E-cigarette aerosol exposure of pulmonary surfactant impairs its surface tension reducing function.

Emma Graham[1,2*], Lynda McCaig[1,2], Gloria Shui-Kei Lau[1], Akash Tejura[1], Anne Cao[1], Yi Y. Zuo[3,4], Ruud Veldhuizen[1,2,5*]

[1]Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada

[2]Lawson Health Research Institute, London Health Sciences Centre, London, Ontario, Canada

[3]Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, United States of America

[4]Department of Pediatrics, John A. Burns School of Medicine, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii, United States of America

[5]Department of Medicine, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada

* Emma Graham
E-mail: egraha59@uwo.ca (EG)

*Ruud Veldhuizen
E-mail: rvelhui@uwo.ca (RV)

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 aerosols 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

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

aerosol impairs the surface tension reducing ability of surfactant. Bovine Lipid Extract

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. The generated aerosol 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 the EC aerosol. Variation in device used, addition of nicotine, or temperature of

the aerosol 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 the produced aerosol was observed with a basic

e-liquid vehicle, however additional compounds produced by added flavourings appeared to be

able to increase inhibition. In conclusion, EC aerosols alter surfactant function through increases

in minimum surface tension. This impairment may 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). 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 aerosol. Many ECs utilize sub-ohm conditions, employing low resistance

coils (blow 1 ohm) resulting in more rapid heating of the e-liquid and thicker more flavourful

clouds. Complexity in studying the effects of this habit arise from the multitude of vaping

options. There are presently over 16000 commercially available e-liquid flavour blends and

almost 500 brands of ECs currently on the market (11-13). 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 (14, 15).

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, 16). 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 aerosol 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 (17, 18) . 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, reaching a

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

compression (19, 20). 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 (18, 21). 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 (22-24).

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

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

ingredients of aerosol, 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 aerosol. It was hypothesized that EC aerosol

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 aerosol

As schematically shown in figure 1, to expose surfactant to the EC aerosol, 2ml of BLES was

placed in a 30ml syringe connected to an EC, via silicone tubing. The produced aerosol 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 aerosol was then expelled, and this procedure was repeated 30

times to simulate 30 inhalations. The control group consisted of BLES (2ml at 2mg/ml) placed in

a 30ml syringe exposed only to air, no aerosol, 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.

Figure 1. Schematic of the *in vitro* surfactant exposure set-up. Aerosol exposed surfactant

was generated using a syringe containing BLES connected directly to an EC device which

allowed aerosol to be drawn into the syringe and, after 30 seconds, expelled. This procedure was

repeated 30 times.

Biophysical analysis of surfactant

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

properties of the BLES as previously described (25, 26). 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 (27).

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 aerosolization, 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 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 (raspberry doughnut with yogurt), Cinnaswirl, Menthol, Wintergreen,

and Cherry. Experiments were performed in groups with multiple flavours, with each day of

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 aerosol. Minimum surface tensions at the twentieth compression cycle were

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

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

tenth, and twentieth cycles were compared to vehicle and air control using a one-way ANOVA.

Each set of three bars in Fig 4 comparing different flavourings, were analysed using a one-way

ANOVA with a Dunnetts post hoc test compared to air control. P values less than or equal to

0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Effect of vehicle aerosol on surfactant function

Using the above protocol, BLES was exposed to vehicle (50:50 VG:PG) aerosol 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 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 2. 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 (±SEM) for air control and vehicle exposed groups

After establishing surfactant inhibition by the vehicle aerosol 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 aerosol generation, and mixing with non-aerosolized vehicle e-liquid. Fig 3A

displays minimum surface tension trends (mN/m ± SEM) for BLES exposed to EC aerosol 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 were not

significantly higher compared to air control. Minimum surface tensions obtained with aerosol

from three different devices are shown in Fig 3B. 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 aerosol

generated at three different wattages, as seen in Fig 3C. These wattages impact the temperature

of the generated aerosol. The results show no difference among the varying wattages, with all

three 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 3D. Surface tensions after two

minutes of absorption, maximum area compression values, and maximum surface tensions were

not significantly different between groups and are shown in supplementary data (S1 and S2).

Fig 3. 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 aerosol 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 aerosols

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

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

popular commercially available e-liquids were tested. Fig 4 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 (S2 Fig. A-I). Consistent with the above experiments, in each of the tests

the vehicle exposure led to higher minimum surface tension as compared to air-exposed BLES

(Fig 4). 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 aerosols, which resulted in significantly increased minimum surface tension compared

to both air control and the unflavoured vehicle control.

Fig 4. Minimum surface tensions of flavoured e-liquids. BLES exposed to aerosols

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

vehicle at the fifth compression/expansion cycle ($\pm$ SEM). Each flavour on the x-axis

represents BLES exposed to air, unflavoured vehicle, and vehicle + flavouring aerosols.

N=3-4 *$P<0.05$ compared to air control, #$P<0.05$ compared to vehicle.

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

Fig 5 (Menthol) and Fig 6 (Red Wedding). Isotherms for the fifth (Fig 5A) and tenth (Fig 5B)

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 5C).

Maximum surface tension remained consistent between groups, at ~35 mN/m (Fig 5D). The

inhibitory effect of menthol on minimum surface tension was further enhanced with three

repeated exposures on consecutive days (S4). 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 6A). At the tenth cycle however, the red

wedding flavour exposed group achieves minimum surface tension similar to that of the vehicle

exposed group (Fig 6B). 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 6C). 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 6D).

Fig 5. Menthol compression/expansion data. BLES exposed to menthol flavoured

aerosol (▲) 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=5) *P<0.05 compared to

air control, #P<0.05 compared to vehicle.

Fig 6. Red wedding compression/expansion data. BLES exposed to red wedding

flavoured aerosol (▲) 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, #P<0.05 compared to vehicle.

Discussion

This study tested the hypothesis that EC aerosols inhibit surfactant's ability to effectively reduce

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

impaired surfactant function, in particular its ability to reduce surface tension to near-zero

values. All 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 aerosol 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 aerosol exposure can lead to

surfactant impairment which, *in vivo*, could impact lung function. This effect of EC aerosol 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 (22, 28, 29).

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

reported (24, 30). Building on these studies we used a modified natural surfactant, exposed the

samples to EC generated aerosols, 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

(31). Aerosol exposure was performed in a syringe containing a surfactant suspension allowing

direct exposure of surfactant to the aerosol. This exposure of the surfactant before

compression/expansion cycling resulted in findings consistent with recent direct aerosol

exposure of a compressing drop (30). 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 (19). To

provide a broad assessment of the impact of EC aerosols 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 (32-34), research on the effects of aerosolization and inhalation of these

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

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

caused minor alterations in lateral structure arrangement after exposure (24). In this case

however, surfactant (Infasurf) was not directly exposed to the aerosol, but rather the aerosol 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 (35). 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 aerosol resulted in lower maximum surface

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

Langmuir balance (28). 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 (29). The current study builds upon these findings, by exposing a natural surfactant to

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

that the VG/PG induced reduction in surface activity was consistent among several different sub-

ohm devices with very low resistance coils and different wattages for aerosol generation.

Although the sub-ohm devices are popular amongst users, large variation in resistance and the

amount of current passed through the coil exist beyond those tested in the current study. Overall,

the findings support a modification in dynamic surface-active properties of surfactant due to

vehicle aerosol exposure.

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

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

specific e-liquids among the approximately 16000 flavours currently available is difficult,

however, we picked popular e-liquids in different categories (tobacco alternatives, drinks, candy,

and dessert) (13). 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 (30). The specific process by which red wedding flavouring impacts

surfactant is not clear, and studies of the lateral organization of the surfactant film, for example

by atomic force microscopy could explore this further. Nevertheless, 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 (19, 36). 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. A recent study, showing similar effects to menthol as

the current study, did indeed show such alteration of the surface film using atomic force

microscopy (30). Regardless of the specific mechanism, the data clearly indicate that variability

exist between the impact of aerosols 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 (37).

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 EC aerosol interactions with the surfactant system is the

generation of various compounds during the aerosolization process. For example, flavour

aldehydes have been shown to react causing the formation of PG acetals (38). 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 (38). It has also been reported that aerosolization, 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 (15, 39-

41). In a non-targeted study, over 115 volatile organic compounds were found in a single puff of

EC aerosol (42). Further, compared to the composition of the non-aerosolized liquid,

aerosolization produced more than 80 additional compounds beyond the 60 identified within the

liquid itself (42). It has also been reported that higher power EC devices increase reactive oxygen

species production (43). 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-aerosolized e-liquid directly with BLES,

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

the inhibition of surfactant by EC aerosols may not only be the results of the incorporation of e-

liquid components but also due to additional components generated during aerosolization. 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 aerosol generation.

Although the current study examined the effects of EC aerosols on surfactant *in vitro*, the

rationale for our experiments was the interaction of aerosols 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 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 (44). Considering the rapid nature of

this effect on lung mechanics, it would be consistent with a rapid direct interaction of the aerosol

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 may 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 (45). It should also

be noted that *in vivo* vaping may impact other aspect of surfactant, such as the expression of the

surfactant associated proteins. Two previous studies show different results in this regard with one

study observing dysregulation of certain genes, but no significant alterations to surfactant

proteins A, B, C, or D (46), but another reporting decreased expression of surfactant proteins

(23). Difference in experimental set up, specific vaping conditions and exposure times may have

contributed to these differences. Future studies examining the acute impact of EC aerosols on

surfactant *in vivo*, as well as susceptibility of aerosol 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 EC aerosol. 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 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 nicotine was only tested individually as well as with two

flavour combinations. As no additional affect was observed, we neglected to test nicotine further,

however it is possible that nicotine could have an interaction with specific flavours to potentially

affect the impact on surfactant. Lastly, 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 EC aerosols for

several weeks showed altered lipid homeostasis in alveolar macrophages, as well as

accumulation of phospholipids in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (23). The impact of EC aerosols

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.

449 Conclusion

This study demonstrated that the aerosol produced from the 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 EC aerosol 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.

457 Acknowledgments

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

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

460   running experiments. Help with the statistical from Dr Eric Patterson is greatly appreciated. The

461   exogenous surfactant, BLES, was a generous gift from BLES biochemicals (London On.

462   Canada).

References

1.	Canada S. Canadian Student Tobacco, Alochol and Drugs Survey Published online 2019: Dly; 2018-2019 [Available from: https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/canadian-student-tobacco-alcohol-drugs-survey/2018-2019-detailed-tables.html.

2.	Canada S. Canadian Tobacco and Nicotine Survey Published online 2020:19-22: Dly; 2019 [Available from: https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/canadian-tobacco-nicotine-survey/2019-summary/2019-detailed-tables.html.

3.	Lee SJ, Rees VW, Yossefy N, Emmons KM, Tan ASL. Youth and Young Adult Use of Pod-Based Electronic Cigarettes From 2015 to 2019: A Systematic Review. JAMA Pediatr. 2020;174(7):714-20.

4.	Miyashita L, Foley G. E-cigarettes and respiratory health: the latest evidence. J Physiol. 2020;598(22):5027-38.

5.	Cao DJ, Aldy K, Hsu S, McGetrick M, Verbeck G, De Silva I, et al. Review of Health Consequences of Electronic Cigarettes and the Outbreak of Electronic Cigarette, or Vaping, Product Use-Associated Lung Injury. J Med Toxicol. 2020;16(3):295-310.

6.	CDC. Outbreak of Lung Injury Associated with the USe of E-Cigarette, or Vaping, Products [Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco/basic_information/e-cigarettes/severe-lung-disease.html.

7.	Landman ST, Dhaliwal I, Mackenzie CA, Martinu T, Steele A, Bosma KJ. Life-threatening bronchiolitis related to electronic cigarette use in a Canadian youth. Cmaj. 2019;191(48):E1321-e31.

8.	DiPasquale M, Gbadamosi O, Nguyen MHL, Castillo SR, Rickeard BW, Kelley EG, et al. A Mechanical Mechanism for Vitamin E Acetate in E-cigarette/Vaping-Associated Lung Injury. Chem Res Toxicol. 2020;33(9):2432-40.

9.	Xantus G, Anna Gyarmathy V, Johnson CA, Sanghera P, Zavori L, Kanizsai PL. The role of vitamin E acetate (VEA) and its derivatives in the vaping associated lung injury: systematic review of evidence. Crit Rev Toxicol. 2021;51(1):15-23.

10.	Ponzoni L, Moretti M, Sala M, Fasoli F, Mucchietto V, Lucini V, et al. Different physiological and behavioural effects of e-cigarette vapour and cigarette smoke in mice. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol. 2015;25(10):1775-86.

11.	Zhu S-H, Sun JY, Bonnevie E, Cummins SE, Gamst A, Yin L, et al. Four hundred and sixty brands of e-cigarettes and counting: implications for product regulation. Tobacco Control. 2014;23(suppl 3):iii3-iii9.

12.	Hsu G, Sun JY, Zhu S-H. Evolution of Electronic Cigarette Brands From 2013-2014 to 2016-2017: Analysis of Brand Websites. J Med Internet Res. 2018;20(3):e80.

13.	Krüsemann EJZ, Havermans A, Pennings JLA, de Graaf K, Boesveldt S, Talhout R. Comprehensive overview of common e-liquid ingredients and how they can be used to predict an e-liquid's flavour category. Tobacco Control. 2021;30(2):185-91.

14.	Jensen RP, Luo W, Pankow JF, Strongin RM, Peyton DH. Hidden formaldehyde in e-cigarette aerosols. N Engl J Med. 2015;372(4):392-4.

15.   Kosmider L, Sobczak A, Fik M, Knysak J, Zaciera M, Kurek J, et al. Carbonyl compounds in
electronic cigarette vapors: effects of nicotine solvent and battery output voltage. Nicotine Tob
Res. 2014;16(10):1319-26.
16.   Protano C, Avino P, Manigrasso M, Vivaldi V, Perna F, Valeriani F, et al. Environmental
Electronic Vape Exposure from Four Different Generations of Electronic Cigarettes: Airborne
Particulate Matter Levels. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2018;15(10):2172.
17.   Possmayer F. A proposed nomenclature for pulmonary surfactant-associated proteins.
Am Rev Respir Dis. 1988;138(4):990-8.
18.   Goerke J. Pulmonary surfactant: functions and molecular composition. Biochim Biophys
Acta. 1998;1408(2-3):79-89.
19.   Zuo YY, Veldhuizen RA, Neumann AW, Petersen NO, Possmayer F. Current perspectives
in pulmonary surfactant--inhibition, enhancement and evaluation. Biochim Biophys Acta.
2008;1778(10):1947-77.
20.   Keating E, Zuo YY, Tadayyon SM, Petersen NO, Possmayer F, Veldhuizen RAW. A
modified squeeze-out mechanism for generating high surface pressures with pulmonary
surfactant. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Biomembranes. 2012;1818(5):1225-34.
21.   Avery ME, Mead J. Surface properties in relation to atelectasis and hyaline membrane
disease. AMA J Dis Child. 1959;97(5, Part 1):517-23.
22.   Hayeck N, Zoghzoghi C, Karam E, Salman R, Karaoghlanian N, Shihadeh A, et al. Carrier
Solvents of Electronic Nicotine Delivery Systems Alter Pulmonary Surfactant. Chem Res Toxicol.
2021;34(6):1572-7.
23.   Madison MC, Landers CT, Gu BH, Chang CY, Tung HY, You R, et al. Electronic cigarettes
disrupt lung lipid homeostasis and innate immunity independent of nicotine. J Clin Invest.
2019;129(10):4290-304.
24.   Przybyla RJ, Wright J, Parthiban R, Nazemidashtarjandi S, Kaya S, Farnoud AM. Electronic
cigarette vapor alters the lateral structure but not tensiometric properties of calf lung
surfactant. Respir Res. 2017;18(1):193.
25.   Valle RP, Wu T, Zuo YY. Biophysical Influence of Airborne Carbon Nanomaterials on
Natural Pulmonary Surfactant. ACS Nano. 2015;9(5):5413-21.
26.   Milos S, Khazaee R, McCaig LA, Nygard K, Gardiner RB, Zuo YY, et al. Impact of
ventilation-induced lung injury on the structure and function of lamellar bodies. American
Journal of Physiology-Lung Cellular and Molecular Physiology. 2017;313(3):L524-L33.
27.   Yang J, Yu K, Zuo YY. Accuracy of Axisymmetric Drop Shape Analysis in Determining
Surface and Interfacial Tensions. Langmuir. 2017;33(36):8914-23.
28.   Davies MJ, Birkett JW, Kotwa M, Tomlinson L, Woldetinsae R. The impact of cigarette/e-
cigarette vapour on simulated pulmonary surfactant monolayers under physiologically relevant
conditions. Surface and Interface Analysis. 2017;49(7):654-65.
29.   Sosnowski TR, Jabłczyńska K, Odziomek M, Schlage WK, Kuczaj AK. Physicochemical
studies of direct interactions between lung surfactant and components of electronic cigarettes
liquid mixtures. Inhal Toxicol. 2018;30(4-5):159-68.
30.   Xu L, Yang Y, Simien JM, Kang C, Li G, Xu X, et al. Menthol in Electronic Cigarettes Causes
Biophysical Inhibition of Pulmonary Surfactant. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol. 2022.

31.   Stockley E, Valotaire R, Miller M, Da Silva O. Effects of bovine lipid extract surfactant
administration in preterm infants treated for respiratory distress syndrome. Health Science
Reports. 2018;1(4):e34.
32.   Fiume MM, Bergfeld WF, Belsito DV, Hill RA, Klaassen CD, Liebler D, et al. Safety
assessment of propylene glycol, tripropylene glycol, and PPGs as used in cosmetics. Int J Toxicol.
2012;31(5 Suppl):245s-60s.
33.   C.F.R. Code of Federal Regulations 21CFR 182.1320, April, 1990 (2014) [
34.   Phillips B, Titz B, Kogel U, Sharma D, Leroy P, Xiang Y, et al. Toxicity of the main
electronic cigarette components, propylene glycol, glycerin, and nicotine, in Sprague-Dawley
rats in a 90-day OECD inhalation study complemented by molecular endpoints. Food and
Chemical Toxicology. 2017;109:315-32.
35.   Zhang H, Wang YE, Fan Q, Zuo YY. On the Low Surface Tension of Lung Surfactant.
Langmuir. 2011;27(13):8351-8.
36.   Veldhuizen EJ, Haagsman HP. Role of pulmonary surfactant components in surface film
formation and dynamics. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2000;1467(2):255-70.
37.   Omaiye EE, McWhirter KJ, Luo W, Pankow JF, Talbot P. High-Nicotine Electronic
Cigarette Products: Toxicity of JUUL Fluids and Aerosols Correlates Strongly with Nicotine and
Some Flavor Chemical Concentrations. Chemical Research in Toxicology. 2019;32(6):1058-69.
38.   Erythropel HC, Jabba SV, DeWinter TM, Mendizabal M, Anastas PT, Jordt SE, et al.
Formation of flavorant-propylene Glycol Adducts With Novel Toxicological Properties in
Chemically Unstable E-Cigarette Liquids. Nicotine Tob Res. 2019;21(9):1248-58.
39.   Goniewicz ML, Knysak J, Gawron M, Kosmider L, Sobczak A, Kurek J, et al. Levels of
selected carcinogens and toxicants in vapour from electronic cigarettes. Tobacco Control.
2014;23(2):133-9.
40.   Díaz E, Sad ME, Iglesia E. Homogeneous oxidation reactions of propanediols at low
temperatures. ChemSusChem. 2010;3(9):1063-70.
41.   Lim HH, Shin HS. Determination of volatile organic compounds including alcohols in refill
fluids and cartridges of electronic cigarettes by headspace solid-phase micro extraction and gas
chromatography-mass spectrometry. Anal Bioanal Chem. 2017;409(5):1247-56.
42.   Herrington JS, Myers C. Electronic cigarette solutions and resultant aerosol profiles. J
Chromatogr A. 2015;1418:192-9.
43.   Haddad C, Salman R, El-Hellani A, Talih S, Shihadeh A, Saliba NA. Reactive Oxygen
Species Emissions from Supra- and Sub-Ohm Electronic Cigarettes. J Anal Toxicol.
2019;43(1):45-50.
44.   Vardavas CI, Anagnostopoulos N, Kougias M, Evangelopoulou V, Connolly GN, Behrakis
PK. Short-term pulmonary effects of using an electronic cigarette: impact on respiratory flow
resistance, impedance, and exhaled nitric oxide. Chest. 2012;141(6):1400-6.
45.   Cockshutt AM, Possmayer F. Lysophosphatidylcholine sensitizes lipid extracts of
pulmonary surfactant to inhibition by serum proteins. Biochim Biophys Acta. 1991;1086(1):63-
71.
46.   Szafran BN, Pinkston R, Perveen Z, Ross MK, Morgan T, Paulsen DB, et al. Electronic-
Cigarette Vehicles and Flavoring Affect Lung Function and Immune Responses in a Murine
Model. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2020;21(17):6022.
588

Supporting information

S1 Fig. A-D. Maximum surface tensions of experimental variables. Maximum 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 aerosol temperature. **D.** BLES mixed with three different volumes of

vehicle e-liquid. N=3 *P<0.05 compared to air control.

S2. Table. Adsorption and compression data. Average adsorption and percent compression

(±SEM) for control and exposed groups under four experimental conditions: changing vehicle

composition, using different EC devices, varying temperature through increasing wattage, and

mixing of non-aerosolized e-liquid directly with BLES.

	Adsorption (mN/m)	Maximum Area Compression (%)	Area Compression at Minimum Surface Tension (%)	*
Vehicle Composition				
Air Control	24.61±0.22	26.49±0.56	23.32±0.21	
50VG	24.78±0.92	26.68±0.24	24.29±0.70	
70VG	26.62±0.31	27.58±0.62	25.08±0.56	
MaxVG	24.64±0.34	26.06±0.14	23.73±0.13	
Devices				
Air Control	24.52±0.19	23.97±0.54	22.54±0.28	
Caliburn	24.96±0.27	26.16±0.85	24.76±0.78	
Pockex	24.70±0.23	25.61±0.67	24.36±0.59	
Vaporesso	24.96±0.18	26.37±0.57	24.82±0.27	
Temperature				
Air Control	23.65±0.18	20.13±0.30	18.29±0.36	

30W (Low)	23.68±0.07	21.42±0.61	18.88±0.64
55W (Medium)	23.62±0.10	21.41±0.65	18.79±0.65
80W (High)	23.53±0.15	21.29±0.48	18.64±0.44
Direct Mixing E-liquid			
BLES+0% E-liquid	24.24±0.33	24.20±0.39	21.15±0.42
BLES+ 10% E-liquid	24.28±0.39	24.02±0.28	21.06±0.36
BLES+20% E-liquid	24.18±0.23	23.78±0.37	21.02±0.41

603 **S3 Fig. A-I.** Minimum surface tensions (± SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles for

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

605 **S4 Fig.** Minimum surface tensions (±SEM) across 20 compression/expansion cycles for BLES

606 exposed to menthol and vehicle aerosols as well as air control after one day and three days of

607 consecutive exposure. N=3 *P<0.05 compared to day one.

BLES 2mg/ml

E-cigarette

30 X 30Sec

E-cigarette Aerosol

A   5th Compression Cycle

B   10th Compression Cycle

C

D

A 5th Compression Cycle

- ○ Air Control
- ■ Vehicle
- ▲ Red Wedding

B 10th Compression Cycle

C

D