Titanium Oxide Shell Coatings Decrease the Cytotoxicity of ZnO Nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT: Although nanozinc oxide (nano-ZnO) is applied widely in photocatalysts and gas sensors and in biological fields, it can cause serious oxidative stress and DNA damage to mammalian cells. Our aim in this study was to reduce the cytotoxicity of nano-ZnO by coating it with a TiO₂ layer. We used a sol-gel method to synthesize core (nano-ZnO)/shell (TiO₂) nanoparticles (NPs) with various degrees of coating. Transmission electron microscopy and Raman spectroscopy confirmed that TiO₂ was coated on the nano-ZnO. Moreover, a decrease in the



intensity of the pre-edge signal in Ti K-edge X-ray absorption near edge structure spectra revealed that the core/shell NPs had more Ti-O coordination than pure TiO₂ particles; in addition, the Zn K-edge extended X-ray absorption fine structure spectra revealed that after the ZnO NPs had been coated with TiO₂, the coordination number of the ZnO shell increased to 3.3 but that of the ZnZn shell decreased to 6.2, providing further evidence for the ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell structure. To ensure that the core/shell structures did indeed decrease the toxicity of nano-ZnO, we tested the effects of equal amounts of physical mixtures of ZnO and TiO₂ NPs for comparison, employing methyl tetrazolium (MTT), interleukin-8 (IL-8), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and 2',7'-dichlorofluorescin diacetate (DCFH-DA) to assess the particle-induced cytotoxicity, inflammatory response, membrane damage, and intercellular reactive oxygen species (ROS). From X-ray diffraction patterns, we identified the TiO₂ shell as having an amorphous phase, which, unfortunately, exhibited slight cytotoxicity toward the human lung epithelial cell line (A549). Nevertheless, our core/ shell nanostructures exhibited less oxidative stress toward A549 cells than did their corresponding ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell structure moderated the toxicity of nano-ZnO by curtailing the release of zinc ions and decreasing the contact area of the ZnO is a structure.

INTRODUCTION

In the past 20 years, the development of nanomaterials has focused primarily on single-component systems.^{1–3} In recent years, however, the quest to improve the properties of nanomaterials (e.g., optical, electrical, and chemical) has led to methods for altering particle sizes, compositions, and surface characteristics.^{4–6} Among such systems, heterostructured inorganic nanoparticles (NPs) have become popular because their quantum yields and photoluminescence tend to increase according to the quantum confinement effect,⁷ making them applicable for use in solar cells and photocatalyst systems.^{8,9} Furthermore, because of their small sizes, good stability in water, and stable fluorescence emissions, core/shell NPs have been applied as biosensors, contrast agents, and drug delivery assisting materials.^{10–12} Therefore, many core/shell NPs have been developed, including SiO₂ on CdSe, Au on Fe₂O₃, and CdS on CdTe nanostructures.^{13–15}

Nano-ZnO is regarded as a highly potentially applicable nanomaterial in the fields of photochemistry and biology.^{16,17} When UV light is irradiated on nano-ZnO, however, photocorrosion can occur.¹⁸ In addition, ZnO has low tolerance toward acidic solutions.¹⁹ These phenomena are responsible for the decreased photocatalyst activity of nano-ZnO in aqueous solution. On the other hand, nano-ZnO exhibits high cytotoxicity and potentially damages cellular DNA, thereby limiting its applications in environmental and biological systems.^{20–23} Therefore, several reports have appeared regarding the preparation of ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell NPs because TiO₂ has a higher dielectric constant, good tolerance toward acidic solutions, and good biocompatibility.^{24–27} Such core/shell structures can also exhibit good optical properties and degradation efficiencies.^{24,25}

Although core/shell NPs have unique properties, very few reports provide toxicity data. To date, studies of the toxicity of core/shell NPs have mostly centered on Cd-based QDs and magnetite NPs, in view of their wide applications in bioimaging.^{28,29,31,32} Cadmium-containing QD NPs exhibit some cytotoxicity because of their release of cadmium ions (Cd²⁺). As a result, many researchers are attempting to develop low-toxicity shell components to increase the biocompatibility of Cd-containing NPs. Cho et al. evaluated the cytotoxicity of CdTe and core/shell CdSe/ZnS NPs capped with mercaptopropionic acid, cysteamine, or *N*-acetylcysteine conjugated to cysteamine toward human breast cancer cells (MCF-7). Only the

Received: May 28, 2010 Published: February 22, 2011

Table 1. 1	Denomination	of All	Samples	in	This	Stud	y
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sample	synthesis method	Ti/Zn molar ratio	synthesis temperature (°C)	coating time (h)	core species	morphology
ZnO-1	solvothermal	0	120			sphere-like
ZnO-2	solvothermal	0	180			sphere-like
TiO ₂	sol—gel		25			amorphous
ZnO/TiO ₂ -1	sol—gel	0.31	25	24	ZnO-1	core/shell
ZnO/TiO_2-2	sol—gel	0.31	25	48	ZnO-1	core/shell
ZnO/TiO_2-3	sol—gel	0.31	25	24	ZnO-2	core/shell
ZnO/TiO_2-4	sol—gel	0.31	25	48	ZnO-2	core/shell
ZnO/TiO_2-5	sol—gel	0.63	25	24	ZnO-2	core/shell
ZnO/TiO_2-6	sol—gel	0.63	25	48	ZnO-2	core/shell
ZnO+TiO ₂ -1	$ZnO\text{-}2+TiO_2 \text{ (physical mixture)}$	0.31				sphere-like+amorphous
ZnO+TiO ₂ -2	$ZnO\text{-}2+TiO_2 \text{ (physical mixture)}$	0.63				sphere-like+amorphous

cysteamine-CdSe/ZnS core/shell QDs ($10 \ \mu g \ mL^{-1}$) exhibited no significant change in mitochondrial activity.²⁸ Furthermore, CdTe/CdS/ZnS core/shell/shell QDs have been tested for their effects on human erythroleukemia (K562) and human embryonic kidney (HEK293T) cell lines; MTT assays revealed no toxic effects, even at high concentrations ($3 \ \mu M$) and long exposure times (48 h).²⁹ The cytotoxicity of magnetite NPs appears to arise from radical production through Fenton- and Haber– Weiss-type reactions;³⁰ coating magnetite NPs with SiO₂, however, did not enhance their biocompatibility with osteoblasts.³¹ Notably, coating a nontoxic shell onto a toxic core will decrease the real mass dosage of the original core NPs toward the cells; it will also increase the average size of the resulting NPs. If these two factors are not taken into consideration, researchers might overvalue the extent of the diminished toxicity of the particles.

In this study, we developed TiO2-coated ZnO NPs that we expected would decrease the cytotoxicity of the original nano-ZnO toward human lung epithelial cells (A549). We compared the toxicity of the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs with that of a physical mixture of TiO₂ and ZnO powders. Moreover, we fabricated the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs with various degrees of coating, hypothesizing that the protective effect of the TiO₂ shell would increase with increased TiO₂ coating. We examined the physical characteristics of our core/shell NPs using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, and X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). We used inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) to quantify the real Ti-to-Zn molar ratio and diffraction laser scattering (DLS) to measure the hydrodynamic sizes of the NPs in media. We evaluated the biological responses of our core/shell NPs through methyl tetrazolium (MTT), interleukin-8 (IL-8), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and intracellular ROS assays; finally, we evaluated the effect of the release of zinc ions from the ZnO and ZnO/TiO_2 NPs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of ZnO, TiO₂, and ZnO/TiO₂ NPs. A sol-gel method was used to synthesize the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs.²⁴ Nano-ZnO cores of two different sizes were first derived using a solvothermal process, as developed by Du et al.³³ The ZnO NPs (160 mg) were added into a solution of ammonium hydroxide (28%, 18 mL; J. T. Baker, Phillipsburg) and absolute ethanol (Sigma–Aldrich, USA; 160 mL) and then sonicated for 1 h. Next, tetrabutylorthotitanate (TBOT, E. Merck, Germany; Ti/Zn molar ratio: 0.31 or 0.63) was added to deionized water (15 mL) and then sonicated for 10 min; this aqueous solution was gradually added dropwise (2 mL min⁻¹) into the organic solution, using

sphere-like + amorphous a microtubing pump (MP-1000, EYELA, Tokyo), with vigorous stirring at room temperature. After 24 or 48 h, the precipitate was separated and collected through centrifugation and washed several times with absolute

collected through centrifugation and washed several times with absolute ethanol and water. Finally, the products were dried under vacuum at 50 °C for 24 h. Pure TiO_2 NPs were also prepared using the latter part of this procedure, with a reaction time of 24 h. **Denomination for the NPs.** In Table 1, for core/shell NPs, the

descriptor in front of the slash refers to the core ("ZnO") and that after it refers to the shell ("TiO₂"). Physical mixtures of NPs are described using the symbol "+". Samples having the same components are numbered.

Characterization of NPs. The morphologies and sizes of the NPs were characterized using TEM (TECNAI 20, Philips, Netherlands). For the core/shell NPs, the mean shell thickness was also determined from the TEM images. The thickest part of shell in each particle was measured; at least three particles were measured for each image. To prepare the samples, NPs were first dispersed in absolute ethanol (200 μ g mL⁻¹) and sonicated (400 W, 40 kHz) for 30 min. Aliquots (4 μ L) of the suspensions were deposited onto 200-mesh carbon-Formvar Cu grids. Finally, the solvents were evaporated in a vacuum oven for 1 h.

XRD analysis was performed to characterize the nanocrystalline structures of the ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell and pure TiO₂ NPs. An MXP18 X-ray diffractometer (MAC science, Japan) was scanned in the 2θ range from 25 to 75° with Cu-K_{α 1} (λ = 1.54056 Å) radiation; the scan rate was 3° min⁻¹. To minimize deviation of the peak widths and to increase the precision of the pattern, a lower scan rate (1° min⁻¹) was used for the TiO₂ sample. The Debye–Scherrer equation was used to calculate the grain sizes of the ZnO cores.³⁴

Raman and XAS spectra were recorded to further characterize the core/shell structures. Raman spectra were obtained using a Thermo-Fisher DXR Microscopy Raman system and a 532-nm laser line. XAS data were collected at the Ti K-edge (4966 eV) and Zn K-edge (9659 eV) with the BL-16A and BL-17C beamlines of the National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center (NSRRC) of Taiwan. Zinc element spectra were measured in transmission mode; Ti element spectra, in fluorescence mode. The nanopowders were covered with Kapton tape for pretreatment. The X-ray absorption near-edge structures (XANES) of the Ti K-edge were analyzed using WinXAS 3.1 software; the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data were analyzed using IFEFFIT software. Fitting analysis in k₃-weighted Fourier transforms (3–12 Å) was applied to obtain a unique set of coordination number (CN), bond length, and σ^2 parameters.

The hydrodynamic diameters of the NPs in cell culture medium were measured using DLS with a Zetasizer nano ZS (Malvern Instruments, UK). Suspensions of NPs (at 200 μ g mL⁻¹) were prepared in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM High Glucose, with L-Glutamine, Biosera, UK). To decrease the agglomeration state, the dispersions were sonicated for 5 min in an ice bath using an ultrasonic probe (8 W, 22 kHz) (Ultrasonic Cell Disruptor, Misonix, USA). The exact Ti and Zn compositions in the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs were analyzed through ICP-OES (Jarrell-Ash, ICAP 9000, USA). Prior to ICP measurement, samples (25 mg) of the materials were completely dissolved in an acid solution [HNO₃ (2 mL), HCl (2 mL)] in a Teflon-coated autoclave, with digestion at 443 K for 6 h.

A549 Cell Line. The human lung carcinoma epithelial cell line (A549; BCRC-60074) was purchased from Bioresource Collection and Research Center, Taiwan. Cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin, streptomycin, and amphotericin mixture; they were then cultivated in T25 flasks at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% $CO_2/95\%$ air.

Preparation of Stock Solution and Sample Exposure. Nanopowders suspended (20,000 $\mu g \text{ mL}^{-1}$) in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Sterile, Sigma-Aldrich) were used as stock solutions. Prior to dilution, probe sonication (5 W, 90 s) was performed to decrease the degree of aggregation. Particle concentrations within the range from 50 to 1.56 μ g mL⁻¹ were selected to estimate the NPs' cytotoxicity; all samples for cytotoxicity testing were dispersed in serum-free DMEM. The DMSO concentration never exceeded 0.25% in any of the treatment groups. The control medium also incorporated 0.25% DMSO. All media were sonicated (400 W, 40 kHz) in an ultrasonic cleaner (DC-400H, Delta, Taiwan) for 10 min to break up the agglomerates. The A549 cells were exposed to samples after 24 h of cell attachment. The cell densities in the cytotoxicity assays were as follows: 4×10^4 cells mL⁻¹ in 96-well plates for MTT and IL-8 assays; 1×10^5 cells mL⁻¹ in 96-well plates for LDH assay; and 2×10^5 cells mL⁻¹ in six-well plates for the intracellular ROS analysis. A lower cell density was used in the MTT assay because the absorption of MTT formazan, which was measured by the ELISA reader, would be too high to evaluate the cell viability (optical density >2) when the cell density was at or above 1×10^5 cells mL⁻¹. Because the samples used for the IL-8 assay were obtained from exposed suspensions, the cell density was the same as that in the MTT assay. Although ROS analysis through flow cytometry required at least 10,000 living cells, some cells would die during the exposure processes and be removed during the washing steps; therefore, we required more cells to complete the experiment.

Cytotoxicity Assays. MTT Metabolism Assay. The cells were exposed to 1.56, 3.13, 6.25, 12.5, 25, and 50 μ g mL⁻¹ solutions of the NPs for 24 or 48 h. After exposure, the cell medium was aspired and the aliquots transferred to a clean flat-bottom plate for subsequent IL-8 or LDH analysis. Cells were washed once with $1 \times$ phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to remove NPs that might have caused misleading readouts because of Zn²⁺-MTT dye interference and particle absorption effects at high dosage.³⁵ MTT 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (Aldrich)/DMEM (with 10% FBS) solution (0.5 mg mL $^{-1}$ 200 μ L) was added to each well; the plate was then incubated for 3 h. After incubation, the MTT solution was discarded, and DMSO ($200 \,\mu$ L) was added. Finally, the absorbance was measured at 570 nm using a tunable microplate reader (VersaMax, Molecular Devices, USA). The MTT activity (%) was calculated using the expression [cell number of testing samples]/[cell number of control] \times 100. Cell numbers were derived from a standard curve (at log parameter), which was obtained after seeding serially diluted cells (from 1×10^5 to 1.56×10^3 cells $mL^{-1})$ in a 96-well plate.

IL-8 Assay. The production of pro-inflammatory factor IL-8 was analyzed using a Human IL-8 ELISA kit (PeproTech, USA). First, capture antibody ($0.5 \,\mu \text{g mL}^{-1}$, $100 \,\mu \text{L}$) was added to each well in a 96-well ELISA plate (Maxisorp, Nunc, USA) and incubated overnight at room temperature. Next, blocking solution ($200 \,\mu \text{L}$) was added to each well, followed by incubation for 1 h. Third, the sample ($100 \,\mu \text{L}$) and IL-8 standard ($16-2000 \,\text{pg mL}^{-1}$) were added to each well, followed by incubation for 2 h. Fourth, the detection antibody ($0.25 \,\mu \text{g mL}^{-1}$, $100 \,\mu \text{L}$) was added, followed by incubation for 2 h. Fifth, diluted adivin/HRP conjugate (1:2000 solution, $100 \,\mu \text{L}$) was added to each well,

followed by incubation for 30 min. Between each of these steps, the solution in each well was aspirated and washed four times with washing buffer. Next, the color reaction mixture (TMB, 100 μ L) was added into each well. After sufficient color development (20 min at room temperature), the stop solution (2 M H₂SO₄, 50 μ L) was added to each well. Finally, the absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a tunable microplate reader.

LDH Assay. Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity was measured using a lactic dehydrogenase—based in vitro toxicology assay kit (TOX7, Sigma—Aldrich). This assay is based on the reduction of NAD⁺ by LDH; the rate of NAD⁺ reduction is equal to the stoichiometric conversion of a tetrazolium dye, detected at 490 nm. For comparison of the cytotoxicities of the core/shell NPs and the ZnO+TiO₂ mixture of NPs, cells were exposed to 5, 10, and 25 μ g mL⁻¹ solutions of the particles for 48 h. For evaluation of the cytotoxicities of NPs having various shell thicknesses, cells were exposed to 5, 10, 25, and 50 μ g mL⁻¹ concentrations of the NPs for 48 h. After exposure, the cell medium was transferred to a microtube and centrifuged at 250g for 4 min. The supernatant (70 μ L) was transferred to a clean flat-bottom plate and subjected to enzymatic analysis. The LDH activity was determined using the expression [sample absorbance]/[control absorbance] × 100.

Analysis of Intracellular ROS. The production of intracellular ROS was measured using 2',7'-dichlorofluorescin diacetate (DCFH-DA, Sigma-Aldrich) as a reactive fluorescent probe. When DCFH-DA is absorbed by cells, esterase transforms it into nonfluorescent HDCF, which is then oxidized to fluorescent dichlorofluorescin (DCF) by intracellular ROS; the fluorescence is then detected at 528 nm after excitation at 488 nm. After exposure of the cells to NP solutions at 5 and 25 μ g mL⁻¹, DMEM was removed, and then the cells were rinsed with $1 \times PBS$. Next, $1 \times trypsin-EDTA(1 mL)$ was added to remove adherent cells from the surface of the flask. The DCFH-DA working solution, which was obtained after diluting 40 mM DCFH-DA stock solution (in ethanol) to 40 μ M in DMEM without serum, was added to each well, followed by incubation for 30 min. The solutions were then centrifuged (1000g, 3 min) and the supernatant medium removed entirely. Prior to measurement, the cells were resuspended in $1 \times PBS$. The fluorescence was determined using a BD FACSCanto flow cytometer (BD Science, San Jose, CA), with 10,000 cells collected. The mean fluorescence intensity was analyzed using FCS Express data analysis software (v. 3.0).

Analysis of Zinc lons in DMEM. To examine the dissolution of ZnO NPs in DMEM, the concentrations of zinc ions released from ZnO and ZnO/TiO₂ NPs were measured. First, samples of stock solution were diluted (1:400) in serum-free DMEM and left for 24 h at room temperature. Next, aliquots (1 mL) were centrifuged (14,000g, 20 min) and diluted (1:40, v/v) with deionized water. Prior to analysis, nitric acid was added to a final concentration of 1%. Finally, the resulting zinc concentration was measured using ICP-MS (SCIEX ELAN 5000 ICP-MS, Perkin–Elmer, USA). The zinc concentration was determined from the intensity of the signal of the Zn isotope having a mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) of 66; an external calibration method was used.

Statistics. Toxicity effects of the various NPs on the cell cultures were analyzed statistically, with a p < 0.05 significance level, using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. All data are expressed as the means \pm SDs.

RESULTS

Particle Characterization (TEM, XRD, Zetasizer, ICP-OES). TEM images revealed that the two ZnO NPs had different size distributions (32-95 nm for ZnO-1 and 50-122 nm for ZnO-2), but the same sphere-like morphology. We used these loosely aggregated particles as core moieties of the nanocomposites (Figure 1 and Table 2). The TiO₂ NPs formed a compact aggregate; their particle size was generally larger (90-160 nm) than that of the ZnO NPs, and their shape was nonuniform. After



Figure 1. TEM images of the ZnO and TiO₂ NPs and their core/shell structures.

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particle ^a	size distribution (nm)	ZnO diameter b (nm)	mean shell thickness (nm)	hydrodynamic size in $\text{DMEM}^{c}\left(nm\right)$	PdI width ^d	molar ratio ^e
ZnO-1	32-95	25		765 ± 35	0.30	
ZnO-2	50-122	38		975 ± 58	0.12	
TiO ₂	90-160			1081 ± 73	0.27	
ZnO/TiO_2-1	43-83	27	2.5	1246 ± 189	0.19	0.25
ZnO/TiO_2-2	43-66	24	8.3	1280 ± 204	0.23	0.32
ZnO/TiO_2-3	45-154	37	3.8	1221 ± 85	0.36	0.35
ZnO/TiO_2-4	57-90	38	5.7	1177 ± 95	0.31	0.37
ZnO/TiO_2-5	68-200	36	5.3	1044 ± 81	0.30	0.65
ZnO/TiO ₂ -6	54-130	38	5.5	1139 ± 163	0.40	0.64

^{*a*} Denomination of particles defined in Table 1. ^{*b*} Grain size of ZnO core, estimated from XRD data and calculated using the Debye–Scherrer equation. ^{*c*} All DLS measurements were performed in triplicate. ^{*d*} Polydispersity index (PdI), a size distribution parameter derived from the coefficient of the correlation function. ^{*e*} Practical molar ratio of TiO₂ and ZnO in core/shell NPs was measured using ICP-OES.

coating with TiO_{2} , we detected a thin layer on the surface of the nano-ZnO and found that increasing the Ti-to-Zn molar ratio from 0.31 to 0.63 provided a slightly thicker shell (Figure 1); moreover, the shell became thicker upon extending the reaction time from 24 to 48 h. Table 2 lists the average layer thicknesses for all particles. Although TiO_2 was coated on the ZnO using either set of conditions, a small part of ZnO remained uncovered.

In the XRD spectra of the two nano-ZnO samples (Figure 2b and e), all of the characteristic peaks matched well with those of hexagonal crystalline ZnO (JCPDS no. 36-1451). The grain sizes of ZnO were 25 and 38 nm, calculated using the Debye–Scherrer equation. XRD analysis of the TiO₂ NPs (Figure 2a) did not reveal any diffraction peaks for a crystalline structure (anatase or rutile). Because the range of sizes of the TiO₂ NPs was ca. 90–160 nm (i.e., they were not particularly small), we

Figure 2. Typical XRD patterns of the synthesized nanostructures. (a) TiO_2 ; (b) ZnO-1; (c) ZnO/TiO_2-1 ; (d) ZnO/TiO_2-2 ; (e) ZnO-2; (f) ZnO/TiO_2-3 ; (g) ZnO/TiO_2-5 .

Figure 3. Raman spectra of the synthesized nanostructures. (a) ZnO/TiO_2 -1, (b) ZnO/TiO_2 -5, (c) TiO_2 , (d) $ZnO+TiO_2$ -2, and (e) ZnO-2.

speculated that the phase of TiO_2 was amorphous. After coating the ZnO NPs with TiO_2 , the shapes and positions of the signals in the XRD patterns remained relatively unchanged when compared with those of the pure hexagonal ZnO NPs; again, we observed no characteristic peaks for crystalline TiO_2 (Figure 2*c*, *d*, *f*, and g). Notably, however, the baselines of the XRD spectra of the ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell structures were rougher than those of the pure ZnO NPs. Because the procedures for preparing TiO_2 and core/shell NPs were identical, with the exception of the addition of ZnO, these findings suggest that the TiO_2 shells were also amorphous.

We used a DLS method to measure the hydrodynamic sizes of the core/shell NPs in serum-free media.³⁶ The particle diameters of all the coated samples increased from those of the primary NPs. In addition, the hydrodynamic sizes of the ZnO/TiO₂ NPs (ca. 1100 nm) were all larger than those of the ZnO cores; the TiO₂ layers coated on the ZnO-2 NPs had slightly smaller hydrodynamic sizes than those on the ZnO-1 NPs. ICP-OES measurements provided us with the real Ti/Zn molar ratios for the as-prepared core/shell NPs; the molar ratios of the ZnO/ TiO₂ were similar to their stoichiometric ratios (Table 2).

Confirming the Core/Shell Structure (Raman, XAS). Figure 3 displays Raman spectra of the ZnO, TiO_2 , TiO_2 -coated ZnO, and physical mixtures of TiO_2 and ZnO NPs. For the ZnO-2 NPs, we observe a vibration peak at 435.2 cm⁻¹ [E_2 vibration mode³⁷]. For the TiO_2 NPs, broader peaks appear at 439 and 599 cm⁻¹ [E_g and A_{1g} vibration modes³⁸]. After coating with TiO_2 , we observe large blue shifts of the signal from typically 599 cm⁻¹ for TiO_2 to 774 cm⁻¹ and 763 cm⁻¹ for ZnO/TiO₂-1 and

Table 3. Structural Parameters around Zn Atoms in ZnO and ZnO/TiO_2 Nanocomposites

		ZnO shell			ZnZn shell			
particle	CN^{a}	R^{b}	$\sigma^2 / 10^{-4} \text{\AA}^2$	CN	R	$\sigma^2/10^{-4}\mathrm{\AA^2}$		
bulk	3.4	1.93	36	11.4	3.21	92		
ZnO-1	2.6	1.96	37	7.6	3.21	87		
ZnO-2	3.0	1.96	34	9.5	3.21	87		
ZnO/TiO_2-1	3.3	1.95	46	6.2	3.24	79		
ZnO/TiO_2-5	3.3	1.95	42	6.9	3.23	82		
^b Coordination number. ^b Bond distance.								

 ZnO/TiO_2 -5, respectively. However, if the ZnO and TiO_2 NPs were just mixtures, the large blue shift of the signal for TiO_2 could not be observed.

Figure 4A presents an overlay of the Zn K-edge EXAFS spectra $k^{3}\chi(k)$ for bulk ZnO and the synthesized NPs. The broad peaks at ca. 1.9 Å represent the Zn atoms in the ZnO shell; the neighboring peaks at ca. 3.2 Å represent those in the ZnZn shell. The area of each peak represents the coordinated state of the Zn atoms. We used IFEFFIT software to determine the bond lengths (R) and CNs, assuming errors in the values of CN to be $\pm 10\%$ (± 0.02 Å) for R and $\pm 20\%$ for the Debye–Waller factors (σ^2). Figure 4B and Table 3 present the parameters resulting from curve fitting. The ZnO-1 and ZnO-2 NPs had lower values of CN for their ZnO (2.6 and 3.0, respectively) and ZnZn (7.6 and 9.5, respectively) shells, relative to those of the bulk ZnO. After coating these two NPs with TiO₂, the values of CN of the ZnO shells both increased to 3.3, but those of the ZnZn shells decreased further, to 6.2 and 6.9 for ZnO/TiO₂-1 and ZnO/TiO_2 -5, respectively. In addition, the bond lengths of the ZnZn shells were slightly longer than those of the pure nano-ZnO samples.

Figure 5 displays experimental Ti K-edge XANES spectra of the pure TiO₂ shell and a series of ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell NPs. In all of these spectra, the pre-edge region reveals only one obvious signal, confirming the amorphous structure.³⁹ The intensity and position of these specific peaks in the pre-edge region is highly correlated to the symmetry environment of the Ti atoms.⁴⁰ The inset to Figure 5 presents a plot of the height and position of each pre-edge peak; although the peak energy in all samples appeared at the same position (4.9712 eV), as the TiO₂ formed a shell, the normalized peak height decreased from 0.32 to ca. 0.25. Combining this information with the results obtained by Farges

Figure 4. (A) k_3 -Weighted EXAFS spectra for the ZnO and ZnO/TiO₂ NPs. (B) Curve-fitting results: (a) bulk ZnO, (b) ZnO-1, (c) ZnO-2, (d) ZnO/TiO₂-1, and (e) ZnO/TiO₂-5. IFEFFIT fitting results are provided as dashed lines.

et al.,⁴⁰ we conclude that the amorphous TiO_2 NPs featured between six- and five-coordinate Ti atoms (TiO), consistent with the model result (CN = 5.3) reported by Zhang et al.³⁹ In contrast, the core/shell structures appeared to favor a six-coordinate Ti environment.

Cytotoxicity of ZnO Cores and TiO₂ Shells. Before evaluating the cytotoxicities of the core/shell NPs, we used separate MTT assays to compare cell proliferations in response to various concentrations of TiO₂ and ZnO cores (Figure 6). Although ZnO-2 and the amorphous TiO₂ NPs had similar primary and secondary sizes, they exhibited significantly different cytotoxicities toward A549 cells. Whereas the cell viability decreased dramatically when we exposed the A549 cells to ZnO-2 for 24 h (to 8.6% at 50 μ g mL⁻¹), the situation for TiO₂ was moderate (to 70% at 50 μ g mL⁻¹). Because amorphous TiO₂ is somewhat toxic, we would expect the core/shell NPs to also cause cell death to a certain extent. Therefore, if we are to demonstrate that the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs exhibited decreased toxicity relative to that of ZnO, we could not ignore the toxicity of TiO₂ itself.

Cytotoxicities of TiO₂-Coated ZnO NPs and Physical Mixtures of TiO₂ and ZnO NPs. To assess the cytotoxicities of the synthesized core/shell NPs, we used assays based on cell proliferation (MTT), the production of pro-inflammatory factor (IL-8), LDH activity (LDH), and the release of intracellular ROS (DCFH-DA). For comparison, we also determined the cytotoxicities of physical mixtures of ZnO-2 and TiO₂ NPs at the same compositions as those of the core/shell NPs. Using this method, we avoided the possibility of ignoring the real mass dosage of the ZnO core. Furthermore, the agglomeration size of the mixed NPs was similar to that of the core/shell NPs (1157 ± 55 nm), almost ruling out the effect of size on cytotoxicity. At NP concentrations of 50, 25, 12.5, and 6.25 μ g mL⁻¹, the viabilities of A549 cells after exposure for 24 h to ZnO/TiO_2 -3 were 47, 63, 64, and 75%, respectively; to ZnO/TiO₂-5, they were 18, 66, 88, and 97%, respectively (Figure 7A). These two core/shell NPs exhibited intermediate toxicity between those of the ZnO-2 and TiO₂ NPs. Relative to their corresponding physical mixtures, both of the core/shell NPs exhibited lower toxicities (i.e., higher cell viabilities). In the IL-8 production assay (Figure 7B), the ZnO/ TiO₂-5 NPs induced less chemokine production than did the ZnO/TiO₂-3 NPs from each cell (0.0002/0.001 vs 0.0016/ 0.0043 pg cell⁻¹ at 12.5/25 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively). The corresponding physical mixtures induced more chemokine production than did their core/shell forms (0.0017 and 0.0039 pg cell^{-1} for the ZnO+TiO₂-2; 0.0056 and 0.0062 pg cell^{-1} for the $ZnO+TiO_2-1$).

Figure 5. Ti K-edge XANES spectra of amorphous and anatase TiO_2 and ZnO/TiO_2 core/shell nanocomposites. Inset: expanded view of the pre-edge section; heights and energies of the pre-edge signals are provided.

Figure 6. Cytotoxicity patterns of ZnO-2 and TiO₂ NPs after 24-h exposure to A549 cells. Significance effects: * p < 0.05 vs control cells; $^{\alpha}p < 0.05$ vs cells exposed to 3.13 μ g mL⁻¹.

Increased LDH release relative to that of the control (Figure 7C) was evident at a significant level only at 25 μ g mL⁻¹ exposure. The ZnO+TiO₂-1 sample induced a greater LDH release than did its core/shell form (nearly double that of the control). In comparison with the control group, the DCF fluorescence intensities (Figure 7D) increased to 113 and 173% at ZnO/TiO₂-3 concentrations of 5 and 25 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively; for the ZnO+TiO₂-1 sample, the A549 cells provided even greater increases in intracellular ROS production (181 and 246%, respectively).

Cytotoxicities of NPs with Different Degrees of Coating. Because the cytotoxicities of the core/shell NPs were higher than

Figure 7. Metabolism activity, production of pro-inflammatory factor, LDH activity, and intracellular H_2O_2 levels of A549 cells after exposure to various concentrations of ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell nanocomposites and corresponding amounts of physically mixed ZnO and amorphous TiO₂ NPs. (A) MTT assay (incubation time, 24 h); (B) IL-8 assay (incubation time, 24 h); (C) LDH assay (incubation time, 48 h); (D) DCF fluorescence (incubation time, 24 h). *Statistically different from the control, *p* < 0.05; +Statistically different between the treated groups, but one is not significantly different from the control and between the treated groups.

that of amorphous TiO₂, we were interested in determining whether the cytotoxicity would decrease upon increasing the coating level. We compared the effects of two series of core/shell NPs having different shell thicknesses. Figure 8A reveals no significant differences in MTT activity after 24 h between the thinner (ZnO/TiO₂-1 and ZnO/TiO₂-3)- and thicker-shell $(ZnO/TiO_2-2 \text{ and } ZnO/TiO_2-4)$ NPs at low concentration (<25 μ g mL⁻¹). At 50 μ g mL⁻¹, however, the thicker-shell NPs (52 and 66%, respectively) led to higher cell viability than did the thinner-shell NPs (42 and 47%, respectively). Analysis of the amounts of human IL-8 after 48 h revealed that, below 12.5 $\mu g m L^{-1}$ exposure, none of the samples had significant inflammatory effects on A549 cells (Figure 8B). In addition, the ZnO/ TiO2-4 NPs, which had a thicker shell, induced less proinflammatory factor than did the ZnO/TiO₂-3 NPs at 12.5 (62 vs 79 pg mL⁻¹) and 25 μ g mL⁻¹ (140 vs 180 pg mL⁻¹), whereas the ZnO-1-based core/shell NPs did not exhibit any such differences.

Higher LDH activities appeared (Figure 8C) only when the exposure concentration was greater than 12.5 μ g mL⁻¹; a significant difference in the level of LDH released from the A549 cells appeared only for the ZnO/TiO₂-3 and ZnO/TiO₂-4 NPs (2.3- and 1.9-fold increases, respectively). The ZnO-2-based core/shell NPs also caused increases in DCF fluorescence intensity (Figure 8D) from the A549 cells at 25 μ g mL⁻¹, but only the ZnO/TiO₂-3 NPs induced more ROS than did the control group (173% of control).

Figure 9 reveals the effect of the TiO_2 coating on the dissolution rate of ZnO nanoparticles in cell culture medium

(DMEM). The uncoated ZnO released more zinc ion than did the TiO₂-coated ZnO at all lengths of time (3, 6, 24, and 48 h) and at all concentrations (10 and 50 ppm). Moreover, as more TiO₂ was coated onto ZnO, lower zinc ion concentrations were observed.

DISCUSSION

We produced ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell NPs using a sol-gel method, and employed several methods to demonstrate their core/shell structures. TEM images revealed darker cores and lighter shells for the NPs obtained under various conditions (Ti/Zn ratios, coating times), presumably because the atomic number of Zn (65) is higher than that of Ti (47). By comparing its physical mixtures, Raman spectra of the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs revealed a large blue-shift of the signal of the A_{1 g} mode, most likely related to transformation of the particle structure to the shell form,⁴¹ altering the molecular polarizability.

EXAFS data revealed that the nano-ZnO had lower values of CN for its ZnO and ZnZn shells than did the bulk material, presumably because the technique is more sensitive to surface atoms. On the surfaces of the nano-ZnO particles, the Zn atoms "bond" to fewer O atoms, and so do the other Zn atoms.⁴² Using the same idea, if a ZnO NP is coated with a layer of TiO₂, the Zn atoms will "bond" to more O atoms (increased CN) at the surface of the core (from TiO₂). The reason for the decreasing value of CN of the ZnZn bonds and their enlarged bond length might suggest that some Ti atoms had become incorporated at Zn sites in the ZnO lattice. Further evidence for the core/shell

Figure 8. Metabolism activity, production of pro-inflammatory factor, LDH activity, and intracellular H_2O_2 levels of A549 cells after exposure to ZnO/ TiO₂ core/shell nanocomposites having various shell thicknesses and core diameters. (A) MTT assay (incubation time, 24 h); (B) IL-8 assay (incubation time, 48 h); (C) LDH assay (incubation time, 48 h); (D) DCF fluorescence (incubation time, 24 h). *Statistically different from the control, p < 0.05; ⁺Statistically different between the treated groups, but one is not significantly different from the control. [#]Statistically different both from the control and between the treated groups.

structures was provided by the pre-edge signals in the Ti K-edge XANES spectra. We attribute this specific pre-edge signal to transitions from the Ti 1s energy levels to bind Ti 3d (or O 2p) molecular orbitals.⁴⁰ When there are more O atoms near Ti atoms, destructive interference can lead to a decreased intensity of this specific peak, just beyond the Fermi energy. Spectra of the core/shell NPs, which feature a more-distorted coordination environment, confirmed that the interactions between the TiO₂ shell and the ZnO core were sufficiently strong to modify the electronic states of the Ti atoms for the 1s–3d transition.⁴³

In this study, we expected the TiO₂ coatings to decrease the toxicity of the nano-ZnO particles, which are potentially toxic to the environment and our bodies. In terms of antibacterial activity, 67-nm ZnO NPs have resulted in a 48% reduction in growth of Gram-negative E. Coli at 1000 ppm, with 98% growth reduction of Gram-positive *B. subtilis* occurring at only 50 ppm.²⁰ In terms of cytotoxicity toward mammalian cells, 50-70-nm (mean size) nano-ZnO particles have led to dramatically damaged mitochondrial function of mouse neuroblastoma (Neuro-2A), from 50 to 100 ppm.⁴⁴ A steep drop in A549 cell viability has also been found at 8-25-ppm dosages of 70-nm nano-ZnO.44 In contrast, 66-nm TiO₂ has provided a 44% growth reduction in E. Coli, but no growth reduction in *B. subtilis*, at 50 ppm.²⁰ Furthermore, TiO₂ NPs (<40 nm) have no measurable effect on Neuro-2A cells at concentrations of less than 200 ppm.⁴⁴ In addition, significant differences in A549 cytotoxicity, relative to that of the control, have been noted only when the dosage of TiO₂ NPs was greater than or equal to 50 ppm.⁴⁵ Our cytotoxicity data for

nano-ZnO and nano-TiO2 were consistent with these findings, but we also found that cell death still occurred when the cells were exposed to TiO₂ at concentrations greater than 6.25 μ g mL⁻¹. XRD and Ti K-edge XANES spectra revealed that the TiO₂ NPs and the TiO₂ shells of the ZnO/TiO₂ core/shell NPs were all amorphous. The anatase, rutile, and amorphous structures of TiO₂ are known to display different cytotoxicities.^{46,47} For example, 50-nm amorphous TiO₂ NPs reveal a significantly different toxicity in comparison with those of its anatase and rutile forms at low concentrations $(5-50 \ \mu g \ mL^{-1})$ in mouse keratinocyte cells; other research has suggested that the ability of the different forms of TiO2 NPs to generate ROS follows the order amorphous > anatase > rutile.⁴⁷ Nevertheless, we found that the ZnO NPs coated with TiO₂ layers exhibited cell viabilities different from those of amorphous TiO₂ NPs. In addition, the TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs were less toxic than were equal amounts of physically mixed TiO₂ and ZnO NPs. These two results indicate that the TiO₂ shells provided A549 cells with effective protection against cytotoxic ZnO NPs.

We detected the amount of IL-8 chemokine, an important mediator of pulmonary inflammation, to evaluate an intermediate level (Tier 2) of oxidative stress to human lung epithelial cells.⁴⁸ Nano-ZnO has been reported to elicit a pronounced IL-8 mRNA level response at a dosage of $10 \,\mu g \,\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ to human aortic endothelial cells (HAECs) and at a dosage of $0.3-8.5 \,\mu g \,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}$ to A549 cells.^{23,49} Ultrafine TiO₂ particles can also trigger inflammatory responses to A549 cells; these responses appear to be driven by the specific surface area of the particles, even if they

Figure 9. ICP-MS analyses of zinc ions released from ZnO-2, ZnO/TiO₂-3, and ZnO/TiO₂-4 core/shell nanocomposites after 3, 6, 24, and 48 h in DMEM. Particle suspension: (A) 10 ppm; (B) 50 ppm.

have formed large aggregates.⁵⁰ In this present study, we found that $ZnO+TiO_2$ NP mixtures induced more IL-8 than did their corresponding core/shell NPs, presumably because the mixed NPs had more opportunity to undergo ZnO particle—cell interactions. One study has demonstrated that ZnO particles require cell contact to impart toxicity,⁵¹ consistent with our contention.

The cytotoxicities of TiO₂ and ZnO NPs are presumably associated mainly with membrane damage. Indeed, the physically mixed NPs also provided higher LDH activity at 25 μ g mL⁻¹ than did the core/shell NPs. ROS species (including superoxides, hydrogen peroxide, hydroxyl, and other oxygen radicals) can cause lipid peroxidation and protein and DNA damage within cells. In this present study, we used the fluoroprobe DCFH-DA to measure the level of intracellular ROS. There is much evidence suggesting that ZnO and TiO₂ NPs induce ROS production, leading to cell death, in various types of mammalian cells.^{47,50,52-54} Nevertheless, the exact mechanism of ROS formation remains unknown. Our results revealed that more ROS generation occurred upon exposure to the ZnO+TiO₂ NP mixtures, indicating that the core/shell structures induced less oxidative stress to the A549 cells.

From a study of the ZnO-1-based and ZnO-2-based core/shell NPs, we found that thicker-shell species were less cytotoxic; unfortunately, this behavior occurred only at high concentrations (>25 μ g mL⁻¹). The inflammatory response, LDH activity, and ROS generation data allowed us to reach the same conclusion. Increasing the coating time of the nano-ZnO increased the proportion of the coating and provided a thicker shell. The former contributed to a reduction in the oxidative stress level (relative to that of nano-ZnO), whereas both were responsible for the decrease in the rate of zinc ion release. The formation of dissolved zinc ions from nano-ZnO particles has a critical role affecting their toxicity.^{21,30,55} One study even demonstrated that if the dissolution rate of ZnO NPs decreased through iron doping, the zinc ion-mediated cytotoxicity pathway which included ROS generation, intracellular calcium flux, mitochondria perturbation, and plasma membrane leakage would be diminished.56 ICP-MS analysis revealed that the thinner-shell NPs released more Zn^{2+} ions than did the thicker-shell NPs after 24-h incubation in DMEM (Figure 9). This finding is consistent with our toxicity data. We also found that the ZnO-2 series of core/shell NPs had more potential for inducing oxidative stress than did the ZnO-1 series, presumably because the aggregation size of the former was slightly smaller than that of the latter and,

therefore, more particles could be internalized within cells. Although TiO_2 coatings can decrease the cytotoxicity of nano-ZnO, the issue of biocompatibility remains to be improved.

In conclusion, we have fabricated TiO₂-coated ZnO core/shell NPs and obtained convincing evidence for their core/shell structures. By comparing the cytotoxicities of ZnO and TiO₂ (amorphous) NPs, we found that our TiO₂ NPs were less toxic than our ZnO NPs, but their toxicity could still be observed. Although the core/shell structures were slightly more toxic than the TiO₂ NPs, their degree of oxidative stress was less than that of the ZnO+TiO₂ NP mixtures. Furthermore, the cytotoxicity of the core/shell NPs decreased upon increasing the extent of coating. The decrease of ZnO toxicity arose presumably because (i) less of the nano-ZnO interacted with the cells, and (ii) the rate of zinc ion release from the ZnO cores decreased. In summary, we have developed a new approach for evaluating the toxicity of core/shell NPs, finding that TiO₂ shell coatings decrease the toxicity of ZnO NPs.

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Funding Sources

This study was supported financially by a research grant from the National Science Council, Taiwan.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Drs. Jyh-Fu Lee and Ling-Yun Jang, Beamline 17C and 16A spokespersons at the National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center, Taiwan, for conducting the XAS experiments. We thank Associate Professors Chien-Hou Wu and Chun-Yu Cheryl Chuang, Department of Biomedical Engineering and Environmental Sciences, National Tsing-Hua University, for help with the DLS and ELISA assays. Thanks also to the editor Dr. Chris A. Bradfield and five anonymous (unknown) reviewers for their comments.

ABBREVIATIONS

SiO₂, nanosilicon dioxide; CdSe, nanocadmium selenide; Au, gold NPs; Fe₂O₃, nanoiron(III) oxide; CdS, nanocadmium sulfide; CdTe, cadmium telluride; nano-ZnO, nanozinc oxide;

ZnO/TiO₂, TiO₂-coated ZnO NPs; TiO₂, nanotitanium dioxide; QDs, quantum dots; A549, human lung epithelial cells; W, watt; TEM, transmission electron microscopy; XRD, X-ray diffraction; XAS, X-ray absorption spectroscopy; XANES, X-ray absorption near edge structure; EXAFS, extended X-ray absorption fine structure; CN, coordination number; ICP-OES, inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry; ICP-MS, inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry; DLS, diffraction laser scattering; ROS, reactive oxygen species; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; MTT, methyl tetrazolium cytotoxicity; DCFH-DA, 2',7'dichlorofluorescin diacetate; DCF, dichlorofluorescein; IL-8, interleukin-8.

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