

Combination of bioanalytical approaches and quantitative proteomics for the elucidation of the toxicity mechanisms associated to TiO₂ nanoparticles exposure in human keratinocytes

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1. Introduction

Titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂-NPs) belong to a large group of metallic nanoparticles. These nanoparticles have been increasingly used in a variety of consumer products, such as cosmetics and sunscreens, paints and surface coatings. Compared to macrosized particles (MPs > 100 nm), nanoparticles (< 100 nm) show specific properties, such as large surface area per unit mass, small size and high reactivity. For these reasons, there is a potentially harmful risks to human health when nanoparticles are inhaled, ingested or in contact with the skin (Iavicoli et al. 2011; Shi et al. 2013). TiO₂ is found in three crystalline phase (rutile, anatase and brookite) but only the first two crystal structure are used in industry. Several studies have shown different toxicological responses of cells depending on the crystal form in different cell lines (Saquib et al. 2012; Gerloff et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2015; Uboldi et al. 2016; Jain et al. 2017), and in most cases, anatase phase exhibited the highest toxicity compared to the others. Among the described cytotoxic effects induced by TiO₂-NPs in different cells lines, ROS generation, DNA damage (Saquib et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2015), apoptosis, cell cycle arrest (Wu et al.

2010; Kansara et al. 2015) and increased inflammatory response (Han et al. 2005), are the most common.

In particular, the use of TiO₂-NPs in sunscreens and cosmetics makes relevant the study of their potential toxicity and hazardous effects in human skin, since they are in close contact for long periods of time. Previous reports, have evaluated the cytotoxicity (Wright et al. 2017), genotoxicity (Jaeger et al. 2012) or metabolic effects (Tucci et al. 2013; Ren et al. 2018) of TiO₂-NPs in human keratinocytes. However, a further evaluation to gain a deeper insight into the biomolecular mechanisms related to those observed effects have not yet been accomplished.

Among the different existing alternatives in quantitative proteomics, stable isotopic labeling by amino acids in cell culture (SILAC), remains one of the most widely used approaches. In SILAC, cell populations are differentially labeled with either ¹²C₆-Lys/Arg (light culture) or ¹³C₆-Lys/Arg (heavy culture). After complete labeling, the two cell cultures subjected to different conditions (e.g. control vs. exposure) are mixed in a 1:1 ratio and processed (protein purification, separation, digestion, etc.) as one sample. This procedure allows for the quantification of differentially expressed proteins with high accuracy, thus allowing for the identification of altered or deregulated proteins (overexpressed or inhibited) between the two studied cellular conditions (Luque-Garcia et al. 2013).

Based on all of the above, in the present work, we first investigated the toxicity of TiO₂-NPs in human keratinocytes (HaCaT cell line) using bioanalytical approaches to evaluate cell viability, cellular uptake, apoptosis, and changes in the cell cycle pattern and in key regulators involved in cell cycle progression. This study was followed by a quantitative proteomic experiment using SILAC, with the aim to move forward and to

identify specific proteins and pathways altered upon TiO₂-NPs exposure, which are the ultimate responsible of the toxicity effects observed in exposed human keratinocytes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Commercial anatase titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂-NPs) with < 25 nm particles size, MTT reagent, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), Hoechst 33258 reagent and tubulin primary antibody were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin/streptomycin, 0.1% trypsin/EDTA solution and phosphatase saline buffer (PBS) were obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Cell culture mediums, LM011 and LM014, for SILAC experiment were purchased from DC Biosciences. FITC-Annexin V/PI kit and p21 primary antibody were obtained from Invitrogen and Santa Cruz respectively.

For the characterization of these NPs, two stock solutions of 200 and 1000 mg/L, were prepared in Milli-Q water and analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (JEOL 2100). All reagents used to evaluate the localization of NPs in cells were supplied by the microscopy analysis center (CNME). All samples analyzed of flow cytometry assays were measured using a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton-Dickinson).

For gene expression assays, TRIzol reagent, Quantitect reverse transcription kit, TaqMan gene expression assays and TaqMan Fast advance master mix were purchased from Invitrogen, Quiagen and Thermo Fisher Scientific respectively. Nanodrop One (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to quantify RNA and PikoReal Real-time PCR system (Thermo Scientific) was used to performed RT-PCR analysis. Liquid chromatography

tandem-mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) was carried out using a LTQ XL ion trap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific).

2.2. Cell culture and treatment

The human keratinocyte cell line (HaCaT, Human adult low Calcium High Temperature Keratinocytes) was maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. HaCaT cells were exposed to different concentrations of TiO₂-NPs ranging from 1 to 100 mg/L and incubated for 72 h. Cells were rinsed in phosphate saline buffer (PBS) containing a 0.02% EDTA and harvested using 0.1% trypsin/EDTA solution. For the metabolic labeling, cells were cultured in either "light" (¹²C₆-Arg and ¹²C₆-Lys) or "heavy" (¹³C₆-Arg and ¹³C₆-Lys) DMEM medium supplemented with 10% dialyzed FBS and 100 units/mL of penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were grown for at least eight doublings to allow full incorporation of labeled amino acids.

2.3. Cell viability assay

HaCaT cells were seeded on 96-well plates and exposed to 1, 10, 30 or 100 mg/L of TiO₂-NPs for 72 h. 20 μL of 3-(4,5-dimethyl-thiazol-2-yl)2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT, 5 mg/mL) were added to each well and incubated for 4 h. After this time, the MTT solution was removed and 100 μL of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were added to dissolve the insoluble purple formazan product. The plate was then centrifuged and the supernatant of each well was transferred to a new 96-well plate for the measurement of the absorbance at 595 nm in a microplate reader (TECAN).

2.4. Localization of TiO₂-NPs in HaCaT cells

Cells were exposed to TiO₂-NPs (10 mg/L) and incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 72 h. Afterwards, the control and TiO₂-NPs exposed cells were harvested, rinsed with PBS and fixed with 5% glutaraldehyde and 4% p-formaldehyde in PBS for 4 h at 4 °C. After this time, cells were washed twice with PBS and incubated in PBS at 4 °C overnight. After incubation with 1% OsO₄ in Milli-Q water for 1 h at room temperature, the samples were washed, dehydrated in a graded series of acetone and embedded in resin for 72 h at 67 °C. Ultrafine sections were cut with an ultramicrotome, deposited onto copper grids, stained with uranyl acetate and chrome citrate and analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (JEOL 1010).

2.5. Flow cytometry assays

Measurement of apoptosis in TiO₂-NPs (10 mg/L) exposed cells after 72 h was determined using an FITC-Annexin V/PI kit (Invitrogen). Cells were harvested and washed with cold PBS. 1×10^6 cells were resuspended in 1 mL binding buffer solution at pH 7.4 containing 50 mM HEPES, 700 mM NaCl and 12.5 mM CaCl₂. 100 µL of the cell suspension was stained with 5 µL of FITC-annexin V and 1 µL of 100 µg/mL propidium iodide. Cells were incubated for 15 min in the dark at room temperature, diluted in 400 µL of binding buffer and immediately examined using a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton-Dickinson). To evaluate the cell cycle pattern of TiO₂-NPs exposed cells, 1×10^6 cells were resuspended in 250 µL of PBS and mixed with the same volume of a solution containing 60% ethanol and 30 µg/mL Hoechst 33258 reagent. Cells were then incubated for 1 h at room temperature in the dark and the DNA content analyzed by flow cytometry.

2.6. Gene expression: RT-qPCR analysis

The mRNA levels of cell cycle related genes (Table 1) were measured in TiO₂-NPs exposed HaCaT cells (10 mg/L and 72 h). Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quantity of extracted RNA was measured by the Nanodrop One (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Synthesis of cDNA with integrated removal of genomic DNA contamination was performed by Quantitect reverse transcription kit (Quiagen) using 1 µg of RNA. RT-PCR analysis was carried out using TaqMan gene expression assays (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and TaqMan Fast advance master mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The references of TaqMan gene expression assays used are listed in Table 1. All reactions were performed in a final volume of 10 µL. The reaction protocol was 2 min at 50 °C, 10 min at 95 °C for activating the polymerase and 40 cycles for 15 s at 95 °C and 1 min at 60 °C. Relative expression of genes was normalized using GADPH as the endogenous control and gene expression in each sample was calculated as $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$.

2.7. Western Blotting

HaCaT cells were lysed with total lysis buffer containing a proteases inhibitors cocktail. Protein concentration was determined using the Bradford assay. Proteins were separated by electrophoresis on a 12.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (BioRad). Membrane was blocked with 3% skim milk in PBS-T (0.05 % Tween-20) for 1 h at room temperature. After blocking, membrane was incubated with the primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer: tubulin 1:500 (Sigma Aldrich) for 1 h at room temperature and p21 1:200 (Santa Cruz) overnight at 4 °C. After three 10 min washes, the membrane was incubated with the corresponding secondary antibodies HRP-

conjugated for 1 h. The immunoblot was then visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence detection (GE Healthcare).

2.8. SILAC experiment

Two large-scale SILAC replicates (10^7 cells per condition) were performed. Complete incorporation of $^{13}\text{C}_6$ -Lys and $^{13}\text{C}_6$ -Arg after eight cell divisions in isotopically heavy medium was verified by MS of a protein digest (data not shown). HaCaT cells labeled with “heavy” (direct SILAC) or “light” (reversed SILAC) amino acids were exposed to 10 mg/L of TiO_2 -NPs for 72 h. Then, cells grown in “heavy” and “light” medium were harvested, counted and mixed in a 1:1 ratio before subsequent processing. Cells were lysed in buffer containing protease inhibitors (Roche) and the protein concentration was determined using the Bradford method. Proteins were then separated by SDS-PAGE on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels. After electrophoresis, the proteins were visualized by Coomassie blue staining and the gel lane was cut horizontally into 22 sections. Excised gel bands were de-stained in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate/50% acetonitrile, cut into small pieces, dehydrated with acetonitrile and dried. Gel pieces were incubated with 12.5 ng/ μL trypsin solution in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate overnight at 37 °C. Peptides were extracted using acetonitrile and 5% formic acid, dried by vacuum centrifugation and reconstituted in 12 μL of an aqueous solution containing 2% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid.

The peptides mixtures from different fractions were analyzed using a nanoflow LC-MS/MS. Peptides were loaded onto a C18 trap column (0.3 x 10 mm, SGE) and then separated on a reverse-phase column (75 μm x 25 cm fused silica capillary C18 HPLC PepMap column, 3 μm , 100 Å, Thermo) with a linear gradient of 5-95% acetonitrile in 0.1% aqueous solution of formic acid. The gradient was delivered over 120 min by a nano

LC ultra 1D plus system (Eksigent) at a flow-rate of 200 nL/min, through the analytical column to a stainless nano-bore emitter (Proxeon). The peptides were scanned and fragmented with an LTQ XL linear ion trap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) operated in data-depend ZoomScan and MS/MS switching mode using the three most intensive precursor ions detected in a survey scan from 400 to 1600 u (three μ scans). ZoomScan mass window was set to 12 Da enabling monitoring of the entire $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ isotopic envelope of most doubly and triply charged peptides. Singly charged ions were excluded for MS/MS analysis.

Generated .raw files were converted to .mgf files for MASCOT data search. A database containing the NCBI *Homo Sapiens* sequences (113620 entries as of 03/31/2018) was searched using the MASCOT protein identification software (v2.3 MatrixScience). Search criteria included trypsin specificity with one missed cleavage allowed, and with methionine oxidation, $^{13}\text{C}_6$ -Arg and $^{13}\text{C}_6$ -Lys as variable modifications. Minimum precursor and fragment-ion mass accuracies for 1.2 and 0.3 Da were used. To consider a protein as an accurate identification, at least one bold (unique) red peptide (i.e. highest scoring peptide matching to protein with highest total score) was required, and at least two bold (unique) red peptides were required for quantification. Cut-off values for MASCOT scores of peptides and proteins were set to 40 ($p < 0.05$) and 47 ($p < 0.01$), respectively. The false positive rate was calculated by searching the same spectra against the NCBI *Homo Sapiens* decoy database. Relative quantification ratios (R_{SILAC}) of identified proteins based on peak area were calculated using Quixot (version 1.3.26) open-source software. Proteins ratios obtained by QuiXot were manually verified for all peptides. The biological processes related to the proteins found deregulated upon TiO_2 -NPs exposure, were assigned based on the biological knowledge available in Gene Ontology (GO) annotations.

3. Results

3.1. Characterization and cytotoxicity of TiO₂-NPs

We used transmission electron microscopy to characterize the TiO₂-NPs in terms of particle size, morphology and aggregation. TiO₂-NPs presented spherical structure with a diameter around 20-30 nm and tendency to aggregate in suspension (Fig. 1A).

We evaluated the effect of TiO₂-NPs on the cell viability of HaCaT cells by means of the MTT assay, which measures the reducing potential of the cells. While healthy cells are able to reduce the MTT to formazan (a purple coloured compound), non-viable cells are unable to do so. Thus, cell viability can be estimated by measuring the absorbance of the MTT-treated cells. As expected, the viability of HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs for 72 h, decreased with increasing concentrations of the NPs (Fig. 1B). In order to evaluate the potential toxicity of TiO₂-NPs but without drastically compromising the cell viability, we chose 10 mg/L as the most suitable concentration for further experiments.

3.2. Cellular uptake and localization of TiO₂-NPs

We used transmission electron microscopy (TEM) for investigating the internalization and localization of TiO₂-NPs in exposed HaCaT cells (Fig. 2). Several TiO₂-NPs aggregates were found in most of the exposed cells (Fig. 2B). These aggregates, were either found close to the cellular surface, where we observed invaginations of the plasma membrane (Fig. 2C), or in vacuoles throughout the cytoplasm (Fig. 2B and 2D). As expected, these TiO₂-NPs were not able to penetrate the nuclear membrane (Fig. 2E). Statistical analysis of 40 cell images (20 control cells and 20 cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs) showed a significant increased (more than 2-fold) in the number of vacuoles in exposed cells as compared to control ones (Fig. 2F).

3.3. Flow cytometry assays

We carried out two flow cytometry assays in order to explain whether the observed decreased in cell viability after exposure to TiO₂-NPs, can be attributed to an increase in cell death or to a cell cycle arrest. The data obtained in both assays are shown in Fig. 3. Our data demonstrated that cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs did not show a significant higher degree of apoptosis or necrosis as compared to control cells (Fig. 3A). On the contrary, while evaluating the effects of TiO₂-NPs on the cell cycle pattern of HaCaT cells by measuring the content of DNA; cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs showed a higher percentage of S/G2-M cells as compared to control cells. Also, the cellular population in G0/G1 phase after nanoparticles exposure, was significantly lower than in control cells (Fig. 3B). Thus, we can conclude that TiO₂-NPs did not induce a significant degree of apoptosis in HaCaT cells but they did induce a significant cell cycle arrest in S-G2/M phase.

3.4. Gene expression assays

Based on the flow cytometry results and in order to corroborate the cell cycle arrest induced by TiO₂-NPs in HaCaT cells, we evaluated the mRNA levels of several key genes involved in cell cycle regulation. Since an increase of cell population was found in the transition from S phase to G2-M phases, we evaluated the checkpoints and mechanisms involved in these phases (Fig. 4A). The mRNA levels measured by RT-qPCR in HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs are shown in Fig. 4B. As for the components of the G1/S checkpoint, we observed a reduction of CDK2 mRNA level but we did not measure significant changes in the expression of cyclin E1 (CCNE1). On the other hand, in S phase during the DNA synthesis, another complex formed by CDK2 and cyclin A1 (CCNA1), constitute the S/G2 checkpoint. In this case, we found a decrease in the levels of both

transcripts (CDK2 and CCNA1) in TiO₂-NPS exposed cells when compared with control cells (Fig. 4B). In addition, also a transcript involved in the G2/M checkpoint (CCNB1) was found significantly inhibited in cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs.

Cell cycle arrest in response to DNA damage involves protein stabilization and consequent upregulation of p53 (Macleod et al. 1995), which induces transcription of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21 (Gartel et al. 2002). Thus, we also evaluated the mRNA levels of p53 and p21. As expected, our results showed a significant increase in the expression of p53 in HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs. However, we observed a significant decrease in the expression of p21 in exposed cells. This result was not expected since p21 plays an essential role in growth arrest after DNA damage (Dulic et al 1994). Although this result may appear contradictory, p21 has also been demonstrated to function as a negative regulator of p53 under certain conditions (Broude et al. 2007).

3.5. Western blot assay

We carried out an immunoblot in order to further validate the previous result obtained for p21 mRNA and to evaluate its expression at the protein level. We observed that cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs also showed a partial inhibition of p21 at the protein level as compared to control cell (Fig. 4C), which is in agreement with the result obtained by RT-qPCR.

3.6. Quantitative proteomics

We performed a SILAC experiment to evaluate the differential protein expression after TiO₂-NPs exposure (Fig. 5A). A total of 1874 proteins were identified by mass spectrometry analysis with at least one unique peptide and a false discovery rate of 0.35% estimated from the number of hits against reverse or randomised sequence (decoy database)/total hits ratio at $p > 0.01$. However, only 538 proteins passed the selected criteria for quantitation (at least two unique peptides). We then studied the proteins with at least 1.5-fold expression difference between control and exposed cells (R_{SILAC} over +1.5 or below -1.5) and with 20% as the maximum relative standard deviation for the R_{SILAC} between peptides within each protein. According to these criteria, 66 proteins appeared deregulated in cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs as compared to control ones. Out of these proteins, 30 were found upregulated ($R_{SILAC} > 1.5$) (Table 2) and 36 were downregulated ($R_{SILAC} < 1.5$) (Table 3). Regarding the SILAC ratio distribution, most of the identify proteins were within a R_{SILAC} close to 1, as expected for a 1:1 mixture (Fig. 5B). The 67 proteins found deregulated in HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs are involved in a variety of biological processes: cell cycle regulation, gene expression, metabolic processes and response to stimulus, among others (Fig. 5C).

4. Discussion

Several in vivo and in vitro studies carried out by different research groups have demonstrated that NPs-TiO₂ can be absorbed by inhalation, ingestion and penetration through the skin (De Matteis V 2017). Histopathological injuries have been observed mainly in lungs, kidneys, liver, spleen and nervous system among other components of the organism (Iavicoli et al 2011, Márquez-Ramírez et al 2012, Iavicoli et al 2012, Chen Z. et al. 2015, Valentini X et al. 2017 and 2018). The toxicological effects they generate

have been related to inflammatory responses that result in an increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Saquib et al. 2012; Jaeger et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2010, Khana et al. 2015). On the other hand, base modification, single or double DNA strand rupture and direct TiO₂ bonds to repair enzymes or DNA can be observed in different models treated with high concentrations of these NPs (Saquib et al. 2012). Some metabolomic studies have identified numerous metabolites affected by the cytotoxicity of these NPs and involved in mitochondrial processes, redox homeostasis as well as inflammatory responses (Tucci et al. 2013).

Our study have demonstrated the toxicity exerted by TiO₂-NPs on human keratinocytes as well as the main biomolecular mechanisms involved in such toxicity. We first demonstrated that TiO₂-NPs reduce the cell viability of HaCaT cells in a concentration-dependent manner, in such way that exposure to 10 mg/mL for 72 h decreases the viability by a 40%, approximately. The reduction in viability is accompanied by the cellular uptake of TiO₂-NPs, which form aggregates that localized mainly inside cytoplasmic vacuoles, as we have demonstrated by TEM. Thus, the degree of vacuolization in keratinocytes exposed to TiO₂-NPs was significantly higher as compared to control cells. We further investigated whether the observed decrease in cellular viability was due to an induction of apoptosis or by a cell cycle arrest. Our flow cytometry experiments pointed out that, while TiO₂-NPs did not significantly induce apoptosis, they induced cell cycle arrest at the S-G2/M phase. We validated these results by RT-qPCR and found inhibition of CDK2, CCNA1, CCNB1, which are key regulators of the G1/S, S/G2 and G2/M checkpoints, and whose inhibition induce cell cycle arrest, which is in agreement with the results obtained by flow cytometry.

Since cell cycle arrest often involves protein stabilization and consequent upregulation of p53 (Macleod et al. 1995), which induces transcription of cyclin-

dependent kinase inhibitor p21 (Gartel et al. 2002), we decided to also evaluate the mRNA levels of p53 and p21. While we found overexpression of p53 in keratinocytes exposed to TiO₂-NPs, we did find inhibition of p21. This result was not expected since p21 plays an essential role in growth arrest after DNA damage (Dulic et al. 1994). In order to validate this result at the protein level, we carried out an immunoblot against p21, and the results also showed a significant inhibition of the protein. This result demonstrated that the inhibition of CDK2, CCNA1 and CCNB1, and thus, the observed cell cycle arrest upon TiO₂-NPs exposure, is not mediated by overexpression of p21. On the other hand, despite the role of p21 as a negative regulator of the cell cycle, it is rarely inactivated in human cancer cells and often displays the expression pattern of an oncogene rather than the one of a tumor suppressor. This paradoxical pattern has been attributed to various activities of p21 other than CDK inhibition (Zhang et al. 1993). In fact, it has been described that p21 can act as a negative regulator of the cellular levels of p53 under certain circumstances (Broude et al. 2007), which seems to be the role observed in our experiment.

To gain a deeper insight into the toxicity mechanisms associated to TiO₂-NPs exposure in human keratinocytes, we decided to use a quantitative proteomic approach based on isotopic labeling (SILAC). We identified 66 deregulated proteins, which are involved in several biological processes including cell cycle regulation, gene expression, metabolic processes or response to stimulus, among others. One of the key steps in understanding the toxicity of a certain type of NPs, is elucidating the cellular internalization mechanism. Previous studies have described different pathways to explain the internalization process, which are mainly caveola-mediated, clathrin-mediated or other receptor-mediated endocytosis (Rauch et al. 2013). Caveola-mediated endocytosis or the “lipid-raft”-dependent process consists of the formation of invaginations in the cell

membrane, known as caveolae, where localizes lipids and some important proteins such as dynamin, which enables vesicle scission, cavin, which induces membrane curvature, and caveolin-1 (CAV-1), which is necessary for biogenesis of caveolae (Sahay et al. 2010). Besides, CAV-1 is involved in vesicular transport during caveolae-mediated endocytosis and previous studies have demonstrated that this protein directly binds to Rab-5, which is involved in the transport between the early endosome and the caveosome, controlling its activity (Hagiwara et al. 2009). In our study, CAV-1 ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = 2.64$) appears highly overexpressed, which might be related with the activation of the caveola-endocytosis pathway upon TiO_2 -NPs exposure, and with the TiO_2 -NPs aggregates found in exposed HaCaT cells. This is in agreement with a similar study in which CAV-1, together with Cdc42, were demonstrated to be involved in the endocytosis of SiO_2 -NPs in HeLa cells (Bohmer et al. 2015). On the other hand, the clathrin-mediated endocytosis is based on the interaction of several proteins with clathrin, which is the main effector of the membrane coating to form vesicles. Other proteins involved in this process are adaptor proteins such as AP2, epsins, dynamins and actin-binding proteins like CTTN (Cao et al. 2003; Samaj et al. 2003; Sauvonnnet et al. 2005). CTTN participates in both clathrin-mediated endocytosis, where is needed as a component of clathrin-coated pits, and receptor-mediated endocytosis (Sauvonnnet et al. 2005). Interestingly, we found CTTN ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -1.67$) to be inhibited in our experiment, which might preclude the internalization of TiO_2 -NPs by the clathrin- or receptor-mediated endocytosis. Additionally, PACSIN3 is a protein involved in vesicles formation and transport. In particular, it is related with the recruitment of proteins that play relevant roles in endocytosis processes. Previous reports have demonstrated that overexpression of PACSIN3 is a marker for the activation of the clathrin-mediated endocytosis route, leading to transferrin-mediated endocytosis arrest (Modregger et al. 2000). Based on the

previous results, it is not surprising that we found PACSIN3 inhibited ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -1.85$). This result, together with the downregulation of a key protein involved in the clathrin-mediated route (CTTN) and the overexpression of CAV-1, support the idea that TiO₂-NPs internalize in human keratinocytes by caveola-mediated endocytosis.

Our previous experiments demonstrated that TiO₂-NPs induce cell cycle arrest in exposed human keratinocytes, as it has been already pointed out by previous studies carried out in other types of cells (Saquib et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2010; Kansara et al. 2015). Thus, we looked for altered proteins found in our SILAC experiment that could shed some light into the specific mechanisms responsible for the TiO₂-NPs-induced cell cycle arrest. Indeed, we found deregulation of several proteins involved in mitosis and cell cycle progression such as RanGAP1 ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -2.09$), NCAPG ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -1.68$), EIF4G2 ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -2.51$) and PPM1G ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = 2.90$). Ran-binding protein-1 (RanGAP1) stimulates the hydrolysis of GTP to GDP within the Ran GTPase cycle. This cycle includes the control of both, the nucleocytoplasmic transport of important effectors in mitosis regulation, and the RanGTP and RanGDP balance levels. Levels of RanGTP inside the nucleus affect microtubules formation and their appropriate transformation to chromosomes during the interphase (Joseph et al. 2002; Clarke and Zhang 2008). In addition, RanGAP1 associates with mitotic spindles, which are particularly concentrated at foci near kinetochores; thus, several studies have demonstrated that deregulation of RanGAP1 triggers cell cycle arrest during M phase and deregulation of other proteins involved in cell cycle control (Swaminathan et al. 2004; Chang et al. 2013; Vorpahl et al. 2014). NCAPG is the regulatory subunit of condensin complex, required for conversion of interphase chromatin into mitotic-like condensed chromosomes (Kimura et al. 2001). It is well known that this protein is involved in the regulation of the cell cycle and previous reports have shown that knocking down NCAPG provokes cell cycle arrest and impaired

cell proliferation. As for EIF4G2, also known as DAP-5, it is involved in the translation of important proteins during mitosis such as Cdk1 or Bcl-2. It has also been demonstrated that EIF4G2 is required for maintaining cell survival during mitosis, and that knocking down EIF4G2 induces M-phase specific caspase-dependent cell death (Marash 2008; Liberman et al. 2009). On the other hand, PPM1G, also known as PP2C γ , is a serine/threonine phosphatase that regulates the transition phase of cell cycle. Unlike the other above mentioned proteins, we found PPM1G overexpressed in HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs. However, several reports have demonstrated that an overexpression of this protein provokes an accumulation of cells in the S phase (Suh et al. 2006), which is in agreement with our flow cytometry results, and with the reduction in mRNA levels found for CDK2 and cyclin A, which are both involved in the S/G2 checkpoint.

TiO₂-NPs are also considered to increase reactive oxygen species (ROS); thus, inducing oxidative stress and an imbalance in the normal redox state of cells (Saquib et al. 2012; Jaeger et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2010). Our SILAC experiment has allowed us to go further and to identify several proteins that might be responsible for the observed ROS increased and imbalance in TiO₂-NPs exposed cells. Different enzymes with anti-oxidant properties are crucial for controlling the ROS balance. That is the case of SOD2, a mitochondrial protein involved in the conversion of O²⁻ to H₂O₂, which was found was found inhibited ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -2.71$); thus confirming a potential imbalance of ROS in keratinocytes exposed to TiO₂-NPs. This result is in agreement with the observations carried out by Li et al. in TiO₂-NPs exposed nematodes (Li et al. 2012). Additionally, when cells undergo increased ROS levels and oxidative stress, there are certain proteins that act as a defense mechanism and whose overexpression may be used as an oxidative stress marker. That is the case of the peroxiredoxin protein family. In our SILAC experiment, we found upregulation of PRDX5 ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = 1.88$), which reduces peroxides

with the use of reducing equivalents derived from thioredoxin. It has also been described that TiO₂-NPs cellular uptake cause inflammatory responses (Han et al. 2013; Alinovi et al. 2015). Keratins are important effectors in the control of inflammatory network in keratinocytes; in particular, cytokeratin 1 (KRT1) plays a major role in the epidermal barrier formation and in restricting IL-18 release from keratinocytes. Previous reports showed that a knockdown of KRT1 cause a release of IL-18 and increase of inflammatory factors (Roth et al. 2012). Interestingly, we found downregulation of KRT1 ($R_{\text{SILAC}} = -1.82$) upon TiO₂-NPs exposure, which might be one of the causes of the increased inflammatory response observed in TiO₂-NPs exposed cells (Han et al. 2013; Alinovi et al. 2015).

5. Conclusions

In the present work, we have demonstrated the toxic effects exerted by TiO₂-NPs in human keratinocytes. We have shown how the cellular viability of HaCaT cells is decreased in a concentration-dependent manner, and how TiO₂-NPs induce cell cycle arrest at the S-G2/M phase. We have also supported this data by demonstrating inhibition of several key regulators involved in cell cycle progression such as CDK2, CCNA1 and CCNB1. Additionally, we have shown how TiO₂-NPs induce downregulation of p21, which, in this case, seems to act as a negative regulator of p53 expression. Finally, using quantitative proteomics, we have identified several proteins involved in specific pathways and biological processes, that have helped us to understand the mechanisms underlying the observed toxic effects of TiO₂-NPs on human keratinocytes. These findings, have allowed us to gain a deeper knowledge of the potential toxicity and the potential risk associated to TiO₂-NPs skin exposure, specially at the molecular level.

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Abbreviation list

Arg: Arginine

CDK: Cyclin-dependent kinase

cDNA: complementary Deoxyribonucleic acid

DMEM: Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

DMSO: dimethyl sulfoxide

DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid

EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

FBS: fetal bovine serum

FITC-Annexin V: Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-labeled annexin V

GADPH: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

HaCaT: Human adult low Calcium High Temperature Keratinocytes

HEPES: 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid

HPLC: high performance liquid chromatography

HRP: horseradish peroxidase

LC-MS/MS: Liquid chromatography tandem-mass spectrometry

Lys: Lysine

MPs: macrosized particles

mRNA: messenger Ribonucleic acid

MTT: 3-(4,5-dimethyl-thiazol-2-yl)2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide

NPs: nanoparticles

PBS: phosphate saline buffer

PBS-T: phosphate saline buffer with 0.05 % Tween-20

PI: propidium iodide

RNA: Ribonucleic acid

ROS: reactive oxygen species

RT-qPCR: Quantitative Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

SDS: sodium dodecyl sulfate

SDS-PAGE: sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

SILAC: stable isotopic labeling by amino acids in cell culture

TEM: transmission electron microscopy

TiO₂-NPs: Titanium dioxide nanoparticles

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Table 1. Cell cycle related genes studied by RT-qPCR.

<i>Gene</i>	<i>RefSeq</i>	<i>Assay ID</i>
<i>CDK1</i>	NM_001170406.1	Hs00938777_m1
<i>CCNB1</i>	NM_031966.3	Hs01030099_m1
<i>CDK2</i>	NM_001290230.1	Hs01548894_m1
<i>CCNE1</i>	NM_001238.3	Hs01026536_m1
<i>CCNA2</i>	NM_001237.3	Hs00996788_m1
<i>CDKN1A</i>	NM_000389.4	Hs00355782_m1
<i>TP53</i>	NM_000546.5	Hs01034249_m1
<i>GADPH</i>	NM_001256799.2	Hs03929097_g1

Table 2. Proteins found overexpressed by SILAC upon TiO₂-NPs exposure in HaCaT cells.

Common Name	Accession number	Protein Name	R _{SILAC}	SILAC RSD
SUPT16H	6005757	FACT complex subunit SPT16	5.70	9.62
KRT10	195972866	keratin, type I cytoskeletal 10	3.51	11.33
HNRNPUL2	118601081	heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein U-like protein 2	3.21	8.89
PPM1G	29826282	protein phosphatase 1G	2.90	3.87
CAV1	15451856	caveolin-1 isoform alpha	2.64	17.77
CLPX	7242140	ATP-dependent Clp protease ATP-binding subunit clpX-like	2.28	18.23
CA2	4557395	carbonic anhydrase 2	2.11	16.60
VPS35	17999541	vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 35	2.06	18.77
EPRS	62241042	bifunctional glutamate/proline--tRNA ligase	2.05	12.84
PRKCDBP	47132587	protein kinase C delta-binding protein	2.03	19.79
HK1	188497754	hexokinase-1 isoform HKI	1.98	1.03
SAMHD1	38016914	SAM domain and HD domain-containing protein 1	1.97	5.02
VAMP3	4759300	vesicle-associated membrane protein 3	1.95	5.42
PRDX5	6912238	peroxiredoxin-5, mitochondrial isoform a precursor	1.88	19.69

RPLP2	4506671	60S acidic ribosomal protein P2	1.82	3.33
PSME3	388556516	proteasome activator complex subunit 3 isoform 3	1.79	18.56
IPO7	5453998	importin-7	1.69	11.94
FKBP4	4503729	peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase FKBP4	1.66	13.28
CARS	62240992	cysteine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic isoform c	1.65	5.48
RPLP0	4506667	60S acidic ribosomal protein P0	1.64	16.23
PRKCSH	48255889	glucosidase 2 subunit beta isoform 1 precursor	1.63	15.77
FASN	41872631	fatty acid synthase	1.61	11.17
HKDC1	188497750	hexokinase-1 isoform HKI-td	1.59	4.13
RPL29	4506629	60S ribosomal protein L29	1.57	18.28
RUVBL2	5730023	ruvB-like 2	1.56	15.35
SERPINB2	4505595	plasminogen activator inhibitor 2	1.55	18.71
UCHL3	5174741	ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase isozyme L3 isoform 2	1.52	6.98
CCT4	38455427	T-complex protein 1 subunit delta isoform a	1.51	14.33
PML1	67089149	protein PML isoform 1	1.51	16.55
PGRMC2	5729875	membrane-associated progesterone receptor component 1	1.51	0.002

Table 3. Proteins found inhibited by SILAC upon TiO₂-NPs exposure in HaCaT cells.

Common Name	Accession number	Protein Name	R _{SILAC}	SILAC RSD
DNAJB11	7706495	dnaJ homolog subfamily B member 11 precursor	-6.44	15.04
SOD2	67782305	superoxide dismutase [Mn], mitochondrial isoform A precursor	-2.71	3.95
EIF4G2	289577080	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 gamma 2 isoform 1	-2.51	13.36
SLC9A3R1	4759140	Na(+)/H(+) exchange regulatory cofactor NHE-RF1	-2.19	14.75
TUBB3	50592996	tubulin beta-3 chain isoform 1	-2.14	9.69
RANGAP1	4506411	ran GTPase-activating protein 1	-2.09	8.14
SERPINH1	32454741	serpin H1 precursor	-2.00	18.72
SND1	77404397	staphylococcal nuclease domain-containing protein 1	-1.93	17.14
PLS3	7549809	plastin-3 isoform 1	-1.93	19.02
FAM129A	16757970	protein Niban isoform 2	-1.91	19.89
PACSIN3	19224660	protein kinase C and casein kinase substrate in neurons protein 3	-1.85	1.64
KRT1	119395750	keratin, type II cytoskeletal 1	-1.82	17.79
ACAT1	4557237	acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase, mitochondrial precursor	-1.79	19.94
GLUD1	4885281	glutamate dehydrogenase 1, mitochondrial precursor	-1.78	17.49
EEF1G	4503481	elongation factor 1-gamma	-1.77	10.75

IPO4	62460637	importin-4	-1.73	7.07
MYBBP1A	157694492	myb-binding protein 1A isoform 2	-1.72	14.09
EPS8L2	21264616	epidermal growth factor receptor kinase substrate 8-like protein 2	-1.70	4.13
ATP5L	51479156	ATP synthase subunit g, mitochondrial	-1.69	10.34
NCAPG	21359945	condensin complex subunit 3	-1.68	4.50
LTA4H	4505029	leukotriene A-4 hydrolase isoform 1	-1.68	11.15
HNRNPU	14141161	heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein U isoform b	-1.67	3.14
CTTN	20357552	src substrate cortactin isoform a	-1.67	18.96
PLEC	41322916	plectin isoform 1	-1.66	17.96
SLC1A5	5032093	neutral amino acid transporter B(0) isoform 1	-1.66	18.63
TOMM34	21361356	mitochondrial import receptor subunit TOM34	-1.65	14.47
KRT7	67782365	keratin, type II cytoskeletal 7	-1.65	19.82
CTSD	4503143	cathepsin D preproprotein	-1.63	19.08
RPL21	18104948	60S ribosomal protein L21	-1.62	9.38
HADHB	4504327	trifunctional enzyme subunit beta, mitochondrial precursor	-1.62	19.15
RPN1	4506675	dolichyl-diphosphooligosaccharide--protein glycosyltransferase	-1.62	16.04
FDPS	4503685	farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase isoform a	-1.61	17.34
ARCN1	11863154	coatamer subunit delta isoform 1	-1.60	14.12
ACTN1	194097350	alpha-actinin-1 isoform a	-1.57	17.69
PTRF	42734430	polymerase I and transcript release factor	-1.54	18.26
EIF4H	11559923	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4H isoform 1	-1.52	0.29

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Morphologic characterization of TiO₂-NPs by TEM and effects of these nanoparticles on HaCaT cell viability after 72h of exposure. (A) NPs show spherical shape and tendency to aggregate. (B) The reduction of cell viability after TiO₂-NPs exposure was evaluated at different concentration (1, 10, 30, 100 µg/mL) by the MTT assay.

Fig. 2. Transmission electron microscopy of HaCaT cells after TiO₂ -NPs exposure. (B) NPs were found inside exposed HaCaT cells as aggregates when compared to (A) control cells. (C) Invaginations of the cell membrane were found in cells exposed to TiO₂ -NPs, (D) which were located in vacuoles inside the cells. (E) These NPs were not able

to penetrate the nuclear membrane. **(F)** Treated cells showed higher number of vacuoles as compared to control cells. $**p < 0.01$.

Fig. 3. Flow cytometry assays to evaluate apoptosis and cell cycle pattern in HaCaT cells exposed to TiO₂-NPs. **(A)** Annexin-V-based flow cytometry analysis did not reveal a significant increase in apoptosis after the exposure. **(B)** Measurement of the DNA content by flow cytometry shows that the number of cells in S/G2-M significantly increase in TiO₂-NPs exposed cells as compared to control ones. $***p < 0.001$.

Fig. 4. Gene expression and western blot analysis to evaluate the effects of TiO₂-NPs exposure in the cell cycle pattern. **(A)** General scheme showing the essential role of Cdks and cyclins in cell cycle progression. **(B)** mRNA levels of several related-cell cycle genes in control cells and TiO₂-NPs exposed cells. **(C)** Western blot analysis against p21; α -tubulin was used as loading control. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$ and $***p < 0.001$.

Fig. 5. SILAC results. **(A)** General scheme of the SILAC experiment procedure. **(B)** Distribution of the SILAC ratios for the quantified proteins. Most quantified proteins presented a SILAC ratio close to 1 as expected for a 1:1 mixture. **(C)** Functional annotation of the 66 altered proteins upon TiO₂-NPs exposure obtained from the gene ontology GO consortium website. Major molecular and biological processes altered included metabolic processes (MP), response to stimulus (RTS), transport (T), gene expression (GE), signalling (S), apoptosis (A), cell cycle regulation (CCR), protein folding (PF), DNA metabolic processes (DMP), response to stress (RTST) and cell proliferation (CP).

