Alterations of pulmonary surfactant function by e-cigarette vapour

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Abstract

E-cigarette (EC) and vaping use continue to remain popular amongst teenage and young adult

populations, despite several reports of vaping associated lung injury. This popularity is due in

part to the vast variety of appealing flavours and nicotine concentrations easily accessible on the

market. One of the first compounds that EC vapour comes into contact within the lungs during a

deep inhalation is pulmonary surfactant. This lipid protein mixture lines the alveoli, reducing

surface tension and preventing alveolar collapse. Impairment of surfactant's critical surface

tension reducing activity can contribute to lung dysfunction. Currently, information on how EC

vapour impacts pulmonary surfactant remains limited. We hypothesized that exposure to EC

vapour impairs the surface tension reducing ability of surfactant. BLES was used as a model

surfactant in a direct exposure syringe system. BLES (2ml) was placed in a syringe (30ml)

attached to an EC. Vapour was drawn into the syringe and then expelled, repeated 30 times.

Biophysical analysis after exposure was completed using a constrained drop surfactometer

(CDS). Minimum surface tensions increased after exposure to vapour. Variation in device used,

addition of nicotine, or temperature of the vapour had no additional effect. Two e-liquid flavours,

menthol and red wedding, had further detrimental effects, resulting in higher surface tension than

the vehicle exposed BLES. Alteration of surfactant properties through interaction with vapour

was observed with a basic e-liquid vehicle, however additional compounds produced by added

flavourings appeared to be able to increase inhibition, however the exact mechanism remains

unclear. In conclusion, EC vapour alters surfactant function through increases in minimum

surface tension. This impairment can contribute to lung dysfunction and susceptibility to further

injury.

Introduction

Vaping and the use of e-cigarettes (ECs) has seen a marked increase over the last decade,

particularly amongst youth and young adults (1-3). Although originally regarded as a popular

smoking cessation tool, it is becoming increasingly clear that the target demographic for EC

marketing has shifted from smokers to teenagers and young adults (3). Most of this population

are not regular smokers, but instead are drawn to the attraction of efficient nicotine delivery and

the large variety of appealing flavours available for recreational use (1, 3). Unfortunately,

previous studies have indicated negative impacts of vaping (4). For example, in 2019 an outbreak

of e-cigarette or vaping associated lung injury (EVALI), resulting in over 2000 hospitalizations

and 68 deaths, was reported (5-7). Although studies associated the addition of vitamin E acetate

with the incidences of EVALI, vaping without the compound has still been linked to lung injury,

and there is not enough evidence to suggest vitamin E acetate to be the sole cause of injury (6, 8-

10). Clearly, more information regarding the impact of vaping on the lung is required.

The process of vaping involves an EC device that uses a battery powered coil (atomizer) which

heats an e-liquid comprised of solvents propylene glycol (PG) and vegetable glycerine (VG) to

produce an inhalable vapour. Complexity in studying the effects of this habit arise from the

multitude of vaping options. There are presently over 7000 commercially available e-liquid

flavours and almost 500 brands of ECs currently on the market (11, 12). Adding to this

complexity is the fact that many users make modifications to their device and/or generate their

own e-liquid. Furthermore, the harmful effects of vaping are not solely due to the impact of the

ingredients of the e-liquid since it has been demonstrated that the generation of the aerosol

results in the formation of a multitude of new products including formaldehyde and acetaldehyde

(13, 14). This effect may vary among different devices, with particulate matter reported to

increase with the evolution of some of the newer designs, thereby potentially increasing

hazardous effects to the health of vapers (4, 15). Thus, although the general concept of vaping is

relatively straightforward, complications in studying its effects arise from the variability and

customization of the vaping process.

From a respiratory perspective, one of the first substances that EC vapour encounters in the lungs

is pulmonary surfactant. Surfactant is made up of 85-90% by weight phospholipids, 5-10%

neutral lipids, mainly cholesterol, and 10% surfactant proteins, designated SP-A, SP-B, SP-C,

and SP-D (16, 17) . The primary function of surfactant is to reduce surface tension in the lung.

To achieve this, surfactant rapidly absorbs to the surface forming the surface film, to reach a

surface tension of ~23 mN/m, and subsequently reducing surface tension to ~0 mN/m upon

compression (18, 19). This function is essential for breathing as it allows the lung to inflate and

deflate with minimal changes in pressure, i.e., it maintains lung compliance, and prevents

atelectasis (17, 20). As can be deduced from its function, absence or alterations to pulmonary

surfactant can contribute to lung dysfunction. Previous studies have demonstrated that some

ingredients of e-liquids can interfere with the function of model systems of surfactant (21-23).

Based on the above information, the objective was to investigate the impact that e-cigarette

vapour has on the function of surfactant. We initially focused on the impact of the common

ingredients of vapour, VG and PG, prior to testing the impact of selected additives. Using *in*

vitro methods to replicate the dynamic compression and expansion of surfactant during

respiration, this study focused on the biophysical changes to surfactant after direct exposure of a

modified natural surfactant preparation to EC vapour. It was hypothesized that EC vapour

inhibits surfactant's ability to effectively reduce surface tension.

Methods

Materials

Bovine lipid extract surfactant (BLES) at 27mg/ml phospholipid concentration was obtained

from BLES biochemicals inc (London, ON) and was diluted to 2mg/ml in a buffer containing

0.9% NaCl, 1.5mM $CaCl_2$, and 2.5mM HEPES (pH 7.4). Three common vaping devices were

used. The Aspire Pockex with 0.6 ohm coil, and Vaporesso Gen with GT4 0.15 ohm coil, were

purchased from Vapour North (Pickering, ON). The Uwell Caliburn A2 with 0.9 ohm pre-

installed mesh coil was purchased from Fogged Up Vape Shop (London, ON). All e-liquids were

purchased from Vapour North.

Exposure to vapour

To expose surfactant to vapour, 2ml of BLES was placed in a 30ml syringe connected to an EC,

via silicone tubing. Vapour was drawn into the syringe and the syringe was placed on a rocker

set to rotate 15-20 times/min for a 30 second exposure period. The vapour was then expelled, and

this procedure was repeated 30 times to simulate 30 vapour inhalations. The control group

consisted of BLES (2ml at 2mg/ml) placed in a 30ml syringe exposed only to air, no vapour, and

placed on the rocker for the same amount of time as the vaped samples. The exposed BLES was

either used immediately for the analysis of surface tension reduction, or frozen at -20°C for

subsequent analysis.

Biophysical analysis of surfactant

A constrained drop surfactometer (CDS) was used to assess the surface tension reducing

properties of the BLES as previously described (24, 25). Briefly, an 8.5μL drop of the 2mg/ml

surfactant sample was placed on the pedestal in an environmentally controlled chamber at 37 °C.

A small capillary in the middle of the pedestal was attached to a computer controlled 2.5ml

Hamilton syringe (Hamilton Co., Reno, NV) filled with distilled water. Two minutes after

placing the BLES on the pedestal, the surface film of the drop was compressed and expanded via

the controlled movement of the water in and out of the pedestal via the syringe. A total of 20

compression/expansion cycles were completed at a frequency of 1 cycle/ 1.5 seconds, with an

area compression of approximately 20%. Aligned with the horizontal plane of the pedestal was a

camera which took rapid pictures of the samples (15 fps) as they underwent dynamic changes.

The images were then analysed by the Axisymmetric Drop Shape Analysis (ADSA) computer

software to obtain precise measurements of the surface tension and surface area of the samples

calculated based on the shape of the drop after the 2 minutes of adsorption as well as throughout

the repeated compression/expansion cycles (26).

Experimental design

Using the above procedure, a variety of exposure conditions were applied to surfactant followed

by biophysical analysis. Initial experiments tested the e-liquid vehicle composed of unflavoured,

nicotine free, e-liquid with a 50:50 VG:PG ratio using the Aspire Pockex. Subsequently, the

50:50 VG:PG liquid was tested in different devices, as well, other vehicle compositions (70:30

VG:PG and Max VG) tested with the Aspire Pockex device. The Vaporesso GEN EC was used

to examine the effects of temperature through adjustment of the wattage in the device settings,

with low (30W), medium (55W), and high (80W) temperatures. Of the three devices used,

resistance varied between models (0.6ohm, 0.9ohm, 0.15ohm), and due to the simplicity of the

Pockex and Caliburn models, atomizer temperature (through wattage) was only able to be

assessed with the Vaporesso device.

To determine the impact of vapourization, vehicle 50:50 VG:PG e-liquid was mixed directly

with BLES at 10 and 20% volumes, followed by analysis on the CDS.

To assess the impact of additives such as flavouring and nicotine to the vehicle, ten common

vapour e-liquids were tested: Vehicle + 18mg/ml nicotine, Juicy Burst + 3 mg/ml nicotine, RY4

Double (tobacco) + 18 mg/ml nicotine, RY4 Double (tobacco), Cigar Passion, Caramel

Macchiato, Pink Lemonade, Red Wedding, Cinnaswirl, Menthol, Wintergreen, and Cherry.

Experiments were performed in groups with multiple flavours, with each day of vapour

exposures including separate unexposed and vehicle exposed BLES controls.

Statistics analysis

Data was expressed as the mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) with a minimum of three

independent replicates. Statistical analysis was performed using Graphpad Prism 9 software.

Comparison of surface tensions across compression/expansion cycles for each sample were

assessed using a two-way repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Bonferoni's

post hoc test. No significant differences between cycles were seen in samples except for the red

wedding flavoured vapour. Minimum surface tensions at the twentieth compression cycle were

compared between groups using an ordinary one-way ANOVA, or two tailed unpaired t-test (air

vs vehicle). For red wedding and menthol vapours, minimum surface tensions at the first, fifth,

tenth, and twentieth cycles were compared to vehicle and air control using an ordinary one-way

ANOVA. P values less than or equal to 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

173   Results

174   Effect of vehicle vapour on surfactant function

Using the above protocol, BLES was exposed to vehicle (50:50 VG:PG) vapour and analyzed on

the CDS. Representative surface tension versus relative area isotherms for the fifth and tenth

compression/expansion cycle are shown in Figs 1A and 1B. At the fifth compression/expansion

cycle, the air-exposed BLES sample shows a reduction in surface tension by compression to

values below 5mN/m (lower curve) with subsequent expansion leading to an increase in surface

tension with relative low amount of hysteresis (upper curve). In contrast, the vehicle vapour

exposed group had higher surface tension after compression (Fig 1A). Similar results were

observed at the tenth cycle (Fig 1B). The results of the analysis of the minimum and maximum

surface tension of all compression/expansion cycles are shown in Figs 1C and 1D. The air

control BLES sample demonstrates low minimal surface tensions starting at the first compression

that decrease further over the first few cycles to values below 5mN/m. Compared to these low

values observed in the air control group, minimal surface tension in the vehicle exposed BLES

group were significantly higher, reaching minimal values of approximately 10mN/m. Maximum

surface tension of the control sample was approximately 37mN/m (Fig 1D), these values were

not significantly different than those observed in the vehicle exposed group.

Additional data obtained from this analysis is shown in Table 1. The surface tension after two

minutes of adsorption was not significantly different between the two groups. Furthermore, the

calculated values for the maximum area compression, as well as the area compression required to

reach minimum surface tension were also not significantly different between the two groups.

Fig 1. Vehicle compression/expansion. BLES exposed to vehicle (■) compared to air control

(○). **A.** Representative surface tension vs area isotherm at the fifth compression/expansion cycle.

B. Representative surface tension vs area isotherm at the tenth compression/expansion cycle. **C.**

Minimum surface tensions across 20 compression/expansion cycles. **D.** Maximum surface

tensions across 20 compression/expansion cycles. *$P<0.05$ compared to air control.

Table 1. Adsorption and compression data

	Air Control	Vehicle Exposed
Adsorption (mN/m)	24.11 ±0.11	24.57±0.17
Maximum Area Compression (%)	20.33±0.21	20.65±0.73
Area Compression at Min Surface Tension (%)	19.27±0.31	19.41±0.90

Average adsorption and percent compression for air control and vehicle exposed groups

After establishing surfactant inhibition by the vehicle vapour using a single experimental

condition, this observation was further explored by examining two additional vehicle

compositions, testing two other e-cigarette devices, examining three different wattages (i.e.,

temperatures) for vapour generation, and mixing with non-vapourized vehicle e-liquid. Fig 2A

displays minimum surface tension trends (mN/m ± SEM) for BLES exposed to vapour with each

of the three different ratios of vehicle composition. Compared to air control samples, which

reached low minimum surface tension values, 50:50 VG:PG vehicle achieved significantly

higher minimum surface tensions. 70:30 VG/PG and max VG exposed samples resulted in higher

minimum surface tensions than air control, however results were not significant. Minimum

surface tensions obtained with vapour from three different devices are shown in Fig 2B. Values

for each of the devices were significantly higher than the air control. Comparison among the

three EC devices revealed no statistically significant differences. A similar pattern was observed

when comparing vapour generated at three different wattages, as seen in Fig 2C. These wattages

impact the temperature of the generated vapour. The results show no difference among the

varying wattages, with all three vapour exposed samples resulting in significantly higher

minimum surface tension than the air control. After mixing with e-liquid volumes up to 20%, no

significant difference in minimum surface tension was observed compared to control, shown in

Fig 2D. Surface tensions after two minutes of absorption, maximum surface tensions, and

maximum area compression values were not significantly different between groups (data not

shown).

Fig 2. Minimum surface tensions of experimental variables. Minimum surface tensions (±

SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles for BLES exposed to three experimental

variables, compared to air control. **A.** Three different vehicle compositions with increasing VG

content. **B**. Three different EC devices. **C.** Three different wattages set on a programmable EC to

alter vapour temperature. **D.** BLES mixed with three different volumes of vehicle e-liquid. N=3

*P<0.05 compared to air control.

Effect of commercially available e-liquid vapours

Having established the effects of the vehicle vapour on surfactant, our subsequent experiment

evaluated the effect of vapour from a variety of e-liquids containing flavourings and/or nicotine.

Ten popular commercially available e-liquids were tested. Fig 3 summarizes the data by

displaying the minimum surface tension values obtained for the fifth compression cycle as

compared to its vehicle and air control. The values for each of the 20 compression/expansion

cycles are shown in the supplementary data (S1 Fig. A-I). Consistent with the above

experiments, in each of the tests the vehicle vapour exposure led to higher minimum surface

tension as compared to air-exposed BLES (Fig 3). With the exception of two of the e-liquids, all

flavours resulted in minimum surface tension that were not significantly different to the

unflavoured vehicle. This included samples with nicotine additives. The two exceptions to this

pattern were menthol and red wedding flavoured vapour, which resulted in significantly

increased minimum surface tension compared to both air control and the unflavoured vehicle

control.

Fig 3. Minimum surface tensions of flavoured e-liquids. BLES exposed to vapours

containing nicotine and/or flavouring additives compared to air control and unflavoured

vehicle at the fifth compression/expansion cycle ($\pm$ SEM). N=3-4 *P<0.05 compared to

air control.

A further exploration of the data obtained from menthol and red wedding e-liquids is shown in

Fig 4 (Menthol) and Fig 5 (Red Wedding). Isotherms for the fifth (Fig 4A) and tenth (Fig 4B)

cycles show menthol exposed BLES to result in minimum surface tension at ~20 mN/m, higher

than the vehicle exposed BLES which achieved minimum surface tension of ~10 mN/m.

Menthol exposure resulted in significantly higher minimum surface tension than both

unflavoured vehicle and air control groups at all 20 compression/expansion cycles (Fig 4C).

Maximum surface tension remained consistent between groups, at ~35 mN/m. Isotherms at the

fifth cycle for red wedding exposed BLES, also show significant impairment, with minimum

surface tension at ~20 mN/m, higher than both the vehicle and air exposed groups (Fig 5A). At

the tenth cycle however, the red wedding flavour exposed group achieves minimum surface

tension similar to that of the vehicle exposed group (Fig 5B). A steep decline on a cycle-by-cycle

basis can be observed for the red wedding exposed group, until approx. the tenth cycle, where

surface tension remains similar to the vehicle exposed (Fig 5C). Both flavoured and vehicle

exposed BLES showed higher minimum surface tension than the air control. Red wedding

further appeared to have lower maximum surface tension during the first ten cycles, maintaining

values ~30 mN/m, whereas air control groups had an average maximum surface tension of ~40

mN/m (Fig 5D). The absorption and area compression required to reach minimum surface

tension was not significantly different among groups (data not shown).

Fig 4. Menthol compression/expansion data. BLES exposed to menthol flavoured

vapour (▲) compared to vehicle (■) and air control (○). **A.** Representative surface

tension vs area isotherm at the fifth compression/expansion cycle. **B.** Representative

surface tension vs area isotherm at the tenth compression/expansion cycle. **C.** Minimum

surface tensions (± SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles. **D.** Maximum surface

tensions (± SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles. (N=4) *P<0.05 compared to

air control, #P<0.05 compared to vehicle.

Fig 5. Red wedding compression/expansion data. BLES exposed to red wedding

flavoured vapour (▲) compared to vehicle (■) and air control (○). **A.** Representative

surface tension vs area isotherm at the fifth compression/expansion cycle. **B.**

Representative surface tension vs area isotherm at the tenth compression/expansion cycle.

C. Minimum surface tensions (± SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles. **D.**

Maximum surface tensions (± SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles. (N=3)

*P<0.05 compared to air control.

Discussion

This study tested the hypothesis that EC vapour inhibits surfactant's ability to effectively reduce

surface tension. Results supported this hypothesis as exposure to EC vapour resulted in impaired

surfactant function, in particular its ability to reduce surface tension to near-zero values. All

vapour exposed samples, regardless of additive, device, or vehicle composition resulted in higher

minimum surface tensions than air exposed samples. Furthermore, surfactant dysfunction was

observed in all cases of vapour exposure with different additives, and most of the flavours tested

resulted in similar inhibition and minimum surface tensions to those of the vehicle. Interestingly,

two flavours, menthol and red wedding, resulted in significantly higher minimum surface

tensions compared to the vehicle. It is concluded that vapour exposure can lead to surfactant

impairment which, *in vivo*, could impact lung function. This effect of vapour can be augmented

due to certain flavour additives.

Previous studies have examined the effects of e-liquid aerosols on surfactant, with a variety of

experimental approaches. Distinctions in the type of surfactants used, with several studies using

surfactant-like lipid mixtures, as well as differences in exposure method including mixing of

surfactant with isolated components of the e-liquid directly, have been reported (21, 27, 28).

Furthermore, a variety of analyses, including structural and functional assessments have been

reported (23, 29). Building on these studies we used a modified natural surfactant, exposed the

samples to vapour, and focused on the main function of surfactant by measuring surface tension

reduction. Specifically, we used BLES, a well-established commonly prescribed exogenous

surfactant composed of the surfactant lipids and the hydrophobic proteins B and C (30). Vapour

exposure was performed in a syringe containing a surfactant suspension allowing direct exposure

of surfactant to the vapour. Analysis was done using the CDS, which was able to provide

extremely accurate measurements of changes in surface tension and droplet area during

consistent dynamic cycling with compression maintained within physiological levels (18). To

provide a broad assessment of the impact of vapour on surfactant, we used several commercially

available EC devices and multiple e-liquids to accurately reflect the vaping tools on the market

today. Overall, we deemed that this approach allowed for effective testing of our hypothesis.

One of the main goals of our study was to examine the effect of the base vehicle of e-liquid, VG

and PG, since these compounds are universally utilized during vaping. Although both

compounds are safe and frequently used humectants in a wide range of foods and consumer

cosmetic products (31-33), research on the effects of vapourization and inhalation of these

compounds is limited. Focusing on the effect of surfactant specifically, it has been previously

shown that EC vapour did not induce harmful effects on surfactant interfacial properties but

caused minor alterations in lateral structure arrangement after exposure (23). In this case

however, surfactant (Infasurf) was not directly exposed to the vapour, but rather the vapour was

bubbled into the subphase in a Langmuir-Blodgett trough before addition of the surfactant,

without measurement of aerosol concentrations. Alterations observed to the lateral structure are

nonetheless important to note, as proper arrangement of the surface film phospholipids are

essential to reaching near zero surface tensions upon compression (34). In two other studies,

impairment of surfactant function was observed. Using a lipid mixture as a model system of

surfactant it was observed that exposure to EC vapour resulted in lower maximum surface

pressures at any given area (higher minimum surface tensions) and altered compressibility on a

Langmuir balance (27). Further, direct mixing of non-aerosolized PG and VG with surfactant,

resulted in impaired surfactant function (increased surface tension amplitude, mean surface

tensions, and surface elasticity), particularly in ultra-high concentrations of PG dominant

mixtures (28). The current study builds upon these findings, by exposing a natural surfactant to

vapourized VG/PG and dynamic measurement of surfactant function. Furthermore, we showed

that the VG/PG induced reduction in surface activity was consistent among different devices and

different wattages for vapour generation. Together, these findings support a modification in

dynamic surface-active properties of surfactant due to vehicle vapour exposure.

Having established a general, albeit mild, inhibition of surfactant by EC vapour in general, our

second goal was to examine the effect of different flavored e-liquids. Rationally selecting

specific e-liquids among the 7000 flavours currently available is difficult, however, we picked

popular e-liquids in different categories (tobacco alternatives, drinks, candy, and dessert).

Interestingly, whereas most e-liquids showed similar results to vehicle, menthol and red wedding

resulted in further inhibition of surfactant function. The mechanism of inhibition of surfactant by

menthol has been recently studied and indicates a direct interaction of this flavouring with

surfactant phospholipids and proteins thereby impacting the surface tension reducing surface

film (29). The specific process by which red wedding flavouring impacts surfactant is not clear,

however, the pattern of inhibition in which high surface tensions are only observed in the early

compression/expansion cycles would suggest that chemicals are inserted into the surface film but

are removed, or squeezed out, during repeated compression and expansion (18, 35). In contrast,

it appears as if surfactant remains inhibited by menthol exposure across compression/expansion

cycles, suggesting a more permanent alteration of the surface film. Regardless of the specific

mechanism, the data clearly indicate that variability exist between the impact of vapours from

different e-liquids. Unlike in food and beverages, the chemicals in e-liquids are not highly

regulated, and not all the specific ingredients are disclosed. For example, a study examining the

chemical concentrations in JUUL pod-based e-liquids identified 59 chemicals, with menthol,

vanillin, and ethyl maltol having the highest concentrations, with the remaining 56 chemicals

having concentrations of <1.0mg/mL (36). Considering our data demonstrated enhanced

surfactant inhibition with 2 out of 12 e-liquid samples selected, we speculate that a substantial

fraction of the commercially available e-liquid flavours available have a negative impact on

surfactant function.

Further complicating the study of vapour interactions with the surfactant system is the generation

of various compounds during the vapourization process. For example, flavour aldehydes have

been shown to react causing the formation of PG acetals (37). Benzaldehyde (cherry flavouring),

ethylvanillin, vanillin, cinnamaldehyde, and citral were examined to determine reaction products

after vaping and were shown to produce PG acetals that remained stable for hours (37). It has

also been reported that vapourization, and subsequent degradation of VG/PG can lead to the

generation of harmful chemicals, including carbonyl compounds such as formaldehyde,

acetaldehyde, and acrolein, as well as volatile organic compounds, tobacco-specific

nitrosamines, metals, free radicals, and reactive oxygen species in EC aerosols (14, 38-40). In a

non-targeted study, over 115 volatile organic compounds were found in a single puff of vapour

(41). Further, compared to the composition of the non-aerosolized liquid, vapourization produced

more than 80 additional compounds beyond the 60 identified within the liquid itself (41). It has

also been reported that higher power EC devices increase reactive oxygen species production

(42). However, it should be noted that in the current study, no differences were observed

between three devices, as well as no significant differences between power levels (wattage) on

our highest power device (Vaporesso), suggesting that either the lowest wattage was able to

maximally effect the surface tension of the surfactant, or that reactive oxygen species production

was not a major contributor to the observed surfactant inhibition. Furthermore, no significant

differences were seen when mixing the non-vapourized e-liquid directly with BLES, indicating

the importance of vapourization for inhibition. Overall, the published data suggest that the

inhibition of surfactant by vapour may not only be the results of the incorporation of e-liquid

components but also due to additional components generated during vapourization. This includes

those generated from flavour additives, which can either insert into the surfactant and/or

chemically react with surfactant lipids and proteins. As such, it is important that future

regulations regarding vaping and e-liquid composition should base recommendations on studies

that have evaluated the health impact after vapour generation.

Although the current study examined the effects of vapour on surfactant *in vitro*, the rationale for

our experiments was the interaction of vapour with surfactant in the lung, thus it is important to

extrapolate our findings to the *in vivo* situation. Although we observed a slight decrease in

surface tension reducing ability after vapour exposure, such minor surfactant dysfunction may

not have a major impact *in vivo*. Nevertheless, a clinical study by Dr. Vardavas and colleagues

demonstrated that using an EC device for only five minutes led to an immediate, subtle, decrease

in lung mechanics in a group of volunteers (43). Considering the rapid nature of this effect on

lung mechanics, it would be consistent with a rapid direct interaction of the vapour with

surfactant, rather than, for example, a cellular mechanism. A second potential consequence of

altered surfactant function may be a susceptibility to lung injury. Thus, although vaping induced

alterations to surfactant may not be sufficient to cause lung dysfunction, in scenarios where the

surfactant is further challenged it maybe become more impaired and ultimately affect lung

function. For example, it has been shown that surfactant that contains lyso-phospholipids was

more susceptible to inhibition by serum proteins as compared to control (44). Future studies

examining the acute impact of vapour on surfactant *in vivo*, as well as susceptibility of vapour

exposed surfactant to further inhibition, are warranted.

Our study has several limitations. First the current study uses an exogenous surfactant, BLES, to

test the impact of vapour. All studies on the effect of vaping have utilized either exogenous

surfactant or an even more limited, lipid model system. The rationale for using exogenous

surfactant is that it is contains all surfactant lipids and the hydrophobic proteins, SP-B and C, and

has consistent functional properties. Nevertheless, future studies with natural surfactants from

animal and/or humans would provide additional information of the impact of the hydrophilic

surfactant protein A, as well as other components that co-isolate with surfactant obtained from

lung lavage. A second limitation is that only the effects of acute exposure on surfactant were

tested. People that vape will do so in a prolonged fashion which may have additional

consequences. For example, previous *in vivo* work on mice exposed daily to vapour for several

weeks showed altered lipid homeostasis in alveolar macrophages, as well as accumulation of

phospholipids in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (22). The impact of vapour on surfactant *in vivo*

may thus be affected by acute direct effect as observed in the current experiments, as well as

prolonged effects related to the impact on surfactant synthesis and metabolism.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that the vapour from e-liquid vehicle (VG/PG) was able to alter

surfactant function independent of nicotine or device style, with some flavourings providing

further inhibition. From these results we conclude that acute vapour exposure leads to

impairment of the pulmonary surfactant system through increases in minimum surface tension.

We speculate that this has potential detrimental effects in the *in vivo* scenario by contributing to

lung dysfunction and making the lung more susceptible to further injury.

Acknowledgments

432 We would like to thank Dr Fred Possmayer and Dr Cory Yamashita for helpful discussion, as

433 well as Justin Rao, Sabrine Gehani, and Alexandra Troitskaya for support and assistance in

434 running experiments.

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Supporting information

556 **S1 Fig. A-I.** Minimum surface tensions ($\pm$ SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles for

557 BLES exposed to nine flavourings/additives compared to unflavoured vehicle control. N=3

558 *P<0.05 compared to air control.

Figure

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