



Article Biocompatible Polymer-Grafted TiO₂ Nanoparticle Sonosensitizers Prepared Using Phosphonic Acid-Functionalized RAFT Agent

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Abstract: Sonodynamic therapy is widely used in clinical studies including cancer therapy. The development of sonosensitizers is important for enhancing the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) under sonication. Herein, we have developed poly(2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine) (PMPC)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles as new biocompatible sonosensitizers with high colloidal stability under physiological conditions. To fabricate biocompatible sonosensitizers, a grafting-to approach was adopted with phosphonic-acid-functionalized PMPC, which was prepared by reversible addition-fragmentation chain transfer (RAFT) polymerization of 2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine (MPC) using a newly designed water-soluble RAFT agent possessing a phosphonic acid group. The phosphonic acid group can conjugate with the OH groups on the TiO₂ nanoparticles. We have clarified that the phosphonic acid end group is more crucial for creating colloidally stable PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles under physiological conditions than carboxylic-acid-functionalized PMPC-modified ones. Furthermore, the enhanced generation of singlet oxygen (¹O₂), an ROS, in the presence of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles was confirmed using a ¹O₂-reactive fluorescent probe. We believe that the PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles prepared herein have potential utility as novel biocompatible sonosensitizers for cancer therapy.

Keywords: sonodynamic therapy; TiO₂; reversible addition–fragmentation chain transfer polymerization; phosphonic acid

1. Introduction

Ultrasounds with wavelengths beyond human hearing have been widely used in diagnosis and therapy because they can penetrate deep into tissues without radiation damage. Sonodynamic therapy (SDT) has been widely used in clinical studies, including cancer therapy, owing to its non-invasiveness and temporal-spatial controllability with great depth [1-7]. In SDT, reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as singlet oxygen ($^{1}O_{2}$) and hydroxyl radicals are generated under ultrasound irradiation, and the ROS induce oxidative damage to target tissues. Furthermore, the generated ROS breaks the redox balance in living cells, which induces effective treatment on the hypoxic tumor [8]. The mechanism of ROS generation is the cavitation effect induced by ultrasounds which causes sonoluminescence, and the phenomenon is attributed to generate ROS from sonosensitizer. For efficient SDTs, sonosensitizers are of great importance to initiate a sonochemical reaction when producing ROS. In the past, many sonosensitizers, such as TiO_2 [9,10], porphyrin and its derivatives [11–14], BaTiO₃ [15], and PtCu₃ [16,17] have been developed to enhance ROS generation and therapeutic effects. TiO_2 nanoparticles have the potential for targeted delivery to tumors through enhanced permeability and retentivity effects [18,19] owing to their nanometer size [5]. TiO_2 nanoparticles have high chemical and physical stabilities;



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Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). however, the colloidal stability of TiO_2 nanoparticles under physiological conditions is poor. TiO_2 nanoparticles have an isoelectric point at pH 6.2 when TiO_2 is formed as an anatase crystal [20]. Thus, TiO_2 nanoparticles have an anionic surface charge at neutral pH and are colloidally stabilized via electrostatic repulsion owing to their anionic charge. However, the electric bilayer on the particles becomes thinner in media containing high ionic concentrations, resulting in poor colloidal stability of the TiO_2 nanoparticles. An important requirement to ensure the efficacy of the sonodynamic therapy is the high colloidal stability of TiO_2 nanoparticles under physiological conditions.

Several approaches have been reported to prepare TiO₂ nanoparticles with high colloidal stability for SDT under physiological conditions. Poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) modification of TiO_2 nanoparticles is used to create highly stable TiO_2 nanoparticles for various therapies because PEG induces the steric repulsion of the PEG-modified nanoparticles [5,21]. Polysaccharide (e.g., dextran and hyaluronic acid)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles have also been prepared for sonodynamic cancer therapy [10,22]. In our previous studies, polyion complex (PIC) micelles incorporating TiO₂ nanoparticles were developed as novel sonosensitizers possessing high colloidal stability under physiological conditions [23]. The PIC micelles were prepared from cationic polyallylamine-grafted poly(ethylene glycol) (PAA-g-PEG) and anionic TiO₂ nanoparticles at neutral pH, where the micellar structure was stabilized via electrostatic and van der Waals interactions between the polyallylamine and TiO_2 nanoparticles. The PIC micelles possessed high colloidal stability owing to the steric repulsion derived from the PEG grafted on the PIC micelles. Furthermore, we confirmed the sonosensitizing effect of PIC micelles incorporating TiO2 nanoparticles in vitro with HeLa cells, where decreased cell viability was observed in cells treated with PIC micelles by ultrasound irradiation compared to that in the untreated cells [24].

Recently, reversible deactivation radical polymerization (RDRP) has been developed as an emerging synthetic method to achieve precise molecular design and create various functional polymers via radical reaction [25–44]. Using RDRPs, the surface modification of inorganic nanoparticles can be easily achieved using grafting-to or grafting-from approaches [45–50]. Charpentier et al. reported the surface-initiated reversible additionfragmentation chain transfer (RAFT) polymerization of methyl methacrylate from TiO_2 nanoparticles modified with 4-cyano-4-(dodecyl-sulfanylthiocarbonyl) sulfanyl pentanoic acid [51]. Wang et al. reported the successful surface-initiated atom transfer radical polymerization (ATRP) of styrene from TiO_2 nanoparticles using an initiator possessing a trimethoxysilane group [52]. Charpentier et al. reported water-dispersible poly(acrylic acid)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles by RAFT polymerization from TiO₂ nanoparticles modified with 4-cyano-4-(dodecyl-sulfanylthiocarbonyl)sulfanyl pentanoic acid [53]. Haddleton et al. reported surface modification of 2-(dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate and 2-(diethylamino)ethyl methacrylate on TiO₂ nanoparticles using grafting-to or grafting-from approaches with Cu(0)-mediated living radical polymerization using a designed initiator containing catechol as a binding site to TiO_2 [54]. However, to the best of our knowledge, the preparation of biocompatible polymer-modified TiO_2 nanoparticles via RDRPs and their application as sonosensitizers has never been reported.

In this study, we report the fabrication of biocompatible poly(2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine) (PMPC)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles with high colloidal stability under physiological conditions using RDRPs and investigate the sonosensitizing effect of TiO₂ particles (Scheme 1). To achieve this goal, a RAFT agent containing a phosphonic acid group was newly designed; the phosphonic-acid-functionalized poly(2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine) (PMPC-PO₄H₂) was synthesized via RAFT polymerization with the RAFT agent because the phosphonic acid groups can interact more strongly with the TiO₂ surface compared to carboxylic acids [55–58]. We clarify that the colloidal stability of PMPC-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles under physiological conditions was higher than that of poly(2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine) (PMPC-COOH)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles; PMPC-COOH was prepared using a commercially available RAFT agent [4-cyano-4-(phenylcarbonothioylthio)pentanoic acid:

RAFT-COOH]. The effect of the molecular weight of PMPC-PO₄H₂ on the colloidal stability of the 2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine (MPC)-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles was also investigated in detail. Finally, the sonosensitizing activity of the PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles was investigated.



Scheme 1. Schematic of preparation of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles as biocompatible sonosensitizer.

2. Results and Discussion

PMPC, developed by Ishihara et al., is water-soluble and has a high biocompatibility derived from the phosphorylcholine motif of the lipid bilayer [59,60]. To modify PMPC as a biocompatible polymer on TiO₂ nanoparticles, a new water-soluble dithiobenzoate-based RAFT agent possessing a phosphonic acid group (RAFT-PO₄H₂) was synthesized, where the phosphonic acid group can form a stable linkage with TiO₂ nanoparticles. 4-Cyano-4-(phenylcarbonothioylthio)pentanoic acid *N*-succinimidyl ester was reacted with *O*-phosphoryl ethanolamine in a mixture of dimethylsulfoxide/water. The product was purified via inverse silica gel chromatography. The purification of the target RAFT agent was confirmed by ¹H-NMR and ¹³C-NMR spectroscopy (see in Figure 1 and Supplementary Materials Figure S1). From ultraviolet-visible (UV–Vis) spectral measurements, RAFT-PO₄H₂ has a maximum absorbance wavelength of 305 nm with a small peak at 480 nm (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S2), indicating that RAFT-PO₄H₂ has a phenyl-carbonothioylthio group. RAFT-COOH has a low solubility in water (even under basic conditions); however, RAFT-PO₄H₂ is easily dissolved in water. The high water solubility of RAFT-PO₄H₂ may be attributed to its phosphonic acid and amide groups.



Figure 1. (a) Synthetic scheme of RAFT-PO₄H₂. (b) ¹H NMR spectrum and corresponding chemical structure of RAFT-PO₄H₂.

The polymerization control capability of RAFT-PO₄H₂ as a control agent was investigated via RAFT polymerization of MPC by comparing the performance of RAFT-COOH. In the experiments, the target molecular weights of PMPC were regulated by changing the feed molar ratio of MPC to RAFT-PO₄H₂, where the feed molar ratio $[MPC]/[RAFT-PO_4H_2]$ was set to 10, 20, 40, and 80. Deionized water was selected as the solvent for polymerization. The monomer conversions in all polymerizations using RAFT-PO₄H₂ were estimated to be approximately 99% by ¹H-NMR (Figure 2). The number-average molecular weights (M_n) of PMPC prepared using RAFT-PO₄H₂ (PMPC-PO₄H₂) were evaluated to be approximately 5600 (M_w/M_n :1.10), 7600 (M_w/M_n :1.11), 12,000 (M_w/M_n :1.12), and 20,000 (M_w/M_n :1.15) by gel permeation chromatography (GPC) when the target molecular weights were set to 3400, 6300, 12,200, and 24,000, respectively (Table 1). The difference between the experimental and theoretical M_n values was caused by the difference in the excluded volume of the polymer chains between PMPC and PEG, which was used as a standard polymer for preparing a calibration curve for GPC measurements. Methanol was selected as the solvent for RAFT polymerization of MPC with RAFT-COOH because of the low solubility of RAFT-COOH. The conversion of RAFT polymerization of MPC reached 99% at all feed molar ratios of [MPC]/[RAFT-COOH] (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S3). The M_n of PMPC prepared using RAFT-COOH (PMPC-COOH) was evaluated to be approximately 5100 (M_w/M_n :1.11), 6400 (M_w/M_n :1.11), 9800 (M_w/M_n :1.16), and 16,000 (M_w/M_n :1.21) when the target molecular weights were 3200, 6200, 12,100, and 24,000, respectively (Figure 3, Table 1). These results indicate that PMPC-PO₄ H_2 and PMPC-COOH were successfully prepared with narrow molecular weight distributions using RAFT-PO₄H₂ and RAFT-COOH, respectively. Furthermore, PMPC-PO₄H₂ and PMPC-COOH showed absorbances at 491 nm and 488 nm, respectively, which were derived from the dithiobenzoate groups of the RAFT end groups (see in Supplementary Materials Figures S4 and S5).



Figure 2. Top: Scheme of RAFT polymerization of MPC with RAFT-PO₄H₂. Bottom: ¹H NMR spectra of MPC and polymer solutions obtained after RAFT polymerizations of MPC using RAFT-PO₄H₂ with different molar ratios of MPC and RAFT-PO₄H₂.

Run	RAFT Agent	[MPC] ₀ /[RAFT Agent] ₀ /	Conv. (%)	M _n	$M_{n,th}$	$M_{\rm w}/M_{\rm n}$
1 ^b	RAFT-PO ₄ H ₂	10/1	>99	5600	3400	1.10
2 ^b	RAFT-PO ₄ H ₂	20/1	>99	7600	6300	1.11
3 ^b	RAFT-PO ₄ H ₂	40/1	>99	12,000	12,200	1.12
4 ^b	RAFT-PO ₄ H ₂	80/1	>99	20,000	24,000	1.15
5 c	RAFT-COOH	10/1	>99	5100	3200	1.11
6 ^c	RAFT-COOH	20/1	>99	6400	6200	1.11
7 ^c	RAFT-COOH	40/1	>99	9800	12,100	1.16
8 c	RAFT-COOH	80/1	>99	16 000	24,000	1 21

Table 1. RAFT polymerization of MPC with RAFT-PO₄H₂ or RAFT-COOH^a.

^a: Polymerization time: 24 h; Polymerization temperature: 70 °C; Initiator: V-501; ^b: Solvent: deionized water; ^c: Solvent: methanol.



Figure 3. GPC charts of PMPC-PO₄H₂ (**a**) and PMPC-COOH (**b**) obtained after RAFT polymerizations of MPC using RAFT-PO₄H₂ and RAFT-COOH, respectively, with different target molecular weights.

For the preparation of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, we used the *grafting-to* approach to prepare PMPC-modified TiO2 nanoparticles using PMPC-PO4H2 and PMPC-COOH. In the modification step, PMPC-PO₄ H_2 was added to the aqueous dispersion of TiO_2 in the presence of polyoxyethylene (20) oleyl ether (Brij98), where the pH of the aqueous media was adjusted to 4.0, to form OH groups on the TiO_2 nanoparticles. Notably, the TiO₂ nanoparticles were coagulated while adjusting to pH 4.0 without Bij98, whereas the particles were stably dispersed upon the addition of Brij98; this phenomenon was caused by the steric repulsion derived from the adsorbed Brij98 on TiO₂ nanoparticles. The adsorption of Brij98 on TiO₂ nanoparticles was supported by zeta potential measurements, that is, the zeta potential of the original TiO₂ nanoparticles (without Brij98) at pH 4.0 was +41.5 mV, whereas the zeta potential of the TiO_2 nanoparticles decreased slightly to +34.6 mV upon addition of Brij98, indicating that Brij98 was slightly adsorbed on the TiO₂ nanoparticles. The Brij98-stabilized TiO₂ nanoparticle dispersion had a monomodal particle size distribution, with a size of 38 nm (PDI: 0.256) (Figure 4). After the modification of PMPC-PO₄H₂ (M_n : 5600) on the TiO₂ nanoparticles, a peak derived from the submicrometer-sized coagulate TiO₂ particles was observed with a peak derived from the non-coagulated TiO₂ particles (average particle size: 55 nm, PDI: 0.256), indicating that the steric repulsion between TiO₂ particles is not effective for maintaining the colloidal stability when using the short PMPC-PO₄H₂. When PMPC-PO₄H₂ of 7600 in M_n was used, a small coagulate peak was also observed [47.2 nm (PDI: 0.263) for 7600 in M_n]. However, the coagulated TiO_2 particles were not detected when using the other PMPC-PO₄H₂ of 12,000 and 20,000 in M_n [49.3 nm (PDI: 0.194) for 12,000 in M_n, and 55.7 nm (PDI: 0.151) for 20,000 in M_n]. Furthermore, the zeta potential of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles prepared with PMPC-PO₄H₂ (M_n : 20,000) decreased markedly to +4.8 mV, which indicates that the modification of PMPC on TiO₂ particles was successful. Moreover, the similar particle size distribution of PMPC-modified TiO₂ particles prepared with PMPC-PO₄H₂ of 12,000, and 20,000 in M_n was maintained even after 240 min in pure water and after 100 times dilution of these particles in pure water [48.2 nm (PDI: 0.203) for 12,000 in M_n , and 53.3 nm (PDI: 0.172) for 20,000 in M_n after 240 min] (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S6). Thus, colloidally stable PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles were successfully prepared using PMPC-PO $_4$ H₂ with sufficient molecular weight. A similar molecular weight effect on the TiO₂ particle size distribution was observed when using PMPC-COOH with different molecular weights. A notable coagulation of TiO₂ particles was detected in the particle size distribution of TiO₂ particles incubated with PMPC-COOH of 5100 in M_n . However, when PMPC-COOH with a higher molecular weight was used, particle size distributions with small peaks derived from coagulated TiO₂ particles were observed. The zeta potential of PMPC-COOH (M_n : 16,000) was approximately +17.9 mV, which is smaller than that of the original TiO_2 particles but is higher than that of the PMPC-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles. Furthermore, the average particle size of the PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ particles increased [84.0 nm (PDI: 0.236) for 16,000 in M_n, and 102.0 nm (PDI: 0.240) for 9800 in M_n] just after 100 times dilution using pure water; a more marked increase in the particle size of PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ particles just after dilution was detected using lower molecular weight PMPC-COOH, although the particle size was maintained after 240 min (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S6). The difference in the colloidal stability of PMPC-PO₄H₂- and PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ particles during pure water dilution may be caused by the higher affinity of the PO_4H_2 group to the TiO₂ particles than that of the COOH group. These results indicate that the colloidal stability of PMPC- PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles is higher than that of PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ particles against pure water dilution.



Figure 4. Particle size distributions of PMPC-PO₄H₂- (**a**) and PMPC-COOH- (**b**) modified TiO_2 nanoparticles. PMPC-PO₄H₂ (**a**) and PMPC-COOH (**b**) possessing different molecular weights were obtained after RAFT polymerizations of MPC using RAFT-PO₄H₂ and RAFT-COOH, respectively.

We further investigated the effect of the PMPC-PO₄H₂ concentration on the particle size of obtained PMPC-modified TiO₂ particles using PMPC-PO₄H₂ (M_n : 7600) (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S7 and Table 2). The average particle size of PMPC-

modified TiO₂ particles increased with increasing concentration from 2.5 mg/mL (41.6 nm, PDI: 0.181) to 5.0 mg/mL (49.1 nm, PDI: 0.264). However, the average particle size was almost saturated above 5.0 mg/mL, i.e., 47.2 nm (PDI: 0.263) and 49.3 nm (PDI: 0.271), and a monodispersed distribution was maintained when the PMPC- PO₄H₂ concentration was set to 0, 2.5, 5.0, 10.0, and 20.0 mg/mL, respectively (see in Supplementary Materials Figure S7).

Table 2. Average particle sizes and PDI of TiO_2 nanoparticles before and after modification of PMPC-PO₄H₂. Different concentrations of PMPC-PO₄H₂ were used.

Sample	Concentration (mg/mL)	Size (nm)	PDI
Original	-	38.3	0.256
	2.5	41.6	0.181
DMDC DO H à	5.0	49.1	0.264
$FMFC-FO_4H_2$	10	47.2	0.263
	20	49.3	0.271

^a: Number-average molecular weight: 7600.

For application as a sonosensitizer, PMPC-modified TiO₂ particles with high colloidal stability under physiological conditions, including pH and ionic concentration, are required. Thus, the colloidal stability of PMPC-modified TiO_2 particles prepared using PMPC-PO₄H₂ and PMPC-COOH was investigated in PBS (pH 7.4) using DLS. The particles of Brij98 stabilized TiO₂ particles immediately coagulated in PBS (Figure 5g). PMPC-modified TiO₂ particles prepared using PMPC-PO₄H₂ (M_n : 5600) showed higher stability than unmodified TiO_2 particles because the particles were not immediately coagulated in PBS. However, the particle size significantly increased with increasing incubation time, reaching 199 nm (PDI: 0.279) after 60 min of incubation. We found that the colloidal stability of the PMPC-modified TiO_2 particles increased with the increasing molecular weight of PMPC-PO₄H₂. The particle sizes of PMPC-modified TiO₂ particles after 60 min of incubation were 86.5 nm (PDI: 0.200), 77.4 nm (PDI: 0.188), and 56.7 nm (PDI: 0.159) when PMPC- PO_4H_2 of 7600, 12,000, and 20,000 in M_n was used, respectively. In particular, the PMPC_{20,000}-modified TiO₂ particles were maintained at less than 100 nm even after 240 min of incubation. In contrast to PMPC-PO₄H₂, the particle size of the PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles increased immediately even when high-molecular-weight PMPC-COOH (9800 and 16,000) was used (Figure 5). These results strongly indicate that the phosphonic acid groups of $PMPC-PO_4H_2$ are necessary to obtain colloidally stable PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles under physiological conditions. Previously, to prepare self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) on TiO₂ substrates or to form modification layers of TiO_2 photocatalysts, various molecules possessing acidic functional groups (e.g., carboxylic acid and phosphonic acid) were widely used, where these acidic groups work as interaction sites for the TiO₂ surface [55–58]. Several groups have reported that phosphonic acids interact more strongly with TiO₂ surfaces compared to carboxylic acids [61]. Gao et al. reported that well-ordered SAMs were formed on TiO_2 surfaces with phosphonic acid compounds, whereas most carboxylic acid compounds were removed from the TiO_2 surface during the washing process [62]. Thus, it appears that PMPC-COOH may be desorbed from TiO_2 nanoparticles in the buffered aqueous solution, resulting in particle coagulation, whereas TiO2 nanoparticles with high colloidal stability were obtained with PMPC- PO_4H_2 and had a stronger interaction capability with TiO_2 .



Figure 5. Particle size distributions, average particle size, and PDI values of PMPC-modified TiO_2 nanoparticles prepared with PMPC_{20,000}-PO₄H₂ (**a**), PMPC_{12,000}-PO₄H₂ (**b**), PMPC₇₆₀₀-PO₄H₂ (**c**), PMPC₅₆₀₀-PO₄H₂ (**d**), PMPC_{30,000}-COOH (**e**), PMPC_{15,000}-COOH (**f**), and Brij98-stabilized TiO_2 nanoparticles (**g**) at different incubation times (0 min: purple, 30 min: blue, 60 min: green, 120 min: yellow, 180 min: orange, 240 min: pink) in PBS.

Finally, we investigated the ${}^{1}O_{2}$ generation capability of PMPC_{20,000}-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles under sonication in PBS using singlet oxygen sensor green (SOSG) as a probe molecule; the fluorescence intensity derived from SOSG increases upon reaction with ${}^{1}O_{2}$. As shown in Figure 6, the fluorescence intensity of SOSG increased gradually with increasing sonication time and was significantly higher than that of the control sample in the absence of PMPC_{20,000}-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles (buffer solution). Furthermore, the fluorescence intensity derived from ${}^{1}O_{2}$ -reacted SOSG for PMPC_{20,000}-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles was higher than that for PMPC₇₆₀₀-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles. These results indicate that the PMPC-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles with high colloidal stability in the buffer solution exhibited ${}^{1}O_{2}$ generation ability under sonication conditions in aqueous media.



Figure 6. Fluorescence spectra derived from singlet oxygen sensor green at various sonication times in PBS without (**a**) and with $PMPC_{20,000}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles (**b**). Fluorescent intensity change at 525 nm after 10 min sonication without and with $PMPC_{7600}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, and with $PMPC_{20,000}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles. (**c**) Fluorescent intensity change at 525 nm after 10 min sonication without and with $PMPC_{7600}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, (**c**) Fluorescent intensity change at 525 nm after 10 min sonication without and with $PMPC_{7600}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, (**c**) Fluorescent intensity change at 525 nm after 10 min sonication without and with $PMPC_{7600}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, and with $PMPC_{20,000}$ -PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles.

3. Conclusions

In this study, we successfully created PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles with high colloidal stability in PBS as novel sonosensitizers using PMPC-PO₄H₂. To prepare PMPC-PO₄H₂, a new water-soluble RAFT agent possessing a phosphonic acid group (RAFT-PO₄H₂) was synthesized. Using RAFT-PO₄H₂, PMPC-PO₄H₂ with a narrow molecular weight distribution was prepared. Further, the molecular weight of PMPC-PO₄ H_2 could be regulated by changing the molar ratio [MPC]/[RAFT-PO₄H₂]. The grafting-to approach using PMPC-PO₄H₂ yielded PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles, and PMPC-PO₄H₂ with a higher molecular weight yielded greater colloidal stability of the PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles. Moreover, the PMPC-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles had greater colloidal stability under physiological conditions than the PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles. Furthermore, the sonosensitizing effect of the PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles in assisting ${}^{1}O_{2}$ generation in an aqueous medium was clarified. Utilizing the RAFT polymerization, the TiO₂ nanoparticles can be further functionalized. For example, the sonosensitizer can be further functionalized by 2nd block chain extension and/or RAFT chain end modification. We believe that the various functionalized biocompatible polymerfunctionalized TiO₂ nanoparticles will be developed for sonodynamic therapy.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Materials

4-Cyano-4-(phenylcarbonothioylthio)pentanoic acid *N*-succinimidyl ester, *O*-phosphoryl ethanolamine, and MPC were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). 2,2'-Azobis[2-(2-imidazolin-2-yl)propane]dihydrochloride (VA-044) and Brij98 were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Co., Ltd. (Osaka, Japan). NaCl, HCl, NaOH, and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were purchased from Nacalai Tesque (Kyoto, Japan). A dispersion of TiO₂ nanoparticles (STS-100) was purchased from Ishihara Sangyo Kaisha Ltd. (Osaka, Japan). Deionized water was obtained using a Millipore Milli-Q purification system. SOSG was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA).

4.2. Apparatus

UV–Vis spectral measurements were performed using a V-560 spectrophotometer (Jasco Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Fluorescence spectral measurements were performed using an FP-8300 spectrophotometer (Jasco Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). ¹H-NMR spectra were measured using a 400-MHz Fourier transform (FT)-NMR apparatus (JNM-ECX400, FT-NMR system, JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The particle size distribution and zeta potential of the obtained particles were measured using a ZETASIZER NANO-ZS instrument (Malvern, UK). Ultrasonication was performed using Sonitron2000 (NEPA GENE, Chiba, Japan). The numberand weight-average molecular weights (M_n and M_w , respectively) were analyzed by GPC at 40 °C using TSKgel G3000PW and TSKgel G4000PW (7.8 mm i.d. × 300 mm, Tosoh Corp.) with 20 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) as the eluent, coupled with a refractive index detector (RI-2031 Plus, JASCO, Tokyo, Japan). A PEG standard (molecular weight range: 1080–107,000) was used to calibrate the molecular weight. Theoretical molecular weights were calculated using the following Equation (1). In Equation (1), $M_{n.Monomer}$ and $M_{n.RAFT}$ are molecular weights of monomer and RAFT agent, respectively.

$$M_{\rm n.th} = M_{\rm n.Monomer} \times \frac{[\rm Monomer]}{[\rm RAFT agent]} \times \rm Conversion + M_{\rm n.RAFT}$$
(1)

4.3. Synthesis of RAFT- PO_4H_2

4-Cyano-4-(phenylcarbonothioylthio)pentanoic acid *N*-succinimidyl ester (546.6 mg, 1.45 mmol) was dissolved in DMSO (30 mL). *O*-phosphoryl ethanolamine (234.6 mg, 1.66 mmol) was dissolved in a carbonate buffer (pH 9, 15 mL). These solutions were mixed to facilitate a coupling reaction between these molecules at room temperature for 18 h in the dark. The product was purified via inverse silica gel chromatography using methanol and water. Methanol and water were removed by evaporation and freeze-drying, respectively, to yield a dry product. Yield: 82%.

4.4. Synthesis of PMPC by RAFT Polymerization

MPC (1 mmol), RAFT-PO₄H₂ (10, 20, 40, 80 µmol), and VA-044 (2.5, 5.0, 10, 20 µmol) were dissolved in deionized water (3, 3, 5, 8 mL). The solution was added to a Schlenk flask. After several N₂/degassing processes, the polymerization began with heating the solution at 40 °C for 24 h in the dark. After polymerization, the polymer (PMPC-PO₄H₂) was obtained by freeze-drying. To prepare PMPC-COOH, RAFT polymerization was performed under the same conditions as the prepolymer solution of methanol (3 mL) containing MPC (1 mmol), RAFT-COOH (10, 20, 40, and 80 µmol), and VA-044 (2.5, 5.0, 10 and 20 µmol).

4.5. PMPC-Modified TiO₂ Nanoparticles

TiO₂ nanoparticles were dispersed in deionized water by dissolving Brij98 (1.5 mL), and PMPC- PO₄H₂ or PMPC-COOH aqueous solution (1.5 mL) was mixed with the dispersion of TiO₂ nanoparticles (final concentration:1 mg/mL TiO₂, 0.5 mM Brij98, 10 mg/mL PMPC). After the pH was adjusted to 4.0, the mixture was incubated for 24 h at room temperature in the dark. The size distribution of the incubated particles was determined using DLS. The supernatant of the dispersion was separated by ultrafiltration (50,000 Da), and the UV–Vis spectra of the supernatant and the original PMPC aqueous solution were measured to evaluate the modification of PMPC-PO₄H₂ or PMPC-COOH on TiO₂ nanoparticles.

4.6. Colloidal Stability of PMPC-Modified TiO₂ Nanoparticles in PBS

The dispersion of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles (2.5 μ L) was mixed with PBS (pH 7.4, 2.9975 mL). After several incubation periods, the particle size distributions were measured using DLS. Stabilized TiO₂ nanoparticles were used as a reference instead of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles.

4.7. Sonosensitizing Effect of PMPC-Modified TiO₂ Nanoparticles

The dispersion of PMPC-modified TiO₂ nanoparticles (3 mL, TiO₂ concentration: 45 μ L/mL) was mixed with a methanol solution of SOSG (0.5 M, 6 μ L). Thereafter, sonication (intensity: 0.5 W/cm²) was performed for 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 min. The fluorescence intensity of SOSG was measured at excitation wavelength of 485 nm and an emission wavelength of 525 nm.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: https: //www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/polym15112426/s1, Figure S1: ¹³C NMR spectrum of RAFT-PO₄H₂; Figure S2: UV–Vis spectrum of RAFT-PO₄H₂; Figure S3: ¹H NMR spectra of MPC and PMPC; Figure S4: UV–Vis spectra of PMPC-PO₄H₂; Figure S5: UV–Vis spectra of PMPC-COOH; Figure S6: Colloidal stability of PMPC-PO₄H₂-and PMPC-COOH-modified TiO₂ particles; Figure S7: Particle size distributions of PMPC-PO₄H₂-modified TiO₂ particles prepared with different concentrations of PMPC₇₆₀₀-PO₄H₂.

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