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Two zinc-aminoclays' *in-vitro* cytotoxicity assessment in HeLa cells and *in-vivo* embryotoxicity assay in zebrafish



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ABSTRACT

Two zinc-aminoclays [ZnACs] with functionalized primary amines [(-CH₂)₃NH₂] were prepared by a simple solgel reaction using cationic metal precursors of ZnCl₂ and Zn(NO₃)₂ with 3-aminopropyl triethoxysilane [APTES] under ambient conditions. Due to the facile interaction of heavy metals with primary amine sites and Zn-related intrinsic antimicrobial activity, toxicity assays of ZnACs nanoparticles (NPs) prior to their environmental and human-health applications are essential. However, such reports remain rare. Thus, in the present study, a cell viability assay of in-vitro HeLa cells comparing ZnCl2, Zn(NO3)2 salts, and ZnO (~50 nm average diameter) NPs was performed. Interestingly, compared with the ZnCl₂, and Zn(NO₃)₂ salts, and ZnO NPs (18.73/18.12/ $51.49 \mu g/mL$ and $18.12/15.19/46.10 \mu g/mL$ of IC₅₀ values for 24 and 48 h), the two ZnACs NPs exhibited the highest toxicity (IC₅₀ values of 21.18/18.36 µg/mL and 18.37/17.09 µg/mL for 24 and 48 h, respectively), whose concentrations were calculated on Zn elemental composition. This might be due to the enhanced bioavailability and uptake into cells of ZnAC NPs themselves and their positively charged hydrophilicity by reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, particularly as ZnACs exist in cationic NP's form, not in released Zn²⁺ ionic form (i.e., dissolved nanometal). However, in an in-vivo embryotoxicity assay in zebrafish, ZnACs and ZnO NPs showed toxic effects at 50-100 µg/mL (corresponding to 37.88-75.76 of Zn wt% µg/mL). The hatching rate (%) of zebrafish was lowest for the ZnO NPs, particularly where ZnAC-[(NO₃)₂] is slightly more toxic than ZnAC-[Cl2]. These results are all very pertinent to the issue of ZnACs' potential applications in the environmental and biomedical fields.

1. Introduction

Hybrid nanomaterials (Saleh et al., 2015) or single metal oxide nanoparticles (NPs) (Wehmas et al., 2015) such as TiO₂, CeO₂, SnO₂, and ZnO, among others, have caused environmental, health and safety concerns. Among engineered nanoscale semiconductor metal oxides, ZnO NPs, owing to their large surface-area-to-volume ratio, UV-visible absorption spectra, and long lifespan (Yu et al., 2004), are increasingly popular for employment in cosmetic/biomedical applications such as sunscreens, foot care, ointments and over-the-counter topical products, pigments and antimicrobial coatings for ultraviolet (UV) protection and

fungicidal action in paints (Hu et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2008; Roduner, 2006), gas sensors (Lin et al., 1998), electronic devices (Kim et al., 2008; Ozgur et al., 2010; Sharma et al., 2015), and photocatalysts (Bai et al., 2013; Chakrabarti and Dutta, 2004; Curri et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2014b). Despite the common exposure to ZnO NPs in diverse routes of skin, airways and environments (Osmond and Mccall, 2010), the researching on the safety of ZnO NPs for animal cells are still demanding and its accurate mechanism is debating in academic fields (Vandebriel and De Jong, 2012).

As a result, prior to ZnO NPs' applications, concentration-dependent cytotoxicity assessment of ZnO NPs has been actively pursued for

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various cell types (see Table S1, Supplementary Information) (Vandebriel and De Jong, 2012). In-vitro immunotoxicity in mammalian systems (Roy et al., 2015) and ecotoxicity results (Ma et al., 2013) of ZnO NPs were focused on cytotoxicity mechanism, then resulting in higher concentration causes cell death. It has long been known that ZnO NPs can indirectly produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) by fully occupying oxidative stress defense compounds such as metallothionein, thereby preventing them from binding Fe or Cu ions, which remain free to catalyze Fenton-type reactions (Chevion, 1988). Cells exposed to ZnO NPs thus can suffer marked decreases in mitochondrial membrane potential as well as increases in both hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) and hydroxyl radical (•OH) levels (Guo et al., 2013). Additionally, caspase-12 mediates an endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-specific apoptosis pathway. thus effecting cell death (Nakagawa et al., 2000). When, in a recent study, target cells were exposed to increasing levels of ZnO NPs, concentration-dependent increases in caspase-12 levels were observed (Guo et al., 2013). Therefore, other research groups have attempted to modify ZnO NPs' surfaces to reduce their toxicity and potentiate their "smart" role as a targeted delivery carrier in biomedical applications (Owens et al., 2016; Punnoose et al., 2014). For example, silica (SiO₂) and poly methyl acrylic acid (PMAA) (Ramasamy et al., 2014; Yin et al., 2010), chitosan (Li et al., 2010) and surfactant-coated ZnO NPs [27] were found to reduce ROS-generation levels without affecting UV absorbance (Ramasamy et al., 2014; Yin et al., 2010).

In 1997, Mann et al. developed 3-aminopropyl-functionalized magnesium phyllosilicate (magnesium aminoclay, MgAC). Beyond bio(nano)composites (Mann, 2009), research into MgAC has expanded from environmental to bio-medical applications; among the achievements are effective removal in oxyanions (Lee et al., 2011a) and heavy metals (Lee et al., 2011b) and the minimization of in-vitro cytotoxic effects in mammalian cells (Han et al., 2011b) and in-vivo mice (Yang et al., 2014). Recently, Lee et al. reported that carbon-nanodotconjugated FeAC showed no toxic effects on HeLa cells in-vitro based on simultaneous bio-imaging (Kang et al., 2015). Interestingly, ZnACs with an injection of NaOH at 338 K or 373 K temperatures were synthesized by Airoldi et al. (da Fonseca et al., 2004) and applied to the removal of toxic Cu²⁺ ions by coordination with primary amines between layers bonded to inorganic frameworks. AC-family preparations have been actively developed for multifaceted applications (Datta et al., 2013). However, relevant cytotoxicity studies of ACs have as yet been rare, and the available dataset is limited, despite their importance to the potential environmental and human-health applications, compared to previously reported cytotoxicity evaluation of ZnO NPs (Vandebriel and De Jong, 2012).

In the present study, in order to investigate the feasibility of two ZnACs NPs for environmental and biomedical applications, a cytotoxicity assay in HeLa cells was performed in comparison with ZnO NPs (\sim 50 nm), 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES), ZnCl₂, and Zn(NO₃)₂ as precursors of ZnAC preparation. Additionally, the two ZnACs and ZnO NPs were tested for *in-vivo* embryotoxicity in zebrafish. In order to reveal the cytotoxicity mechanisms of the ZnACs and ZnO NPs, their cellular uptakes were investigated by intracellular ROS measurement and fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) as well as observing by confocal microscopy.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Chemicals used in this study

Zinc oxide (ZnO, \sim 50 nm average diameter, 81.39 g/mol), zinc chloride (ZnCl₂, 136.30 g/mol), zinc nitrate hexahydrate (Zn(NO₃)₂· 6H₂O, 297.49 g/mol), (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (APTES, 221.37 g/mol), fluorescein isothiocyanate isomer I (FITC, 389.38 g/mol), 2',7'-dicholorofluorescin diacetate (DCFH-DA, 487.29 g/mol), dipyridamole (504.63 g/mol), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, 78.13 g/mol), phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) tablets (1 tablet is dissolved in

200 mL of deionized [DI] water to yield 0.01 M phosphate buffer, pH 7.4 at 25 °C), cell-proliferation reagent water-soluble tetrazolium salt-1 (WST-1), and trypan blue (0.4%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Bulk ethanol (18 L) was received from Samchun Pure Chemical Co. Ltd (Gyeonggi-do, Korea). Roswell Park Memorial Institute(RPMI) 1640, fetal bovine serum (FBS), and trypsin-EDTA (0.05%) were supplied by Gibco® via Life Technologies (Rockville, MD, USA), and and L-Glutamine 200 mM (100 ×) and Penicillin/Streptomycin (Pen/Strep, $100 \times$) were obtained from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Staining of HeLa cells was performed with the Annexin V apoptosis detection kit 1 (BD Pharmingen®, San Diego, CA, USA) for fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) measurement. Milli-Q DI water was used throughout the experiments (conductivity < $18.2 \,\mathrm{M}\Omega$ cm²;Milli-Q Millipore filter system; Millipore Co., Bedford, MA, USA).

2.2. Preparation of two ZnACs

Each ZnAC, ZnAC-[Cl₂] and ZnAC-[(NO₃)₂], was prepared using ZnCl₂ and Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O precursors, respectively. Briefly, \sim 8.4g of ZnCl₂ or Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O was dissolved in 200 mL of ethanol solution. After 10 min magnetic stirring, \sim 13 mL of APTES was drop-wise added to the Zn ethanolic solution (da Fonseca et al., 2004) and adjusted to \sim 1.34 Zn:Si molar ratio by a simple sol-gel reaction where hydrolysis and condensation of organosilanes results in production of network of siloxane [Si-O-Si] bonds (da Fonseca et al., 1999). The resultant solution was stirred overnight preparatory to its collection in white-slurry form. Then, each ZnAC was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 15 min, after which the separated ZnAC was washed twice with 100 mL of ethanol solution, oven-dried at 60 °C for 24 h, and finally powdered by pestle and mortar and denoted ZnAC-[Cl₂] or ZnAC-[(NO₃)₂].

2.3. Characterizations of ZnAC-[Cl $_2$], ZnAC-[(NO $_3$) $_2$], ZnO, ZnCl $_2$, and Zn(NO $_3$) $_2$

Morphological micrographs of ZnAC-[Cl2], ZnAC-[(NO3)2] and ZnO at 0.5 mg/mL dispersed in DI water were observed by field-emission transmission electron microscope (FE-TEM, 200 kV, Tecnai F20, Philips, Netherlands) at the KARA research center. A cold-type fieldemission scanning electron microscopic (FE-SEM-4700) images by equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX) were captured. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of ZnCl₂, ZnAC-[Cl2], Zn(NO3)2, ZnAC-[(NO3)2], and ZnO were examined by using normal powder X-ray diffractometer (D/MAX-2500, RIGAKU, USA) at 40 kV and 300 mA, scanning at $2\theta = 3-70^{\circ}$ in 0.02 increments. Highresolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (HR-XPS) with monochromatic Al K α X-ray radiation (h ν = 1486.6 eV) operated at 120 W (Kratos Analytical, AXIS Nova, Manchester, UK) was employed to investigate the surface chemical interaction in O1s, $\mathrm{Zn_{2p}}$, and $\mathrm{N_{1s}}$ species for the ZnAC-[Cl2], ZnAC-[(NO3)2], and ZnO. The shift of the binding energy as a result of relative surface charging was corrected using the C_{1s} level at 284.6 eV as an internal standard (Lee et al., 2014a). The covalent bondings of the organic functionalities in ZnACs were recorded by pellet-mode Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrometry (FT-IR 4100, Jasco, Japan). The Zn (wt%) content in the ZnACs and ZnO was analyzed by energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis. The UV-Vis spectra of ZnAC-[Cl2] and ZnAC-[(NO3)2] at 0.625 mg/mL, and of ZnO at 0.156 mg/mL, were taken by UV-vis spectrophotometry (VARIAN, 50 Bio CARY, USA). Both the zeta potential and the dynamic light scattering (DLS)-based hydrodynamic size of ZnAC-[Cl2], ZnAC-[(NO3)2], and ZnO at 0.625 mg/mL and dispersed in serum-containing media were measured by particle-size analysis (Zetasizer Nano ZS, Malvern, UK). The released Zn²⁺ ion concentrations of ZnO-treated HeLa cells and zebrafish culture media were measured by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES, OPTIMA 7300 DV, Perkin-Elmer, USA). The samples of

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