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Real-time monitoring of anticancer drug release in vitro and in vivo on titania nanoparticles triggered by external glutathione

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A B S T R A C T

The anticancer drug doxorubicin (DOX) appeared to adsorb efficiently on TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) as evidenced by visible absorption and diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopy data. The adsorbed drugs were found released in a controlled way by external glutathione (GSH). Fluorescence of DOX appeared to be quenched substantially by TiO₂ NPs. The fabrication and release of DOX on TiO₂ NPs were checked by monitoring the fluorescence. We could monitor real-time drug release in the live cell using fluorescence imaging techniques. By these methods, we were able to monitor up to a nanomolar amount of DOXrelease in vitro from TiO₂ NPs triggered by external GSH. In vivo fluorescence images of DOX were obtained from the subcutaneous site in living mice after GSH treatment. On the basis of label-free fluorescence quenching measurements, a real-time release of DOX on $TiO₂$ NPs can be monitored in vitro and in vivo after an external trigger of GSH.

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1. Introduction

Nanostructured materials are used in a wide variety of applications including sensors, targeted drug delivery, therapeutic agents, cellular imaging and diagnostics [\[1\].](#page-6-0) Nanoparticles have been used to detect a trace amount of analyte using spectroscopic tools [\[2\].](#page-6-0) Drug delivery systems provide important tools for enhancing the efficacy of chemotherapeutics $[3]$. TiO₂-based materials have been recently introduced in detection dyes [\[4\]](#page-6-0) and drug delivery systems [\[5–7\].](#page-6-0)

For many practical drug delivery applications, stimuliresponsive release of the pharmaceutical cargo should improve the therapeutic efficacy [\[8–10\].](#page-6-0) Although numerous drug encapsulations have been developed, the release of the drugs in a controlled manner remains a challenge after thedrugmolecules' cellular internalization. There have been several reports on the pH-triggered [\[11\]](#page-6-0) and photo-induced drug release [\[12\].](#page-6-0) Externally triggered glutathione (GSH) has been utilized to release the drug molecules [\[13\].](#page-6-0)

It is crucial to monitor intracellular controlled drug release by means of external stimulus in real time. Live-cell imaging is one of the most effective techniques for noninvasive and real-time

studies of the dynamic interactions in living cells [\[14\].](#page-6-0) Due to its strong fluorescence and surface accessibility of the OH groups, doxorubicin (DOX) has been widely used in anticancer drug imaging. The biomolecule such as dopamine are known to adsorb on $TiO₂$ surfaces via its OH groups [\[15\].](#page-6-0) Since NPs can quench fluorescence effectively, they have been employed in biomolecular imaging or ultrasensitive sensing [\[16\].](#page-6-0)

This work was motivated because there are quite limited labelfree spectroscopic studies on the drug release inside live cells in real time without using additional fluorescence dyes. Fluorescence appeared to be quenched on $TiO₂$ surfaces. In this work, we report intracellular drug release monitoring in the live cell using fluorescence imaging techniques. By these methods, we are able monitor up to a nanomolar amount of doxorubicin release from $TiO₂$ NPs triggered by GSH. In vivo fluorescence images of doxorubicin were also obtained from the subcutaneous site in living mice after GSH treatment.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

TiO2 NPs were purchased from Ovonik. A 50 mg quantity of P-25 $TiO₂$ was added to 50 mL of ethanol, and the suspension was sonicated for 30 min. Doxorubicin (DOX) hydrochloride (Adriamycin)

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Fig. 1. (a) TEM image of TiO₂ NPs. (b) Loading efficiency of DOX from the decrease in the absorbance measurements. The concentrations of DOX and TiO₂ NPs are 9.1×10^{-5} M and 80 ppm, respectively.

was purchased from Selleck chemicals. GSH, GSH-OEt, and GSH assay kit were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. LysoTracker Blue was purchased from Invitrogen.

2.2. Physicochemical characterization

The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained using a JEOL JEM-1010 microscope at an acceleration voltage of 40-100 kV. UV-vis absorbance spectrum of the $TiO₂$ NP solution was taken using a Mecasys 3220 spectrophotometer. The dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements were used to estimate the hydrodynamic radius of the $TiO₂$ NPs particles with an Otsuka ELSZ-2 analyzer. The crystalline structures of the $TiO₂$ NPs were examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns observed by Rigaku Miniflex X-ray diffractometer. The fabrication of DOX on TiO2 NPs via self-assembly was checked by diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopic tools at 64 scans with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} using a Thermo 6700 Fourier-transform infrared spectrometer. A portion of the DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NP sample was transferred onto a DiffuseIR chamber (Pike Technologies) [\[17\].](#page-6-0) Fluorescence spectra were obtained using a Scinco FS-2 spectrometer. Loading efficiency is estimated to the following formula as recently report [\[18\].](#page-6-0)

loading efficiency (
$$
\%
$$
) =

\n
$$
\left[\frac{\text{total amount of DOX added} - \text{amount of DOX in supernatant total amount of DOX added}}{\text{total amount of DOX added}}\right]
$$

\n \times 100.

2.3. Cell culture

Human lung carcinoma A549 cancer cells were tested to check their viability after the cellular uptake of the $TiO₂$ NPs. A549 cells were grown on RPMI in a steri-cycle $CO₂$ incubator (Thermo Fisher

Fig. 2. (a) Absorption and (b) infrared spectra of DOX on TiO₂ NPs before and after treating GSH. UV–vis absorption spectra of DOX and TiO2 NPs (80 ppm). Desorption of DOX (3×10^{-4} M) by GSH (5 mM and 10 mM).

Scientific). All cells were supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin-streptomycin antibiotics (Gibco)/0.2 ppm plasmocin and maintained in 5% $CO₂/95%$ humidified air at 37 °C. Approximately 10^5 – 10^6 cells were washed with phosphate buffer saline and 0.25% trypsin-EDTA was added for 3 min to detach the cells and counted by a hematocytometer. Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS) was used to wash seeded cells. After adding 1 mL of trypsin solution, the cells were incubated at 37 ◦C for 3 min and then 5 mL of the medium solution was added subsequently. Detached cells were transferred into a new culture dish and incubated at 37 °C with a 5% $CO₂$ incubator. A cover glass (Fisher) was embedded into a 100 mm \times 20 mm size Petri dish. A 0.2% gelatin was coated onto a cover glass and remained for 30 min at room temperature. After 30 min, a number of 3×10^5 cells were seeded onto a medium of a 10% FBS solution and a 1% antibacterial reagent at 37 \degree C, 5% CO₂ in an incubator for overnight. A cover glass seeded the cells was placed in a live cell chamber (LCI instrument) at a maintained temperature of 37 °C.

2.4. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of cellular uptake of NPs

The high-resolution images and the uptake of NPs were examined using a JEOL JEM-3010 and a JEM-1010 TEM microscope, respectively. A549 cells were plated on a 100 mm culture dish (SPL, Korea) at a concentration of 5×10^4 cells per dish containing growth medium before the cells were exposed to the NPs. NPs

Fig. 3. Quenching of fluorescence in DOX by TiO₂ NPs. (a) Spectrum overlap between the absorption of TiO₂ NPs (80 ppm (μ g/mL), black line) and fluorescence emission of DOX in ethanol (3 [×] ¹⁰−⁴ M, red line). (b) Depending on the concentrations of TiO2 NPs in the range of 10–100 ppm, fluorescence decreases. The initial volume and concentration of DOX are 1 mL and 3 × 10⁻³ M, respectively. The volume of added TiO₂ NPs is equally 10 µL for 10–100 ppm samples using a micropipet. The fluorescence was measured 10 min after the mixing the solution. (c) Stick diagram of decrease in fluorescence intensities of DOX. The error bars indicate the standard deviations of the three independent measurements. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

were added, and the cells were incubated at 37 ℃ with 5% CO₂. After 24 h, the cells were washed twice with DPBS, fixed in Karnovsky's fixative for 24 h, and post-fixed in 0.5 M of osmium tetroxide. After fixation, specimens were rinsed with and dehydrated in a graded series of 30, 50, 70, 80, 90% ethanol and three times in 100% ethanol, for 15 min each. Samples were embedded in a mixture of resin in propylene oxide polymerized at 80 ◦C. Ultrathin sections for TEM were prepared with a diamond knife. Samples were analyzed using a transmission electron microscope.

2.5. Fluorescence images of cellular uptake of NPs

An Olympus IX-71 inverted microscope was employed with a Hg lamp (U-LH100HG) and a high sensitive CCD camera (CoolSnap HQ2, Roper Scientific). An objective lens (40 \times or 60 \times) with a corrected thickness for the cover glass was used to obtain the image using the CCD camera. The filter set for DOX consists of 460-490 nm excitation, 506 nm dichroic, and 575 nm emission (Semrock). A shutter (Ludl Electronic Products Ltd.) with a MAC6000 shutter controller was employed to give a 300 ms exposure time by a Meta-Morph ID34072 software.

2.6. Cytotoxicity and GSH assay

For cell viability test, a CCK-8 kit purchased from Dojindo was used as received. We applied CCK-8 cytotoxicity assays of DOX and TiO2 NPs using a 96 well plate (SPL, Korea) and a Tecan Infinite F50 absorbance reader after 24h incubation of TiO₂ NPs. Intracellular GSH levels were measured using a fluorescence method [\[19\].](#page-6-0) We used a fluorescence assay kit (Sigma Catalogue #CS1020) with a Tecan F200 96 well plate reader. The kit assay utilizes a thiol probe (monochlorobimane), which can freely pass through the plasma membrane. The free, unbound probe shows very little fluorescence, but when bound to reduced glutathione in a reaction that is catalyzed by glutathione S-transferase (GST) it forms a strongly fluorescent adduct. The microplate was then incubated at room temperature before being measured at an excitation/emission of 360/485 nm using a fluorescent plate reader. Estimation of protein was done using a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Intron Biotechnology Catalogue # 21071) for the colorimetric detection and quantification of total protein using a Tecan F50 microplate reader.

2.7. In vivo imaging

The fluorescence emission profiles of DOX in living mice were obtained using a fully automated CRi MaestroTM 2 in vivo imaging system at the wavelength between 500 and 800 nm using a Xenon illuminator. Six week old male CAnN.Cg-Foxn1nu/CrljOri nude mice (Orient Bio Inc, Gyeonggi, Korea) were used for in vivo fluorescence measurements. Quantitative information out of the samples could be obtained using a Maestro imaging software.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Physical characterization and fabrication of DOX on TiO₂ NPs via self-assembly

[Fig.](#page-1-0) 1(a) shows the high-resolution TEM image of TiO₂ NPs. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of DOX-assembled TiO₂ NPs exhibited an average diameter of ∼50 nm. The fabrication of DOX appeared to occur on TiO₂ NPs via self-assembly. The loading efficiency of DOX on $TiO₂$ NPs could be estimated by absorbance measurements after the separation of the unbound supernatant DOX from the adsorbed one on $TiO₂$.

3.2. Release of DOX on TiO₂ NPs via GSH

The adsorption of DOX on $TiO₂$ was further checked by absorption and diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopic tools. The absorption spectra of DOX maximized at 480 nm indicated the attachment of DOX on TiO₂ as shown in [Fig.](#page-1-0) 2(a). We could observe more displacement at higher concentration of GSH in the range between 5 and 20 mM. The infrared bands at 1614 and 1583 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the ring modes [\[20\]](#page-6-0) of DOX as shown in [Fig.](#page-1-0) 2(b). The chemical interaction of DOX on TiO₂ was presumed to occur via their OH group. It has been reported that anthracyclin anticancer drugs such as DOX and daunorubicin can adsorb on carbon materials via π - π interactions [\[22,23\].](#page-6-0) Due to the multicrystalline structure, it is likely that DOX adsorb on of $TiO₂$ NPs via either covalent bonding or van der Walls interactions.

These bonds were found to be replaced by GSH. As shown in [Fig.](#page-1-0) 2(a) and (b), the SH band 2525 cm⁻¹ of GSH disappeared upon adsorption on TiO₂ NP, which indicates a stronger adsorption of GSH than the drug molecule. It was found that the DOX peaks at 1730 and 1405 cm−¹ still remained to indicate that there should be the remnants of DOX on TiO₂ even after the GSH treatment. As shown in [Fig.](#page-1-0) 2(a) and (b), GSH appeared to replace DOX from the infrared and absorption spectra, respectively. After GSH was treated to the DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NP, the vibrational structures of DOX showed a considerable decrease with the appearance of those of GSH. The absorption spectra of DOX maximized at 480 nm also almost disappeared due to the detachment of DOX by GSH. As shown in [Fig.](#page-1-0) 2(a) and (b), DOX was replaced by GSH. We used the GSH amount to consider the intracellular conditions 1–10 mM. We also used a tripeptide containing the methyl group instead of a thiol group with a similar molecular weight to GSH not to observe the release of drug molecules on NPs. We concluded that the reducing

Fig. 4. (a) Plot of time-dependent fluorescence intensities by treating GSH (2 mM). The concentrations of DOX and TiO₂ NPs are 5.0×10^{-5} M and 80 ppm, respectively. (b) Stick diagram. The error bars indicate the standard deviations of the three independent measurements.

capability of the thiol group should lead to the desorption of the adsorbates on NPs.

3.3. Fluorescence quenching of DOX on TiO₂ NPs

Fluorescence of DOX appeared to be quenched by $TiO₂$ NPs. Due to the decrease of quenching effects from $TiO₂$ NPs, the desorption of DOX replaced by GSH increased the fluorescence. [Fig.](#page-2-0) 3(a) shows the spectrum overlap (blue color) between the DOX's fluorescence emission and the absorption of $TiO₂$ NPs. DOX has its own fluorescence emission maximum at 580 nm. It is found that $TiO₂$ particles can quench the fluorescence of DOX.As the concentrations of DOX increase in the range from 10 to 100 ppm (μ g/mL), the fluorescence signals dropped accordingly. UV–vis spectra of $TiO₂$ NPs

Fig. 5. TEM image of DOX-assembled TiO₂ NPs in A549 cells. The arrows indicate the locations of intracellular TiO₂ NPs.

Table 1

Diameters, size increase after adsorption of DOX and decrease by serum proteins on TiO₂ NPs.

^a The sizes are based on the DLS measurements.

^b The concentration of DOX.

showed a substantial light absorption in the wavelength region of the DOX emission. It was found that the fluorescence was not completely quenched under our experimental conditions. [Fig.](#page-3-0) 4(a) and (b) shows that the fluorescence spectra of DOX increased as time elapsed. We could observe more difference from 3 to 24 h, whereas the data in [Fig.](#page-2-0) 3 were measured only after 10 min. Based on the recent study of the quenching of fluorescent molecules upon the adsorption on NPs, a static quenching mechanism would be efficient instead of dynamic or collisional quenching [\[24\].](#page-6-0) The binding

constant of DOX on TiO₂ NPs was estimated to be 1.285×10^8 M⁻¹ using Stern–Volmer plot.

3.4. Uptake of DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NPs in mammalian cells

In the TEM images of A549 cells, we could observe the particle load as an aggregated form inside the cells as shown in [Fig.](#page-3-0) 5. From the ICP-MS measurements, the Ti content was 1.299 ppm for the A549 cell (34.1 mg) with TiO $_2$ NP solution (80 μ g). Considering the

Fig. 6. (a) Fluorescence images of DOX (4 nM) assembled on TiO₂ NPs (8 ppm (μ g/mL)) by using GSH-OEt (>5 mM) as an external stimulus in A549 cells for 1–5 h. Upper: control, lower: GSH-OEt. DOX-assembled TiO₂ NPs were incubated for 5 h for the initial uptake. The upper and lower pictures are the fluorescence images without and with GSH-OEt. (b) Stick diagram for the intensities measured by flow cytometry.

Fig. 7. (a) In vivo release of DOX with or without treatment of GSH. A volume of 50 μ L of DOX (2 × 10⁻⁴ M)-assembled TiO₂ NPs was subcutaneously injected to mice. A volume of 16 µL of GSH was subsequently applied to the same spot with the resulting concentration of \sim 5 mM within 5 min from the injection of DOX-assembled TiO₂ NPs. We checked that the fluorescence changes were not affected by the injected sites by switching the positions. The injected sites are marked with circles. The fluorescence intensities are measured within 30 min from the sample injection. (b) Stick diagram of the fluorescence recovery of DOX by GSH. The error bars indicate the standard deviations of the three independent measurements.

initial mass of the cells and treated $TiO₂$ NP solution, the uptake percentage was estimated to be around 0.05%. As summarized in [Table](#page-4-0) 1, DLS data indicate that the NPs increased by assembly of DOX appeared to be subsequently stabilized by the cell culture medium due to the interactions with proteins or lipids. The intracellular aggregation of $TiO₂$ NPs is presumed to occur after receptor mediated endocytosis. The entrapment of $TiO₂$ NPs in an endosomal or a lysosomal structure supported that $TiO₂$ NPs should enter the cell and become accumulated after the coating of the proteins in the cell culture media. Although now shown here, a colocalization image of DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NPs in cells and lysosome which indicates a partial overlap. We performed the inhibition test of the cellular uptake by treating chlorpromazine and genistein. Under our experimental conditions, genistein is more effective at blocking the uptake to indicate the caveolae-mediated endocytosis, although this finding is not definite. Since that the uptake was reduced below ∼40% at 4 ◦C, the receptor-mediated endocytosis should be the uptake mechanism [\[25\].](#page-6-0)

3.5. Cytotoxicity of DOX-assembled $TiO₂$

For the safe and practical usages of DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NPs, cytotoxicity was tested using a CCK-8 analysis. The $TiO₂$ NPs (8 ppm $(\mu\text{g/mL})$) did not appear to affect the cell's viability significantly. Fluorescence images of DAPI-stained A549 cells taken in order to label nuclei activity suggest that the nuclei damage by DOX. It was found that A549 cells, particularly for the nuclei, are substantially damaged by the treatment of $TiO₂$ NPs. With the concentration of TiO $_2$ NPs (90 ppm (μ g/mL)), a majority of the cancer cells (>60%) were killed, whereas the sole use of DOX could damage the cells effectively above 70 nM, although the data are not shown here. This result is in agreement with the report that there was a significant increase in oxidative stress at higher $TiO₂$ nanoparticle concentrations (>60 ppm (μ g/mL)) [\[21\].](#page-6-0) After checking that the toxicity of

used TiO₂ NPs (8 ppm) was fairly low from the cell viability test, we performed GSH-triggered DOX release (4 nM) from NPs in vitro. The TiO₂ NPs used in the experiment did not show much cytotoxicity from the cell viability test at low concentrations however. To further extend the GSH-triggered drug release, we performed an in vivo experiment. DOX-assembled NPs were administered via subcutaneous injection.

3.6. Live cell imaging of DOX-assembled $TiO₂$ NPs in mammalian cells

Based on these data, we performed a real-time fluorescence live cell imaging experiment in the presence of externally supplied GSH. DOX-assembled TiO₂ NPs were found well internalized in mammalian cancer cells. Fluorescence of DOX quenched by $TiO₂$ NPs appeared to increase when GSH was externally supplied in vitro. Although not shown here, the intracellular GSH levels appeared to increase by 20–80% by treating GSH-OEt (5–20 mM).

Intracellular GSH-triggered release of DOX on $TiO₂$ NPs was directly monitored using a label-free fluorescence live cell imaging technique in live human carcinoma cells. In our live cell imaging data, highly concentrated DOX (2×10^{-4} M)-assembled TiO₂ NPs (80 ppm (μ g/mL)) could enter the cell within an hour. As shown in [Fig.](#page-4-0) 6(a) and (b), the quenched fluorescence appeared to be recovered by glutathione monoester (GSH-OEt), which was used instead of anionic form of GSH in solution due to its inefficient penetration into the cellular membranes [\[13\].](#page-6-0) For the live cell imaging data in [Fig.](#page-4-0) 6(a), we used relatively low concentrations of $TiO₂$ NPs and DOX to observe the GSH-triggered release.

3.7. In vivo imaging of DOX-assembled TiO₂

As shown in Fig. 7, the total fluorescence intensities increased by a factor of 10 after treating high concentration of GSH (∼5 mM). The release of DOX appears to increase by an order of magnitude larger. The GSH concentration in the in vivo experiments was higher than that in the in vitro experiment in [Fig.](#page-3-0) 4. Our results indicate that DOX-assembled TiO₂ NP systems can be utilized as an effective controlled drug release platform both in vitro and in vivo.

4. Conclusion

We found that DOX could adsorb on $TiO₂$ NP surfaces via selfassembly. The adsorbed DOX appeared to detach from the $TiO₂$ surfaces after treating GSH (>2 mM). Both in vitro and in vivo monitoring of DOX could be achieved in real time using $TiO₂$ NPs as a platform. The amount of the used $TiO₂$ NPs appeared to show low toxicity from the cell viability test. Our method will be useful to develop a new method of quantifying intracellular drug release in live cells.

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