

Lene N. Johannessen

**Fungal products and  
inflammatory responses in  
human monocytes and  
epithelial cells**

Thesis for the degree of philosophiae doctor

Trondheim, August 2008

Norwegian University of Science and Technology

Faculty of Medicine

Department of Cancer Research and Molecular Medicine



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## **Sammendrag**

***Tittel: Fungal products and inflammatory responses in human monocytes and epithelial cells***

### ***Norsk tittel:***

***Virkningen av muggsoppkomponenter på immunforsvaret hos mennesker – reaksjoner fra lunge- og blodceller***

Muggsopp i innemiljø kan forårsake flere ulike symptomer hos mennesker som eksponeres. De vanligste reaksjonene ligner betennelsesreaksjoner i slimhinner, særlig i øvre luftveier, men også andre symptomer slik som hodepine, kvalme, unormal trøtthet, konsentrasjonsvansker ("tung i hodet") og eksem kan være vanlige. Personer med astma er særlig utsatt for inneklimate relaterede plager, men det er hittil ukjent hvorfor disse personene er særlig utsatt. Til tross for mye fokus på allergiske reaksjoner på grunn av eksponering for muggsopp, er det sjeldent at mennesker får allergiske reaksjoner pga muggsopp sett i fra et immunologisk perspektiv. Det er imidlertid grunn til å tro at andre typer reaksjoner fra immunforsvaret (ikke-allergiske) kan være mer aktuell. Det er holdepunkter for at stoffer/komponenter som muggsopp produserer er viktige bidragsyttere for reaksjoner.

I tillegg til en rekke andre komponenter som muggsopp produserer, er muggsoppgifter (mykotoksiner) særlig aktuelle. Doktorgradsarbeidet har i hovedsak fokusert på hvordan celler i immunforsvaret reagerer når de blir utsatt for særlig små doser av disse giftene, noe som kan være situasjonen ved forurensing av muggsopp innendørs. Det er i hovedsak vist at muggsoppgifter bidrar til å forstyrre cellenes produksjon av ikke-allergiske signalstoffer (inflammatoriske cytokiner). På denne måten kan det oppstå en ubalanse i immunforsvaret slik at sjansen for betennelsesreaksjoner kan øke. De påviste cellereaksjonene kan muligens ha betydning for noen av de opplevde symptomene som relateres til muggsopp i innemiljø. Det er også vist i et delarbeid at komponenter fra muggsopp kan bidra til å frembringe spesielle reaksjonsmønstre hos astmatikere sammenliknet med ikke-astmatikere, og dette kan indikere/dokumentere at immunresponsen hos astmatikere faktisk er forskjellig sammenliknet med reaksjonen hos ikke-astmatikere. Dette delarbeidet kan være begynnelsen på den videre dokumentasjonen av helseplager som astmatikere kan oppleve på grunn av muggsopp i innemiljø.

*Navn kandidat: Lene N. Johannessen*

*Institutt: Kreftforskning og Molekylærmedisin (IKM)*

*Veileder(e): Martinus Løvik (Folkehelseinstituttet (FHI) og IKM),*

*Asbjørn Nilsen (IKM)*

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Lene N. Johannessen  
Trondheim, *May 16, 2008.*



## **List of papers**

### **PAPER I**

Johannessen LN, Nilsen AM, Løvik M (2005). The mycotoxins gliotoxin and citrinin differentially affect production of the pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6, and the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10. Clin Exp Allergy **35**: 782-789.

### **PAPER II**

Johannessen LN, Nilsen AM, Løvik M (2007). Mycotoxin-induced depletion of intracellular glutathione and altered cytokine production in the human alveolar epithelial cell line A549. Toxicol Lett **168**:103-112.

### **PAPER III**

Johannessen LN, Løvik M, Lydersen S, Nilsen AM (2008). Combined cell wall polysaccharide, mycotoxin and bacterial lipopolysaccharide exposure and inflammatory cytokine responses. Submitted.

### **PAPER IV**

Johannessen LN, Løvik M, Steinshamn S, Nilsen AM (2008). Reduced mannan-induced monocyte TNF- $\alpha$  production in mild asthma: A role for mannan-binding lectin (MBL)? Submitted.

## Contents

|       |  |    |
|-------|--|----|
| 1     | INTRODUCTION.....  | 7  |
| 1.1   | ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBES AND ASSOCIATIONS TO NEGATIVE HEALTH EFFECTS ..... | 7  |
| 1.2   | THE KINGDOM FUNGI.....   | 9  |
| 1.2.1 | CELL COMPOSITION OF FUNGI AND VIRULENCE FACTORS .....                    | 11 |
| 1.3   | MYCOTOXINS.....  | 14 |
| 1.3.1 | GLIOTOXIN .....  | 18 |
| 1.3.2 | CITRININ.....  | 19 |
| 1.4   | BACTERIAL ENDOTOXIN .....  | 20 |
| 1.5   | IMPORTANT CELLS AND MEDIATORS OF THE INNATE IMMUNE SYSTEM.....           | 21 |
| 1.5.1 | CELLS.....   | 21 |
| 1.5.2 | INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES.....  | 23 |
| 1.5.3 | INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES AND APOPTOSIS .....                               | 24 |
| 1.5.4 | MANNAN-BINDING LECTIN (MBL).....   | 24 |
| 1.6   | OXIDATIVE STRESS AND GLUTATHIONE .....                                   | 26 |
| 1.6.1 | THE LINK BETWEEN GLUTATHIONE AND INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES .....            | 27 |
| 1.6.2 | THE ROLE FOR GLUTATHIONE IN HOST DEFENCE AGAINST MYCOTOXINS .....        | 27 |
| 2     | AIMS OF THE STUDY.....   | 29 |
| 3     | SUMMARY OF PAPERS .....  | 30 |
| 4     | GENERAL DISCUSSION.....  | 33 |
| 4.1   | METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....                                      | 33 |
| 4.1.1 | <i>IN VITRO</i> ASSAYS AND THE EXTRAPOLATION TO HUMAN EXPOSURE .....     | 33 |
| 4.1.2 | SOLUBLE SUBSTANCES VERSUS PARTICLES .....                                | 34 |
| 4.1.3 | CELL LINES VERSUS PRIMARY CELLS .....                                    | 34 |
| 4.1.4 | HUMAN IMMUNE AND EPITHELIAL CELLS AS EXPOSURE TARGETS IN VITRO .....     | 36 |
| 4.2   | FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS.....   | 37 |



|              |  |           |
|--------------|--|-----------|
| <b>4.2.1</b> | <b>THE "RELEVANT DOSE" QUESTION – FROM CULTURE WELLS TO DAMP BUILDINGS..</b>                                   | <b>37</b> |
| <b>4.2.2</b> | <b>WHAT DO OUR FINDINGS TELL US ABOUT THE SYMPTOMS EXPERIENCED IN DAMP BUILDINGS? .....</b>                    | <b>42</b> |
| <b>4.2.3</b> | <b>THE ROLE FOR MANNOSE-BINDING LECTIN (MBL) IN ASTHMA AND THE ASTHMATIC RESPONSE TO FUNGAL EXPOSURE .....</b> | <b>43</b> |
| <b>4.2.4</b> | <b>IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE AND FUTURE RESEARCH .....</b>  | <b>44</b> |
| <b>4.3</b>   | <b>OVERALL CONCLUSIONS.....</b>  | <b>46</b> |
| <b>5</b>     | <b>REFERENCES.....</b>   | <b>47</b> |

## Abbreviations

|               |   |
|---------------|---|
| ATP           | Adenosine-triphosphate  |
| BAL           | Bronchoalveolar lavage  |
| BRS           | Building related syndrome   |
| DNA           | Deoxyribonucleic acid   |
| EPS           | Extracellular polysaccharides/ extracellular polymeric substances |
| EU            | Endotoxin unit  |
| GP            | Glutathione peroxidase  |
| GR            | Glutathione reductase   |
| GSH           | $\gamma$ -glutamyl-L-cysteinyl glycine                            |
| GSSG          | $\gamma$ -glutamyl-L-cysteinyl glycine disulfide                  |
| GST           | Glutathione transferase   |
| IAQ           | Indoor air quality  |
| IgE           | Immunoglobulin E  |
| IL            | Interleukin   |
| LPS           | Lipopolysaccharide  |
| MBL           | Mannan-binding lectin   |
| MRP           | Multidrug resistance protein                                      |
| NADPH         | Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate                       |
| PAMP          | Pathogen-associated molecular pattern                             |
| PRR           | Pathogen recognition receptor                                     |
| ROS           | Reactive oxygen species   |
| SBS           | Sick building syndrome  |
| sp.           | Species   |
| TGF- $\beta$  | Transforming growth factor- $\beta$                               |
| TLR           | Toll-like receptor  |
| TNF- $\alpha$ | Tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$                                  |

# **1 Introduction**

## **1.1 Environmental microbes and associations to negative health effects**

Negative health effects due to environmental microbes have been described and known to people for centuries. In the 1833, collections and descriptions of environmental microbes were shown in Ehrenberg's Illustrations of Dust collected by Charles Darwin. Later, Pasteur and co-workers developed theories which associated many airborne environmental microbes directly to the development of human disease. This led to systematic research on various microbes present in food, water and in the air and the human health effects of this microbial exposure (Lacey and West, 2006).

Throughout the last century, an increasing number of publications have reported symptoms experienced by individuals living or working in modern buildings with poor indoor air quality (IAQ). In the early 1980's the concept of sick building syndrome (SBS) emerged (Finningan *et al.*, 1984). SBS, or in recent years called building-related symptoms (BRS), has been characterised as symptoms related to environmental exposure (sometimes of unknown origin) in a building that is experienced by otherwise healthy individuals. The symptoms can be associated with effects on multiple organ systems and includes respiratory symptoms, headaches, nausea, fatigue, concentration problems and dizziness (Hardin *et al.*, 2003; Terr, 2004; Shoemaker *et al.*, 2006). In view of the complexity of chemical, microbial and physical exposure agents in a modern building, the evidence that microbes are the (only) cause of SBS is missing (Kolstad *et al.*, 2002).

The association between damp houses and SBS seems to be more established than the link between SBS and microbial exposure. However, the damp indoor environment may harbour a wide range of microorganisms including several kinds of environmental bacteria, such as gram-negative species and their products such as endotoxins as well as mycobacteria, moulds and other fungi which together create the microbial exposure (Anderson *et al.*, 1997). The health effects associated to damp buildings generally consist of upper respiratory tract complaints of inflammatory nature such as rhinitis, sinusitis, irritation of the mucous membrane, cough and cold-like symptoms (Mahmoudi *et al.*, 2000; Fisk *et al.*, 2007). Also, neurological associated symptoms such as headache, concentrations problems, fatigue and nausea have been reported (Pirhonen *et al.*, 1996; Shoemaker and House, 2006). Reports of eczema (Bornehag *et al.*, 2005) and fever (Pirhonen *et al.*, 1996) are less common. Further, several reports of an increased prevalence of asthma symptoms in damp buildings with mould problems have been published (Taskinen *et al.*, 1997; Taskinen *et al.*, 1999; Engvall *et al.*, 2001; Trout *et al.*, 2001). In occupational settings, such as in the composting and waste-handling industry, in agricultural settings and during building demolition, exposure to high concentrations of airborne moulds is well known to induce negative health effects (Brun, 2007).

Inhalation of airborne mould spores has in particular been associated with the aggravation of respiratory symptoms and asthma (Fisk *et al.*, 2007; Hirvonen *et al.*, 2005; Hope and Simon, 2007; Nevalainen and Seuri, 2005). Asthma is a chronic hypersensitivity condition with inflammatory reactions and bronchial constriction. Asthma is traditionally classified as IgE-mediated (extrinsic asthma or allergic/atopic asthma), non-IgE-mediated (intrinsic asthma or non-allergic/non-atopic asthma) and in recent years also as a mixed form of the two types. Clinical symptoms in non-allergic asthma resemble those in allergic asthma, but the immune response

mechanisms are partially different (Comi *et al.*, 2007). In general, however, fungi seem to cause symptoms of inflammation in both allergic and non-allergic asthma patients.

Although, moulds possess potentially harmful properties, infections due to mould exposure are relatively rare. An increasing number of cases have been reported, however, primarily in hospitalised and critically ill patients with severe underlying illness (Khasawneh *et al.*, 2006). In immune suppressed patients, fungal infections may be life threatening. Moulds such as *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium*, *Scedosporium* and *Penicillium*, and yeasts such as *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* are most frequently isolated from fungal infections (Enoch *et al.*, 2006).

A large amount of studies have associated mould exposure to various (non-allergic) symptoms of inflammation. Therefore, it seems warranted to investigate some of the cellular responses that may be involved in the symptoms experienced by individuals living or working in damp and mouldy buildings.

## **1.2 The Kingdom Fungi**

Mycology, the study of fungi, has originated from botany as fungi earlier were considered members of the plant kingdom. Classification has now placed fungi in one of five eukaryotic kingdoms, the others being animals, plants, chromista and protozoa. Indeed, many fungi resemble plants in that they develop fruiting bodies and produce spores which disperse by air currents. The fruiting body of filamentous fungi is composed of long branching threads (hyphae) of multicellular filaments which are individually divided into smaller compartments and typically contain several nuclei. These compartments are fungal cells. The spores, or conidia, are often attached to specialised cells arising from the hyphae. Many filamentous fungi produce large networks of hyphae (when visible called mycel) and vast amount of spores.

The largest group of filamentous microscopic fungi (microfungi) is known as moulds. Moulds are ubiquitous in nature and are frequently found on decaying plants and in soil where they function as important organisms to regulate the ecosystem. Moulds are saprophytes that decompose and metabolise almost any kind of organic material. Also, moulds are closely associated with environmental bacteria and yeasts and compete with them for nutrition. In this setting, mycology is considered a branch of microbiology.

Metabolites that are produced and secreted by many types of fungi, both moulds and yeasts, are often used in the food and brewing industry because fungi are easily grown in pure cultures with relatively high growth rates. Fungi may be used as sources to produce catalytic enzymes used in fermentation and in other biochemical processes (Baker, 2006). Many features of fungi have also made them attractive in research on fundamental biological processes such as the study of cellular energy metabolisms, genome studies, protein synthesis and expression, and in evolutionary and mutation research. In recent years, fungi have been frequently used as model organisms to study the structure and function of genes and gene products (Matsumoto and Ledbetter, 1999).

Fungal cells produce a variety of metabolites due to primary and secondary metabolic processes (Carlile *et al.*, 2001). Primary metabolites are produced as a result of cellular processes essential to maintain survival of the fungal cell, i.e. maintenance of the cell wall or energy metabolism. Secondary metabolites are largely not essential for the survival of fungal cells, although production of some secondary metabolites, such as toxins, may offer evolutionary advantages in the competition with other environmental microbes.

### 1.2.1 Cell composition of fungi and virulence factors

Fungi are eukaryotic cells with intracellular compartments including endoplasmatic reticulum, Golgi apparatus, mitochondria and vacuoles used for transport and storage of nutrients. Fungal DNA is organised into a number of chromosomes. Several of the *Aspergills sp.* typically contains 8 chromosomes (Baker, 2006). The phospholipid bilayer and proteins in the cell membrane is covered by a rigid, but also elastic and dynamic cell wall consisting mainly of carbohydrates (polysaccharides) and structure proteins. Other proteins embedded in the cell wall are transport proteins and enzymes used in primary and secondary metabolism, and pigment molecules such as melanin (Fog-Nielsen, 2003; Horner *et al.*, 1995; Bruneau *et al.*, 2001; Jahn *et al.*, 1997). Some of these proteins may be allergens. Generally, fungi produce a vast amount of metabolites that potentially may enhance their inflammagenic, allergenic and toxic properties.

Fungi have through evolution adapted to handle almost any type of changing environment. Although survival is easy for most environmental fungi, the ideal condition for growth is a moderate temperature (20-30°C), a relatively high moisture environment and a high carbohydrate content of the growth substrate. Moulds such as *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* are often found in small amounts in outdoor air and in a balanced mixture with other fungal genera such as *Cladosporium*, *Mucor*, *Acremonium*, *Paecilomyces* and many others. Some species, especially within the *Aspergillus* and *Paecilomyces* genera, have developed thermotolerant or thermophilic properties and are able to grow at 37°C and above. This feature is one of many virulence factors that could facilitate mould invasion in human tissues (Aufauvre-Brown *et al.*, 1998).

Molecules of the carbohydrate rich cell wall of fungi are thought to be involved in induction of inflammatory responses. The cell wall of fungi consists of several polysaccharide layers, mannosylated and glycosylated structure proteins, and small amounts of lipids (such as ergosterol) that together form a rigid skeleton providing strong physical properties (Carlile *et al.*, 2001). The inner polysaccharide layers consist mainly of glucose polymers (glucan), which occurs with  $\alpha$ - and/or  $\beta$ - linkages ( $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -glucans) and also relative small amount of chitin (Bernard and Latgé, 2001). Generally, glucans may appear with a relatively wide molecular weight range (from 7 to 500 kDa for some well characterised molecules) and with various degrees of branching (Barreto-Bergter *et al.*, 1983). The biologically most active form of glucan found in fungi has a  $\beta$ -1, 3-D-glucan backbone. Various forms of soluble and particulate  $\beta$ -glucans induce pro-inflammatory cytokines in human immune cells, such as IL-1, IL-2 and TNF- $\alpha$ , both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Rylander and Lin, 2000; Hohl *et al.*, 2005; Taylor *et al.*, 2007; Beijer *et al.*, 2003; Sherwood *et al.*, 1987, Sigsgaard *et al.*, 2000).

Glucans may be liberated to the environment from the cell wall of decomposed, fragmented or structurally damaged fungal cells and also during germination and growth when cell walls are recomposing (Hohl *et al.*, 2005). The content of  $\beta$ -glucans in dust has been assessed (Giovannangelo *et al.*, 2007) and the glucan content in samples of airborne or settled dust has been used as a surrogate measurement of moulds in the indoor environment (Schram-Bijkerk *et al.*, 2005; Douwes *et al.*, 1999).

Although  $\beta$ -glucans have been a main subject of investigation in relation to symptoms experienced in mouldy buildings, most intact fungal cells and resting airborne conidia do not display large amounts of  $\beta$ - glucans on the outer surface (Gantner *et al.*, 2005; Hohl *et al.*, 2005). Other soluble extracellular polysaccharides (EPS) are present in the outer cell wall layer of i.e. *A.*



*fumigatus*, such as  $\alpha$ -mannose polymers (mannan) supplemented with side chains of galactose or  $\beta$ -galactofuranose (called galactomannan) (Bernard *et al.*, 2001; Latge, 2005). Important moulds found in the indoor environment such as species within the *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium*, *Stachybotrys* and *Trichophyton* genera have largely similar composition of the cell wall structure (Leal *et al.*, 1992; Ikuta *et al.*, 1997; François *et al.*, 2006; Latge, 1988). Galactomannan polysaccharides (Fig. 1) are covalently bound to mannosylated proteins on the cell wall surface (Fontaine *et al.*, 2000; Bernard *et al.*, 2001). Earlier, this mannan coat has been thought to be biologically inert and mask the immune stimulating properties of the glucan layer (Artursson *et al.*, 1987). However, recently it has become evident that mannan polysaccharides are recognised by cell surface receptors on monocytes and macrophages and induce inflammatory cytokine responses such as TNF- $\alpha$  production (Netea *et al.*, 2006; Netea *et al.*, 2006). This understanding has opened up for the possibility that intact and non-sporulating fungal conidia may induce inflammatory responses without fungal growth in the host.

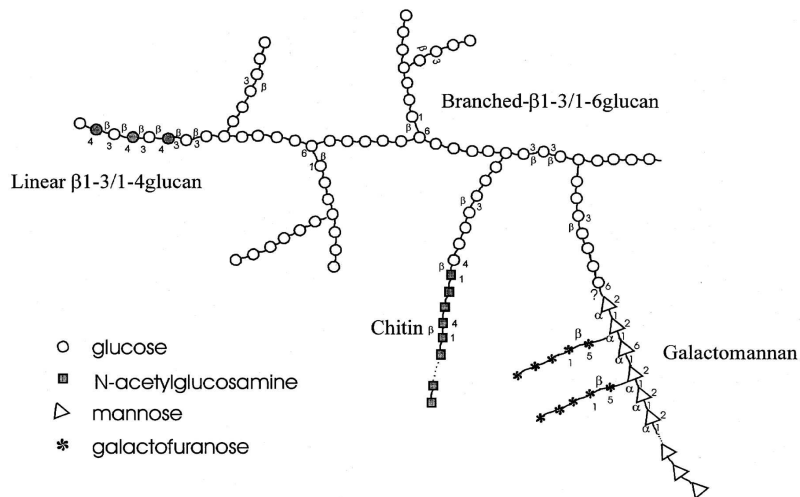


Fig 1. A tentative scheme of the organization of the  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucan and its covalently associated polymers found in the cell wall of *A. fumigatus*. The polysaccharide network is formed by (i) biosynthesis of the individual polysaccharides ( $\beta$ -1, 3-glucan,  $\beta$ -1, 3/1, 4 glucan, chitin, and galactomannan), (ii) branching of  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucan and increasing the number of acceptor sites, and (iii) covalent addition of chitin, galactomannan and  $\beta$ -1, 3/1, 4-glucan to glucan branches (Fontaine *et al.*, 2000).

### 1.3 Mycotoxins

Secondary metabolites produced by fungi include the mycotoxins. Mycotoxins are a large group of several hundred (over 400 are described) chemically distinct organic compounds synthesised through secondary metabolic pathways in the fungi. Some mycotoxins are amongst the most toxic biological compounds known.

Health effects of mycotoxins are dependent of the time and dose of exposure, the route of administration (oral/dermal/inhalation), the toxic effects on specific cells/organs, the health status of the individual and possibly the co-effects with other chemicals to which the individual is exposed (Bennett and Klick, 2003). Exposure to high concentrations of mycotoxins may cause a

wide range of health effects, from short-term and immediate toxic ones to long-term mutagenic and carcinogenic ones (Peraica *et al.*, 1999).

In relation to poisoning and carcinogenicity the oral route of mycotoxin exposure is the most common, but also dermal routes may be involved. The toxic effects of mycotoxins have been recognised since the medieval times. Ergotamine (ergot alkaloids) produced by the mould *Claviceps purpurea* on contaminated rye caused thousands of deaths in both animals and humans due to ergot poisoning, known as St. Anthony's fire. In 1777 in France, 8,000 people died of gangrenous ergotism. Even today, aflatoxin, produced by *Aspergillus flavus* on many agricultural products, constitutes a major problem because of contamination of food and feed, especially in developing countries. In recent years, however, quantitative standards and guidelines to avoid negative health effects from consumption of contaminated foods and feeds have been established throughout the world for the most potent mycotoxins such as aflatoxin, ochratoxin, trichothecenes and fumonisins.

Although mycotoxins are of concern to humans and animals, many beneficial effects have been appreciated. Possibly the most important benefits of mycotoxins were established through the discovery of penicillin in the 1930's. This was a breakthrough for medical research and in the treatment of infections. Later, many types of mycotoxins have been investigated and used for e.g. their antibiotic effects.

Mycotoxins are produced during the late log-phase of fungal growth and probably when they may be beneficial for the fungi in order to compete with other microbes in the environment (Calvo *et al.*, 2002). Mycotoxin production is often associated with certain fungal species, but several mycotoxins may be produced by one single species and one single mycotoxin may be produced by several different species (Table 1). Also, different strains within the same species

have shown to produce various types of mycotoxins (Fog-Nielsen, 2003) suggesting that toxin production is dependent on environmental growth conditions such as the carbon and nitrogen source, temperature, light and pH (Bennett and Ciegler, 1983).

Table 1. Indoor air fungi and associated mycotoxins (modified from Abbott, 2002).

|                      |   |
|----------------------|---|
| <i>Acremonium</i>    | citrinin  |
| <i>Alternaria</i>    | altenuene, altenusin, alternariol, altertoxin,<br>tenuazonic acid   |
| <i>Arthrinium</i>    | nitropropionic acid   |
| <i>Aspergillus</i>   | aflatoxin, austin, citrinin, cytochalasin, fumitoxin,<br>nidulotoxin, ochratoxin, patulin, sterigmatocystin,<br>gliotoxin, fumitremorgen, penitrem, territrem,<br>verruculogen, viomellein, vioxanthin,<br>xanthomegnin   |
| <i>Bipolaris</i>     | cytochalasin, sporidesmin, sterigmatocystin   |
| <i>Chaetomium</i>    | chaetoglobosin, chetomin, chaetochromin,<br>chaetosin, cochliodinol, sterigmatocystin   |
| <i>Cladosporium</i>  | cladosporic acid  |
| <i>Fusarium</i>      | fumonisin, fusaric acid, fusarin,<br>fusarochromanone, moniliformin, trichothecenes<br>(deoxynivalinol, T2 toxin), zearlenol,<br>zearalenone  |
| <i>Gliocladium</i>   | gliotoxin   |
| <i>Paecilomyces</i>  | patulin, viriditoxin  |
| <i>Penicillium</i>   | citrinin, citreoviridin, citromyctin, erythrokyrin,<br>ochratoxin, gliotoxin, griseofulvin, luteoskyrin,<br>oxaline, patulin, penicillic acid, roquefortine,<br>rubratoxin, rugulosin, rugulovasine, penitrem,<br>territrem, verruculogen, verrucosidin, viomellein,<br>viridicatin, xanthomegnin |
| <i>Phoma</i>         | brefeldin, cytochalasin, secalonic acid, tenuazonic<br>acid   |
| <i>Rhizopus</i>      | rhizonin  |
| <i>Sclerotinia</i>   | furanocoumarins   |
| <i>Stachybotrys</i>  | griseofulvin, trichothecenes (isosatratoxin,<br>roridin, satratoxin, trichodermol, trichoverrol)  |
| <i>Trichoderma</i>   | gliotoxin, koninginin, trichodermin   |
| <i>Trichothecium</i> | roseotoxin, trichothecenes (trichothecin)   |
| <i>Wallemia</i>      | walleminol  |
| <i>Zygosporium</i>   | cytochalasin  |

In the indoor environment, mycotoxins have been isolated from spores, hyphal fragments and fungal particulates as well as in dust, bioaerosols and in building materials (Fog-Nielsen, 2003; Tuomi *et al.*, 2000). Some recent experimental studies suggest that mycotoxins may adversely affect biological processes and in particular modulate immune responses, e.g. the production of cytokines involved in inflammation (Chung *et al.*, 2003; Pestka *et al.*, 2006; Theumer *et al.*, 2003; Islam and Pestka, 2006). Although pulmonary mycotoxicosis in humans due to inhalation of toxic mould spores has been reported in a few case studies, e.g. during the cleaning of silos (Perry *et al.*, 1998), it has not been described in an ordinary indoor air context. Nevertheless, it is a general problem that safe exposure limits with regard to inhaled mould spores and mycotoxins have not been established. This has raised concerns among individuals living or working in mouldy environments.

### **1.3.1 Gliotoxin**

Gliotoxin is an epipolythiodioxopiperazine (ETP) secondary metabolite of about 326 Da traditionally known to be cytotoxic and to induce dose-dependent apoptosis or necrosis in prokaryotes and eukaryotes (Kamei and Watanabe, 2005). Gliotoxin has been isolated from fungi such as *Aspergillus* sp., *Penicillium* sp., *Gliocladium* sp. and *Trichoderma* sp. (Table 1). The biologically active form of gliotoxin is oxidised with an intact disulfide bridge (Fig.2).

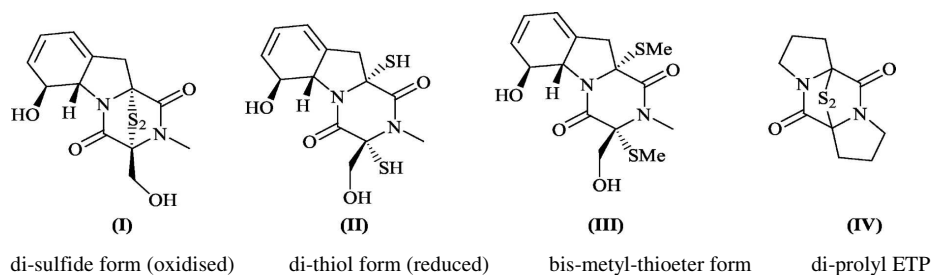


Fig 2. Chemical structures of gliotoxin (Bernardo *et al.*, 2003)

Uptake of gliotoxin in target cells initiates an intracellular red-ox reaction that reduces the di-sulfide form (oxidised) of the molecule to the inactive di-thiol form (reduced) by a mechanism that is dependent on the intracellular antioxidant glutathione (Bernardo *et al.*, 2003). This suggests that gliotoxin may be involved in cellular oxidative stress mechanisms. Gliotoxin in cytotoxic doses have been studied, and in this setting the mycotoxin has been regarded as an immunosuppressive compound that reduces inflammation by inducing cellular apoptosis (López-Franco *et al.*, 2002). However, the cellular effects of non-cytotoxic doses of gliotoxin in relation to inflammation have not been well investigated.

### 1.3.2 Citrinin

Citrinin was first isolated from *Penicillium citrinum* (Hetherington and Raistrick, 1931) and the chemical structure was proposed (Fig. 3). The mycotoxin is a 250 Da organic compound produced by fungal genera including *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* and *Acremonium*. It is known to be nephrotoxic by inducing dose-dependent apoptosis or necrosis in kidney tissue (Clark *et al.*, 2006; Bennett and Klich, 2003). The cellular mechanisms that induce cell death upon citrinin

exposure are not fully known. The electron transport systems in mitochondria have been suggested as a target of the toxic action of citrinin (Da Lozzo *et al.*, 1998). However, recent investigations using DNA microarray technology have also suggested that induction of oxidative stress genes and interference with the antioxidant glutathione in the target cell also may be involved (Iwahashi *et al.*, 2007). *In vivo* studies have suggested that citrinin may contribute to inflammatory responses after oral consumption (Hanika *et al.*, 1986). However, effects of low concentrations, or non-toxic doses, in relation to inflammatory responses in immune cells or cells of the respiratory mucosa have not been investigated.

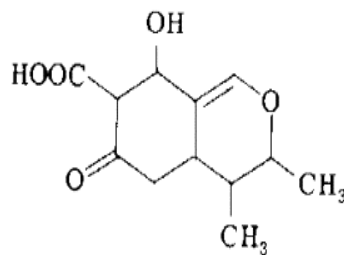


Fig. 3 Chemical structure of citrinin (Bennett and Klich, 2003)

#### 1.4 Bacterial endotoxin

Endotoxins are compounds produced by many environmental as well as pathogenic gram-negative bacteria. The endotoxins consist mainly of immune stimulating molecules of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in which the lipid component is well known to induce inflammatory responses (Su *et al.*, 1995). The host responds to LPS exposure by inducing an efficient inflammatory response with the production of pro-inflammatory mediators. Inhalation of elevated



concentrations endotoxin in the environment cause inflammatory cytokine production by cells in the bronchial and alveolar mucosa (Thorn, 2001).

Clinical symptoms of endotoxin-induced inflammation in the lungs include bronchial hyperreactivity and fever. Exposure to endotoxin has also been associated with the aggravation of chronic inflammatory lung diseases, including asthma and chronic bronchitis (Michel *et al.*, 1992; Vernooy *et al.*, 2002).

In some indoor air environments, increased concentrations of endotoxins have been associated with a number of household factors, such as pets, floor cover, the amount of people living in the home and the efficiency of ventilation (Giovannangelo *et al.*, 2007). Also, an elevated concentration of endotoxin-producing bacteria has been found in indoor environments with a general enhanced microbial flora (Schram *et al.*, 2005).

## **1.5 Important cells and mediators of the innate immune system**

### **1.5.1 Cells**

The innate immune system in mammals is crucial for survival. The cellular immune response to invading microbes is primarily to kill the microbe and clear inflammation, alternatively to halt further invasion of microbes until an adaptive immune response with the production of antibodies can develop. Fig. 4 shows an overview of the time courses of innate and adaptive cellular responses to invading microbes.

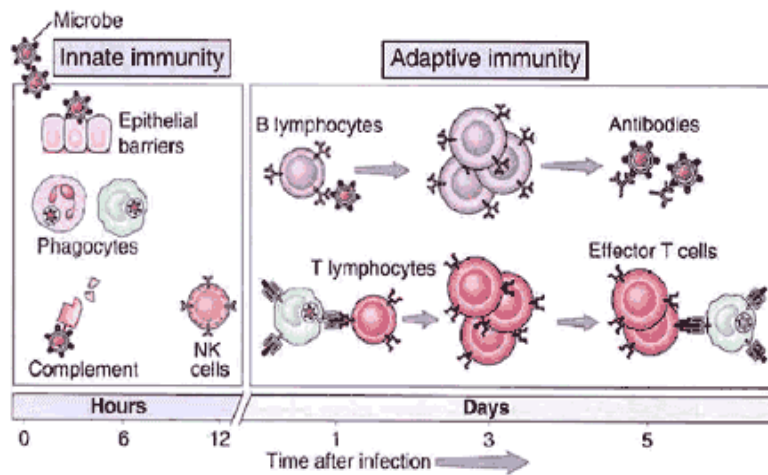


Fig. 4

Cells and mediators involved in an innate and adaptive immune response to invading microbes (Adapted from [www.actagainstallergy.com](http://www.actagainstallergy.com)).

The epithelial layer represents the first cellular barrier that prevents microbes from invading the host. Epithelial surfaces are important physical barriers, but the cells are also involved in defence mechanisms with a small production of inflammatory chemokines and cytokines (Takizawa, 1998). Monocytes, macrophages, granulocytes and dendritic cells are the most important cells in innate immune defence for the recognition and uptake (phagocytosis) of pathogens. Receptors on monocytes and macrophages are specialised to recognise characteristics of microbial surfaces, such as evolutionally preserved pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMP). The specialised pathogen recognition receptors (PRR) include the Toll-like receptors (TLR) and members of the C-Lectin super family. When receptors recognise microbes, cell activation and a subsequent release of inflammatory mediators, such as cytokines, may proceed. Cytokines produced by activated monocytes and macrophages further affect the immune response in many ways, both locally and systemically.

### 1.5.2 Inflammatory cytokines

A number of important cytokines and chemokines are produced by activated innate immune cells in response to receptor binding of a trigger agent. The following cytokines are of special interest in the mediation of inflammatory responses and is dealt with in this thesis.

The most abundant pro-inflammatory cytokine produced in early stages of an inflammatory response is tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) discussed elsewhere in this thesis. Further, IL-12p70 have dual roles in both being pro-inflammatory and in skewing the innate immune response towards an adaptive response with the subsequent production of antibodies, e.g. IL-12p70 modulate an IgE-mediated immune response to various allergens (Kim *et al.*, 1997). Also, the pleiotrophic cytokine IL-6 is mainly known to be involved in pro-inflammatory responses of the innate immune system, but also as a connector to the adaptive immune system by being involved in cell proliferation of lymphocytes and antibody production. The chemokine IL-8 has a primary role of being a granulocyte attractant to recruit other inflammatory cells to the site of an infection.

The anti-inflammatory cytokines transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (TGF- $\beta$ ) and IL-10 are important mediators in order to terminate or halt an inappropriate pro-inflammatory cytokine response initiated by e.g. TNF- $\alpha$  (Chung, 2001; Saxena *et al.*, 2008). Although less is known about anti-inflammatory regulation within the cell, the beneficial effects of regulative cytokines have been proposed, e.g. TGF- $\beta$  has been suggested in treatment of autoimmune diseases (Prud'homme *et al.*, 2000). However, the fact that high TGF- $\beta$  levels has a role in tumour progression (Medicherla *et al.*, 2007), development of organ damage (Saxena *et al.*, 2008) and

also in the aggravation of asthma (Duvernelle *et al.*, 2003) suggest that increased TGF- $\beta$  levels could be responsible for several negative health effects.

### **1.5.3 Inflammatory cytokines and apoptosis**

Inflammatory cytokines play major roles in the regulation of apoptotic cell death. Apoptosis is a useful process for the healthy organism in order to eliminate highly activated or damaged cells and to resolve inflammatory processes in order to seal off damaged tissues and limit prolonged inflammation (Savill *et al.*, 1997). The cytokines dealt with in this thesis are all connected to apoptotic processes within the cell.

Briefly, TNF- $\alpha$  initiates cell death through TNF-receptor mediated apoptosis (Van der Meide *et al.*, 1996; Chen *et al.*, 2002). The pleiotropic cytokine IL-6 has been shown to play a role in apoptosis especially by participating in the regulation of inflammation (Hodge *et al.*, 2002). TGF- $\beta$  production has been shown increase just prior to a TGF- $\beta$  dependent apoptotic process (Hodge *et al.*, 2002; Freire-de-Lima *et al.*, 2006). Finally, increased IL-10 production has been shown to subsequently inhibit apoptotic processes (Zhou *et al.*, 2001; Eslick *et al.*, 2004).

### **1.5.4 Mannan-binding lectin (MBL)**

The involvement of many types of serum/plasma proteins is of vital importance in the innate host defence. Acute phase proteins are associated with inflammatory responses and several are able to bind to microbes in order to facilitate recognition by receptors on phagocytic cells. One important acute-phase protein is the mannan-binding lectin (MBL) which recognises specific PAMP's such as mannose residues on a wide range of microbes including viruses, bacteria, fungi

and protozoa (Janeway *et al.*, 2005; Turner *et al.*, 1998). MBL-microbe complexes activate the complement system through the MBL pathway (Fig. 5).

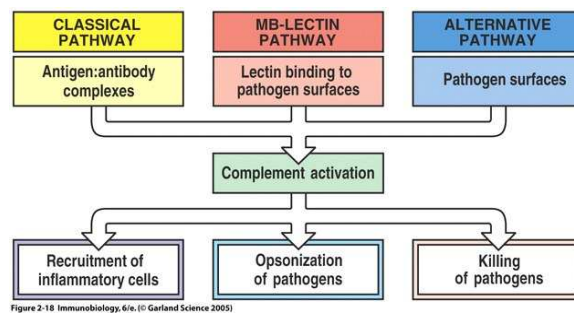


Fig 5  
Complement pathways in innate immune responses (Janeway *et al.*, 2005).

MBL deficiency in humans mainly results from one or several mutations in MBL genes and is primarily associated with increased susceptibility to infections and some autoimmune diseases (Garred *et al.*, 2001). Recently, a link between high serum MBL concentrations and certain inflammatory diseases, such as childhood asthma, has been proposed (Uguz *et al.*, 2005). However, the physiological role of high MBL concentrations in asthma is not well understood. MBL has also been investigated in relation to pro-inflammatory cytokine production and it has been suggested that microbes with highly mannosylated surfaces induce lower levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines from monocytes in the presence of high MBL concentrations, while pro-inflammatory cytokine production is enhanced in the presence of low MBL concentrations (Jack *et al.*, 2001). Further, some authors report that the production of regulatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-10, is enhanced in the presence of high MBL concentrations (Fraser *et al.*, 2006). This suggests that circulating MBL may be involved in modulation of

inflammatory cytokine responses and possibly plays an important role in the progression and severity of inflammatory diseases.

## **1.6 Oxidative stress and glutathione**

Adverse cell damage caused by the exposure to oxidative agents, e.g. reactive oxygen species (ROS), is commonly referred to as oxidative stress. Many oxidising compounds may be harmful to the cell as they bind to negatively charged intracellular molecules such as DNA and proteins. Binding of oxidants to DNA may induce mutagenic or carcinogenic effects in the cell, while proteins or lipids may alter their functions when bound to or influenced by oxidative agents.

Host defence mechanisms against oxidative agents involve the action of intracellular antioxidants present in all healthy cells. One important antioxidant is glutathione. Glutathione is typically used as a term to refer to tripeptide L-gamma-glutamyl-L-cysteinyl glycine in both its reduced and oxidised form (López-Mirabal and Winther, 2007).

The reduced form of glutathione is N-N-L-gamma-glutamyl-L-cysteinyl glycine (GSH) while the oxidised form of glutathione is L-gamma-glutamyl-L-cysteinyl glycine disulfide (GSSG). GSH is involved in many catalytic and metabolic processes in the cell, in signal transduction, gene expression and regulation of apoptosis (Anderson, 1998; Higuchi, 2004; Franco *et al.*, 2007). In the normal situation of low cellular oxidative stress the GSH/GSSG ratio is close to 1. The enzyme glutathione reductase (GR), together with the co-factor nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH), maintains glutathione in its reduced form (Griffith, 1999). The reduction, or neutralisation, of oxidative agents by GSH is mainly catalysed by the enzyme glutathione peroxidase (GP). During this process the unstable and highly reactive

oxidised glutathione, GSSG, is formed. GSSG is then reduced to GSH by GR in order to maintain the high GSH pool in the cell (Anderson, 1998).

### **1.6.1 The link between glutathione and inflammatory cytokines**

Production of pro-inflammatory cytokines is a redox-sensitive process and the red-ox equilibrium is influenced by cytokine production and vice versa (Haddad *et al.*, 2002; Haddad and Land, 2002). For example, GSH depletion activates inflammatory signals in the cell and the subsequent release of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1, IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  from alveolar epithelial cells (Haddad, 2000). Also, increased GSH levels have shown to inhibit pro-inflammatory cytokine production *in vitro* and in some clinical trials (Pena *et al.*, 1999). Less is known about the effect of GSH on anti-inflammatory cytokines, such as TGF- $\beta$  and IL-10. Some studies have indicated that TGF- $\beta$  may inhibit GSH synthesis (Arsalene *et al.*, 1997; Jardine *et al.*, 2002) suggesting that regulatory cytokines also may influence, or be influenced by, the cellular red-ox state.

### **1.6.2 The role for glutathione in host defence against mycotoxins**

The role for GSH is primarily to neutralise oxidative compounds by providing reducing equivalents, but GSH is also known to form temporary conjugates with oxidative agents. This mechanism has been suggested for some mycotoxins, i.e. depletion of the intracellular GSH pool is presumably caused by the formation of conjugates between GSH and the mycotoxin (Pfeiffer *et al.*, 2005; Dai *et al.*, 2002). Although this process is not well understood, it is thought that glutathione-transferases (GST), a family of multifunctional enzymes, catalyse this conjugation resulting in GSH-conjugates which are transported out of the cell. The export of GSH-conjugates

from cells is an ATP-dependent process mediated by proteins belonging to the multidrug-resistance protein family (MRP). Proteins of the MRP family are also known as GSH-conjugate pumps (Cole *et al.*, 2006).

Whether mycotoxins contribute to inflammatory responses through their interaction with GSH is poorly investigated. Mycotoxins often do not contribute directly to increase pro-inflammatory cytokine production, but rather modulate or decrease cytokine production induced by other inflammatory compounds such as LPS (Chung *et al.*, 2003). However, the involvement of mycotoxins in both oxidative stress mechanisms and in the modulation of inflammatory cytokine production seems plausible as summarised in Fig. 6, and discussed in this thesis.

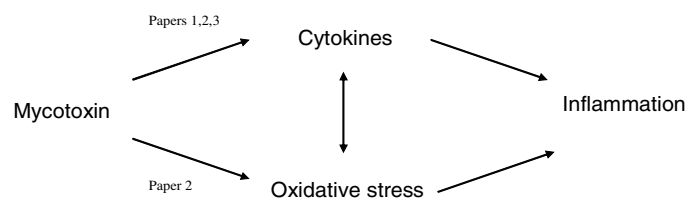


Fig. 6 Possible roles for a mycotoxin as a mediator of inflammation



## 2 Aims of the study

In view of the literature describing adverse health effects in humans as a result of fungal exposure and the lack of known responsible molecular and immunological mechanisms, it is important to elucidate some of the cellular responses that could be involved. The role of fungal compounds in relation to inflammatory responses is of particular interest.

The objectives of this thesis were as follows:

- Determine time- and dose-effects of the mycotoxins citrinin and gliotoxin on inflammatory cytokine production in monocytes (paper I).
- Elucidate the ability of the mycotoxins citrinin and gliotoxin to affect cellular oxidative stress mechanisms and to modulate inflammatory cytokine production in alveolar epithelial cells (paper II).
- Determine the effects of mixed microbial compound exposure and detect possible interactions between the compounds that could influence inflammatory cytokine production by monocytes (paper III).
- Measure inflammatory cytokine production by monocytes from asthmatic individuals after *in vitro* exposure to fungal cell wall mannan polysaccharides and relate the cytokine production to autologous plasma mannan-binding lectin concentrations (paper IV).

### 3 Summary of papers

#### Paper I

Mycotoxins are present on airborne fungal spores and fragments and may possibly play a role in adverse health effects. In **paper I** we measured inflammatory cytokine production from a monocytic cell line (MM6) and elucidated time- and dose-effects of the mycotoxins citrinin or gliotoxin. Non-toxic mycotoxin concentrations reduced LPS-induced production of the regulatory and anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 while TNF- $\alpha$  production was not reduced. The reduced IL-10 production was not caused by a general cytotoxic effect, as cell death by apoptosis did not increase. Reduced IL-10 production by the mycotoxins could support an inappropriate inflammatory response driven by TNF- $\alpha$ . LPS-induced IL-6 production was slightly influenced by the mycotoxins, but not to the same extent as IL-10 production. We conclude that the mycotoxins citrinin or gliotoxin cause an imbalance in inflammatory cytokine production *in vitro*. We propose from this study that exposure to the investigated mycotoxins may influence or enhance an inflammatory response.

#### Paper II

Production of inflammatory cytokines and induction of cellular oxidative stress mechanisms could be influenced by mycotoxins. We showed in **paper II** that LPS-induced production of the regulatory and anti-inflammatory cytokine TGF- $\beta$  by an alveolar epithelial cell line (A549) was somewhat reduced when exposed to relatively low concentrations of the mycotoxins citrinin or gliotoxin. TGF- $\beta$  production increased when cells were exposed to higher mycotoxin concentrations. Production of the pleiotropic cytokine IL-6 and the chemokine IL-8

was not affected. Levels of the antioxidant glutathione were reduced in A549 with increasing, but non-toxic concentrations of citrinin after 48 or 72 hrs. Dose-and time effects of mycotoxin exposure were also indicated by a tendency to an opposite relationship between TGF $\beta$  production and glutathione levels. We conclude that the investigated mycotoxins may induce cellular oxidative stress responses by reducing intracellular levels of the antioxidant glutathione and also modulate production of the regulatory and anti-inflammatory cytokine TGF- $\beta$ .

### **Paper III**

Exposure to combinations of microbial compounds (bacterial LPS, fungal polysaccharides and mycotoxin) may occur simultaneously in environmental exposure situations, but the cellular responses to such are poorly studied and not well understood. With different exposure regimes we showed in **paper III** that the fungal polysaccharides mannan or  $\beta$ -glucan induced TNF- $\alpha$  production, but not detectable IL-10 production in normal human monocytes. The mycotoxin citrinin reduced LPS-induced IL-10 production, but not the TNF- $\alpha$  production, thus confirming earlier observations from paper I.

We statistically estimated interactions between the bacterial and fungal compounds and the influence on TNF- $\alpha$  production by monocytes. By using a multiple regression model (linear mixed model) we found that monocyte exposure to combinations of the fungal polysaccharides,  $\beta$ -glucan in particular, and LPS reduced TNF- $\alpha$  production compared to single compound exposures. We conclude that TNF- $\alpha$  production by monocytes due to combined microbial compound exposure may be different from that deduced from exposure to the single compounds.

### **Paper IV**

Individuals with asthma are at risk of bronchial symptoms when exposed to airborne fungi. It seems that increased levels of the plasma protein mannan-binding lectin (MBL) play a

role in severe asthmatic disease, although the role for MBL in mild and untreated adult asthma is poorly investigated. Also, MBL has been shown to be involved in modulation of inflammatory cytokine production.

We conducted a pilot study and report in **paper IV** that *in vitro* exposure of monocytes to the fungal cell wall polysaccharide mannan, in the presence of autologous plasma, induced lower TNF- $\alpha$  production in cells isolated from adults with mild and untreated asthma compared to healthy controls. A tendency to increased plasma MBL levels in asthmatics was observed, although not statistically significant, suggesting that MBL levels may be associated to the severity of asthma. Results from this small study call for further investigations on the role of MBL in asthma and in particular on the role of MBL in modulation of non-allergic inflammatory cytokine production induced by the fungal polysaccharide mannan.

## **4 General discussion**

### **4.1 Methodological considerations**

#### **4.1.1 *In vitro* assays and the extrapolation to human exposure**

Environmental exposures are most often highly complex and involve a variety of agents, i.e. microbes, microbial products, particles and chemicals. Time and route of the exposure may vary and there is also variability of individual responses and subjective symptoms. Hence, *in vitro* investigations of exposure effects may sometimes be of limited relevance to describe actual biological effects of single or multiple agents in the environment. Also, *in vitro* experimental studies, commonly using single types of cells, have limited relevance in describing complex local and systemic responses seen in tissues and whole organisms. Observed modulations and alterations of cellular responses due to defined exposures are sometimes difficult to relate to specific clinical symptoms. In order to obtain a more detailed understanding of biological effects due to factors present in the environment, however, *in vitro* assays are essential. With the increasing availability of techniques used to explore complex processes in cell biology, the *in vitro* approach is invaluable to help us understand processes in the individual cell. New emerging genomics and proteomics techniques will probably be of great importance for large scale screening of single and multiple effects of exposure agents, thus, mechanisms in host responses can be studied more thoroughly. Once a more complete picture of biological mechanisms is known, understanding of physiological processes can emerge.

#### **4.1.2 Soluble substances versus particles**

The route of microbial exposure in an indoor air setting is through inhalation and it is commonly thought that inhalation of particles, such as fungal spores and other airborne fragments, leads to the distribution of inflammatory compounds into the lungs. Thus, *in vitro* studies using particles coated with inflammatory compounds of interest, such as LPS or fungal polysaccharides, may be useful in order to simulate the inflammatory potential of bacteria or fungal spores, respectively. The initiation of an inflammatory response may proceed through different membrane receptors used by soluble or particulate forms of inflammatory substances (Flo *et al.*, 2000). Also, an increased inflammatory cytokine response to particles, probably because of adjuvant effects, is often observed (Berntzen *et al.*, 1998). However, dose-effects or interactions between various microbial compounds may be difficult to observe using particles, and moreover the inflammatory compounds are not always linked to particles/microbes in the environment, but rather the compounds may be airborne and are inhaled i.e. through aerosols (Wouters *et al.*, 2006). Thus, it is meaningful to study the inflammatory potential of defined soluble compounds and in particular when the vehicles for the various compounds are not well defined as in the case when the compounds are separated from spores, fragments, dust particles or whole cell microbes.

#### **4.1.3 Cell lines versus primary cells**

Cell-specific differences in the production of inflammatory cytokines are essential for the innate immune response and also for disease pathogenesis. *In vitro* cell line systems offer highly

reproducible cellular responses and minimal loss of cell viability, which often is a problem with normal immune cells especially when prolonged exposures are required.

However, cell lines may also differ considerably in the ability to produce inflammatory cytokines probably because of different cell specific signalling through activated receptors (Zughaier *et al.*, 2005). The alveolar epithelial cancer cell line A549 (paper II) has shown to respond somewhat different from normal epithelial cells during e.g. virus infections (Wansley *et al.*, 2005), although inflammatory cytokine production after environmental LPS exposure of normal lung epithelial cells or A549 is similar (Palmberg *et al.*, 1998).

Some commonly used monocytic cell lines, such as THP1, have shown not to respond with inflammatory cytokine production when exposed to various sources of endotoxins (LPS) compared to normal blood monocytes (Yamamoto *et al.*, 2003). The fact that cell line responses may not always be representative for normal cell responses makes it necessary to additionally test exposure effects in normal cell systems. The monocytic cell line MM6 (paper I) showed similar cytokine responses to LPS stimulation as primary blood monocytes did (papers III and IV).

Some recent *in vitro* studies have shown interactions between different types of cells, i.e. lung epithelial cells and alveolar macrophages, and some of the complicated cellular processes and interactions that exists are suggested (Rubovitch *et al.*, 2007; Elizur *et al.*, 2008). However, the primary limitation of all *in vitro* studies will still be that the results obtained are only relevant for certain experimental settings, and thus they are difficult to extrapolate directly to *in vivo* situations.

#### **4.1.4 Human immune and epithelial cells as exposure targets in vitro**

Alveolar epithelial cells are relevant to study because the exposure route of indoor microbial compounds is through inhalation. Although alveolar epithelial cells (paper II) are biologically plausible actors in an immune response, the presumably most important immune cells in lung tissues are the alveolar macrophages. Monocytes resemble macrophages with regard to most innate immune responses, except for the superior phagocytic capacity of the macrophages and differences in the magnitude of inflammatory cytokine production (Losa-García *et al.*, 1999). We used the adherent cell fraction of blood monocytes isolated from PBMC to simulate macrophage activity with regard to cytokine production (papers III and IV).



## 4.2 Findings and implications

### 4.2.1 The "relevant dose" question – from culture wells to damp buildings

Exposure effects to environmental microbes must be assumed to vary. Besides the concentration of inhaled microbes and their products, other factors such as the thresholds for activation of various cell types and differences in the individual susceptibility to the exposure substance are of importance.

The presence of mycotoxins in damp buildings is presumably of importance, but as the concentration of inhaled toxins is highly uncertain, human health effects are difficult to evaluate. In fact, it may not be possible to predict concentrations of inhaled mycotoxins due to lack of validated investigation methods. Perhaps the most uncertain method is to detect mycotoxin exposure by determining the presence of a fungal species known to be responsible for toxin production. Different fungi may favour certain building materials and the growth conditions for a particular fungal strain, in order to produce toxins, may differ. E.g. species of the fungal contaminant *Chaetomium* may produce the mycotoxin chaetoglobosin A at 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$  on wallpapered gypsum boards, but at the same time the quantities of mycotoxins isolated from *Penicillium sp.* may be low (Nielsen *et al.*, 1999). Another method used to determine airborne mycotoxin exposure is to extract mycotoxins from fungal spores and fragments. This may, however, not be representative for the actual environmental toxin concentration if (i) the fungal strain is grown on standardised nutrition media as toxin production may be depleted at laboratory conditions, and (ii) the yield of toxin after extraction from the fungal strain may be low. In recent years, however, the methods used to detect mycotoxins from indoor environments, predominantly produced by *Aspergillus sp.* and *Stachybotrys sp.*, have improved (Bloom *et al.*, 2007).

On the basis of existing research on the topic, it cannot be ruled out that doses of mycotoxins that could affect inflammatory responses may be encountered in certain indoor exposure situations. Fungal spores and fragments may be effectively released from microbial growth on modern building materials, and especially during agitation or handling of the infected materials (Madsen *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, for the mycotoxins investigated in this thesis, it has been shown that *A. fumigatus* grown on wallpapered gypsum boards can produce gliotoxin in concentrations of about 20 ng/cm<sup>2</sup> (Nieminen *et al.*, 2002), that would equal 2 µg mycotoxin/100 cm<sup>2</sup>. Thus, it can be presumed that high enough mycotoxin doses to influence inflammatory responses can be encountered from relatively small areas with heavy mould growth on indoor materials, provided that the dose is quantitatively released and subsequently inhaled.

Citrinin is a mycotoxin that has been isolated both from food, e.g. cheese (Kokkonen *et al.*, 2005), and from indoor materials (Jarvis and Miller, 2005; Tuomi *et al.*, 2000). Possibly, citrinin production is favoured on materials with high sucrose content, in contrast to cellulose content (El-Magraby and El-Maraghy, 1988). Thus, the production of citrinin on many cellulose based indoor materials may be restricted. However, it has been suggested that concentrations of citrinin in indoor environments may be up to 20 µg /g fungal biomass (Tuomi *et al.*, 2000) suggesting that high enough doses to influence inflammatory responses could be relevant in certain settings.

The water soluble extracellular polysaccharides, often called extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), are major components of most microbial cell walls including all kinds of fungi. The saccharides may contain monomers of different sugars such as mannose, fucose, glucose, galactose or arabinose and the production of the different sugars is highly dependent of the growth conditions of the microbe (Cho *et al.*, 2001). EPS extracted from *Aspergillus* and

*Penicillium* isolates (EPS-Asp/Pen) have been used in immunoassays in order to detect environmental EPS as surrogates for fungal exposure (Chew *et al.*, 2001; Douwes *et al.*, 1999). As mentioned, there may be several different saccharides and the amount of mannose polymers (as parts of the EPS) has not been reported.

High concentrations of EPS in indoor environments have been suggested to correlate with increased building-related respiratory symptoms (Douwes *et al.*, 1999). However, it has also been pointed out that increased EPS concentrations in indoor environments of e.g. farm children may be inversely related to asthma development (Ege *et al.*, 2007). The conflicting reports may be due to lack of characterisation of the exposure agent or different methods used in the investigations. The latter study showed high variability of exposure effects between different countries, suggesting that confounding factors may be involved.

A high variability in detected EPS concentrations has been observed particularly in damp buildings. Some authors have suggested that relative concentrations of EPS in settled house dust could be in the range between 25,000 and 50,000 U/g (Chew *et al.*, 2001; Douwes *et al.*, 1999; Douwes *et al.*, 2006). It must be assumed that a variability of EPS concentrations in damp buildings is caused by various amounts of microbes present, especially fungi, but also the lack of standardised and validated methods for analysis and characterisation of these polysaccharides (and their biological activity) may lead to a high uncertainty with regard to the interpretation of findings.

Glucan content of indoor settled house dust has been detected in various concentrations, e.g. about 22 mg/g (Gehring *et al.*, 2001), about 1 mg/g (Chew *et al.*, 2001) and about 0.6 mg/g (Douwes *et al.*, 2000). Concentrations up to 300 µg glucan/mg dust have been detected in an occupational waste handling industry (Wouters *et al.*, 2006). None of these studies provided

information about the molecular forms of the glucans detected, which presumably are highly different depending on environmental conditions (Sletmoen and Stokke, 2008).

Only a few studies have addressed the glucan concentrations in bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluids from individuals exposed to airborne fungi. Although increased glucan concentrations in BAL fluids (in the range from 200 to 2,500 pg/mL) have been measured along with enhanced pro-inflammatory cytokine release, this has only been investigated in patients diagnosed with the inflammatory lung disease farmer's lung or in patients with acute eosinophilic pneumonia (described as a variant of summer-type hypersensitivity pneumonitis) (Ashitani *et al.*, 2008; Kawayama *et al.*, 2003). However, these findings suggest that increased concentrations of glucan in BAL fluids can be associated with the development of inflammatory lung diseases.

It should be emphasised that the ability of different glucans to exert biological activity, i.e. modulate cytokine production, is dependent on that a sufficient amount of glucan molecules bind to cell surface receptors, and therefore on the administered dose, molecular weight and branching, and conformation of the molecule (Okazaki *et al.*, 1995; Sletmoen and Stokke, 2008; Falch *et al.*, 2000). In order to identify the active component that presumably gives a particular biological effect, the sample should be well characterised and the number of interfering substances that may affect cellular responses should be minimised. These requirements are challenging when working with fungal glucan extracts, since small differences in the fungal genetics as well as environmental factors such as growth substrate, temperature and moisture could lead to differences in the sample composition. Also, the fact that glucans may interact with 'guest' molecules, i.e. bind other molecules in the environment, complicates characterisation and the measurement of actual biological activity of the glucan sample. Hence, the diversity of glucans found in nature is a result of the diversity of structurally distinct molecules and

impurities. When used in research projects, this could lead to different conclusions when comparing results from different research groups (Brown and Gordon, 2003).

Health effects of endotoxin exposure in indoor environments, and in particular in damp buildings, have been reported and as for the fungal products there are variable concentrations measured, e.g. in house dust samples in a range between 30,000 EU/g dust (Heinrich *et al.*, 2003) and 60,000 EU/g dust (Douwes *et al.*, 2006; Hines *et al.*, 2000). In occupational settings, such as waste handling industries, bioaerosol concentration has shown to exceed conventional exposure limits (Dutch) (50-200 EU/m<sup>3</sup> for inhaled endotoxin) (Wouters *et al.*, 2006). Building-related symptoms associated with endotoxin exposure are overall similar to those of fungal exposure, especially upper and lower respiratory symptoms and headache (Park *et al.*, 2006).

Reports of modulation of inflammatory symptoms due to exposure to mixed microbial compounds such as environmental endotoxin (LPS) and glucan are few. However, it has been reported in an epidemiologically study that exposure to endotoxin may change the effect of fungal exposure (and vice versa), more specifically that lower respiratory symptoms are enhanced by a mixed endotoxin and fungal exposure (Park *et al.*, 2006). This suggests that symptoms due to mixed exposure could be different, and may be enhanced, compared to symptoms from single compound exposure. However, the molecular mechanisms of glucans as biological response modifiers are not well understood, but may involve both activating and inhibitory pathways. Some authors have demonstrated inhibitory effects of mixed LPS and glucan exposure with regard to pro-inflammatory cytokine production (Soltys *et al.*, 1999), thus supporting the findings in paper III. Also, it has been suggested that individuals exposed to organic dust when living at farms, presumably involving combined exposure of endotoxin and fungal glucan, could be protected against adult asthma (Douwes *et al.*, 2007). On the other hand, another report concludes

that exposure to a farming environment is not always beneficial, but rather that e.g. pig-keeping farms constitute so-called “protective factors” (Ege *et al.*, 2007). Further, and on a more general basis, *in vivo* observations indicate that microbial exposure effects and susceptibility for asthma development may be strongly regulated by genetic factors, such as the individual expression of TLR genes (Eder *et al.*, 2004; Ege *et al.*, 2006). Also, another recent study emphasise that genetic variations in the innate immunity gene expression could modulate the individual response to microbial agents and the susceptibility and development of atopy and asthma (Smit *et al.*, 2007). In this context, it is tempting to suggest that the results presented in paper IV could reflect that reduced pro-inflammatory cytokine production in asthmatics may partly be regulated by the levels of circulating MBL that is presumably regulated by MBL genes. The possible associations between fungal exposure, individual MBL levels and asthma development remain to be elucidated.

#### **4.2.2 What do our findings tell us about the symptoms experienced in damp buildings?**

Findings in this thesis can partly explain some of the experienced non-allergic inflammatory symptoms in damp buildings. More specifically, results reported in paper I, II and III suggest that the mycotoxins citrinin or gliotoxin may act indirectly to support a pro-inflammatory cytokine production and reduce anti-inflammatory cytokine production induced by LPS. Further, the mycotoxin citrinin in particular, increased oxidative stress mechanisms and this may support an inflammatory state of the cells.

Reports of symptoms including irritation of mucous membranes and cough may be explained by a general sensitivity to particulate substances, including spores, and it seems plausible that inflammagenic compounds present on the inhaled bacteria, spores, fungal

fragments or other carrier substances would further enhance such irritation. Other symptoms of inflammatory processes, including headache, fever, nausea and fatigue, may be initiated by production of TNF- $\alpha$  in particular (Oshiro and Morris, 1997; Sanchez-Del-Rio and Reuter, 2004). Yet, other symptoms are more difficult to relate directly to known specific or non-specific cellular immune responses. Respiratory symptoms reported by means of damp buildings, especially by asthmatics, but the cellular mechanisms responsible for these symptoms are still inconclusive. Several factors of the innate and/or adaptive immune system may be involved (Eisenbarth *et al.*, 2004). However, aggravation of inflammatory respiratory symptoms is likely to be related to pro-inflammatory cytokine production, both in normal and asthmatics.

#### **4.2.3 The role for mannose-binding lectin (MBL) in asthma and the asthmatic response to fungal exposure**

Although a strong correlation between fungal exposure and severity and aggravation of asthmatic disease has been reported (Denning *et al.*, 2006; Zureik *et al.*, 2002; O'Driscoll *et al.*, 2005), the molecular mechanisms underlying the clinical symptoms in asthma due to fungal exposure are still not clarified.

Among the genetically influenced immune modulating proteins of the innate immune system, MBL has emerged (Turner and Hamvas, 2000). Little is known about the role for MBL in immune responses to fungal exposure, but several aspects of MBL may be of importance. First, high levels of MBL have been implicated in the development and maintenance of airway hyper responsiveness (Hogaboam *et al.*, 2004). Further, MBL is

capable of binding to fungi such as *Candida albicans*, *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *A. fumigatus* (Neth *et al.*, 2000). Environmental bacteria are also recognised by MBL (Niedoszytko *et al.*, 2007). Also, a role for MBL has been shown in the modulation of inflammatory cytokine production in monocytes, as discussed in paper IV. It seems that high physiological levels of MBL may inhibit or reduce pro-inflammatory cytokine production from monocytes/macrophages (Jack *et al.*, 2001). However, the role for MBL in asthma, in the context of inhibition of TNF- $\alpha$  production, brings up conflicting theories. The fact that clinical symptoms of inflammation in both normal and asthmatic subjects is largely characterised by high systemic TNF- $\alpha$  production (Gaga *et al.*, 2007), does not support a role for MBL in reducing TNF- $\alpha$  production. In allergic asthma, however, where the cytokine profile is skewed towards high IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13 production, mast cells seem to be an important source of TNF- $\alpha$  production (Nakae *et al.*, 2007). This suggests that MBL may have a role in reducing TNF- $\alpha$  production from monocytes, but not from mast cells, and that the influence of MBL may be restricted to professional phagocytes.

#### **4.2.4 Implications for future practice and future research**

The cellular inflammatory response mechanisms responsible for symptoms in asthmatics due to fungal exposure need to be further elucidated. It is of particular interest to investigate the non-allergic inflammatory responses to fungal exposure in relation to MBL production. The fact that MBL may be an important modulator of inflammatory diseases could induce the hypothesis that certain individuals may be particularly susceptible for the development of asthmatic disease. Moreover, it may be of particular interest to explore if and



how specific fungal cell wall polysaccharides bind to MBL and whether this could affect the inflammatory response in asthma.

In a more practical setting, it is of particular interest to further elucidate the role for mycotoxins in a fungal exposure situation. The fact that only a limited amount of reports have suggested that mycotoxins may be present in sufficient concentrations to affect immune responses in exposed individuals calls for further research on this topic.

The most important issue, however, is to develop and improve methods used for the measurement of airborne mycotoxins and other fungal products. When increased knowledge of actual and relevant exposure doses is established, symptoms reported from exposed individuals in damp and mouldy buildings may better be related to cellular responses.

### 4.3 Overall conclusions

The mycotoxins studied may promote inflammatory responses by inhibiting production of anti-inflammatory cytokines at doses which do not inhibit pro-inflammatory cytokine production (paper I).

The mycotoxin citrinin in particular reduces levels of the antioxidant glutathione which may enhance inflammatory responses related to oxidative stress in alveolar epithelial cells. Also, the mycotoxins studied may interfere with the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine TGF- $\beta$  while not affecting pro-inflammatory cytokine/chemokine production (paper II).

Interactions between microbial products (LPS and glucan in particular) can modulate TNF- $\alpha$  production from monocytes. These interactions cannot be predicted by the exposure to one substance at a time. These results may possibly explain some of the conflicting reports of combinatory exposures in damp buildings (paper III).

Asthmatics produce lower levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF- $\alpha$  after fungal cell wall mannan exposure of monocytes. The autologous plasma concentration of mannan-binding lectin (MBL) may be relevant for the pro-inflammatory cytokine production in asthma (paper IV).

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# PAPER I

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# PAPER II





## Mycotoxin-induced depletion of intracellular glutathione and altered cytokine production in the human alveolar epithelial cell line A549<sup>☆</sup>

L.N. Johannessen<sup>a,\*</sup>, A.M. Nilsen<sup>a</sup>, M. Løvrik<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Cancer Research and Molecular Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, N-7489 Trondheim, Norway

<sup>b</sup> Division of Environmental Medicine, Norwegian Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway

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### Abstract

Mould exposure has been associated with asthma and other inflammatory airway conditions. However, cellular effects of inhaled mould components are not well understood. We hypothesised that host defence mechanisms, such as production of cytokines (TGFβ1, IL-6 and IL-8) and the intracellular antioxidant glutathione (GSH), could be adversely affected by different concentrations of mycotoxins. We studied the effects of citrinin and gliotoxin on lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated alveolar epithelial cells (A549). Cytokines in cell culture supernatants were analysed by ELISA and levels of GSH were measured by colorimetric (absorbance) determination. We found that GSH decreased in a dose- and time-dependent manner when cells were exposed to citrinin in particular. TGFβ1 was moderately reduced at low mycotoxin concentrations but elevated at higher sub-toxic concentrations. A tendency for an inverse relationship between TGFβ1 and GSH levels was observed. IL-6 and IL-8 were not significantly reduced at non-toxic mycotoxin concentrations. Thus, reduced epithelial GSH and TGFβ1 levels combined with elevated IL-6 and IL-8 levels may result in increased pro-inflammatory activity during mycotoxin exposure. We suggest that this mechanism can contribute to inflammation in mould exposure.

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**Keywords:** Indoor moulds; Mycotoxins; Inflammation; Oxidative stress; Cytokines

### 1. Introduction

An association between indoor mould exposure and inflammatory airway responses such as asthma has frequently been reported (Douwes and Pearce, 2003; Norbäck et al., 1999; Peat et al., 1998; Zock et al., 2002).

The exposure situation is complicated by the presence of several different compounds produced by moulds, along with the presence of bacterial endotoxins (Thorn, 2001). Indoor moulds may be a source of potentially inflammatory, allergenic and toxic compounds, e.g. cell wall polysaccharides such as β-glucans, enzymes such as glucoamylases, allergenic proteins, and also several volatile organic compounds (MVOC's) that could act additively or synergistically to induce and increase inflammation and immune responses (Beijer et al., 2003; Kreja and Seidel, 2002; Mari et al., 2003; Rylander and Rong-Hwa, 2000). Some studies indicate that adverse health

<sup>☆</sup> This work was done at the Department of Cancer Research and Molecular Medicine.

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +47 73 59 89 28;

fax: +47 73 59 88 01.

E-mail address: [Lene.Johannessen@ntnu.no](mailto:Lene.Johannessen@ntnu.no) (L.N. Johannessen).

effects in mouldy buildings could in part be related to toxic metabolites (mycotoxins) produced by moulds (Bunger et al., 2005; Fischer and Dott, 2003; Jarvis and Miller, 2005). Several mycotoxins have been associated with health effects seen in humans due to mould exposure (Bennett and Klich, 2003). Common mould genera such as *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* are frequently isolated from water-damaged buildings and, depending on growth conditions, they may produce mycotoxins. One mycotoxin that is often produced by *A. fumigatus* on water damaged building materials is the immunosuppressive compound gliotoxin (Nieminen et al., 2002; Schulz et al., 2004; Watanabe et al., 2004). Citrinin, which is known to be nephrotoxic, has been isolated from mouldy building materials with growth of *Penicillium* sp. and *Aspergillus* sp. among other mould species (Tuomi et al., 2000).

Host defence mechanisms against inhaled microbes include production of cytokines and chemokines by several different cell types including epithelial cells in the airway mucosa. The normal regulation of an immune reaction is dependent on the balance between pro-inflammatory mediators, such as IL-1, TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, IL-8 and IL-12, and regulatory cytokines such as IL-10 and TGF $\beta$ 1. In this study, we explored the effects of mycotoxins on production of IL-6, IL-8 and TGF $\beta$ 1. IL-6 is a pleiotropic pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokine involved in cell proliferation, antibody production and acute-phase protein formation. Depletion of IL-6 may also be important during pro-apoptotic processes (Hodge et al., 2002). IL-8 is a chemokine generally important in chemotaxis during inflammation. Production of transforming growth factor beta 1 (TGF $\beta$ 1) is important in the development of several chronic lung diseases, including asthma (Howell and McAnulty, 2006; Redington et al., 1997; Tillie-Leblond et al., 1999). Altered TGF $\beta$ 1 production has also been associated with chronic inflammatory pulmonary diseases with the induction of oxidative stress in alveolar epithelial cells (Mastruzzo et al., 2002). Normal host defence mechanisms include the constant production of relatively high amounts of the antioxidant glutathione (GSH). GSH is present in all mammalian cells and provides reducing equivalents for the redox-reaction catalysed by the reducing enzyme glutathione peroxidase. During this process GSH becomes oxidised glutathione (GSSG). The GSSG is then recycled into GSH by glutathione reductase and 2-nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH). It has been shown that adequate production of GSH controls and regulates inflammatory processes in the lung (Rahman and MacNee, 2000). Hence, alteration in alveolar GSH pro-

duction is recognised as a central feature of progressive inflammatory lung diseases, such as asthma.

We hypothesised that mycotoxins may interfere with the normal levels of GSH and the balance of cytokines produced during inflammatory responses triggered by LPS. The aim of this study was to explore whether mycotoxins affect the production of some of the cytokines involved in lung inflammation (IL-6, IL-8 and TGF $\beta$ 1) and also whether oxidative stress occurred in alveolar epithelial cells when they were exposed to mycotoxins.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Experimental design

The human alveolar epithelial carcinoma cell line A549 (Lieber et al., 1976) was cultured with or without lipopolysaccharide (LPS) to induce production of IL-6, IL-8 and TGF $\beta$ 1. After exposure to citrinin or gliotoxin, cytokine levels were analysed in cell culture supernatants. Further, cell viability was measured to provide information on whether or not LPS and mycotoxins had cytotoxic effects in the concentrations used. To investigate oxidative stress in cells when exposed to mycotoxins, intracellular reduced glutathione levels (GSH) and oxidised glutathione levels (GSSG) were determined.

### 2.2. Culture of alveolar epithelial cells

The cell line A549 (ATCC CCL-185) was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, USA) and cultured at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in Ham's F12K growth medium with L-glutamine (Gibco Life Tech., Eggenstein, Germany) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated foetal bovine serum (FBS) (EuroClone, Milano, Italy) and 0.5% gentamicin (Gibco).

### 2.3. Mycotoxins

Citrinin from *Penicillium citrinum* and gliotoxin from *Gliocladium virens* (Sigma–Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) were dissolved in 96% ethanol and serially diluted in cell culture medium as described below. The final concentration of ethanol in the cell culture experiments was maximum 1% (v/v) for the highest mycotoxin concentrations.

### 2.4. Cell culture assay

A549 cells were adjusted to 10<sup>5</sup> cells/mL and 400  $\mu$ L was added into three separate 24-well culture plates (Costar, Corning, NY, USA) for each of the mycotoxins. Cells were allowed to rest overnight at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Then, 50  $\mu$ L lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Sigma) was added to a final concentration of 10  $\mu$ g/mL. The mycotoxins were added in concentrations ranging from 0 to 50  $\mu$ g/mL citrinin and 0 to 100 ng/mL gliotoxin in dilution



steps of 1:2. The exposed and non-exposed cells were incubated for 0 h, 1 h, 6 h, 24 h, 48 h and 72 h (for GSH and viability analysis) or 48 h and 72 h (for cytokine and viability analyses). All experiments were repeated on two (GSH) or three (cytokine) different occasions.

### 2.5. Analysis of cytokines

A quantitative sandwich ELISA cytoset (BioSource Europe, Nivelles, Belgium) was used for measurement of the cytokines IL-6, IL-8 and TGF $\beta$ 1 in cell culture supernatants and the analysis was performed according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Briefly, 96-well ELISA plates (NUNC, Roskilde, Denmark) were coated with murine monoclonal anti-human IL-6 antibody, anti-human IL-8 antibody or anti-multispecies TGF $\beta$ 1 antibody. After addition of the cell culture supernatants, incubation and washing, biotinylated murine anti-IL-6 antibody, anti-IL-8 antibody or anti-TGF $\beta$ 1 antibody was added. Recombinant human IL-6, IL-8 and multispecies TGF $\beta$ 1 proteins were used as standards. After incubation, HRP-streptavidin enzyme was added, followed by substrate solution containing tetramethylbenzidine (Sigma). The optical density was read in a microplate reader (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) at 450 nm. Concentrations of cytokines were calculated from standards ranging from 1000 to 7.8 pg/mL (IL-6), 800 to 7.8 pg/mL (IL-8) or 4000 to 7.8 pg/mL (TGF $\beta$ 1) in dilution steps of 1:2. The results are presented as mean and standard deviation (S.D.) of duplicate ELISA samples (two samples from each of three separate culture plates in each of three independent experiments).

### 2.6. Cell viability testing

To investigate the time- and dose-dependent effects of the mycotoxins on A549 cells, Alamar Blue dye (BioSource) was used as recommended by the manufacturer. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of mycotoxins (with or without LPS) for 0 h, 1 h, 6 h, 24 h, 48 h and 72 h (GSH analysis) or 48 h and 72 h (cytokine analysis). Cells in the culture plates were spun down, and the cells were provided with fresh culture media before 10% Alamar Blue dye was added and the cultures were incubated further for 3 h at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Change in cell metabolic activity was registered as a colour change in the wells. Aliquots of 100  $\mu$ L were taken from cell culture supernatants and added into 96-well plates (Costar), and fluorometric determinations were made in a Fluoroscan II plate reader (Lab-systems, Stockholm, Sweden) at emission wavelength 590 nm and excitation wavelength 544 nm. Cell viability after mycotoxin/LPS exposure was calculated as percent of controls (cells with no mycotoxin added).

### 2.7. GSH/GSSG assay

Analysis of GSH and GSSG levels was performed according to a modified form of the Tietze method (Tietze, 1969) by using the Bioxytech GSH/GSSG-412 kit (Oxis Research,

Portland, OR, USA) which utilises the change in colour development during the reaction. The reaction rate is proportional to the GSH or GSSG concentrations in each sample. Experiments were performed according to the manufacturer's recommendations, with slight modifications. Briefly, cells were exposed to mycotoxins (with or without LPS) as described above. After 0 h, 1 h, 6 h, 24 h, 48 h or 72 h incubation, cell culture plates were centrifuged at 500  $\times$  g for 5 min and supernatants were gently removed without removing unattached cells in the cell culture. Then, 100  $\mu$ L ice cold PBS was added to the wells, and additionally 10  $\mu$ L of scavenger reagent (M2VP) was added to the GSSG samples to scavenge GSH and prevent oxidation of GSH and hence an overestimation of GSSG in the samples. Cell culture plates were then immediately frozen at -80 °C until GSH/GSSG analysis. Before analysis, samples were thawed for 2 min, and 300  $\mu$ L ice cold 5% metaphosphoric acid (MPA) (Sigma) was added. Then, the samples were sonicated in the cell culture plates for at least 15 min keeping the water in the sonicator cold by adding ice. The lysed cells were mixed gently and the culture plates were centrifuged for 10 min at 1000  $\times$  g and 4 °C before adding 50  $\mu$ L of MPA extract (cell culture supernatant) to 700  $\mu$ L of ice-cold GSSG or GSH buffer provided with the kit. Final dilution of samples was 1:60. The samples were kept on ice until final preparation and analysis of absorbance at 412 nm in a Hitachi U-2000 spectrophotometer (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan).

### 2.8. Data presentation and statistical analysis

Analysis of cytokines, GSH/GSSG and viability are presented as means and standard deviation (S.D.) from two (GSH/GSSG with viability testing) or three (cytokine with viability testing) separate experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test to compare the exposed cultures (LPS/mycotoxin) with the non-exposed cultures (no mycotoxin). For comparison of relative TGF $\beta$ 1 and GSH curves, a two-way analysis of variance of means (ANOVA) was used. A probability value of 0.05 or less was considered statistically significant in all experiments.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Cell viability

Cell viability after mycotoxin exposure was determined by the Alamar Blue dye method. The mycotoxins generally reduced cell viability in a dose- and time-dependent manner both for citrinin and gliotoxin, as seen in Figs. 1 and 2. Citrinin at 50  $\mu$ g/mL reduced cell viability to 80% of control values after 6 h incubation (Fig. 1C) and after 24 h incubation, viability was reduced to approximately 40% of control values (Fig. 1D). The majority of cells did not survive 50  $\mu$ g/mL citrinin after 72 h incubation as cell viability dropped to approximately 20% of control values (Fig. 1F). Cell viability

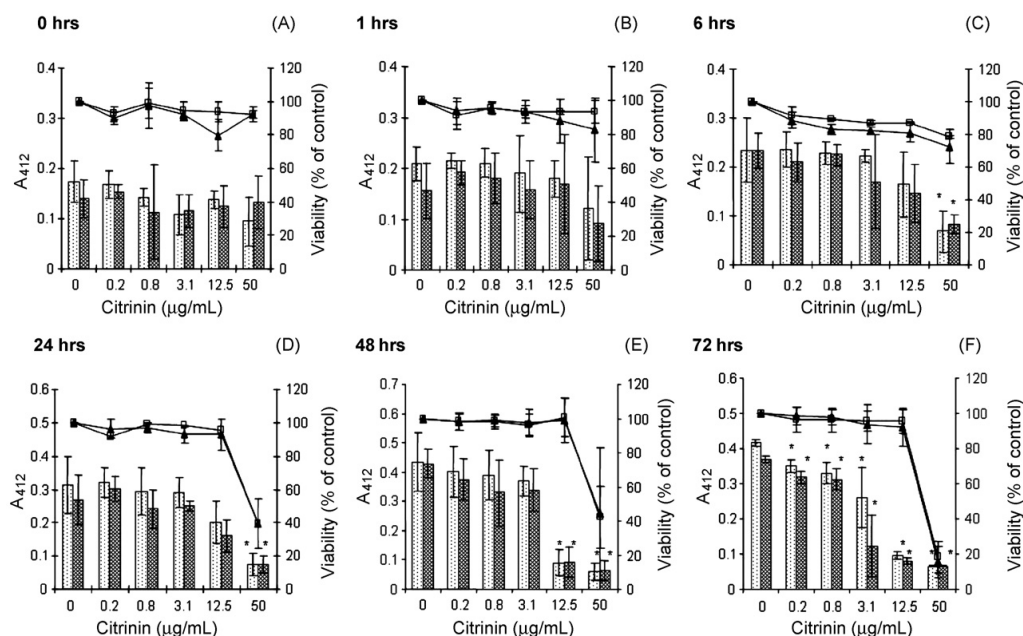


Fig. 1. GSH levels ( $A_{412}$ ) and cell viability of A549 cells after incubation for 0 h (A), 1 h (B), 6 h (C), 24 h (D), 48 h (E) and 72 h (F) with or without *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* LPS (10 µg/mL) and different concentrations of citrinin. GSH values are given as net absorbance (subtraction of blanks) at 412 nm and are the means  $\pm$  S.D. of two separate experiments. (\*) Significant decreased GSH levels compared to control ( $P < 0.05$ ). (□) GSH (without LPS); (▨) GSH (with LPS); (▲) viability (without LPS); (◻) viability (with LPS).

was reduced to approximately 40% after 6 h (Fig. 2C) and to approximately 20% after 24 h and 48 h when cells were incubated with 100 ng/mL gliotoxin (Fig. 2D and E). In contrast, cell viability was not significantly reduced after incubation with 100 ng/mL gliotoxin for 72 h (Fig. 2F). Exposure to mycotoxin with LPS in the cell culture medium did not reduce cell viability to a greater extent than mycotoxin without LPS. Ethanol (as solvent for the mycotoxins) in the concentrations used (maximum 1% (v/v)) did not exert any significant effect on cell viability (results not shown).

### 3.2. GSH production and cell viability

A time-dependent increase in relative GSH levels in non-exposed control cultures was observed (Figs. 1 and 2). With increasing doses of mycotoxins, GSH levels were reduced. Notably, for citrinin, a significant reduction of GSH occurred at concentrations below toxic doses at incubation times 48 h and 72 h (Fig. 1E and F), while this was not seen for gliotoxin (Fig. 2E and F). GSH levels were not significantly affected by LPS

alone. The oxidised form of glutathione (GSSG) was not increased with decreasing GSH levels, and GSSG levels were not elevated above baseline levels at any mycotoxin concentrations (results not shown). Ethanol (as solvent for the mycotoxins) in the concentrations used (maximum 1% (v/v)) and maximum 72 h incubation did not exert any significant effect on GSH levels (results not shown).

### 3.3. Cytokine production and cell viability

Production of IL-6, IL-8 and TGF $\beta$ 1 from A549 cells was induced by the presence of *P. aeruginosa* LPS (Figs. 3 and 4). In contrast, LPS from *Escherichia coli* (serotype O26:B6) did not induce detectable amounts of IL-6, IL-8 or TGF $\beta$ 1 (results not shown). None of the LPS preparations induced detectable production of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-12, IL-10 or IL-4 from A549 cells (results not shown). Mycotoxin exposure without LPS did not induce cytokine production above baseline levels at the concentrations used (Fig. 3; results not shown for IL-6/IL-8 analysis in Fig. 4).

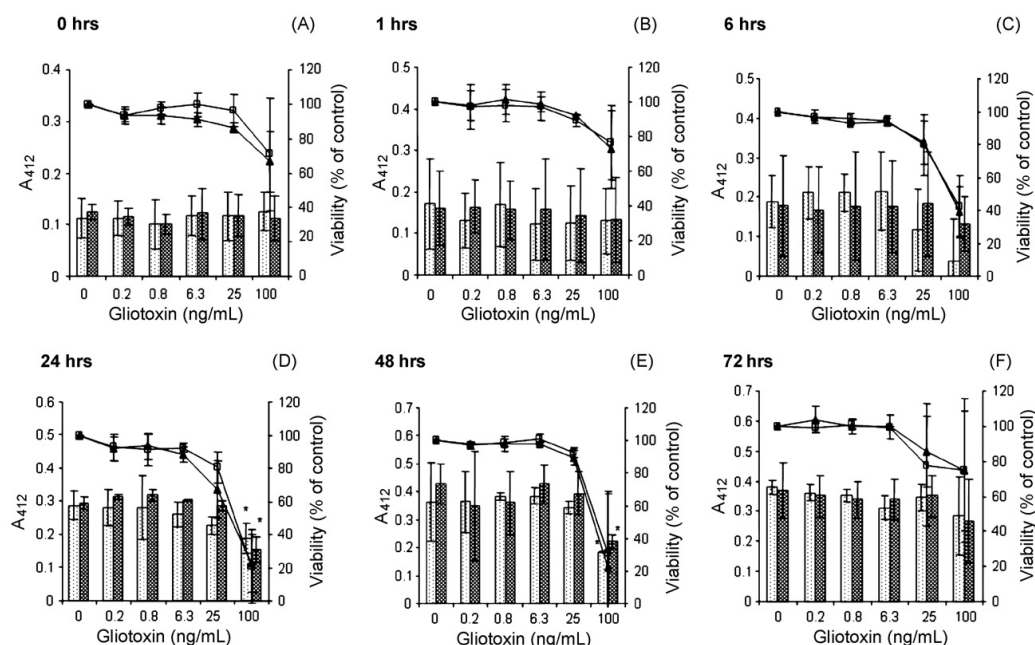


Fig. 2. GSH levels ( $A_{412}$ ) and cell viability of A549 cells after incubation for 0 h (A), 1 h (B), 6 h (C), 24 h (D), 48 h (E) and 72 h (F) with or without *P. aeruginosa* LPS (10 µg/mL) and different concentrations of gliotoxin. GSH values are given as net absorbance (subtraction of blanks) at 412 nm and are the means  $\pm$  S.D. of two separate experiments. (\*) Significant decreased GSH levels compared to control ( $P < 0.05$ ). (▨) GSH (without LPS); (▩) GSH (with LPS); (▲) viability (without LPS); (□) viability (with LPS).

### 3.3.1. TGF $\beta$ 1

Although not consistently statistically significant, TGF $\beta$ 1 levels seemed to be overall reduced at the lower mycotoxin concentration range (below 0.8 µg/mL citrinin and below 1.6 ng/mL gliotoxin) as shown in Fig. 3. A tendency to increased TGF $\beta$ 1 levels was consistently observed at higher mycotoxin concentrations (1.6–12.5 µg/mL citrinin and 3.1–50 ng/mL gliotoxin) in the presence of LPS. Citrinin at 25 µg/mL (with and without LPS) and 48 h incubation reduced TGF $\beta$ 1 abruptly along with a small reduction of cell viability to approximately 90% of control values. Citrinin at 50 µg/mL significantly reduced TGF $\beta$ 1 levels both after 48 h and 72 h along with reduction of cell viability to about 40% and 20% of control values. The highest concentration of gliotoxin (100 ng/mL) did not reduce TGF $\beta$ 1, in contrast to the findings with citrinin.

### 3.3.2. IL-6 and IL-8

The concentration of IL-6 was reduced after 48 h incubation when cells were exposed to 25 µg/mL cit-

rinin in the presence of LPS while cell viability was reduced to about 90% (Fig. 4A). The highest concentration of citrinin (50 µg/mL) reduced IL-6 levels with a simultaneous reduction of cell viability to approximately 40%. A similar tendency was observed at 72 h incubation, although not statistically significant. Gliotoxin at 50 ng/mL and 48 h incubation reduced IL-6 levels significantly (Fig. 4B), while gliotoxin at the highest concentration after 72 h incubation did not reduce IL-6 levels significantly. IL-8 was significantly reduced after 72 h incubation with 25 µg/mL citrinin, with a simultaneous reduction of cell viability to approximately 80% (Fig. 4A), while 50 µg/mL citrinin reduced IL-8 along with loss of cell viability to about 40% of control values after 48 h and to about 20% after 72 h incubation. Gliotoxin reduced IL-8 production significantly at 100 ng/mL after 48 h and caused reduction in cell viability to approximately 40% of control values (Fig. 4B). IL-8 was not reduced after 72 h incubation with any of the gliotoxin concentrations, and also cell culture viability was maintained after 72 h.

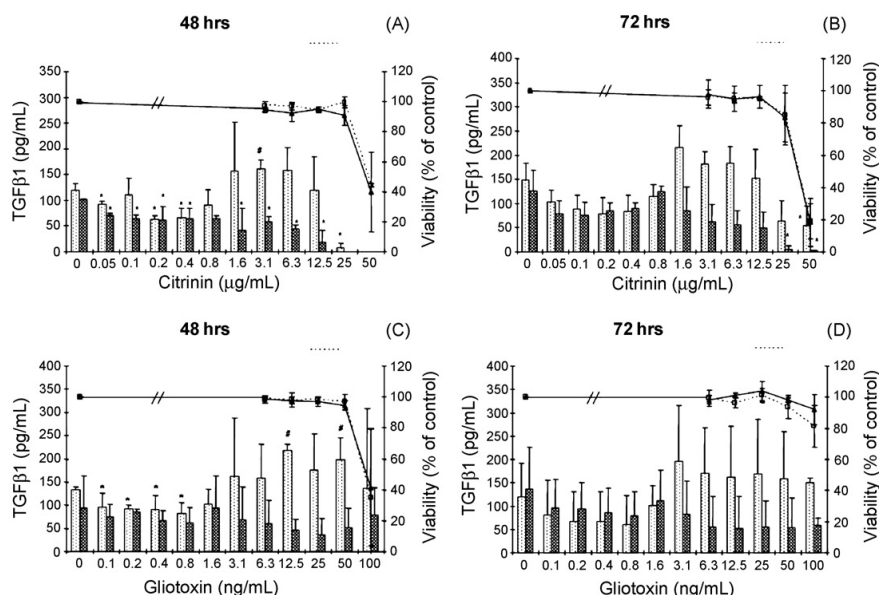


Fig. 3. TGFβ1 production and cell viability of A549 cells after incubation for 48 h or 72 h with or without *P. aeruginosa* LPS (10 μg/mL) and different concentrations of citrinin (A and B) or gliotoxin (C and D). Values are the means ± S.D. of three separate experiments. (\*) Significantly decreased TGFβ1 levels compared to control ( $P < 0.05$ ). (#) Significantly increased TGFβ1 levels compared to control ( $P < 0.05$ ). (□) TGFβ1 (with LPS); (▨) TGFβ1 (without LPS); (▲) viability (with LPS); (□) viability (without LPS).

### 3.4. Inverse co-variation between TGFβ1 and GSH

Fig. 5 shows the relative (compared to control) levels of GSH and TGFβ1 after 48 h or 72 h incubation of A549 cells with mycotoxin and LPS. A tendency to an inverse co-variation between GSH and TGFβ1 can be observed. Comparison of GSH curves with TGFβ1 curves at citrinin concentration steps identical to those used in the GSH assay, shows a significant difference between the curves at concentrations from 0.8 to 12.5 μg/mL (Fig. 5A and B). In the lower concentration range (below 0.8 μg/mL citrinin), relative GSH levels were higher than relative amounts of TGFβ1. The highest dose of citrinin (50 μg/mL) reduced both GSH and TGFβ1 corresponding to decreased cell viability. At 0.8–3.1 μg/mL citrinin, TGFβ1 levels increased while GSH levels were decreased. Gliotoxin did not affect GSH and TGFβ1 levels in the same manner as citrinin. However, concentrations from 0.8 to 100 ng/mL gliotoxin seemed to increase TGFβ1 slightly (Fig. 5C and D), while GSH was not significantly affected by gliotoxin in this concentration range.

### 4. Discussion

The mycotoxins gliotoxin and citrinin are produced by common indoor moulds such as *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*. These toxins have been shown to exhibit diverse cellular effects, including cytotoxicity. The aim of this study was to investigate the dose- and time-dependent effects of citrinin and gliotoxin on the alveolar epithelial cell line A549. Both citrinin and gliotoxin are known to be toxic to various types of cells, and the cytotoxicity is known to be due to apoptosis (Johannessen et al., 2005; Waring et al., 1988; Yu et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2000). Apoptosis is an efficient cellular mechanism to remove damaged cells without causing sustained organ inflammation. However, very high doses of these mycotoxins will kill A549 cells directly by necrosis (unpublished observations). Our hypothesis was that non-cytotoxic concentrations of mycotoxins would affect intracellular oxidant/antioxidant balance mechanisms and/or interfere with inflammatory cytokine responses triggered by LPS.

We found that the mycotoxins, in a dose- and time-dependent manner, decreased cell viability of A549 cells.

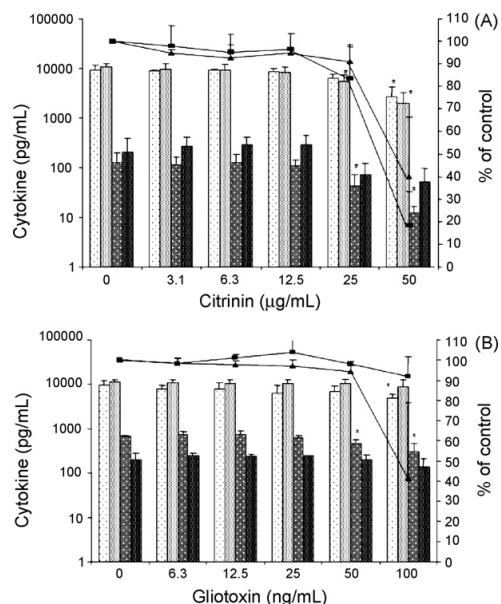


Fig. 4. IL-6 and IL-8 production and cell viability of A549 cells after incubation for 48 h or 72 h with *P. aeruginosa* LPS (10 µg/mL) and different concentrations of citrinin (A) or gliotoxin (B). Values are the means  $\pm$  S.D. of three separate experiments. (\*) Significant reduction compared to control ( $P < 0.05$ ). (□) IL-8 (48 h); (▨) IL-8 (72 h); (▩) IL-6 (48 h); (▧) IL-6 (72 h); (▲) viability (48 h); (■) viability (72 h).

After 6 h incubation, viability was reduced to 80% (citrinin) and to approximately 40% (gliotoxin) when the highest mycotoxin concentrations were used (50 µg/mL citrinin or 100 ng/mL gliotoxin). After 72 h incubation, 50 µg/mL citrinin reduced cell viability to about 20% of control values. Gliotoxin at 100 ng/mL seemed not to be completely cytotoxic to A549 cells as we observed a population of surviving cells after 72 h incubation. Doubling time of A549 cells is about 22 h (Lieber et al., 1976) and we suggest that some cells after 72 h may have proliferated, hence the maintenance of cell culture viability. Possibly, this indicates some heterogeneity of the cell line, with selection of gliotoxin-resistant variants.

We now tested if oxidative stress could be induced by sub-toxic doses of the mycotoxins. The levels of reduced glutathione (GSH) and oxidised glutathione (GSSG) were measured in relation to dose and time of exposure for both mycotoxins. Under normal conditions, cellular redox- and defence-mechanisms include action of regulatory enzymes keeping the oxidised form of glutathione (GSSG) at low intracellular levels, while the reduced form of glutathione (GSH) is produced in high

amounts (Rahman and MacNee, 2000). GSH depletion is in some cases associated with GSSG elevation and this is known to occur in response to some oxidative stimuli, such as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, while GSH depletion in parallel with unchanged and low GSSG levels have been described as a response to other oxidative stimuli, such as cigarette smoke condensate (CSC) (Rahman et al., 1995). First, we observed a time-dependent increase of GSH levels in the non-exposed control cultures, suggesting a time-dependent increase of cell density. Then, we found that citrinin, in a dose- and time-dependent manner, reduced GSH levels before any extensive loss of cell viability, while GSH reduction by gliotoxin was minimal before loss of cell viability. Neither of the mycotoxins caused elevated GSSG levels above baseline. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) may cause direct oxidising of GSH and form GSSG, while other types of oxidative agents may form conjugates with GSH, and temporarily prevent re-synthesis of GSH rather than elevating the intracellular GSSG levels (Rahman et al., 1995). We speculate that GSH may counteract the damaging effects of citrinin by forming GSH-citrinin conjugates, although this has to be confirmed by further studies. Such formation of GSH-citrinin conjugates has to our knowledge not been described in the literature. Recently, it has been suggested that apoptosis in human promyelocytic leukemia cells after citrinin exposure is not associated with formation of cellular oxidative stress (Yu et al., 2006). Here, we report that citrinin significantly reduce the antioxidant glutathione at sub-toxic doses, therefore we suggest that induction of oxidative stress may be part of citrinin cytotoxicity in alveolar epithelial cells.

Gliotoxin exists naturally in an oxidised form and cellular uptake is a glutathione-dependent mechanism, as shown in a murine tumour cell line (Bernardo et al., 2003). The toxin is rapidly reduced by GSH after cellular internalisation. However, induction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) followed by apoptosis have been observed in many cell types, including renal cells at a relatively high dose of gliotoxin (1200 ng/mL) (Zhou et al., 2000). We observed no decrease in GSH levels at concentrations below 100 ng/mL gliotoxin, indicating that no extensive oxidative stress occurs in gliotoxin-exposed alveolar epithelial cells below toxic concentrations.

We wanted to test if the mycotoxins affected the release of cytokines from epithelial cells triggered by LPS. First, we tested the ability of LPS from *E. coli* (serotype O26:B6) to trigger cytokine release, and then LPS from *P. aeruginosa*. No cytokine production was detected with LPS from *E. coli*. We found that LPS from *P. aeruginosa* at a relatively high dose (10 µg/mL) stimulated A549 cells to release IL-6, IL-8 and TGFβ1, but not



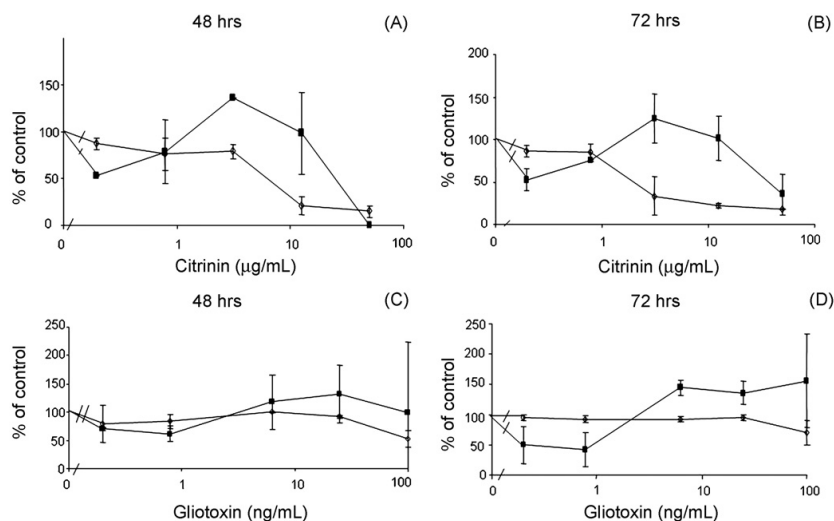


Fig. 5. Relative GSH ( $\diamond$ ) and TGF $\beta$ 1 ( $\blacksquare$ ) production from A549 cells after incubation for 48 h or 72 h with *P. aeruginosa* LPS (10  $\mu$ g/mL) and different concentrations of citrinin (A and B) or gliotoxin (C and D). Statistical calculations were performed by two-way ANOVA.

TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-12, IL-10 or IL-4. Previously, similar results on the ability of different LPS preparations to stimulate A549 cells have been reported (Koyama et al., 2000). It is likely that different bacterial LPS have somewhat different potentials to cause inflammatory reactions in various cells and organs. Thus, *P. aeruginosa*, being a pathogen of the lung, may be more likely than *E. coli* to induce LPS-induced inflammatory reactions in alveolar epithelial cells.

We found that the pleiotropic cytokine TGF $\beta$ 1 and the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6 and IL-8 were affected by increasing mycotoxin doses, although IL-6 and IL-8 largely remained elevated at non-toxic concentrations. IL-6 was slightly reduced at sub-toxic doses of 25  $\mu$ g/mL citrinin and at 50 ng/mL gliotoxin after 48 h incubation, while IL-8 remained elevated until the highest mycotoxin concentrations. Although not consistently significant, we found that TGF $\beta$ 1 was slightly reduced at the lower mycotoxin concentration range, while a tendency to increased levels was observed at higher mycotoxin doses. Asthma, and other inflammatory diseases, is characterised by high levels of bio-active TGF $\beta$ 1 *in vivo* (Redington et al., 1997), but also by even higher levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Tillie-Leblond et al., 1999).

Regulation of TGF $\beta$ 1 expression in the cell still remains largely unclear. Epithelial TGF $\beta$ 1 production may not depend on the induction of pro-inflammatory mediators such as TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-8, but rather

TGF $\beta$ 1 production may involve pro-inflammation independent pathways (Kwong et al., 2004). Interestingly, we found that there seems to be an inverse covariation between levels of GSH and production of TGF $\beta$ 1 at sub-toxic mycotoxin concentrations. This effect was most clearly seen with citrinin. At low citrinin concentrations (<0.8  $\mu$ g/mL) GSH levels were relatively higher than TGF $\beta$ 1. At higher citrinin concentrations (from 3.1 to 12.5  $\mu$ g/mL citrinin) TGF $\beta$ 1 was elevated along with a corresponding decrease in GSH.

Previously, it has been reported that TGF $\beta$ 1 is a potent inhibitor of GSH, and that GSH depletion in A549 is executed by TGF $\beta$ 1 by transcriptional down-regulation of the enzyme responsible for GSH formation,  $\gamma$ -glutamylcysteine synthetase (Arsalene et al., 1997; Jardine et al., 2002). Although it seems that citrinin reduces GSH in parallel to elevated TGF $\beta$ 1 production in our experiments, it cannot be ruled out that TGF $\beta$ 1 may be the true inhibitor of GSH. In this context, elevated TGF $\beta$ 1 may be the response to sub-toxic doses of citrinin, while depletion of GSH will be the indirect consequence. However, this cannot explain the situation after gliotoxin exposure as non-toxic doses did not deplete GSH levels significantly, in spite of elevated TGF $\beta$ 1 production.

Our experiments showed that increased TGF $\beta$ 1 production occurred at relatively high mycotoxin concentrations, although well below concentrations causing extensive cell death. Previously, it has been shown that

human bronchial epithelial cells that underwent apoptosis up-regulated TGF $\beta$ 1, while IL-6 was down-regulated (Hodge et al., 2002). Cytotoxicity in A549 cells is likely to proceed by apoptosis and the elevated TGF $\beta$ 1 levels and the decreased IL-6 observed may have been pro-apoptotic effects of the mycotoxins. However, at prolonged incubation times, the tested sub-toxic exposure doses did not cause further reduction of cell viability, as would have been expected with an induction of apoptosis, but rather cell viability remained constant after 48 h and 72 h incubation.

The mechanisms behind health effects caused by inhalation of toxigenic mould spores are yet to be further investigated. In this study we demonstrated that citrinin, but not gliotoxin, reduced glutathione levels in A549 cells at non-toxic concentrations. An inverse co-variation between TGF $\beta$ 1 and GSH levels was also demonstrated. Further, the levels of IL-6 and IL-8 were largely maintained in the non-toxic concentration range.

The levels of airborne mycotoxins that readily may be inhaled in mouldy environments must be assumed to vary depending on the amount of toxigenic moulds present. However, in a case of favourable growth of toxigenic moulds, we speculate that the observations in this study may reflect an ability of gliotoxin and citrinin in particular, to render human alveolar epithelial cells susceptible to inflammatory trigger agents in the environment, such as other mould components and bacterial LPS. Also, a susceptibility to environmental oxidative agents may develop. We suggest that this may facilitate asthma and other inflammatory lung diseases experienced by individuals in mouldy environments.

### Acknowledgements

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1989
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1990
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1991
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- 1992
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- 1993
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- 1994
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1996
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1997
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1998
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- 1999
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- 2000
158. Ola Dalsegg Sæther: PATHOPHYSIOLOGY DURING PROXIMAL AORTIC CROSS-CLAMPING CLINICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES
159. xxxxxxxx (blind number)
160. Christina Vogt Isaksen: PRENATAL ULTRASOUND AND POSTMORTEM FINDINGS – A TEN YEAR CORRELATIVE STUDY OF FETUSES AND INFANTS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL ANOMALIES.
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- 2001
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- 2002
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- 2003
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232. Arnulf Langhammer: RESPIRATORY SYMPTOMS, LUNG FUNCTION AND BONE MINERAL DENSITY IN A COMPREHENSIVE POPULATION SURVEY. THE NORD-TRØNDELAGE HEALTH STUDY 1995-97. THE BRONCHIAL OBSTRUCTION IN NORD-TRØNDELAGE STUDY
233. Einar Kjelsås: EATING DISORDERS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN NON-CLINICAL SAMPLES
234. Arne Wibe: RECTAL CANCER TREATMENT IN NORWAY – STANDARDISATION OF SURGERY AND QUALITY ASSURANCE
- 2004
235. Eivind Witsø: BONE GRAFT AS AN ANTIBIOTIC CARRIER
236. Anne Mari Sund: DEVELOPMENT OF DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS IN EARLY ADOLESCENCE
237. Hallvard Lærum: EVALUATION OF ELECTRONIC MEDICAL RECORDS – A CLINICAL TASK PERSPECTIVE
238. Gustav Mikkelsen: ACCESSIBILITY OF INFORMATION IN ELECTRONIC PATIENT RECORDS; AN EVALUATION OF THE ROLE OF DATA QUALITY
239. Steinar Krokstad: SOCIOECONOMIC INEQUALITIES IN HEALTH AND DISABILITY. SOCIAL EPIDEMIOLOGY IN THE NORD-TRØNDELAGE HEALTH STUDY (HUNT), NORWAY
240. Arne Kristian Myhre: NORMAL VARIATION IN ANOGENITAL ANATOMY AND MICROBIOLOGY IN NON-ABUSED PRESCHOOL CHILDREN
241. Ingunn Dybedal: NEGATIVE REGULATORS OF HEMATOPOIETIC STEM AND PROGENITOR CELLS
242. Beate Sitter: TISSUE CHARACTERIZATION BY HIGH RESOLUTION MAGIC ANGLE SPINNING MR SPECTROSCOPY
243. Per Arne Aas: MACROMOLECULAR MAINTENANCE IN HUMAN CELLS – REPAIR OF URACIL IN DNA AND METHYLATIONS IN DNA AND RNA
244. Anna Bofin: FINE NEEDLE ASPIRATION CYTOLOGY IN THE PRIMARY INVESTIGATION OF BREAST TUMOURS AND IN THE DETERMINATION OF TREATMENT STRATEGIES
245. Jim Aage Nøttestad: DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION AND MENTAL HEALTH CHANGES AMONG PEOPLE WITH MENTAL RETARDATION
246. Reidar Fossmark: GASTRIC CANCER IN JAPANESE COTTON RATS
247. Vibeke Nordhøy: MANGANESE AND THE HEART, INTRACELLULAR MR RELAXATION AND WATER EXCHANGE ACROSS THE CARDIAC CELL MEMBRANE
- 2005
248. Sturla Molden: QUANTITATIVE ANALYSES OF SINGLE UNITS RECORDED FROM THE HIPPOCAMPUS AND ENTORHINAL CORTEX OF BEHAVING RATS
249. Wenche Brenne Drøyyvold: EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDIES ON WEIGHT CHANGE AND HEALTH IN A LARGE POPULATION. THE NORD-TRØNDELAGE HEALTH STUDY (HUNT)

250. Ragnhild Støen: ENDOTHELIUM-DEPENDENT VASODILATION IN THE FEMORAL ARTERY OF DEVELOPING PIGLETS
251. Aslak Steinsbekk: HOMEOPATHY IN THE PREVENTION OF UPPER RESPIRATORY TRACT INFECTIONS IN CHILDREN
252. Hill-Aina Steffenach: MEMORY IN HIPPOCAMPAL AND CORTICO-HIPPOCAMPAL CIRCUITS
253. Eystein Stordal: ASPECTS OF THE EPIDEMIOLOGY OF DEPRESSIONS BASED ON SELF-RATING IN A LARGE GENERAL HEALTH STUDY (THE HUNT-2 STUDY)
254. Viggo Pettersen: FROM MUSCLES TO SINGING: THE ACTIVITY OF ACCESSORY BREATHING MUSCLES AND THORAX MOVEMENT IN CLASSICAL SINGING
255. Marianne Fyhn: SPATIAL MAPS IN THE HIPPOCAMPUS AND ENTORHINAL CORTEX
256. Robert Valderhaug: OBSESSIVE-COMPULSIVE DISORDER AMONG CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS: CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL MANAGEMENT OF PATIENTS IN OUTPATIENT PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS
257. Erik Skaaheim Haug: INFRARENAL ABDOMINAL AORTIC ANEURYSMS – COMORBIDITY AND RESULTS FOLLOWING OPEN SURGERY
258. Daniel Kondziella: GLIAL-NEURONAL INTERACTIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL BRAIN DISORDERS
259. Vegard Heimly Brun: ROUTES TO SPATIAL MEMORY IN HIPPOCAMPAL PLACE CELLS
260. Kenneth McMillan: PHYSIOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT AND TRAINING OF ENDURANCE AND STRENGTH IN PROFESSIONAL YOUTH SOCCER PLAYERS
261. Marit Sæbø Indredavik: MENTAL HEALTH AND CEREBRAL MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING IN ADOLESCENTS WITH LOW BIRTH WEIGHT
262. Ole Johan Kemi: ON THE CELLULAR BASIS OF AEROBIC FITNESS, INTENSITY-DEPENDENCE AND TIME-COURSE OF CARDIOMYOCYTE AND ENDOTHELIAL ADAPTATIONS TO EXERCISE TRAINING
263. Eszter Vanky: POLYCYSTIC OVARY SYNDROME – METFORMIN TREATMENT IN PREGNANCY
264. Hild Fjærtøft: EXTENDED STROKE UNIT SERVICE AND EARLY SUPPORTED DISCHARGE. SHORT AND LONG-TERM EFFECTS
265. Grete Dyb: POSTTRAUMATIC STRESS REACTIONS IN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
266. Vidar Fykse: SOMATOSTATIN AND THE STOMACH
267. Kirsti Berg: OXIDATIVE STRESS AND THE ISCHEMIC HEART: A STUDY IN PATIENTS UNDERGOING CORONARY REVASCULARIZATION
268. Björn Inge Gustafsson: THE SEROTONIN PRODUCING ENTEROCHROMAFFIN CELL, AND EFFECTS OF HYPERSEROTONINEMIA ON HEART AND BONE
- 2006
269. Torstein Baade Rø: EFFECTS OF BONE MORPHOGENETIC PROTEINS, HEPATOCYTE GROWTH FACTOR AND INTERLEUKIN-21 IN MULTIPLE MYELOMA
270. May-Britt Tessem: METABOLIC EFFECTS OF ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION ON THE ANTERIOR PART OF THE EYE
271. Anne-Sofie Helvik: COPING AND EVERYDAY LIFE IN A POPULATION OF ADULTS WITH HEARING IMPAIRMENT
272. Therese Standal: MULTIPLE MYELOMA: THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN MALIGNANT PLASMA CELLS AND THE BONE MARROW MICROENVIRONMENT
273. Ingvild Saltvedt: TREATMENT OF ACUTELY SICK, FRAIL ELDERLY PATIENTS IN A GERIATRIC EVALUATION AND MANAGEMENT UNIT – RESULTS FROM A PROSPECTIVE RANDOMISED TRIAL
274. Birger Henning Endreseth: STRATEGIES IN RECTAL CANCER TREATMENT – FOCUS ON EARLY RECTAL CANCER AND THE INFLUENCE OF AGE ON PROGNOSIS
275. Anne Mari Aukan Rokstad: ALGINATE CAPSULES AS BIOREACTORS FOR CELL THERAPY
276. Mansour Akbari: HUMAN BASE EXCISION REPAIR FOR PRESERVATION OF GENOMIC STABILITY
277. Stein Sundstrøm: IMPROVING TREATMENT IN PATIENTS WITH LUNG CANCER – RESULTS FROM TWO MULTICENTRE RANDOMISED STUDIES
278. Hilde Pley: BLEEDING AFTER CORONARY ARTERY BYPASS SURGERY - STUDIES ON HEMOSTATIC MECHANISMS, PROPHYLACTIC DRUG TREATMENT AND EFFECTS OF AUTOTRANSFUSION

279. Line Merethe Oldervoll: PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND EXERCISE INTERVENTIONS IN CANCER PATIENTS
280. Boye Welde: THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ENDURANCE TRAINING, RESISTANCE TRAINING AND MOTIVATIONAL STYLES IN ATHLETIC PERFORMANCE AMONG ELITE JUNIOR CROSS-COUNTRY SKIERS
281. Per Olav Vandvik: IRRITABLE BOWEL SYNDROME IN NORWAY. STUDIES OF PREVALENCE, DIAGNOSIS AND CHARACTERISTICS IN GENERAL PRACTICE AND IN THE POPULATION
282. Idar Kirkeby-Garstad: CLINICAL PHYSIOLOGY OF EARLY MOBILIZATION AFTER CARDIAC SURGERY
283. Linn Getz: SUSTAINABLE AND RESPONSIBLE PREVENTIVE MEDICINE. CONCEPTUALISING ETHICAL DILEMMAS ARISING FROM CLINICAL IMPLEMENTATION OF ADVANCING MEDICAL TECHNOLOGY
284. Eva Tegnander: DETECTION OF CONGENITAL HEART DEFECTS IN A NON-SELECTED POPULATION OF 42,381 FETUSES
285. Kristin Gabestad Nørsett: GENE EXPRESSION STUDIES IN GASTROINTESTINAL PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND NEOPLASIA
286. Per Magnus Haram: GENETIC VS. ACQUIRED FITNESS: METABOLIC, VASCULAR AND CARDIOMYOCYTE ADAPTATIONS
287. Agneta Johansson: GENERAL RISK FACTORS FOR GAMBLING PROBLEMS AND THE PREVALENCE OF PATHOLOGICAL GAMBLING IN NORWAY
288. Svein Artur Jensen: THE PREVALENCE OF SYMPTOMATIC ARTERIAL DISEASE OF THE LOWER LIMB
289. Charlotte Björk Ingul: QUANTIFICATION OF REGIONAL MYOCARDIAL FUNCTION BY STRAIN RATE AND STRAIN FOR EVALUATION OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE. AUTOMATED VERSUS MANUAL ANALYSIS DURING ACUTE MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION AND DOBUTAMINE STRESS ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY
290. Jakob Nakling: RESULTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF ROUTINE ULTRASOUND SCREENING IN PREGNANCY – A GEOGRAPHIC BASED POPULATION STUDY
291. Anne Engum: DEPRESSION AND ANXIETY – THEIR RELATIONS TO THYROID DYSFUNCTION AND DIABETES IN A LARGE EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDY
292. Ottar Bjerkeset: ANXIETY AND DEPRESSION IN THE GENERAL POPULATION: RISK FACTORS, INTERVENTION AND OUTCOME – THE NORD-TRØNDELAG HEALTH STUDY (HUNT)
293. Jon Olav Drogset: RESULTS AFTER SURGICAL TREATMENT OF ANTERIOR CRUCIATE LIGAMENT INJURIES – A CLINICAL STUDY
294. Lars Fosse: MECHANICAL BEHAVIOUR OF COMPACTED MORSELLISED BONE – AN EXPERIMENTAL IN VITRO STUDY
295. Gunilla Klensmeden Fosse: MENTAL HEALTH OF PSYCHIATRIC OUTPATIENTS BULLIED IN CHILDHOOD
296. Paul Jarle Mork: MUSCLE ACTIVITY IN WORK AND LEISURE AND ITS ASSOCIATION TO MUSCULOSKELETAL PAIN
297. Björn Stenström: LESSONS FROM RODENTS: I: MECHANISMS OF OBESITY SURGERY – ROLE OF STOMACH. II: CARCINOGENIC EFFECTS OF *HELICOBACTER PYLORI* AND SNUS IN THE STOMACH
- 2007
298. Haakon R. Skogseth: INVASIVE PROPERTIES OF CANCER – A TREATMENT TARGET ? IN VITRO STUDIES IN HUMAN PROSTATE CANCER CELL LINES
299. Janniche Hammer: GLUTAMATE METABOLISM AND CYCLING IN MESIAL TEMPORAL LOBE EPILEPSY
300. May Britt Drugli: YOUNG CHILDREN TREATED BECAUSE OF ODD/CD: CONDUCT PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL COMPETENCIES IN DAY-CARE AND SCHOOL SETTINGS
301. Arne Skjold: MAGNETIC RESONANCE KINETICS OF MANGANESE DIPHOSPHATE (MnDPDP) IN HUMAN MYOCARDIUM. STUDIES IN HEALTHY VOLUNTEERS AND IN PATIENTS WITH RECENT MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION
302. Siri Malm: LEFT VENTRICULAR SYSTOLIC FUNCTION AND MYOCARDIAL PERFUSION ASSESSED BY CONTRAST ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY
303. Valentina Maria do Rosario Cabral Iversen: MENTAL HEALTH AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ADAPTATION OF CLINICAL AND NON-CLINICAL MIGRANT GROUPS

- 304.Lasse Løvstakken: SIGNAL PROCESSING IN DIAGNOSTIC ULTRASOUND: ALGORITHMS FOR REAL-TIME ESTIMATION AND VISUALIZATION OF BLOOD FLOW VELOCITY
- 305.Elisabeth Olstad: GLUTAMATE AND GABA: MAJOR PLAYERS IN NEURONAL METABOLISM
- 306.Lilian Leistad: THE ROLE OF CYTOKINES AND PHOSPHOLIPASE A<sub>2S</sub> IN ARTICULAR CARTILAGE CHONDROCYTES IN RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS AND OSTEOARTHRITIS
- 307.Arne Vaaler: EFFECTS OF PSYCHIATRIC INTENSIVE CARE UNIT IN AN ACUTE PSYCHIATRIC WARD
- 308.Mathias Toft: GENETIC STUDIES OF LRRK2 AND PINK1 IN PARKINSON'S DISEASE
- 309.Ingrid Løvold Mostad: IMPACT OF DIETARY FAT QUANTITY AND QUALITY IN TYPE 2 DIABETES WITH EMPHASIS ON MARINE N-3 FATTY ACIDS
- 310.Torill Eidhammer Sjøbakk: MR DETERMINED BRAIN METABOLIC PATTERN IN PATIENTS WITH BRAIN METASTASES AND ADOLESCENTS WITH LOW BIRTH WEIGHT
- 311.Vidar Beisvåg: PHYSIOLOGICAL GENOMICS OF HEART FAILURE: FROM TECHNOLOGY TO PHYSIOLOGY
- 312.Olav Magnus Søndena Fredheim: HEALTH RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE ASSESSMENT AND ASPECTS OF THE CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY OF METHADONE IN PATIENTS WITH CHRONIC NON-MALIGNANT PAIN
- 313.Anne Brantberg: FETAL AND PERINATAL IMPLICATIONS OF ANOMALIES IN THE GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT AND THE ABDOMINAL WALL
- 314.Erik Solligård: GUT LUMINAL MICRODIALYSIS
- 315.Elin Tollefsen: RESPIRATORY SYMPTOMS IN A COMPREHENSIVE POPULATION BASED STUDY AMONG ADOLESCENTS 13-19 YEARS. YOUNG-HUNT 1995-97 AND 2000-01; THE NORD-TRØNDELAG HEALTH STUDIES (HUNT)
- 316.Anne-Tove Brenne: GROWTH REGULATION OF MYELOMA CELLS
- 317.Heidi Knobel: FATIGUE IN CANCER TREATMENT – ASSESSMENT, COURSE AND ETIOLOGY
- 318.Torbjørn Dahl: CAROTID ARTERY STENOSIS. DIAGNOSTIC AND THERAPEUTIC ASPECTS
- 319.Inge-Andre Rasmussen jr.: FUNCTIONAL AND DIFFUSION TENSOR MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING IN NEUROSURGICAL PATIENTS
- 320.Grete Helen Bratberg: PUBERTAL TIMING – ANTECEDENT TO RISK OR RESILIENCE ? EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDIES ON GROWTH, MATURATION AND HEALTH RISK BEHAVIOURS; THE YOUNG HUNT STUDY, NORD-TRØNDELAG, NORWAY
- 321.Sveinung Sørhaug: THE PULMONARY NEUROENDOCRINE SYSTEM. PHYSIOLOGICAL, PATHOLOGICAL AND TUMOURIGENIC ASPECTS
- 322.Olav Sande Eftedal: ULTRASONIC DETECTION OF DECOMPRESSION INDUCED VASCULAR MICROBUBBLES
- 323.Rune Bang Leistad: PAIN, AUTONOMIC ACTIVATION AND MUSCULAR ACTIVITY RELATED TO EXPERIMENTALLY-INDUCED COGNITIVE STRESS IN HEADACHE PATIENTS
- 324.Svein Brekke: TECHNIQUES FOR ENHANCEMENT OF TEMPORAL RESOLUTION IN THREE-DIMENSIONAL ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY
- 325.Kristian Bernhard Nilsen: AUTONOMIC ACTIVATION AND MUSCLE ACTIVITY IN RELATION TO MUSCULOSKELETAL PAIN
- 326.Anne Irene Hagen: HEREDITARY BREAST CANCER IN NORWAY. DETECTION AND PROGNOSIS OF BREAST CANCER IN FAMILIES WITH *BRCA1* GENE MUTATION
- 327.Ingebjørg S. Juel : INTESTINAL INJURY AND RECOVERY AFTER ISCHEMIA. AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON RESTITUTION OF THE SURFACE EPITHELIUM, INTESTINAL PERMEABILITY, AND RELEASE OF BIOMARKERS FROM THE MUCOSA
- 328.Runa Heimstad: POST-TERM PREGNANCY
- 329.Jan Egil Afset: ROLE OF ENTEROPATHOGENIC *ESCHERICHIA COLI* IN CHILDHOOD DIARRHOEA IN NORWAY
- 330.Bent Håvard Hellum: *IN VITRO* INTERACTIONS BETWEEN MEDICINAL DRUGS AND HERBS ON CYTOCHROME P-450 METABOLISM AND P-GLYCOPROTEIN TRANSPORT
- 331.Morten André Høydal: CARDIAC DYSFUNCTION AND MAXIMAL OXYGEN UPTAKE MYOCARDIAL ADAPTATION TO ENDURANCE TRAINING



332. Andreas Møllerløkken: REDUCTION OF VASCULAR BUBBLES: METHODS TO PREVENT THE ADVERSE EFFECTS OF DECOMPRESSION
333. Anne Hege Aamodt: COMORBIDITY OF HEADACHE AND MIGRAINE IN THE NORD-TRØNDELAG HEALTH STUDY 1995-97
334. Brage Høyem Amundsen: MYOCARDIAL FUNCTION QUANTIFIED BY SPECKLE TRACKING AND TISSUE DOPPLER ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY – VALIDATION AND APPLICATION IN EXERCISE TESTING AND TRAINING
335. Inger Anne Næss: INCIDENCE, MORTALITY AND RISK FACTORS OF FIRST VENOUS THROMBOSIS IN A GENERAL POPULATION. RESULTS FROM THE SECOND NORD-TRØNDELAG HEALTH STUDY (HUNT2)
336. Vegard Bugten: EFFECTS OF POSTOPERATIVE MEASURES AFTER FUNCTIONAL ENDOSCOPIC SINUS SURGERY
337. Morten Bruvold: MANGANESE AND WATER IN CARDIAC MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING
338. Miroslav Fris: THE EFFECT OF SINGLE AND REPEATED ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION ON THE ANTERIOR SEGMENT OF THE RABBIT EYE
339. Svein Arne Aase: METHODS FOR IMPROVING QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY IN QUANTITATIVE ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY – ASPECTS OF USING HIGH FRAME RATE
340. Roger Almvik: ASSESSING THE RISK OF VIOLENCE: DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE BRØSET VIOLENCE CHECKLIST
341. Ottar Sundheim: STRUCTURE-FUNCTION ANALYSIS OF HUMAN ENZYMES INITIATING NUCLEOBASE REPAIR IN DNA AND RNA
342. Anne Mari Undheim: SHORT AND LONG-TERM OUTCOME OF EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS IN YOUNG ADOLESCENTS WITH AND WITHOUT READING DIFFICULTIES
343. Helge Garåsen: THE TRONDHEIM MODEL. IMPROVING THE PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE VARIOUS LEVELS OF HEALTH CARE SERVICES AND IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERMEDIATE CARE AT A COMMUNITY HOSPITAL COULD PROVIDE BETTER CARE FOR OLDER PATIENTS. SHORT AND LONG TERM EFFECTS
344. Olav A. Foss: “THE ROTATION RATIOS METHOD”. A METHOD TO DESCRIBE ALTERED SPATIAL ORIENTATION IN SEQUENTIAL RADIOGRAPHS FROM ONE PELVIS
345. Bjørn Olav Åsvold: THYROID FUNCTION AND CARDIOVASCULAR HEALTH
346. Torun Margareta Melø: NEURONAL GLIAL INTERACTIONS IN EPILEPSY
347. Irina Poliakova Eide: FETAL GROWTH RESTRICTION AND PRE-ECLAMPSIA: SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF FETO-MATERNAL INTERACTIONS IN DECIDUA BASALIS
348. Torunn Askim: RECOVERY AFTER STROKE. ASSESSMENT AND TREATMENT; WITH FOCUS ON MOTOR FUNCTION
349. Ann Elisabeth Åsberg: NEUTROPHIL ACTIVATION IN A ROLLER PUMP MODEL OF CARDIOPULMONARY BYPASS. INFLUENCE ON BIOMATERIAL, PLATELETS AND COMPLEMENT
350. Lars Hagen: REGULATION OF DNA BASE EXCISION REPAIR BY PROTEIN INTERACTIONS AND POST TRANSLATIONAL MODIFICATIONS
351. Sigrun Beate Kjotrød: POLYCYSTIC OVARY SYNDROME – METFORMIN TREATMENT IN ASSISTED REPRODUCTION
352. Steven Keita Nishiyama: PERSPECTIVES ON LIMB-VASCULAR HETEROGENEITY: IMPLICATIONS FOR HUMAN AGING, SEX, AND EXERCISE
353. Sven Peter Näsholm: ULTRASOUND BEAMS FOR ENHANCED IMAGE QUALITY
354. Jon Ståle Ritland: PRIMARY OPEN-ANGLE GLAUCOMA & EXFOLIATIVE GLAUCOMA. SURVIVAL, COMORBIDITY AND GENETICS
355. Sigrid Botne Sando: ALZHEIMER’S DISEASE IN CENTRAL NORWAY. GENETIC AND EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS
356. Parvinder Kaur: CELLULAR AND MOLECULAR MECHANISMS BEHIND METHYLMERCURY-INDUCED NEUROTOXICITY
357. Ismail Cüneyt Güzey: DOPAMINE AND SEROTONIN RECEPTOR AND TRANSPORTER GENE POLYMORPHISMS AND EXTRAPYRAMIDAL SYMPTOMS. STUDIES IN PARKINSON’S DISEASE AND IN PATIENTS TREATED WITH ANTIPSYCHOTIC OR ANTIDEPRESSANT DRUGS

358. Brit Dybdahl: EXTRA-CELLULAR INDUCIBLE HEAT-SHOCK PROTEIN 70 (Hsp70) – A ROLE IN THE INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE ?
359. Kristoffer Haugarvoll: IDENTIFYING GENETIC CAUSES OF PARKINSON'S DISEASE IN NORWAY
360. Nadra Nilsen: TOLL-LIKE RECEPTOR – EXPRESSION, REGULATION AND SIGNALING
361. Johan Håkon Bjørngaard: PATIENT SATISFACTION WITH OUTPATIENT MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES – THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS.
362. Kjetil Høydal : EFFECTS OF HIGH INTENSITY AEROBIC TRAINING IN HEALTHY SUBJECTS AND CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE PATIENTS; THE IMPORTANCE OF INTENSITY, DURATION AND FREQUENCY OF TRAINING.
363. Trine Karlsen: TRAINING IS MEDICINE: ENDURANCE AND STRENGTH TRAINING IN CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE AND HEALTH.
364. Marte Thuen: MANGANESE-ENHANCED AND DIFFUSION TENSOR MR IMAGING OF THE NORMAL, INJURED AND REGENERATING RAT VISUAL PATHWAY
365. Cathrine Broberg Vågbø: DIRECT REPAIR OF ALKYLATION DAMAGE IN DNA AND RNA BY 2-OXOGLUTARATE- AND IRON-DEPENDENT DIOXYGENASES
366. Arnt Erik Tjønnå: AEROBIC EXERCISE AND CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS IN OVERWEIGHT AND OBESE ADOLESCENTS AND ADULTS
367. Marianne W. Furnes: FEEDING BEHAVIOR AND BODY WEIGHT DEVELOPMENT: LESSONS FROM RATS
368. Lene N. Johannessen: FUNGAL PRODUCTS AND INFLAMMATORY RESPONSES IN HUMAN MONOCYTES AND EPITHELIAL CELLS