

Biological potential of nanomaterials strongly depends on the suspension media: experimental data on the effects of fullerenes C₆₀ on membranes

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Abstract

Fullerenes (C₆₀) are some of the most promising carbon nanomaterials to be used for medical applications as drug delivery agents. Computational and experimental studies have proposed their ability to enter cells by penetrating lipid bilayers. The aim of our study was to provide experimental evidence on whether pristine C₆₀ in physiological media could penetrate cell membranes. The effect was tested on phospholipid vesicles (liposomes) composed of 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine, and validated on isolated human red blood cells (RBCs). We incubated the liposomes in an aqueous suspension of C₆₀, and dissolved the lipids and C₆₀ together in chloroform and subsequently formatted the liposomes. By differential scanning calorimetry measurements, we assessed the effect of C₆₀ on the phospholipid thermal profile. The latter was not affected after the incubation of liposomes in the C₆₀-suspension; also, a shape transformation of RBCs did not occur. Differently, by dispersing both C₆₀ and the phospholipids in chloroform, we confirmed the possible interaction of C₆₀ with the bilayer. We provide experimental data suggesting that the suspension medium is an important factor in determining the C₆₀-membrane interaction, which is not always included in computational studies. Since the primary particle size is not the only crucial parameter in C₆₀-membrane interactions, it is important to determine the most relevant characteristics of their effects on membranes.

Keywords: fullerenes C₆₀, liposomes, human erythrocytes, experimental medium

Introduction

With the emerging production of engineered nanomaterials (NMs), there has been an increased concern over the interaction of NMs with biological systems. It has been commonly supposed that the first interactions between cells and NMs occur on the plasma membrane (Banaszak 2009; Verma and Stellacci 2010). Therefore, an understanding of NM-membrane interactions is of the utmost importance, especially due to an increase in the medical applications of NMs, which are used in drug delivery, cellular imaging, biosensor matrices, and other biomedical applications. Carbon NMs are some of the most investigated NMs, prime among them the *buckminsterfullerene* C_{60} . Fullerenes C_{60} form a carbon-based cage structure of about 1 nm, which enables an entrapment of the desired material in drug delivery applications. Furthermore, their unique electrochemical properties (delocalized π -molecular orbital electrons) also make them promising therapeutic agents, such as antioxidants, radical scavengers or enzyme inhibitors (Bakry et al. 2007; Dellinger et al. 2013; Kato et al. 2010; Kroto et al. 1985; Rossi et al. 2013).

Due to its small size, there has been a rising concern about C_{60} entering the cells by crossing biological membranes. Many theoretical or molecular dynamics (MD) simulation studies report on a successful penetration of C_{60} through phospholipid membranes, an incorporation in the bilayer or a translocation through the membrane, where, mostly, the interaction of individual C_{60} molecules is considered (Bouropoulos et al. 2012; DeVane et al. 2010; Monticelli et al. 2009; Qiao et al. 2007; Rossi et al. 2013; Shinoda et al. 2012; Wong-Ekkabut et al. 2008). There are also some MD reports on NM-concentration-dependent interactions with membranes, *e.g.* more highly concentrated C_{60} forming larger clusters (from 10 to a few hundreds nm in diameter), which are also prone to permeating through the lipid bilayer (Shinoda et al. 2012; Wong-Ekkabut et al. 2008). Computational studies are good predictors for experimental studies (Bakry et al. 2007; Crane et al. 2008; Lyon et al. 2006; Monticelli et al. 2009; Prato 1997; Rossi et al. 2013; Ruoff et al. 1993). However, under physiological conditions, C_{60} forms large agglomerates, which influence the interactions between C_{60} and biological membranes (Spohn et al. 2009). Recently, Rossi et al. (Rossi et al. 2013) reviewed both experimental and simulation studies and proposed that, as the lipid membranes are efficient solubilizing agents for C_{60} , interactions with the lipid bilayer most likely mediate the mechanism of C_{60} toxicity.

Interactions between NMs and membranes are widely studied on both artificial and biological membranes (Drasler et al. 2014; Leroueil et al. 2007; Peetla et al. 2009; Schulz et al. 2012). In NM-membrane interactions studies, NMs can occur (i) encapsulated or entrapped in the liposomes, (ii) in the form of hybrids, composed of inorganic NM and lipids, or (iii) as liposomes, incubated with an aqueous suspension of NMs (Frascione et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2008; Zupanc et al. 2012).

Since it is not possible to visualize C_{60} inside the lipid bilayers directly via microscopy techniques, the indirect effects are inspected to prove the NP-membrane interactions. Diverse scattering (*e.g.* small- or wide-angle X-ray scattering), spectroscopic (*e.g.* fluorescence polarization, electron paramagnetic resonance) and other techniques are available to study parameters, such as alterations in membrane structure and elasticity or fluidity, respectively. Furthermore, calorimetric techniques, *e.g.* differential scanning calorimetry, enable an assessment of the alterations of the lipid behavior around phase-transition temperatures, which can indicate a possible incorporation of C_{60} in the bilayer. Synthetic lipid 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC) is a widely used long chain phospholipid with a well-characterized gel to liquid phase transition state ($T_m \sim 41$ °C; Riske et al. 2009) and thus suitable for studies of the alterations in the phase transition temperature. At the pre-transition temperature (T_p), a flat membrane

in the gel phase transforms into a periodically undulated bilayer and corresponds to the alteration of membrane lipids from gel to the liquid crystalline phase at the main phase transition temperature (T_m) (Riske et al. 2009).

A frequently used experimental model for biological membranes are human erythrocytes (RBCs) (Hagerstrand et al. 2000; Iglıc 1997). It has been previously shown that the adsorption of NPs onto the surface of RBCs can change cell morphology (Asharani et al. 2010; Han et al. 2012; Li et al. 2008). As RBCs are the most common type of vertebrate blood cells and C_{60} is considered for medical application as a drug delivery agent, assessing its possible interaction with membranes is of the utmost importance. It has been reported that water-soluble fullerenes C_{60} can infiltrate the membranes of human RBCs and change the membranes' fluidity, the membranes can become softer and easier to break, which is also an important reference for the safe application of C_{60} (Huang et al. 1996; Zhang et al. 2013).

The aim of our study was to assess the effects of C_{60} on artificial and biological phospholipid membranes *in vitro*. Either liposomes or human RBCs were incubated in the aqueous suspensions of C_{60} (distilled water or 10 mM Hepes buffer, pH 7.0), where agglomerates of C_{60} were formed. We studied the interaction of C_{60} with artificial phospholipids by assessing the phase transition profile of DPPC liposomes, and compared it to the potential of C_{60} to affect biological membranes, *i.e.* to induce a shape transformation of human RBCs. We discuss the importance of experimental conditions in the assessment and interpretation of C_{60} membrane interactions.

Materials and methods

Nanomaterials: suspension preparation and characterization

Fullerenes (C_{60}) in the form of a black crystalline powder (with an estimated nominal purity of > 99.5 %) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany. A stock solution of C_{60} in chloroform ($CHCl_3$; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) was prepared, with a final concentration of 0.16 g/L. This is the solubility limit of C_{60} in $CHCl_3$ at room temperature (Ruoff et al. 1993). Complete solubility was obtained by using 4 mg of powder C_{60} in 25 mL of $CHCl_3$ and applying water bath sonication for 3 hours at 30 °C (note, after sonication the suspension appears clear and purple). A suspension of C_{60} in dH_2O was prepared by dissolving powder C_{60} in deionized water at a concentration of 5 mg C_{60} /mL, followed by probe-sonication (Sonics VibraCell, Newtown, ZDA) for 1 hour, with 15 second on-off cycles at a 40 % amplitude (cooled on ice). The stock suspensions of C_{60} in PBS-citrate buffer (pH 7.4) were prepared by dissolving powder NM in the buffer, with the final concentration of 2 mg C_{60} /mL.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrographs were obtained using a JEOL 2100 (Tokyo, Japan), operated at 200 kV. The specimens for TEM were prepared by drying the suspension of NPs in water (pH ~ 7) at room temperature on a transparent carbon foil supported on a copper grid. Dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements of the hydrodynamic sizes of particles in the suspensions (C_{60} in dH_2O , in Hepes buffer – 10 mM, pH 7.0, 5 mg/mL or PBS-citrate buffer – pH 7.4, 5 mg/mL) were performed using a Fritsch Analysette 12 DynaSizer (Idar-Oberstein, Germany). The ζ -potentials of the suspended C_{60} in dH_2O or in PBS-citrate buffer were measured with a Brookhaven Instruments Corp., ZetaPALS (NY, USA).

Experiments with liposomes:

Chemicals

The lipids 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids Inc., USA. Methanol and Hepes buffers were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Chemie GmbH, Steinheim, Germany) and chloroform (CHCl₃) from Merck KGaA (Darmstadt, Germany). The Hepes buffer solution (10 mM, pH 7.0) was prepared freshly by diluting the powder in deionized water (MilliQ, Millipore, Billerica, Massachusetts, USA; pH = 5.7, $\rho = 18.5 \text{ M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) and filtering prior to use (0.22 μm pore size hydrophilic PVDF membrane filters, Millipore, Billerica, Massachusetts, USA). A calibration of the pH value (7.0) of the buffer suspension was carried out using 1 M hydrogen chloride (HCl) and 0.2 M sodium hydroxide (NaOH), both chemicals purchased from Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany.

Preparation of multilamellar vesicles

Multilamellar vesicles (MLVs) were prepared by the thin film method, using a rotary evaporator. The DPPC powder lipid was dissolved in chloroform (2 mg DPPC/mL) in a round-bottomed flask and argon gas was allowed to pass through the lipid-chloroform mixture to avoid the oxidation of lipids. The organic solvent was removed from the flask using the rotary evaporator (Buchirotavapor R-114; BuchiLabortechnik, Flawil, Switzerland) under low pressure (1.7 kPa), until a thin lipid film was formed at the bottom of the flask. The dried lipid film was then hydrated with 1 ml of Hepes buffer (10 mM, pH 7.0). A small amount of silanized glass beads was added to the flask and the sample was subjected to alternate cycles of vigorous vortexing and heating in a water bath (45 to 50 °C) for 15 minutes to form MLVs.

For a comparison of the experimental conditions, two exposure approaches were applied. The liposomes were either incubated in an aqueous suspension of C₆₀ (i.e. *indirect exposure*) or first dissolved in CHCl₃, followed by the formation of MLVs (i.e. *direct exposure*).

In the incubation approach, the suspension of MLVs (0.5 mL) formed in Hepes buffer (10 mM, pH 7.0) was added to the suspension of C₆₀ in dH₂O (0.5 mL) in a molar ratio of C₆₀ : DPPC = 1 : 1 (n/n). The control samples (the addition of 0.5 mL of dH₂O) were prepared in order to exclude the possible effect of the addition of aqueous suspension to MLVs formed in Hepes buffer (as C₆₀ were suspended in dH₂O). For the comparison of C₆₀ characteristics in Hepes buffer, the hydrodynamic size of C₆₀ (10 mM Hepes buffer, pH 7.0; 0.5 mg/mL) was assessed. The final concentration of DPPC for the DSC measurement in all tested samples was 0.5 mg/mL.

In the direct exposure, where the criteria for a more direct contact between lipids and C₆₀ were met, both phospholipids and C₆₀, dissolved in CHCl₃, were mixed in a 1:1 molar ratio (C₆₀ : DPPC = 1 : 1; n/n; 2 mg/mL DPPC), and the mixture was applied in a round bottom flask for the thin film preparation. Then MLVs were formed following the same procedure as in the formation of control MLVs in Hepes buffer (10 mM, pH 7.0).

Differential scanning calorimetry measurements

In order to diminish the effect of possibly present air bubbles during the DSC measurements, the samples were first exposed to a low pressure atmosphere; the vacuum chamber was established using a vacuum pump (Thermolyne Nuova Stirrer, Thermo Scientific, USA). The phase transition temperature of the DPPC

MLVs in the absence (control samples) or in the presence of C₆₀ was measured using a Nano DS series III calorimeter (Calorimetry Sciences, Provo, UT, USA). The reference cell was filled with HEPES buffer (10 mM, pH 7.0). The samples loaded into the calorimetric cell were heated and cooled repeatedly in the temperature range of 10 °C to 70 °C, with the heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹. The phase transition temperatures were expressed on the basis of a measured energy input, required to maintain the same temperature of the reference and sample chamber. The first DSC scan was used to determine the temperature of the gel-to-liquid crystalline phase transition temperature (T_m) of the lipids and the calorimetric enthalpy (ΔH_{cal}), as explained previously (Poklar et al. 1999). The subsequent scans were used to determine the reversibility of the lipid-phase transitions. The OriginPro 9 software (OriginLab Corporation, MA, USA) was used to evaluate the enthalpies and transition temperatures of the lipids from the DSC thermograms. The thermograms were presented in the temperature range from 20 °C to 60 °C.

Experiments with red blood cells:

The alterations in morphology after the exposure to NM were assessed on the basis of our previously published study (Drasler et al. 2014), following the same protocol but with some minor changes. The alterations of the shapes of a red blood cell were assessed by the classification model consisting of the shape types of just two RBCs, i.e. discocytes and non-discoid shaped erythrocytes (Drasler et al. 2014; Rudenko 2010).

Chemicals

NaCl, NaH₂PO₄·2H₂O, Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O and Triton X 100 surfactant (OmniPur) from Merck KGaA (Darmstadt, Germany), KCl, and KH₂PO₄ from Kemika (Zagreb, Croatia). The phosphate buffered saline (PBS-citrate buffer; 137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 7.8 mM Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4) was prepared with the ultrapure distilled H₂O and filtered before use through 0.22 μm pore filters. A modified Karnovski fixative was prepared from 2.5 % glutaraldehyde, 0.4 % paraformaldehyde and 1M Na-phosphate buffer (NaH₂PO₄·2H₂O and Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O). Glutaraldehyde, osmium tetroxide (OsO₄) and hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS) were purchased from SPI Supplies (West Chester, PA, USA). The nanopowder of carbon black (CB; positive control; the primary particle average size of 13 nm and nominal purity > 99 %) was provided by PlasmaChem GmbH (Berlin, Germany).

Isolation of human red blood cells

Human blood was collected by a medial cubital vein puncture using a 21-gauge needle (length 70 mm, inner radius 0.4 mm) (Micro-lance, Becton Dickinson, NJ, USA) and stored in four 2.7 mL vacutubes containing 0.27 mL trisodium citrate (0.109 mol/L) as an anticoagulant. PBS-citrate buffer was used as the experimental medium in all experiments with RBCs in order to minimize a possible coagulation and a spontaneous deformation of RBCs throughout the experimental procedures. Blood was centrifuged for 20 minutes in a Centric 400R centrifuge (Domel d.o.o., Železniki, Slovenia) at 150 g and 37 °C to separate the RBCs from the platelet-rich plasma. The RBCs were repeatedly washed 3-times with PBS-citrate buffer, centrifuged at 1550 g and 37 °C for 10 minutes. After the final centrifugation, the excess supernatant was removed and the cells were kept at a room temperature (RT) for a maximum of 1 hour.

Exposure of RBCs to C₆₀

The washed RBCs were diluted with PBS-citrate buffer in a volume-to-volume ratio of 1 : 1 with the final concentration of $\sim 2 \times 10^9$ cells/mL. The samples (0.15 mL) were incubated for 1 hour at RT in suspensions of C₆₀ in PBS-citrate buffer (0.05 mL; the final concentration of C₆₀ was 0.5 mg/mL). The positive control samples were incubated with the same volume (0.05 mL) of CB-suspension in PBS-citrate buffer (pH 7.4; 0.05 mg/mL) and the negative control samples with PBS-citrate buffer (0.05 mL). Due to the experimental procedure (isolation and fixation) already a portion of RBCs exhibited a slightly altered morphology (Fig. 1a, b), though the majority of cells (more than 80 %) were dyscocytes (not affected). On the basis of the preliminary results (results not yet published), we used RBCs exposed to CB (nanopowder, size of primary particles ~ 13 nm) as a positive control to affect the shape transformation of RBCs (more than 20 % of the cells were affected). After the incubation, RBCs were fixed at RT for 2 hours using a modified Karnovsky fixative. The post-fixation of samples was undertaken with 1 % OsO₄. The samples were dehydrated and dried with HMDS; syringes were used to apply samples onto the membrane filters (Isopore Membrane Filters, polycarbonate, filter type 2.00 μ m TSTP; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). Filters with fixed, dried RBCs were attached to the aluminum holders with silver paint, sputtered with a 30 nm gold-palladium (Precision Etching Coating System Gatan 682, CA, USA), and examined with a field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEOL JSM-6500F, Tokyo, Japan). The Mann-Whitney test was used to assess the statistical significance of the non-discocyte portion of RBCs between the negative control samples and those exposed to C₆₀ or the positive control carbon NM (CB) with similar chemical composition to C₆₀.

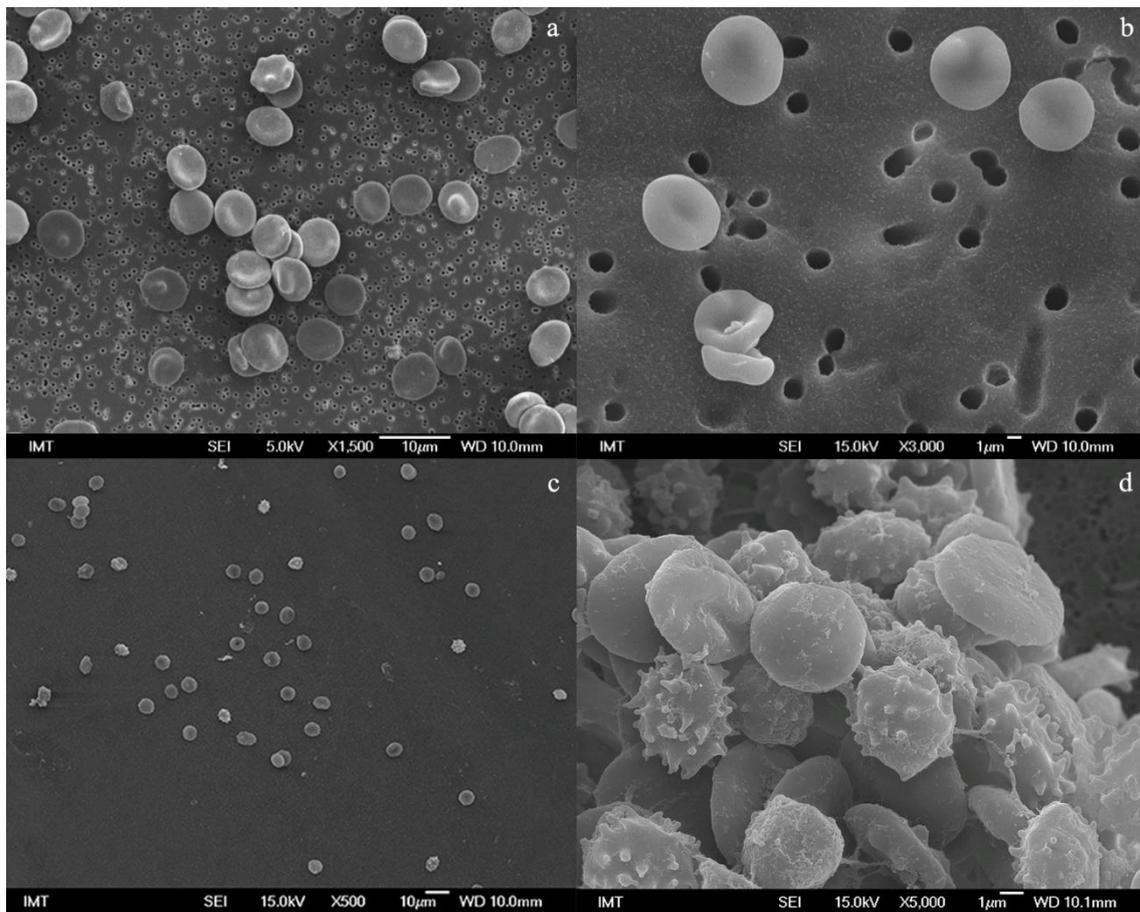


Fig. 1 Scanning electron microscopy image of a randomly chosen region on the scanning electron microscopy holder, on the negative control sample (*i. e.* human RBCs after 1 hour of incubation in PBS-citrate buffer, pH 7.4), at magnification (a) 1500x and (b) 3000x. The majority of red blood cells in the control group (more than 80 % of total) were non-discocytes (not affected). (c) Positive control sample (*i.e.* RBCs after 1 hour incubation in suspension of CB at concentration 0.05 mg/mL, at magnification of 500x, and (d) an example of echinocytes (RBCs with many small, evenly spaced thorny projections) at magnification 5000x. Abbreviations: IMT, Institute of Metals and Technology, Ljubljana, Slovenia; SEI, secondary electron imaging; WD, working distance

Results

Characteristics of C₆₀

The TEM images revealed that the size of the agglomerates of pristine C₆₀, suspended in dH₂O, was from approximately 20 nm to several hundred nm in diameter. The DLS measurements of C₆₀ suspension in dH₂O (pH 7.1; 0.01 mg/mL) showed a substantial agglomeration with the largest number of particles in the water suspension measuring approximately 80 nm in diameter, with some agglomerates from 100 to 600 nm in diameter also present. C₆₀ suspended in PBS-citrate buffer (pH 7.4; 0.5 mg/mL) and in 10 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0; 0.5 mg/mL) formed agglomerates larger than 1 μm, which sedimented quickly from the suspension. The DLS measurements of CB suspensions in PBS-citrate buffer (5 mg/mL) showed a relatively broad distribution of hydrodynamic size. The electromobility measurements showed relatively high negative ζ-potential values for C₆₀ suspensions; in dH₂O (pH 7.0; 0.1 mg/mL) -26 mV and in PBS-citrate buffer (pH 7.4; 0.1 mg/mL) -28 mV.

Effects of C₆₀ on the lipid phase transition profile

The comparison of the DSC thermograms of control DPPC and the C₆₀-exposed DPPC MLVs is shown in Fig. 2. The DPPC MLVs were either formed in the presence of C₆₀, dissolved in CHCl₃ (Fig. 2, dotted line), or incubated in an aqueous suspension of C₆₀ (Fig. 2, dashed line). All heating profiles presented with respect to the control sample (pure DPPC MLVs formed in HEPES buffer and diluted with dH₂O) are in good agreement with the reported characteristic values (T_p 35.7 ± 0.2 °C; T_m 41.5 ± 0.5 °C) (Lichtenberg et al. 1984; Boggs 1987; Riske et al. 2009). The thermodynamic profile (T_m and T_p) of the control and the DPPC MLVs exposed to C₆₀ is reported in Table 1.

Table 1 The thermodynamic profile (T_m and T_p) of the control and the DPPC MLVs exposed to C₆₀

MLV sample	T_p (°C) ^a	T_m (°C) ^a
DPPC control in dH ₂ O	36.2 ± 0.2	41.6 ± 0.1
DPPC C ₆₀ in dH ₂ O	35.3 ± 0.2	41.6 ± 0.1
DPPC C ₆₀ in CHCl ₃	34.0 ± 0.2	40.4 ± 0.1

Note: ^a T_m is the main phase transition temperature required to change the membrane lipids from a gel to a liquid crystalline phase, ^b T_p is the pre-transition temperature in which a flat membrane in the gel phase transforms into a periodically undulated bilayer (Riske et al. 2009). Abbreviations: MLV, multilamellar vesicles; DPPC, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine; dH₂O, deionized water; C₆₀, fullerenes C₆₀; CHCl₃, chloroform; T_p , pre-transition temperature; T_m , main phase transition temperature.

The incubation of the DPPC MLVs in the suspension of C₆₀ in dH₂O (C₆₀: DPPC=1 : 1, n/n; Fig. 2) did not induce any alterations in the position of the pre-transition or main transition temperature peak with respect to the control (Table 1). After the exposure to C₆₀ in CHCl₃ the main transition peak was broadened, decreased and shifted towards a lower temperature (from 41.6 °C to 40.4 °C), while the pre-transition peak was almost eliminated and shifted towards the lower one (36.2 °C to 34.0 °C).

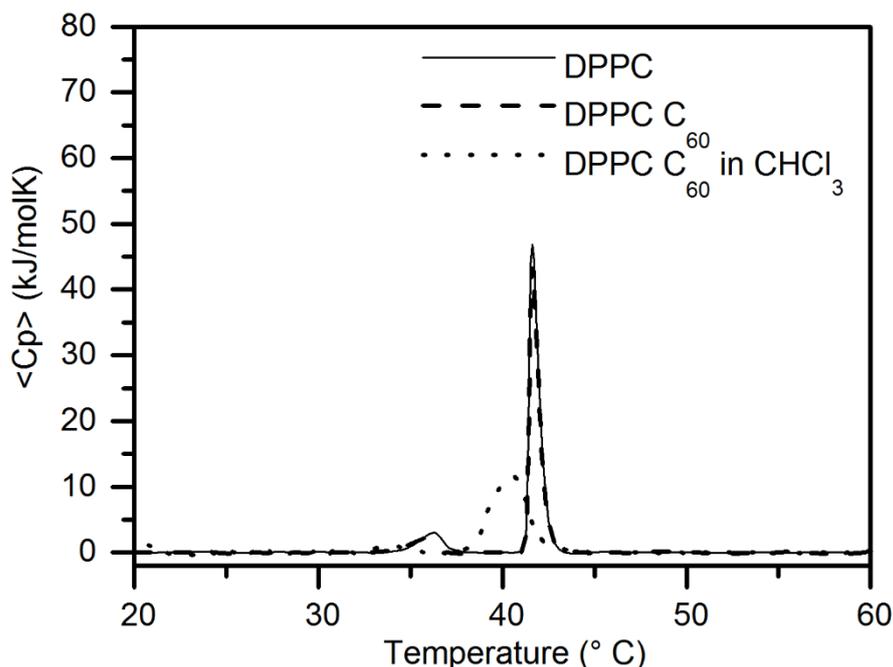


Fig. 2 DSC thermograms for pure DPPC (control MLVs, diluted with dH₂O; full line), DPPC MLVs incubated with the suspension of C₆₀ in dH₂O (dashed line) and DPPC MLVs formed in the presence of C₆₀ dissolved in CHCl₃ (dotted line)

Effect of C₆₀ on morphological changes of RBCs

The exposure of RBCs to C₆₀, suspended in PBS-citrate buffer (pH 7.4; final concentration 0.5 mg/mL), did not induce shape alterations of RBCs, compared to the negative control samples (in PBS-citrate buffer). For comparison, a portion of non-discoid RBCs was significantly higher (Mann-Whitney test, $\alpha = 0.05$; $p < 0.001$, ***) in the positive control samples, i.e. exposed to CB (in PBS-citrate buffer, pH 7.4; final concentration 0.5 mg/mL), as shown in Fig. 3.

Preferred location for Fig 3.

Fig. 3 The percentage of non-discocyte RBCs after the incubation (1 hour, 37 $^{\circ}$ C) in PBS-citrate buffer (negative control), in the suspension of C₆₀ in PBS-citrate buffer (0.5 mg/mL) or in the suspension of CB in PBS-citrate buffer (0.5 mg/mL; positive control). Each dot presents an analyzed location on the scanning electron microscopy holder. The y-axis presents the portion of non-discocyte shaped RBCs, analyzed on five SEM-holders per treatment; on each holder three locations were analyzed at the magnification of 500. In the negative control group, 1,797 RBCs were compared, 276 in the C₆₀ group, and 549 in the positive control samples. The small square in the center of the box plot represents the mean value, the central line is the median value, and the lower and upper lines of the box represent the 25th and 75th percentiles. The whiskers are set at two standard deviations from the mean value. The statistical difference in the portion of non-discocytes in the positive control RBCs compared to the negative control samples is marked with *** ($p < 0.001$; Mann-Whitney test, $\alpha = 0.05$)

Discussion

Recently, there have been numerous literature reports on the potential of fullerenes C_{60} to incorporate in the phospholipid bilayer or enter the cells *via* translocation through the cell membrane. In this study, we provide experimental evidence showing that the penetration of C_{60} through phospholipid bilayer significantly depends on the medium in which the NPs are suspended. The effect of C_{60} in physiological conditions might not be as prominent as expected (based on the computational studies or from the experiments in biologically non-relevant media). We observed the absence of interaction between C_{60} and artificial or biological membranes after the incubation of liposomes or RBCs in the aqueous suspension of C_{60} . In contrast, the phase transition pattern of DPPC lipids was significantly altered when phospholipids were exposed to C_{60} , both dissolved in the same organic solvent (chloroform).

Preferred location for Fig 4.

Fig. 4 Schematic presentation of the proposed mechanism of C_{60} -membrane interactions. Two experimental approaches were used: the artificial DPPC phospholipid vesicles were exposed to either C_{60} , dissolved in $CHCl_3$, followed by the formation of MLVs (left panel), or preformed phospholipid vesicles were incubated in a C_{60} aqueous suspension, where agglomerates of C_{60} were formed (middle panel). Similarly, human RBCs were incubated in the C_{60} aqueous suspension (right panel). The proposed mechanism of either intercalation of individual C_{60} in the bilayer is presented in the lower left panel). The attachment of C_{60} agglomerates, formed in the aqueous suspension, is presented in the right lower panel. Note: the software Adobe Photoshop Image 13 was used to create the artwork. The drawing of RBC was used with the Image courtesy of dream designs at FreeDigitalPhotos.net and of C_{60} with the Image courtesy of James Hedberg at www.jameshedberg.com licensed under <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/>, with changes: modified color

The interaction between C_{60} and artificial membranes was tested on phospholipid vesicles (liposomes), composed of 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine, and validated on isolated human red blood cells. We either incubated the liposomes in the aqueous suspension of C_{60} , or first dissolved both lipids and C_{60} in chloroform, and subsequently formatted the liposomes. For the purposes of the assessment of the effect of C_{60} on liposomes, the thermal profile (lipid behavior near the phase transition T) of phospholipids was assessed using differential scanning calorimetry. Alterations in the phase transition temperatures after exposure to C_{60} would signify that the presence of C_{60} affected the phospholipid bilayer, either by intercalation in the hydrophobic region of the membrane (phospholipid tails), or by its adsorption on the hydrophilic part of the bilayer. The phase transition temperature denotes the temperature (T_m) at which an alteration in the phase of membrane lipids occurs, from the ordered gel phase to the disordered liquid crystalline phase. In the gel phase, the hydrocarbon chains are completely extended and tightly packed, whereas they are loosely packed and more fluid in the liquid crystalline phase (Leonenko et al. 2004). To disrupt the packing order of the lipid chains by different molecules, less energy is required, leading to a decrease in T_m (Gmajner et al. 2011). We used two experimental approaches: (i) i.e. *indirect exposure*, where the phospholipid liposomes (formed in Hepes buffer beforehand) were incubated in the suspension of C_{60} (in dH_2O), and (ii) i.e. *direct exposure*, where liposomes were formed from lipids and C_{60} , both dissolved in chloroform. We have observed no alterations in the thermal stability of DPPC when the DPPC MLVs (Hepes buffer, pH 7.0) were incubated with the aqueous suspensions of C_{60} (in dH_2O ; $n(C_{60}) : n(DPPC) = 1 : 1$). Contrary to the observed absence of interaction of larger fullerene clusters with phospholipid membranes, the phenomenon of biological membranes promoting adsorption and subsequent

aggregation of suspended fullerenes has been proven; the formation of microsized fullerene clusters was observed not only inside the cells, but also inside cell membranes (Salonen et al. 2008). MD simulation results proposed the aggregation of fullerenes was mediated by van der Waals interactions between the exposed hydrophobic moieties of the C₇₀-gallic acid assemblies (Salonen et al. 2008). The absence of interactions of larger pristine C₆₀ clusters with pure phospholipid membranes could be explained by the different surface characteristics of fullerenes used in these two studies, though additional MD studies considering detailed characteristics of the C₆₀ clusters formed in the experimental buffer, would be required.

In contrast, with the experimental approach, where the MLVs were formed in the simultaneous presence of both DPPC lipids and C₆₀, dissolved in the same solvent (CHCl₃), we set up a non-physiological environment. The expression non-physiological environment signifies that the milieu does not completely meet the criteria for physiological conditions, for example, in terms of pH (6-8), glucose concentration (1-20 mM). Namely, the lipid membranes were exposed to fullerenes after complete dissolvability in the non-polar organic solvent (CHCl₃), a condition which does not occur in the human body under normal circumstances. Due to the proven high solubility of C₆₀ in the organic solvent (CHCl₃; (Ruoff et al. 1993)) we assumed C₆₀ molecules were (substantially) evenly dispersed among the phospholipids, therefore the direct contact of C₆₀ with DPPC was enabled prior to the formation of MLVs. We observed that the DPPC peak shapes and positions were affected, suggesting that the incorporation of C₆₀ into the bilayer affects the energy of packing of the DPPC lipids membranes. Namely, both the pre- and the main phase transition temperatures peaks shifted towards lower temperatures; the pre-transition peak was almost eliminated, while the main transition peak was lowered and broadened. Our results regarding C₆₀ dissolved in CHCl₃ are in line with the MD simulation studies on DPPC and C₆₀ reporting that the C₆₀ molecules alone or in clusters spontaneously translocate to the hydrophobic core of the membrane and stay inside the bilayer (Bozdaganyan et al. 2014; DeVane et al. 2010; Ikeda et al. 2011; Monticelli et al. 2009; Qiao et al. 2007; Rossi et al. 2013; Shinoda et al. 2012; Wong-Ekkabut et al. 2008). The incorporation of cluster of fullerenes inside the bilayer changes the properties of the bilayer and leads to its deformation (Rossi et al. 2013; Bozdaganyan et al. 2014). Furthermore, with this approach (C₆₀ in CHCl₃) we have also confirmed that liposomes can be successfully applied as solvents for C₆₀ which can serve as a delivering agent for fullerenes to cells, as introduced by the group of Ikeda et al. (Ikeda et al. 2011; Ikeda et al. 2012; Ikeda et al. 2005). When discussing physiological conditions for interactions between fullerenes and lipid membranes, other solvent for fullerenes could be used instead of the non-polar organic solvent (CHCl₃). For example, lipid membrane-incorporated fullerenes can be successfully achieved using cyclodextrines (applying exchange reaction method) (Ikeda et al. 2014). Moreover, partitioning of fullerenes inside the membranes has been supported also by molecular simulation (MD) simulation studies and solubility values of C₆₀ (Ruoff, 1993). From the thermodynamic point of view, it is favorable for fullerenes to partition into lipid membranes, as discussed by Wong-Ekkabut et al. (2008). They provide estimates on the free energy difference for fullerenes leaving a pure fullerene phase (*i.e.* large aggregate) and entering the hydrophobic lipid bilayer core. Even if our results show no interaction between aqueous solution of C₆₀ and lipid membranes due to large C₆₀ clusters formed in the suspension, this does not prove indisputably the absence of interactions between fullerenes and membranes within a different timescale (the DSC measurement was conducted after a 1 hour incubation of liposomes in the aqueous suspension of C₆₀.)

We explain that the observed absence of the effect *in vitro* (physiological conditions), *i.e.* the incubation of liposomes in the aqueous suspension of C₆₀ or the exposure of RBCs to C₆₀ in PBS-citrate buffer, might be due to their formation of large aggregates in polar media (Andrievsky et al. 1995; Fortner et al. 2005; Ruoff

et al. 1993; Spohn et al. 2009). The DLS measurements have shown the number distribution of C_{60} clusters in dH_2O to be around 80 nm in diameter, with larger agglomerates (600 to 800 nm) also present. Whereas in both buffers (Hepes and PBS-citrate buffer), representing physiological pH conditions, the major portion of C_{60} agglomerates, larger than 1 μm , could be observed. We explain that when larger agglomerates of C_{60} are formed in a more realistic biological environment (buffers), the number of available clusters or C_{60} agglomerates is reduced, in comparison to suspensions where less agglomeration takes place (e.g. already in dH_2O or in organic solvents, e.g. chloroform). In other words, where larger agglomerates of C_{60} are formed, less active particles are present for the interaction with the biological system, not only with lipids, but also with membrane proteins. In our previous study (Mesaric et al. 2013), we applied isolated model membrane proteins, acetylcholinesterase, and tested the enzyme activity in the presence of C_{60} or CB. In line with the observed effect on the shape alterations of RBCs, we observed a very high adsorption of CB on AChE and an inhibition of the enzyme function, whereas the effect of C_{60} on both parameters was almost negligible. We conclude that the effect of carbon NMs may depend on their different surface curvature and, subsequently, on their adsorption potential to interact with biological systems (Mesaric et al. 2013; Xia et al. 2011). The combination of the results of previous and present studies proposes that even though C_{60} did not incorporate in the phospholipid bilayer when liposomes were incubated in the aqueous suspension of C_{60} , under certain conditions, they may compromise the membrane integrity (heating above the T_m 41.6 °C of certain phospholipids). They might also affect membrane proteins and compromise the RBC membrane integrity as a consequence of the interaction with transmembrane Band-3 proteins, which are connected to cytoskeletal proteins, responsible for erythrocyte shape (Grebowski et al. 2013), though this was not showed in our study.

Along with the experimental conditions (buffers, media, concentration, exposure time, etc.), also the methodological approach is an important factor to be considered in the assessment of NM-membrane interactions. Zhang et al. (Zhang et al. 2013) reported on the structural damage of the human RBC membrane due to the infiltration of pristine C_{60} in the membranes, assessed by atomic force microscopy (AFM), although the morphology alterations of RBCs were not seen in the microscopy images. The AFM indentation results implied that the presence of C_{60} was able to weaken the cell membrane and make it more readily to be pierced, which directly evidences that C_{60} NPs have the ability to change the mechanical characteristics of the RBC membrane. Weakening the membranes of RBCs, caused by massive dosages of C_{60} , can compromise the RBC structure and functionality; similarly to the condition of malaria infection (Zhang et al. 2013). To summarize, we agree that the MD simulation studies are good predictors of NM-phospholipid interactions, thus the results should not be explained alone without bearing in mind their effect in biological (or at least near-physiological) conditions. On the other hand, the absence of the observed effect of NM in the near-physiological pH conditions does not signify with certainty that the tested material is completely inert towards the biological environment. Though it has been predicted that the first interactions of NM occur on cell membranes, the interaction with the lipid bilayer of the cell membrane is not always required for the interaction. For example, a possible attachment of single particles or their agglomerates to membrane proteins can compromise membrane integrity and thus can alter cell functionality. We have experimentally proven that the selected methodological approach needs to be carefully considered when interpreting the assessed effects of NM on biological systems.

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Research involving Human Participants

This study involved human subjects (RBCs) and was approved by the National Medical Ethics Committee of Slovenia, No. 117/02/10.

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