependent) To be noted: no MN detected in the control	Not reported.	Increase of mitotic index in bone marrow.
Rad et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP Purity: 98.8%, spherical <u>Anatase, 10 nm</u>	Balb/C mice, male (4/group) TiO ₂ dissolved in distilled water by ultrasonic for 5 min. 10, 50, 100, 500, 800 mg/kg by IP, once. Sacrifice 24h after injection. 200 PCE per animal scored for MN. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (bone marrow at 500 and 800 mg/kg)	Not reported.	Decreased LDH at 10, 50 and 100 mg/kg.
Song et al 2011	TiO ₂ -NP <u>19.7-101.0 nm</u> , surface area: 15-77 m ² /g	ICR mice, female (4-6/group) TiO ₂ was suspended in saline with Tween 80. 1 and 3 mg/mouse by IP once. Peripheral blood collected from the tail 48 h after injection. 3000 reticulocytes per animal scored for MN. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (peripheral blood at 3 mg/mouse; result at 1 mg not presented)	Not reported.	Not reported.
El Ghor et al 2014	TiO ₂ NP <u>rutile and anatase</u>	Swiss Webster mice, male (5/group) TiO ₂ suspended in deionized distilled water or	Positive at all tested doses (bone marrow) – dose-response	Accumulation in bone marrow > liver > brain	No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<u>< 100 nm</u> In H ₂ O: particle size was between 45 to 51 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS) In CHL: particle size was between 41 to 44 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS).	chlorophyllin. 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg by IP, for 5 consecutive days 2000 PCE/animal were scored for MN. Negative control. Cyclophosphamide as positive control.	relationship Co-administration with chlorophyllin (free radical scavenger) decreased MN frequency and increased PCE/NCE.	(inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry) at all doses.	ratio.
Shelby, 1993 & 1995	TiO ₂	Male B6C3F1 mice (5/group) 250, 500, 1000 mg/kg by IP administration for 3 consecutive days, sacrifice 24h after the third treatment. 2000 PCE/animal were scored for MN. Negative control included. Dimethylbenzanthracene and mitomycin used as positive controls. Study repeated with 500, 1000, 1500 mg/kg.	Positive (bone marrow at 1000 mg/kg in both studies)	Not reported.	No decrease in % PCE.

All the above studies were summarized regardless of their reliability. However, in order to make a reliable assessment of these results, different key parameters need to be taken into account. First, the tested material needs to be characterized (at least size, crystalline phase and coating). Secondly, the inclusion of a negative and a positive control is required to validate the system and thus the results. Finally, the negative results should be taken into account only when it has been proven that the nanoparticles have reached the organ investigated. This could be confirmed with data on uptake or if (cyto)toxicity was detected. However, most of the studies did not show any cytotoxic effect in bone marrow or have not investigated uptake in this tissue. In summary, only one study (Sadiq, 2012 – study reported in bold in the table) fulfills the above criteria (characterization data, negative and positive controls and evidence of uptake or cytotoxicity in case of negative results).

- Comet assays

Table I-08. Summaries of *in vivo* Comet assays found in the literature

Reference	Nanoparticle characterization	Protocol	Results	NM uptake	Toxicity	
<i>Oral route</i>						
Carmona, 2015	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, < 25 nm,</u> surface area : 45-50 m ² /g, 99.7% purity High level of agglomeration (average: 85.88 nm) in dry form and larger agglomeration in water suspension (average: 405.3 nm)	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> flr ³ strains TiO ₂ -NP diluted in ultrapure water and dispersed by sonication for 30 min. TiO ₂ bulk was diluted in distilled water by mixing for 10 min. Third-instar larvae placed in vials with medium and TiO ₂ at 0.08, 0.40, 0.80, 1.60 mg/ml and fed during 24 ± 2h. Then hemocytes were collected for Comet assay. Genotoxicity measured as % DNA tail. Negative control. Ethyl methane sulphonate used as positive control.	Positive (hemocytes from 0.40 mg/ml – dose-dependent)	Not reported.	Larval viability was increased up to 1.60 mg/ml (> 90%) in a preliminary tryptan blue assay. Significant dose response damage for midgut and imaginal discs for 0.80 and 1.60 mg/ml TiO ₂ NP for 24 and 48h.	
	TiO ₂ -bulk 45 µm, 99% purity		Negative (hemocytes)			
Nanogenotox WP6, 2013	NM-102 <u>Anatase, about 20 nm,</u> no coating	Rats Wistar, male (4-5/group) TiO ₂ was prewetted in ethanol followed by dispersion in rat serum albumin in ultrapure water and sonication on ice for 16 min. Standard and Fpg modified Comet. 6.5, 13, 26 mg/kg (NM-102 and 105) 6, 12, 24 mg/kg (NM-103) 7.5, 15, 31 mg/kg (NM-104) Gavage, 3 consecutive days, samples 3 to 6h after the last administration. Genotoxicity measured as median %DNA in the tail. Negative control and Methylmethanesulfonate as positive control.	Without Fpg: Positive (spleen at all doses – not dose-related) Negative (colon, liver, kidney, lymphocytes, bone marrow, jejunum)	Small detectable Ti content only at the highest dose (liver, kidney, spleen, stomach, jejunum and colon). Highest Ti concentration in liver and spleen for NM 105. Ti was also detected in the GI tract.	Gavage was well tolerated in all animals, expect diarrhea in 3 animals on day 3 exposed to 26 mg/kg bw of NM-105.	
	NM-103 UV Titan M262 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm,</u> 2% organic coating		With Fpg: Positive in colon at 26 mg/kg and negative in jejunum			Without Fpg: Positive (spleen at 13 mg/kg – not dose-related, jejunum at 24 mg/kg – dose-related) Negative (liver, kidney, lymphocytes, bone marrow, colon)
	NM-104 UV Titan M212		With Fpg: Negative in colon and jejunum			Without Fpg: Positive (spleen at all doses –

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% organic coating</u>		dose-related and bone marrow at 31 mg/kg Negative (liver, kidney, lymphocytes, colon, jejunum)		
	NM-105 <u>Rutile/anatase, about 25 nm, no coating</u>		With Fpg: Negative in colon and jejunum Without Fpg: Positive (spleen and colon at 26 mg/kg bw) Negative (liver, kidney, lymphocytes, bone marrow and jejunum) With Fpg: Negative in colon and jejunum		
Sycheva et al 2011	TiO ₂ , simethicone <u>Anatase, 33 nm</u>	CBAxB6 male mice (5/group) TiO ₂ dispersed in distilled water. 40, 200, 1000 mg/kg, gavage daily for 7 days. Genotoxicity measured as % tail DNA at 40 and 200 mg/kg. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (bone marrow at 40 and 200 mg/kg and liver at 200 mg/kg) Negative (brain)	Not reported	Not reported
	Micro-TiO ₂ <u>Anatase, 160 nm</u>		Positive (bone marrow at 40 and 200 mg/kg) Negative (brain and liver)		
Trouiller et al 2009	P25 Purity ≥ 99.5% TiO ₂ <u>75% anatase / 25% rutile, 21 nm</u> , specific surface area: 50±15 m ² /g In water: mean size: 160 nm.	C57Bl/6Jp ^{um} /p ^{um} mice (5) TiO ₂ dispersed by ultrasonication for 15 min in distilled water. 500 mg/kg for 5 days in drinking water Genotoxicity measured as tail moment. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (blood)	Not reported	Inflammation: upregulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines.
<i>Inhalation route</i>					
Landsiedel et al 2010	T-LiteTM SF <u>Rutile</u> TiO ₂ (purity of TiO ₂ ≥ 99.9%) <u>coated</u> with aluminium hydroxide and dimethicone/methicone copolymer (TiO ₂ content: 79-89%) <u>10*50 nm</u> , mean agglomerates about 200 nm, specific surface area: 100 m ² /g	Wistar Crl:WI Han male rats (3 animals) Comet assay included in a 5-day head-nose inhalation study performed at 0.5, 2 and 10 mg/m ³ , 6h/day on 5 consecutive days. The Comet assay was performed in the lungs of “recovery animals” at 10 mg/m ³ (at post-exposure 3 weeks). Genotoxicity measured as relative tail intensity, tail moment and mean tail length. Negative control included but no positive control.	Negative (lung)	Not reported	No effects on clinical signs, mean body weights. Slight to moderate increases of neutrophils and monocytes, of total protein and of activities of LDH, GGT, ALP and NAG in the BALf at 2 and 10 mg/m ³ . Effects partially reversible within the post-exposure observation period of 3 weeks.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

					Number of hedgehog images (highly damaged cells) was not influenced by TiO ₂ . Mean cells viability was 88.7% vs 95% in control.
Lindberg et al 2012	74% anatase and 26% brookite Primary particle size: <u>21 nm</u> , specific surface area = 61 m ² /g Geometric mean mobile diameter of the aerosol was about 80 nm	C57Bl/6 mice (6/group) 0.8, 7.2, 28.5 mg/m ³ 4h/day for 5 days, whole body inhalation. Alveolar type II and Clara cells were collected immediately after the last exposure. Genotoxicity measured as %DNA in the comet tail. Negative control. Ethylene oxide as gaseous positive control.	Negative (lung)	Content of TiO ₂ retained in the lung was less than 10% of the inhaled dose	Inflammatory response as percentage of neutrophils among BAL cells at 28.5 mg/m ³
Creutzenberg et al 2009 (only abstract – limited level of details)	P25 <u>80% anatase and 20% rutile</u> <u>20 nm</u> Substantial number of particles < 100 nm in phosphate buffer	Rats (no further information) TiO ₂ dispersed in phosphate buffer with mechanical and ultrasonic treatment. 2, 10 mg/m ³ , 6h/day for 21 days, inhalation. Post-observation after 3, 28 and 90 days. hOGG-1-modified comet assay.	Positive (alveolar macrophages on day 28)	Estimated final lung burdens amounted to 205 and 1240 µg/lung for P25 and 1150 and 5760 µg/lung for microscale TiO ₂ .	Decreases in white blood cells in the high dose at days 28 and 90 for both dusts and on day 3 for P25
	Microscale TiO ₂ (Bayertitan T) <u>Rutile type, 1.1 µm</u>	Rats (no further information) TiO ₂ dispersed with pressurized air. 9 and 45 mg/m ³ , 6h/day for 21 days, inhalation. Post-observation after 3, 28 and 90 days. hOGG-1-modified comet assay.	Negative (alveolar macrophages on day 28)		
Jackson et al 2013	UV Titan L181 <u>Rutile surface coated, 17 nm</u> , surface area: 70 m ² /g Chemical composition: Na ₂ O (0.6%), SiO ₂ (12.01%), Al ₂ O ₃ (4.58%), ZrO ₂ (1.17%), TiO ₂ (70.81%). UV-Titan is coated with polyalcohol adding to the remaining wt %. Geometric mean size during inhalation exposure: 97 nm	Time-mated C57BL/6Bom-Tac female mice (22-23/group) 42 mg/m ³ (total inhaled dose: 840 µg/animal), 1h/day, inhalation, whole body exposure during gestation days 8-18. Genotoxicity was measured as %DNA in the tail and tail length. Negative control included but no positive control.	Negative (BAL and liver in the non-pregnant females and dams; liver in the newborn at PND 2 or weaned offspring at PND 22).	Estimated deposition: 73 µg/animal in pulmonary region; 315 µg/animal in extra-pulmonary region; 365 µg/animal in gastro-intestinal tract.	Persistent inflammation in mothers and affected gene expression in the liver of offspring, with increased response in female offspring. The observed changes in gene expression in the newborn offspring 2 days after birth suggest that anti-inflammatory processes were activated in the female offspring related to retinoic acid signaling.
<i>Intra-tracheal route</i>					
Naya et al	Anatase (ST-01), 5 nm	Rats SD, male (5/group)	Negative (lung)	Deposition of test	Deposition of test

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

2012	In the DSP (disodium phosphate) solution: no change in secondary particle size (19 nm), no surface coating, purity = 99.99%	TiO ₂ dispersed in DSP and agitated for 2h. Single IT administration of 1 or 5 mg/kg, sacrifice 3 or 24h later or repeated IT administration of 0.2 or 1 mg/kg bw once a week for 5 weeks. DNA damage measured as % DNA in the tail. Negative control. Ethylmethanesulfonate as positive control.		compound at 1 mg/kg in the repeated instillation experiment.	compound and infiltration of alveolar macrophages at 5 mg/kg in the single instillation experiment. Deposition of test compound, infiltration of alveolar macrophages and neutrophils and thickening of alveolar wall at 1 mg/kg in the repeated instillation experiment.
Nanogenotox WP6, 2013	<p>NM-101 <u>Anatase, < 10 nm, 8% organic coating</u></p> <p>NM-102 <u>Anatase, about 20 nm, no coating</u></p> <p>NM-103 <u>Rutile, about 20 nm, 2% coating</u></p> <p>NM-104 Rutile, 20 nm about 20 nm, 2% coating</p> <p>NM-105 <u>Rutile/anatase, about 25 nm, no coating</u></p>	Rats SD, male (4-5/group) TiO ₂ was prewetted in ethanol followed by dispersion in rat serum albumin in ultrapure water and sonication on ice for 16 min. 1.15, 2.3, 4.6 mg/kg by IT, 3 consecutive days, samples 3 to 6h after the last administration. Genotoxicity measured as median %DNA in the tail. Negative control. Methylmethanesulfonate as positive control. It should be noted that the positive control was not valid for the lungs.	<p>Negative (BAL, lung, spleen, liver, kidney)</p> <p>Very slight increase of DNA damage (BAL) for NM-105</p>	Not reported	Viability of the BAL cells was between -9% and + 11%. All materials showed a dose dependent increase in neutrophils (greater with NM-103, 104 and 105) suggesting a pulmonary inflammation.
Saber et al 2012	<p>UV Titan L181 <u>Rutile</u> (coated with Si, Al, Zr and polyalcohol). Crystalline size: <u>20.6 nm</u>, specific surface area: 107.7 m²/g.</p> <p>In suspension used for instillation: aggregates of ca. 100 nm or larger.</p>	C57BL/6 mice, female TiO ₂ was suspended by sonication for 16 min in NaCl MilliQ water with acellular BAL from mice. Single exposure to 18, 54, 162 µg per animal by IT. Sacrifice 1, 3 and 28 days after exposure. Genotoxicity measured as normalized tail length. Results were normalized to the positive assay control with H ₂ O ₂ exposed A549 cells. Negative control included, but no positive control.	<p>Negative (BAL fluid)</p> <p>Positive (liver at day 1 only at 162 µg – dose-response relationship)</p>	Not reported	Inflammation in BAL: higher total number of BAL cells on day 1 at 54 µg and at all time-points at 162 µg. Higher neutrophils counts on days 1 and 3 at 54 µg and at all time-points at 162 µg (moderate after 28 days). Slight histopathological changes in the liver (small foci of inflammatory cells, hyperplasia of connective tissue perivascular, necrosis in centrilobular area, binucleate hepatocytes, increased number of Kupffer cells) at 162 µg.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

<i>Intravenous route</i>					
Louro et al, 2014	NM102 <u>Anatase non coated, 22 nm</u>	LacZ transgenic C57Bl/6 mice (5-6/group) TiO ₂ was pre-wetted in ethanol followed by addition of sterile-filtered serum albumin and probe sonication for 16 min. 10 and 15 mg/kg by IV on 2 consecutive days, sacrifice 28 days after the last injection. Genotoxicity measured as %DNA in tail and OTM (olive tail moment). Negative control. N-ethyl-N-nitrosurea (ENU) as positive control.	Negative (liver and spleen) To be noted: ENU did not induce an increase of the mean percentage of tail DNA in the spleen.	Uptake in the liver: colorless, irregularly sized and shaped particles (about 1-1.5 µm) of refractory material diffusively present in the tissue, either inside of between hepatocytes as well as inside macrophages (including Kupffer cells) at both doses. Particles also found inside some of the nuclei of hepatocytes without clear dose-related effect.	No changes in body weight, behaviour or general health. No gross macroscopic changes at necropsy. Leukocytic aggregation and infiltration suggest a low-moderate inflammatory response.
Dobrzynska et al 2014	NM 105 (P25) <u>Anatase/rutile 21 nm</u>	Rats Wistar, male (7) TiO ₂ dispersed in H ₂ O with DMSO and sonicated for 5 min 5 mg/kg by IV; sacrifice after 24h, 1 week and 4 weeks. Genotoxicity measured as tail moment and %DNA in Comet tail. Negative control included but no positive control.	Negative (bone marrow leukocytes)	Not reported	No cytotoxicity to bone marrow's red and white blood cells
Meena et al 2015	TiO ₂ -NP containing of elemental titanium 66% and oxygen 34% atoms. <u>10-20 nm</u>	Wistar male rats (6/group) TiO ₂ dissolved in distilled water and ultrasonicated for 10 min. 5, 25, 50 mg/kg TiO ₂ in PBS by IV weekly for 30 days. Sacrifice after treatment. Genotoxicity measured as tail length, tail movement and tail migration. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive at 25 and 50 mg/kg (sperm cells) Clear dose-response relationship.	Dose-related accumulation of TiO ₂ in the testes (energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy). TiO ₂ was localized in the cytoplasm, mostly in membranous compartments, including lysosomes and mitochondria, thecal organelles, besides particles existing out of cells, surrounding cells.	Decreased activity of antioxidative enzymes (SOD and GPx); increased activity of CAT at 25 and 50 mg/kg. Increased lipid peroxidation activity (MDA) at 25 and 50 mg/kg. Increase of mean value of creatinine kinase activity (sperm energy transport) at 50 mg/kg. Activation of caspase-3 (apoptosis) at 50 mg/kg. Induction of apoptosis was confirmed by DNA

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

					fragmentation assay. Decrease in total sperm count and increase in apoptotic cell population at 50 mg/kg. Decreased serum testosterone level at 25 and 50 mg/kg. Moderate pathological change at 50 mg/kg: abnormal testicular morphology with some inflammation in testicular cells.
<i>Intra-peritoneal route</i>					
El Ghor et al 2014	TiO ₂ NP <u>Rutile and anatase</u> <u>< 100 nm</u> In H ₂ O: particle size was between 45 to 51 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS) In CHL: particle size was between 41 to 44 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS).	Swiss Webster mice, male (5/group) TiO ₂ suspended in deionized distilled water or CHL (chlorophyllin) as free radical scavenger. 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg by IP, for 5 consecutive days Genotoxicity measured as tail length, %DNA in tail and tail moment. Negative control. Cyclophosphamide as positive control.	Positive (bone marrow > liver > brain) at all tested doses – dose-response relationship. Co-administration with CHL decreased DNA damage.	Accumulation in bone marrow > liver > brain (inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry) at all doses.	Increased MDA level, decreased GSH level, SOD, CAT and GPx in the liver at 500 and 2000 mg/kg. CHL protected against oxidative stress induced by TiO ₂ .

All the above studies were summarized regardless of their reliability. However, in order to make a reliable assessment of these results, different key parameters need to be taken into account. First, the tested material needs to be characterized (at least size, crystalline phase and coating). Secondly, the inclusion of negative and positive controls is required to validate the system and thus the results. Finally, the negative results should be taken into account only when it has been proven that the nanoparticles have reached the organ investigated. This could be confirmed with data on uptake or if cytotoxicity was detected. In summary, only 3 publications (Carmona, 2015; Naya, 2012; Louro, 2014, in bold in the table) fulfill the above criteria (characterization data, negative and positive controls and evidence of uptake or cytotoxicity in case of negative results) with 2 publications reporting only negative results (Naya, 2012 and Louro, 2014) and the other showing positive (dose-related) and negative results depending on the tested material (Carmona, 2015).

- Mutation assays

Table I-09. Summaries of *in vivo* Mutation assays found in the literature

Reference	Nanoparticle characterization	Protocol	Results	NM uptake	Toxicity
<i>Oral route</i>					
Carmona, 2015	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, < 25 nm</u> , surface area : 45-50 m ² /g, 99.7% purity High level of agglomeration (average: 85.88 nm) in dry form and larger agglomeration in water suspension (average: 405.3 nm)	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> , multiple wing hairs and <i>flare-3</i> strains TiO ₂ -NP diluted in ultrapure water and dispersed by sonication for 30 min TiO ₂ bulk was diluted in distilled water by mixing for 10 min. Third-instar larvae placed in vials with medium and TiO ₂ at 0.08, 0.40, 0.80, 1.60 mg/ml and fed during 48h. Negative control. Ethyl methane sulphonate used as positive control.	Negative (small single, large single, and twin spot)	Not reported.	Larval viability was increased up to 1.60 mg/ml (> 90%) in a preliminary tryptan blue assay. Significant dose response damage for midgut and imaginal discs for 0.80 and 1.60 mg/ml TiO ₂ NP for 24 and 48h.
	TiO ₂ -bulk 45 µm, 99% purity				
Demir et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 2.3 nm</u> (manufacturer and TEM in suspension) Zeta potential: 70.2 mV	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> , multiple wing hairs and <i>flare-3</i> strains (3-day-old larvae) Wing somatic mutation and recombination assay 0.1, 1, 5, 10 nM in food until pupation in <i>Drosophila</i> instant medium rehydrated. Negative control. EMS as positive control.	Negative (small single, large single, twin, total <i>mwh</i> and total spot)	Not reported.	No important difference in percentage of emerging adults in a preliminary study for dose selection.
	Micro-TiO ₂				
<i>Inhalation route</i>					
Boisen et al 2012	UV Titan L181 <u>Rutile TiO₂ (70.8%) coated</u> with 1.17% zirconium, 12.01% silicon, 0.60% sodium oxide and 4.58% aluminium. <u>20.6 nm</u> , surface area: 107.7m ² /g.	Pregnant C57Bl/6JBomTac mice 42.4 mg/m ³ , 1h/per day, GD 8-18, inhalation whole body exposure. Female offspring were raised to maturity and mated with unexposed males. F2 descendants were collected and ESTR (expanded simple tandem repeat) germline mutation rates estimated. Mutation analysis and scoring were successful for 388 offspring. Negative control, but no positive control.	Negative (<i>Ms6-hm</i> and <i>Hm-2</i> mutation rates)	Not reported.	TiO ₂ did not affect viability of the F2 offspring.
<i>Intra-tracheal route</i>					
Driscoll et al 1997	TiO ₂ fine <u>Anatase</u> <u>0.18 µm</u> , surface area: 8.8 m ² /g	Rats Fischer F344, female (6-9/group) TiO ₂ suspensions were sonicated briefly prior to each instillation. 5 and 50 mg/kg, 2 consecutive days. <i>Hprt</i> mutation assay, 15 months after the last administration.	Positive (alveolar epithelial cells at 50 mg/kg – dose dependent)	Histopathology of the lung: accumulation of particle-laden macrophage in the alveoli and interstitium.	Inflammation: Decreased macrophages and increased neutrophils at 50 mg/kg bw/day. Increased lymphocytes in BAL at all doses.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		Negative control included but no positive control.			Minimal centriacinar alveolitis.
<i>Intravenous route</i>					
Sadiq et al 2012	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 10 nm</u> , powder form	B6C3F1 mice, male (5/group) TiO ₂ was suspended in PBS with vigorous mixing and sonication. 0.5, 5.0, 50 mg/kg, 3 consecutive days by IV Blood collected on weeks 1, 2, 4 and 6 was used for RET/RBC <i>Pig-a</i> assay Negative control and ENU as positive control.	Negative (RET and total RBCs)	Analysis of Ti level in bone marrow after administration of 50 mg/kg: Ti levels increased at 4, 24 and 48h (x 12.1-14.2) after the last treatment.	Reduction in %RET on day 4 suggested a treatment related cytotoxicity. A rebound was recorded on week 1 and level was normal later.
Louro et al 2014	NM102 <u>Anatase non coated, 22 nm</u>	LaZ transgenic C57Bl/6 mice (5-6/group) TiO ₂ was pre-wetted in ethanol followed by addition of sterile-filtered serum albumin and probe sonication for 16 min. 10 and 15 mg/kg on 2 consecutive days by IV, sacrifice 28 days after the last injection. Mutant frequency for liver and spleen was calculated. Negative control. N-ethyl-N-nitrosurea as positive control.	Negative (liver and spleen)	Uptake in the liver: colorless, irregularly sized and shaped particles (about 1-1.5 µm) of refractory material diffusively present in the tissue, either inside of between hepatocytes as well as inside macrophages (including Kupffer cells) at both doses. Particles also found inside some of the nuclei of hepatocytes without clear dose-related effect.	No changes in body weight, behaviour or general health. No gross macroscopic changes at necropsy. Leukocytic aggregation and infiltration suggest a low-moderate inflammatory response.
<i>Intraperitoneal route</i>					
El Ghor et al 2014	TiO ₂ NP <u>Rutile and anatase < 100 nm</u> In H ₂ O: particle size was between 45 to 51 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS) In CHL: particle size was between 41 to 44 nm (XRD, TEM or DLS).	Swiss Webster mice, male (5/group) TiO ₂ suspended in deionized distilled water or chlorophyllin (CHL). 500, 1000, 2000 mg/kg by IP, for 5 consecutive days Cyclophosphamide as positive control. PCR-based SSCP used to screen for the presence of p53 mutation in liver and brain cells. Amplification of p53 exons (5-8) by PCR and electrophoresis. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive at all tested doses (liver and brain) – dose-response relationship. Exons 5, 7 and 8 of p53 gene highly mutated by TiO ₂ in liver cells. Exons 5 and 8 of p53 gene mutated by TiO ₂ in brain cells. Decreased frequencies of mutation with co-administration with CHL.	Accumulation in bone marrow > liver > brain (inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry) at all doses.	Increased MDA level, decreased GSH level, SOD, CAT and GPx in the liver at 500 and 2000 mg/kg. CHL protected against oxidative stress induced by TiO ₂ .

All the above studies were summarized regardless of their reliability. However, in order to make a reliable assessment of these results, different key parameters need to be taken into account. First, the tested material needs to be characterized (at least size, crystalline phase and coating). Secondly, the inclusion of negative and positive controls is required to validate the system and thus the results. Finally, the negative results should be taken into account only when it has been proven that the nanoparticles have reached the organ investigated. This could be confirmed with data on uptake or if cytotoxicity was detected. In summary, only 2 publications are judged as reliable (Sadiq, 2012 and Louro, 2014 in bold in the table) based on our criteria.

• **Non-standardized studies**

This section includes studies with specific protocols such as measurement of 8 oxo-dG, identification of DNA adducts and H2Ax phosphorylation assays.

Table I-10. Summaries of non-standardized *in vivo* studies found in the literature

Reference	Nanoparticle characterization	Protocol	Results	NM uptake	Toxicity
DNA oxidative lesions					
<i>Oral route</i>					
Sheng et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase</u> In HPMC K4 solvent: <u>5-6 nm</u> , surface area: 174.8 m ² /g.	CD-1 female mice (20/group) TiO ₂ was dispersed in HPMC and treated by ultrasonication for 30 min and mechanically vibrated for 5 min. 2.5, 5, and 10 mg/kg, daily, 90 days by intragastric administration. Measurement of 8 oxodG formation in the heart. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (heart at all doses – dose-related)	Accumulation in heart – dose-related.	Sparse cardiac muscle fibers (from 2.5 mg/kg/d), inflammatory response (from 5 mg/kg/day), cell necrosis (at 10 mg/kg/day) and cardiac biochemical dysfunction (all doses). Promotion of oxygen species production, increase of malondialdehyde and carbonyl at all doses. Attenuation of activity of antioxidative enzymes and level of antioxidant at all doses.
Gui et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 5-6 nm</u> , surface area: 174.8 m ² /g	Mice CD1, male (30/group) TiO ₂ was dispersed in HPMC and treated by ultrasonication for 30 min and mechanically vibrated for 5 min. 2.5, 5, and 10 mg/kg, daily for 90 days by intragastric administration. Measurement of 8 oxodG formation in the kidney. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (kidney at all doses – dose-related)	Black agglomerates of TiO ₂ in kidney at 10 mg/kg/d. Ti content detected at all doses in kidney.	Reduction of renal glomerulus number, apoptosis, infiltration of inflammatory cells, tissue necrosis, disorganization of renal tubules, decreased body weight, increased kidney indices, unbalance of element distribution, production of ROS and peroxidation of lipid, protein and DNA in kidney. Alteration of 1,246 genes assessed at 10 mg/kg/d, including genes associated with immune/inflammatory responses, apoptosis, biological processes, oxidative stress, ion transport, metabolic processes, cell cycle, signal transduction, cell component, transcription, translation and cell differentiation.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

Gao, 2012	TiO ₂ <u>Anatase, 5-6 nm</u> in HPMC and surface area: 174.8 m ² /g	CD-1 (ICR) female mice (30/group) TiO ₂ dispersed on the surface of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose K4M solution and treated ultrasonically for 15-20 min and then mechanically vibrated for 2-3 min. 10 mg/kg for 90 days, intragastric route. DNA adduct 8-OHdG measured in ovaries using ELISA kit. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (ovary)	Accumulation in the ovaries. TiO ₂ -NP conglomerates in the cytoplasm and nuclei of ovarian cells.	Decreases in the mating rate, pregnancy rate, number giving birth, survival rate and body weight of young mice. Increases in E2 and FSH and reduction of P1, LH and Testosterone. Abnormal pathologic changes in ovaries (atrophy, disturbance of follicle development, irregular arrangement of cells, shapeless follicular antrum). Mitochondrial swelling, cristae beakage, nucleus chromatin condensation and margination, irregularity of the nucleau membrane suggesting ovarian apoptosis. ROS production (O ₂ ⁻ and H ₂ O ₂)
Trouiller et al 2009	P25, purity ≥ 99.5% TiO ₂ <u>75% anatase / 25% rutile, 21 nm</u> , specific surface area: 50±15 m ² /g In water: mean size: 160 nm.	C57Bl/6Jp ^{um} /p ^{um} mice (5) TiO ₂ dispersed by ultrasonication for 15 min 500 mg/kg for 5 days in drinking water 8 oxodG measured in liver by HPLC. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (liver)	Not reported.	Inflammation: upregulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines.
Intra-tracheal route					
Rehn et al 2003	P25 <u>Anatase/rutile, hydrophilic, 20 nm</u> T805 <u>Anatase/rutile, hydrophobic (silane coating), 20 nm</u>	Rats Wistar, female (30/group) TiO ₂ suspended in physiological saline and lecithin. Suspension and intensive sonication did not lead to primary particles of 20 nm in size. 0.15, 0.3, 0.6, 1.2 mg/lung by IT Sacrifice after 3, 21 or 90 days after instillation. Quantification of 8 oxodG in lung tissue on day 90. Negative control. Quartz type DQ12 used as positive control.	Negative (alveolar epithelial cells)	Not reported.	Non-persistent inflammation: Increase in the number of cells and macrophages in BALf, dose-dependent more clearly with P25 and reversible within 90 days. Increase of neutrophils in the BALf was not fully reversible at 1.2 mg/lung. Protein also increased in the BAL and was not fully reversible for T805 at 1.2 mg/lung. Increased TNF-α only at day 21 for P25 from 0.6 mg/lung. Fibronectin was decreased at 0.15 mg/lung of P25 and T805 and increased from 0.6 mg/lung for T805 only on day 3. Elevated amount of phosphatidylcholine in BALF, more pronounced with P25, only on day 3.
Numano et	TiO ₂ -NP	Rats SD, female (6/group)	Negative (lung)	Alveolar macrophages	Few small lung inflammatory lesions.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

al 2014	<u>Anatase</u> without coating, <u>25 nm</u>	TiO ₂ was suspended in saline, then autoclaved. Suspensions were sonicated for 20 min. 0.5 ml of suspension at 500 µg/ml, once every the other day over a 2 week period (total of 8 treatments) by trans-tracheal intra-pulmonary spraying. Total amount: 2 mg/rat. Sacrifice 6h after the last spray. Measurement of 8 oxodG formation in the lung. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (lung)	with phagocytosed TiO ₂ particles. Both TiO ₂ deposited in various size in cytoplasm of alveolar macrophages (TEM). No found in other types of cells in the lung.	Alveolar macrophage infiltration. Increase of MIP1α mRNA expression and MIP1α protein in the lung (lower with anatase)
	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Rutile</u> without coating, <u>20 nm</u>				
Xu, 2010	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Rutile</u> type without coating; <u>20 nm</u>	Female SD rats (20) TiO ₂ was suspended in saline, autoclaved and then sonicated for 20 min just before use. 500 µg/ml (1.25 mg/rat) by IPS 5 times for 9 days. Measurement of 8 oxodG formation in the lung and inguinal mammary gland by ELISA kit. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (lung) Negative (inguinal mammary gland)	TiO ₂ particles were observed in the cytoplasm of cells. TiO ₂ aggregates of various sizes were found in macrophages, and aggregates larger than a single macrophage were surrounded by multiple macrophages	Increased SOD activity in the lung but not in the mammary gland. Upregulation of MIP1α expression and Il-6 in the lung.
Intra-nasal route					
Li et al 2013	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 6 nm</u> In HPMC solvent: 5-6 nm, surface area: 174.8 m ² /g	CD1 female mice (30/group) TiO ₂ was dispersed in HPMC treated ultrasonically for 30 min and mechanically vibrated for 5 min. 2.5, 5, 10 mg/kg by nasal instillation every day for 90 days. Measurement of 8 oxodG formation in the lung. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (lung at all doses – dose-dependent)	Ti detected in lung at all doses. Black agglomerates in the lung at 10 mg/kg.	Decreased body weight. Increased relative lung weight from 5 mg/kg. Increase of inflammatory cells and biochemical changes in the BALf at all doses. Infiltration of inflammatory cells, thickening of the pulmonary interstitium and oedema. Pneumonocytic ultrastructure with characteristic of apoptosis. Generation of ROS, lipid and protein peroxidation at all doses. At 10 mg/kg, gene expression was analysed: modification of expression of 847 genes with 521 involved in immune response, inflammatory responses, apoptosis, oxidative stress, metabolic processes, stress responses, signal transduction, cell proliferation, cytoskeleton, cell differentiation and cell cycle.
Intraperitoneal route					

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

Song et al 2011	TiO ₂ -NP <u>19.7-101.0 nm</u> , surface area: 15-77 m ² /g	ICR mice, female (3/group) TiO ₂ was suspended in saline with Tween 80. 1 and 3 mg/mouse by IP once. 8-oxodG measurement in the urine at 24, 48 and 72h (HPLC-ECD method) and liver. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (24h urine collection at 3 mg/animal; result with 1 mg not presented). Negative (liver)	Not reported.	Not reported.
Subcutaneous route					
Cui et al 2014	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase, 5 nm</u>	Rats SD females, pregnant (8/group) 500 µg on gestational day 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18 by SC. 8-oxodG measurement in the brain of male pups (8/group) of 2 days age. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (hippocampus of pups)	Not reported.	Oxidative stress (CAT, MDA, T-AOC) in the rat hippocampus.
DNA adducts					
Gallagher et al 1994	P25 <u>Anatase/rutile, 15-30 nm</u> , surface area: 40 m ² /g	Rats Wistar females, Inhalation 10.4 mg/m ³ (7.5 mg/m ³ increased to 15 mg/m ³ after 4 months and then lowered to 10 mg/m ³ following another 4 months) 18h/d, 5d/w for 2 years, whole body exposure (dry aerosol dispersion technique). ³² P-postlabeling assay for determination of adduct level in peripheral lung tissue. TiO ₂ used as negative control.	Negative (lung) Decreased adduct 1 (adduct migrated outside the region), possibly due to cell proliferation or de novo cell synthesis. No modification of adduct 2 (nuclease sensitive adduct).	Lung particle load between 23 to 39 mg/lung.	Not reported.
H2Ax phosphorylation assay (DNA double-strand breaks)					
Trouiller et al 2009	P25 Purity ≥ 99.5% TiO ₂ <u>75% anatase / 25% rutile, 21 nm</u> , specific surface area: 50±15 m ² /g In water: mean size: 160 nm.	C57Bl/6Jp ^{um} /p ^{um} mice (5/group) TiO ₂ dispersed by ultrasonication for 15 min 50, 100, 250, 500 mg/kg for 5 days, in drinking water γ-H2AX assay in bone marrow cells. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive at all tested doses (bone marrow) Clear dose-response relationship	Not reported.	Not reported.
Chen et al 2014	<u>Anatase</u> Purity: 99.90% <u>75 ± 15 nm</u> , specific surface area: 63.95 m ² /g In exposure medium, TiO ₂ tend to agglomerate into 473.6 nm and 486.8 nm size when suspended in H ₂ O and FBS-free DMEM.	Rats SD, male (7/group) TiO ₂ dispersed in ultrapure water and ultrasonic vibrated for 15 min. 10, 50, 200 mg/kg by intragastric administration, once a day for 30 consecutive days. Sacrifice immediately after the last administration. Immunofluorescence staining for phosphorylation of histone H2AX assay on bone marrow cells. Negative control included but no positive control.	Positive (bone marrow at 50 and 200 mg/kg)	Not reported.	No abnormal behaviour and symptoms, no significant changes in the body weight. No cytotoxicity as observed by PCE/NCE ratio.

All the above studies were summarized regardless of their reliability. However, in order to make a reliable assessment of these results, different key parameters need to be taken into account. First, the tested material needs to be characterized (at least size, crystalline phase and coating). Secondly, the inclusion of negative and positive controls is required to validate the system and thus the results. Finally, the negative results should be taken into account only when it has been shown that the nanoparticles have reached the organ investigated. This could be confirmed with data on uptake or if cytotoxicity was detected. In summary, none of these publications fulfills these criteria.

- **Summary of *in vivo* genotoxicity studies**

The list of *in vivo* studies summarized above was based on a literature research including published reviews, projects and studies (ended on 30/04/2015). In addition, information from the registration dossier which has been published on ECHA website has been considered (date: 01/08/2015). All forms of TiO₂ have been taken into account.

As a first step, no reliability assessment was made on these studies and all were reported. Among them, most of the studies were performed with nano-TiO₂ and referred to the anatase form. Forty-three experiments over 138 reported positive results. Most of the positive results were found in Comet assays, 8-oxodG tests and H2Ax phosphorylation assays (Table I-11).

Table I-11 Summary of positive responses in function of crystalline phase of TiO₂ according to the authors

Assays	Micronucleus assay	Comet assay	Mutation assay	DNA oxidative lesions	DNA adducts	H2Ax phosphorylation assay	Total
Nanoforms							
Anatase	2/9	5/22	0/7	5/6	0/0	1/1	13/45
Rutile	0/2	0/0	0/0	1/3	0/0	0/0	1/5
Anatase/rutile	3/7	8/20	2/2	1/2	0/1	1/1	15/33
Anatase coated	0/1	1/5	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/6
Rutile coated	0/6	5/22	0/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	5/29
Anatase/rutile coated	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/1	0/0	0/0	0/1
Brookite/anatase	0/1	0/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/2
Unspecified	1/1	1/1	0/0	1/2	0/0	0/0	3/4
Microforms							
Anatase	1/1	2/3	1/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	4/5
Rutile	0/2	0/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/3
Unspecified	0/0	0/1	0/2	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/3
Undefined							
Unspecified	1/2	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	1/2
Total	8/32	22/76	3/13	8/14	0/1	2/2	43/138

Some studies include several experiments with different NM and some NM can show negative and positive results within a study, depending on the organ examined. Each result was counted in all the relevant sections. An experiment is defined by a tested material and a specific protocol (ex. organ examined, duration...).

However, in order to make a reliable assessment of these results, different key parameters need to be taken into account as in the *in vitro* genotoxicity section:

- Characterization of the tested material (at least size, crystallinity and coating);
- Information on dispersion and exposure protocols;
- Inclusion of negative and positive controls to validate the system and avoid under or over responses. It should be noted that in some case, it is difficult to find a positive control for all the endpoints examined;
- Use of known or validated protocols;
- Evidence of uptake or (cyto)toxicity in case of negative results. Indeed, false negative results may be induced if there is no uptake of TiO₂ by the cells. This can be assessed by specific uptake data or by the presence of cytotoxicity. Furthermore, the time point selected for the genotoxicity endpoint measurement should be appropriately chosen.

Considering these criteria, one MN assay, 3 Comet assays and 2 mutations assays were considered reliable (Table I-12). None of the 8-OHdG assays and none of the γ-H2AX assays reach the above criteria. Among these studies, positive results were only found in the Comet assays with most of them showing a dose-response

Table I-12. Summary of positive responses in function of crystalline phase of TiO₂ according to the authors in the selected reliable *in vivo* studies

Assays	Micronucleus assay	Comet assay	Mutation assay	DNA oxidative lesions	DNA adducts	H2Ax phosphorylation assay	Total
Nanoforms							
Anatase	0/1	1/3	0/2	-	-	-	1/6
Rutile	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anatase/rutile	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anatase coated	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rutile coated	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anatase/rutile coated	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Brookite/anatase	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Microforms							
Anatase	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rutile	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Undefined							
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	0/1	9/36	-	-	-	-	9/37

Some studies include several experiments with different NM and some NM can show negative and positive results within a study, depending on the organ examined. Each result was counted in all the relevant sections. An experiment is defined by a tested material and a specific protocol (ex. organ examined, duration...).

-: No study fulfilling our selected criteria

Inconsistencies in the results of the studies may be the result of differences in test materials (size, crystallinity, coating...). Based on the above tables, nanoforms seem to induce more positive results in *in vivo* genotoxicity studies. However, this impression comes mainly on the fact that very few studies on microforms are available (and none fulfilling our criteria). Furthermore, some data suggested that anatase forms are more cytotoxic than rutile or anatase/rutile ones because of photocatalytic properties of anatase (Xue, 2010; Wang, 2014). Very few studies compare the *in vivo* genotoxicity of different crystalline forms of TiO₂: no difference as function of crystallinity was noted in Nanogenotox (2013) and registration data (2014-07-22/2014-07-30) while Numaro (2014) reported a higher effect of rutile form. Despite a systematic review of the different characteristics that may explain the discrepancies observed in the studies, it remains difficult to highlight which parameter(s) can drive them. Inconsistencies in the results can also be explained by the various test conditions used, including dispersal of the material, concentrations and exposure duration, route of exposure, animal model, cell/organ examined and parameter assessed. All these differences do not permit an easy comparison of the studies.

Mechanism of action

Several *in vivo* genotoxicity studies indicate that TiO₂ may cause genotoxic effects *via* secondary mechanisms. Indeed, when assessed, positive results were often associated with oxidative stress and inflammation. Inflammation was characterized by up-regulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Trouiller, 2009) and increased cells such as neutrophils in the BALf (Lindberg, 2012; Landsiedel, 2010; Naya, 2012; Saber, 2012; Nanogenotox, 2013; Driscoll, 1997; Rehn, 2003; Numaro, 2014; Li, 2013). Evidence for induction of oxidative stress was observed by decrease of intracellular antioxidant defenses (such as SOD, GSH-Px), increase of lipid peroxidation (Meena, 2015; El Ghor, 2014; Cui, 2014), production of ROS (Sheng, 2013; Gui, 2013; Li, 2013; Gao, 2012) or alteration of genes expression involved in stress responses from transcriptomic analyses (Li, 2013; Gui, 2013; Sheng, 2014; Gao, 2012). Oxidative damage can also be supported by measurement of 8-oxo-dG which were increased in different organs in 9/10 studies by different routes of exposure (Sheng, 2013; Gao, 2012; Gui, 2013; Trouiller, 2009; Numaro, 2014; Xu, 2010; Li, 2013; Song, 2012; Cui, 2014). Modified Comet assays using for example Fpg can also bring information on the induction of oxidative lesions but a clear profile of responses cannot be observed, with various results depending on the test material and the organ examined (Nanogenotox, 2013). **All these results indicate that an oxidative stress pathway is probably involved in the genotoxic effect of TiO₂, even if a consistent response was not observed among the studies.**

However, in some studies, inflammation was not associated with genotoxic effects (Lindberg, 2012; Louro, 2014; Landsiedel, 2010; Jackson, 2013; Naya, 2012; Saber, 2012; Nanogenotox WP6; Rehn, 2003; Noumaro, 2014) suggesting that inflammation and oxidative stress alone may not be sufficient to drive to genotoxic effect. Indeed, a direct genotoxic effect by direct DNA interaction cannot be excluded since there is some evidence that TiO₂ can locate in nuclei. Accumulation in the nucleus was reported in 2 *in vivo* studies (Gao, 2012 and Louro, 2014) but was associated with a genotoxic effect in only one of these publications (Gao, 2012). Additional publications (from a not exhaustive bibliographic research) not summarized in the tables above since they were of low quality also reported some accumulation in the nucleus and possible interaction with DNA after *in vivo* administration of TiO₂ (Li, 2009; Jin, 2013). Accumulation in the nucleus was also observed in some *in vitro* studies reported in Tables I-01 to I-04 (Jugan, 2012; Shukla, 2013; Hackenberg, 2011; Barillet, 2010). However, it should be noted that accumulation in the nucleus was not systematically investigated in the studies and was not quantified when reported. Since the nuclear pore complex is less than 8 nm in diameter, Karlsson (2010 & 2015) hypothesized that direct interactions with DNA could occur during mitosis and interfere with the microtubules, causing clastogenic effects. **These data suggest that TiO₂ can enter into nucleus and directly interact with DNA.**

In summary, oxidative stress seems to be the main pathway explaining positive genotoxic results obtained with TiO₂. A direct genotoxic effect cannot be totally excluded since accumulation in the nucleus was reported in some *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies.

ANNEX II. *IN VITRO* STUDIES ASSESSED BUT NOT SELECTED ACCORDING TO OUR CRITERIA.

• **Micronucleus assays**

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Turquez et al, 2011	TiO ₂ < 100nm No data on crystallinity.	TiO ₂ was prepared with sterile dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). Culture media: 5 ml of culture medium (Chromosome Medium B) with 5 mg/ml of phytohemagglutinin	Peripheral blood lymphocyte culture	Not cytotoxic at 3 and 5 µM: no alteration of PI values. Cytotoxic at 10 µM: statistically important decrease in the rate of PI.	Positive: significant from 5 µM– dose-dependent. CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 3, 5 and 10 µM for 72h; 2000 binucleated lymphocytes examined per concentration (2 cultures/concentration); negative control but no positive control. Positive effect of adding acid ascorbic (AA) in decreasing the incidence of MN.	Not reported.
Jaeger et al 2012	P25 <u>70% anatase/30% rutile</u> <u>20 nm</u> TiO ₂ -MP <u>Anatase, 200 nm</u>	TiO ₂ particles were sterilized by heating to 120°C for 2 h, suspended in sterilized phosphate-buffered saline (1× PBS) to a 12.5 mM stock solution (1 mg/ml) and kept at 4 °C until used. Before application to the cells, treatment of NP with an ultrasonicator for 3 min at cycle count 20% and 70% In DMEM : SSA = 52.7 ± 3.6 m ² /g (N ₂ BET); Zeta potential : -11.6 ± 1.2 mV (P25)	Ha CaT keratinocytes	Cytotoxic: Slight decrease of the number of binucleated cells showing some toxicity; no use of the CBPI parameter recommended; % of BN in control low (40 to 50%) compare to what is expected with cell lines (up to 70-80%) – MN assay.	Positive P25: increase at 10 µg/ml (24h exposure) and at all doses (48h exposure) – not dose dependent TiO ₂ -MP : increase at 1 and 5 µg/ml (24h exposure) and from 0.5 to 10 µg/ml (48h exposure) MN assay. Conditions tested: 0.5-50 µg/ml for 24 or 48h between 1 and 50 µg/ml; at least 3 replicates of 3 * 500 binucleated cells per data. No positive control.	As soon as 1 h after exposure to TiO ₂ -NPs (10 g/ml) many TiO ₂ particles were observed as electron-dense, highly contrasted bodies in small endosomes and bigger vesicles inside HaCaT cells
Zheng et al 2012	P25 <u>Anatase/rutile</u> <u>80/20, 25-50 nm</u>	Sterilized in an autoclave and freshly suspended in distilled water. Dispersion in DMEM media with ultra-sonication of 10 min.	Human embryo hepatic L-02 cells	ATP level was not affected nor the cell viability. Conditions tested; 1, 5, 10 mg/l for 6, 12, 24 h exposure	Negative MN assay. Conditions tested: 1, 5, 10 mg/l in the dark for 24h; 3 independent experiments, 3000 binucleated cells	NPs internalized (SEM observation); 10 mg/l for 24h)

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		In DMEM: Size: from 322 to 482 nm; zeta potential: from -25.3 to -8.015 mV		No data on the % of binucleated cells, on the toxicity during the assay (ex: CBPI)	scored. No positive control.	
Corradi et al. 2012	NM-101 <u>Anatase with occasional trace of rutile</u> , uncoated 7-9±1 nm	Dispersion in MilliQ-filtered water with 2% bovine serum at the concentration of 2.56 mg/ml and 16 min sonication (EU ENPRA protocol). Then dilution in culture media: DMEM with and without 10% FBS.	A549 human pulmonary cells	Not cytotoxic at concentrations up to 250 µg/ml (CBPI data). No difference between the CBPI and the 3 TiO ₂ NM. No difference in the presence or absence of serum. Conditions tested: 5-75 µg/ml for 40h.	Results are not available as the MN were obscured by NM agglomerates over the cells and thus could not be scored (40h up to 250 µg/ml with one experiment performed)	Big agglomerates of TiO ₂ NMs were detected in samples cultured in the presence or absence of 10% serum and colocalized with cells. Increasing the number of rinses of the slides did not decrease the number of agglomerates. Whether those clusters were attached at the cell surface or were internalized by the cells requires further investigation
	NRCWE-002 Rutile, positively coated TiO ₂ 10±1 nm	TiO ₂ NMs formed denser agglomerates than in the presence of 2% serum in the dispersion medium. Multiple rinses of the culture slides were performed, without obtaining adequate slides for analysis.				
	NRCWE-003 <u>Rutile</u> , negatively coated TiO ₂ 10±1 nm	In MilliQ-filtered water: NM-101: 580.8 nm (PDI: 0.326) NRCWE-002: 175.6 nm (PDI: 0.251) NRCWE-003: 163.3 nm (PDI: 0.242) In DMEM (bimodal distribution): NM-101: 211 and 964 nm NRCWE-002: 139 and 3052 nm NRCWE-003: 190 and 2517 nm In DMEM + 10% FBS NM-101: 129 and 591 nm NRCWE-002: 233 nm NRCWE-003: 109 and 1184 nm				
Jugan et al. 2011	<u>Rutile</u> , spherical 20 nm	No information	A549 human pulmonary cells	Low cytotoxicity: max 25% cell death after 48h exposure; MTT, LDH, Trypan blue, clonogenic assays (results not	Negative MN assay. Conditions tested: exposure for 4-48h. No further details.	NPs internalized, located mostly in the cytoplasm and got rapidly entrapped into

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<u>Anatase</u> , spherical 12 nm			presented). Lowest interference with Trypan blue and clonogenic assay Conditions tested not detailed.		vesicles and vacuoles
Shi et al. 2010	P25 <u>Anatase:rutile</u> crystalline ratio (8:2) Primary particle diameter approx. <u>25</u> <u>nm</u> ; surface area (BET) of 50 m ² /g.	Nano-TiO ₂ was sterilized by heating to 120°C for 2 h, and freshly suspended in distilled water immediately before use. Culture medium: DMEM containing FBS, penicillin G and streptomycin.	Human hepatocytes L-02	Not cytotoxic with the ATP kit. Conditions tested: 0.01-1 µg/ml for 12, 24 or 36h. No CBPI data.	Negative CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 0.01 -1 µg/L for 24 h; triplicate and repeated three times; 3000 binucleated cells scored for each group; negative control but no positive control.	Not reported.
Landsiedel et al, 2010	T-LiteTM SF <u>Coated-rutile</u> . Acicular-shaped. The coating consists of aluminium hydroxide and dimethicone/methic one copolymer. TiO ₂ content = 79- 89 % Purity TiO ₂ core ≥ 99% <u>PPS length: 50</u> <u>nm</u> ; <u>width: 10 nm</u> Mean agglomerate: about 200 nm. SSA = 100 m ² /g	FCS was used as sole vehicle. The dispersion contained still a significant amount of ultrafine particles (diameter <100 nm) including some non-aggregated primary particles. T-LiteTM SF agglomerates strongly. T-LiteTM SF in the vehicle FCS (50 mg/ml) showed a diameter of 239 nm, in FCS/MEM (0.6 mg/ml) a diameter of 562 nm as determined by analytical ultracentrifugation.	V79 cells (lung fibroblasts from Chinese Hamster)	Range finding cytotoxicity test: no reduced cell numbers of below 50% of control up to 5 mg/ml. Strongly reduced quality of the cells from 625 µg/ml onward after 4h treatment and from 156.3 µg/ml onward after 24h treatment. MN assay: not cytotoxic: no reduced proliferation index after 4 and 24h of exposure time, up to the highest concentration scorable for MN induction.	Negative MN assay. Conditions tested: 0, 75, 150, 300 µg/ml for 4 hours or 0, 18.8, 37.5, 75 µg/ml for 24 hours in the dark; quadruplicate culture and 2000 cells analyzed for each group, negative and positive controls.	Not reported.
Di Virgilio et al. 2010	Average particle size: <u>20 ± 7 nm</u> ; SSA: 142 m ² /g (BET). No information on crystallinity.	Suspension prepared in PBS, vortexed for 10 minutes and stored at 4°C in the dark. Cell culture: Ham F10 culture medium supplemented with 10% inactivated fetal calf serum, 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 g/mL streptomycin sulfate (complete culture medium).	Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1)	Cytotoxic: significant decrease from 25 µg/ml with neutral red (population growth) and at all concentrations with MTT assay. NR and MTT assays. Conditions tested: 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24 hours.	Positive at from 0.5 µg/ml (only statistically significant at 0.5 and 1 µg/ml) The highest concentration could not be measured due to cytotoxic effects. At this concentration, nuclei (and eventually micronuclei) were covered by NPs. CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 0, 0.5, 1, 5, 10 µg/ml under complete darkness for 24 hours; 3 independent experiments in triplicate; 1000 binucleated cells scored	TiO ₂ (50 µg/ml) for 24 hours: cells formed perinuclear vesicles containing phagocytosed material. Agglomerates on both of the surface and inside the cells. Only present in the cytoplasm and no NP was detected in the nuclei. The nucleus shape is modified in the presence of some

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

					per slide; negative control but no positive control.	large vesicles which seem to press it. In some cells with many large vesicles, the membrane was disintegrated.
Osman, 2010	<u>Anatase</u> TiO ₂ NP Purity: 99.7% No data on primary size.	Nanoparticles were suspended in 10 ml EMEM– EBSS medium at concentrations of 10, 20, 50 and 100 µg/ml. Suspensions were probe-sonicated at 30 W for 5 min on and off, and then allowed to equilibrate for different times: 0, 2, 4, 24 and 48 h. In culture media: aggregation with increasing dose, but remained constant over a 48h period, except at higher doses (from 50 µg/ml) of TiO ₂ . Size from 384 nm (up to 20 µg/ml) to 722 nm (100 µg/ml).	Human epithelial Hep-2 cell line	Cytotoxic MTT and NRU assays. Conditions tested: 20-100 µg/ml for 2, 4, 24 and 48h. In comet assay, cell viability was between 70-85% except at 100 µg/ml which showed 65% viability. High membrane integrity. Trypan Blue assay. Conditions tested: 10, 20, 50, 100 µg/ml for 4h.	Positive at 50 µg/ml – dose related. The dose of 100 µg/ml was toxic and precipitated. CBMN assay. Conditions tested: 10, 20, 50 µg/ml for 2h; 1000 binucleated cells scored; 2 independent experiments, negative and positive controls.	Not reported.

• Comet assays

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Jugan et al, 2012	TiO ₂ -A12 NP 95% anatase, spherical 12 nm; 92 m ² /g; PZS: 6.4	Dispersion in ultrapure sterile water(pH5.5) by sonication for 30 min at 4 C,in pulsed mode(1 s on/1 s off), at the concentration of 10 mg.ml-1 Suspensions were diluted in cell culture medium (DMEM without serum)	A549 human lung carcinoma cells (CCL-185)	Cytotoxic in MTT assay (less than 25% of cell death after 48h) Conditions tested: 1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h.	TiO ₂ -A12 NP: Positive for all duration exposures. TiO ₂ -R20: Positive for 4h and 24h treatment. TiO ₂ -A25: Positive for 4h and 24h treatment. TiO ₂ -R68: Positive only for 4h treatment TiO ₂ -A140: Positive only for 4h treatment.	An unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus of cells
	TiO ₂ -R20 NPs 90% rutile, spherical 21 nm; 73 m ² /g					
	TiO ₂ -A25 (AEROXIDE P25) 86% anatase/14% rutile, spherical 24 nm; 46 m ² /g; PZS: 7.0					
	TiO ₂ -R68 100% rutile, elongated L: 68 nm d: 9 nm; 118 m ² /g					
	TiO ₂ -A140 100% anatase, spherical 142 nm; 10 m ² /g; PZS: 5.2			Cytotoxic (less than 1% of cell death at the highest dose after 48h) in MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h)	Alkaline Comet assay: 100 µg/ml 4h -24h -48h; triplicate, negative control but no positive control.	Cytoplasmic accumulation was also observed but not in cell nuclei
			Cytotoxic (less than 10% of cell death at the highest dose after 48h) in MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h)			
Kerमानیزاده et al, 2014	NRCWE 002 NM produced from the NRCWE 001 Rutile, 10 nm (XRD size), 80-400 (TEM size), BET: 84 m ² /g, coated with triethylpropylaminosaline	NM was dispersed in cell culture grade water with 2% FCS. Then it was sonicated for 16 min without pause (instruction of ENPRA project). Then immediately transferred to ice before being diluted in medium just prior to the experiments. Size in human liver maintenance medium: 278±151 nm.	3D human liver microtissues	Not cytotoxic. Concentration-dependent decrease in cell membrane integrity over time (not significant) in Adenylate kinase assay Live/dead staining supported AK data. Conditions tested: 16, 31.25, 62.5, 125 and 250 µg/ml single exposure for 24h or repeated exposure at 72, 144, 216 and 288h. No interference.	Positive Without Fpg single exposure: positive at 16, 125 and 250 µg/ml – not dose-dependent. With Fpg single exposure: positive only at 31.25 µg/ml – not dose-dependent. Without Fpg repeated exposure: positive at 16, 62.5 and 125 µg/ml – not dose-dependent. With Fpg repeated exposure: positive at 31.25 and 125 µg/ml – not dose-dependent.	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

					Standard and Fpg modified comet assay. Conditions tested: 16, 31.25, 62.5, 125 and 250 µg/ml – single exposure for 24h or repeated exposures at 72, 144, 216 and 288h; All experiments were repeated a minimum of three times; negative but no positive control	
Ghosh et al, 2013	TiO ₂ nanoparticles <u>Anatase and rutile</u> ; spherical in shape Particle size (~100 nm), surface area (14.0 m ² /g), and density (4.26 g/ml at 25°C) (supplier information) About 50 nm (TEM, SEM), 106 nm (AFM)	Suspension in filter-sterilized PBS and dispersed by ultrasonic vibrations (100 W, 30KHZ) for 30 min In dispersion: symmetric, spherical in shape, well distributed without much aggregation and size range: 90-110 nm; at least 45% of the particles with hydrodynamic diameter of ~200 nm	Human lymphocytes	Not cytotoxic with Trypan blue dye exclusion, resazurin and NR uptake assays. Conditions tested: 0, 25, 50 and 100 µg/ml for 3 h. Cytotoxic with MTT and WST-1 assays: at all concentrations. Conditions tested: 0, 25, 50 and 100 µg/ml for 3 h at 37 °C	Positive only at 25 µg/mL – not dose-dependent. Comet assay; 25-50-100 µg/ml for 3h ; Each experiment was repeated twice; 3 replicates; negative control but no positive control	No information
Botelho et al, 2014	TiO ₂ nanopowder 637254 (titanium (IV) oxide anatase <u>Anatase ; < 25 nm</u>)	TiO ₂ was suspended in two different dispersion media: Milli-Q water and RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS or 2% BSA in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and probe sonicated at 30 W for 5 min (1.5 min pulse on and 1 min pulse off for two times and a final pulse of 2 min). In Milli Q water: 420.7 nm; zeta potential: -9.96mV. No information in RPMI media culture	AGS (gastric epithelial cancer) cells	Not cytotoxic: increase of cell proliferation and overall survival in cell in CellTiter 96 AQ nonradioactive cell proliferation assay. Conditions tested: 20-150 µg/ml for 3, 6 or 24h. Confirmation of this result in Trypan blue exclusion assay. Conditions tested: 150 µg/ml for 3h.	Positive (% Tail DNA) Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 150 µg/ml for 3h; 2 replicates; negative controls but no positive control.	Not reported.
Wang et al, 2011	<u>Anatase</u> (100%) Purity = 99.7%, < 25nm	Nano-TiO ₂ was suspended in DMSO and vortexed for 1 min. Culture media: Ham's F12 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% L-glutamine, and 1% penicillin/streptomycin TiO ₂ appeared to aggregate in cell culture medium (generally > 100 nm).	Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1)	Not cytotoxic for concentration below 50 µg/ml with acute or chronic exposure Cytotoxic at 100 and 200 µg/ml with acute exposure XTT assay. Conditions tested: 0, 10, 20, 40 µg/ml and higher for 1, 2 or 60	Negative (tail length) Alkaline comet assay. Conditions tested: 0, 10, 20, 40 µg/ml for 60 days; duplicate culture; negative control but no positive control.	TiO ₂ aggregates were internalized by CHO cells that were chronically exposed (TEM). Internalized TiO ₂ appeared to be restricted to the cytoplasm and did not appear to localize to

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

				days (results only shown for concentrations up to 40 µg/ml for 24 and 48h).		any specific organelles and none appeared within cell nuclei.
Wan et al. 2012	Nano-TiO ₂ . 90 % anatase and 10% rutile ; 28 nm, BET = 45 m ² /g	TiO ₂ dispersed in physiological saline and ultrasonicated for 30 min. Then added to culture medium (Ham's F-12 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin) In cell culture medium: size (DLS): 280 nm	A549 human lung epithelial cells	Not cytotoxic with <i>in vitro</i> cytotoxicity kit (SBR) and AlamarBlue™ assay (colorimetric/fluorimetric method).at 2.5-40 µg/ml for 24h	Negative (OTM) Alkaline comet assay. Conditions tested: 5 and 15 µg/ml for 12h; 3 independent experiments; 3 slides per concentration; no positive control.	The uptake of Nano-TiO ₂ in A549 cells was 2.75 × 10 ⁻¹² and 4.34 × 10 ⁻¹² (g/cell) with exposure to 5 and 15 µg/ml respectively for 12h - clear dose dependent (ICP-MS)
Meena et al. 2012	<u>Anatase</u> <u>< 25 nm</u>	Nano-TiO ₂ was dissolved in distilled water and ultrasonicated for 30 min. TiO ₂ was then suspended in cell culture medium containing Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium, supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated fetal calf serum and IX Penstrep antibiotic solution. In suspension: 10-20 nm (TEM); 43-103 nm (DLS) In cell culture medium: 17-40 nm (TEM); 43-336 nm (DLS)	Human embryonic kidney cell line HEK-293	Cytotoxic: cell viability decreased as function of both concentration (at 100 and 200 µg/ml) and time (24, 48, 72h) with LDH and MTT assays. Conditions tested: 50-200 µg/ml for 24, 48 and 72h.	Positive Increased tail length and tail migration at all concentrations – dose-dependent. Increased tail migration from 100 µg/ml – dose-dependent. Comet assay: Conditions tested not well developed. 50-200 µg/ml for 48h. No positive control.	Not reported.
Zheng et al. 2012	<u>Anatase/rutile</u> forms of 80/20; <u>25-50 nm</u>	Sterilized in an autoclave and freshly suspended in distilled water. Dispersion in DMEM media with ultra-sonication of 10 min. In DMEM: Size: from 322 to 482 nm; zeta potential: from -25.3 to -8.015 mV	Human embryo hepatic L-02 cells	ATP level was not affected nor the cell viability. Conditions tested; 1, 5, 10 mg/l for 6, 12, 24 h exposure	Negative (Olive Tail Moment) Neutral Comet assay. Conditions tested: 0.1-10 mg/l for 24h; between; no information on the number of replicates; 3 independent assays. No positive control	NPs internalized (SEM observation; 10 mg/l during 24h)
Turquez et al, 2011	<u>< 100nm</u> No information on cristallinity.	TiO ₂ was prepared with sterile dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). Culture media:5 ml of culture	Peripheral blood lymphocyte culture	Not cytotoxic at 3 and 5 µM: no alteration of PI values.	Positive from 5 µg/ml – dose-dependent (tail length) Alkali Comet treatment: 3, 5, 10	No information

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		medium (Chromosome Medium B) with 5 mg/ml of phytohemagglutinin		Cytotoxic at 10 µM: statistically important decrease in the rate of PI.	µg/ml for 72h; negative control but no positive treatment AA had an inhibitory effect on DNA damage in human lymphocytes induced by TiO ₂ .	
Ghosh, 2010	Bulk TiO ₂ No characterization data	TiO ₂ was suspended in filter sterilized double distilled water and were sonicated to prepare stock solutions. Then diluted, followed by sonication and vigorous vortexing. TiO ₂ was added to culture media: RPMI-1640	Human peripheral blood lymphocytes	Not cytotoxic (TiO ₂ -NP and bulk) with Trypan blue assay. Conditions tested: particles at 0, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1, 1.25, 1.50, 1.75, 2 mM for 3 h. Cytotoxic (TiO ₂ -NP) with MTT and WST-1 assays from 0.25 mM. Conditions tested: 0, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1, 1.25 mM for 3 h.	Bulk TiO₂: Positive at concentrations from 1.25 mM (% tail DNA) – not dose dependent. TiO₂ NP: Positive: only at 0.25 mM for TiO ₂ NP (% tail DNA), followed by gradual decrease – not dose-dependent. Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 0, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1, 1.25, 1.50, 1.75, 2 mM for 3 h; triplicate per concentration; each experiment repeated twice; negative control but no positive control.	No information
	TiO ₂ <u>100 nm</u> ; surface area: 14.0 m ² /g; density: 4.26 g/ml No information on crystallinity. Particle symmetric, spherical in shape, well distributed without much aggregation and in the size range of 90–110 nm as specified by the supplier (AFM images).					
Demir et al, 2013	TiO ₂ ionic and nano forms	Distilled in water and ultrasonication at 20 kHz for 16 min in an ice-cooled bath After dispersion: 2.3 ± 0.5 nm, 70.2 mV, no marked agglomerations	Human peripheral blood lymphocytes and cultured human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293)	Not cytotoxic for NP or ionic form (FDA/EB viability assay) in both cells tested. Conditions tested: 1, 10 and 100 µg/mL; EMS used as a positive control	Positive for NP at 100 µg/mL with or without fpg and endo II enzymes (%Tail DNA for standard and modified Comet assay; Tail moment for standard assay) Negative for ionic form without enzyme treatment (%Tail DNA and Tail moment) Standard alkaline Comet assays: 1, 10 and 100 µg/mL for 3h for NP and ionic forms; Modified Comet assay (endo III and Fpg): 100 µg/ml for NP form 2 independent experiments and 2 replicates; positive and negative controls.	No information
	NP characterization: Spherical; <u>2.3 nm</u> ; purity: 99-100.5%; density (1.05 g/ml) No information on crystallinity					
Hackenberg et al. 2010	TiO ₂ -NPs <u>Anatase</u> ; < 25 nm	Dispersed in DI water. Then sonicated for 60s at a high energy level of 4.2×10 ⁵ kJ/m ³ using a continuous mode to	Human nasal mucosa cells from 10 donors	Not cytotoxic for both cytotoxicity tests: Trypan blue test: death cells below 20% and FDA assay: cell	Negative (tail DNA, tail length and OTM) Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions	11% of the nasal mucosa cells presented nanoparticles in the cytoplasm. In cases of

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		<p>create an optimal grade of dispersion, BSA was added as a stabilizer at an end concentration of 1.5 mg/ml. Finally, 10× concentrated phosphate buffered saline (PBS) was added to achieve a physiological salt concentration and pH of 7.4.</p> <p>In stock suspension: 15-30 nm, high level of compact aggregations sized 285±52 nm. In particular cases, aggregates could reach diameters up to 2000 nm.</p>		<p>viability between 95 and 76%.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24 h</p>	<p>tested: 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24h in the text but 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/l in the tables; negative and positive controls; 10 donors used per concentration; 2 slides per cells.</p>	<p>cell invasion, large-sized particle aggregates up to 1000 nm in diameter could be described, being surrounded by vesicles. Invasion into the cell nucleus was observed in 4%</p>
<p>Jugan et al. 2011</p>	<p><u>Rutile</u>, spherical <u>20 nm</u></p>	<p>No information</p>	<p>A549 human pulmonary cells</p>	<p>Low cytotoxicity: max 25% cell death after 48h exposure; MTT, LDH, Trypan blue, clonogenic assays (results not presented). Lowest interference with Trypan blue and clonogenic assay</p>	<p>Positive (tail DNA)</p> <p>Comet assay. Conditions tested: 100 µg/ml for 4, 24 or 48h; negative control but no positive controls; no statistics; no information on replicates or independent assays. High level of damage in control increasing with the time of exposure.</p>	<p>NPs internalized, located mostly in the cytoplasm and got rapidly entrapped into vesicles and vacuoles</p>
	<p><u>Anatase</u>, spherical <u>12 nm</u></p>					
<p>Shi et al. 2010</p>	<p>P25 <u>Anatase:rutile</u> crystalline ratio (8:2) Primary particle diameter approx. <u>25 nm</u>; surface area (BET) of 50 m²/g.</p>	<p>Nano-TiO₂ was sterilized by heating to 120°C for 2 h, and freshly suspended in distilled water immediately before use.</p> <p>Culture medium: DMEM containing FBS, penicillin G and streptomycin.</p>	<p>Human hepatocytes L-02</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic with the ATP kit.</p> <p>Conditions tested: 0.01-1 µg/ml for 12, 24 or 36h.</p>	<p>Negative (OTM)</p> <p>Alkaline and Neutral Comet assays. Conditions tested: 0.01 -1 µg/L for 24 h; triplicate and repeated three times; negative control but no positive control.</p>	<p>No information</p>
<p>Pan, 2012</p>	<p>P25 80/20% <u>anatase/rutile</u> No further characterization</p>	<p>Cells cultured in RPMI 1640 medium with 10% FBS, penicillin, and streptomycin at 37°C, 5% CO₂-humidified environment.</p>	<p>Hep-2 cells</p>	<p>Cytotoxic: IC₅₀ = 178.98 µg/ml</p> <p>MTT assay. Conditions tested: 7.8-500 µg/ml for 24h.</p> <p>Results consistent with</p>	<p>Positive at both doses (tail length) and only at the highest dose (%Tail DNA) – dose dependent</p> <p>Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 7.8 and 62.5 µg/ml for 2 hours; duplicate; negative control but no positive control.</p>	<p>No information</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		<p>Culture medium for TK6 cells: RPMI 1640 with heat-inactivated FBS, penicillin and streptomycin. Culture medium for other cells: DMEM medium containing FBS, penicillin and streptomycin.</p> <p>First protocol gives more stable (up to 2 days) bimodal dispersion with 2 peaks more or less in the nanosized range (about 100-300 nm) while the second protocol results in large agglomerates (about 700-800 nm) and less stable dispersion. Culture media did not influence the final dispersion.</p>		<p>Conditions tested: 0.12-75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ for 2 and 24h.</p>	<p>Negative with the first dispersion protocol.</p> <p>EUE cells (only standard Comet assay performed): Positive (strand-breaks) only at 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ after 24h exposure with the second dispersion protocol (tail intensity). Negative with the first dispersion protocol.</p> <p>Standard alkaline and Fpg modified Comet assay; conditions tested: 0.12, 0.6, 3, 15 and 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ for 2 or 24 h; no information on replicates or independent assays; negative and positive controls (data not presented for positive control)</p>	
Osman, 2010	<p>Anatase TiO_2 NP Purity: 99.7% No information on size.</p>	<p>Nanoparticles were suspended in 10 ml EMEM– EBSS medium at concentrations of 10, 20, 50 and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$. Suspensions were probe-sonicated at 30 W for 5 min on and off, and then allowed to equilibrate for different times: 0, 2, 4, 24 and 48 h.</p> <p>In culture media: aggregation with increasing dose, but remained constant over a 48h period, except at higher doses (from 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) of TiO_2. Size from 384 nm (up to 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) to 722 nm (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$).</p>	<p>Human epithelial Hep-2 cell line</p>	<p>Cytotoxic</p> <p>MTT and NRU assays. Conditions tested: 20-100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ for 2, 4, 24 and 48h.</p> <p>In comet assay, cell viability was between 70-85% except at 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ which showed 65% viability. High membrane integrity. Trypan Blue assay. Conditions tested: 10, 20, 50, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ for 4h.</p>	<p>Positive at all doses – dose related (OTM and %tail DNA)</p> <p>The dose of 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ was toxic and precipitated.</p> <p>Alkaline Comet assay. Conditions tested: 10, 20, 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ for 4h; 3 independent experiments, negative and positive controls.</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

- Chromosomal Aberrations assays

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Registration data 2011-01-31	TiO ₂ No further information	Vehicle: water. The test substance formed a homogenous white suspension in the vehicle at the highest stock concentration prepared, 50 mg/mL. Cell culture: Complete medium (supplemented with FBS, L-glutamine, penicillin and streptomycin).	CHO cells	Preliminary assay: Substantial toxicity (> 50% reduction in cell growth relative to the vehicle control) at 250 µg/ml for the 4-hour test condition and 100 µg/ml for the 20 hour test condition. Main test: toxicity (> 50% reduction in cell growth relative to the vehicle control) at 100 µg/ml in the 4 hour non-activated and S9 activated test conditions; and 75 µg/ml in the 20 hour non-activated test condition.	Negative Chromosome aberration assay. Conditions tested: 25, 50, 75, 100, 150 µg/ml for 4 and 20h without metabolic activation and 4h with metabolic activation; duplicate; 200 metaphase per concentration scored; negative and positive controls.	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

- Gene Mutation assays

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Wang et al. 2011	<u>Anatase</u> (100%) Purity = 99.7%, <u>< 25nm</u>	Nano-TiO ₂ was suspended in DMSO and vortexed for 1 min. Culture media: Ham's F12 medium supplemented with FBS, L-glutamine, and penicillin/streptomycin. TiO ₂ appeared to aggregate in cell culture medium (generally > 100 nm).	Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1)	Not cytotoxic for concentration below 50 µg/ml with acute or chronic exposure. Cytotoxic at 100 and 200 µg/ml with acute exposure. XTT assay. Conditions tested: 0, 10, 20, 40 µg/ml and higher for 1, 2 or 60 days (results only shown for concentrations up to 40 µg/ml for 24 and 48h). HPRT assay: cell viability as measured by colony forming ability was not affected.	Negative HPRT gene mutation assay. Conditions tested: 10, 20, 40 µg/ml for 60 day; repeated 3 separate times using 3 plates for plating efficiency and mini 5 plates for 6TG resistance ; negative control but no positive control.	Nano-TiO ₂ aggregates were internalized by CHO cells that were chronically exposed. Internalized TiO ₂ appeared to be restricted to the cytoplasm and did not appear to localize to any specific organelles and none appeared within cell nuclei.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

- Non-standardized studies

Reference	Nanoparticles Characterization	Characterization in dispersion medium/culture media	Cells/organism	Cytotoxicity	Genotoxicity	Uptake
				Results; Methods; Interferences	Results; Methods	
Di Virgilio et al. 2010	TiO ₂ Average particle size: 20 ± 7 nm; SSA: 142 m ² /g (BET)	Suspension prepared in PBS, vortexed for 10 minutes and stored at 4°C in the dark. Cell culture: Ham F10 culture medium supplemented with 10% inactivated fetal calf serum, 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 g/mL streptomycin sulfate (complete culture medium).	Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1)	Cytotoxic: significant decrease from 25 µg/ml with neutral red assay and at all concentrations with MTT assay. NR and MTT assays. Conditions tested: 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml for 24h. SCE assay: proliferative rate index reduction (not statistically significant) at concentrations higher than 10 µg/ml. Absence of metaphase at 10 and 25 µg/ml.	Positive at 1 and 5 µg/ml. Highest concentrations could not be measured due to cytotoxic effects. Sister chromatid exchange assay. Conditions tested: 0, 1, 5, 10, 25 µg/ml under complete darkness for 24 hours; 3 independent experiments in triplicate; 100 metaphase scored per treatment; negative control but no positive control.	TiO ₂ (50 µg/ml) for 24 hours: cells formed perinuclear vesicles containing phagocytosed material. Agglomerates on both of the surface and inside the cells. Only present in the cytoplasm and no NP was detected in the nuclei. The nucleus shape is modified in the presence of some large vesicles which seem to press it. In some cells with many large vesicles, the membrane was disintegrated.
Turquez et al, 2011	TiO ₂ <u>< 100nm</u> No further information.	TiO ₂ was prepared with sterile dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). Culture media: 5 ml of culture medium (Chromosome Medium B) with 5 mg/ml of phytohemagglutinin.	Peripheral blood lymphocyte culture	Not cytotoxic at 3 and 5 µM: no alteration of PI values. Cytotoxic at 10 µM: statistically important decrease in the rate of PI.	Positive at all concentrations – dose-dependent. Sister chromatid exchange assay. Conditions tested: 3, 5, 10 µg/ml; 25 well-spread second division metaphases scores for each dose; negative control but no positive control. AA (ascorbic acid) during the treatment of the cells with TiO ₂ reduced the number of SCEs significantly	Not reported.
Jomini et al. 2012	P25 <u>Anatase/rutile</u> (80/20); <u>25 nm</u> ; SSA: 50±15 m ² /g (supplier data) Characterization : 84% anatase ; 16% rutile, 23 ± 4.9 nm	NP-TiO ₂ dispersed in sterile ultrapure water. The resultant suspension was then probe-sonicated for 30 min at 4°C. P25: Average hydrodynamic diameter of the nanoparticle stock suspension obtained after dispersion in milli-Q	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strains (TA97a, TA98, TA100 and TA102)	Not reported	Negative in conventional fluctuation test P25: Positive: mainly in TA 98 and 102 TiO₂-NA: Positive in TA102 Conventional fluctuation test	NP strongly adsorb on the surface of the bacterial wall in saline solution, whereas this is not the case in Ames test.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>TiO₂-NA 15% (w/v) stable suspension in acidified water; 100% anatase; 5-30 nm; SSA: 200-220 m²/g; purity > 99.5% (supplier data)</p> <p>Characterization: 86% anatase, 14% brookite; 5.7 ± 1.9 nm</p>	<p>water and probe sonication ranged between 60 and 80 nm (DLS).</p> <p>TiO₂-NA: average hydrodynamic diameter of the nanoparticles between 5 and 10 nm.</p> <p>No statistical difference between TiO₂-P25 aggregate sizes in Ames test and saline solution (700-800 nm). For TiO₂-NA: average size of aggregates approximately 3800 nm in Ames test and only 67 nm in saline solution.</p>			<p>and modified Ames tests (with pre-exposure of .0.1, 10 or 20h). Conditions tested: <i>S. typhimurium</i> TA97a, TA98, TA100, TA102; 0.875, 8.75, 87.5 mg/l; 2 to 3 independent assays; negative and positive controls; level of revertants for the negative controls are low.</p>	
Setyawati et al. 2012	<p>P25 Range of 73–85% <u>anatase</u>, 14–17% <u>rutile</u> and 2–13% amorphous</p> <p>TEM: <u>22 ± 6.4 nm</u></p>	<p>Nanoparticles were dispersed in PBS. The suspensions were then sterilized by 15 min of UV exposure and bath sonicated for 10 min. Thereafter, the stock suspensions were diluted 1:9 in complete media and further sonicated for 10 min to make up the final working concentration of NP.</p> <p>In water: hydrodynamic sizes: 180.9±3.15 nm; ZP: +20.9±10.3 mV.</p> <p>In complete media: 255.8±2.65 nm. It was suggested that NP readily adsorbed proteins upon introduction to serum supplemented cell culture medium.</p>	Human neonatal foreskin fibroblast cells (BJ)	<p>Cytotoxic: dose-dependent from 250 µg/ml.</p> <p>Cell proliferation assay. Conditions tested: 10-1000 µg/ml for 24h.</p>	<p>Positive - dose-dependent.</p> <p>Phosphorylation of γ-H2Ax assay. Conditions tested: 10 and 500 µg/ml for 24h; no positive control; one experiment; 150 cells scored per condition.</p>	Not reported.
Demir et al. 2015	<p>Micro TiO₂ 99% to 100.5% purity</p> <p>Nano TiO₂ <u>Anatase, 21 nm</u>; > 99.5% purity</p>	<p>No information</p> <p>Dispersed at the concentration of 2.56 mg/mL prepared in a 0.05% bovine</p>	human embryonic kidney (HEK293)	<p>Not reported.</p> <p>Some information from CBMN assay : micro-TiO₂ was non cytotoxic but nano-TiO₂ were cytotoxic at 1000</p>	<p>Micro- TiO₂: negative</p> <p>Nano-TiO₂ (21 and 50 nm): Positive at 1000 µg/ml in both cell lines (increase in both the</p>	Not reported.

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	Nano TiO ₂ <u>Anatase, 50 nm</u> , > 98% purity	serum albumin (BSA) in water, subjected to ultrasonication at 20kHz for 16 min in an ice-cooled bath; (in agreement of the proposal from Nanogenotox UE project). No important agglomerations observed following the dispersion protocol used. Nano-TiO ₂ (21 nm) : 22.94± 0.3 nm (DLS) and ZP : 8.71mV Nano-TiO ₂ (50 nm) : 50.72±0.4 nm (DLS) and ZP: 9.38mV No agglomeration in media (soft-agar colony assay)	Mouse embryonic fibroblast (NIH/3T3) cells	µg/ml.	number and the diameter) – dose-dependent. Cell transformation assay (soft-agar colony assay). Conditions tested: 10, 100 and 1000 µg/ml for 3 weeks; 2 independent experiments and 2 replicates; negative control but no positive control.	
Vales et al. 2014	NM 102 <u>Anatase</u> ; primary particle size: <u>21.7±0.6 nm</u>	Nanogenotox protocol: pre-wetted in 0.5% absolute ethanol and afterwards dispersed in 0.05% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in MilliQ water, the nanoparticles in the dispersion medium were sonicated for 16 min. In exposure medium: 575.9 nm; PDI: 0.471 (DLS), ZP: -19.5 mV (LDV)	BEAS-2B cells	Not reported	Positive: Significant dose-dependent increase in the number of colonies growing on soft-agar for medium-large size colonies at 20 mg/mL. Not significant but dose-dependent increase of total colonies. Soft-agar assay (assessment of acquired cancer phenotype). Conditions tested: 1, 10 and 20 µg/ml for 4 weeks of continuous exposure; 3 independent assays but no positive control.	Uptake after 24h to 20 µg/ml (TEM)
Shi et al. 2010	P25 <u>Anatase:rutile</u> crystalline ratio (8:2) Primary particle diameter approx. <u>25 nm</u> ; surface area (BET) of 50 m ² /g.	Nano-TiO ₂ was sterilized by heating to 120°C for 2 h, and freshly suspended in distilled water immediately before use. Culture medium: DMEM containing FBS, penicillin G and streptomycin.	Human hepatocytes L-02	Not cytotoxic with the ATP kit. Conditions tested: 0.01-1 µg/ml for 12, 24 or 36h.	Positive at 1 µg/l 8-OH-dG analysis. Conditions tested: 0.01 -1 µg/l for 24 h in the tables but 0.01 -1 µg/ml in the text; triplicate and repeated three times; negative control but no positive control.	Not reported.
Jugan et al, 2012	TiO ₂ -A12 NP 95% <u>anatase</u> ,	Dispersion in ultrapure sterile water(pH5.5) by sonication	A549 human lung carcinoma	Cytotoxic in MTT assay (less than 25% of cell death after	Positive for all durations for A12 and A25 – no duration-	An unambiguous accumulation of the smallest NPs in the

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

	<p>spherical <u>12 nm</u>; 92 m²/g; PZS: 6.4</p> <p>TiO₂-R20 NPs 90% <u>rutile</u>, spherical <u>21 nm</u>; 73 m²/g</p> <p>TiO₂-A25 (AEROXIDE P25) 86% <u>anatase</u>/14% <u>rutile</u>, spherical <u>24 nm</u>; 46 m²/g; PZS: 7.0</p> <p>TiO₂-R68 100% rutile, elongated L: 68 nm d: 9 nm; 118 m²/g</p> <p>TiO₂-A140 100% <u>anatase</u>, spherical <u>142 nm</u>; 10 m²/g; PZS: 5.2</p>	<p>for 30 min at 4 C,in pulsed mode(1 s on/1 s off), at the concentration of 10 mg.ml-1 Suspensions were diluted in cell culture medium (DMEM without serum)</p>	<p>cells (CCL-185)</p>	<p>48h).</p> <p>Conditions tested: 1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h.</p> <p>Cytotoxic (less than 1% of cell death at the highest dose after 48h) in MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h)</p> <p>Cytotoxic (less than 10% of cell death at the highest dose after 48h) in MTT assay (1–200 µg/ml for 4–48 h)</p>	<p>dependent.</p> <p>Positive for 24 and 48h exposure for R68 – duration dependent.</p> <p>Positive only for 48h exposure for R20</p> <p>Negative for A140</p> <p>8-oxo-dG assay. Conditions tested: 100 µg/ml for 4, 24 or 48 h; triplicate; negative control but no positive control</p>	<p>cytoplasm and in the nucleus of cells</p> <p>Cytoplasmic accumulation was also observed but not in cell nuclei</p>
<p>Wan et al. 2012</p>	<p>Nano-TiO₂. <u>90 % anatase and 10% rutile</u> ; <u>28 nm</u>. BET = 45 m²/g</p>	<p>TiO₂ dispersed in physiological saline and ultrasonicated for 30 min. Then added to culture medium (Ham's F-12 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin)</p> <p>In cell culture medium: size (DLS): 280 nm</p>	<p>A549 human lung epithelial cells</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic with <i>in vitro</i> cytotoxicity kit (SBR) and AlamarBlue™ assay (colorimetric/fluorimetric method).at 2.5-40 µg/ml for 24h</p>	<p>Negative</p> <p>Measurement of phosphorylation of γ-H2Ax; 8 oxodG level; repair protein Rad51; accumulation of p53 and phosphorylation.</p> <p>Conditions tested (γ-H2Ax test): 5 15 µg/ml for 6 h or 15 µg/ml for 1, 3, 6 or 12h.</p> <p>Conditions tested (8 oxodG test): 5 or 15 µg/ml for 12 or 24h .</p> <p>Conditions tested (Rad51 and p53 tests): 5, 10, 15 for 12h.</p> <p>Negative control but no positive control.</p>	<p>The uptake of Nano-TiO₂ in A549 cells was 2.75 × 10⁻¹² and 4.34 × 10⁻¹² (g/cell) with exposure to 5 and 15 µg/ml respectively for 12h - clear dose dependent (ICP-MS).</p>
<p>Msiska et al. 2010</p>	<p>Fine TiO₂ <u>≤ 5 µm</u>, SSA: 2.28 m²/g.</p>	<p>Stock solution prepared in RPMI 1640 basal media containing FBS. Working</p>	<p>A549 human pulmonary cells</p>	<p>Not cytotoxic in A549 cells</p> <p>Cytotoxic in SAE cells after</p>	<p>Positive in A549 (relative γ-H2Ax levels and number of γ-H2Ax foci)</p>	<p>Not reported.</p>

CLH REPORT FOR TITANIUM DIOXIDE

		concentrations were prepared immediately before treatment of cells in medium with FBSI and vortexed for 2 min before use.	Normal human SAE cells	24h only. LDH assay. Conditions tested: 100 µg/ml for 6, 18 and 24h.	Positive in SAE cells (only for number of γ-H2Ax foci) Phosphorylation of γ-H2Ax assay. Conditions tested: 100 µg/ml for 24h; each experiment performed 3 times in triplicates; negative control but no positive control	
Toyooka et al. 2012	TiO ₂ -NP <u>Anatase : 5 nm</u>	Suspended in DMEM and then sonicated for 1 min in a bath-type sonicator. Added to cells growing in DMEM with FBS and penicillin/streptomycin. In DMEM: TiO ₂ -NP: 250-650 nm Micro-TiO ₂ : 600-1050 nm	A549 human pulmonary cells	Cytotoxic from 750 µg/ml for NP and at the highest concentrations for micro-TiO ₂ . Over 80% of the cells that took up the micro- and nanoparticles survived during culture for 24 h. Tryptan Blue assay. Conditions tested: 50-1000 µg/ml for 24h.	Positive Degree of γ-H2AX generation was different between micro and nano- TiO ₂ . In nanoparticles, a small amount (from 1 µg/ml) could generate γ-H2AX. In microparticles, similar generation was detected from over 75 µg/ml. When TiO ₂ -NP was coated with BSA: γ-H2AX generation not after 1h-exposure but when increasing the time exposure to 8h. Detection of γ-H2Ax. Conditions tested : TiO ₂ -NP at 300 µg/ml for 1h (immunofluorescence); 1-100 µg/ml or 250-1000 µg/ml micro and nano-forms for 1h (Western Blot); 50-250 µg/ml micro and nano-forms for 1h (biased sinusoidal field gel electrophoresis BSFGE); experiments repeated 2 or 3 times. Negative control but no positive control.	TiO ₂ dose-dependent changes of SS (side-scattered light) intensity, suggesting that TiO ₂ -NP were easily incorporated in A549 cells in a dose-dependent manner. Incorporation of NP was more remarkable that that of micro-TiO ₂ . Incorporation attenuated when TiO ₂ was coated with BSA.
	Micro-TiO ₂ <u>Anatase : < 5000 nm</u>					

ANNEX III: LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA: Ascorbic Acid

AK: Adenylate kinase

ALP: Alkaline phosphatase

ATM: Atomic Force Microscopy

BALf: Bronchoalveolar Fluid

BET: Brunauer, Emmet and Teller calculation method

BNMN: Binucleated cells with micronucleus

BSA: Bovine serum albumin

CA: Chromosome aberrations

CAT: Catalase

CBMN: Cytokinesis -block micronucleus

CBPI: Cytokinesis Block Proliferation Index

CE diameter: Circle Equivalent Diameter

CHL: Chlorophyllin

CI: Confidence interval

CMEM: complete minimum essential medium

SCE: Sister chromatid exchanges

DHPN: N-bis(2-hydroxypropyl)nitrosamine

DI water: Deionized water

DLS: Dynamic light scattering

DMBA: 7,12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene

DMEM: Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

DMTU: Dimethylthiourea

DSPC: 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine

dZ: Z-averaged diameter

FBS: Fetal Bovine Serum

FCS: Fetal Calf Serum

FPG: formamidopyrimidine [fapy] – DNA glycosylase

GGT: γ -glutamyltransferase

GPX: Glutathione peroxidase

GSH: Glutathione

HPMC: hydroxypropylmethylcellulose

HPRT gene mutation test: Hypoxanthine-Guanine Phosphoribosyl Transferase gene mutation test

IMEM: incomplete minimum essential medium

LDH: Lactate dehydrogenase

LDV: Laser Doppler Velocimetry

MDA: Malondialdehyde

MEM: Minimal Essential Medium

MMAD: Mass median aerodynamic diameter

MMD: Mass median diameter

MN: Micronucleus

MP: Melting point

MTT: 3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide

NAC: N-acetylcysteine

NAG: N-acetyl-b-D-glucosaminidase

NCE: Normochromatic Erythrocytes

NM: Nanomaterial

NP: Nanoparticle

NRU: Neutral Red uptake

OR: Odd ratio

OTM: Olive Tail Moment

PBS: Phosphate-buffered saline

PCE: Polychromatic Erythrocytes

PDI: Polydispersivity index

PI: Proliferation index

PND: Post-natal day

PPS: Primary particle size

PZC: Point of Zero Charge

RCC: Relative cell count

RET: Reticulocytes

RI: Replication Index

RICC: Relative increase in cell count

ROS: Reactive oxygen species

RRs: Risk ratios

SEM: Scanning Electron Microscopy

SMR: Standardized mortality ratio

SOD: Superoxide dismutase

SSA: Specific surface area

T-AOC: total antioxidant capability

TEM: Transmission Electron Microscopy

TPA: 12-o-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate

ZP: Zeta Potential