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Impact of dynamic sub-populations within grafted chains on the protein binding and colloidal stability of PEGylated nanoparticles†

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Polyethylene glycol grafting has played a central role in preparing the surfaces of nano-probes for biological interaction, to extend blood circulation times and to modulate protein recognition and cellular uptake. However, the role of PEG graft dynamics and conformation in determining surface recognition processes is poorly understood primarily due to the absence of a microscopic picture of the surface presentation of the polymer. Here a detailed NMR analysis reveals three types of dynamic ethylene glycol units on PEG-grafted SiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) of the type commonly evaluated as long-circulating theranostic nano-probes; a narrow fraction with fast dynamics associated with the chain ends; a broadened fraction spectrally overlapped with the former arising from those parts of the chain experiencing some dynamic restriction; and a fraction too broad to be observed in the spectrum arising from units closer to the surface/graft which undergo slow motion on the NMR timescale. We demonstrate that ethylene glycol units transition between fractions as a function of temperature, core size, PEG chain length and surface coverage and demonstrate how this distribution affects colloidal stability and protein uptake. The implications of the findings for biological application of grafted nanoparticles are discussed in the context of accepted models for surface ligand conformation.

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Introduction

The widespread application of hydrophilic polymer surface coatings, such as polyethylene glycol (PEG), on medical device surfaces, bionanostructures, and biomolecular medicines has been viewed primarily as a practical means to mitigate a broad range of undesirable biological responses to foreign bodies.^{1–11} PEG is believed to present a stable hydrogen-bonded hydration layer which, combined with the configurational entropy derived from the flexible chains, inhibits protein adsorption, as well as screening antigenic epitopes (that might be caught up in the interface layer) from immunological processing.^{5,12} Beneficial effects, such as the prolongation of bloodstream circulation and reduced probability

of implant rejection, were conceived to derive from a reduction in the degree of non-specific biomolecular binding and few attempts were made to uncover the detailed mechanisms involved beyond that.^{7,13–18}

Several significant changes in thinking have emerged recently. Firstly scientific developments now suggest that biological recognition of nanoscale surfaces entails levels of complexity and subtlety not previously recognised. For example, the identity of the protein corona may influence drug release profiles.¹⁹ Blood circulation times may require the recognition of specific proteins or protein motifs on the particle surface.²⁰ Conversely other proteins may lead to a lower probability of recognition and longer nanoparticle (NP) circulation times *in vivo*.⁵ The complexity is well described in the work of Cai *et al.*, where the authors suggest that “appropriate surface ligands with reduced protein binding and desired long blood circulation time could be predicted from acquired corona composition”.²¹

The growing set of methodologies available to study these phenomena at the molecular level has enabled deeper understanding of surface effects.^{5,19,20,22–25} For example, new NMR tools have enabled more detailed analysis of the particle surface and its interactions with low affinity proteins.^{3,26–28} There have also been several observations, discussed below,

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that cast a new light on previous understanding.^{3–5,29–32} In particular, questions about how interactions with environmental molecules are influenced by the ligand coverage (surface density) and conformation have been raised.

The original paradigm of nanoscale biomolecular recognition that was framed around the ‘biomolecular corona’²⁴ may be briefly summarised as follows. Those environmentally derived biomolecules presented ‘accessibly’^{22,23} on the nanoparticle surface with residence times exceeding a critical ‘processing time’ are deemed to be involved in biological recognition and processing and termed ‘hard corona’, whereas those that exchange faster are termed ‘soft corona’ and while they affect physicochemical aspects of the material they are unlikely to contribute directly to recognition. This conception while in broad terms being verified across many fields, has mainly been considered for conventional strongly adsorbing nanostructures³³ where the separation of timescales between the strongly adsorbed hard corona and loosely associated soft corona is great. In the present case of PEG layers, the application of these fundamental ideas is more nuanced. For instance, while it is evident that the ‘steady state amount’ of exchanging biomolecules in the polymeric layer could affect gross issues, such as circulation time, the modern focus derives from the certain realisation that PEG layers *in situ* are biologically recognised, and the strong suspicion that the very small amounts of biomolecule implicated in the layer are critical to that mechanism.^{3,5} Thus a major interest now is in understanding how (in the above context) those small amounts of biomolecules are presented in the low binding layer and the underlying layer where exchange times are moderate.²⁶ It is clear that these issues cannot be fully clarified without a detailed molecular understanding of the structure and dynamics of tethered low binding affinity surfaces, such as PEG ligand layers.

PEG layers on flat surfaces have been extensively studied using techniques such as QCM,³⁴ surface force apparatus^{35–37} and atomic force microscopy,³⁸ revealing that PEG coverage largely determines surface properties such as surface friction and protein binding.^{12,39} It is suggested that these responses are primarily determined by ligand conformation and solvent-layer interactions.^{12,40} While those methods are not feasible for studying particle dispersions, other evidence, including protein binding and cell response studies, points to significant influence of ligands on nanoparticle responses.^{3,41–43}

In particular ¹H NMR has previously been used,^{42,44–46} in conjunction with other methods,⁴⁷ to study ligand grafts on dispersed nanoparticles. However, the majority of studies are for small particles (<20 nm) and small molecules (<1000 Da). In these cases, the observed NMR signal broadening arises from: (i) the presence of multiple environments (usually due to different adsorption sites)^{48–51} and (ii) magnetic susceptibility effects, both of which generate heterogeneous broadening. In addition there can be effects due to: (iii) ligand exchange; (iv) residual dipolar interactions; and (v) particle–ligand electronic interactions, usually resulting in homogeneous broadening.^{48,52} In cases where these interactions dominate

the resonances are not detectable by conventional high resolution NMR, and specialized magic angle spinning techniques are required.⁴⁴ ¹H MAS NMR spectroscopy⁵³ has been used for qualitative identification of species present on 5 nm Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles.⁴⁴ ³¹P CP-MAS NMR was used to identify multiple surface binding sites for 1.8 nm triphenylphosphine stabilized Au nanoparticles,⁵⁴ which were shown by hole-burning to be primarily heterogeneously broadened due to a distribution of chemical environments. ¹⁹F NMR spectroscopy of particle bound ligands has recently been used to measure the effect of protein adsorption on diffusion.²⁶

Conventional high-resolution solution state NMR is a more commonly available technique suitable for ligand analysis and potentially quantitation. ¹H and ¹³C NMR has recently been used, in combination with other techniques,⁵⁵ to study the mobility and conformation of ligands^{48,50} and to evaluate surface composition for mixed ligand systems.^{49,56} For instance, in the study of patchy 4–5 nm Au particles the Stellacci Group used the dependence of the chemical shift and nuclear Overhauser effect enhancements on ligand mole fraction to confirm patch formation and/or ligand dispersion for combinations of ligands exhibiting different phase compatibility.⁴⁹ Salorinne and co-workers identified all 44 possible ¹H resonances arising from Au₁₀₂ nanoparticles surface grafted with *para*-mercaptobenzoic acid.⁵⁰ These high-resolution NMR studies, which were at the edge of the spectral resolution achievable for these particle sizes, establish the suitability of the technique to measure ligand dynamics and conformations. There are some NMR studies of lipid nanoparticles,^{57,58} however there are surprisingly few studies into PEG dynamics for higher molecular weight grafts and for larger particles, which is the size range of greatest interest for bio-probe development and in which broadening begins to dominate.

Here we describe the synthesis and grafting of silica particles with varied surface coverage of higher molecular weight PEG, and provide detailed ¹H NMR analysis of the grafts. Spectra were recorded at different temperatures for PEG (*M_w* 1 and 5 kDa) bound to relatively large (50, 65, 75, 90 and 200 nm core diameter) nanoparticles with varied surface coverage (0.05 to 1.0 PEG chains per nm²). Particular care was taken to evaluate the sensitivity of the outcomes to the model selected for fitting the spectra and to confirm the interpretation of changes in chain segment mobility by *T*₁ and *T*₂ relaxometry. We demonstrate that ethylene glycol units can be separated into three distinct quantifiable dynamic fractions whose relative populations change with coverage and temperature in a predictable way, providing insight into the molecular changes associated with changes in brush conformation. Finally we show that for 50 nm SiO₂ PEG₅₀₀₀ nanoparticles there was measurable coverage dependence in (serum) protein uptake and distribution. These findings suggest that coverage-induced changes in PEG dynamics, and particularly in the population of the dynamic fractions, alter the critical residence times and hence recognition for different proteins in subtly different ways. The implications of the findings for function of grafted nanoparticles in biological systems are discussed.

Results

Sample preparation and colloidal characterization

Silica cores were synthesized as previously described.^{41,59} PEG molecules were attached through the addition of a silane-functionalized PEG, as previously described.⁴¹ PEGylated particles were washed using five centrifugation re-suspension cycles (which is in excess of the number usually applied) to carefully remove contaminants, including precursors.²⁹ The removal of free PEG and the loss of some particles during this process were evaluated by NMR; we observed that in all cases more than 94% of the total NMR signal was lost after the third wash (Fig. S1†). Typically the intensity of the free PEG signal in the last supernatant was between 1–4% of that measured for the subsequently redispersed pellet (Fig. S2†). Finally, comparison of the line-shape analysis from the particle suspension and last supernatant shows that a maximum of 3% of the integral value in the last supernatant has the chemical shift and line-width of free PEG (Fig. S3†). This suggests that free PEG contributes <0.12% to the PEG signal of the particle suspensions immediately after synthesis and purification.

The final particle suspensions were observed to be fully dispersed in water with narrow size distributions, by dynamic light scattering (DLS), and to be colloidally stable for several weeks (Table 1, S1, Fig. S4 and S5†). Nanoparticle suspensions with different coverage were synthesized using the same batch of core particles to which different concentrations of PEG were added. The average coverage was determined by quantitative ¹H NMR of dissolutes using the previously described procedure.²⁹ The coverage was found to vary from 0.06 to 0.35 nm⁻² (for PEG₅₀₀₀ on 50 nm NPs), which corresponds in all cases to the “brush” conformation under the accepted criteria.^{60–62} Unless otherwise indicated we describe the response of suspensions of 50 nm cores, which is in the size range of interest for drug delivery and diagnostics, grafted with PEG₅₀₀₀.

¹H NMR lineshape analysis

The effect of coverage and chain length on the ¹H spectra was evaluated; variation in PEG coverage and color coding is schematically represented in Fig. 1a. For all D₂O suspensions it is

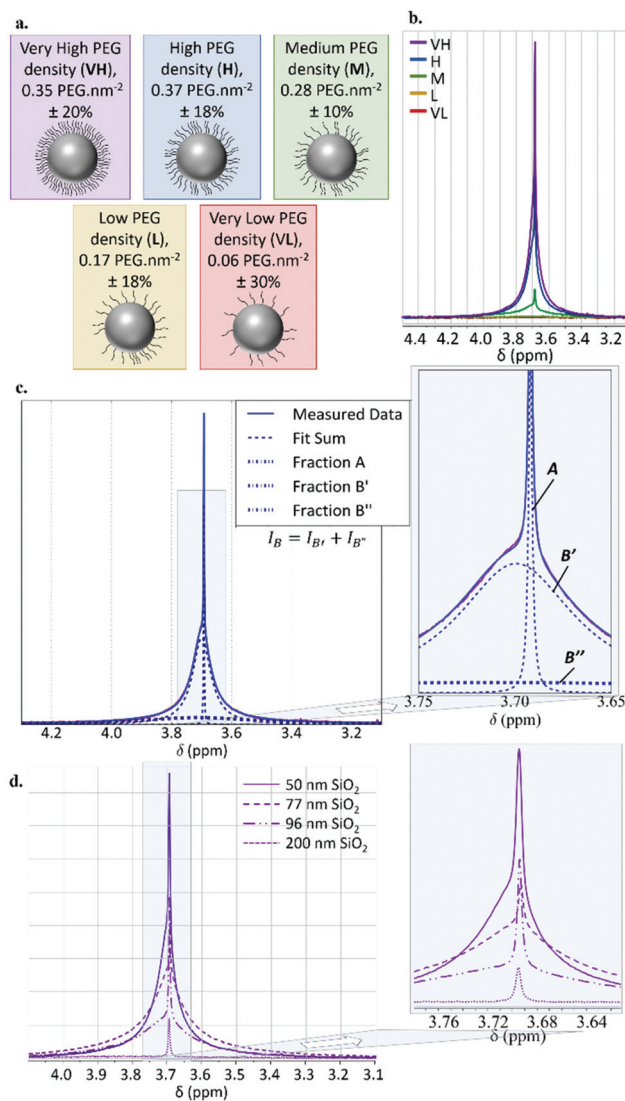


Fig. 1 Regions of interest in the ¹H spectra, recorded at 25 °C for PEG₅₀₀₀ grafted SiO₂ nanoparticles in D₂O suspension. (a) Schematic representation of 50 nm PEG₅₀₀₀ grafted SiO₂ nanoparticles showing the colour coding used in the rest of this work; VH (purple), H (blue), M (green), L (dark yellow) and VL (dark red). (b) Representative spectra recorded at 25 °C for 50 nm particles of different coverage. (c) A representative line fit for a VH spectrum for 50 nm particles showing the measured signal (purple), the sum of the fractions (blue dashes), and the individual fractions (navy dots and dashes). (d) Change in the spectra with PEG₅₀₀₀/particle size ratio, the insert highlights the change in broadness of fraction B with particle size.

Table 1 Physicochemical characterisation (DLS) and PEG coverage, for N = 8 NP batches

Sample	Size characterisation, DLS			ρ_{PEG} (nm ⁻²)
	Z average diameter (nm)	PDI	Number mean diameter (nm)	
VH	92 ± 12	0.09 ± 0.05	70 ± 8	0.35 ± 0.07
H	101 ± 23	0.11 ± 0.07	68 ± 9	0.37 ± 0.06
M	97 ± 15	0.10 ± 0.06	74 ± 20	0.28 ± 0.02
L	111 ± 22	0.16 ± 0.08	73 ± 19	0.17 ± 0.04
VL	113 ± 39	0.20 ± 0.08	57 ± 3	0.06 ± 0.02
SiO ₂ core	95 ± 21	0.16 ± 0.08	61 ± 12	0

immediately apparent (Fig. 1) that binding to the particle surface results in changes to the ethylene group resonance at *c.* 3.7 ppm,^{7,29} as compared to free PEG solutions (Fig. S6†). Visual inspection indicates that for most suspensions, *e.g.* Fig. 1b, the resonance has two distinct Lorentzian-like contributions from narrow and broad fractions. This suggests different dynamic environments for PEG associated either with different populations on a given particle or different types of particles. Care was taken therefore to use extended recycle

delays, of 25 s, in the experiments to enable quantitation in case of spectral contributions with long T_1 values.

Multi-Lorentzian fitting successfully reproduced the line-shape confirming that for all but the lowest coverages the signal comprises a narrow fraction (*A*, FWHM ≤ 4 Hz unshifted relative to free PEG) and a broad fraction (*B*, FWHM ≥ 30 Hz, shifted downfield by *c.* 0.01 ppm). Fraction *A* is almost perfectly fitted by a single Lorentzian while fraction *B* is best fit by two Lorentzians (Fig. 1c). Increasing the number of functions used in the fitting does not measurably change the quantification of *A* and *B* that follows (see Fig. S7† for details).

We found that for fixed core size and PEG chain length an increase of coverage leads to: (i) fraction *A* becoming more prominent (Fig. S8g†) compared to *B*; (ii) the broadness decreasing slightly (Fig. S8i†); and (iii) the mean chemical shift (δ) value shifting upfield (Fig. S8h†). Similar trends were clearly observed (despite reduced signal-to-noise) for PEG₁₀₀₀ grafted 50 nm NPs (Fig. S8d, e, f, S9 and S10†), demonstrating the presence of similar coverage dependence for narrow and broad fractions for shorter grafts. One difference for PEG₁₀₀₀ as compared to PEG₅₀₀₀ grafts is that the signal broadened with reducing ligand coverage. Increasing the particle size (for PEG₅₀₀₀) resulted in broadening of fraction *B* (Fig. 1d and S8–10†).

Comparison of the total ^1H signal intensity of the NP suspensions and their dissolute solutions demonstrates the presence of a third fraction, *C*, not detectable in the suspensions which is apparently broadened into the baseline. This pres-

ence of *C* can be confirmed, and its spectral profile estimated, through point-by-point ^1H saturation transfer experiments. Typical PEG and HDO saturation profiles (integral as a function of the selective saturation pulse frequency) for a **VH** suspension are shown in Fig. S11.†

Interestingly, for **VH**, **H** and **M** suspensions the methoxy end group is observable (for ν_L 600 MHz) as a very weak sharp feature at *c.* 3.3 ppm. For **L** this feature is rarely detectable at room temperature, but often becomes observable at higher temperature, (Fig. S12†). The observations for the ethylene and methoxy resonances suggest complex evolution of chain-surface interactions, leading to freer motions for a greater fraction of the graft-distant units at higher coverage and temperature. At the lowest coverage the NMR response is qualitatively different.

The ^1H spectra are consistent with the presence of three fractions arising due to differences in PEG mobility or surface conformation. We suggest that fraction *A* is the most mobile and arises from ethylene glycol units furthest away from the particle surface, fraction *B* arises from units closer in and fraction *C* from the most conformationally restrained units nearest the particle surface.

Temperature dependence of the ^1H spectra

To better understand the nature of the fractions and to further probe the sensitivity of the spectra to graft dynamics a variable temperature study was undertaken (Fig. 2). Spectra were

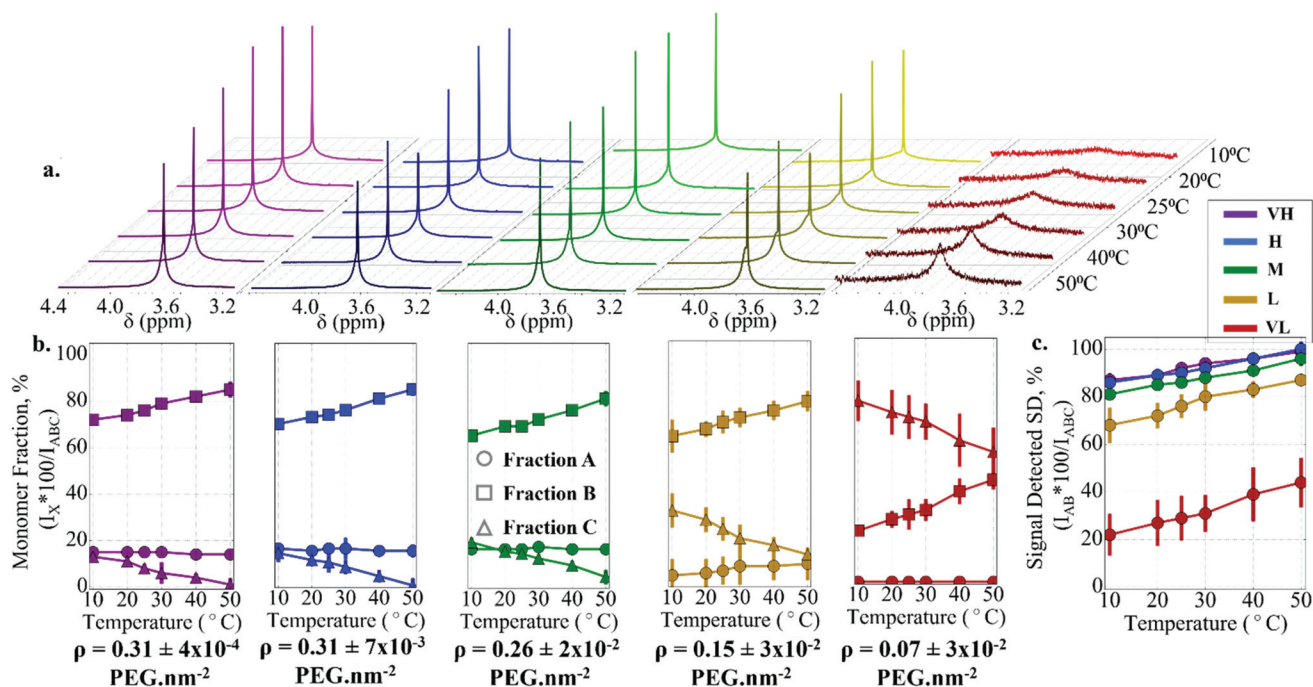


Fig. 2 Analysis of the temperature dependence of the ^1H NMR spectra for different surface coverage. (a) Representative example of the temperature dependence of the ^1H NMR spectra recorded for a batch of VH to VL suspensions of PEG₅₀₀₀-grafted 50 nm SiO₂ NPs. (b) Temperature dependence of the monomer distribution into fractions *A*, *B* and *C* (quantified using the 3 Lorentzian model), averaged for the spectra shown in (a) and two other independent samples. The average ($n = 3$ batches) PEG coverage is noted below each graph. Error bars are indicative of the standard deviation. (c) Temperature dependence of the signal detected (SD = $I_{AB} \times 100 / I_{ABC}$), note that PEG₅₀₀₀ has an average of 114 units.

recorded every 10 °C following temperature equilibration. The residual water peak was used to confirm the sample temperature and temperature stability. The spectra in Fig. 2 were measured as soon as possible after synthesis, in this case in the same week, to avoid long term surface stability issues. The curves in Fig. 2b and c are the averages of 3 independent particle batches synthesised side-by-side on the same day. The experiment was also repeated with a multitude of samples at different stages during the study with comparable results.

A gradual increase in intensity and narrowing of the high resolution ethylene glycol signal with increasing temperature or coverage are observed (Fig. 2a). Quantification of the fractions by line-fitting (I_A , I_B and I_B') and evaluation of their relative contribution to the total signal (I_{ABC}), reveals that for all suspensions there is a gradual transfer of ^1H signal intensity from fraction C to B and from B to A (Fig. 2b) with increasing coverage and with increasing temperature. We ascribe both trends to gradual reduction in residual dipolar interactions (averaged to zero giving sharp spectra in the case of ethylene glycol units in the fast-motion limit) associated with faster chain dynamics for an increasing number of monomers along the chains, *i.e.* chain mobility increases with temperature. Physically this may correspond to a shift of the ethylene glycol units average positions away from the surface. Consequently this model suggests less extended average chain conformations at low ρ which is in line with the de Gennes model.⁶³ The transfer of ^1H magnetisation between fractions is more consistent with fairly uniform coverage throughout the suspension as opposed to the presence of sub-populations of particles with different coverage. This interpretation is supported by hole-burning experiments conducted for all coverages (Fig. S13[†]), which show that it is not possible to burn a hole in fraction B , demonstrating that it is predominantly homogeneously broadened. Presumably this is due to residual dipolar interactions (see ESI[†]) associated with conformational restraints.

To quantify the non-detectable ^1H magnetisation (fraction C) we calculate the % of the ethylene glycol units signal detectable in the suspension as $\text{SD} = (I_{AB}/I_{ABC}) \times 100$. The temperature and coverage dependence of SD are revealing (Fig. 2c). At 25 °C the SD value for **VH**, **H** and **M** particles is between 85 and 90% while for **L** and **VL** it is significantly lower, at ~75% and ~25% respectively. Hence at lower coverage only a small fraction of the ethylene glycol units are sufficiently mobile to be detectable. Increasing temperature resulted in an increase in SD for all coverages (notably to *c.*100% for **VH**), corresponding to a transfer of units from fraction C to B (increasing I_{AB}). A relatively small change in SD was observed for particles with high to moderate ligand coverage, **VH** 13%, **H** 14% and **M** 15%, when the temperature was increased from 10 to 50 °C. However, low ρ resulted in a larger transfer for **L** of 20% (from 68 to 87%) and for **VL** 22% (22 to 44%), *i.e.* to a greater fraction of the units moving into the faster motion regime. These findings are consistent with results for PEG₁₀₀₀ for different particle sizes, where the resonance ceases to be observable below a certain surface coverage which depends on the particle size (Fig. S8d–f, Table S1[†] and Fig. 4 in our previous work²⁹).

A more rigorous analysis of fractions A and B reveals an increase in both I_A and I_B with temperature where the relative increase in the latter is larger. That is more units are transferred from C to B than from B to A , and both observable features narrow on increasing temperature (Fig. 2a and S14[†]). For example, the FWHM of B of **VH** suspensions decreased from ~80 to ~30 Hz on increasing the temperature from 10 to 50 °C. The width of A increased marginally from ~1.8 to ~2.3 Hz in the same range. Comparable behavior was observed for **H** and **M** dispersions (Fig. 2a, b and S14[†]). Interestingly, we also observe subfractions of A at higher temperatures (40–50 °C, Fig. S15[†]), a change that is reversible on cooling back down. Finally, **L** and **VL** dispersions were found to behave differently. In the case of the former the line-shape of the peak was more apparently bimodal, specifically fraction B was shifted more downfield than in higher ligand coverage particles (Fig. S16[†]). While **VL** did not exhibit a narrow fraction, even at elevated temperature. Additionally the number of Lorentzian components used in the line-fitting had to be reduced from two to one for **VL** particles at low temperatures.

In summary the trends of an increase in SD (Fig. 2c), a reduction in FWHM (Fig. 2a and S9[†]) and a shift upfield on increasing temperature were observed for all sample batches and all coverages, changes which are consistent with increasing chain mobility. These systematic changes, and in particular the temperature-dependence of SD as a function of ligand coverage (Fig. 2c), were more pronounced at lower ρ (**L** and **VL**). Interestingly, total batch-to-batch variability in the line-shape and resulting quantification were greatest for **L**, indicating that the dynamics changes sharply in this ρ range. As noted above the observed trends were independent of the fitting model used (this is demonstrated in Fig. S17[†]).

Ligand mobility and ^1H NMR relaxometry

The interpretation of the changes in the spectra with particle and ligand size (Fig. 1), temperature (Fig. 2) and ligand coverage as arising from changes in ligand mobility and possibly conformation were further evaluated using ^1H NMR relaxometry. Spin-lattice, T_1 , and spin-spin, T_2 , relaxation times were measured (details in ESI[†]) for the PEG resonance in **VH**, **H**, **M** and **L** suspensions, between 10 and 50 °C. **VL** could not be studied due to low signal intensity at achievable NP concentrations. Dephasing times, $T_{2L,S}^{\text{FW}}$ were calculated from the spectral lineshape analysis as $T_{2L,S}^{\text{FW}} = 1/\pi\nu_{\text{FWHM}}$, where ν_{FWHM} is the full width at half maximum extracted for each fraction.

The PEG T_1 values were found to be in the range of 750–1400 ms with only minor differences observed between the values for fractions A and B at 25 °C (Fig. S19[†]). Spectra recorded with the inversion recovery sequence confirm the complete absence of any fast T_1 relaxation in the ms range (Fig. S20–22[†]). The T_1 values were weakly dependent on coverage in the measured temperature range. The values for fraction B increased slightly, by ~17%, and for fraction A more significantly, by ~120%, between 10 and 50 °C (Fig. S19a, b and Table S3[†]) demonstrating that both fractions are in the fast motion regime. As a relaxation minimum was not present in

the available temperature window application of a model to interpret the dynamics incurs uncertainties and so is not presented.

In contrast the PEG T_2 relaxation was found to have two distinct stages (Fig. S23†) and to be more sensitive to dynamical restrictions of interest. A short process with T_{2S} of up to 15 ms, and a long one with $T_{2L} \geq 2000$ ms for full recovery were always observed (Fig. S24†). Changes in the spectral shape during the echo train show that the fast and slow decays arise from fractions B and A , respectively (Fig. S23b†). For both fractions T_2 increased with temperature (Fig. 3a and b). Details of the approach used to extract T_2 values are provided in Fig. S25 and Table S2.†

The T_{2L} values (fraction A) are less interesting as these ethylene glycol units are hardly affected by graft restrictions. As the T_{2L} values were very similar to T_1 we can conclude this fraction is indeed in the motional averaging regime ($T_1 \approx T_2$). This is typical for low molecular weight species undergoing rapid isotropic motion. It is worth while noting that the T_{2L} recorded for fraction A is similar to the T_2 value of free PEG, there is a small measurable difference (Fig. 3a). For completeness, the T_{2L} values were slightly longer than the T_{2L}^{FW} values from lineshape analysis (Fig. S26†), suggesting some heterogeneous contributions to the broadening of A . This is most likely due to field inhomogeneity, which is supported by broadening of resonances from low molecular weight species in the suspension (e.g. internal standard DMF, Fig. S27†).

The PEG T_{2S} values were two orders of magnitude smaller and interestingly they were found to be somewhat dependent on temperature, coverage, PEG length and particle size. From the good correlation between T_{2S} and T_{2S}^{FW} (Fig. S28†) and the fact that hole-burning is not possible we can conclude that this ^1H magnetisation fraction is homogeneously broadened. This confirms that the spectral features (Fig. 1 and 2) arise from different dynamic fractions of ethylene glycol units and not from particle subfractions. We will use the T_{2S} (rather than the T_{2S}^{FW}) values for data interpretation which are extracted using 300 echoes rather than a single FWHM and are thus considered more accurate (details in ESI, Fig. S28†).

Independently increasing either the temperature or the coverage (Fig. 3b) lead to an increase of T_{2S} , strongly suggesting that either change activates the dynamic process driving the relaxation. Similar behavior was observed using 65 nm SiO_2 particles (Fig. S29†).

The dependence of T_{2S} on ρ was further explored through partial dissolution of **VH** particles in low salinity media, *i.e.* surface etching (Fig. 3c). This treatment led to a reduction in coverage of 0.08 PEG per nm (36%) with no measurable change in gross sample morphology (Fig. 3f), hydrodynamic size or colloidal stability (Fig. S30a†). Final ligand coverage was similar to that of **L** particles. The change in PEG surface coverage over this time was measurable by NMR (Fig. 3d), and free PEG was subsequently found in the supernatant (Fig. S30b†). As expected the etching process led to a reduction in the measured T_{2S} values for the particles at all temperatures (Fig. 3e), indeed these values were found to be between those

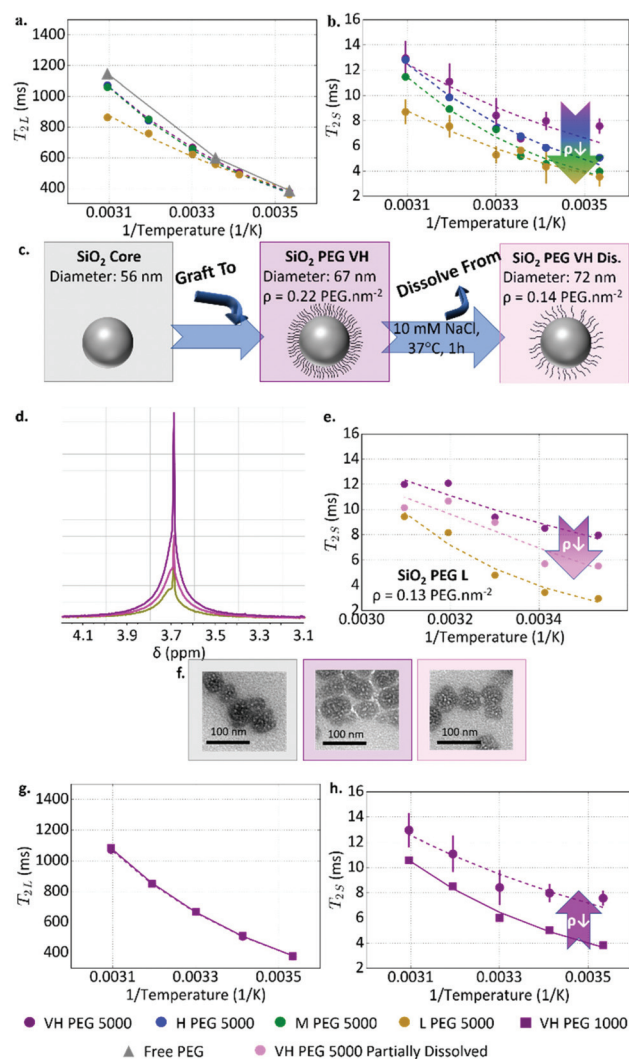


Fig. 3 Dependence of spin–spin relaxation on coverage, particle size and temperature. ^1H relaxometric analysis for (a) T_{2L} and (b) T_{2S} as a function of temperature for 50 nm PEG₅₀₀₀-grafted NP suspensions of different coverage, compared to free PEG (grey triangles). Data presented in (a) and (b) is the average for $n = 3$ samples. (c) Schematic representation of the particle grafting and controlled particle dissolution. (d) Reduction of ^1H signal for 50 nm NP suspensions before (purple) and after (magenta) partial dissolution. (f) TEM showing the absence of substantial morphological change over the same stages shown in (c). (e) T_{2S} of 50 nm PEG₅₀₀₀ grafted VH particles ($\rho = 0.22 \text{ nm}^{-2}$) and surface diluted VH particles ($\rho = 0.14 \text{ nm}^{-2}$) compared with L particles ($\rho = 0.13 \text{ nm}^{-2}$). (g) T_{2L} and (h) T_{2S} recorded for the same 50 nm NP suspension grafted with PEG₅₀₀₀ ($\rho = 0.35 \text{ nm}^{-2}$, VH, purple circles) and PEG₁₀₀₀ ($\rho = 0.9 \text{ nm}^{-2}$, purple squares). The dashed lines represent fits to the data (see methods). The T_{2L} trend for VH, H and M particles in (a) and PEG₁₀₀₀ and PEG₅₀₀₀ in (g) overlap completely and are thus difficult to distinguish in the figure.

of the **VH** and **L** suspensions. A similar effect of reducing T_{2S} was also found on prolonged storage in D_2O at RT, with the associated increase of free PEG also confirmed.

The effects of reducing chain length are shown in Fig. 3g and h for 50 nm NPs grafted with PEG₅₀₀₀ ($\rho = 0.35 \text{ nm}^{-2}$) and

PEG₁₀₀₀ (ρ 0.9 nm⁻²). The T_{2L} value was found to be insensitive to the chain length indicating that the dynamics of *A* are largely unchanged. I_A/I_B decreased for shorter chains consistent with fewer unhindered units in fraction *A*, as expected, and T_{2s} decreased suggesting more hindered dynamics for fraction *B*.

Hence over the range of particle size, coverage and chain length studied, NMR relaxometry and spectral analysis demonstrate increasing numbers of ethylene glycol units move from less to more dynamic fractions. This suggests that the fraction of the grafts in the different dynamic regimes can be precisely controlled through surface graft coverage and modification.

Effect of ligand coverage in complex media

The NMR analysis (FWHM and total intensity) suggests strong coverage dependent changes between **H/L** and between **L/VL** suspensions. This is especially clear in Fig. 1 where a ~30% reduction in coverage leads to a nearly threefold reduction in intensity. Changes in graft dynamics may result in changes to the colloidal stability and other responses; hence aggregation studies in media of increasing salinity and protein binding studies were undertaken.

The dependence of colloidal stability at different ionic strength (IS) on PEG coverage was measured by DLS salt titration (Fig. S31† shows data for three independent particle batches). It was found that suspensions of 50 nm NPs were more stable to increasing IS at either extreme of the PEG₅₀₀₀ coverage range studied. Specifically, the higher ρ dispersions (**VH** and **H**) exhibited good colloidal stability up to 100 mM (NaCl in PBS) as did **VL**. It is important to note that bare silica particles are stable in the test conditions. However, suspensions of intermediate coverage particles, *i.e.* **M** and **L**, destabilised at 20 and 40 mM, respectively. Detailed analysis on the mechanism of the coverage dependent aggregation is beyond the scope of this work. However, loss of steric stabilisation at intermediate ρ is apparent and at very low coverage the surface behaves more like free (electrostatically stabilised) silica NPs.

Protein binding of the particles was evaluated by incubating 50 nm SiO₂ PEG₅₀₀₀ suspensions with undiluted human serum in a 1 to 1 volume ratio for an hour, stationary at RT. After this time dispersions were washed four times to remove free proteins. A continual increase of bound protein was observed, by microBCA and gel silver staining, over the **VH** to **L** range (Fig. S32a and d†). The largest increases (~80% of the total protein bound) occurred from **H** to **M** and from **M** to **L**, representing a jump of 0.14 and 0.17 mg mL⁻¹, respectively. Increased protein binding with reducing PEG coverage is well documented.^{3,64–66} We note here for the first time a correlation between protein binding and a shift in ligand dynamics (revealed by NMR), and in particular the strong negative correlation between binding and SD (% of the ethylene glycol units detectable by ¹H NMR) at 25 °C. Note also that suspensions with intermediate coverage (**M** and **L**) are not stable when incubated with human serum, as may be expected from the results above (Fig. S32b†). The composition of the hard protein corona, obtained from full human serum, was also found to change with PEG surface coverage, for **VH** and **H** it was com-

posed mostly of proteins in the 46–58 kDa (~40%) and 58–80 kDa ranges (~20%). For lower coverage the molecular weight distribution was broader, and that was particularly the case for **VL** for which the distribution was similar to that for uncoated SiO₂ (Fig. S32c and d†). The detailed molecular interactions giving rise to these observations are an interesting question but beyond the scope of this work; but again we note the correlation between ligand dynamics measured by NMR and corona composition.

Discussion

In summary ¹H NMR analysis of the suspensions identifies three signal fractions: *A* which is similar to free PEG in terms of width (FWHM 1–4 Hz) and T_1/T_2 relaxation times on the order of several seconds. It arises from relatively mobile ethylene glycol units. *B* which is broader (13–300 Hz) with T_2 of the order of several microseconds and δ between 3.69 and 3.73 ppm. It arises from units which experience significant conformational restraints, presumably due to proximity to the particle surface. Finally, *C* which is broadened into the background. It arises from units which are closest to the surface and are in slow motion on the NMR timescale. The physical picture that emerges is shown schematically in Fig. 4a.

The spectral analysis poses the question of whether *A* arises from the highly mobile units of bound chains alone or if there are also contributions from free PEG and/or unbound but entangled polymer. As noted above, initially the free PEG found in the last supernatant is negligible. The reversible formation at elevated temperature of subfractions of *A*, the stability of the spectra (shown in Fig. 2) over the two week timeframe of the analysis, and the reproducibility of the analysis in Fig. 2 for other preparations (see ESI†) which were recorded at different times within their two week window demonstrate that *A* arises largely from bound PEG. This is further supported by the small difference in T_2 between *A* and free PEG (Fig. 3a). Hence while the I_A values may be slightly overestimated the reversible temperature-dependent changes in the population of the fractions arise from changes in on-particle graft dynamics. Zhang *et al.* used DOSY spectroscopy to assign bound and free ligand resonances, for 17.5 kDa poly(allylamine) grafted 5 nm nanodiamonds, based on their diffusion coefficients.⁵¹ We were unable to use DOSY for quantitation due to the significant spectral overlap in the region of interest complicated by minor gradient induced distortions of the lines.

Ethylene glycol units are found to move between fractions on changing temperature. Increasing from 10 to 50 °C results in transfer from *C* to *B* and from *B* to *A* which are reversible on cycling the temperature (Fig. S33†). This is manifested by more signal becoming measurable (*i.e.* a reduction of fraction *C*), and the resonance narrowing (by tens of Hz), both due to increased chain mobility arising from reduced interactions with the particle surface as confirmed by T_2 relaxometry, as schematically presented in Fig. 4a. Similar coverage dependent effects are observed for different particle sizes and chain

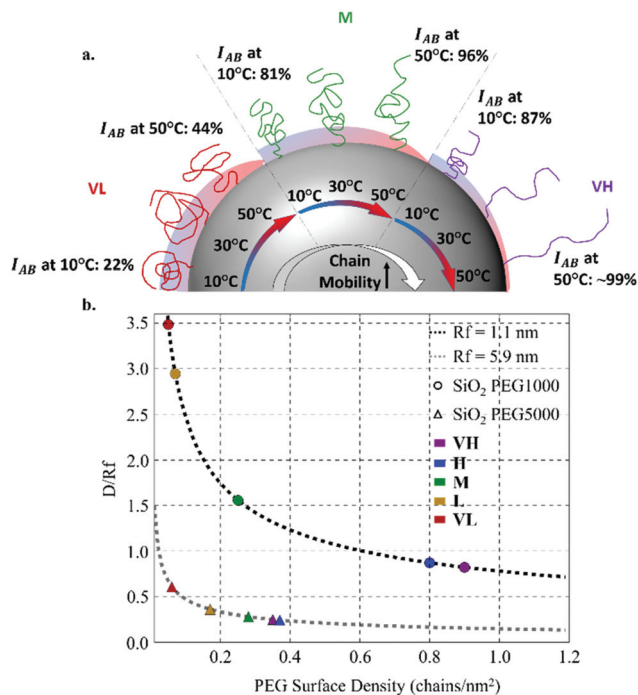


Fig. 4 Evolution of the dynamic domain populations and proposed interpretation models. (a) Proposed conformational changes of the PEG₅₀₀₀ ligand with an increase in temperature and surface coverage. Blue-red areas at the bottom of the ligand reflect shifts in signal recovery. Chain mobility is observed by peak FWHM in NMR. (b) Calculated ratio of the average distance between PEG chains to their Flory radius, as a function of ligand surface coverage for both PEG lengths used.

lengths. Conversely transfer of units from *B* to *C* can be achieved by reducing temperature or by removing surface silanised PEG by dissolution (Fig. 4a).

Ligand conformation and the average distance to the surface, which we suggest determine dynamics underpinning the NMR response, are predicted by the Alexander–de Gennes model.^{12,42,63} The ratio between the average ligand-to-ligand distance (*D*) and the Flory radius (*R_f*) is often used to classify ligand surface conformation, though the exact cutoffs are not agreed. Generally for $D/R_f < 1$ the chains are considered to be in a brush conformation, while $D/R_f > 2$ results in a mushroom conformation.^{34,60,63,66,67} D/R_f values calculated for the SiO₂ PEG₅₀₀₀ samples are in the brush conformation regime (Fig. 4b). Thus our model suggests that for 50 nm particles there is a relatively smooth change in properties between a dense brush, *i.e.* **VH** and **H** particles, to intermediate stages (**M** and possibly **L**) to a loose brush, **VL**. This demonstrates firstly that the detectable ¹H signal corresponds to surface distant parts of the chains in a relatively dense brush conformation. Secondly, it is interesting that the D/R_f values are correlated with the extent of protein binding (Fig. S32a and S34†), *i.e.* particles with low D/R_f (or high ρ) tend to bind less protein in both microBCA and SDS-PAGE experiments.

The relationship between protein binding and ligand coverage has been well documented.^{3,29,67} This behaviour has pre-

viously been linked to the potential loss of ligand entropy and to disruption of a structured water layer at the particle surface, which is energetically unfavorable.^{39,66–67} However, to our knowledge, this is the first time ligand conformation as measured by NMR, and indexed with D/R_f values, has been correlated with protein concentration in the hard corona (Fig. S34†).

The work presented here provides a more detailed microscopic picture of the dynamic ligand derived aspects of these key surface phenomena. New questions about the factors that determine fraction population arise when our observations are considered with other reports in literature,^{42,51} where chain mobility is estimated through NMR. For instance the above noted study from Zhang *et al.*⁵¹ suggested that based on relaxometry 45% of the polymer retains rapid motion. This is far greater than what we observe and may be due to the smaller particle size and increased curvature. Interestingly Wu *et al.* report that ligand coverage decreases as particle size is increased⁴² which our data confirms (Table S1†). Importantly in both studies NP-ligand grafting leads to peak broadening when the same ligand is bound to particles with increasing size (Fig. 1d).

Conclusions

The surface PEG coverage and temperature induced changes in ¹H NMR lineshape and relaxation times are explained by differences in ligand mobility due to slowing of chain motions. Reduced mobility is associated with proximity to the particle surface and not from inter-chain steric hindrance, *i.e.* mobility increases with coverage. On transition from high (**VH**, **H**) to intermediate (**M**, **L**) to low (**VL**) coverage significant changes in the ¹H response, the colloidal stability with salt titration and in the serum protein binding (total and distribution) were observed which are consistent with ligand conformational transitions from dense to looser brush. This work and the related literature^{42,51} demonstrate the central roles of the particle-to-ligand size ratio and ligand coverage in these changes.

Preliminary NMR analysis of PEGylated particles in a protein solution posed a significant challenge due to overlap in the ethylene glycol region of the spectrum. Thus here we describe the situation for the protein-free surfaces at which the initial recognition events must occur. This work provides a framework to investigate graft coverage dependence of protein binding and so is a step towards better understanding of the molecular processes on PEGylated nanoparticle surfaces that determine their biological response. An interesting question that arises is the link between ligand mobility, protein residence time and recognition, which may be addressable for single protein exposures. We suggest that the effect of surface coverage and distribution of dynamic ethylene glycol units on protein interactions demonstrated here will be shown to play a key role in the processes that determine recognition in the low binding affinity scenario under biologically-relevant conditions.

Experimental section

Methods not reported here can be found in the accompanying ESI section.†

50 nm SiO₂ particle synthesis and modification

FITC – APTMS conjugation. The labelling conjugate was prepared prior to particle synthesis by dissolving 2 mg of fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) in 1 mL of ethanol (99.9%) to which 10 µL of (3-Aminopropyl)triethoxysilane (APTMS) were added. The reaction was covered with aluminium foil and left to react for a minimum of 4 hours at 20 °C. A 2 mL Eppendorf tube was used in all cases.

Nanoparticle synthesis. Silica particles were synthesised using a slight modification of the Stöber method.²⁹ 0.91 g of ammonia (28.0–30.0% NH₃ basis) was added to 25 mL of ethanol (99.9%) in a 50 mL polypropylene container. To which 0.5 mL of the prepared FITC-APTMS conjugate solution (see above) were pipetted. The reaction was stirred for 1 minute, upon which Tetraethyl orthosilicate (0.94 mL) was added. The reaction was then stirred at 600 rpm at 20 °C for a further 20 hours in darkness. The resulting nanoparticle suspension was centrifuged down at 13 500 rpm for 20 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in fresh ethanol once and water three further times using bath sonication.

PEGylation of 50 nm silica nanoparticles. 1 mL of 5–10 mg mL⁻¹ silica particles were preheated to 90 °C and allowed to equilibrate for 10 minutes while shaking at 6000 rpm. 5 kDa and 1 kDa methylated PEG silicate were added to the particles in a concentration of 5 (VH), 2.5 (H), 1 (M), 0.2 (L) and 0.015 (VL) PEG per nm². The dispersions were left to react in this way for one hour after which they were washed with water twice and deuterium oxide two further times as described in section 2.2 for 50–100 nm particles and section 2.4 for 200 nm ones. Trimethylamine was used to augment the pH to 9 for experiments reported in Fig. S6.†

Particle characterisation

Size by dynamic light scattering (DLS). A Malvern Zetasizer ZS series was used in all measurements. Bare and PEGylated silica particles were diluted in water as 1 in 100 for a final concentration of ~100 µg mL⁻¹ in a plastic low volume cuvette (PLASTIBRAND, semi-micro, PMMA, l = 1 cm). Each measurement was conducted at least three times and consisted of 11 consecutive 10 s runs at 25 °C. There was no equilibration time prior to experiment.

Temperature stability by DLS (data not shown). Temperature trends were conducted in the DLS in the range of 10–50 °C measuring every 10 °C with an equilibration time of 20 minutes. Each point consisted of 10 consecutive runs.

¹H NMR spectroscopy

Sample preparation for NMR. If the washed particles were dispersed in H₂O they were spun at 13 500 rpm for 15 min and redispersed in D₂O 1 mM DMF after supernatant removal and with the assistance of bath sonication. This procedure was repeated once more. Both the last supernatant and final particle dispersion were kept.

¹H NMR using varian VNMRs 400 MHz. 1 mL of particles (>5 mg mL⁻¹) in D₂O 1 mM DMF were pipetted into a 5 mm thin wall, 8 inch NMR tube (Wilmad Lab Glass) and placed in the instrument. Each measurement was conducted at room temperature with a 45° pulse and 6 scans with a relaxation delay of 25 seconds.

¹H NMR using varian VNMRs 600 MHz. 0.7 mL of particles (>5 mg mL⁻¹) in D₂O 1 mM DMF were pipetted into a 5 mm thin wall, 8 inch NMR tube (Wilmad Lab Glass) and placed in the instrument. The PROTON was run with a hard 45 degrees 1H pulse of duration 3.20 us, relaxation delay of 25 s, acquisition time of 5.0 s, number of scans of 16, TOF at -215.95 Hz (4.64 ppm), processing with 48 K points and no weighting function applied before the Fourier Transformation.

Fitting 1H spectra. NMR signals were fit using a mixture of models including a single Gaussian and Lorentzian function, 2, 3 and 4 Gaussians and Lorentzians, as well as several combinations of types. The R2 and fraction of the signal fitted were calculated and used as measures of the fit quality. The fitting model was chosen based on the fewest number of parameters required to best fit the signal which was three Lorentzian peaks. The R2 and signal fraction fit of was >0.99 in every case. It was shown that Lorentzian fits are more appropriate than Gaussians through analysing the fitting moments. See section “Details on lineshape analysis” above for more details.

Author contributions

DRH conceived, designed and executed studies, drafted and corrected the paper. HL conceived studies and led fitting studies. YO designed and ran NMR experiments. KS executed studies. KD conceived studies, drafted and corrected the paper. DB conceived and designed studies, drafted and corrected the paper.

Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflicts to declare.

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