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Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology xxx (2011) xxx-xxx

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Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology





- In vitro toxicity testing of zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanines in fibroblast
- and keratinocyte cells for the treatment of melanoma cancer by photodynamic
- therapy
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ARTICLE INFO

- Article history:
- Received 5 October 2010
- 14 Received in revised form 17 December 2010
- 15 Accepted 21 January 2011
- 16 Available online xxxx
- 17 Keywords:
- 18 Photodynamic therapy
- 19 Zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanines
- 20 Melanoma cancer Phthalocyanines
- 21 22

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ABSTRACT

A series of water-soluble tetrasulfonated metallophthalocyanines (MPcs) dyes have been studied to be Q1 24 used as a drug or photosensitizer (PS) in photodynamic therapy (PDT) for the treatment of cancers. Dur-25 26 ing PDT the PS is administrated intravenously or topically to the patient before laser light at an appropriate wavelength is applied to the cancerous area to activate the PS. The activated PS will react with oxygen 27 28 typically present in the cancerous tissue to generate reactive oxygen species for the destruction of the 29 cancerous tissue. This in vitro study aimed at investigating the cytotoxic effects of different concentrations of zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanines (ZnTSPc) activated with a diode laser (λ = 672 nm) on melanoma, 30 31 keratinocyte and fibroblast cells. To perform this study 3×10^4 cells/ml were seeded in 24-well plates and allowed to attach overnight, after which cells were treated with different concentrations of ZnTSPc. After 32 2 h, cells were irradiated with a constant light dose of 4.5 J/cm². Post-irradiated cells were incubated for 33 24 h before cell viability was measured using the CellTiter-Blue Viability Assay. Data indicated high con-34 centrations of ZnTSPc (60-100 µg/ml) in its inactive state are cytotoxic to the melanoma cancer cells. 35 Also, results showed that photoactivated ZnTSPc (50 µg/ml) was able to reduce the cell viability of mel-36 anoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells to 61%, 81% and 83% respectively. At this photosensitizing con-37 centration the efficacy the treatment light dose of 4.5 J/cm² against other light doses of 2.5 J/cm², 7.5 J/ 38 39 cm^2 and 10 J/ cm^2 on the different cell lines were analyzed. ZnTSPc at a concentration of 50 μ g/ml acti-40 vated with a light dose of 4.5 J/cm² was the most efficient for the killing of melanoma cancer cells with reduced killing effects on healthy normal skin cells in comparison to the other treatment light doses. Mel-41 42 anoma cancer cells after PDT with a photosensitizing concentration of 50 µg/ml and a treatment light dose of 4.5 J/cm² showed certain apoptosis characteristics such as chromatin condensation and fragmen-43 44 tation of the nucleus. This concludes that low concentrations of ZnTSPc activated with the appropriate light dose can be used to induce cell death in melanoma cells with the occurrence of minimal damage 45 to surrounding healthy tissue. 46

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1. Introduction 50

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Cancer is one of the major health problems in South Africa. The Cancer Association of South Africa (CANSA) states: One in six South African men and one in seven South African women will get cancer during their lives [1]. South Africa has a high incidence for skin cancer because ambient ultraviolet radiation levels in South Africa are high throughout the year [2]. It appears that South Africa is among the top ten countries with high mortality rates for melanoma skin cancer. The other countries are New Zealand, Australia,

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Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Kazakhstan, Czech Republic and United States [3].

The standard oncology treatment for melanoma cancer is surgical excision (e.g. Moh's surgery) and adjuvant (after-surgery) treatment is sometimes offered to prevent recurrences of the cancer which solely depends on the stage of the melanoma cancer. The most common adjuvant cancer treatments are radiation therapy and chemotherapy [4]. These therapies are also used as a primary treatment when surgery is not feasible [4]. It is known that melanoma tends to resist radiation treatment so patients are given a radiation dose exceeding the healthy normal tissue tolerance [5,6]. While post-operative chemotherapy is associated with liver and kidney toxicity. It is also difficult to achieve adequate chemo-71 therapy drug concentrations in the areas which have reduced

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73 perfusion due to resecting [6]. The current available adjuvant treat-74 ment options for patients at high risk of recurrences of melanoma 75 cancer are High dose interferon (alfa, beta and gamma), Interleu-76 kin-2, Granulocytes-macrophage colony-stimulating factor and 77 Cancer vaccine therapy [7,8]. High doses of interferon are recom-78 mended for high-risk resected melanoma since low doses are inef-79 fective [7]. The major concern coupled with high doses of 80 interferon during therapy is toxicity. Whilst, there has been long-81 term complete remission of melanoma cancer with high doses of 82 interleukin-2 but the drawbacks of this treatment option are once 83 again toxicity and cost [7]. The adjuvant use of granulocytes-mac-84 rophage colony-stimulating factor has also a few adverse effects of mild toxicity, transient myalgias, patient feels weak, mild fatigue 85 and skin reactions (erythema) at the site of injection, but no detri-86 87 mental long-term health effects on the patients [7].

88 For, the cancer vaccine therapy a melanoma vaccine is required 89 containing antigens expressed by melanoma cells and not healthy 90 normal cells to stimulate the immune system to attack and destroy 91 the cancer cells [8]. Unfortunately, some melanoma antigens are 92 also shared by healthy normal cells known as melanoma associ-93 ated antigens (MAA) [9]. The cancer vaccines need to be made from 94 the patient's own cancer cells or from cells that are grown in a lab-95 oratory, and the treatment dosage depends on the type of cancer 96 being treated. However, there is limited availability of tumor cells 97 and sterile laboratories for vaccine preparations [9]. The possible 98 side effects of cancer vaccine therapy include skin reaction at the 99 site of the injection (rash) and mild flu-like symptoms [8].

100 A major obstacle to an effective treatment especially in the case 101 of cancer vaccines is tumor heterogeneity. Melanomas consist of 102 numerous cell populations with a variety of antigens and these 103 melanoma cells have the ability to secrete various cytokines and 104 growth factors [9]. Future primary and adjuvant cancer treatments 105 under investigation must address the heterogeneity of melanoma 106 cancer [9]. Therefore, the above mentioned cancer treatments still 107 needs considerable improvements due to the given record of toxic-108 ity, side effects and the need of high drug doses for therapeutic effi-109 cacy [10]

110 Photodynamic therapy (PDT) is a promising primary or adju-111 vant treatment for various cancers. It aims at offering a cancer 112 treatment which is selective and localized [11]. PDT is a process 113 that involves the laser activation of a drug/dye that is systemically 114 or topically administrated to the patient depending on the type of cancer or disease to be treated [11-13]. This inactive drug is 115 116 termed as a photosensitizer (PS) and absorbs light from a laser source at a specific excitation wavelength [11–13]. With absorp-117 118 tion of a photon from a laser source the PS molecule is excited or 119 activated. When the activated PS reacts with the molecular oxygen 120 present in biological tissue it leads to the generation of reactive 121 oxygen species (ROS) or singlet oxygen. ROS are beneficial as they 122 act as signalling molecules of central processes such as prolifera-123 tion, apoptosis (active or programmed cell death) and necrosis 124 (passive or accidental cell death). This makes PDT a potentially emerging therapeutic method of treatment for many cancers as it 125 can selectively cause the destruction of cancerous cells or tissue 126 127 via apoptosis or necrosis, provided that the appropriate PS concentration and light dose are administrated [11-13]. 128

129 In several countries, Photofrin[®] was the first photosensitizer to receive approval by governmental regulatory agencies for clinical 130 treatment of lung, oesophageal, bladder, cervical and gastric cancer 131 132 [11,14]. This first-generation photosensitizer achieved great clini-133 cal success in the field of PDT although it had some undesirable 134 characteristics. For example, it is a complex mixture. Secondly, 135 its absorption spectrum is around 630 nm and light at this wave-136 length penetrate tissue to a maximum depth of 5 mm. This proto-137 col is suitable for the treatment of superficial lesions while the 138 treatment of deep-seated or larger tumors require photosensitizers

that absorb light at longer wavelengths for greater tissue penetra-139 tion depth [14–17]. In addition, Photofrin[®] has proven to be inef-140 fective for certain cancers such as pigmented melanoma cancer 141 because the absorption spectra of Photofrin[®] and melanin in the 142 malignant tissue overlap [18]. Finally, Photofrin is associated with 143 the severe side effect of prolonged photosensitivity due to the fact 144 that this photosensitizer retains in cutaneous tissue for up to 145 10 weeks post-injection [18]. These undesirable characteristics of 146 Photofrin[®] led to the discovery of numerous pure compounds that 147 absorbs light at longer wavelengths and these compounds are 148 known as second-generation photosensitizers [17,18]. A promising 149 group of second-generation photosensitizers for PDT are phthalo-150 cyanines (Pcs). In general phthalocyanines exhibit effective tissue 151 penetration because their suitable light absorption region is be-152 tween 600 nm and 800 nm. On the contrary, most of these com-153 pounds visibly aggregate in solution making them insoluble in 154 water [18,19]. Recently, researchers have synthesized effective 155 water-soluble phthalocyanines by incorporating tetra sulfonato 156 groups into the compound. This helped in producing tetrasulfopht-157 halocyanines that will not aggregate in blood (water-based med-158 ium) when administrated intravenously to patients during PDT. 159 Thus, allowing the photosensitizer to effectively accumulate in 160 the tumor. Tetrasulfophthalocyanines can be further modified to 161 enhance its photodynamic action. By adding central metal ions 162 (Al³⁺, Zn²⁺, Ga³⁺) to the tetrasulfophthalocyanines compound the 163 important photophysical properties such as high triplet quantum 164 yield and long life-time are increased for this excited photosensi-165 tizer during PDT [18–20]. Most importantly, the metals (e.g. zinc) 166 used for medical applications such as PDT should be biocompatible 167 and diamagnetic [21]. These are essential properties a photosensi-168 tizer should possess as they are required for the production of sin-169 glet oxygen, which is regarded as the cytoxic species in PDT [22]. 170

The rationale for this study is that research on the photody-171 namic effect of ZnTSPc (synthesized by Professor Nyokong from 172 Rhodes University, South Africa) on melanoma cancer cells, healthy 173 normal skin fibroblast and keratinocytes have not been studied 174 previously. However, recent reports have demonstrated the photo-175 dynamic effectiveness of a different photosensitizer namely hyper-176 icin on melanoma cells and healthy normal skin cells [23]. This 177 study was based on the three main objectives. Firstly, to determine 178 the optimum concentration of ZnTSPc activated with a continuous 179 wave laser (CW) at a wavelength of 672 nm to kill approximately 180 50% of melanoma cancer cells with minimal toxicity in healthy 181 normal fibroblast and keratinocyte cells. Since, toxicity and distri-182 bution of photosensitizers in cancerous tissue as well as adjacent 183 healthy normal tissue are some of the major concerns associated 184 with the ideal photosensitizer concentration to be administrated 185 during PDT treatment. Secondly, to compare the efficacy of the 186 treatment light dose of 4.5 J/cm² and exposure time of the CW laser 187 by photosensitizing the melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte 188 cells with the optimal ZnTSPc concentration, and exposing the cells 189 to other light doses. Lastly, to evaluate the mechanism of cell death 190 by the optimal photoactivated ZnTSPc concentration using mela-191 noma cancer cells. 192

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Toxicity screening of ZnTSPc

2.1.1. Cell culture

Melanoma cancer cells (UACC62; Human malignant melanoma from NCI) were grown in RPMI-1640 medium (Lonza, Walkersville, USA) supplemented with 10% Foetal Bovine Serum (FBS; Gibco – Invitrogen), 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (Lonza, Walkersville, USA) and 1% Non-essential amino acids (NEAA; Sigma, St. Louis, USA). 200

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201 Immortalized epidermal keratinocyte cells were kindly provided 202 by Dr. Lester Davids from University of Cape Town and these cells 203 were grown in Eagles Minimum Essential Media (EMEM - Lonza, 204 Walkersville, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% Penicillin/ 205 Streptomycin. Primary skin dermal fibroblast cells were isolated 206 from human skin biopsies acquired from patients at the University 207 of Limpopo under ethical approval (MREC/M/63/2009: IR) and the isolated fibroblast cells were grown in Fibroblast Basal Medium 208 (Lonza, Walkersville, USA). Each cell line was maintained at 37 °C 209 in a 5% CO₂ incubator 80% confluent cells were seeded in 24-well 210 plates at a cell density of 3×10^4 cells/ml. Cells were allowed to at-211 tach overnight at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. 212

213 2.1.2. Preparation of photosensitizer

214 The zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanines were synthesized using 215 known methods [24]. A stock solution of ZnTSPc (100 µg/ml) was 216 prepared in either RPMI-1640 medium without L-Glutamine, Fibro-217 blast Basal or EMEM medium depending on whether melanoma 218 cells, fibroblast cells or keratinocyte cells were to be treated accordingly. This stock solution was further diluted to attain con-219 220 centrations of the PS in range of 10 µg/ml-100 µg/ml. The PS was prepared under light-restricted conditions. 221

222 2.1.3. Addition of photosensitizer to cells

223 After 24 h of cell growth the culture medium from each well 224 was removed and the cells were washed twice with Phosphate Buf-225 fered Saline (PBS: Sigma, St. Louise, USA). The PS solutions (1 ml) of 226 each dilution were added to the cells. Cells containing no PS and no 227 laser irradiation were used as a control (untreated cells) during 228 each set of experiments. Also, a negative control (medium only) 229 was set-up. Each concentration was tested in triplicate. The plates were wrapped in aluminum foil and incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ 230 231 incubator for 2 h. Preliminary experiments were conducted with photosensitization incubation times of 2 h, 4 h, 18 h and 24 h. 232 233 The 4 h, 18 h and 24 h incubation periods were potentially cytotoxicity to the cells without laser activation. 234

A dark toxicity study was conducted simultaneously to deter-235 mine if ZnTSPc in its inactive state (without any laser irradiation) 236 237 has cytotoxic effects on the melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte 238 cells.

239 2.1.4. Irradiation

After 2 h, each well was irradiated with a red light diode laser 240 (CW) emitting a wavelength at 672 nm. The output power of the 241 laser varied for each experiment and the beam was measured 242 243 using a power meter (Nova, Ophir) for each experiment. The output power was between 20 and 30 mW and the irradiation time (s) was 244 calculated to deliver a light dose of 4.5 J/cm². A beam of 1 cm in 245 diameter was used to deliver a light dose of 4.5 J/cm² to the cells. 246 After irradiation the plates were incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 247 24 h before cell viability was measured using the CellTiter-Blue® 248 249 Viability Assay. The EC₅₀ (effective concentration that reduced cell 250 viability to ±50%) graph was constructed by calculating the cell viability (CV) percentage (%) using the data from the CellTiter-Blue As-251 say and the following equation: 252 253

$$\left(\frac{\text{Fluorescence Signal}_{\text{Sample}} - \text{Fluorescence Signal}_{\text{Media}}}{\text{Fluorescence Signal}_{\text{Untreated Cells}} - \text{Fluorescence Signal}_{\text{Media}}} \right) \times 100$$
(1)

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256 2.1.5. Controls 257 A negative control containing culture media (without cells) was 258 used for each set of experiments to detect for background fluores-259 cence signals that contribute to the fluorescence signal readings of 260 the PDT treated samples. The untreated cells contained 0 µg/ml of the PS and were not irradiated. This control would be an indication of the amount of viable cells present before PDT treatment. Cells (in the absence of photosensitizer) exposed to the laser served as 263 another control (laser control) and this control was compared to 264 the untreated cells to rule out the possibility that the laser in the absence of the PS is responsible for the decrease in cell viability of the PDT treated cells. The laser control and untreated control were also used to indicate the uptake of the photosensitizer (dye) by cells by comparing them to the photosensitizered cells and PDT treated cells under an inverted microscope.

2.2. Determining the effective treatment light dose

The optimal concentration of ZnTSPc (50 µg/ml) was prepared 272 using RPMI-1640 medium, Fibroblast Basal or EMEM medium for 273 treating melanoma, fibroblast or keratinocyte cells accordingly. 274 The cells were grown in 24-well plates and washed with PBS as de-275 scribed previously. Cells were photosensitized with ZnTSPc for 2 h 276 before cells were irradiated with a diode laser emitting a wave-277 length of 672 nm. The output power of the laser varied between 278 20 and 30 mW and the irradiation time was calculated to deliver 279 light doses of 2.5 J/cm², 7.5 J/cm² or 10.5 J/cm². An additional set 280 of controls were prepared for each treatment light dose experi-281 ment, control cells that were irradiated in the absence of the pho-282 tosensitizer. After irradiation the plates were placed at 37 °C in a 283 5% CO₂ incubator for 24 h before cell viability was measured using 284 the **CellTiter-Blue**[®] Viability Assay. 285

2.3. Cell death mechanism induced by photoactivated 286 ZnTSPc – transmission electron microscopy (TEM) 287

Melanoma cancer cells were grown in T-25 culture flask con-288 taining 5 ml of RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 289 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin and 1% NEAA. 80% confluent cells were 290 washed with PBS before photosensitization with ZnTSPc (50 μ g/ 291 ml). A flask of untreated cells were prepared simultaneously. After 292 2 h, the ZnTSPc treated flask was irradiated with diode laser emit-293 ting a wavelength of 672 nm. The output power of the CW laser 294 was 28.71 mW and the output power was measured using a power 295 meter (Nova, Ophir). A beam of 1.5 cm in diameter was used to de-296 liver light doses of 4.5 J/cm² in 4 min 38 s. After irradiation the 297 flasks were incubated at 37 °C in a 5% CO2 incubator for 24 h. Sam-298 ples were processed for TEM by detaching cells from the flask with 299 a cell scraper and centrifuging at 1000 rpm for 5 min. The pellet for 300 each sample was sealed in microcapillary tubes before placing 301 them into gold coated chambers. Then samples were immediately 302 loaded on a high pressure freezing device (EMPACT 2, Leica). Fixed 303 samples were embedded in resin before thin sections were cut to 304 be placed onto copper grids. The sections were stained with uranyl 305 acetate and lead citrate Post-stained copper grids were examined 306 using a JEOL 2100F (200 kW) TEM and digital images were cap-307 tured for examination. 308

3. Results

3.1. Dark toxicity assay – photosensitization of cells with no light activation

In Fig. 1 the cell viability percentage for each cell line photosen-312 sitized with the different concentrations of ZnTSPc was calculated 313 using a negative control (background fluorescence that may be 314 present in fluorescence signal readings of the samples) and the un-315 treated cells. There is a significant difference (Fig. 1; P < 0.001) in 316 the cell viability of melanoma cancer cells, healthy normal fibro-317 blast and keratinocyte cells photosensitized with ZnTSPc under 318

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Fig. 1. Changes in the cell viability (%) of melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells photosensitized with different concentrations of ZnTSPc without laser treatment. Cell viability was measured using the CellTiter-Blue[®] Viability Assay and original cell viability is expressed as a percentage of the untreated cells. Data points represent the mean ± standard deviation, n = 3.

experimental conditions in the absence of light activation. High
concentrations of ZnTSPc (without laser activation) such as
60 µg/ml, 70 µg/ml and 100 µg/ml were able to reduce the cell viability of melanoma cancer cells to 75%, 62% and 55% respectively.
Negligible cytotoxicity was observed in fibroblast and keratinocyte
cells photosensitized with the different concentrations of ZnTSPc.

325 3.2. Toxicity screening of ZnTSPc with laser activation

326 Results in this experiment indicate activated ZnTSPc with a 327 light dose of 4.5 J/cm² can effectively kill melanoma cancer cells 328 as illustrated in Fig. 2. It is significantly evident that ZnTSPc in its 329 activated state was more successful in reducing the cell viability 330 of melanoma cancer cells than ZnTSPc photosensitization without 331 laser activation (P < 0.001). PDT is shown to be a concentration-332 dependent treatment because as the ZnTSPc concentration increased the cell viability of each cell line proportionally decreased 333 as illustrated in Fig. 2. Results also clearly show that melanoma 334 335 cancer cells photosensitized with a ZnTSPc concentration of

> 100 90 Cell Viability (% 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 ZnTSPc Concentration (µg/ml)



 $60 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$, $70 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$ and $100 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$ in combination with a laser 336 light dose of 4.5 I/cm^2 at a wavelength of 672 nm was able to de-337 crease cell viability of melanoma cancer cells to 55%, 50% and 3% 338 respectively. For this study, ZnTSPc used at a concentration of 339 50 µg/ml was chosen to be optimum concentration although it re-340 duced the cell viability of melanoma cancer cells to 61% and not 341 50% because the dark toxicity associated with high concentrations 342 of ZnTSPc ($60-100 \mu g/ml$) which was seen in Fig. 1 was taken into 343 consideration. 344

In the case of fibroblast cells treated with photoactivated ZnTSPc concentrations of $50 \mu g/ml$, $60 \mu g/ml$, $70 \mu g/ml$ and $100 \mu g/ml$ there was accordingly a 81.32%, 79.32%, 61.57% and 43.46% cell viability. For keratinocyte cells treated with photoactivated ZnTSPc at concentrations of $50 \mu g/ml$, $60 \mu g/ml$, $70 \mu g/ml$ and $100 \mu g/ml$ the cell viability was 83.32%, 72.23%, 72.05% and 62.68% respectively.

The post-irradiated melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells that were not exposed to the photosensitizer but treated with the laser (laser control) showed an average cell viability of 96% when compared to the untreated cells and this helped to exclude the possibility that the laser was responsible for the decrease in cell viability without the photosensitizer.

3.3. Treatment light dose study

Fig. 3 shows the effect of different light doses $(2.5 \text{ J/cm}^2, 4.5 \text{ J/})$ 359 cm², 7.5 J/cm² and 10.5 J/cm²) delivered from a CW laser at a wave-360 length of 672 nm on the cell viability of melanoma cancer cells and 361 healthy normal cells (fibroblast and keratinocyte cells) photosensi-362 tized with ZnTSPc (50 µg/ml). The greatest reduction in cell viabil-363 ity of melanoma cells was achieved by exposure of photosensitized 364 melanoma cells to a light dose of 4.5 J/cm². It was observed that the 365 photoactivation of fibroblast cells treated with 50 μ g/ml of ZnTSPc, 366 with a treatment dose of 2.5 J/cm² killed less healthy normal fibro-367 blast cells in comparison to a light dose of 4.5 J/cm². Thereafter, the 368 cell viability of fibroblast cells decreased as the treatment light 369 dose increased. The cell viability of the post-irradiated keratino-370 cyte cells indicated that a treatment light dose of 2.5 J/cm² killed 371 more keratinocyte cells in comparison to a treatment light dose 372 of 4.5 J/cm². A further decrease in cell viability with a treatment 373 light dose of 7.5 J/cm² was observed. There was a slight increase 374 in cell viability with a treatment light dose of 10.5 J/cm² in com-375 376 parison to treatment light doses of 4.5 J/cm² and 7.5 J/cm².



Fig. 3. The graph comparing the cell viability (%) of melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells treated with the optimal ZnTSPc concentration (50 μ g/ml) and a treatment light dose of 4.5 J/cm² to other treatment light doses of 2.5 J/cm², 7.5 J/ cm² and 10.5 J/cm². Data points represent the mean ± standard deviation, *n* = 3.

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377 3.4. Cell death mechanism: TEM

378 A representative TEM micrograph of an untreated melanoma 379 cancer cell with an intact plasma membrane and nucleus is seen in Fig. 4. The treated melanoma cancer cell which was photosensi-380 tized with 50 µg/ml of ZnTSPc and exposed to laser light from CW 381 diode laser (Fig. 5) shown characteristics of apoptosis such as nu-382 cleus fragmentation and chromatin condensation. Also, Fig. 6 383 shows a disintegrated nucleus and chromatin condensation from 384 a melanoma cancer cell after PDT treatment. At higher magnifica-385 tion super aggregation of the cells chromatin can be seen in the 386 387 PDT treated melanoma cancer cells (Fig. 7).

4. Discussion 388

This study demonstrates that photosensitization using ZnTSPc 389 390 following PDT is able to kill melanoma cancer cells using an in vitro system, and confirms a similar study demonstrating that 391 these metallophthalocyanines synthesized at Rhodes University 392 393 are effective in killing human oesophageal carcinoma cells



Fig. 4. A TEM micrograph at a magnification of 12,000× showing an intact nucleus bounded by a nuclear membrane and intact plasma membrane (PM) of an untreated melanoma cancer cell.

[25,26]. In addition, this study demonstrated that death occurs by an apoptotic mechanism.

The dark toxicity studies indicated that high concentrations of ZnTSPc ranging from 60 µg/ml to 100 µg/ml exhibit cytotoxic effects on melanoma cancer cells without laser light activation. In the case of fibroblast and keratinocyte cells photosensitized with ZnTSPc an insignificant decrease in cell viability was revealed when compared with the control (untreated cells). The amount of photosensitizer accumulated in melanoma cancer cells must have be greater than that accumulated in fibroblast and keratinocyte cells for the photosensitizer to kill the melanoma cancer cells without laser activation, especially when higher concentrations of the photosensitizer were used. The use of ZnTSPc at low concentrations could be the solution to minimize or eradicate any dark toxicity that can be caused by the PS in its inactive state before light activation to cancerous and healthy surrounding tissues. Also, the incubation time with ZnTSPc before light activation or irradiation was 2 h in this experiment and this incubation time can be decreased to minimize the effect of dark toxicity on cells.



Fig. 6. A TEM micrograph at a magnification of 10,000× showing the disintegration of the nucleus and chromatin condensation from a melanoma cancer cell after PDT treatment with ZnTSPc at a photosensitizing concentration of 50 µg/ml and a light dose of 4.5 J/cm².



Fig. 5. A TEM micrograph at a magnification of $12,000 \times$ showing the condensed chromatin and fragmentation of the nucleus of a PDT treated melanoma cancer cell with ZnTSPc at a photosensitizing concentration of 50 µg/ml and a light dose of 4.5 J/cm²



Fig. 7. A TEM micrograph at a magnification of $20,000 \times$ showing the aggregation of chromatin from a melanoma cancer cell exposed to ZnTSPc at a photosensitizing concentration of 50 µg/ml and a light dose of 4.5 J/cm².

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The exposure of photosensitized melanoma cancer cells to red light from continuous irradiation at a wavelength of 672 nm re-414 415 sulted in a further decrease in cell viability for each of the different 416 PS concentrations in comparison to the dark toxicity data [27]. For 417 effective PDT treatment the photosensitizer in combination with 418 laser light is necessary. Results demonstrated that as the ZnTSPc 419 concentration increased the cell viability of melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells proportionally decreased. For this study, 420 the use of 50 μ g/ml of ZnTSPc in combination with a laser light 421 dose of 4.5 J/cm² at a wavelength of 672 nm are optimum condi-422 tions for the effective killing of melanoma cancer cells. The dark 423 424 toxicity results and the adverse killing effects on normal healthy cells after PDT treatment for each of the different ZnTSPc concen-425 trations were taken into consideration before regarding the ZnTSPc 426 427 of concentration 50 μ g/ml the EC₅₀ value or the optimal photosen-428 sitizing concentration for this in vitro study. 429

Statistically, in this study there is a significant difference in the cell viability between absence of laser activation and laser activation for each cell line photosensitized with ZnTSPc, (P < 0.0001) and adjusted for all variables. It is more likely that melanoma cells (P = 0.0016), fibroblast cells (P < 0.0001) or keratinocyte cells (P < 0.0001) would be killed with laser exposure than without laser exposure.

The PDT effect at the tumor site depends on the PS concentra-436 437 tion and the radiant energy density at the site which together 438 determines the energy absorbed per unit volume at the target site. 439 Knowledge of light dose and PS concentrations is therefore essential for the safe and effective treatment. Therefore, the influence of 440 different light doses (2.5 J/cm², 7.5 J/cm² and 10.5 J/cm²) on the cell 441 442 viability of melanoma, fibroblast and keratinocyte cells photosensitized with the optimum ZnTSPc concentration was evaluated 443 444 during the light dose study. It was noted that the optimum ZnTSPc $(50 \,\mu\text{g/ml})$ concentrations and the light dose of 4.5 J/cm² was the 445 446 most lethal for the melanoma cancer cells in comparison to the 447 other light doses (2.5 J/cm², 7.5 J/cm² and 10.5 J/cm²). The cell via-448 bility of healthy normal fibroblast cells photosensitized with 449 ZnTSPc (50 µg/ml) decreased with the increase in light dose. Kerat-450 inocyte cells photosensitized with ZnTSPc (50 µg/ml) showed the highest cell viability with the light dose of 2.5 J/cm^2 and 4.5 J/451 452 cm^2 . This indicates that the low light doses of 2.5 J/ cm^2 and 4.5 J/ cm² using the output power between 20 and 30 mW would be a 453 better combination with the optimum PS concentrations than 454 7.5 J/cm^2 and 10.5 J/cm^2 for the killing of melanoma cancer cells. 455

456 During this study the light doses 7.5 I/cm^2 and 10.5 I/cm^2 with the output power between 20 and 30 mW required irradiation 457 458 times in range of 3–7 min. Many photosensitizers can undergo a 459 process called photobleaching (photodegradation) during 460 prolonged irradiation. Photobleaching or photodegradation is the 461 degradation of the photosensitizer for the production of photo-462 products by specific photochemical reactions. Studies have shown 463 that second-generation photosensitizers (e.g. Foscan[®]) can be more readily bleached than first-generation photosensitizers (e.g. Photo-464 frin) [15,28,29]. Patients treated with Foscan[®] demonstrated that 465 75% of the photosensitizer in the tumor is bleached at the end of 466 467 an irradiation light dose treatment with only 10 J/cm². Photobleaching has its advantages of theoretically helping to increase the 468 469 therapeutic effects of PDT providing that the photosensitizer levels are higher in the tumors than surrounding healthy tissue 470 471 [15,28,29].

In this study, the possibility of the photosensitizer (ZnTSPc) 472 photodegrading with the irradiation times associated with the 473 light doses of 7.5 J/cm² and 10.5 J/cm² could be the reason for 474 the ineffective killing of the melanoma cancer cells. Unfortunately, 475 476 healthy normal fibroblast and keratinocyte cells were not affected 477 by PS degradation during long irradiation times because as the 478 light dose increased cell viability decreased in most cases. There-

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fore, the most effective light dose would be 4.5 J/cm^2 for the killing of most of the melanoma cancer cells while sparing most of the healthy normal fibroblast and keratinocyte cells.

Lastly, ultrastructural features of apoptosis were clearly identi-482 fied in post-irradiated melanoma cancer cells treated with ZnTSPc 483 after 24 h. Chromatin condensation (Figs. 5 and 6), nucleus frag-484 mentation (Fig. 5), nucleus disintegration (Fig. 6) and chromatin 485 aggregation (Fig. 7) are detectable morphological changes of late 486 apoptosis. The TEM can also provide some information on the nat-487 ure of the biochemical pathways because the morphological or 488 ultrastructural changes in apoptotic cells are initiated by certain 489 specific apoptosis proteins or factors [30,31]. For example, the 490 TEM image in Fig. 6 shows characteristics of caspase-independent 491 apoptosis, namely lumpy incomplete chromatin (electron dense 492 regions or matter) condensation and disintegrated nucleus with 493 tightly packed partially condensed micronuclei [30-33]. Parallel 494 DNA fragmentation and morphological studies were conducted, 495 which reported that apoptosis was induced in melanoma cancer 496 cells after PDT treatment with ZnTSPc [34]. 497

5. Conclusion

This in vitro study has shown that ZnTSPc mediated photody-499 namic therapy is an effective treatment option for melanoma can-500 cer. 50 μ g/ml of ZnTSPc with the treatment light dose of 4.5 J/cm² 501 from a CW diode laser source with a wavelength of 672 nm was 502 adequate to destroy melanoma cancer cells via apoptosis with 503 low killing effects on healthy normal skin cells. There are still sev-504 eral questions on the detailed effects of photobleaching that still 505 needs to be answered in order to understand its role in PDT. PDT 506 as a primary treatment and an adjuvant therapy with either sur-507 gery or other treatment modalities for melanoma cancer needs to 508 be further investigated in a clinical setting. 509

6. Abbreviations

ZnTSPc	zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanine	51
PDT	Photodynamic therapy	512
PS	photosensitizer	513
Pcs	phthalocyanines	514
CW	continuous wave	51
		518

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr Lester Davids (Department 521 of Human Biology, University of Cape Town) for the keratinocytes, 522 Natasha Kolesnikova (Biosciences, CSIR) for the melanoma cancer 523 cells and Dr Alan Hall (Laboratory for microscopy and microanaly-524 sis, University of Pretoria) for your assistance with the Transmis-525 sion Electron Microscopy. 526

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Please cite this article in press as: K. Maduray et al., In vitro toxicity testing of zinc tetrasulfophthalocyanines in fibroblast and keratinocyte cells for the treatment of melanoma cancer by photodynamic therapy, J. Photochem. Photobiol. B: Biol. (2011), doi:10.1016/j.jphotobiol.2011.01.020

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