

NTP TECHNICAL REPORT ON THE TOXICITY STUDIES OF

Aspergillus fumigatus Administered by Inhalation to B6C3F1/N Mice (Revised)

NTP TOX 100

JULY 2021

REVISED OCTOBER 2021

NTP Technical Report on the Toxicity Studies of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Administered by Inhalation to B6C3F1/N Mice (Revised)

Toxicity Report 100

July 2021

Revised October 2021

National Toxicology Program Public Health Service U.S. Department of Health and Human Services ISSN: 2378-8992

Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Revision Notice

An error was identified in the NTP Technical Report on the Toxicity Studies of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Administered by Inhalation to B6C3F1/N Mice (TOX 100). A bacterial reverse mutation assay study for a different test substance was included in error for TOX 100. *Aspergillus fumigatus* was not tested in the bacterial reverse mutation assay. This error has been corrected in the Abstract, Materials and Methods, Results, References, Appendix B, and Appendix E of this revised report.

Foreword

The National Toxicology Program (NTP), established in 1978, is an interagency program within the Public Health Service of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Its activities are executed through a partnership of the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (part of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention), the Food and Drug Administration (primarily at the National Center for Toxicological Research), and the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (part of the National Institutes of Health), where the program is administratively located. NTP offers a unique venue for the testing, research, and analysis of agents of concern to identify toxic and biological effects, provide information that strengthens the science base, and inform decisions by health regulatory and research agencies to safeguard public health. NTP also works to develop and apply new and improved methods and approaches that advance toxicology and better assess health effects from environmental exposures.

The Toxicity Report series began in 1991. The studies described in the NTP Toxicity Report series are designed and conducted to characterize and evaluate the toxicological potential of selected substances in laboratory animals (usually two species, rats and mice). Substances (e.g., chemicals, physical agents, and mixtures) selected for NTP toxicity studies are chosen primarily on the basis of human exposure, level of commercial production, and chemical structure. The interpretive conclusions presented in the Toxicity Reports are derived solely from the results of these NTP studies, and extrapolation of these results to other species, including characterization of hazards and risks to humans, requires analyses beyond the intent of these reports. Selection for study per se is not an indicator of a substance's toxic potential.

NTP conducts its studies in compliance with its laboratory health and safety guidelines and the Food and Drug Administration <u>Good Laboratory Practice Regulations</u> and meets or exceeds all applicable federal, state, and local health and safety regulations. Animal care and use are in accordance with the <u>Public Health Service Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory</u> <u>Animals</u>. Studies are subjected to retrospective quality assurance audits before they are presented for public review. Draft reports undergo external peer review before they are finalized and published.

The NTP Toxicity Reports are available free of charge on the <u>NTP website</u> and cataloged in <u>PubMed</u>, a free resource developed and maintained by the National Library of Medicine (part of the National Institutes of Health). Data for these studies are included in NTP's <u>Chemical Effects</u> in <u>Biological Systems</u> database.

For questions about the reports and studies, please email <u>NTP</u> or call 984-287-3211.

Table of Contents

Revision Noticei	i
Forewordii	i
Tables	V
Figures	V
About This Reportvi	i
Peer Review	X
Publication Details	i
Acknowledgmentsx	i
Abstractxi	i
Introduction Fungi, Indoor Environmental Quality, and Public Health Chemical and Physical Properties Production, Use, and Human Exposure Regulatory Status Toxicity Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity Carcinogenicity Genetic Toxicity Study Rationale	1 3 4 5 7 7 7
Materials and Methods. 9 Procurement and Characterization 9 Culture of Aspergillus fumigatus 9 Quality Assurance 9 Test Article Generation and Exposure System 9 Animal Source. 11 Animal Welfare 12 Three-month Study 13 Statistical Analysis 17 Calculation and Analysis of Nonneoplastic Lesion Incidences 17 Quality Assurance Methods 18 Genetic Toxicology 18 Peripheral Blood Micronucleus Test 18	999933377788
Results 19 Data Availability 19 Three-month Study 19 Genetic Toxicology 3	9 9
Discussion	2
References	7

Appendix A. Culture, Characterization, and Delivery of Aspergillus fumigatus	. A-1
Appendix B. Genetic Toxicology	B-1
Appendix C. Ingredients, Nutrient Composition, and Contaminant Levels in NTP-2000 Mouse Ration	C-1
Appendix D. National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health Sentinel Animal Program	D- 1
Appendix E. Supplemental Data	E-1

Tables

Summary of Findings Considered Toxicologically Relevant in Mice Exposed to	
Aspergillus fumigatus Spores by Inhalation for Three Months	xiv
Table 1. Experimental Design and Materials and Methods in the Three-month Inhalation	
Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	15
Table 2. Summary of Survival and Mean Body Weights of Male and Female Mice in the	
Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	19
Table 3. Summary of Select Organ Weights and Organ-Weight-to-Body-Weight Ratios	
for Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus	
fumigatus Spores	21
Table 4. Summary of Select Hematology Data for Male and Female Mice in the Three-	
month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	22
Table 5. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Larynx in Male and Female Mice in	
the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	23
Table 6. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Lung in Male and Female Mice in	
the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	26
Table 7. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Bronchial Lymph Node in Male and	
Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus	
Spores	29

Figures

Figure 1. Aspergillus fumigatus Fresenius	1
Figure 2. A Representative Life Cycle of Fungi in the Order Eurotiales	
Figure 3. Illustration Showing the Acoustical Generator Nose-only Exposure System and	
Aspergillus fumigatus Particle Characterization	11
Figure 4. Estimated Pulmonary Deposition of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores for Each	
Exposure over the Course of the Three-month Study	13
Figure 5. Growth Curves for Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study	
of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	20
Figure 6. Histopathology Images of Larynxes Following Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air	
or Viable Aspergillus fumigatus Spores for Three Months (H&E)	23
Figure 7. Histopathology Images of Lungs Following Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air or	
Viable Aspergillus fumigatus Spores for Three Months (H&E)	27

Figure 8.	Histopathology Images of Lungs with Bronchial Lymph Nodes Following	
	Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air or Viable Aspergillus fumigatus Spores for	
	Three Months (H&E)	.30
Figure 9.	Images of Fungal Spores Observed within the Lungs of Mice Following	
	Inhalation of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores for Three Months	.31

About This Report

National Toxicology Program¹

¹Division of the National Toxicology Program, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Collaborators

D.R. Germolec, C.J. Willson, L. Battelli, D.H. Beezhold, C.R. Blystone, P. Brown, M.C. Cora, T.L. Croston, J.M. Fostel, K.M. Gideon, W.T. Goldsmith, H. Gong, B.J. Green,
M.R. Hejtmancik, M.J. Hooth, A.P. King-Herbert, B. Law, A.R. Lemons, D.E. Malarkey,
C. Martini, W.G. McKinney, R. Moore, C. Myers, A.P. Nayak, M. Orandle, K.M. Patton,
G.K. Roberts, N. Sayers, M. Shaw, K.A. Shipkowski, K.R. Shockley, S.L. Smith-Roe,
M.D. Stout, G.S. Travlos, M.K. Vallant, S. Waidyanatha, N.J. Walker, R. Whittlesey, K.L. Witt

Division of the National Toxicology Program, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Designed studies, evaluated and interpreted results, and reported findings D.R. Germolec, Ph.D., Study Scientist C.R. Blystone, Ph.D. M.C. Cora, D.V.M. M.J. Hooth, Ph.D. A.P. King-Herbert, D.V.M. D.E. Malarkey, D.V.M., Ph.D. G.K. Roberts, Ph.D. K.A. Shipkowski, Ph.D. K.R. Shockley, Ph.D. S.L. Smith-Roe, Ph.D. M.D. Stout, Ph.D. G.S. Travlos, D.V.M. M.K. Vallant, M.S. S. Waidyanatha, Ph.D. N.J. Walker, Ph.D. K.L. Witt, M.S.

Provided oversight for data management J.M. Fostel, Ph.D.

Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA *Evaluated and interpreted results and reported findings* C.J. Willson, D.V.M., Ph.D., Study Pathologist

Coordinated NTP Pathology Working Group (3-month studies) (November 27, 2018) R. Moore, D.V.M.

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, Morgantown, West Virginia, USA

Developed test article and exposure system, conducted studies, evaluated and interpreted results, and reported findings D.H. Beezhold, Ph.D., Co-Principal Investigator B.J. Green, Ph.D., Co-Principal Investigator

L. Battelli, M.S. T.L. Croston, Ph.D. W.T. Goldsmith, B.S. B. Law, M.S. A.R. Lemons, M.S. W.G. McKinney, M.S. A.P. Nayak, Ph.D. M. Orandle, D.V.M., Ph.D.

Battelle, Columbus, Ohio, USA

Evaluated pathology findings M.R. Hejtmancik, Ph.D., Principal Investigator K.M. Gideon, M.E.T.M. K.M. Patton, D.V.M., Ph.D.

ASRC Federal, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Prepared data for report P. Brown, B.S. H. Gong, M.S. C. Martini, B.S. C. Myers, M.S. N. Sayers, B.S. M. Shaw, B.S. R. Whittlesey, M.S.

Contributors

Division of the National Toxicology Program, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Provided oversight for external peer review E.A. Maull, Ph.D. S.L. Scruggs, Ph.D. M.S. Wolfe, Ph.D.

NTP Pathology Working Group, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Participated in NTP Pathology Working Group (3-month studies) (November 27, 2018)
T.A. Crabbs, D.V.M., Experimental Pathology Laboratories, Inc.
S.A. Elmore, D.V.M., M.S., National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
K.S. Janardhan, Ph.D., Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC
R. Kovi, Ph.D., Experimental Pathology Laboratories, Inc.
D.E. Malarkey, D.V.M., Ph.D., National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences

C.J. Willson, D.V.M., Ph.D., Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC

Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Supervised pathology review G. Hill, D.V.M., Ph.D., Principal Investigator

CSS Corporation, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Prepared quality assessment audits S. Brecher, Ph.D., Principal Investigator S. Iyer, B.S. V.S. Tharakan, D.V.M.

Social & Scientific Systems, a DLH Company, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA

Provided statistical analyses S.J. McBride, Ph.D., Principal Investigator L.J. Betz, M.S. S.F. Harris, M.S. J.D. Krause, Ph.D. C.G. Leach, M.S. M.V. Smith, Ph.D.

ICF, Fairfax, Virginia, USA

Provided contract oversight D. Burch, M.E.M., Principal Investigator J. Cleland, M.E.M. J.A. Wignall, M.S.P.H.

Prepared, edited, and formatted report
K.A. Addo, Ph.D.
S.R. Gunnels, M.A.
T. Hamilton, M.S.
P.A. Hartman, M.E.M.
B. Ingle, Ph.D.
K. McKinley, M.E.M.
M.E. McVey, Ph.D.
K.T. O'Donovan, B.A.
J.R. Rochester, Ph.D.
K.A. Shipkowski, Ph.D.
S.J. Snow, Ph.D.

Supported external peer review C.N. Byrd, B.S. L.M. West, B.S.

Peer Review

The National Toxicology Program (NTP) conducted a peer review of the draft *NTP Technical Report on the Toxicity Studies of* Aspergillus fumigatus *Administered by Inhalation to B6C3F1/N Mice* by letter in December 2020–January 2021 by the experts listed below. Reviewer selection and document review followed established NTP practices. The reviewers were charged to:

- (1) Peer review the draft *NTP Technical Report on the Toxicity Studies of Aspergillus fumigatus*.
- (2) Comment on NTP's interpretations of the data.

NTP carefully considered reviewer comments in finalizing this report.

Peer Reviewers

Natalie M. Johnson, Ph.D.

Associate Professor, Department of Environmental & Occupational Health Texas A&M University College Station, Texas, USA

Dennis W. Wilson, D.V.M., Ph.D.

Professor Emeritus of Pathology, Department of Pathology, Microbiology, and Immunology University of California School of Veterinary Medicine Davis, California, USA

Publication Details

Publisher: National Toxicology Program Publishing Location: Research Triangle Park, NC ISSN: 2378-8992 DOI: <u>https://doi.org/10.22427/NTP-TOX-100</u>

Report Series: NTP Toxicity Report Series

Report Series Number: 100

Official citation: National Toxicology Program (NTP). 2021. NTP technical report on the toxicity studies of *Aspergillus fumigatus* administered by inhalation to B6C3F1/N mice (revised). Research Triangle Park, NC: National Toxicology Program. Toxicity Report 100.

Acknowledgments

The findings and the conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), Centers for Control and Prevention. This study was supported by internal NIOSH funds and in part by an interagency agreement between NIOSH and the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS) as a collaborative National Toxicology Program research activity (AES 12007-001-00000-NIOSH reference 12-NS12-01).

This work was supported by the Intramural Research Program (ES103316, ES103318, and ES103319) at NIEHS, National Institutes of Health and performed for the National Toxicology Program, Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services under contracts HHSN273201800006C, HHSN273201600020C, HHSN273201600011C, GS00Q14OADU417 (Order No. HHSN273201600015U), HHSN273201500006C, HHSN273201500013C, HHSN273201400015C, HHSN273201300004C, HHSN273201300009C, HHSN316201200054W, N01-ES-55536.

Abstract

Aspergillus fumigatus is a thermotolerant, saprophytic fungal species that is ubiquitous in the environment. Mold was nominated to the National Toxicology Program (NTP) in response to public concern regarding suspected adverse health effects associated with personal exposure in indoor and occupational settings. *A. fumigatus* is of particular concern in the biowaste industry as the species can contaminate self-heating compost piles. Because of this potential for personal and occupational exposure and the lack of available toxicity data, toxicity studies were conducted in which male and female B6C3F1/N mice were exposed to *A. fumigatus* conidia (spores) two times a week for 3 months. All in-life procedures, including inhalation exposure, test article preparation, and hematology analysis, were completed by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH, Morgantown, WV). Battelle (Columbus, OH) conducted terminal necropsies, measured terminal body and organ weights, and evaluated gross lesions on-site at NIOSH. Tissue processing and histopathology were completed at Battelle. Grocott's methenamine silver (GMS) staining was performed at NIOSH. Genetic toxicology studies on mouse peripheral blood erythrocytes were conducted by Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC (Research Triangle Park, NC).

Groups of 10 male and 10 female mice were exposed via nose-only inhalation to 1×10^5 *A. fumigatus* viable spores (viable *A. fumigatus*), 1×10^5 nonviable spores (heat-inactivated particle control), or to an air control. All male mice survived to the end of the study, whereas two female mice, one in the air control group and one in the heat-inactivated particle control group, died during the study. There was no effect of exposure on body weights. Gross lesions, observed at study termination, consisted of enlarged, gray bronchial lymph nodes in 5 out of 10 females exposed to viable *A. fumigatus*. Mean absolute and relative lung weights were significantly increased in male (43% and 47%, respectively) and female (68% and 75%, respectively) viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice compared to the air control groups.

Nonneoplastic lesions were observed in the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. In the larynx, lesions presented primarily as epithelial squamous metaplasia at the base of the epiglottis in both males and females exposed to viable *A. fumigatus*; exposure to heat-inactivated control spores did not affect the larynx. The increased lung weights in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed groups correlated histologically with chronic active inflammation and hyperplasia of the bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue (BALT) and bronchiolar epithelium in a majority of males and females. Mice in the heat-inactivated particle control groups also showed BALT hyperplasia but at lower incidences as compared to viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed groups. The lungs of all mice exposed to viable *A. fumigatus* spores also showed medial hypertrophy in small- to medium-sized pulmonary arteries. GMS-stained lung sections of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice revealed spores within the alveoli and alveolar macrophages. Hyperplasia, either of lymphocytes or plasma cells, was additionally observed in the bronchial lymph nodes of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice and corresponded to the grossly enlarged bronchial lymph nodes in females.

No increases in the frequencies of micronucleated erythrocytes were observed in peripheral blood samples from male and female mice obtained after 3 months of inhalation exposure to viable *A. fumigatus* spores, indicating no chromosomal damage was induced in progenitor cells in the bone marrow of these mice.

Under the conditions of this 3-month study, target organs identified in B6C3F1/N mice following inhalation exposure to *A. fumigatus* spores were the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. Significant differences were observed between viable *A. fumigatus* exposure and both air control and heat-inactivated particle control exposures. These results build on initial NIOSH pulmonary immunology studies using the same exposure parameters and demonstrate that the immunological responses and histopathology could be enhanced by the viability of the *A. fumigatus* spores.

Synonyms: Aspergillus fumigatus (A. fumigatus); NIH Strain B-5233; Aspergillus fumigatus Fresenius, anamorph (ATCC[®] 13073TM)

	Male Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Male Viable <i>A. fumigatus</i>	Female Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Female Viable <i>A. fumigatus</i>
Exposure Concentration (Estimated Lung Deposition)	1×10^5 heat- inactivated <i>A. fumigatus</i> spores	$1 \times 10^5 A.$ fumigatus spores	1×10^5 heat- inactivated <i>A. fumigatus</i> spores	$1 \times 10^5 A.$ fumigatus spores
Survival Rates	10/10	10/10	9/10	10/10
Body Weights	Similar to air control group	Similar to air control group	Similar to air control group	Similar to air control group
Clinical Findings	None ^a	None	None	None
Organ Weights	None	↑Absolute and relative lung weight compared to either air control or heat- inactivated particle control	None	↑Absolute and relative lung weight compared to either air control or heat- inactivated particle control
Hematology	None	↑Neutrophils compared to air control	None	None
Nonneoplastic Effects	Lung: inflammation, chronic (3/10); BALT, lymphocyte, hyperplasia (7/10)	Larynx: epiglottis, metaplasia, squamous (9/10) Lung: artery, medial, hypertrophy (10/10); bronchiole, epithelium, hyperplasia (9/10); inflammation, chronic active (10/10); BALT, lymphocyte, hyperplasia, (10/10); goblet cell, metaplasia (10/10) Bronchial lymph node: lymphocyte, hyperplasia (6/9); plasma cell, hyperplasia (5/9)	Lung: inflammation, chronic (7/10); BALT, lymphocyte, hyperplasia (8/10)	Larynx: epiglottis, metaplasia, squamous (9/10); epithelium, ulcer (1/10); squamous epithelium, hyperplasia (1/10) Lung: artery, medial, hypertrophy (10/10); bronchiole, epithelium, hyperplasia (8/10); inflammation, chronic active (10/10); BALT, lymphocyte, hyperplasia, (10/10); goblet cell, metaplasia (10/10) Bronchial lymph node: lymphocyte, hyperplasia (9/10); plasma cell, hyperplasia (8/10)

Summary of Findings Considered Toxicologically Relevant in Mice Exposed to *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores by Inhalation for Three Months

Genetic Toxicology

Micronucleated Erythrocytes (In Vivo): Negative in all exposure groups of male and female mice

BALT = bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue.

^aNone = no toxicologically relevant effects for this endpoint.

Introduction



Figure 1. Aspergillus fumigatus Fresenius

Botanical Name: *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Synonyms: *Aspergillus fumigatus (A. fumigatus)*; NIH Strain B-5233 (a clinical strain isolated in a case of invasive aspergillosis from a patient with leukemia); *Aspergillus fumigatus* Fresenius, anamorph (ATCC[®] 13073TM). The light microscopic image depicts asexual *Aspergillus fumigatus* reproductive structures composed of a septate hyphae, conidiophore, and chains of conidiopores.

Photo courtesy of CDC; CDC Public Health Image Library ID #300.

Fungi, Indoor Environmental Quality, and Public Health

The fungal kingdom is a diverse lineage of eukaryotic microorganisms consisting of approximately 1.5 million species.¹ Fungi grow in a wide variety of lifeforms and include unicellular yeasts, filamentous hyphae, or a combination of both life cycles (dimorphism) that include species with the ability to switch between yeast and filamentous forms on the basis of temperature and nutrient profiles. Fungi reproduce via meiotic or mitotic processes and produce spores or conidia that vary morphologically and can be aerosolized into the breathing zone of a person following abiotic or biotic colony disturbance. In addition to spores, small submicronic fragments of hyphae can also be released from the colony, and, in some cases, these bioaerosols can be released in greater concentrations than spores.²⁻⁵

In the environment, fungi predominate as saprophytes; as such, they have positive and negative effects on the environment, industry, and human health. Fungi and fungal-derived products have broad industrial utility ranging from the production of food (yeast, fermentation), detergents (enzymes), and pharmaceuticals (penicillin).⁶ The negative impacts that fungi have on society are more widely recognized by the public, however, especially after a cluster of infant pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis cases in the United States,^{7; 8} as well as the effects on indoor environments resulting from natural disasters, including Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, Sandy, Harvey, Irma, and Maria. The growth of mold within the indoor built environment has led to public health and community concern over the potential pulmonary and neurological health effects associated with the inhalation of fungal spores, hyphae, and secondary metabolites such as mycotoxins and volatile organic compounds that may be released during fungal growth and colonization. Fungal secondary metabolites are frequently associated with sporulation and development and are produced late in the growth phase of the organism.⁹

Moisture infiltration in the indoor built environment can lead to mold growth; consequently, contamination of building materials has been the focus of numerous indoor air quality investigations over the last three decades. In 1994, epidemiological evidence of pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis in a cluster of Cleveland infants $(n = 10)^{7:8}$ drew further attention to the negative impacts associated with fungal exposure in damp indoor environments. The investigation into the reported cases showed that infants with acute pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis were more likely to reside in water-damaged homes compared to non-damaged homes.⁷ The investigation additionally identified the toxigenic fungal species *S. chartarum* (synonym *S. atra*) to be in higher concentrations in case homes compared to control homes.⁷ A subsequent Centers for Disease Control and Prevention review of the Cleveland investigation¹⁰ identified that the associations in the initial epidemiological investigations were not supported. The initial findings had a significant effect on the community, however, and fostered the citation of the study in a range of government, academic, and public forums that ultimately led to litigation and even the closure of buildings.¹⁰

Since the Cleveland investigation, consensus reports have been published by the Institute of Medicine (IOM), Committee on Damp Indoor Spaces and Health,¹¹ and the World Health Organization (WHO),¹² evaluating the role of indoor dampness and fungal exposures on human health. The reports presented sufficient epidemiological evidence of associations between personal exposure to damp indoor environments or the presence of mold indoors with several respiratory symptoms.^{11; 12} Recent meta-analyses have further confirmed the IOM and WHO consensus reports and identified additional associations between visible mold, mold odor, and allergy/asthma in damp indoor environments,¹³⁻¹⁵ although associations with individual fungal species and culturable fungi were limited.¹⁶ A 2016 cost estimate analysis has placed the economic burden of fungal exposure-related illness to be as high as \$3.7 billion for allergic rhinitis and \$15.1 billion for asthma morbidity.¹⁷ To date, the role of fungi and the physiological changes that follow exposure remain uncharacterized and in some cases completely misunderstood for indoor-contaminating fungal species. Numerous data gaps exist concerning the role of fungi in the areas of neurotoxicology, rheumatic diseases, reproduction, and cardiopulmonary disease. This lack of data has hindered understanding of the physiological consequences of fungal exposures and has resulted in no standardized methods or exposure limits for fungi.

To address some of these knowledge gaps, fungi were nominated to the National Toxicology Program (NTP) for investigation. In 2004, the NTP Board of Scientific Councilors and Executive Committee endorsed the study of fungi. The committee suggested studying fungal species commonly identified in indoor air, including *Aspergillus, Penicillium*, and *Stachybotrys* species. An expert review panel was convened in 2007 to discuss the study design for NTP subchronic toxicity studies. Several key areas that would have a direct bearing on study design were identified and considered, including colony growth conditions, life cycle, and biochemical makeup of the species. The panel recommended evaluating confluent fungal colonies derived from a single fungal species, as well as mixtures of fungal colonies co-cultured on building materials commonly used in the indoor environment. Variables related to the production, characterization, and reproducibility of the test material were also considered. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) participated in the 2007 expert review and was identified as a partner to conduct the subchronic (13-week) fungal exposure studies due to their prior experience and expertise in microbial immunology and aerosol science.

As a part of an ongoing partnership with NTP, NIOSH initiated a series of pilot studies to develop and characterize an acoustical generation system (AGS) capable of simulating natural indoor and occupational fungal exposure. NIOSH has utilized the AGS and nose-only chamber in studies to characterize the pulmonary immune responses to dry viable and nonviable A. fumigatus conidia. In these studies, BALB/cJ mice were repeatedly exposed to 1×10^5 A. fumigatus conidia via inhalation twice a week for 4 or 13 weeks. In the 4-week study, histopathological analysis of lung sections showed moderate to severe inflammation, mucus production, bronchiolar pneumonia, and tissue remodeling/fibrosis. Increased incidence of neutrophils and eosinophils were observed surrounding the larger airways, and giant cell formation was apparent in mice 24 hours following the final (eighth) exposure. Flow cytometry analysis showed total CD8+ T cells were increased in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) at 24 hours, and approximately 33% of the CD8+ T cell numbers were CD8+IL-17+ T cells (Tc17), which peaked at 24 hours.¹⁸ Importantly, swollen conidia were observed at 4 hours, and by 24 hours, many conidia had begun to germinate. Emergence of hyphae from spores also correlated with an increase in Tc17 cell populations.^{18; 19} This study was among the first to demonstrate in vivo A. fumigatus germination following spore exposures in an animal model.^{18;} 19

NIOSH also completed a pilot 13-week subchronic study to examine pulmonary immune endpoints using B6C3F1/N mice.²⁰ In this study, mice were exposed twice a week for 13 weeks to dry viable *A. fumigatus* spores and compared to an air control group. Repeated exposures with viable spores revealed fungal dose-dependent pulmonary inflammation, cellular infiltration, goblet cell metaplasia, and peribronchial and perivascular collagen deposition. Flow cytometry of BALF showed CD4+ T helper (Th) cells expressing cytokines associated with an allergic phenotype [Th2; interleukin- (IL-) 5 and IL-13]. These cell populations were present in significantly increased numbers in the airways of animals dosed with viable *A. fumigatus* spores. The responses were accompanied by an increase in total serum immunoglobulin E (IgE) and development of immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibodies to *A. fumigatus*-specific proteins. The results of this study further supported the hypothesis that spore viability is a critical variable of fungal exposures that affected Th1/Th2 differentiation in mice. Compared with the 4-week repeated exposure study, these experiments demonstrated a shift toward a Th2-mediated response in animals that received 13 weeks of repeated exposures.

The overall goal in this series of studies was to characterize the hazards associated with exposure to *A. fumigatus*, a common fungal contaminant in indoor and occupational environments. The aim was to advance understanding of the toxicological and pulmonary immune responses associated with subchronic fungal exposures using a model that replicates human exposure conditions found in damp or water-damaged buildings. The data derived from these studies will provide further understanding of the species that can elicit adverse health effects. To address these experimental aims, NIOSH applied the same AGS and methodologies used in preliminary pulmonary immunological studies to characterize *A. fumigatus* toxicological endpoints following subchronic fungal spore exposures.

Chemical and Physical Properties

The genus *Aspergillus* includes a diverse group of approximately 250 species within the Ascomycota order Eurotiales.²¹ *A. fumigatus* is environmentally ubiquitous and a common source of opportunistic fungal infections that were first described by Fresenius in 1863.²¹ The

species is characterized by an anamorphic (asexual) life cycle (Figure 2) as well as a sexual phase (*Neosartorya*). The anamorphic phase is placed in the section *Fumigati* and is characterized by the production of chains of unicellular conidia (spores) that emerge from uniseriate phialides presented from conidiophores that consist of flask-shaped vesicles.^{21; 22} *A. fumigatus* is abundant in indoor, outdoor, and occupational environments because it produces respirable-sized green echinulate globose-to-subglobose spores composed of a rodlet hydrophobic layer (2–3 µm spore diameter).²¹⁻²³ The spores are continuously generated via a rapid sporulation process and are easily aerosolized into the environment following abiotic or biotic disturbance.²¹⁻²³



Figure 2. A Representative Life Cycle of Fungi in the Order Eurotiales

Production, Use, and Human Exposure

A. fumigatus is a ubiquitous saprophytic fungal species that has a worldwide distribution.^{22; 23} It is found within the soil, where it is involved in the breakdown of plant-derived polysaccharides through the secretion of glycosyl hydrolases and proteases.²¹⁻²⁴ A. fumigatus is thermotolerant and can grow and proliferate in self-heating compost piles and waste management plants.^{21; 23; 25} These growth conditions have become problematic in several occupational environments that produce compost. A. fumigatus has been identified as a harmful biological contaminant as well as an indicator organism within the composting industry.²⁶ In occupational environments, highest concentrations of fungi, including A. fumigatus, have been measured in dusty working areas during shredding and processing activities.²⁷ Airborne fungal concentrations are measured using multiple approaches, such as plating viable spores for determination of colony-forming units (CFU)/m³ or microscopic spore counting of viable and nonviable conidia (conidia/m³). Airborne A. fumigatus concentrations as high as 1×10^6 CFU/m³ have been reported in occupational environments.^{28; 29} Eleven secondary metabolites that were produced from cultured A. fumigatus strains collected in biowaste processing environments have been characterized.³⁰ Other occupational environments where A. fumigatus has been detected in elevated concentrations include residual waste collection,³¹ the animal feed industry,³² grass seed production,³³ baking,³⁴

podiatry clinics,³⁵ swine and poultry processing,³⁶ ceramic production,³⁷ professional cleaners,³⁸ indoor workplaces,³⁹ hospitals,⁴⁰ and corn silage.⁴¹ Spores of *A. fumigatus* have also been detected in other indoor environments. Although the relative abundance and concentrations may not be as high as those identified in some occupational settings, investigators have noted that *A. fumigatus* is ubiquitous in the environment and exposure occurs daily. Human exposure has been estimated at 1–100 conidia/m³ in indoor environments.^{22-24; 42} In damp indoor environments, exposure can be elevated due to the contamination of cellulose-based building materials.⁴³ A secondary source of *A. fumigatus* could also be from indoor plants;⁴⁴ however, anthropogenic and outdoor transport are the likely sources of most exposures.

Regulatory Status

To date, no exposure limits for *A. fumigatus* have been proposed by NIOSH or the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists. An evaluation of human, animal, and epidemiological datasets by Eduard⁴⁵ of Norway's National Institute of Occupational Health has identified a lowest-observed-effect level of 1×10^5 spores/m³. In 2010, the Environment Agency of the United Kingdom provided guidance on the acceptable levels of microbial contaminants emitted from composting operators.²⁹ Although not determined from dose-response relationships, airborne levels of *A. fumigatus* were set at 500 CFU/m³ within 250 meters of a composting facility.²⁹ In Germany, the Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health set an occupational exposure limit of 50,000 CFU/m³ for mesophilic fungal contaminants that also include *A. fumigatus*.²⁹

Toxicity

Unlike low molecular weight chemicals that are traditionally studied by NTP, fungi are eukaryotic microorganisms. With fungi, the hyphae, fragments, spores, and reproductive propagules are all agents of personal inhalation exposure.³ In addition to nonviable particles, an individual can be exposed to viable spores that can metabolically activate following in vivo deposition. Spore germination follows and can result in the release of immunologically active proteins and secondary metabolites.^{3; 5; 6; 46} The cell wall of *A. fumigatus* contains numerous components, some of which stimulate the host's immune system, such as (1-3)- β -D glucan (or other high molecular weight proteins), and others that may suppress the host immune system, such as gliotoxin (or other secondary metabolites). These proteins and secondary metabolites, in combination with spore viability, result in a multifaceted pulmonary immune response involving a combination of innate and adaptive immune mechanisms.^{18-20; 47}

Although numerous studies have identified and characterized fungal spore exposures in indoor, outdoor, and occupational environments, the toxicity of individual fungal proteins, secondary metabolites, and mycotoxins remains less clear. Personal exposure to *A. fumigatus* spores can result in a variety of adverse health effects, but the most commonly reported include invasive aspergillosis in immunocompromised subjects²² and allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis.^{48;} ⁴⁹ Other adverse respiratory conditions exacerbated by *A. fumigatus* include occupational rhinitis,³⁹ occupational asthma,⁵⁰ hypersensitivity pneumonitis,^{34; 50} and organic dust toxic syndrome.^{33; 51}

A. fumigatus produces approximately 100 proteins that can bind immunoglobulin,²² as well as a broad diversity of secondary metabolites. Whole genome sequencing of *A. fumigatus* has

resolved 58 allergens and 9 additional predicted allergens that include secreted proteinases, glucanases, and cellulases.^{52; 53} The International Union of Immunological Societies currently recognizes 23 *A. fumigatus* allergens. Ribotoxin (Asp f 1) is one of the most broadly characterized *A. fumigatus* allergens that is expressed during spore germination and emergence of *A. fumigatus* hyphae.⁴⁶ Exposure to Asp f 1 ranges from 7.6 to 29 ng/m³ in outdoor air samples.⁴⁶ In addition to immunoglobulin binding proteins, *A. fumigatus* produces a variety of enzymes, including but not limited to, serine proteases, aspartic proteases, metalloproteinase, dipeptidyl peptidase, catalase, superoxide dismutase, and phospholipase.⁴²

In addition to high molecular weight proteins, *A. fumigatus* produces toxic secondary metabolites capable of eliciting acute or chronic health effects.⁵⁴ Whole genome sequencing of *A. fumigatus* has identified 39 predicted secondary metabolism gene clusters,⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ although over 400 fungal mycotoxins or secondary metabolites have been characterized.⁵⁴ The pioneering chemical characterization studies by Guido Fischer^{30; 58} and Frisvad and Sampson⁵⁹ provided preliminary insight into the species-specific secondary metabolite profiles derived from strains cultured from biowaste environments. In these studies, nine nonvolatile secondary metabolites were identified in culture and in conidial extracts and included gliotoxin, citrinin-like compound, fumagillin, fumigatin, fumiclavine A and C, fumitremorgin C, tryptoquivaline, trypacidin, and verruculogen.^{30; 59}

Secondary metabolites produced by *A. fumigatus*, including ferricrocin, DHN melanin, fusarinine C, helvolic acid, and gliotoxin, have roles in mediating virulence and toxic effects.⁵⁵ Gliotoxin has been widely characterized for antimicrobial and immunosuppressive effects.^{57; 60} Studies have shown gliotoxin to suppress cilia beat frequency, neutrophil function, T and B cell proliferation, protein synthesis, and phagocytosis, as well as inactivate alcohol dehydrogenase and cause epithelial damage.^{54; 57; 60; 61} Toxicology studies have shown gliotoxin to be acutely toxic [as measured by median lethal dose (LD50)] to rabbits (LD50 = 45 mg/kg), mice (LD50 = 50 mg/kg), and rats (LD50 = 50–65 mg/kg).⁶² In vitro studies have shown gliotoxin to have an IC₅₀ of 0.3 μ M in L-929 and A549 cell lines and 1.2 μ M and 0.6 μ M in Neuro-2a and HepG2 cell lines, respectively.⁶³ Waring and Beaver also reported that 0.1–3 μ M gliotoxin resulted in DNA fragmentation in some immune cells and concentrations >10 μ M induced apoptosis and cell death.⁶⁰ Other *A. fumigatus* secondary metabolites, such as fumagillin and helvolic acid, are also immunosuppressive but only at higher concentrations than gliotoxin.⁵⁴

Trypacidin, a secondary metabolite localized on *A. fumigatus* conidia, has antiprotozoal activities and is a potential virulence factor.⁶⁴ In vitro studies have also shown trypacidin to reduce cell viability and to induce cell lysis at an IC₅₀ of 7 μ M, demonstrating toxicity to lung cells.⁶⁴ Helvolic acid (syn. fumigacin) is an antibacterial nortriterpenoid/metabolite produced by *A. fumigatus* and has also been shown to produce liver, peritoneal, and superficial lesions following repeated intraperitoneal injections.^{65; 66}

Fumagillin is an additional *A. fumigatus* secondary metabolite that has been characterized to inhibit angiogenesis. Compared to gliotoxin, fumagillin is over 100-fold less cytotoxic to A549 cells but can inhibit endothelial cell proliferation and inhibit cilia beat frequency.^{61; 63} Although oral administration of up to 2,000 mg/kg could be tolerated in rodent models,^{65; 66} dermal exposure can be highly toxic and result in skin peeling from hands and feet as well as sensory disturbances.⁶⁵ Fumagillin has also been shown to have genotoxic effects by adducting DNA,^{61; 63} resulting in a decreased mitotic index and increased micronuclei in erythrocytes.^{67; 68}

Several secondary metabolites produced by *A. fumigatus* have specific central nervous system effects.⁶⁹ Tremorgenic mycotoxins are bioactive alkaloids that include fumitremorgin, tryptoquivaline, and verruculogen.^{70; 71} Along with gliotoxin, verruculogen has the highest known toxicity of all the *A. fumigatus* secondary metabolites and can cause tremors.⁵⁸ However, the production of tremorgenic mycotoxins may be associated only with a growing mycelium and not with bioaerosols, suggesting that these secondary metabolites may not be an acute hazard in occupations such as the waste handling industry.⁵⁸ Animal studies have shown fumitremorgin to be a potent neurotoxin: Concentrations as low as 0.15 mg/kg elicited mild tremor following intravenous injection, and convulsion was induced with 0.3 mg/kg.⁷² Fumitremorgin B and C administered to mice (1.0 mg/kg) and cockerels (25 mg/kg) were tremorgenic.⁷³ In vitro studies have additionally shown verruculogen to alter the electrochemical properties of human nasal epithelial cells,⁷⁴ and a dose of 2.4 mg/kg resulted in a lethality of 50%.⁷² To date, little is known about toxicological responses to tryptoquivaline, and few studies have evaluated this secondary metabolite in occupational environments.⁷²

The results of these combined immunological and toxicological studies demonstrate that *A. fumigatus* is a complex eukaryotic microorganism that produces a broad array of high molecular weight proteins, secondary metabolites, and mycotoxins with known toxicological effects. Each of these components varies in concentration, depending on the stage of the *A. fumigatus* life cycle.

Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity

Although several studies have evaluated reproductive and developmental toxicity for individual mycotoxins, NTP could not identify any studies following exposure to *Aspergillus* conidia.

Carcinogenicity

Although several studies have evaluated the carcinogenicity of individual mycotoxins, NTP could not identify any long-term studies that evaluated carcinogenic potential following exposure to *Aspergillus* conidia.

Genetic Toxicity

Little information has been published on the genotoxicity of *Aspergillus*-related chemicals, and none is available for *Aspergillus* conidia. Fumagillin, an antibiotic secreted by *Aspergillus*, has been tested in the form of fumagillin dicyclohexylamine salt for genotoxicity in vitro and in vivo. In vitro tests showed dose-related increases in structural chromosomal aberrations in human peripheral blood lymphocytes treated over a dose range of $0.34-9.20 \mu$ g/mL in a 1:1 water-sugar syrup vehicle.⁶⁸ Over this same dose range, these authors also reported significant, dose-related increases in micronucleated cells. The absolute increases in micronucleated cells were small (ranging from 0.62% in the control cultures to 0.89% at the highest concentration tested), however, and unlikely to be of biological significance, in contrast with the significant increases seen in the chromosome aberration assay. The dicyclohexylamine salt may itself possess genotoxic activity, having been reported to induce chromosomal aberrations in vitro,⁷⁵ thus confounding the interpretation of the genotoxicity test data reported for the fumagillin salt. In vivo, increases in micronuclei and chromosomal aberrations, along with cytostatic effects in bone marrow cells, were reported in BALB/c mice following administration of 25, 50, or

75 mg/kg fumagillin dicyclohexylamine salt in a water-sugar syrup once daily for 7 days via gavage. 76

Study Rationale

Fungi were nominated to NTP for comprehensive toxicity studies due to continued public health concern about mold exposures in damp indoor environments or following natural disasters. NIOSH, in collaboration with NTP, utilized an AGS (Figure 3) that has enabled the production of a homogenous bioaerosol for delivery of fungal particles to mice housed in a multi-animal exposure chamber. The design and fabrication of the chamber allows inhalation exposures to test articles that simulate natural human exposures. *A. fumigatus* was selected as the initial test article for this series of inhalation toxicity studies given prevalence of the species in the environment, importance as an opportunistic pathogen, and occupational relevance as a contaminant in the biowaste industry.

Materials and Methods

Procurement and Characterization

Culture of Aspergillus fumigatus

Aspergillus fumigatus (NIH Strain B-5233) was acquired from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC[®] 13073TM). The strain was grown in bulk according to the culture methods presented in Appendix A. Fungal stock suspensions used throughout the study were prepared in sterile water and mixed with an equal volume of autoclaved 50% glycerol. The *A. fumigatus* suspensions were then transferred and stored at -80° C in 0.5 mL aliquots containing 25% glycerol to ensure the stability of the *A. fumigatus* strain.

Individual stock suspension aliquots were used weekly to inoculate two malt extract agar (MEA) plates for the cultivation of A. fumigatus according to the methods presented in Appendix A. Following 7-10 days of culture, A. fumigatus spores were liberated from individual MEA culture plates at weekly intervals using 2 mL of sterile water. The spore suspension was used to inoculate 10 g of autoclaved brown rice contained in a sterile petri dish with 7.5×10^6 A. fumigatus spores. A total of 15 petri dishes were inoculated each week. The rice culture plates were disturbed 1-2 times a day to prevent rice aggregation. Following 10-14 days of growth, the A. fumigatus-laden rice cultures were divided into two groups destined to become the heatinactivated particle control and viable A. fumigatus test article. The A. fumigatus heat-inactivated spore exposure served as a biological particle control, as fungal spore germination has been identified in National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) laboratory studies to be an important component associated with the pulmonary immune response to A. fumigatus.¹⁸⁻²⁰ A. fumigatus cultures for the heat-inactivated particle control groups were transferred to quartz plates and autoclaved for 15 minutes at 121°C according to the method in Appendix A. The plates for both exposure groups were then transferred to the NIOSH Inhalation Facility and stored in a desiccator for 3-4 days prior to study animal exposures.

Quality Assurance

Quality assurance and quality control of viable *A. fumigatus* consisted of testing cultures each week using internal transcribed spacer gene sequencing. This method allowed the amplification and detection of potentially contaminating mycobiota sources as described in Appendix A. The majority of identified fungal DNA belonged to *A. fumigatus* with no contaminating fungi detected in the viable test article and very little contaminating DNA detected in the heat-inactivated particle control. Cultures were also tested weekly to ensure reproducibility and production of nonviable *A. fumigatus* spores (Appendix A). Heat inactivation resulted in an average of 99.87% reduction in *A. fumigatus* spore viability throughout the course of the study (Table A-1).

Test Article Generation and Exposure System

As a part of an ongoing partnership with the National Toxicology Program (NTP), NIOSH initiated a series of pilot studies to develop and characterize an exposure system capable of simulating natural indoor and occupational fungal exposure. From these studies, the opportunistic fungal pathogen, *A. fumigatus*, was selected as a model organism due to its

widespread exposure potential in the biowaste industry, the production of respirable unicellular asexual spores, and the lack of available toxicity data. Previous animal models of fungal exposure have instilled or directly aspirated animals with protein extracts or spores washed in a buffered solution. Although these studies have provided initial insight into innate and adaptive pulmonary immune responses, they do not simulate fungal exposure in indoor, outdoor, or occupational environments. Unlike other microbial contaminants, fungi are viable organisms that grow as saprophytes in the environment and that produce a range of bioaerosols, including spores, hyphae, and submicron fragments.³ Fungal bioaerosols are usually dry with the outer cell wall components intact. Immersion of spores and hyphal fragments in buffered solution may modify the outer cell wall, solubilizes outer cell wall antigens, and in some cases, may result in spore metabolic activation and germination prior to exposure of the animals. Each of these parameters could modulate toxicological responses to fungal particles following instillation or aspiration.

To control for these potentially confounding variables, NIOSH developed a computer-controlled acoustical generation system (AGS) that allows the aerosolization of dry fungal conidia (spores) into a chamber with the aim of replicating natural environmental exposures. Figure 3A shows the AGS based on a modified acoustically powered particle (Pitt-3) generator. The Pitt-3 generator, originally described by Weyel et al.,⁷⁷ was purchased from the University of Pittsburgh and evaluated under conditions recommended by Frazer et al.⁷⁸ The system was then fitted with a computer controller, and a number of design modifications were made^{79; 80} for use by NIOSH to study the health effects caused by the inhalation of a wide variety of occupationally relevant dusts. In 2009, the AGS was used as the foundation for a new and improved system for dispersing nanomaterials,⁷⁷ which was subsequently modified for fungal spore aerosolization as described by Buskirk et al.¹⁸ Fungi are grown on rice, a natural substrate, which is then placed on a rubber membrane in the AGS and aerosolized using acoustical energy. This method of fungal spore aerosolization mimics natural fungal exposures in the environment and enables the production of a homogenous spore suspension within the chamber (Figure 3B, Figure 3C). The AGS is linked to a multi-animal nose-only exposure chamber (Figure 3A). NIOSH has used this chamber in previous animal model studies that assessed diisocyanate exposures. The exposure chamber consists of a vertical cylindrical tower with animal tubes that radially project outward from the tower (Figure 3A). As spores are aerosolized in the exposure chamber, the mass concentration of spores can be monitored in real time and used to estimate the number of spores deposited within the animal's lung as described by Buskirk et al.¹⁸

To date, NIOSH has conducted several pilot studies that have characterized the aerosolization, deposition, and pulmonary immune responses to the heat-inactivated particle control and viable *A. fumigatus*. In these studies, reproducible growth of *A. fumigatus* on autoclaved rice was achieved, and test articles were generated by the AGS (Figure 3B, Figure 3C). Aerodynamic and microscopic analysis of the aerosolized *A. fumigatus* indicated the production of a respirable homogenous spore suspension (Figure 3B) with no ultrastructural changes (Figure 3C). Deposition studies then confirmed that *A. fumigatus* spores localized to the upper and lower respiratory airways of mice. The AGS and nose-only chamber were then used in proof-of-concept studies to determine an optimal dose for subsequent NIOSH and NTP studies evaluating dry *A. fumigatus* spores.¹⁸ The pilot studies used a modified local lymph node assay to evaluate potential sensitization following exposures of approximately 1 hour per day, two times per week for 4 weeks. At a pulmonary deposition of 1×10^6 spores, viable *A. fumigatus* induced body

weight loss >10% and induced sensitization demonstrated by a 10-fold change in lymphocyte proliferation compared to the air control group in the pilot study. At 1×10^4 spores, the test article marginally induced sensitization at the requisite stimulation index of 10. Repeated exposures at 1×10^5 spores induced significant sensitization without body weight loss. An estimated pulmonary deposition of 1×10^5 spores was then selected as the optimal dose for all future NIOSH pulmonary immunology and NTP toxicology studies of *A. fumigatus*.



Figure 3. Illustration Showing the Acoustical Generator Nose-only Exposure System and *Aspergillus fumigatus* Particle Characterization

TEM = transmission electron microscope; SEM = scanning electron microscope. (A) HEPA-filtered supply air is directed into the acoustical generator, which vibrates at a designated frequency to form fungal spore aerosols from the fungus-coated rice grains. The fungal aerosol is directed into a nose-only chamber, and then the air is filtered before being sent into the exhaust system. A light-scattering instrument (DataRAM4; ThermoElectron Co., Franklin, MA) attached to the computer estimated the real-time aerosol mass concentration. This value was multiplied by a scale factor to determine the real-time number of spores deposited in the mouse lung based on the previously measured aerosol size distribution and a custom lung-deposition model. The software used that value to alter the amplitude of the speaker signal during exposures to obtain the desired chamber mass concentration. (B) The aerodynamic particle size distribution produced by the acoustical generator as measured with an aerodynamic particle sizer is shown (APS; TSI Inc., Shoreview, MN); $2-5 \mu m$ is the aerodynamic diameter of single or double aggregate *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia. (C) Field emission SEM image is shown of *A. fumigatus* fungal conidia deposited on a polycarbonate filter sampled from the animal's breathing zone in the nose-only chamber.

Aerosolized viable *A. fumigatus* and the heat-inactivated particle control were delivered to male and female B6C3F1/N mice housed in a multi-animal nose-only exposure chamber via the AGS

(Figure 3A). Animals were exposed two times per week for 3 months via inhalation. In addition, an air control group received the same HEPA-filtered air that was being used to deliver viable *A. fumigatus*, and the heat-inactivated particle control group was exposed as previously described.¹⁸

Inhalation exposures were achieved by weighing and then placing the mice in a custom built nose-only multi-animal exposure carousel that was connected to the AGS (Figure 3A) as described in McKinney et al.⁸¹ Mice were placed in random pods for each exposure to minimize the effects of small concentration differences observed within individual ports. Although the nose-only carousel houses up to 24 pods (Figure 3A), only 20 pods (10 male and 10 female mice) were used during each exposure. Additional ports served as sample ports for the collection and analysis of test articles. During exposures, air control and exposure animals were placed on different exposure carousels located in the same inhalation exposure room.

The B6C3F1/N mice were exposed to viable A. fumigatus or the heat-inactivated particle control until the DataRAM software estimated that a total of approximately 1×10^5 spores had been deposited within the lungs during the 1-hour exposure session. Figure 4 shows the estimated pulmonary deposition following each exposure for the duration of the study. The AGS successfully generated the aerosolized test article and was able to reproduce it over the course of this study (Figure 4). It is important to note that an inherent variability in the sporulation of the test article will always exist when working with biological organisms. In addition, heat inactivation via autoclaving can potentially result in some of the organism sticking to the rice, which will make the aerosolization of the heat-inactivated test articles more difficult compared to the viable test articles. The estimation software used a mouse-lung-deposition model developed by the NIOSH Inhalation Facility, which was based on deposition measurements from Raabe et al.⁸² During viable A. fumigatus or heat-inactivated particle control exposures, lung-deposition calculations were achieved using real-time DataRAM mass concentration measurements and a previously described scaling factor that estimated the number of spores deposited in the lungs of mice in real time.^{18; 19} The integrated value of mass deposition per unit time was calculated throughout the exposures. The AGS automatically turned off when the desired total spore deposition had been delivered to the mice; however, the mice continued to receive HEPA-filtered humidified (approximately 40% RH) air supplied at a flow rate of 6 L/minute until 60 minutes had been reached. The desired spore concentration for the viable A. fumigatus was usually reached more quickly than for the heat-inactivated particle control spores, but no exposure was longer than 60 minutes. Each exposure corresponded to a 60-minute average mass concentration of approximately 10 mg/m³. Gravimetric filters were also collected during each exposure to continually monitor and adjust the DataRAM calibration. Air control mice received HEPA-filtered air supplied to the chamber at the same flow rate (6 L/minute) and time (60 minutes) as A. fumigatus-exposed mice. All environmental conditions were kept constant in each carousel between control and exposed (viable A. fumigatus and heat-inactivated particle control) animals.



Figure 4. Estimated Pulmonary Deposition of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores for Each Exposure over the Course of the Three-month Study

Values represent the number of spores estimated to deposit in the lung for viable *A. fumigatus* (solid circles) and heat-inactivated particle control (open circles) exposure groups.

Animal Source

Male and female B6C3F1/N mice (n = 20/exposure group and 20 sentinel mice) were obtained via an NTP liaison from the NTP colony maintained at Taconic Biosciences, Inc. (Germantown, NY).

Animal Welfare

Animal care and use were in accordance with the Public Health Service Policy on Humane Care and Use of Animals. The NIOSH Inhalation Facility is an environmentally controlled barrier facility that is fully accredited by AAALAC. Studies were approved by the NIOSH Animal Care and Use Committee and conducted in accordance with all NIOSH animal procedures and policies.

Three-month Study

Mice were approximately 5–6 weeks old on receipt. The animals were weighed, distributed randomly into groups of approximately equal initial mean body weights, and assigned to viable *A. fumigatus*, heat-inactivated particle control, or air control groups. Mice were initially

identified via tail marking, using a permanent marker and a consecutive numbering system. Animals that weighed more or less than 10% of the mean of the group were placed in the sentinel group (n = 20). At 4 weeks and at the end of the study, serologic analyses for bacterial and viral pathogens were performed on 10 male and 10 female sentinel mice using the protocol of the NIOSH Sentinel Animal Program (Appendix D). Before the study, the mice were acclimated to the NIOSH animal facility for a minimum of 15 days. Then, to reduce potential stress from exposures, the mice were acclimated to the housing units used for the exposures (nose-only carousel) for 1 week (two 1-hour acclimations) before the initial fungal exposure. Study mice were placed individually in the carousel housing units (pods), and humidified HEPA-filtered air was supplied to the chamber for 1 hour on 2 separate days during the week before the initial exposures. After acclimation was complete and before the exposures began, the mice were tattooed using a consecutive numbering system.

Male and female B6C3F1/N mice were randomly assigned to viable *A. fumigatus*, heat-inactivated particle control, and air control groups. Using a modified NTP protocol, groups of 10 male and 10 female mice were placed in the exposure units on the carousel on the same 2 days of the week for 26 exposures (3 months). Male and female mice were exposed for 1 hour per day to 10 mg/m³ (resulting lung dose = 1×10^5) viable *A. fumigatus* spores, 10 mg/m³ (resulting lung dose = 1×10^5) heat-inactivated *A. fumigatus* conidia (particle control), or HEPA-filtered air (air control) that was delivered through the AGS into the nose-only exposure chamber at a flow rate of 6 L/minute. This estimated dose was also used in companion studies that evaluated pulmonary immunological responses to *A. fumigatus* spores.^{20; 47}

Following acclimation and exposures, the animals were transferred from the individual carousel housing pods to a standard cage environment located in an adjoining room within the facility. Male and female mice were housed in HEPA-filtered ventilated polycarbonate cages on autoclaved hardwood chip bedding. Male B6C3F1/N mice were individually housed during acclimation and the life phases of the study due to social incompatibilities, whereas female mice were housed in groups of five. The ambient temperature of the animal facility was maintained between 67°F and 76°F, and the relative humidity ranged between 20% and 75% (Table 1). The light/dark cycle was maintained at 12-hour intervals. Mice were provided feed and autoclaved tap water ad libitum, except when housed in the pods during acclimation or exposures. Sentinel mice selected during the acclimation period were housed within the same room and were free of viral and bacterial pathogens (Appendix D).

Study animals were weighed upon initial receipt, and body weights were recorded weekly until the end of the study. Clinical observations were recorded daily for the duration of the study, once a day (morning) on nonexposure days, and twice a day (morning/afternoon) on exposure days. Information about the study design, facilities, and animal maintenance are provided in Table 1. The report on feed composition is provided in Appendix C.

At the completion of the 3-month study, the mice were injected intraperitoneally with a lethal dose of sodium pentobarbital (100–300 mg/kg). Peripheral blood for hematology and micronuclei determination was obtained via cardiac puncture. Whole blood (a minimum of 600 μ L) was collected in tubes containing potassium ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, and 400 μ L was immediately processed for hematology using a ProCyte Dx hematology analyzer (IDEXX Laboratories, Inc., Westbrook, ME). Table 1 lists the parameters measured. A minimum

of 200 µL of blood was immediately refrigerated and shipped to Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC (ILS; Research Triangle Park, NC) for micronuclei determination.

Necropsies were performed at the NIOSH site by Battelle staff (Columbus, OH) in random order on all animals surviving to terminal sacrifice. The organs weighed at terminal necropsy included the left and right epididymis, heart, left and right kidney, liver, lungs, left and right ovary, left and right testis, and thymus. Bilateral organs were weighed and recorded separately. At necropsy, the tissues in Table 1 were examined in situ for gross lesions, removed, and then fixed and preserved in 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF). Exceptions included the eyes and testes (epididymis and vaginal tunics of testes), which were initially fixed in Davidson's solution and modified Davidson's solution, respectively, then transferred into 10% NBF. The collected and fixed tissues were then shipped overnight to the Battelle facility and further processed and trimmed, embedded in paraffin, sectioned at a thickness of 5 μ m, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Histological sections of aorta, gallbladder, heart, liver, lung (all five lobes), bronchial lymph node, and spleen were stained with Grocott's methenamine silver (GMS) stain for fungal elements. Battelle laboratory pathologists conducted a complete histopathological examination on all air control, heat-inactivated particle control, and viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice. Table 1 lists the tissues and organs that were examined.

After a review of the laboratory reports and selected histopathology slides by a quality assessment (QA) pathologist, the findings and reviewed slides were submitted to an NTP Pathology Working Group (PWG) coordinator for a second independent review. Any inconsistencies in the diagnoses made by the study laboratory and QA pathologist were resolved by the NTP pathology peer-review process. Final diagnoses for reviewed lesions represent a consensus of the PWG or a consensus between the study laboratory pathologist, NTP pathologist, QA pathologist, and the PWG coordinator. Details of these review procedures have been described, in part, by Maronpot and Boorman⁸³ and Boorman et al.⁸⁴

Table 1. Experimental Design and Materials and Methods in the Three-month Inhalation Study of
Aspergillus fumigatus Spores

Three-month Study				
Study Laboratories				
National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (Morgantown, WV) Battelle (Columbus, OH)				
Strain and Species				
B6C3F1/N mice				
Animal Source				
Taconic Biosciences, Inc. (Germantown, NY)				
Time Held before Studies				
20 days				
Average Age When Studies Began				
8 weeks				
Date of First Exposure				
September 15, 2014				

Three-month Study

Duration of Exposure

3 months

Date of Last Exposure

December 9, 2014

Necropsy Date

December 10, 2014

Average Age at Necropsy

21 weeks

Size of Study Groups

10 males and 10 females

Method of Distribution

Animals were distributed randomly into groups of approximately equal initial mean body weights.

Animals per Cage

1 (male), 5 (females)

Method of Animal Identification

Tail tattoo

Diet

Irradiated NTP-2000 wafers (Zeigler Brothers, Inc., Gardners, PA), available ad libitum, changed at least weekly

Water

Autoclaved tap water (Morgantown, WV municipal supply) provided in water bottles, available ad libitum

Cages

HEPA-filtered, ventilated polycarbonate cages, in filtered and ventilated racks (Lab Products Inc, Seaford, DE). Cages that housed three or more female mice were changed weekly. Cages that housed two mice or fewer (males) were changed every other week.

Bedding

Autoclaved hardwood chip bedding (Teklad Certified Sani-Chips[®]; Envigo, Madison, WI); irradiated crinkle cut craft paper provided for nesting/enrichment (The Andersons, Inc.; Maumee, OH), changed with cage changes.

Animal Room Environment

Temperature: $71.31^{\circ}F \pm 1.44^{\circ}F$ (min: $67.42^{\circ}F$; max. $75.17^{\circ}F$) Relative Humidity: $45.76\% \pm 11.49\%$ (min: 22.09%; max: 74.55%) Room fluorescent light: 12 hours/day Room air changes: 10-15/hour

Test Article

Aspergillus fumigatus (A. fumigatus) spores: untreated (viable) or heat-inactivated particle controls NIH Strain B-5233; Aspergillus fumigatus Fresenius, anamorph (ATCC[®] 13073TM)

Three-month Study

Exposure Concentrations

Estimated lung depositions:

Air control: 0 (HEPA-filtered air only)

Heat-inactivated particle control: 1×10^5 nonviable *A. fumigatus* spores (exposure chamber mass concentration: 10 mg/m^3)

Test article: 1×10^5 viable A. fumigatus spores (exposure chamber mass concentration: 10 mg/m^3)

Type and Frequency of Observation

Observed once daily on nonexposure days (morning) and twice daily on exposure days (morning/afternoon). Clinical findings were recorded at each observation and at study termination. Animals were weighed initially and then weekly until the end of the study.

Method of Euthanasia

Intraperitoneal injection of a lethal dose of sodium pentobarbital (100–300 mg/kg; Fatal Plus, Vortech Pharmaceuticals, Dearborn, MI) followed by exsanguination via cardiac puncture

Necropsy

Necropsies were performed on all study mice. Organs weighed were epididymis (left and right), heart, kidneys (left and right), liver, lungs, ovaries (left and right), testes (left and right), and thymus.

Hematology

Blood was collected from all surviving study mice via cardiac puncture at study termination. Hematological analyses included hematocrit, erythrocyte count, reticulocyte count, hemoglobin, mean cell volume, mean cell hemoglobin, mean cell hemoglobin concentration, platelet count, and leukocyte count and differential.

Histopathology

Complete histopathology was performed on all study mice. In addition to gross lesions and tissue masses, the following tissues were examined: adrenal gland, aorta, bone marrow, brain, esophagus, eye, femur, gallbladder, Harderian gland, heart, intestine (large and small), kidney, larynx, liver, lung, lymph nodes (bronchial, mandibular, mediastinal, mesenteric), mammary gland, nose, pancreas, pancreatic islets, parathyroid gland, pituitary gland, salivary glands, skin, spleen, stomach, thymus, thyroid gland, trachea, and urinary bladder. Other male tissues examined included the epididymis, preputial gland, prostate gland, seminal vesicle, and testes. Other female tissues examined included the cervix, clitoral gland, ovary, uterus, and vagina.

Statistical Analysis

Calculation and Analysis of Nonneoplastic Lesion Incidences

The incidences of nonneoplastic lesions are presented as numbers of animals bearing such lesions at a specific anatomic site and the numbers of animals with that site examined microscopically. Fisher's one-sided exact test,⁸⁵ a procedure that uses the overall proportion of affected animals, was used to determine significance between all pairs of the three exposure groups.

Analysis of Continuous Variables

Two approaches were employed to assess the significance of pairwise comparisons between dosed and control groups in the analysis of continuous variables. Organ and body weight data, which historically have approximately normal distributions, were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance with post-hoc Tukey HSD test for multiple comparisons between all pairs of the three exposure groups. Hematology data, which have typically skewed distributions, were analyzed using the nonparametric multiple comparison method of Dunn.⁸⁶ Prior to statistical analysis, extreme values identified by the outlier test of Dixon and Massey⁸⁷ were examined by NTP personnel, and implausible values were eliminated from the analysis.

Quality Assurance Methods

The 3-month study was conducted in compliance with U.S. Food and Drug Administration Good Laboratory Practice Regulations whenever possible.⁸⁸ In addition, the 3-month study reports were audited retrospectively by an independent QA contractor against study records submitted to the NTP Archives. Separate audits covered completeness and accuracy of the pathology data, pathology specimens, final pathology tables, and a draft of this NTP Toxicity Study Report. Audit procedures and findings are presented in the reports and are on file at the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences. The audit findings were reviewed and assessed by NTP staff, and all comments were resolved or otherwise addressed during the preparation of this Toxicity Report.

Genetic Toxicology

The genetic toxicity of *A. fumigatus* was assessed by testing the ability of an *A. fumigatus* extract to increase the frequency of micronucleated erythrocytes in mouse peripheral blood. The protocol for the micronucleus assay and the results are given in Appendix B.

The genetic toxicity studies have evolved from an earlier effort by NTP to develop a comprehensive database that would facilitate critical anticipation of a chemical's carcinogenicity in experimental animals, using the results from several in vitro and in vivo short-term tests that measure functionally distinct genotoxicity endpoints. The short-term tests were originally developed to clarify proposed mechanisms of chemical-induced DNA damage based on the relationship between electrophilicity and mutagenicity⁸⁹ and the somatic mutation theory of cancer.^{90; 91} Of note, however, is that not all cancers arise through genotoxic mechanisms.

Peripheral Blood Micronucleus Test

Micronuclei (literally "small nuclei" or Howell-Jolly bodies) are biomarkers of induced structural or numerical chromosomal alterations and are formed when acentric fragments or whole chromosomes fail to incorporate into either of two daughter nuclei during cell division.^{95;} ⁹⁶ The predictivity for carcinogenicity of a positive response in acute in vivo bone marrow chromosome aberration or micronucleus tests appears to be less than that in the *Salmonella* test.^{97; 98} However, clearly positive results in long-term peripheral blood micronucleus tests have high predictivity for rodent carcinogenicity; a weak response in one sex only or negative results in both sexes in this assay do not correlate well with either negative or positive results in rodent carcinogenicity studies.⁹⁹ Because of the theoretical and observed associations between induced genetic damage and adverse effects in somatic and germ cells, the determination of in vivo genetic effects is important to the overall understanding of the risks associated with exposure to a particular chemical. The protocol for these studies and the results are given in Appendix B.

Results

Data Availability

The National Toxicology Program (NTP) and the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) evaluated all study data. Data relevant for evaluating toxicological findings are presented here. All study data are available in the NTP Chemical Effects in Biological Systems (CEBS) database: <u>https://doi.org/10.22427/NTP-DATA-TOX-100</u>.¹⁰⁰

Three-month Study

All male mice survived to the end of the study. Two female mice, one in the air control group and one in the heat-inactivated particle control group, died on day 73 and day 84, respectively. Both mice were found dead when removed from nose-only pods following exposure. Gross examination showed discoloration of the lungs, but the cause of death could not be determined (Appendix E).

Final survival and body weight data are shown in Table 2. Terminal mean body weights of male and female mice exposed to viable *A. fumigatus* spores were not significantly different from the air control groups or the heat-inactivated particle control groups, nor were terminal mean body weights significantly different between the heat-inactivated particle control groups and air control groups. The body weight gain among groups of both male and female mice over the course of the study was similar, as illustrated in Figure 5. Clinical observations collected throughout the duration of the study revealed no remarkable findings (Appendix E).

Exposure Agent	Survival	Initial Body Weight (g)	Final Body Weight (g)	Change in Body Weight (g)	Final Weight Relative to Air Controls (%)
Male					
Air Control	10/10	25.7 ± 0.4	31.8 ± 0.7	6.0 ± 0.6	_
Heat-inactivated Particle Control	10/10	25.7 ± 0.5	32.1 ± 0.8	6.3 ± 0.7	101
Viable A. fumigatus	10/10	26.4 ± 0.7	30.8 ± 1.2	4.3 ± 0.6	97
Female					
Air Control	9/10 ^b	20.4 ± 0.4	26.6 ± 0.9	6.2 ± 0.5	_
Heat-inactivated Particle Control	9/10 ^c	20.9 ± 0.5	26.7 ± 0.8	6.0 ± 0.5	101
Viable A. fumigatus	10/10	20.8 ± 0.3	25.8 ± 1.0	5.0 ± 0.9	97

Table 2. Summary of Survival and Mean Body Weights of Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores^a

^aWeights and weight changes are presented as mean ± standard error. One-way analysis of variance was conducted, and no significant differences were observed between groups.

^bDay of death: 73.

^cDay of death: 84.



Figure 5. Growth Curves for Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores

Data points represent mean body weight in grams, and error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean for male (A) and female (B) mice. Open circle: air control; open triangle: heat-inactivated particle control; open square: viable *A. fumigatus*.

Aspergillus fumigatus, NTP TOX 100

Absolute lung weights were significantly increased in viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice compared to the air control groups (males: 43% and females: 68%) and compared to the heat-inactivated particle control groups (males: 36% and females: 52%) (Table 3). Similarly, mean relative lung weights of mice exposed to viable *A. fumigatus* were also significantly increased in male (47% and 45%) and female (75% and 59%) mice relative to the air control and heat-inactivated particle control groups, respectively (Table 3). The increases in absolute and relative lung weight between viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed and air control mice correlated with several histopathological lesions in the lungs of exposed mice.

	Air Control	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
Male			
n	10	10	10
Necropsy Body Wt. (g)	31.8 ± 0.7	32.1 ± 0.8	30.8 ± 1.2
Lung			
Absolute (g)	0.21 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.01	$0.30 \pm 0.01^{\textit{**}^{\#\#}}$
Relative (mg/g) ^c	6.71 ± 0.26	6.81 ± 0.27	$9.89 \pm 0.60^{\textit{*}^{\textit{\#}}}$
Female			
n	9	9	10
Necropsy Body Wt. (g)	26.6 ± 0.9	26.7 ± 0.8	25.8 ± 1.0
Lung			
Absolute (g)	0.19 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.01	$0.32\pm 0.01^{\textit{*}^{\textit{\#}}}$
Relative (mg/g)	7.17 ± 0.15	7.90 ± 0.35	$12.53 \pm 0.66^{**^{\#\#}}$

Table 3. Summary of Select Organ Weights and Organ-Weight-to-Body-Weight Ratios for Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores^{a,b}

**Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.01$.

^{##}Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.01$.

^aData are presented as mean \pm standard error.

^bStatistical analysis performed using one-way analysis of variance with post-hoc Tukey HSD test for all pairwise comparisons. ^cRelative organ weights (organ-weight-to-body-weight ratios) are given as mg organ weight/g body weight.

A minimal (<4%) but statistically significant increase in the erythrocyte count in the female viable *A. fumigatus* group relative to the heat-inactivated particle control group was observed (Appendix E). There were no other changes in the female erythron and no changes observed in the male erythron (Appendix E). The minimal change in the female erythrocyte count was not considered related to exposure.

Relative to the air control groups, the neutrophil count was significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed male mice (Table 4). In addition, the total leukocyte, neutrophil, lymphocyte, monocyte, and eosinophil counts were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus* male mice compared to the heat-inactivated particle control group.
	Air Control	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
Male			
n	10	10	10
Leukocytes $(10^3/\mu L)$	3.47 ± 0.16	2.87 ± 0.23	$4.32 \pm 0.37^{\#\!\#}$
Neutrophils $(10^3/\mu L)$	0.56 ± 0.04	0.49 ± 0.04	$0.97 \pm 0.10^{*^{\#\#}}$
Lymphocytes ($10^{3}/\mu$ L)	2.79 ± 0.14	2.28 ± 0.21	$3.07\pm0.26^{\#}$
Monocytes $(10^3/\mu L)$	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	$0.07\pm 0.03^{\#\!\#}$
Eosinophils (10 ³ /µL)	0.10 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.00	$0.20\pm 0.03^{\#\!\#}$
Female			
n	8	9	9
Leukocytes $(10^3/\mu L)$	2.94 ± 0.33	2.85 ± 0.22	3.91 ± 0.42
Neutrophils $(10^3/\mu L)$	0.39 ± 0.05	0.43 ± 0.04	0.62 ± 0.07
Lymphocytes (10 ³ /µL)	2.47 ± 0.27	2.32 ± 0.20	3.07 ± 0.35
Monocytes $(10^3/\mu L)$	0.03 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.04
Eosinophils (10 ³ /µL)	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.02

Table 4. Summary of Select Hematology Data for Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores^{a,b}

*Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.05$.

[#]Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.05$.

^{##}Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.01$.

^aData are presented as mean \pm standard error.

^bStatistical analysis performed by the Dunn (pairwise) test.

Gross pathology findings can be found in Appendix E. Enlarged gray bronchial lymph nodes were identified in 5/10 females in the viable *A. fumigatus* group. This observation corresponded histologically to hyperplasia (either lymphocyte hyperplasia, plasma cell hyperplasia, or both). One female in the heat-inactivated particle control group and one female air control mouse, both of which were found dead after exposure, had red discoloration of the lungs. Overall, no gross lesions were identified in any of the other organs evaluated in male or female study groups.

The incidences of nonneoplastic lesions were increased in the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice compared to the heat-inactivated particle control or air control groups. The incidences of nonneoplastic lesions were increased in the lung of heat-inactivated particle control-exposed mice compared to the air control groups (Table 5, Table 6, Table 7; Appendix E).

In the larynx of males and females, the incidences of squamous metaplasia of the epiglottis were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus* groups relative to the air control groups and the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 5). One female in the viable *A. fumigatus* group had an ulcer in the epithelium of the larynx, and another female in that group had hyperplasia of the squamous epithelium of the larynx (Table 5). Although not significantly increased, these lesions may have been related to exposure to viable *A. fumigatus*.

Microscopically, squamous metaplasia in the larynx was seen as replacement of the normal ciliated epithelium at the base of the epiglottis in level I sections by nonkeratinized squamous epithelium (Figure 6). The severity of squamous metaplasia was minimal in all groups where it occurred and affected <50% of the epithelium at the base of the epiglottis. The ulcer was characterized by a focal loss of the squamous epithelium overlying the arytenoid cartilage in a level II section of the larynx, and the squamous epithelium hyperplasia consisted of a thickening of the squamous epithelium overlying the arytenoid cartilage in level I.

	Air Control	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
Male ^b	10	10	10
Epiglottis, Metaplasia, Squamous ^c	3 (1.0) ^d	0	9**## (1.0)
Female	10	9	10
Epiglottis, Metaplasia, Squamous	0	1 (1.0)	9**##(1.0)
Epithelium, Ulcer	0	0	1 (1.0)
Squamous Epithelium, Hyperplasia	0	0	1 (1.0)

Table 5. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Larynx in Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores^a

**Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.01$.

^{##}Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.01$.

^aStatistical analysis performed by the one-sided Fisher's exact test.

^bNumber of animals examined microscopically.

°Number of animals with lesion.

^dAverage severity grade of observed lesion in affected animals: 1 = minimal; 2 = mild; 3 = moderate; 4 = marked.



Figure 6. Histopathology Images of Larynxes Following Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air or Viable *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores for Three Months (H&E)

Larynx from an air control female mouse (A) and a viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female mouse (B) at the base of the epiglottis (40x magnification). Squamous metaplasia at the base of the epiglottis of the larynx was seen as replacement of the normal ciliated epithelium (A, air control) by nonkeratinized squamous epithelium (B, arrowheads).

The lungs of the male and female viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice were characterized by numerous nonneoplastic lesions compared to those of the air control mice and the heat-inactivated particle control mice (Table 6). Nonneoplastic lesions were also observed in the heat-inactivated particle control mice at a higher incidence than in the air control mice.

In the lungs, the incidences of artery hypertrophy, medial, were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed males and females relative to either the air control groups or the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Mild to moderate artery hypertrophy, medial, was present in all male and female viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice and was absent in all air control and heat-inactivated particle control mice (Table 6). Artery hypertrophy, medial, was characterized histologically by circumferential thickening of the tunica media of small and medium arterioles and arteries by concentric layers of hypertrophied and hyperplastic smooth muscle cells (Figure 7). Lesion severity was graded according to the proportion of the pulmonary arteries affected as follows: minimal severity (1) was <10% of the arteries affected, mild (2) was 10%-40% of the arteries affected, moderate (3) was 41%-75% of the arteries affected, and marked (4) was >75% of the arteries affected.

The incidences of bronchiolar epithelium hyperplasia were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed males and females relative to either the air control groups or the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Minimal bronchiolar epithelium hyperplasia was seen in 9/10 males and 8/10 females exposed to viable *A. fumigatus*, and in 1/10 heat-inactivated particle control females (Table 6). Bronchiolar epithelium hyperplasia consisted of crowded, plump, often piled (2–5 cell layers thick), cuboidal, ciliated epithelial cells lining terminal bronchioles with occasional small papillary projections and extension into adjacent alveolar septa (Figure 7). Bronchiolar epithelium hyperplasia was considered to be of minimal severity (1) as it involved <10% of the bronchioles in all instances.

The incidences of chronic active inflammation in the lungs were significantly increased in the viable A. fumigatus-exposed males and females relative to either the air control groups or the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Mild to moderate chronic active inflammation in the lungs was present in all male and female mice exposed to viable A. fumigatus spores and was absent in all air control mice and all but one of the females in the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Microscopically, chronic active inflammation was seen as predominantly perivascular infiltrates of lymphocytes and abundant neutrophils and alveolar macrophages (Figure 7). The perivascular infiltrates frequently extended into surrounding alveolar septa and spaces and occasionally into vessel walls. The associated alveolar macrophages usually exhibited pale to brightly eosinophilic cytoplasm, which sometimes contained intracytoplasmic cell debris and/or variably shaped eosinophilic material. Multinucleated giant cells were often present in small numbers. The severity of chronic active inflammation in the lung was graded based upon the extent of lung involvement as follows: minimal severity (1) was <10% of the lung affected, mild (2) was 10%–40% of the lung affected, moderate (3) was 41%–75% of the lung affected, and marked (4) was >75% of the lung affected. This chronic active inflammation likely corresponded with the increased numbers of circulating neutrophils observed in the viable A. fumigatus groups compared to the air control groups (Table 4).

Chronic inflammation was seen in the lungs of 3/10 males and 7/10 females in the heat-inactivated particle control groups. In females, this chronic inflammation was significantly

increased in heat-inactivated particle control groups relative to the air control groups (Table 6). This inflammation differed in character and severity from the chronic active inflammation observed in all viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed males and females and the single heat-inactivated particle control female. Microscopically, chronic inflammation in the lung was minimal to mild in severity and consisted of infiltrates of lymphocytes that were often perivascular but frequently extended into surrounding alveoli, along with rare neutrophils and variable numbers of alveolar macrophages. The macrophages associated with the chronic inflammation in the heat-inactivated particle control mice were mononuclear and contained abundant, sometimes foamy, pale tan cytoplasm.

The incidences of bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue (BALT) lymphocyte hyperplasia in the lung were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed males and females relative to the air control groups, but not when compared with the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Similarly, the incidences of BALT lymphocyte hyperplasia were significantly increased in the heat-inactivated particle control-exposed males and females relative to the air control groups (Table 6). Minimal to mild BALT lymphocyte hyperplasia was present in all males and females exposed to the viable *A. fumigatus* and in 7/10 males and 8/10 females in the heat-inactivated particle control groups—but in none of the air control mice (Table 6). BALT lymphocyte hyperplasia was characterized microscopically by an increase in the size and/or number of lymphoid aggregates of BALT compared to that observed in animals in the concurrent air control groups. Minimal severity was characterized by two or more small lymphoid aggregates.

The incidences of goblet cell metaplasia in the lung were significantly increased in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed males and females relative to the air control groups and the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 6). Minimal to mild goblet cell metaplasia was present in all males and females exposed to viable *A. fumigatus*, as well as a single female in the heat-inactivated particle control group (Table 6). Goblet cell metaplasia affected most to all of the epithelium in an individual airway and was characterized by increased numbers of goblet cells in the epithelium lining the bronchi and/or bronchioles (Figure 7). Because this change often affected both bronchi and bronchioles in any given animal, a subsite was not used in the diagnosis. The severity of this lesion was graded based upon the proportion of airways affected as follows: minimal severity (1) was <10% of the airways affected, mild (2) was 10%–40% of the airways affected, moderate (3) was 41%–75% of the airways affected, and marked (4) was >75% of the airways affected.

	Air Control	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
n	10	10	10
Male ^b			
Artery, Medial, Hypertrophy ^c	0	0	$10^{**^{\#\#}} (2.1)^d$
Bronchiole, Epithelium, Hyperplasia	0	0	9** ^{##} (1.0)
Inflammation, Chronic	0	3 (1.7)	0
Inflammation, Chronic Active	0	0	10**## (2.7)
BALT, Lymphocyte, Hyperplasia	0	7** (1.0)	10** (1.0)
Goblet Cell, Metaplasia	0	0	10**## (1.9)
Lung, Fungus	0	5*	1
Lung, BALT, Fungus	0	4*	0
Female			
Artery, Medial, Hypertrophy	0	0	10**## (2.6)
Bronchiole, Epithelium, Hyperplasia	0	1 (1.0)	8**## (1.0)
Inflammation, Chronic	0	7** (1.9)	0
Inflammation, Chronic Active	0	1 (3.0)	10**## (2.8)
BALT, Lymphocyte, Hyperplasia	0	8** (1.0)	10** (1.4)
Goblet Cell, Metaplasia	0	1 (1.0)	$10^{**^{\#\#}}(1.8)$
Lung, Fungus	0	0	10**##
Lung, BALT, Fungus	0	1	0

Table 6. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Lung in Male and Female Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores^a

*Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.05$.

**Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.01$. ##Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.01$.

BALT = bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue.

^aStatistical analysis performed by the one-sided Fisher's exact test.

^bNumber of animals examined microscopically.

^cNumber of animals with lesion.

^dAverage severity grade of observed lesion in affected animals: 1 = minimal; 2 = mild; 3 = moderate; 4 = marked.



Figure 7. Histopathology Images of Lungs Following Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air or Viable *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores for Three Months (H&E)

Lung sections from air control female mice (A, C, E) and viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female mice (B, D, F). At low magnification (4x), arterioles and inflammation are prominent in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mouse lung (B) compared to the air control mouse lung (A). Compare the normal arterioles (arrows) with thin vessel walls in the lung from an air control female (C) to the arterioles with medial hypertrophy (arrows) in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female (D). In the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female, there is circumferential thickening of the tunica media of arteries (arrows) by concentric layers of hypertrophied and hyperplastic smooth muscle cells, typically with narrowing of the vascular lumen (D) at 20x magnification. The viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female mouse shows chronic active inflammation, seen as perivascular infiltrates of lymphocytes and neutrophils with neutrophilic infiltrates extending into vessel walls and histiocytic infiltrates in surrounding alveoli (white asterisk) (D). Compared to normal bronchioles in an air control female mouse (E), bronchiole epithelium hyperplasia (black arrowheads) and goblet cell metaplasia (white arrows) were seen in bronchioles of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice (F) (40x magnification).

Histopathological analysis of lymph nodes showed no visible lesions in the mediastinal, mesenteric, or mandibular lymph nodes (Appendix E). In the bronchial lymph node, the incidences of lymphocyte hyperplasia and plasma cell hyperplasia were significantly increased in the viable A. fumigatus-exposed males and females relative to either the air control groups or the heat-inactivated particle control groups (Table 7). Bronchial lymph node lymphocyte hyperplasia occurred in 6/9 male and 9/10 female viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice and 1/10 heat-inactivated particle control female mice (Table 7). Bronchial lymph node lymphocyte hyperplasia was seen microscopically as increased numbers of lymphocytes within any of the compartments of the lymph node (Figure 8). Although the follicles were almost always involved, increased lymphocytes usually were present in the other compartments, such as the paracortex and medullary cords. Lymphocyte hyperplasia was considered minimal when the follicles, medullary cords, and/or paracortical regions were expanded by mature, medium-sized lymphocytes. Mild lymphocyte hyperplasia included the additional feature of small germinal centers rimmed by a prominent, but narrow, band of small mature lymphocytes. Moderate and marked hyperplasia were not seen in this study. The lesions of lymphocyte hyperplasia and plasma cell hyperplasia were often, but not always, present in the same bronchial lymph node. Lymphocyte hyperplasia and plasma cell hyperplasia accounted for the macroscopic enlargement of the bronchial lymph nodes observed in some viable A. fumigatus-exposed female mice.

Bronchial lymph node plasma cell hyperplasia occurred in 5/9 male and 8/10 female viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice (Table 7). Bronchial lymph node plasma cell hyperplasia was characterized by increased numbers of plasma cells within the medullary cords, sinuses, and/or paracortical regions that exceeded the number present in the bronchial lymph nodes of animals in the concurrent air control groups (Figure 8). Plasma cell hyperplasia was considered minimal when the sinuses, medullary cords, and/or paracortical regions were expanded by small clusters of plasma cells. Mild plasma cell hyperplasia included the features of minimal severity with the additional feature of continuous clusters of 15–25 cells. Increasing expansion by plasma cells would be a feature of moderate and marked infiltrates.

Additionally, minimal granulomatous inflammation of the bronchial lymph node was observed in a single viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed male mouse, which may have been related to exposure (Table 7).

	Air Control	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
Male ^b	7	9	9
Lymphocyte, Hyperplasia ^c	0	0	$6^{*^{\#\#}}(1.8)^{d}$
Plasma Cell, Hyperplasia	0	0	5* [#] (1.6)
Inflammation, Granulomatous	0	0	1 (1.0)
Lymph Node, Bronchial, Fungus	0	2	0
Female	8	10	10
Lymphocyte, Hyperplasia	0	1 (1.0)	9 ** ^{##} (1.8)
Plasma Cell, Hyperplasia	0	0	8**## (1.5)
Lymph Node, Bronchial, Fungus	0	0	1

 Table 7. Incidences of Nonneoplastic Lesions of the Bronchial Lymph Node in Male and Female

 Mice in the Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores^a

*Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.05$.

**Statistically significant pairwise difference from air control at $p \le 0.01$.

[#]Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.05$.

^{##}Statistically significant pairwise difference from heat-inactivated particle control at $p \le 0.01$.

^aStatistical analysis performed by the one-sided Fisher's exact test.

^bNumber of animals examined microscopically.

^cNumber of animals with lesion.

^dAverage severity grade of observed lesion in affected animals: 1 = minimal; 2 = mild; 3 = moderate; 4 = marked.



Figure 8. Histopathology Images of Lungs with Bronchial Lymph Nodes Following Inhalation of HEPA-filtered Air or Viable *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores for Three Months (H&E)

Bronchial lymph node from an air control female mouse (A) and a viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed female mouse (B) showing enlargement of the bronchial lymph node (2x magnification). At high magnification (40x; C, black box inset in B), there is lymphocyte hyperplasia, which was generally seen as increased numbers of lymphocytes in multiple compartments, including the cortex, follicles, paracortex, and medullary cords. In the medullary cords at high magnification (40x; D, white box inset in B), there is plasma cell hyperplasia. The lesions of "hyperplasia, plasma cell" and "hyperplasia, lymphocyte" were often (as here), but not always, diagnosed in the same bronchial lymph node.

Fungal organisms were not observed in H&E-stained sections. The presence of fungal spores in histological sections of lung, BALT, bronchial lymph node, liver, spleen, gallbladder, heart, and aorta was evaluated using Grocott's methenamine silver (GMS)-stained sections. There were no gross or histological lesions observed in the standard three sections of the nasal cavity taken in NTP studies; therefore, GMS staining was not conducted on any nose tissue sections. GMS-positive structures consistent with fungal organisms (conidia) were observed in GMS-stained sections of lung, BALT, and bronchial lymph node in some mice from the heat-inactivated particle control groups and the viable *A. fumigatus* groups (Table 6, Table 7; Figure 9). No fungal organisms were observed with either stain in the liver, spleen, aorta, or heart. In viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed groups, fungal organisms were observed in the lung in 1/10 males and 10/10 females and in the bronchial lymph node in 1/10 females (Table 6, Table 7). In the heat-inactivated particle control groups, fungal organisms were observed in the lung in 5/10 males, in the BALT of the lung in 4/10 males and 1/10 females, and in the bronchial lymph node in 2/9

males (Table 6, Table 7). The fungal organisms were consistent with conidia, were 2–3 μ m in diameter, and were present in extremely small numbers (i.e., <10 spores/section). They were most often intracellular within alveolar macrophages or multinucleated giant cells, but occasional extracellular spores in alveolar spaces were observed (Figure 9). Very rarely did the conidia appear to be germinating (Figure 9B).



Figure 9. Images of Fungal Spores Observed within the Lungs of Mice Following Inhalation of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores for Three Months

Grocott's methenamine silver-positive structures consistent with *A. fumigatus* conidia were rarely observed, but, when present, were seen free within alveoli or within alveolar macrophages (A; heat-inactivated particle control male lung, 40x). Rarely, the fungal organisms appeared to be germinating (B; arrow, viable *A. fumigatus* female lung, 40x). Very low numbers of conidia were seen in bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue (C; heat-inactivated particle control male, 40x).

Genetic Toxicology

No increases in the frequencies of micronucleated polychromatic and normochromatic erythrocytes were observed in the peripheral blood of male or female B6C3F1/N mice exposed to either viable *A. fumigatus* or the heat-inactivated particle control spores relative to the air control mice (Table B-2). These negative results in the micronucleus test indicate an absence of exposure-induced chromosomal damage in progenitor erythrocytes in the bone marrow.

Discussion

Aspergillus fumigatus is a saprophytic fungal species with a worldwide distribution.^{22; 23} As referenced in Figure 2, the asexual life cycle predominates and involves the production of long chains of unicellular spores (conidia).^{21; 22} Abiotic or biotic disturbance to the asexual reproductive structures results in the aerosolization of respirable spores into the environment.^{21; 22} *A. fumigatus* is thermotolerant and can grow and persist in a broad range of soil temperatures (12°C–65°C).²³ Because of these growth parameters, *A. fumigatus* has become an occupational hazard within the biowaste and general waste management industries.^{25; 26} Viable *A. fumigatus* concentrations as high as 1×10^6 colony-forming units (CFU) per m³ have been reported in working environments within the biowaste industry.²⁷⁻²⁹ Although relative abundance and concentrations might not be as high as those identified in the biowaste industry, *A. fumigatus* spore exposures occur daily, and estimates of 100 conidia/m³ indoor exposure have been reported.^{22-24; 42} In damp indoor environments, exposure may be elevated due to fungal contamination of cellulose-based building materials with subsequent sporulation.⁴³

To date, no reference limits for A. fumigatus have been proposed by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) or the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists. Several European governmental agencies have suggested acceptable levels of A. fumigatus, including 500 CFU/m³ (Environment Agency of the United Kingdom) and an occupational exposure limit (OEL) of 50,000 CFU/m³ for mesophilic fungal contaminants (Germany's Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health).²⁹ Despite the number of exposure assessment studies and focus on A. fumigatus as an opportunistic fungal pathogen, limited datasets have characterized the toxicity of inhalation exposures to A. fumigatus. The present report describes a 3-month inhalation toxicology study of B6C3F1/N mice exposed to A. fumigatus viable conidia, with both heat-inactivated conidia as a particle control and an air-only control group. An estimated pulmonary deposition of 1×10^5 A. fumigatus spores twice per week was selected for a 3-month pulmonary immunology study,^{19; 20} as well as the 3-month study presented in this report. The estimated lung burden in the mice in these studies would be equivalent to that of a worker breathing a constant workplace air concentration of 4.7×10^6 spores/m³ (4.3 μ g/m³) for 1 week, working 8 hours per day for 5 days or equivalent to a worker breathing 3.2×10^4 spores/m³ (0.029 µg/m³) for 8 hours per day, 5 days per week over a 40-year working career. This daily exposure is comparable to exposures in various occupational environments,⁴⁵ including the biowaste industry,^{27; 28} and is comparable to the German OEL of 50,000 CFU/m³ proposed for mesophilic fungal contaminants.²⁹

Inhalation exposure for 3 months to an estimated pulmonary dose of 1×10^5 viable *A. fumigatus* conidia did not elicit overt toxicity or result in >10% body weight loss compared to the air control group. There was evidence that *A. fumigatus* conidia produced histological changes in the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. Although gross lesions were limited to the bronchial lymph nodes, a variety of nonneoplastic lesions were present in these organs in increased incidences in mice exposed to the viable *A. fumigatus* spores compared to mice in the heat-inactivated particle control groups and air control groups. Consistent lesions in the epithelium of the larynx at the base of the epiglottis were observed in both sexes of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice. Low incidences of epithelial lesions were additionally reported overlying the arytenoid cartilage. Changes were characterized by squamous metaplasia of the larynx epithelium that included the loss of cilia and replacement of the cuboidal to columnar

cells by flattened stratified squamous epithelium. This type of metaplastic epithelial change is a biological response to chronic irritation or injury. Similar pathological changes in laryngotracheal histology have been described in mice that were exposed to *A. fumigatus* via an orotracheal tube.¹⁰¹ Although human cases of tracheobronchial and laryngeal aspergillosis have also been reported in the literature,¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁸ fungal hyphae were not observed in the larynx histological sections in this study, indicating that there was no active laryngeal fungal growth or infection in the animals exposed to the viable *A. fumigatus*.

Statistically significant increases in absolute and relative lung weights were observed for both sexes exposed to viable *A. fumigatus* compared to air control mice. The increased lung weights corresponded histologically to chronic active inflammation that involved perivascular infiltrates that often extended into immediately surrounding pulmonary interstitial tissue as well as intraalveolar infiltration of macrophages. These data corresponded to the increase in peripheral blood neutrophil counts in males in the viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed group compared to the air control group. Increased lung weights were also associated with bronchiolar epithelial hyperplasia, bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue hyperplasia, and medial hypertrophy of arteries and arterioles.

In addition to the increased neutrophil count observed in the male viable A. fumigatus-exposed group compared to the air control group, the total white blood cell and differential counts were increased in the A. fumigatus-exposed group when compared to the heat-inactivated particle control group. The relevance of the observed hematologic changes between the male heat-inactivated particle control group and A. fumigatus-exposed group was questionable, however, due to the exposure-related changes observed in the heat-inactivated control group. Exposure of the male mice to heat-inactivated particles caused histopathological changes, although at a lower incidence or severity compared to the A. fumigatus-exposed group. In addition, lung inflammation was observed in the male heat-inactivated particle control group, although it differed from the A. fumigatus-exposed group-chronic inflammation versus chronic active inflammation (i.e., more neutrophils), respectively. A closer look at the heat-inactivated particle control male hematologic data revealed that the white blood cell count was lower than the air control group, although this was not statistically significant. The reduction in white blood cell count was driven mostly by a decrease in the lymphocyte count; the eosinophil count was also lower. The combination of these changes is suggestive of a chronic stress leukogram¹⁰⁹ (i.e., exposure to the heat-inactivated particles could have caused chronic stress to the mice). In the A. fumigatus-exposed group, the inflammatory effects of exposure to the viable A. fumigatus outweighed any potential hematologic changes that one might observe from chronic stress of exposure. For these reasons, the observed hematologic pairwise changes between the male heat-inactivated particle control group and A. fumigatus-exposed group were considered to be due to biological variability and not an exposure-related effect.

Several rodent inhalation models of *A. fumigatus* pulmonary immunological responses have been published, reporting similar lung histopathological results, including increases in epithelial thickness, goblet cell metaplasia, and peribronchial collagen deposition compared to air control mice.^{110; 111} The hybrid B6C3F1/N mouse strain used in this exposure study is resistant to disease and has low spontaneous disease rates compared with other strains and hybrids.¹¹² The B6C3F1/N mouse strain has been widely used to study systemic toxicological responses and was selected for consistency with other National Toxicology Program (NTP) toxicology studies. Although the female parent of the hybrid B6C3F1/N mouse strain, C57BL/6, is Th1-biased,

histopathological results of the airways are consistent with previously observed histopathology following fungal exposure in other strains of mice including BALB/cJ (Th2-biased)^{18; 19} and ddY mice.¹¹³ The histological results of the current study agree with an earlier pulmonary immunology study conducted in BALB/cJ mice that used the same pulmonary dosing and exposure schedule, including the heat-inactivated particle control exposure.¹⁹ Histopathological analysis revealed fungal exposure-dependent pulmonary inflammation, cellular infiltration, goblet cell metaplasia, and peribronchial and perivascular collagen deposition. Flow cytometry analysis revealed significantly increased numbers of CD4+ T cells expressing cytokines that were associated with an allergic phenotype (Th2; IL-5 and IL-13). Following 13 weeks of A. fumigatus exposure, serum concentrations of immunoglobulin G (IgG1) and immunoglobulin E (IgE) were significantly increased in mice exposed to viable conidia compared to mice exposed to the heat-inactivated particle control or to air only.²⁰ Additionally, T cells (IFN- γ + or IL-17A+) that co-expressed IL-13 were observed in the airways of viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice compared to air control mice.¹⁹ Examination of the expressed genes confirmed expression of the *Il4*, *Il13*, and *Il33* genes in mice exposed to the viable *A. fumigatus*.⁴⁷ That preliminary study demonstrated a novel mechanism for immune responses to inhaled A. fumigatus and indicated the presence of germinating conidia in mice exposed to viable spores. The emergence of hyphae from germinating spores in the viable A. fumigatus group was hypothesized to lead to an allergic phenotype because similar immune responses were not observed in the heat-inactivated particle control group.¹⁹ Croston and colleagues also showed germinating A. fumigatus spores to be associated with C-type lectin domain family 7 member A surface receptors (Dectin-1; increased expression of *Clec7a*), which were predicted to interact with the cytokines IL-13 and IL-33.⁴⁷ Spore germination may also be a precursor for the recruitment of neutrophils as shown by Mircescu et al.¹¹⁴ and may explain the higher numbers of neutrophils in the lungs of viable A. fumigatus-exposed male mice compared to air control mice. Similarly, germinating A. fumigatus conidia expose cell wall (1-3)- β -D glucan that binds to the pattern recognition receptor, Dectin-1, mediating downstream NF-KB, proinflammatory cytokines, and reactive oxygen species by monocyte-derived macrophages.¹¹⁵ In the current study, germinating A. fumigatus were directly observed (Figure 9B), albeit in very low numbers, and the neutrophilic perivascular infiltrates were only present in the mice exposed to viable A. fumigatus.

The data from the current study demonstrate that exposure to viable A. fumigatus was associated with the thickening of small- to medium-sized arteriole walls (medial hypertrophy) within the lungs of all exposed male and female mice. In male and female viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice, arterial medial hypertrophy was mild to moderately severe and affected approximately 10% to 75% of pulmonary arterioles. Remodeling of pulmonary arteries is characterized by the hypertrophy and hyperplasia of vascular smooth muscle and is defined as a lesion associated with pulmonary arterial hypertension¹¹⁶ that can affect pulmonary arterial pressure.¹¹⁷ Previous studies have shown that arteriole hypertrophy/hyperplasia is commonly associated with chronic inflammation such as hypersensitivity pneumonitis or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and immune-mediated processes have been implicated. Daley and colleagues showed that mice intranasally primed with A. fumigatus antigen developed thickening in the small- to mediumsized arteriole walls¹¹⁶ similar to that observed in male and female viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice in the current study. Although the specific A. fumigatus antigen remains uncharacterized, a Th2 antigen-mediated response characterized by an influx of CD4+ T cells, IL-4 and IL-13, and additional effectors into the airways are criteria identified for the induction of arteriole hyperplasia.^{116; 118} In addition, Shreiner and colleagues identified a potential role of IL-10,

independent of CD4+ T cells, as a driver of pulmonary arterial remodeling following repeated intranasal exposure to *A. fumigatus* conidia.¹¹⁹ Subchronic inhalation exposure to viable *A. fumigatus* conidia that resulted in the same allergic phenotype as previously reported¹⁹ is likely to be involved in the mechanism for the medial hypertrophy observed in all male and female mice exposed to viable *A. fumigatus* in the current study. A previously published study examining the pulmonary immune response following subchronic *A. fumigatus* exposure showed that inhalation of heat-inactivated particle controls did not result in medial hyperplasia (hypertrophy). As the responses following exposure to *A. fumigatus* are thought to be driven by the release of high molecular weight antigens during metabolic activation of spores, the lack of viability of the particle control or the destruction of antigens during the heat-inactivation process are variables that could contribute to the absence of medial hyperplasia/hypertrophy in the heat-inactivated particle control-exposed mice.²⁰ Subchronic studies that exposed mice to 1×10^4 *Stachybotrys chartarum* spores also showed similar arteriole lesions¹¹³ that depended on Th2-associated inflammation.¹²⁰

Increased incidences of lymphocyte hyperplasia and plasma cell hyperplasia were observed in the bronchial lymph nodes of viable *A. fumigatus*-exposed mice compared to air control mice. These histopathological lesions were associated with gross enlargement of the affected bronchial lymph nodes. In a previous subchronic *A. fumigatus* inhalation study conducted by NIOSH, gross enlargement and expansion of lymph node cellularity was also observed.¹⁹ Flow cytometry analysis revealed lymph node preparations to consist primarily of B lymphocytes, CD4+ T cells, and CD8+ T cells that produced cytokine profiles similar to those obtained from bronchoalveolar lavage fluid.¹⁹ Mice that were intratracheally exposed to *A. fumigatus* conidia and hyphae also showed the expansion of thoracic lymph node cellularity that was in part due to the migration of dendritic cells with phagocytized *A. fumigatus* to peripheral lymph nodes for antigen presentation.¹²¹ The associated plasma cell infiltrates that expanded the medullary and subcapsular sinuses, as well as the medullary cords, supported bronchial lymph node enlargement through the proliferation of B cell lymphocytes in response to *A. fumigatus* antigen presentation.

A. fumigatus produces secondary metabolites with characterized toxicological effects. 55-57 One observation of the current study was metaplasia of the larynx epithelium, loss of cilia, and marked airway inflammation in viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice. Collectively, these results suggest the involvement of secreted A. fumigatus secondary metabolites, such as gliotoxin, helvolic acid, or fumagillin, that have been shown previously to mediate direct tissue injury and remodeling. Previous studies have demonstrated cytotoxicity of A. fumigatus preparations to lung cells that included inhibition of cilia beat frequency, epithelial damage, and induction of cell apoptosis.^{54; 61; 64; 122} Similarly, tremorgenic bioactive alkaloids, including fumitremorgin, tryptoquivaline, and verruculogen, demonstrated in previous studies of A. fumigatus, 58; 70; 71 were not characterized in viable A. fumigatus preparations from the current study. Clinical observations associated with these secondary metabolites, however, also were not observed in mice exposed to the viable A. fumigatus conidia. Several of the secondary metabolites are additionally capable of adducting DNA, which could result in downstream genotoxic effects. In the current study, tests for micronucleus induction in bone marrow proerythrocytes showed no increases in the frequency of micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes or micronucleated normochromatic erythrocytes in the peripheral blood of mice exposed to viable A. fumigatus or to the heat-inactivated particle control, indicating an absence of induced chromosomal damage.

Although individual secondary metabolites were not investigated in this subchronic toxicity study, the results of previous studies suggest that in vivo germination of *A. fumigatus* spores following respiratory deposition may be a potential source of secondary metabolites with possible pulmonary and genotoxic effects.¹²³

Significant findings from the current 3-month inhalation study in B6C3F1/N mice included increased lung weights in viable A. fumigatus-exposed mice relative to the air control groups accompanied by increased incidence of nonneoplastic lesions. In males and females exposed to viable *A. fumigatus*, lesions were primarily restricted to the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. Laryngeal lesions consisted of squamous metaplasia of the epithelium localized at the base of the epiglottis. Lung histopathology findings included chronic active inflammation, medial hypertrophy of arteries and arterioles, goblet cell metaplasia, and bronchiolar epithelial hyperplasia. Lymphocyte hyperplasia and plasma cell hyperplasia were observed in lymph nodes. In male mice, the increased lung weights and observed histopathology were consistent with the increased circulating neutrophil counts compared with the air control groups. The results of the current 3-month toxicity study corroborate the results of a recent subchronic A. fumigatus pulmonary immunology study conducted by NIOSH with the same exposure system that showed Th2 antigen-mediated allergic inflammation in response to subchronic A. fumigatus inhalation exposure.^{19; 20} In the current study, NTP also provides evidence of medial hypertrophy of the pulmonary arterioles in A. fumigatus-exposed mice but not in heat-inactivated particle-exposed mice, which has been previously characterized to be mediated by an influx of CD4+ IL-13producing T cells. The results of the micronucleus test in peripheral blood of exposed mice were negative and demonstrated an absence of chromosomal damage. In conclusion, the results of the subchronic inhalation exposure of mice to viable spores of A. fumigatus provide evidence that the targets of A. fumigatus included the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. The magnitude of effects appeared to depend on the viability of A. fumigatus spores, with histopathology revealing enhanced toxicity with exposure to viable spores compared to heat-inactivated particle controls, possibly due to the germination of the viable spores.

Under the conditions of this 3-month study, target organs identified in B6C3F1/N mice following inhalation exposure to *A. fumigatus* spores were the larynx, lung, and bronchial lymph nodes. Significant differences were observed between viable *A. fumigatus* exposure and both air control and heat-inactivated particle control exposures. These results build on initial NIOSH pulmonary immunology studies using the same exposure parameters and demonstrate that the immunological responses and histopathology could be enhanced by the viability of the *A. fumigatus* spores.

References

1. Hawksworth DL. The magnitude of fungal diversity: The 1.5 million species estimate revised. Mycol Res. 2001; 105:1422-1432. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S0953756201004725</u>

2. Afanou KA, Straumfors A, Skogstad A, Nilsen T, Synnes O, Skaar I, Hjeljord L, Tronsmo A, Green BJ, Eduard W. Submicronic fungal bioaerosols: High-resolution microscopic characterization and quantification. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2014; 80(22):7122-7130. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.01740-14

3. Green BJ, Schmechel D, Summerbell RC. Aerosolized fungal fragments In: Adan O, Samson R, editors. Fundamentals of Mold Growth in Indoor Environments and Strategies for Healthy Living. Springer; 2011. p. 211-243.

4. Green BJ, Sercombe JK, Tovey ER. Fungal fragments and undocumented conidia function as new aeroallergen sources. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2005; 115(5):1043-1048. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2005.02.009

5. Green BJ, Tovey ER, Sercombe JK, Blachere FM, Beezhold DH, Schmechel D. Airborne fungal fragments and allergenicity. Med Mycol. 2006; 44 Suppl 1:S245-255. https://doi.org/10.1080/13693780600776308

6. Green BJ, Beezhold DH. Industrial fungal enzymes: An occupational allergen perspective. J Allergy. 2011; 2011:682574. <u>https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/682574</u>

7. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Update: Pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis among infants-Cleveland, Ohio, 1993-1996. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 1997; 46(2):33-35.

8. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Acute pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis among infants-Cleveland, January 1993-November 1994. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 1994; 43(48):881-883.

9. Calvo AM, Wilson RA, Bok JW, Keller NP. Relationship between secondary metabolism and fungal development. MMBR. 2002; 66(3):447-459. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/mmbr.66.3.447-459.2002</u>

10. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Update: Pulmonary hemorrhage/hemosiderosis among infants-Cleveland, Ohio, 1993-1996. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2000; 49(9):180-184.

11. Institute of Medicine (IOM). Damp indoor spaces and health. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2004.

12. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO guidelines for indoor air quality: Dampness and mould. Geneva: WHO Regional Office for Europe; 2009.

13. Jaakkola MS, Quansah R, Hugg TT, Heikkinen SA, Jaakkola JJ. Association of indoor dampness and molds with rhinitis risk: A systematic review and meta-analysis. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2013; 132(5):1099-1110.e1018. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaci.2013.07.028</u>

14. Mendell MJ, Mirer AG, Cheung K, Tong M, Douwes J. Respiratory and allergic health effects of dampness, mold, and dampness-related agents: A review of the epidemiologic evidence. Environ Health Perspect. 2011; 119(6):748-756. <u>https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1002410</u>

15. Quansah R, Jaakkola MS, Hugg TT, Heikkinen SA, Jaakkola JJ. Residential dampness and molds and the risk of developing asthma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2012; 7(11):e47526. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0047526</u>

16. Kanchongkittiphon W, Mendell MJ, Gaffin JM, Wang G, Phipatanakul W. Indoor environmental exposures and exacerbation of asthma: An update to the 2000 review by the Institute of Medicine. Environ Health Perspect. 2015; 123(1):6-20. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1307922

17. Mudarri DH. Valuing the economic costs of allergic rhinitis, acute bronchitis, and asthma from exposure to indoor dampness and mold in the US. J Environ Public Health. 2016; 2016:2386596. <u>https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/2386596</u>

18. Buskirk AD, Green BJ, Lemons AR, Nayak AP, Goldsmith WT, Kashon ML, Anderson SE, Hettick JM, Templeton SP, Germolec DR et al. A murine inhalation model to characterize pulmonary exposure to dry *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia. PLoS One. 2014; 9(10):e109855. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0109855

19. Nayak AP, Green BJ, Lemons AR, Marshall NB, Goldsmith WT, Kashon ML, Anderson SE, Germolec DR, Beezhold DH. Subchronic exposures to fungal bioaerosols promotes allergic pulmonary inflammation in naive mice. Clin Exp Allergy. 2016; 46(6):861-870. https://doi.org/10.1111/cea.12724

20. Nayak AP, Croston TL, Lemons AR, Goldsmith WT, Marshall NB, Kashon ML, Germolec DR, Beezhold DH, Green BJ. Aspergillus fumigatus viability drives allergic responses to inhaled conidia. Ann Allergy, Asthma Immunol. 2018; 121(2):200-210.e202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anai.2018.04.008

21. Sugui JA, Kwon-Chung KJ, Juvvadi PR, Latgé J-P, Steinbach WJ. *Aspergillus fumigatus* and related species. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2015; 5(2):a019786. <u>https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a019786</u>

22. Latgé J-P. Aspergillus fumigatus and aspergillosis. Clin Microbiol Rev. 1999; 12(2):310-350.

23. Kwon-Chung KJ, Sugui JA. *Aspergillus fumigatus*—what makes the species a ubiquitous human fungal pathogen? PLoS Pathog. 2013; 9(12):e1003743. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1003743

24. Brakhage AA, Langfelder K. Menacing mold: The molecular biology of *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Annu Rev Microbiol. 2002; 56(1):433-455. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.56.012302.160625

25. Viegas C, Faria T, dos Santos M, Carolino E, Gomes AQ, Sabino R, Viegas S. Fungal burden in waste industry: An occupational risk to be solved. Environ Monit Assess. 2015; 187(4):199. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-015-4412-y</u>

26. Gutarowska B, Skora J, Stepien L, Szponar B, Otlewska A, Pielech-Przybylska K. Assessment of microbial contamination within working environments of different types of composting plants. J Air Waste Manag Assoc. 2015; 65(4):466-478. https://doi.org/10.1080/10962247.2014.960954

27. van Kampen V, Sander I, Liebers V, Deckert A, Neumann HD, Buxtrup M, Willer E, Felten C, Jackel U, Klug K et al. Concentration of bioaerosols in composting plants using different quantification methods. Ann Occup Hyg. 2014; 58(6):693-706. https://doi.org/10.1093/annhyg/meu026

28. Clark CS, Rylander R, Larsson L. Levels of gram-negative bacteria, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, dust, and endotoxin at compost plants. Appl Environ Microbiol. 1983; 45(5):1501-1505. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.45.5.1501-1505.1983

29. Pearson C, Littlewood E, Douglas P, Robertson S, Gant TW, Hansell AL. Exposures and health outcomes in relation to bioaerosol emissions from composting facilities: A systematic review of occupational and community studies. J Toxicol Environ Health B Crit Rev. 2015; 18(1):43-69. https://doi.org/10.1080/10937404.2015.1009961

30. Fischer G, Muller T, Schwalbe R, Ostrowski R, Dott W. Species-specific profiles of mycotoxins produced in cultures and associated with conidia of airborne fungi derived from biowaste. Int J Hyg Environ Health. 2000; 203(2):105-116. <u>https://doi.org/10.1078/s1438-4639(04)70015-2</u>

31. Gladding TL, Gwyther CL. A study of the potential release of bioaerosols from containers as a result of reduced frequency residual waste collections. Sci Total Environ. 2017; 576:481-489. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.10.060

32. Viegas C, Faria T, Carolino E, Sabino R, Gomes AQ, Viegas S. Occupational exposure to fungi and particles in animal feed industry. Med Pr. 2016; 67(2):143-154. <u>https://doi.org/10.13075/mp.5893.00289</u>

33. Madsen AM, Tendal K, Schlunssen V, Heltberg I. Organic dust toxic syndrome at a grass seed plant caused by exposure to high concentrations of bioaerosols. Ann Occup Hyg. 2012; 56(7):776-788. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/annhyg/mes012</u>

34. Gerfaud-Valentin M, Reboux G, Traclet J, Thivolet-Bejui F, Cordier JF, Cottin V. Occupational hypersensitivity pneumonitis in a baker: a new cause. Chest. 2014; 145(4):856-858. <u>https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.13-1734</u>

35. Tinley PD, Eddy K, Collier P. Contaminants in human nail dust: An occupational hazard in podiatry? J Foot Ankle Res. 2014; 7(1):15. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1757-1146-7-15</u>

36. Sabino R, Faisca VM, Carolino E, Verissimo C, Viegas C. Occupational exposure to *Aspergillus* by swine and poultry farm workers in Portugal. J Toxicol Environ Health A. 2012; 75(22-23):1381-1391. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/15287394.2012.721170</u>

37. Saad-Hussein A, Morcos NY, Rizk SA, Ibrahim KS, El-Zaher NA, Moubarz G. *Aspergillus* hazardous problem in ceramic workers. Toxicol Ind Health. 2012; 28(10):886-893. https://doi.org/10.1177/0748233711425077 38. Makela R, Kauppi P, Suuronen K, Tuppurainen M, Hannu T. Occupational asthma in professional cleaning work: A clinical study. Occup Med. 2011; 61(2):121-126. https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqq192

39. Karvala K, Nordman H, Luukkonen R, Nykyri E, Lappalainen S, Hannu T, Toskala E. Occupational rhinitis in damp and moldy workplaces. Am J Rhinol. 2008; 22(5):457-462. https://doi.org/10.2500/ajr.2008.22.3209

40. Curtis L, Cali S, Conroy L, Baker K, Ou CH, Hershow R, Norlock-Cruz F, Scheff P. *Aspergillus* surveillance project at a large tertiary-care hospital. J Hosp Infect. 2005; 59(3):188-196. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2004.05.017</u>

41. Dutkiewicz J, Olenchock SA, Sorenson WG, Gerencser VF, May JJ, Pratt DS, Robinson VA. Levels of bacteria, fungi, and endotoxin in bulk and aerosolized corn silage. Appl Environ Microbiol. 1989; 55(5):1093-1099. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.55.5.1093-1099.1989</u>

42. Latgé J-P. The pathobiology of *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Trends Microbiol. 2001; 9(8):382-389. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-842X(01)02104-7</u>

43. Godish TJ, Godish DR. Mold infestation of wet spray-applied cellulose insulation. J Air Waste Manag Assoc. 2006; 56(1):90-95. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10473289.2006.10464434</u>

44. Burge HA, Solomon WR, Muilenberg ML. Evaluation of indoor plantings as allergen exposure sources. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 1982; 70(2):101-108. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-6749(82)90236-6</u>

45. Eduard W. Fungal spores: a critical review of the toxicological and epidemiological evidence as a basis for occupational exposure limit setting. Crit Rev Toxicol. 2009; 39(10):799-864. https://doi.org/10.3109/10408440903307333

46. Sporik RB, Arruda LK, Woodfolk J, Chapman MD, Platts-Mills TA. Environmental exposure to *Aspergillus fumigatus* allergen (Asp f I). Clin Exp Allergy. 1993; 23(4):326-331. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2222.1993.tb00330.x

47. Croston TL, Nayak AP, Lemons AR, Goldsmith WT, Gu JK, Germolec DR, Beezhold DH, Green BJ. Influence of *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia viability on murine pulmonary microRNA and mRNA expression following subchronic inhalation exposure. Clin Exp Allergy. 2016; 46(10):1315-1327. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/cea.12783</u>

48. Kramer MN, Kurup VP, Fink JN. Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis from a contaminated dump site. Am Rev Respir Dis. 1989; 140(4):1086-1088. https://doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm/140.4.1086

49. Poole CJ, Wong M. Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis in garden waste (compost) collectors--occupational implications. Occup Med. 2013; 63(7):517-519. https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqt097

50. Hagemeyer O, Bunger J, van Kampen V, Raulf-Heimsoth M, Drath C, Merget R, Bruning T, Broding HC. Occupational allergic respiratory diseases in garbage workers: Relevance of molds and actinomycetes. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2013; 788:313-320. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6627-3_42</u>

51. Madsen AM, Zervas A, Tendal K, Nielsen JL. Microbial diversity in bioaerosol samples causing ODTS compared to reference bioaerosol samples as measured using Illumina sequencing and MALDI-TOF. Environ Res. 2015; 140:255-267. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2015.03.027

52. Kodzius R, Rhyner C, Konthur Z, Buczek D, Lehrach H, Walter G, Crameri R. Rapid identification of allergen-encoding cDNA clones by phage display and high-density arrays. Comb Chem High Throughput Screen. 2003; 6(2):147-154. https://doi.org/10.2174/1386207033329751

53. Nierman WC, Pain A, Anderson MJ, Wortman JR, Kim HS, Arroyo J, Berriman M, Abe K, Archer DB, Bermejo C et al. Genomic sequence of the pathogenic and allergenic filamentous fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Nature. 2005; 438(7071):1151-1156. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04332</u>

54. Reijula K, Tuomi T. Mycotoxins of aspergilli: Exposure and health effects. Front Biosci. 2003; 8:s232-235. <u>https://doi.org/10.2741/978</u>

55. Bignell E, Cairns TC, Throckmorton K, Nierman WC, Keller NP. Secondary metabolite arsenal of an opportunistic pathogenic fungus. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 2016; 371(1709). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2016.0023

56. Inglis DO, Binkley J, Skrzypek MS, Arnaud MB, Cerqueira GC, Shah P, Wymore F, Wortman JR, Sherlock G. Comprehensive annotation of secondary metabolite biosynthetic genes and gene clusters of *Aspergillus nidulans*, *A. fumigatus*, *A. niger* and *A. oryzae*. BMC Microbiol. 2013; 13:91. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-13-91</u>

57. Kwon-Chung KJ, Sugui JA. What do we know about the role of gliotoxin in the pathobiology of *Aspergillus fumigatus*? Med Mycol. 2009; 47 Suppl 1:S97-103. https://doi.org/10.1080/13693780802056012

58. Fischer G, Muller T, Ostrowski R, Dott W. Mycotoxins of *Aspergillus fumigatus* in pure culture and in native bioaerosols from compost facilities. Chemosphere. 1999; 38(8):1745-1755. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0045-6535(98)00391-9

59. Frisvad J, Samson R. Chemotaxonomy and morphology of *Aspergillus fumigatus* and related taxa In: Samson R, Pitt J, editors. Modern Concepts in *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* Classification. Springer; 1990. p. 201-208.

60. Waring P, Beaver J. Gliotoxin and related epipolythiodioxopiperazines. Gen Pharmacol: Vasc Sys. 1996; 27(8):1311-1316. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/s0306-3623(96)00083-3</u>

61. Amitani R, Taylor G, Elezis E-N, Llewellyn-Jones C, Mitchell J, Kuze F, Cole PJ, Wilson R. Purification and characterization of factors produced by *Aspergillus fumigatus* which affect human ciliated respiratory epithelium. Infect Immun. 1995; 63(9):3266-3271. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.63.9.3266-3271.1995

62. Cole RJ, Cox RH. 11 - Epipolythiopiperazine-3,6-diones In: Cole RJ, Cox RH, editors. Handbook of Toxic Fungal Metabolites. San Diego: Academic Press; 1981. p. 569-613. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-179760-7.50016-4 63. Bünger J, Westphal G, Mönnich A, Hinnendahl B, Hallier E, Müller M. Cytotoxicity of occupationally and environmentally relevant mycotoxins. Toxicology. 2004; 202(3):199-211. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tox.2004.05.007

64. Gauthier T, Wang X, Dos Santos JS, Fysikopoulos A, Tadrist S, Canlet C, Artigot MP, Loiseau N, Oswald IP, Puel O. Trypacidin, a spore-borne toxin from *Aspergillus fumigatus*, is cytotoxic to lung cells. PLoS One. 2012; 7(2):e29906. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0029906

65. Deshpande S. Handbook of food toxicology. CRC Press.; 2002.

66. Dhumal SS, Salunkhe DK. Mycotoxins in foods In: Tu AT, editor. Handbook of Natural Toxins: Food Poisoning. 1992. p. 291.

67. Stevanović J, Stanimirović Z, Pejin II, Lazarević M. Monitoring of mitotic index and frequency of micronuclei in evaluation of genotoxic potential of fumagillin (dicyclohexylamine) in vivo. Acta Vet. 2006; 56(5-6):437-448. <u>https://doi.org/10.2298/AVB0606437S</u>

68. Stevanovic J, Stanimirovic Z, Radakovic M, Stojic V. In vitro evaluation of the clastogenicity of fumagillin. Environ Mol Mutagen. 2008; 49(8):594-601. https://doi.org/10.1002/em.20409

69. Fromme H, Gareis M, Völkel W, Gottschalk C. Overall internal exposure to mycotoxins and their occurrence in occupational and residential settings–An overview. Int J Hyg Environ Health. 2016; 219(2):143-165. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2015.11.004</u>

70. Feng Y, Holte D, Zoller J, Umemiya S, Simke LR, Baran PS. Total synthesis of Verruculogen and Fumitremorgin A enabled by ligand-controlled C–H borylation. J Am Chem Soc. 2015; 137(32):10160-10163. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.5b07154</u>

71. Watson DH, Moss MO. Toxic fungal metabolites in food. CRC Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr. 1985; 22(3):177-198. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398509527414</u>

72. Ueno Y, Hsieh DP. The toxicology of mycotoxins. CRC Crit Rev Toxicol. 1985; 14(2):99-132. <u>https://doi.org/10.3109/10408448509089851</u>

73. van Loevezijn A. Solid phase synthesis of fumitremorgin-type alkaloids based on cyclization/cleavage strategy. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: University of Amesterdam; 2002. https://pure.uva.nl/ws/files/3685409/20236_UBA002000834_06.pdf

74. Khoufache K, Puel O, Loiseau N, Delaforge M, Rivollet D, Coste A, Cordonnier C, Escudier E, Botterel F, Bretagne S. Verruculogen associated with *Aspergillus fumigatus* hyphae and conidia modifies the electrophysiological properties of human nasal epithelial cells. BMC Microbiol. 2007; 7(1):5. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-7-5</u>

75. Stoltz DR, Khera KS, Bendall R, Gunner SW. Cytogenetic studies with cyclamate and related compounds. Science (New York, NY). 1970; 167(3924):1501-1502. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.167.3924.1501 76. Stanimirovic Z, Stevanovic J, Bajic V, Radovic I. Evaluation of genotoxic effects of fumagillin by cytogenetic tests in vivo. Mutat Res. 2007; 628(1):1-10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2006.09.014

77. Weyel DA, Ellakkani M, Alarie Y, Karol M. An aerosol generator for the resuspension of cotton dust. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 1984; 76(3):544-547. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0041-008X(84)90359-4</u>

78. Frazer DG, Robinson VA, DeLong DS, Rose D, Tucker J, Weber KC, Olenchock SA, Jayaraman K. A system for exposing laboratory animals to cotton dust aerosol that is stabilized with feedback control In: Wakelyn PJ, Jacobs RR, editors. Proc 11th Cotton Dust Res Conf. Memphis, TN: National Cotton Council; 1987. p. 74-78.

79. Frazer DG, Robinson V, Olenchock SA, Hahon N, Barger M, Castranova V. Comparison of the guinea pig's physiological and cellular response to the respirable fraction of untreated, heat treated, microwave irradiated, and ethylene oxide treated DB 1/88 bulk cotton dust In: Wakelyn PJ, Jacobs RR, editors. Proc 15th Cotton Dust Res Conf. Memphis, TN: National Cotton Council; 1991. p. 246-251.

80. Frazer DG, Jones WG, Petsonk EL, Kullman GJ, Barger MW, Afshari A, Jones T, Castranova V. Organic dust exposure from compost handling: Response of an animal model. Am J Ind Med. 1993; 24(4):375-385. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ajim.4700240404</u>

81. McKinney W, Chen B, Frazer D. Computer controlled multi-walled carbon nanotube inhalation exposure system. Inhal Toxicol. 2009; 21(12):1053-1061. https://doi.org/10.1080/08958370802712713

82. Raabe OG, Al-Bayati MA, Teague SV, Rasolt A. Regional deposition of inhaled monodisperse coarse and fine aerosol particles in small laboratory animals. In: Inhaled Particles VI. 1988. p. 53-63. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-034185-9.50011-5</u>

83. Maronpot RR, Boorman GA. Interpretation of rodent hepatocellular proliferative alterations and hepatocellular tumors in chemical safety assessment. Toxicol Pathol. 1982; 10(2):71-78. https://doi.org/10.1177/019262338201000210

84. Boorman GA, Haseman JK, Waters MD, Hardisty JF, Sills RC. Quality review procedures necessary for rodent pathology databases and toxicogenomic studies: The National Toxicology Program experience. Toxicol Pathol. 2002; 30(1):88-92. https://doi.org/10.1080/01926230252824752

85. Gart JJ, Chu KC, Tarone RE. Statistical issues in interpretation of chronic bioassay tests for carcinogenicity. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1979; 62(4):957-974.

86. Dunn OJ. Multiple comparisons using rank sums. Technometrics. 1964; 6(3):241-252.

87. Dixon W, Massey F. Introduction to statistical analysis. 2nd ed. New York, NY: McGraw Hill; 1957. p. 145-147, 276-278, 412.

88. Code of Federal Regulations (CFR). 21:Part 58.

89. Miller JA, Miller EC. Ultimate chemical carcinogens as reactive mutagenic electrophiles In: Hiatt HH, Watson JD, Winsten JA, editors. Origins of Human Cancer. Cold Spring Harbor, NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory; 1977. p. 605-627.

90. Straus DS. Somatic mutation, cellular differentiation, and cancer causation. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1981; 67(2):233-241. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/67.2.233</u>

91. Crawford BD. Perspectives on the somatic mutation model of carcinogenesis In: Mehlman MA, Flamm WG, Lorentzen RJ, editors. Advances in Modern Environmental Toxicology Mechanisms and Toxicity of Chemical Carcinogens and Mutagens. Princeton, NJ: Princeton Scientific Publishing Co. Inc; 1985. p. 13-59.

92. Ashby J, Tennant RW. Definitive relationships among chemical structure, carcinogenicity and mutagenicity for 301 chemicals tested by the US NTP. Mutat Res. 1991; 257(3):229-306. https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1110(91)90003-E

93. Tennant RW, Margolin BH, Shelby MD, Zeiger E, Haseman JK, Spalding J, Caspary W, Resnick M, Stasiewicz S, Anderson B et al. Prediction of chemical carcinogenicity in rodents from in vitro genetic toxicity assays. Science. 1987; 236(4804):933-941. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.3554512

94. Zeiger E, Haseman JK, Shelby MD, Margolin BH, Tennant RW, Holden H. Evaluation of four in vitro genetic toxicity tests for predicting rodent carcinogenicity: Confirmation of earlier results with 41 additional chemicals. Environ Mol Mutagen. 1990; 16(S18):1-14. https://doi.org/10.1002/em.2850160502

95. Schmid W. The micronucleus test. Mutat Res. 1975; 31(1):9-15. https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1161(75)90058-8

96. Heddle JA, Hite M, Kirkhart B, Mavournin K, MacGregor JT, Newell GW, Salamone MF. The induction of micronuclei as a measure of genotoxicity. A report of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Gene-Tox Program. Mutat Res. 1983; 123(1):61-118. https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1110(83)90047-7

97. 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):160-179. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/em.2850210210</u>

98. Shelby MD, Witt KL. Comparison results from mouse bone marrow chromosome aberration and micronucleus tests. Environ Mol Mutagen. 1995; 25(4):302-313. https://doi.org/10.1002/em.2850250407

99. Witt KL, Knapton A, Wehr CM, Hook GJ, Mirsalis J, Shelby MD, MacGregor JT. Micronucleated erythrocyte frequency in peripheral blood of B6C3F(1) mice from short-term, prechronic, and chronic studies of the NTP carcinogenesis bioassay program. Environ Mol Mutagen. 2000; 36(3):163-194. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2280(2000)36:3<163::AID-EM1>3.0.CO;2-P</u>

100. National Toxicology Program (NTP). CEBS Data for Tox 100 - Aspergillis. Research Triangle Park, NC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health; 2020. <u>https://doi.org/10.22427/NTP-DATA-TOX-100</u>

101. Glaab T, Mitzner W, Braun A, Ernst H, Korolewitz R, Hohlfeld JM, Krug N, Hoymann HG. Repetitive measurements of pulmonary mechanics to inhaled cholinergic challenge in spontaneously breathing mice. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2004; 97(3):1104-1111. https://doi.org/10.1152/japplphysiol.01182.2003

102. Athanassiadou F, Kourti M, Papageorgiou T, Danielidis J. Invasive aspergillosis of the larynx in a child with acute lymphoblastic leukemia. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2005; 24(2):190-191. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000153171.16525.28

103. Barnes C, Berkowitz R, Curtis N, Waters K. *Aspergillus* laryngotracheobronchial infection in a 6-year-old girl following bone marrow transplantation. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2001; 59(1):59-62. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/s0165-5876(01)00429-3</u>

104. Bjorkholm M, Kalin M, Grane P, Celsing F. Long-term treatment of invasive sinus, tracheobroncheal, pulmonary and intracerebral aspergillosis in acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. Infection. 2012; 40(1):81-85. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-011-0158-9</u>

105. Kingdom TT, Lee KC. Invasive aspergillosis of the larynx in AIDS. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 1996; 115(1):135-137. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/s0194-5998(96)70149-3</u>

106. Nagasawa M, Itoh S, Tomizawa D, Kajiwara M, Sugimoto T, Kumagai J. Invasive subglottal aspergillosis in a patient with severe aplastic anemia: A case report. J Infect. 2002; 44(3):198-201. <u>https://doi.org/10.1053/jinf.2001.0935</u>

107. Ran Y, Lu Y, Cao L, Li C, Dai Y, Yang H, Liu Y, Bai H, Zhang C. Primary laryngeal aspergillosis related to oral sex? A case report and review of the literature. Med Mycol Case Rep. 2012; 2:1-3. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mmcr.2012.11.002

108. Richardson BE, Morrison VA, Gapany M. Invasive aspergillosis of the larynx: Case report and review of the literature. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 1996; 114(3):471-473. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0194-59989670221-8

109. Everds NE, Snyder PW, Bailey KL, Bolon B, Creasy DM, Foley GL, Rosol TJ, Sellers T. Interpreting stress responses during routine toxicity studies: A review of the biology, impact, and assessment. Toxicol Pathol. 2013; 41(4):560-614. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0192623312466452</u>

110. Hoselton SA, Samarasinghe AE, Seydel JM, Schuh JM. An inhalation model of airway allergic response to inhalation of environmental *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia in sensitized BALB/c mice. Med Mycol. 2010; 48(8):1056-1065. https://doi.org/10.3109/13693786.2010.485582

111. Samarasinghe AE, Hoselton SA, Schuh JM. A comparison between intratracheal and inhalation delivery of *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia in the development of fungal allergic asthma in C57BL/6 mice. Fungal Biol. 2011; 115(1):21-29. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.funbio.2010.09.013</u>

112. Innes JR, Ulland BM, Valerio MG, Petrucelli L, Fishbein L, Hart ER, Pallotta AJ, Bates RR, Falk HL, Gart JJ et al. Bioassay of pesticides and industrial chemicals for tumorigenicity in

mice: A preliminary note. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1969; 42(6):1101-1114. https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/42.6.1101

113. Ochiai E, Kamei K, Watanabe A, Nagayoshi M, Tada Y, Nagaoka T, Sato K, Sato A, Shibuya K. Inhalation of *Stachybotrys chartarum* causes pulmonary arterial hypertension in mice. Int J Exp Pathol. 2008; 89(3):201-208. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2613.2008.00585.x</u>

114. Mircescu MM, Lipuma L, van Rooijen N, Pamer EG, Hohl TM. Essential role for neutrophils but not alveolar macrophages at early time points following *Aspergillus fumigatus* infection. J Infect Dis. 2009; 200(4):647-656. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/600380</u>

115. Gersuk GM, Underhill DM, Zhu L, Marr KA. Dectin-1 and TLRs permit macrophages to distinguish between different *Aspergillus fumigatus* cellular states. J Immunol. 2006; 176(6):3717-3724. <u>https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.176.6.3717</u>

116. Daley E, Emson C, Guignabert C, de Waal Malefyt R, Louten J, Kurup VP, Hogaboam C, Taraseviciene-Stewart L, Voelkel NF, Rabinovitch M et al. Pulmonary arterial remodeling induced by a Th2 immune response. J Exp Med. 2008; 205(2):361-372. https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20071008

117. Vonk-Noordegraaf A, Haddad F, Chin KM, Forfia PR, Kawut SM, Lumens J, Naeije R, Newman J, Oudiz RJ, Provencher S et al. Right heart adaptation to pulmonary arterial hypertension: Physiology and pathobiology. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2013; 62(25, Supplement):D22-D33. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.10.027</u>

118. Ghosh S, Hoselton SA, Schuh JM. Allergic inflammation in *Aspergillus fumigatus*-induced fungal asthma. Curr Allergy Asthma Rep. 2015; 15(10):59. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s11882-015-0561-x</u>

119. Shreiner AB, Murdock BJ, Sadighi Akha AA, Falkowski NR, Christensen PJ, White ES, Hogaboam CM, Huffnagle GB. Repeated exposure to *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia results in CD4+ T cell-dependent and -independent pulmonary arterial remodeling in a mixed Th1/Th2/Th17 microenvironment that requires interleukin-4 (IL-4) and IL-10. Infect Immun. 2012; 80(1):388-397. <u>http://dx.doi.org.10.1128/iai.05530-11</u>

120. Nagayoshi M, Tada Y, West J, Ochiai E, Watanabe A, Toyotome T, Tanabe N, Takiguchi Y, Shigeta A, Yasuda T et al. Inhalation of *Stachybotrys chartarum* evokes pulmonary arterial remodeling in mice, attenuated by Rho-kinase inhibitor. Mycopathologia. 2011; 172(1):5-15. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11046-011-9400-3

121. Bozza S, Gaziano R, Spreca A, Bacci A, Montagnoli C, di Francesco P, Romani L. Dendritic cells transport conidia and hyphae of *Aspergillus fumigatus* from the airways to the draining lymph nodes and initiate disparate Th responses to the fungus. J Immunol. 2002; 168(3):1362-1371. <u>https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.168.3.1362</u>

122. Sutton P, Newcombe NR, Waring P, Mullbacher A. In vivo immunosuppressive activity of gliotoxin, a metabolite produced by human pathogenic fungi. Infect Immun. 1994; 62(4):1192-1198. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.62.4.1192-1198.1994</u>

123. Nieminen SM, Mäki-Paakkanen J, Hirvonen MR, Roponen M, von Wright A. Genotoxicity of gliotoxin, a secondary metabolite of Aspergillus fumigatus, in a battery of short-term test systems. Mutat Res. 2002; 520(1-2):161-170. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/s1383-5718(02)00202-4</u>

124. Witt KL, Livanos E, Kissling GE, Torous DK, Caspary W, Tice RR, Recio L. Comparison of flow cytometry-and microscopy-based methods for measuring micronucleated reticulocyte frequencies in rodents treated with nongenotoxic and genotoxic chemicals. Mutat Res. 2008; 649(1-2):101-113. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2007.08.004</u>

Appendix A. Culture, Characterization, and Delivery of *Aspergillus fumigatus*

Table of Contents

A.1. Reconstitution, Culture, and Glycerol Stock Preparation of Aspergillus fumigatus	A-2
A.2. Preparation of the Test Article	A-2
A.3. Heat Treatment of <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> Cultures for Creation of Nonviable Particle Control	. A-2
A.4. Determination of the Reduction in <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> Spore Viability in the Heat-inactivated Particle Control	. A-2
A.5. Assessment of Fungal Contaminants in the Exposure Articles	A-3
A.6. Aerosolization of the Exposure Articles Using the Acoustical Generator System	A-3

Tables

Table A-1. Weekly Evaluation of Aspergillus fumigatus Heat-inactivated Particle	
Controls and Viable A. fumigatus	A-4
Table A-2. Weekly Viable Aspergillus fumigatus Exposure Concentrations	A-5
Table A-3. Weekly Aspergillus fumigatus Heat-inactivated Particle Control Exposure	
Concentrations	A-5
Table A-4. Aerodynamic Particle Size Statistics for Aerosolized Aspergillus fumigatus	
Spores from Aerodynamic Particle Sizer Measurements	A-7
1 2	

Figures

Figure A-1. Aerodynamic Particle Size Measurements Following Aerosolization of	
Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	A-8
Figure A-2. Electron Microscropy Images of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores Aerosolized	
Using the Acoustical Generation System	A-9

A.1. Reconstitution, Culture, and Glycerol Stock Preparation of *Aspergillus fumigatus*

The Aspergillus fumigatus strain (NIH Strain B-5233) used in this study was acquired from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC[®] 13073TM, lot 59030808, Manassas, VA) and stored at -80° C. The freeze-dried stock was reconstituted in 50 mL of sterile water according to the ATCC instructions. Once rehydrated, malt extract agar (MEA) culture plates were inoculated with 100 µL of the rehydrated fungus. MEA culture plates were incubated at 25°C for 10–14 days for optimal spore growth. *A. fumigatus* spores were harvested by liberating the spores in 2 mL of sterile water using an inoculating loop. The spore suspension was mixed with an equal volume of autoclaved 50% glycerol, and 0.5 mL aliquots of the suspension were prepared in cryogenic storage vials. Glycerol stock preparations were stored at -80° C.

A.2. Preparation of the Test Article

Aliquoted frozen glycerol spore suspension was thawed, and 100 μ L was used to inoculate two MEA culture plates. Plates were incubated at 25°C for 7–10 days. *A. fumigatus* spores were harvested from each plate by liberating the spores in 2 mL of sterile water using an inoculating loop. The concentration of spores in the spore suspension was determined by diluting the suspension 1:100 and manually counting the spores using a hemocytometer. The spore suspension was diluted to 2.5×10^6 spores/mL using sterile water. Sterile petri dishes containing 10 g of autoclaved brown rice (15/week) were inoculated with 3 mL of the 2.5 × 10⁶ spore/mL suspension. The petri dishes were wrapped in parafilm and incubated at 25°C for 10–14 days. The plates were shaken vigorously 1–2 times each day of culture until the rice grains were coated in fungi to prevent aggregation of the rice grains. Prior to aerosolization, viable cultures were placed in a desiccator for 3–4 days.

A.3. Heat Treatment of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Cultures for Creation of Nonviable Particle Control

After 10–14 days of culture, fungi-coated rice from two culture dishes were combined and then equally distributed to one sterile petri dish (viable *A. fumigatus*) and one sterile quartz plate (heat-inactivated particle control). This procedure was repeated for eight more plates for a total of four viable *A. fumigatus* and four heat-inactivated particle control plates. The quartz plates were autoclaved for 15 minutes at 121°C and allowed to cool. The fungi-coated rice grains were transferred from the quartz plates back to sterile petri dishes.

A.4. Determination of the Reduction in *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spore Viability in the Heat-inactivated Particle Control

Spores were harvested from heat-inactivated particle control cultures and viable *A. fumigatus* spore cultures in sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4. Spore suspensions were further diluted and plated on MEA culture plates to allow for counting of individual fungal colonies. For heat-inactivated particle control cultures, 1:1,000, 1:10,000, and 1:50,000 dilutions were used. For viable *A. fumigatus* cultures, 1:100,000, 1:500,000, and 1:1,000,000 dilutions were used. After 48–96 hours of growth at 25°C, fungal colony-forming units (CFU) were counted. Those

plates with 30–300 CFU were used to determine the number of viable *A. fumigatus* spores/mL PBS in the original stock solutions. These concentrations were used to determine the reduction in spore viability in the heat-inactivated particle control compared with the viable *A. fumigatus*. Reduction >98% was categorized as "nonviable."

A.5. Assessment of Fungal Contaminants in the Exposure Articles

Genomic DNA was extracted from the heat-inactivated particle control and viable A. fumigatus cultures each week for analysis of fungal contaminants. Spores were harvested in sterile, distilled, deionized water. Spores from 200 µL of the suspension were pelleted by centrifugation. Spores were then suspended in Roche Tissue Lysis buffer and transferred to tubes containing 0.3 µm glass beads. The tubes were processed in a bead mill homogenizer. The suspensions were centrifuged twice, and supernatants were transferred to new tubes in which 5 µL of CelLytic B Cell Lysis Reagent (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) was added; tubes were incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. Next, 40 µL proteinase K solution was added, and tubes were incubated at 70°C for 10 minutes. After the addition of 100 µL of isopropanol, extracted DNA was washed and eluted using the Roche High Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Internal transcribed spacer (ITS) regions of fungal ribosomal RNA were amplified using the Fun18Sf/ITS4R primer pair. Amplified DNA was purified, cloned into a pDRIVE vector, and transformed into chemically competent Escherichia coli. E. coli clones positive for the ITS amplicon insert were used to inoculate 96-well plates for generation of glycerol stocks. The glycerol stocks were sequenced with the T7 and SP6 primers using Sanger sequencing. Sequences were trimmed and assembled and then clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs)—groups of sequences with 97% or greater similarity. Representative sequences from each OTU were searched against the National Center for Biotechnology Information database. Sequences were then identified on the basis of identity with sequences banked in that database. Any sequence identified as a fungal species other than A. fumigatus or Aspergillus spp. were considered contaminants. The number of sequences analyzed depended on the number of viable spores in the sample. Very little DNA was obtained from heat-inactivated particle control samples due to the heat treatment. In Table A-1, the number of contaminant fungal sequences is shown relative to the number of sequences analyzed in the sample.

A.6. Aerosolization of the Exposure Articles Using the Acoustical Generator System

Prior to aerosolization of the exposure articles, the viable *A. fumigatus* and heat-inactivated particle control cultures were placed in a desiccator for 3–4 days to remove excess moisture and allow for optimal aerosolization. Fungal-laden rice was placed on a rubber membrane housed on top of a speaker within the acoustical generator system (AGS). The AGS consisted of a modified Pitt-3 generator⁷⁷ linked to a multi-animal nose-only exposure chamber with a vertical cylindrical tower of 24 ports that held animal pods radially projecting outward (Figure 3A). There were four levels of ports: ports 1–6 at the highest elevation, ports 7–12 at the next level, ports 13–18 at the next, and ports 19–24 at the lowest level. For this study, two AGS systems were used, one for the viable *A. fumigatus* exposures and one for the heat-inactivated particle control exposures. Air control mice were placed in an identical exposure chamber that was not attached to the AGS and received only HEPA-filtered air. Twenty animal pods were attached to

each exposure chamber, 10 for male mice and 10 for female mice. Animals were randomly placed in the pods for each exposure to minimize the effects of potential small variations in spore concentrations at each port. The additional ports were used to (1) measure the mass concentration with a light-scattering device (DataRAM 4, ThermoElectron Co., Franklin, MA), (2) acquire gravimetric measurements used to adjust the calibration of the DataRAM, (3) determine particle size using an aerodynamic particle sizer (APS; TSI Inc., Shoreview, MN), and (4) collect samples on filters for field emission electron microscopy analysis (FESEM; Hitachi S-4800, Tokyo, Japan).

The fungus-laden rice was allowed to settle within the AGS prior to the start of exposures. Acoustical energy aerosolized fungal spores, which were then delivered into the exposure chamber at a flow rate of 6 liters per minute. Mass concentration was monitored in real time using the DataRAM software. That software shut down the AGS once the mice had been exposed to an estimated pulmonary deposition of 1×10^5 spores, equating to approximately 10 mg/m^3 fungal spores inhaled over 1 hour. Pulmonary deposition was calculated using a mouse lung-deposition model adapted from Raabe et al.⁸² The mice remained in the pods for a full 60 minutes and received HEPA-filtered air if the desired lung deposition was reached before the 60-minute exposure interval. Table A-2 and Table A-3 describe the measured concentrations of each exposure. Aerodynamic particle size data are shown in Table A-4, and Figure A-1 demonstrates spores within the respirable range of 2 to 3 µm. FESEM analysis showed that the aerosol primarily consisted of single spores or doublets (Figure A-2).

	Heat-inactivated Particle Control	Viable A. fumigatus
Viability		
Viable Spore Concentration ^a	1.18×10^4 spores/mL (± 2.12×10^4)	1.49×10^7 spores/mL (± 1.07×10^7)
Reduction in Viability	99.87% (± 0.33%)	_
Contamination ^b		
Week 1	1/22	0/48
Week 2	0/24	0/48
Week 3	4/11	0/72
Week 4	0/11	0/70
Week 5	0/12	0/70
Week 6	2/12	0/71
Week 7	0/6	0/69
Week 8	4/6	0/70
Week 9	0/10	0/71
Week 10	0/7	0/72
Week 11	0/12	0/70
Week 12	0/12	0/71
Week 13	0/12	0/72

Table A-1. Weekly Evaluation of Aspergillus fumigatus Heat-inactivated Particle Controls and	
Viable A. fumigatus	

^aSpores were harvested from nonviable and viable cultures in phosphate buffered saline (PBS). These suspensions were plated at various dilutions. Colony-forming units were then counted to determine the spores per mL of PBS in each of the original, undiluted suspensions. Data presented as mean \pm standard deviation.

^bAlthough no fungal contamination was visible within the cultures, DNA derived from other fungal species was detected in the heat-inactivated particle control but not in the viable *Aspergillus fumigatus* cultures on weeks 1, 3, 6, and 8. Sequence analysis revealed these species to include *Leptosphaerulina chartarum*, *Davidiella* spp., *Sordariomycetes* spp., *Piptoporus beultinus*, and *Alternaria alternata*.

Exposure Day	Chamber Concentration (DataRAM [mg/m ³])	Chamber Concentration (Filter [mg/m ³])	Filter Weight (mg)	Number of Spores Deposited in Lung
1	9.89	6.99	0.4335	1.004×10^{5}
3	9.93	10.33	0.6405	1.006×10^{5}
8	10.24	9.84	0.5906	1.005×10^{5}
10	9.38	8.73	0.5778	1.006×10^{5}
15	10.26	10.28	0.6169	1.006×10^{5}
17	9.30	9.21	0.6092	1.005×10^{5}
22	10.27	5.94	0.3562	1.005×10^{5}
24	9.93	8.84	0.5482	1.005×10^{5}
30	9.61	9.43	0.6041	1.005×10^{5}
32	10.19	10.02	0.6014	1.005×10^{5}
36	10.11	9.91	0.5943	1.006×10^{5}
38	9.01	8.76	0.5983	1.006×10^{5}
43	9.57	9.57	0.5700	1.005×10^{5}
45	10.25	7.89	0.4733	1.005×10^{5}
50	10.24	9.23	0.5538	1.004×10^{5}
52	9.03	9.72	0.6640	1.006×10^{5}
57	10.22	9.24	0.5543	1.004×10^{5}
59	9.90	11.45	0.7100	1.004×10^{5}
64	9.66	10.49	0.6722	1.004×10^{5}
66	9.36	10.08	0.6669	1.006×10^{5}
71	8.69	7.95	0.5599	1.004×10^{5}
73	10.26	13.07	0.7843	1.004×10^{5}
78	10.29	10.40	0.6237	1.007×10^{5}
80	9.29	8.83	0.5843	1.005×10^{5}
84	9.92	8.24	0.5109	1.004×10^{5}
86	10.30	9.62	0.5770	1.005×10^{5}
Mean ^a	9.81 ± 0.48	9.39 ± 1.39	0.588 ± 0.085	$1.005 \times 10^5 \pm 87.09$

Table A-2. Weekly Viable Aspergillus fumigatus Exposure Concentrations

^aData are presented as mean \pm standard deviation of the measurements over the course of the study.

 Table A-3. Weekly Aspergillus fumigatus Heat-inactivated Particle Control Exposure

 Concentrations

Exposure Day	Chamber Concentration (DataRAM [mg/m ³])	Chamber Concentration (Filter [mg/m ³])	Filter Weight (mg)	Number of Spores Deposited in Lung
1	10.26	8.79	0.5275	1.004×10^{5}
3	10.24	8.44	0.5062	$1.009 imes 10^5$
8	10.30	9.81	0.5887	1.008×10^{5}

Exposure Day	Chamber Concentration (DataRAM [mg/m ³])	Chamber Concentration (Filter [mg/m ³])	Filter Weight (mg)	Number of Spores Deposited in Lung
10	10.24	9.50	0.5699	1.002×10^{5}
15	9.69	8.85	0.5668	1.008×10^{5}
17	8.76	9.20	0.6480	1.002×10^{5}
22	5.62	4.86	0.2918	$5.985 imes 10^4$
24	10.00	6.45	0.3998	1.007×10^{5}
30	10.31	12.80	0.7682	1.009×10^{5}
32	9.94	10.72	0.6648	1.011×10^{5}
36	10.39	12.88	0.7727	1.016×10^{5}
38	10.07	12.37	0.7673	1.014×10^{5}
43	9.78	10.31	0.6600	1.016×10^{5}
45	10.03	9.83	0.6099	1.018×10^{5}
50	10.35	9.75	0.5849	1.019×10^{5}
52	9.42	8.79	0.5820	1.017×10^{5}
57	10.28	10.75	0.6449	1.007×10^{5}
59	10.31	8.20	0.4917	1.009×10^{5}
64	10.45	10.95	0.6572	1.024×10^{5}
66	10.40	11.20	0.6719	1.018×10^{5}
71	9.38	8.02	0.5305	1.012×10^{5}
73	10.39	8.55	0.5812	1.019×10^{5}
78	10.42	13.80	0.8281	1.020×10^{5}
80	10.48	16.24	0.9741	1.025×10^{5}
84	10.49	15.71	0.9424	1.027×10^{5}
86	10.45	14.34	0.8604	1.022×10^{5}
Mean ^a	9.94 ± 0.97	10.43 ± 2.69	0.642 ± 0.156	$9.978 \times 10^5 \pm 8,173.36$

^aData are presented as mean \pm standard deviation of the measurements over the course of the study.

	Number (Particle Size)	Surface (Particle Size)	Mass (Particle Size)
Viable A. fumigatus			
Median (µm)	2.25	2.32	2.35
Mean (µm)	2.26	2.37	2.43
Geometric Mean (µm)	2.23	2.34	2.40
Mode (µm)	2.29	2.29	2.29
Geometric Standard Deviation	1.19	1.16	1.17
Heat-inactivated Particle Control			
Median (µm)	2.31	2.38	2.44
Mean (µm)	2.36	2.52	2.75
Geometric Mean (µm)	2.34	2.46	2.60
Mode (µm)	2.29	2.29	2.29
Geometric Standard Deviation	1.15	1.21	1.33

Table A-4. Aerodynamic Particle Size Statistics for Aerosolized Aspergillus fumigatus Spores from Aerodynamic Particle Sizer Measurements^a

^aThe columns represent the three different methods of producing size distribution curves (as seen in Figure A-1). The aerodynamic particle sizer totals the particles in each particle size by number, by the surface area of the particles in each size bin, and by the mass of the particles in each size bin.



Figure A-1. Aerodynamic Particle Size Measurements Following Aerosolization of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores

The images depict the size distrution of particles measured with the aerodynamic particle sizer following aerosolization of (A) viable *A. fumigatus* spores and (B) the heat-inactivated particle control (nonviable *A. fumigatus* spores).



Figure A-2. Electron Microscropy Images of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Spores Aerosolized Using the Acoustical Generation System

Field emission electron microscopy images of spores collected on filters following acoutstical generation system aersolization of (A) viable *A. fumigatus* spores and (B) the heat-inactivated particle control (nonviable *A. fumigatus* spores). Spores in both exposure groups were aerosolized as single spores and doublets.

Appendix B. Genetic Toxicology

Table of Contents

B.1. Micronucleus As	sayB-	-2
----------------------	-------	----

Tables

Table B-1. Frequency of Micronuclei in Peripheral Blood Erythrocytes of Mice in the	
Three-month Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores	.B-3
B.1. Micronucleus Assay

B.1.1. Peripheral Blood Micronucleus Test Protocol

Peripheral blood samples were analyzed by Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC (ILS; Research Triangle Park, NC) for determination of erythrocyte micronucleus frequencies. Briefly, EDTA-stabilized peripheral blood samples were shipped on ice packs immediately following terminal necropsy from the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health to ILS. Before ILS received the samples, microcentrifuge tubes containing anticoagulant (heparin) were prepared and stored at 4°C, and 15 mL conical tubes containing fixative (methanol) were prepared and stored at $-80^{\circ}C \pm 5^{\circ}C$.

Upon arrival, blood samples were fixed in ultracold methanol using a MicroFlowPLUS Kit (Litron Laboratories, Rochester, NY) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Fixed samples were stored in a -80° C freezer until analysis. Thawed blood samples were analyzed for frequency of micronucleated immature erythrocytes (polychromatic erythrocytes or PCEs, reticulocytes) and mature erythrocytes (normochromatic erythrocytes or NCEs) using a flow cytometer¹²⁴; both the mature and immature erythrocyte populations were analyzed separately by employing special cell surface markers to differentiate the two cell types. In mice, both the mature and immature erythrocyte populations can be evaluated for micronucleus frequency because the mouse spleen does not sequester and eliminate damaged erythrocytes. Damaged erythrocytes achieve steady state in the peripheral blood of mice following 4 weeks of continuous exposure. Approximately 20,000 immature erythroytes and 1 × 10⁶ mature erythrocytes (% PCE) was calculated as a measure of bone marrow toxicity resulting from test article exposure.

For most NTP studies, the statistical methods for micronucleus assays employ a trend test and a Levene's test for equal variances to determine which type of pairwise test (Williams or Dunn) is more appropriate. Due to the design of this study (with one exposed group and two control groups), no trend test is needed, and the use of the Williams test would be inappropriate due to its step-down nature. Therefore, the Dunn test was used for the three-way pairwise comparison of the treatment and exposure groups. The Dunn test has a built-in correction for multiple comparisons so that the overall false positive rate of the experiment can be maintained. Pairwise comparisons with the control groups are considered statistically significant at $p \le 0.025$.

Historical control data are used to evaluate the biological significance of any observed response. Both statistical significance and biological significance are considered when arriving at a call. Ultimately, the scientific staff determines the final call after considering the results of statistical analyses, the reproducibility of any effects observed (in acute studies), and the magnitudes of those effects.

B.1.2. Results

No increases in the frequencies of micronucleated polychromatic and normochromatic erythrocytes were observed in the peripheral blood of male or female B6C3F1/N mice exposed to either viable *A. fumigatus* or the heat-inactivated particle control spores compared to the air control mice (Table B-1). In addition, no significant alteration in the % PCE was observed in these mice, suggesting no effects on hematopoiesis. These negative results in the micronucleus

test indicate an absence of exposure-induced chromosomal damage in progenitor erythrocytes in the bone marrow of mice, along with an absence of generalized bone marrow toxicity.

	Micronucleated PCEs/1,000 PCEs ^b	P Value ^c	Micronucleated NCEs/1,000 NCEs ^b	P Value ^c	PCEs (%) ^b	P Value ^c
n	5	5	5	5	5	5
Male						
Air Control	2.699 ± 0.219	_	1.463 ± 0.052	_	1.550 ± 0.063	_
Heat-inactivated Particle Control	2.390 ± 0.080	0.283	1.395 ± 0.028	0.483	1.623 ± 0.057	0.433
Viable A. fumigatus ^d	2.550 ± 0.154	0.818/0.716	1.379 ± 0.025	0.269/1.000	1.587 ± 0.049	0.594/1.000
Female						
Air Control	1.730 ± 0.080	_	0.931 ± 0.014	_	1.614 ± 0.100	_
Heat-inactivated Particle Control	1.960 ± 0.206	0.323	0.959 ± 0.032	1.000	1.883 ± 0.273	0.135
Viable A. fumigatus	1.684 ± 0.108	1.000/0.343	0.903 ± 0.021	0.387/0.344	1.864 ± 0.122	0.206/1.000

Table B-1. Frequency of Micronuclei in Peripheral Blood Erythrocytes of Mice in the Three-month
Inhalation Study of Aspergillus fumigatus Spores ^a

PCE = polychromatic erythrocyte; NCE = normochromatic erythrocyte.

^aStudy was performed at Integrated Laboratory Systems, LLC.

^bData are presented as mean \pm standard error.

^cP values for all endpoints were calculated using the two-sided Dunn's test, comparing all three groups simultaneously. For the PCEs (%) endpoints, the log-transformed PCE/NCE ratios were used.

^dP values for the viable *A. fumigatus* groups are presented as: p value (viable *A. fumigatus* compared to air control)/p value (viable *A. fumigatus* compared to heat-inactivated particle control).

Appendix C. Ingredients, Nutrient Composition, and Contaminant Levels in NTP-2000 Mouse Ration

Tables

Table C-1. Ingredients of NTP-2000 Mouse Ration	C-2
Table C-2. Nutrient Composition of NTP-2000 Mouse Ration	
Table C-3. Contaminant Levels in NTP-2000 Mouse Ration	

Ingredients	Percentage by Weight	
Ground Whole Wheat	23.00	
Ground No. 2 Yellow Corn	22.44	
Wheat Middlings	15.00	
Oat Hulls	8.50	
Alfalfa Meal	7.50	
Solka Floc-40	5.50	
Soy Protein Concentrate	4.00	
Fish Meal (60%)	4.00	
Soybean Oil	3.00	
Corn Oil	3.00	
Dried Brewer's Yeast	1.00	
Calcium Carbonate	0.90	
Dicalcium Phosphate	0.40	
Salt	0.30	
DL Methionine	0.20	
Premixes	1.26	

^aIngredient list is based on the formulation listed on the packaging.

Table C-2. Nutrient Composition of NTP-2000 Mouse Ration^a

Nutrient	Amount	
Crude Protein ^b (% by Weight)	14.60%	
Crude Fat ^b (% by Weight)	8.40%	
Crude Fiber ^b (% by Weight)	9.86%	
Ash ^b (% by Weight)	5.09%	
Amino Acids (% of Total Diet)		
Arginine	0.75%	
Lysine	0.65%	
Methionine	0.44%	
Cystine	0.21%	
Tryptophan	0.17%	
Histidine	0.32%	
Leucine	1.04%	
Isoleucine	0.58%	
Phenylalanine	0.59%	
Tyrosine	0.45%	
Threonine	0.52%	

Nutrient	Amount	
Valine	0.66%	
Minerals		
Calcium	0.99%	
Phosphorus	0.56%	
Potassium	0.69%	
Sodium	0.19%	
Magnesium	0.22%	
Iron	132.00 ppm	
Zinc	47.00 ppm	
Manganese	44.00 ppm	
Copper	10.00 ppm	
Cobalt	0.12 ppm	
Iodine	0.33 ppm	
Vitamins		
Vitamin A	9.70 IU/g	
Vitamin D ₃	1.00 IU/g	
α-Tocopherol	145.00 IU/g	
Thiamine	9.30 ppm	
Riboflavin	5.70 ppm	
Niacin 54.90 ppm		
Pantothenic Acid 19.00 ppm		
Choline	2,326.00 ppm	
Pyrodoxine	11.00 ppm	
Folic Acid	1.80 ppm	
Biotin	0.32 ppm	
Vitamin B ₁₂	53.50 Mcg/kg	
Vitamin K	1.60 ppm	

^aNutrient content is based on the formulation listed on the packaging unless otherwise noted. ^bNutrient content for protein, fat, fiber, and ash were calculated from the analysis of lot number 07-01-114 used in the study.

Contaminant	Amount	
Contaminants		
Aflatoxins		
B1	<0.500 ppb	
B2	<0.500 ppb	
G1	<0.500 ppb	
G2	<0.500 ppb	
Arsenic	0.211 ppm	
BHA	<1.0 ppm	
BHT	<1.0 ppm	
Cadmium	0.054 ppm	
Daidzein	<10.0 ppm	
Daidzin	<10.0 ppm	
Genistein	<10.0 ppm	
Genistin	10.7 ppm	
Glycitein	<10.0 ppm	
Glycitin	11.0 ppm	
Lead	0.158 ppm	
Mercury	<0.01 ppm	
Nitrate Anion	73.4 ppm	
Nitrite Anion	<0.5 ppm	
N-nitrosodibutylamine	<1.0 ppb	
N-nitrosodiethylamine	<1.0 ppb	
N-nitrosodimethylamine	2.2 ppb	
N-nitrosomorpholine	<1.0 ppb	
N-nitrosopiperidine	<1.0 ppb	
N-nitrosopyrrolidine	6.9 ppb	
Selenium	0.196 ppm	
Aerobic Plate Count	<10 CFU/g	
Coliform	<3 MPN/g	
Escherichia coli	<3 MPN/g	
Salmonella	Negative	
Pesticides		
α-BHC	<0.0125 ppm	
β-BHC	<0.0125 ppm	
ү-ВНС	<0.0125 ppm	

Table C-3. Contaminant Levels in NTP-2000 Mouse Ration^a

Contaminant	Amount
δ-ВНС	<0.0125 ppm
Acephate	<0.0400 ppm
Aldrin	<0.0125 ppm
Arochlor 1254	<0.2000 ppm
Azinphos-methyl	<0.0400 ppm
Captafol	<0.0315 ppm
Captan	<0.0500 ppm
Chlorfenvinphos	<0.0400 ppm
Chlorothalonil	<0.0125 ppm
Cis-permethrin	<0.0375 ppm
Coumaphos	<0.0500 ppm
Cypermethrin	<0.0940 ppm
DCNA	<0.0185 ppm
DCPA	<0.0185 ppm
Demeton-S	<0.0250 ppm
Diazinon	<0.0200 ppm
Dichlofenthion	<0.0300 ppm
Dicofol	<0.0315 ppm
Dieldrin	<0.0125 ppm
Dimethoate	<0.0200 ppm
Disulfoton	<0.0250 ppm
Endosulfan I	<0.0125 ppm
Endosulfan II	<0.0185 ppm
Endosulfan Sulfate	<0.0185 ppm
Endrin	<0.0185 ppm
EPN	<0.0400 ppm
Et-chlorpyrifos	<0.0250 ppm
Ethion	<0.0200 ppm
Et-parathion	<0.0200 ppm
Fenitrothion	<0.0250 ppm
Folpet	<0.0315 ppm
Fonofos	<0.0250 ppm
HCB	<0.0065 ppm
Heptachlor	<0.0125 ppm
Heptachlor Epoxide	<0.0125 ppm
Malathion	0.5850 ppm

Contaminant	Amount
Me-chlorpyrifos	0.2640 ppm
Me-parathion	<0.0200 ppm
Me-pirimiphos	<0.0250 ppm
Methamidophos	<0.0150 ppm
Methidathion	<0.0300 ppm
Methoxychlor	<0.0315 ppm
Mevinphos	<0.0250 ppm
Mirex	<0.0125 ppm
Omethoate	<0.0350 ppm
Oxadiazon	<0.0375 ppm
p,p'-DDD	<0.0185 ppm
p,p'-DDE	<0.0125 ppm
p,p'-DDT	<0.0200 ppm
PCNB	<0.0100 ppm
Phosalone	<0.0400 ppm
Phosmet	<0.0350 ppm
Propetamphos	<0.0300 ppm
Propyzamide	<0.0250 ppm
Prothiophos	<0.0300 ppm
Ronnel	<0.0200 ppm
Tech Chlordane	<0.0500 ppm
Tecnazene	<0.0125 ppm
Telodrin	<0.0200 ppm
Tetradifon	<0.0185 ppm
Thimet	<0.0200 ppm
Toxaphene	<0.1000 ppm
Trans-permethrin	<0.0250 ppm
Trithion	<0.0300 ppm
Vapona	<0.0150 ppm
Vinclozolin	<0.0250 ppm

BHA = butylated hydroxyanisole; BHT = butylated hydroxytoluene; CFU = colony-forming units; MPN = most probable number; BHC = hexachlorocyclohexane or benzene hexachloride; DCNA = 2,6-dichloro-4-nitroaniline; DCPA = dimethyl tetrachloroterephthalate; EPN = ethyl p-nitrophenyl thionobenzenephosphate; HCB = hexachlorobenzene;

DDD = dichlorodiphenyldichloroethane; DDE = dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene; DDT = dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane; PCNB = pentachloronitrobenzene.

^aNTP-2000 Rodent Diet, Wafer lot number 07-01-114 was irradiated.

Appendix D. National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health Sentinel Animal Program

Table of Contents

D.1. Methods	
D.2. Results	
Tables	

D.1. Methods

The sentinel animal program at the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health monitors for common rodent pathogens in each study room to ensure study mice are healthy and pathogen-free. Pathogens are monitored through the collection of blood and feces from sentinel mice housed in the study rooms.

For this 3-month subchronic inhalation toxicology study, mice weighing more or less than 10% of the mean weight of all male or female study mice were selected for the sentinel group (n = 20; 10/sex). Females were group-housed with five per cage. Male mice were single-housed. For each week the mice were on study, sentinel animals were exposed to dirty bedding from study animals. The 4-week sentinels were evaluated for viral antibodies and *Helicobacter* 24 hours following the second exposure in the fourth exposure week. The 3-month sentinels were evaluated only at study termination. All sentinels were euthanized at the end of the study and evaluated for abnormalities by gross necropsy.

Whole blood was collected via tail vein bleed for 4-week sentinels or via cardiac puncture postmortem for 3-month sentinels. Three to four drops of whole blood were placed onto an Opti-Spot card (IDEXX Laboratories, Inc., Westbrook, ME) for serology tests. These cards were submitted to IDEXX BioResearch for analysis using the Opti-HM serology profile. The profile included: *Mycoplasma pulmonis*, ectromelia virus (ECTV), epizootic diarrhea of infant mice virus (EDIM), lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV), mouse hepatitis virus (MHV), minute virus of mice (MVM), mouse parvovirus (MPV), mouse norovirus (MNV), pneumonia virus of mice (PVM), reovirus type 3 (REO3), Sendai virus (SV), and Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus (TMEV).

One fecal pellet from each sentinel mouse was collected with sterile forceps, and all pellets for each sample group were placed in a single sterile sample tube for analysis (maximum of 10 pellets/tube). Samples were submitted to IDEXX BioResearch for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis using the *Helicobacter* profile. The profile included: *Helicobacter bili*, *H. ganmani*, *H. hepaticus*, *H. mastomyrinus*, *H. rodentium*, *H. typhlonius*, and *Helicobacter* spp.

Three-month Study						
Collection Time Points	Four-week Males	Four-week Females	Three-month Males	Three-month Females		
n	5	5	5	5		
Method/Test						
Serology Profile ^a						
Ectromelia virus	_	_	_	_		
Epizootic diarrhea of infant mice (mouse rotavirus)	_	_	_	_		
Lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus	_	_	_	_		
Mycoplasma pulmonis	_	_	_	_		
Mouse hepatitis virus	_	_	_	_		

Table D-1. Methods and Results for Sentinel Animal Testing in Mice

Three-month Study					
Collection Time Points	Four-week Males	Four-week Females	Three-month Males	Three-month Females	
Mouse norovirus	_	_	_	_	
Mouse parvovirus	_	_	_	_	
Minute virus of mice	_	_	_	_	
Pneumonia virus of mice	_	_	_	_	
Reovirus type 3	_	_	_	_	
Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus	_	_	_	_	
Sendai virus	_	_	_	_	
PCR Evaluation ^b					
Helicobacter	_	_	_	_	

 $\overline{-=}$ negative; PCR = polymerase chain reaction. ^aSerology profiles were conducted on whole blood samples of individual sentinel mice (n = 5/group). ^bPCR evaluations of *Helicobacter* species were conducted on pooled fecal samples for each group.

D.2. Results

All test results were negative.

Appendix E. Supplemental Data

Tables with supplemental data can be found here: <u>https://doi.org/10.22427/NTP-DATA-TOX-100</u>.

E.1. Three-month Study – Mice

I01 – Animal Removal Summary C08022_I01_Animal_Removal_Summary.pdf

I02 – Animal Removals C08022_I02_Animal_Removals.pdf

I03 – Growth Curve C08022_I03_Growth_Curve.pdf

I03C – Growth Curve C08022_I03C_Growth_Curve.pdf

I04 – Mean Body Weight Summary C08022_I04_Mean_Body_Weight_Summary.pdf

I04G – Mean Body Weight Gain C08022_I04G_Mean_Body_Weight_Gain.pdf

I05 – Clinical Observations Summary C08022_I05_Clinical_Observations_Summary.pdf

PA02 – Neoplastic Lesion Summary with Percent Incidence C08022_PA02_Neoplastic_Lesion_Summary_with_Percent_Incidence.pdf

PA03 – Non-Neoplastic Lesion Summary with Percent Incidence C08022_PA03_Non-Neoplastic_Lesion_Summary_with_Percent_Incidence.pdf

PA05 – Incidence Rates of Neoplastic Lesions with Systemic Lesions Abridged C08022_PA05_Incidence_Rates_of_Neoplastic_Lesions_with_Systemic_Lesions_Abridged.pdf

PA06 – Organ Weights Summary

C08022_PA06_Organ_Weights_Summary.pdf

PA10 – Statistical Analysis of Non-Neoplastic Lesions C08022 PA10 Statistical Analysis of Non-Neoplastic Lesions.pdf

PA14 – Individual Animal Pathology Data C08022 PA14 Individual Animal Pathology Data.pdf

PA18 – Incidence Rates of Non-Neoplastic Lesions by Anatomic Site with Average Severity Grade

C08022_PA18_Incidence_Rates_of Non-Neoplastic Lesions by Anatomic Site with Average Severity Grade.pdf

PA43 – Hematology Summary

C08022_PA43_Hematology_Summary.pdf

PA46 – Summary of Gross Pathology

C08022_PA46_Summary_of_Gross_Pathology.pdf

E.2. Individual Animal Data

Individual Animal Body Weight Data

 $C08022_Individual_Animal_Body_Weight_Data.xlsx$

Individual Animal Clinical Observations Data C08022_Individual_Animal_Clinical_Observations_Data.xlsx

Individual Animal Gross Pathology Data C08022_Individual_Animal_Gross_Pathology_Data.xlsx

Individual Animal Hematology Data C08022 Individual Animal Hematology Data.xlsx

Individual Animal Histopathology Data C08022_Individual_Animal_Histopathology_Data.xlsx

Individual Animal Organ Weight Data C08022_Individual_Animal_Organ_Weight_Data.xlsx

Individual Animal Removal Reasons Data C08022_Individual_Animal_Removal_Reasons_Data.xlsx

E.3. Genetic Toxicology

In Vivo Micronucleus Summary Data G08022_In_Vivo_Micronucleus_Summary_Data.pdf

Individual Animal In Vivo Micronucleus Data G08022 Individual Animal In Vivo Micronucleus Data.xlsx



National Toxicology Program National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences

National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences National Institutes of Health P.O. Box 12233, MD K2-05 Durham, NC 27709 Tel: 984-287-3211 ntpwebrequest@niehs.nih.gov

https://ntp.niehs.nih.gov

ISSN 2378-8992