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Cellular Uptake and Cytotoxicity of a Near-IR Fluorescent Corrole-TiO₂ Nanoconjugate

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Abstract

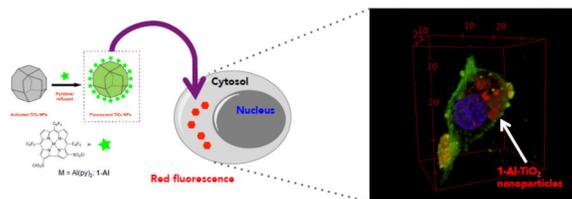
We are investigating the biological and biomedical imaging roles and impacts of fluorescent metallocorrole-TiO₂ nanoconjugates as potential near-infrared optical contrast agents *in vitro* in cancer and normal cell lines. The TiO₂ nanoconjugate labeled with the small molecule 2,17-bis(chlorosulfonyl)-5,10,15-tris(pentafluorophenyl)corrolato aluminum(III) (**1-AI**-TiO₂) was prepared. The nanoparticle **1-AI**-TiO₂ was characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and integrating-sphere electronic absorption spectroscopy. TEM images of three different samples of TiO₂ nanoparticles (bare, H₂O₂ etched, and **1-AI** functionalized) showed similarity in shapes and sizes with an average diameter of 29 nm for **1-AI**-TiO₂. Loading of **1-AI** on the TiO₂ surfaces was determined to be *ca.* 20–40 mg **1-AI**/g TiO₂. Confocal fluorescence microscopy (CFM) studies of luciferase-transfected primary human glioblastoma U87-Luc cells treated with the nanoconjugate **1-AI**-TiO₂ as the contrast agent in various concentrations were performed. The CFM images revealed that **1-AI**-TiO₂ was found inside the cancer cells even at low doses (0.02–2 µg/mL) and localized in the cytosol. Bioluminescence studies of the U87-Luc cells exposed to

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various amounts of **1-Al-TiO₂** showed minimal cytotoxic effects even at higher doses (2–2000 µg/mL) after 24 h. A similar observation was made using primary mouse hepatocytes (PMH) treated with **1-Al-TiO₂** at low doses (0.0003–3 µg/mL). Longer incubation times (after 48 and 72 h for U87-Luc) and higher doses (> 20 µg/mL **1-Al-TiO₂** for U87-Luc and > 3 µg/mL **1-Al-TiO₂** for PMH) showed decreased cell viability.

Graphical Abstract



Synopsis for the graphic abstract

Fluorescence (shown in red) from the corrole nanoconjugate **1-Al-TiO₂** internalized in the glioblastoma U87-Luc cell.

Keywords

Nanoconjugate; TiO₂ nanoparticle; Corrole; Fluorescence; Cytotoxic effect; Cellular uptake

1. Introduction

Small molecules, biomolecules, and biocompatible materials for molecular imaging have played an important role in recent advances in biomedical and drug development research[1–3]. Application of contrast agents is required by many imaging modalities and allows for better understanding of biochemical pathways, physiological processes, and disease pathologies[4–8]. Many small molecules and biomolecules that function as molecular imaging contrast agents have been utilized in both preclinical and clinical settings[9]. Recent efforts have focused on nanomaterials, a stark contrast to traditional small molecules and oligomers[10,11]. Aside from the sizes of these materials, including volumes and surface areas, which essentially provide a canvas for numerous small molecule labeling, they exhibit properties not generally found in either bulk materials or discreet molecules[12–14]. Examples of widely used and studied nanomaterials for biomedical imaging include quantum dots for optical imaging and superparamagnetic iron oxides for magnetic resonance imaging[10,11].

In our work, we have employed semiconductor nanoparticulate titanium(IV) oxide (TiO₂) covalently decorated with fluorescent corroles as a new class of optical imaging contrast agents for the study of cellular uptake and cytotoxic effects in cancer and normal cells. TiO₂, found in several different crystalline structures, such as rutile, anatase, and brookite, has been used in a number of contexts, including photocatalysis, dye-sensitized solar cells, and photochromic devices[15–19]. TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibit a wealth of intrinsic properties dependent upon several factors, including surface area, crystalline phase, and single

crystallinity. We have exploited the facile nature with which the surface can be decorated with corroles, which were selected as optical dyes. Many studies have shown that 5,10,15-tris(pentafluorophenyl) corrole and its derivatives exhibit bright and robust fluorescence signals in the near-IR region ($\lambda_{em} \approx 600$ nm) and are therefore considered suitable candidates for optical imaging[20–23]. In addition, the chemical versatility of corroles, allowing for various metallation[24–26] and substitution[27,28] reactions, as well as their biological stability[29–31] make them attractive contrast agents.

Previously we reported the syntheses, spectroscopic characterizations, and spectral confocal fluorescence imaging results for a family of corrole-TiO₂ nanoconjugates, namely **1-TiO₂**, **1-Al-TiO₂**, and **1-Ga-TiO₂**[32]. The TiO₂ nanoparticle surfaces were covalently labeled with chlorosulfonated corroles through a sulfonic ester linkage (Scheme 1).

Because **1-Al-TiO₂** exhibits the brightest fluorescence, consistent with the emission properties of related molecular Al corroles[26,32,33], we chose this nanoconjugate as a model to study cellular uptake and cytotoxic effects.

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents and materials

Preparation of Al(III)tpfc(SO₂Cl)₂ (**1-Al**) and the nanoconjugate **1-Al-TiO₂** was reported previously[32]. D-Luciferin potassium salt (Promega), Hoechst 34580 (Invitrogen™), Hoechst 33258 (Invitrogen™), Sytox Green (Invitrogen™), and FM[®] 1–43FX (Invitrogen™) were used as received according to the provider's instruction.

2.2. Physical Methods

Characterization of **1-Al** was performed by ¹H NMR, ¹⁹F NMR, electronic absorption, and fluorescence spectroscopies, and was reported previously[32]. Surface characterization of **1-Al-TiO₂** is outlined as follows.

2.2.1. Transmission Electron Microscopy—The morphologies of the TiO₂ nanoparticles before and after surface functionalization were imaged using a FEI Tecnai F30ST transmission electron microscope (TEM) operated at acceleration voltage of 300 kV. Images were recorded using a Gatan CCD camera. For TEM analysis, a small quantity of TiO₂ particles was dispersed in isopropyl alcohol (IPA) by sonication. The dispersions were drop-cast onto C-flat™ holey carbon films on a 200 mesh Cu TEM grid (Electron Microscopy Sciences).

2.2.2. Absorption Spectroscopy—Calculation of the corrole **1-Al**'s loading on the surface of TiO₂ was based on the absorbance values obtained from the integrating sphere electronic absorption measurements described as follows.

Thin film transmittance measurements were used to determine **1-Al** loading on the TiO₂ nanoparticles. Both H₂O₂-etched and **1-Al**-functionalized nanoparticles were dispersed in a polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) polymer matrix. PDMS was chosen as it provides a transparent matrix for measuring the optical properties of porous solids[34]. The weights of

the TiO₂ nanoparticles, the PDMS base (Sylgard[®]184 silicone elastomer base from Dow Corning), and the curing agent (Sylgard[®]184 silicone elastomer curing agent from Dow Corning) are provided in Table A.1 in Appendix A. The nanoparticles were first dispersed in a minimal amount of IPA by sonication. The dispersion of TiO₂ nanoparticles in IPA was then mixed with the PDMS base and curing agent using a vortex mixer. The mixtures were cast into films onto quartz substrates and allowed to cure in air for 12 h followed by curing in a drying oven at 60° for 2 h.

Transflectance spectra of the H₂O₂-etched and **1-AI**-functionalized TiO₂ nanoparticle films were measured using a Cary 5000 UV-vis-NIR spectrometer from Agilent Technologies equipped with an integrating sphere (External DRA 1800), a PMT detector, a quartz-iodine lamp for the visible region (350–800 nm), and a deuterium lamp for the ultraviolet region (300–350 nm). Because the TiO₂ nanoparticles diffusely scattered the incident illumination, the PDMS films were placed in the center of the integrating sphere to collect both the transmitted, T, and the reflected, R, (including the spectrally reflected and diffusely scattered) light with the PMT detector. The transreflectance measurements allowed for the absorbance, A, of the films to be determined by $A = -\log(T+R)$. The concentration, C, of **1-AI** within the PDMS films was then calculated using the Beer-Lambert law, $A = \epsilon Cl$, where ϵ is the extinction coefficient of the dye and l is the film thickness (determined by profilometry, see below)[35–37]. The absorbance values at 426 and 595 nm (corresponding to the Soret and Q bands of the dye, respectively) for the PDMS film containing the **1-AI**-functionalized TiO₂ nanoparticles, the estimated extinction coefficients of **1-AI** at these wavelengths, and the film thicknesses are provided in Table A.2 of Appendix A. The absorbance values for the PDMS film containing the non-functionalized, H₂O₂-etched TiO₂ nanoparticles at these wavelengths are also provided, which were subtracted from the absorbance values of the **1-AI**-functionalized TiO₂ nanoparticles. The **1-AI**-loading was determined to be 24 mg of **1-AI** per gram of TiO₂ based on the absorbance value of the Soret band and 38 mg of dye per gram of TiO₂ based on the absorbance value of the Q band.

Thickness profiles of the PDMS films were measured using a Bruker DektakXT stylus surface profilometer. The diameter of the diamond-tipped stylus was 2 μm and a weight of 1 mg was applied to the film. The stylus was scanned at a rate of 250 $\mu\text{m/s}$. The thickness profiles were used to measure the average path length through the PDMS films during the transreflectance measurements.

2.2.3. Hydrodynamic size and surface charge measurements—The mean particle size was determined by dynamic light scattering (DLS, Malvern ZEN 3600 Zetasizer Nano) measurements. Samples of **1-AI**-TiO₂ suspended in PBS pH 7.2 were pipetted into a low volume quartz cuvette with appropriate concentrations. At least nine measurements were performed for each sample. Each measurement comprised 20 runs with an average of 34,000 particle counts per second. The data represent the particle size distribution parameter, which reports the most frequent particle size in the sample accounting for the intensity fluctuations of larger particles. The particle intensity was computed using Zetasizer Software version 7.01 applying the Stokes-Einstein equation to correlate the change in the scattering intensity and particle movements. Plots showing the average size of the nanoparticle aggregates are shown in Figure A.1. The surface charge of **1-AI**-TiO₂ in PBS pH 7.2 was examined through

ζ potential measurements (Malvern ZEN 3600 Zetasizer Nano). The average ζ potential (Table A.3) was calculated from 20 measurements with 10–100 runs for each depending on the variation of the particles.

2.3. Cell Culture and Cell Viability Assay

Pathogen-free U87-LUC cell line (TSRI Small Animal Imaging and Research Laboratory) [38] was grown in a 75-mL flask in Dulbecco's Minimal Essential Medium (DMEM) in 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. The cell culture medium was supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% antibiotic primocin. The cell culture medium was replenished every 2 days and the cells were passaged once they reached 80% confluence. Primary mouse hepatocytes (PMH) were isolated and cultured as previously described[39].

For U87-Luc cell culture experiments, cells plated in an 8-chamber slide (Nunc™ Lab-Tek™, Thermo Scientific) were treated with **1-Al-TiO₂** suspended in PBS over a range of 0.002 µg/mL to 2000 µg/mL. A primary stock solution (6.3 mg **1-Al-TiO₂** in 1 mL PBS) was prepared. The primary stock solution was further diluted to prepare secondary and tertiary stock solutions. Various amounts of stock solutions were added to the 8-chamber glass slide plated with cells to give the aforementioned range of concentrations. The final volume of each chamber was 300 µL. After treatment, the treated cells and controls were incubated in the dark in 5% CO₂ at 37 °C for a period of 24, 48, and 72 h. The cells were imaged using a cooled IVIS® animal imaging system (Xenogen, Alameda, CA USA) linked to a PC running with Living Image™ software (Xenogen) along with IGOR (Wavemetrics, Seattle, WA, USA) under Microsoft® Windows® 2000. This system yielded high signal-to-noise images of luciferase signals emerging from the cells. Before imaging, 20 µL of 5 mg/mL luciferin in normal saline were added to each well. An integration time of 1 min with binning of 5 min was used for luminescent image acquisition. The signal intensity was quantified as the flux of all detected photon counts within each well using the LivingImage™ software package. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

For PMH cell culture experiments, the cells were plated in a 6-chamber slide (Falcon®, Primaria™). After 3 h, media was exchanged (DMEM-F12) and the cells were treated with **1-Al-TiO₂** suspended in PBS over a range of 0.0003 to 300 µg/mL. A primary stock solution (6.3 mg **1-Al-TiO₂** in 1 mL PBS) was prepared. The primary stock solution was further diluted to prepare secondary and tertiary stock solutions. Various amounts of stock solutions were added to the 6-chamber glass slide plated with cells to give the aforementioned range of concentrations. The final volume of each chamber was 2000 µL. After 24 or 48 h of treatment, cells were double stained with Hoechst 33258 (8 mg/mL) and Sytox Green (1 mM). Quantitation of total and necrotic cells (Sytox Green positive) was performed by counting cells in at least five different fields using ImageJ, as previously described[39]. All experiments were done in triplicate.

2.4. In Vitro Confocal Fluorescence Microscopy

The U87-Luc cells were seeded at 20,000 cells per well on an 8-chamber slide (Nunc™ Lab-Tek™, Thermo Scientific) and allowed to grow overnight. Cells were washed with PBS and were incubated in serum free media mixed 1:1 with **1-Al-TiO₂** for 24, 48, and 72 h at 37 °C

over a concentration range similar to that of the U87-Luc cell viability assay (0.002 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ to 2000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$). Cells were then washed $3\times$ with PBS and stained with Hoechst 33258 and FM[®] 1–43FX stains. The stained cells were kept chilled on ice without fixation until just prior to imaging. Z-stacked images were acquired with an LSM 710 confocal system mounted on an AxioObserver Z.1 inverted microscope equipped with a $40\times/1.2$ C-APOCHROMAT water-immersion lens (Carl Zeiss Microimaging, Thronwood, NY). Two visible laser lines of 405 and 488 nm were used for fluorescence excitation. The Z-stacks were acquired with 0.5 μm slice intervals. The software ZEN 2010 was used for hardware control. To reduce blurring and noise in the raw images, they were processed with the 3D blind deconvolution algorithm of AutoQuant AutoDeblur software (Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD) using the default settings for the laser scanning confocal modality. ZEN and Fiji ImageJ software[40] was employed to further process the deconvolved images.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Physical Characterization of 1-Al-TiO₂: TEM, DLS, and Surface Characterization

TEM images of TiO₂ (Figure 1) were taken before and after H₂O₂-etching and surface functionalization. The images established that the average particle size post-corrode functionalization is 29 nm with a standard deviation of 7 nm. These results were obtained through averaging over 44 particles. Absorption measurements of the particles embedded in a transparent polymer matrix, facilitated with the use of an integrating sphere to distinguish between absorption and diffuse scattering by the nanoparticles, indicated nearly identical absorption features in the molecular and conjugated species. These experiments afforded an approximate loading of **1-Al** on the surfaces of *ca.* 20–40 mg/g TiO₂ (Figure 2).

The hydrodynamic nature of **1-Al-TiO₂** in PBS measured by the DLS method revealed great heterogeneity in size of the aggregates. While the average size of **1-Al-TiO₂** in PBS was measured to be 200 nm in diameter, smaller and larger aggregates were observed (Appendix A). In addition, zeta (ζ) potential measurements of **1-Al-TiO₂** in PBS exhibited moderate stability and revealed a negatively charged surface with a ζ potential of $-27.4 (\pm 1.25)$ mV at the concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

3.2 Confocal Fluorescence Microscopy and Uptake of 1-Al-TiO₂ by U87-Luc Cells

Treatment of the luciferase-transfected glioblastoma cell U87-Luc with a wide range of **1-Al-TiO₂** concentrations revealed internalization of these nanoconjugates over a period of 24, 48, and 72 h as shown by CFM (Figure 3). We also show the Z-stacked three-dimensional CFM images (Figure 4) of U87-Luc cells treated with 0.02 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of **1-Al-TiO₂** for 48 and 72 h from three different perspectives.

The CFM images were taken after the cells were stained with nuclear and cell membrane dyes, and washed with media solution several times to remove unbound dyes and **1-Al-TiO₂** nanoconjugates. The nucleus labeled with a Hoechst stain is colored blue ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 405$; $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 460$ nm), the membrane labeled with the dye FM[®] 1–43FX is colored green ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 488$; $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 580$ nm), and the nanoconjugate **1-Al-TiO₂** is colored red ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 405$; $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 634$ nm).

While mechanisms of **1-AI-TiO₂** uptake and localization into cells will be studied further, we propose that the **1-AI-TiO₂** nanoconstruct is internalized through endocytosis, consistent with previous work[41–46]. We note that, based on confocal fluorescence imaging, the nanomaterial **1-AI**-modified TiO₂ appears to be suspended in the cytosol. This finding is consistent with the distribution pattern of TiO₂ nanoconjugates in HeLa cells in a previous study of 1D TiO₂ nanorods and nanoparticles labeled with fluorescein thiocyanate[43]. However, modified TiO₂ labeled with alizarin red S has been shown to have perinuclear localization in HeLa cells, in contrast to our observations with **1-AI-TiO₂**[41,42]. Recent studies involving uptake of other modified TiO₂ nanoparticles in various cell lines, such as mouse fibroblasts and osteoblasts, suggested cellular internalization and distribution of TiO₂ nanoparticles at the endosome/lysosome and in the cytoplasm, in accord with our findings[44,45]. We note that internalization of **1-AI-TiO₂** into glioblastoma cells can be observed at very low concentrations (0.02–2 µg/mL).

3.3 Cytotoxicity in U87-Luc Cells

It is well documented that TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibit various degrees of cytotoxic activity upon photoactivation by UV-vis light due to formation of reactive oxygen species[43,44,46]. A study of water-soluble single-crystalline TiO₂ nanoparticles in melanoma A-375 cells revealed that in the absence of UV light the TiO₂ nanoparticles were essentially non-toxic and thus biocompatible[46]. However, upon irradiating these cells with UV light less than 20% of the melanoma cells survived at a TiO₂ concentration of 400 µg/mL. Therefore, in an attempt to understand the cytotoxic effects of the **1-AI-TiO₂** conjugate independently of its phototoxic properties, we treated the glioblastoma cell U87-Luc in the absence of UV-vis irradiation with the same range of **1-AI-TiO₂** concentrations as in the cell internalization studies (0.002–2000 µg/mL). The cells were incubated over a period of 24, 48, and 72 h prior to bioluminescence cell viability assays[38,47]. Based on the bioluminescence signal of the firefly luciferin from living U87-Luc cells, which is related to the level of cellular ATP, the cytotoxic assay showed that the nanoconjugate **1-AI-TiO₂** had essentially no cytotoxic effect on the glioblastoma cells after 24 h of treatment (Figure 5) and, therefore, could be considered biocompatible. The cytotoxic effect became more apparent as the cells were exposed to the corrole-TiO₂ nanoparticles for extended periods of time at higher concentrations (> 200 µg/mL). For example, only *ca.* 65% and *ca.* 30% of the bioluminescence signal from the live cells was observed after 48-h and 72-h treatments at 2000 µg/mL, respectively. Our viability study of the U87-Luc cells treated with **1-AI-TiO₂** was also consistent with a study performed on mouse fibroblast cells, using the MTT assay, showing that the cytotoxic effects of TiO₂ at various concentrations (3–600 µg/mL) were negligible after 24 h of treatment, whereas the 48-h treatment of these cells with the nanoparticle showed a decrease in cell viability at higher concentrations[44]. Another study on the cytotoxicity effect of unmodified 1D and 3D TiO₂ nanostructures on HeLa cells also showed that these nanoparticles were relatively nontoxic at concentrations up to 125 µg/mL in the absence of light[43].

3.4 Cytotoxicity in Primary Mouse Hepatocytes

Additionally, to determine the cytotoxic effect of the nanoconjugate **1-AI-TiO₂** on non-cancerous cells, we treated primary mouse hepatocytes (PMH) with **1-AI-TiO₂** at various concentrations (0.0003–300 µg/mL) for 24 and 48 h (Figure 6) in the absence of UV-vis irradiation. Similar to the results observed for cancerous U87-Luc cells, **1-AI-TiO₂** was essentially nontoxic in non-cancerous PMH at up to 3 µg/mL after both 24 and 48 h of treatment. Only at higher concentrations did the proportion of the live PMH drop below 80%. We note that the PMH behaved similarly after 24-h and 48-h treatments with various doses of **1-AI-TiO₂**, suggesting that low **1-AI-TiO₂** concentrations had minimal cytotoxic effects on the viability of these non-cancerous cells. The PMH were more susceptible to the cytotoxic effects of **1-AI-TiO₂** than the U87-Luc cells; it is reasonable that non-cancerous cells, especially primary cells, would be less tolerant towards exogenous non-native agents[48,49]. Nonetheless, the intense fluorescence exhibited by **1-AI**[26,33] would allow for the potential use of the nanoconjugate **1-AI-TiO₂** as an optical imaging agent observable by confocal fluorescence microscopy even at low concentrations (0.02–2 µg/mL) below the cytotoxic thresholds for both cancerous and non-cancerous cells.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we report detailed characterization of **1-AI-TiO₂**, a nanoconjugate that potentially could be used as a metal oxide nanoprobe for optical imaging, owing to intense fluorescence as well as its biocompatibility. The biological studies suggest that **1-AI-TiO₂** is essentially nontoxic at concentrations up to 3 and 2000 µg/mL for normal mouse liver cells and glioblastoma U87-Luc cells, respectively, within the first 24 h of treatment. The PMH viability, however, dropped at higher concentrations (> 3 µg/mL) after 24-h and 48-h treatments and the U87-Luc cell viability also declined at higher concentrations (> 20 µg/mL) after 48-h and 72-h treatments. We also would like to note, for example, that comparable to our PMH cytotoxic assay over the concentration range for **1-AI-TiO₂** of 0.0003–300 µg/mL, superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticle used in MRI was studied for their cytotoxicity in fetal stem cell lines over a low concentration range (5–35 µg/mL)[50]. Another example includes PDMAEMA-modified ZnO QDs functioning as contrast agents in monkey kidney cells over a concentration range of 50–800 µg/mL[51]. More importantly, our CFM studies demonstrated that the nanoconjugate **1-AI-TiO₂** was internalized in U87-Luc cells even at a relatively low concentration (0.02 µg/mL). Although further detailed localization and internalization mechanism studies should be performed, our current work has revealed that there is random suspension of **1-AI-TiO₂** in the cytosol even after 72-h treatment. Notably, the observation of near-IR fluorescence of **1-AI-TiO₂** over a non-toxic concentration range (0.002–2000 µg/mL) in U87-Luc after 24-h treatment suggests that corrole-TiO₂ nanoconjugates could be very promising candidates for use as biological imaging agents.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A

Supplementary Data: Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/01620134>.

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Highlights

- We examined a potential use of the corrole nanoconjugate **1-Al-TiO₂** as an optical imaging contrast.
- **1-Al-TiO₂** showed biocompatibility in both primary mouse hepatocyte and the glioblastoma U87-Luc.
- **1-Al-TiO₂** was internalized by U87-Luc cells even after a long-term treatment (72 h).
- **1-Al-TiO₂** showed intense near-IR fluorescence inside U87-Luc cells even at low doses of treatment (0.02–2 µg/mL)
- We reported detailed characterization of **1-Al-TiO₂**, including its hydrodynamic size, surface charge, and corrole loading.

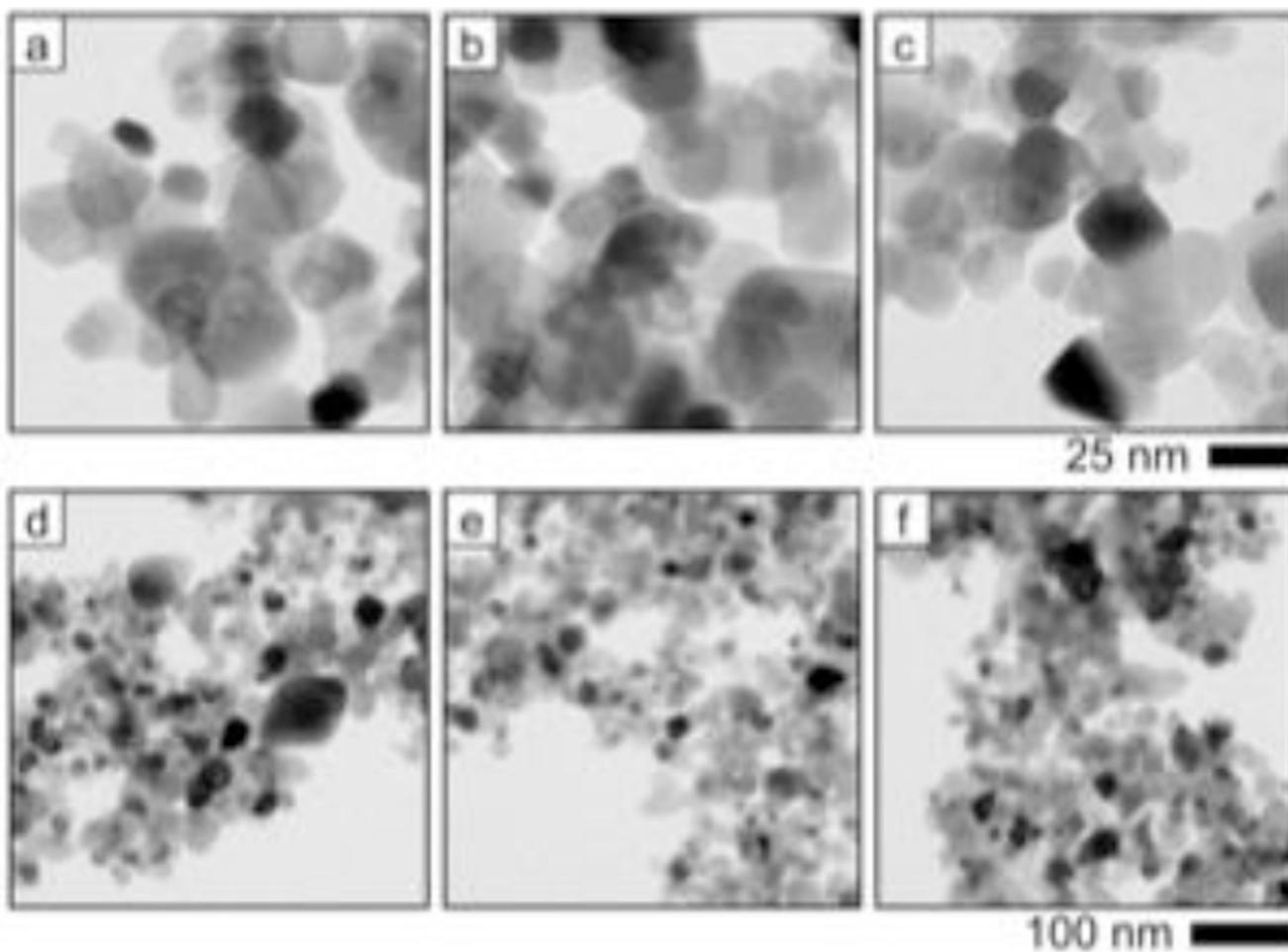


Figure 1.

TEM images of TiO₂ nanoparticles before and after dye-functionalization. Images of the initial TiO₂ nanoparticles (a and d). Images of the nanoparticles after H₂O₂-etching (b and e). Images of the nanoparticles after **1-AI** functionalization (c and f). The top scale bar refers to images a, b, and c and the bottom scale bar refers to images d, e, and f.

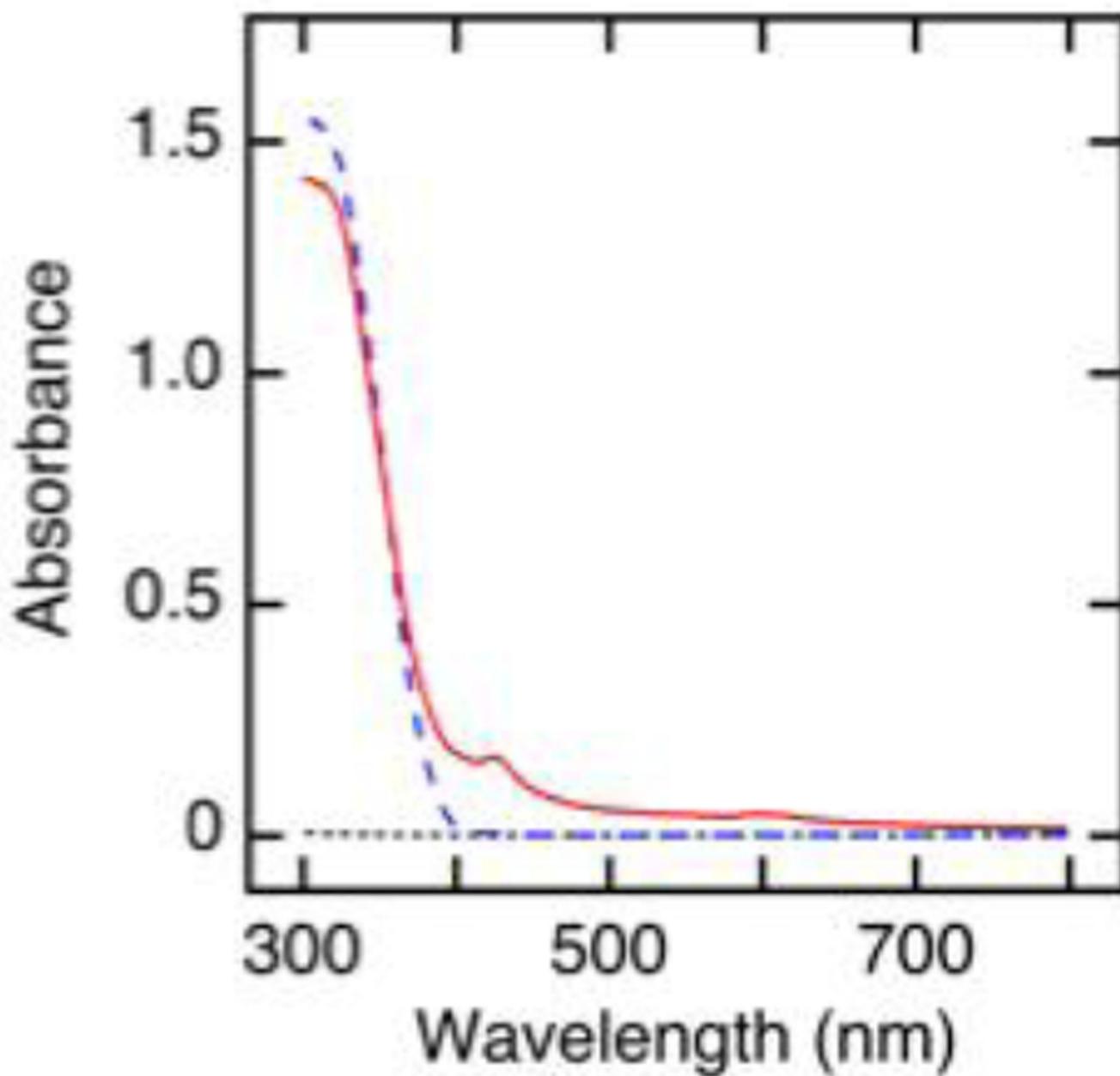


Figure 2. Absorbance spectra of H_2O_2 -etched TiO_2 nanoparticles embedded in a PDMS polymer matrix before (blue, long dashed line) and after 1-Al functionalization (red, solid line), as well as the absorption spectrum of PDMS on quartz (black, short dashed line). The absorption spectra were measured in transreflectance mode where both transmitted and reflected lights were collected employing an integrating sphere.

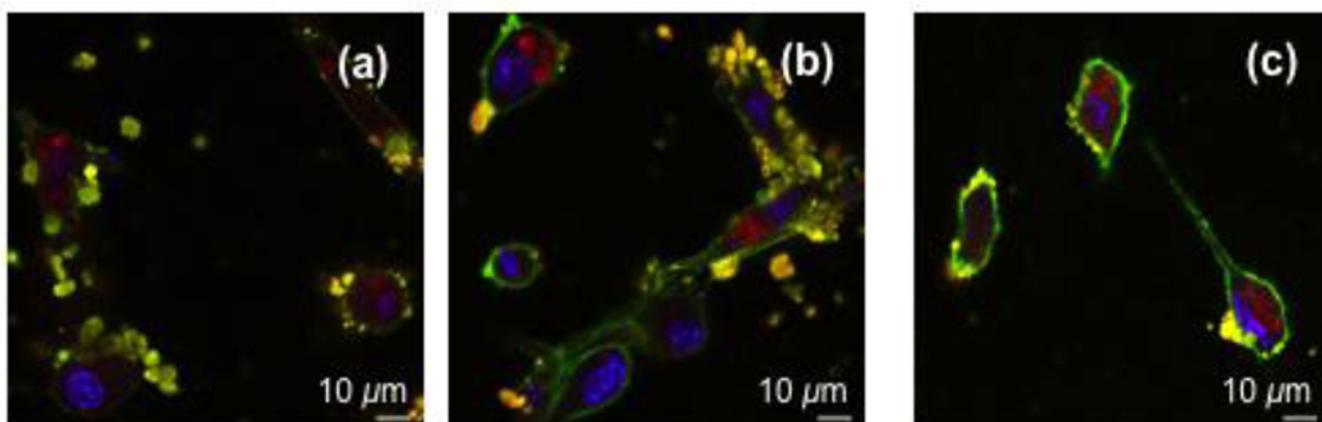


Figure 3. CFM images of U87-Luc cells incubated with 0.02 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 1-Al-TiO₂ (red) for 24 h (a), 48 h (b), and 72 h (c) and stained with dyes to mark the membrane (green) and nucleus (blue).

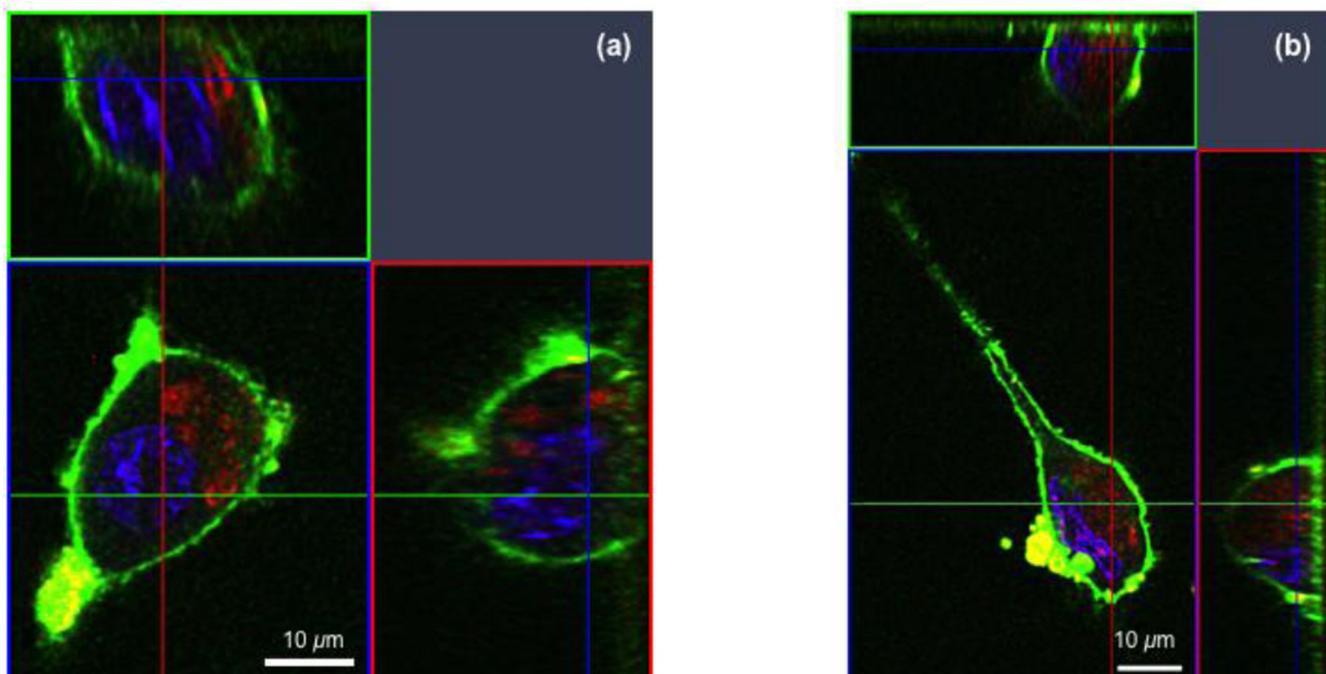


Figure 4. Z-stacked CFM images of individual U87-Luc cells taken at 0.5- μm z-slice intervals from top to bottom after (a) 48 h and (b) 72 h of treatment with 0.02 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ **1-Al-TiO₂**.

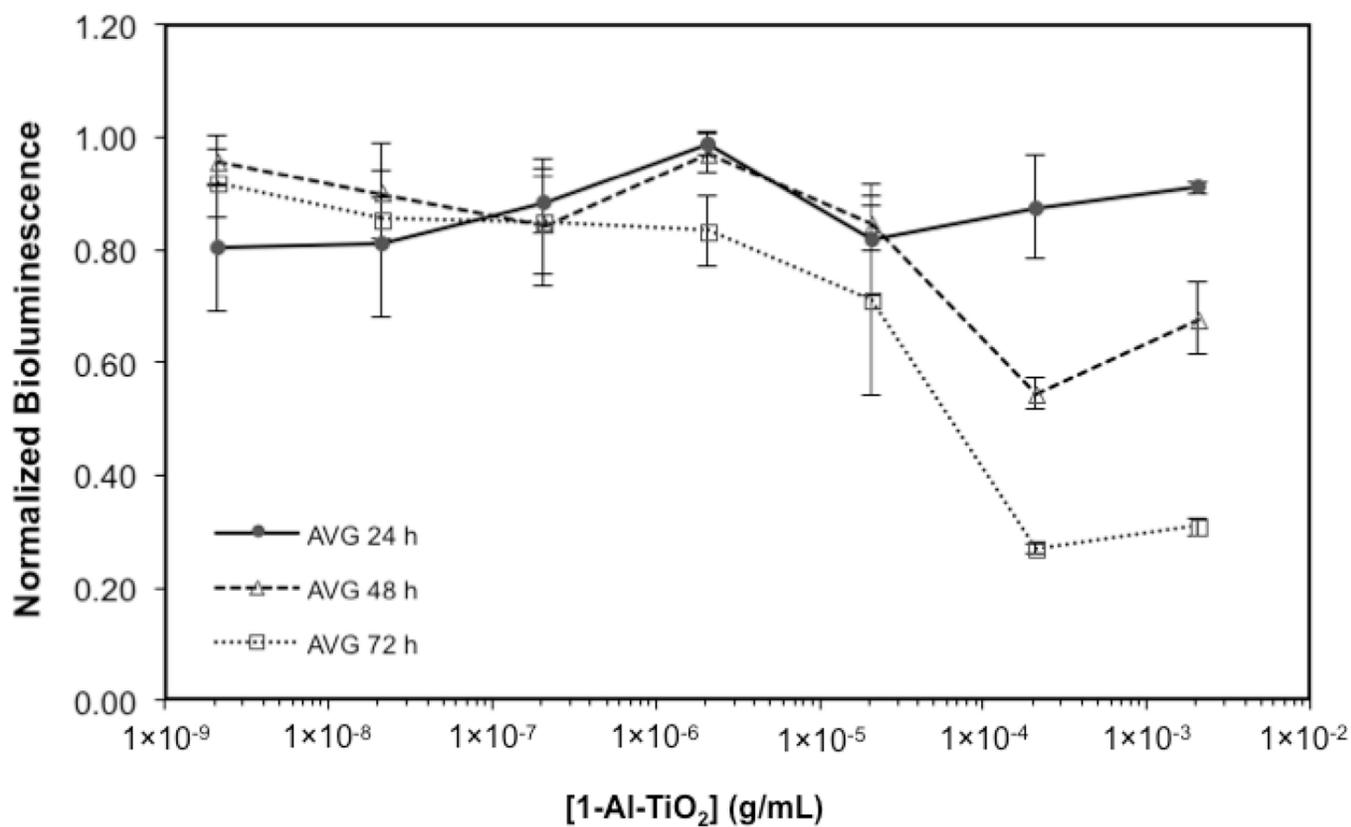


Figure 5. Cell viability plot of U87-Luc cells treated by 1-Al-TiO₂ at various concentrations (0.002–2000 µg/mL) using a bioluminescence assay.

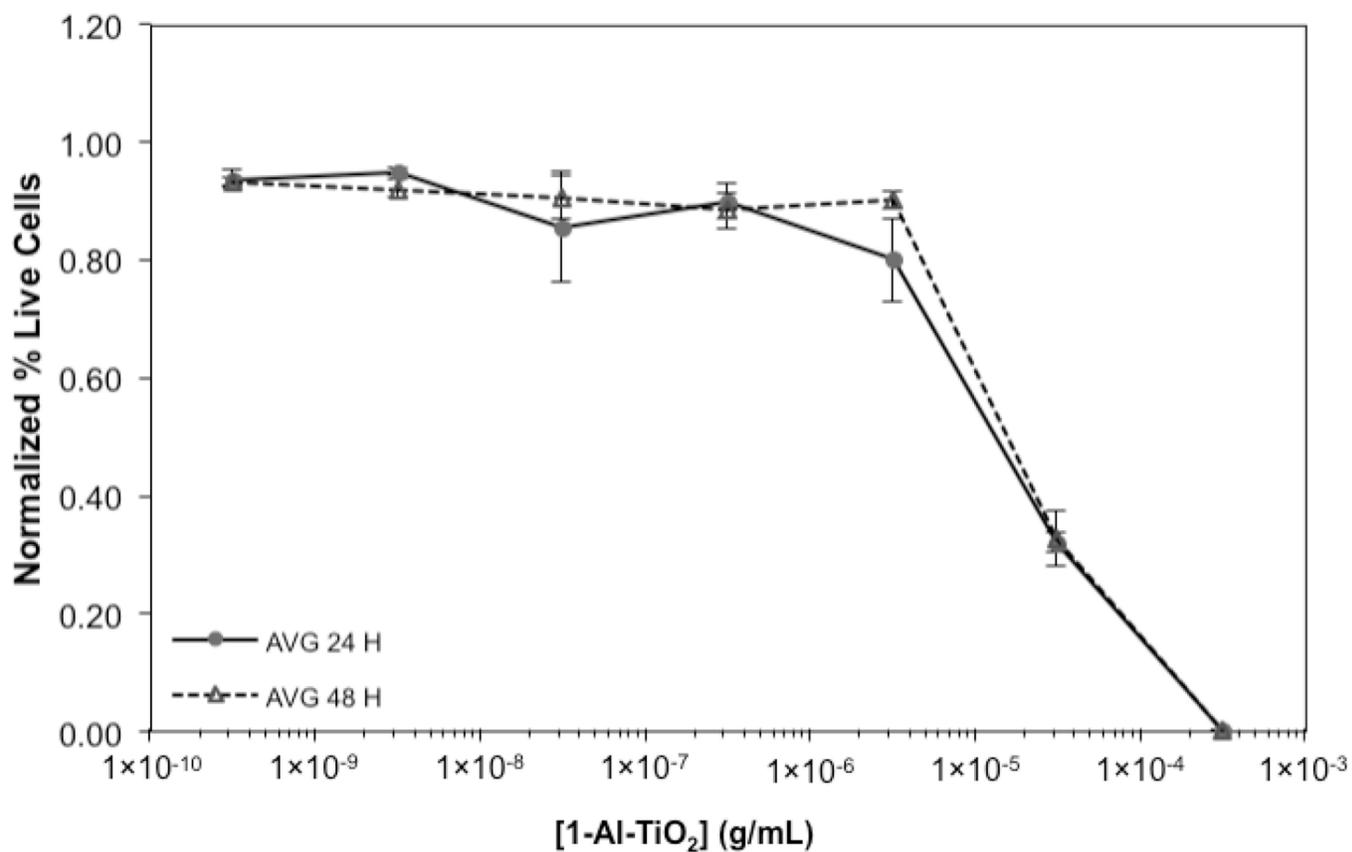
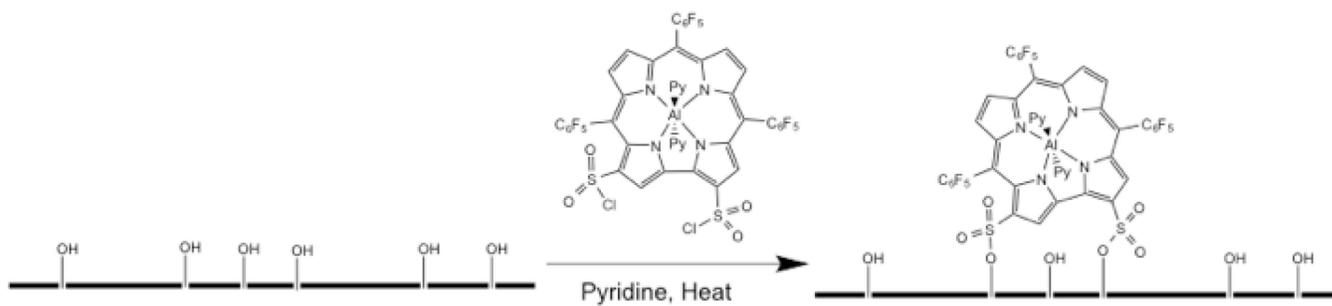


Figure 6. Cell viability plot of PMH treated with 1-Al-TiO₂ at various concentrations (0.0003–300 µg/mL) using a Syntox Green live-dead assay.

**Scheme 1.**

TiO₂ surface labeling with **1-Al** forming sulfonic ester linkages between the corrole and the surface.