Highly Stable RNA Capture by Dense Cationic Polymer Brushes for the Design of Cytocompatible, Serum-Stable SiRNA Delivery Vectors

4 Danyang $Li^{\dagger,\$}$, Amir S. Sharili^{†, #}, John Connelly^{†, #}, Julien E. Gautrot^{*,†,\\$}

[†]Institute of Bioengineering and [§]School of Engineering and Materials Science, Queen Mary
University of London, Mile End Road, London E1 4NS, United Kingdom

7 Barts and the London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, 4

8 Newark Street, London E1 2AT, United Kingdom

9

10 KEYWORDS: Polymer brush, block copolymer, grafting density, gene delivery, siRNA

11

12 ABSTRACT

13 The high density of polymer brushes confers to these coatings unique physico-chemical properties, 14 in particular for the regulation of biomolecular interaction and the design of highly selective 15 coatings for biosensors and protein patterning. Here we show that high density 16 poly(dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate) cationic polymer brushes enable the stable uptake of high 17 levels of oligonucleotides. This is proposed to result from the high degree of crowding and 18 associated increase in entropic driving force for the binding of polyelectrolytes such as nucleic 19 acid molecules. We further demonstrate the ease with which such coatings allow the design of 20 highly structured nanomaterials for siRNA delivery using block copolymer-brush based nanoparticles that allow the protection of oligonucleotides by a protein resistant outer block. In
particular these nanomaterials display a high serum stability and low cytotoxicity whilst retaining
excellent knock down efficiencies. Polymer brush-based nanomaterials therefore appear
particularly attractive for the rational design of a new generation of high performance theranostics
and RNA delivery probes.

6

7 INTRODUCTION

8 Polymer brushes have attracted considerable attention, due to their ease of synthesis via controlled 9 radical polymerizations, offering unprecedented control over the coating structure and 10 architecture¹⁻². Brushes have been applied in the biomedical field for the design of highly specific 11 biosensors and the restriction of protein adsorption and cell adhesion³. The very dense crowding 12 of polymer brushes has proved extremely important to reduce protein adsorption to surfaces, beyond detection levels. This has enabled their use for the design of bacterial resistant coatings⁴⁻⁶ 13 and the patterning of protein and cell adhesions at the nano- to micro-scale⁷⁻¹⁰. In contrast, despite 14 15 the exceptional level of control of structure and architecture that can be achieved using polymer 16 brushes, including their potential for the design of theranostic probes and the systematic study of 17 nanoparticle-cell interactions, polymer brush-functionalised nanomaterials have found limited 18 applications in drug and gene delivery, perhaps as a result of their limited loading capacity. 19 However, plasmid DNA and RNA (siRNA and miRNA) delivery typically only require very low loading levels (a few copies per cell)¹¹⁻¹². Hence a few articles have recently reported the delivery 20 21 of plasmid DNA using polymer brush-functionalised nanoparticles. For example 22 poly(dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate) (PDMAEMA) brushes were grown from ATRP initiator functionalized silsesquioxane¹³, silica nanoparticles¹⁴, nanodiamond¹⁵, gold nanomaterials¹⁶ and 23

magnetic nanoparticle¹⁷ cores for the capture and delivery of plasmid DNA. Although moderate 1 2 gene transfection efficiencies were obtained (up to 55% in some cases), one of the key advantages 3 of polymer brushes is to enable the introduction of cores with different chemistry, shapes and sizes (e.g. for imaging properties via fluorescence¹⁴⁻¹⁵ or MRI^{16, 18-19}), whilst retaining the same coating 4 5 chemistry. Therefore polymer brush decorated nanomaterials offer exciting opportunities for the 6 systematic study of parameters impacting gene delivery and transfection (core type, brush 7 chemistry, thickness and grafting density). However, relatively poor infiltration of large plasmid DNA molecules (4.5 kbp) through PDMAEMA brushes¹⁴ implies sub-optimal loading and limits 8 9 the design freedom of brush-based delivery vectors.

10 Here we report the high loading level of small RNA molecules within densely packed PDMAEMA 11 brushes and their stabilization via multiple interactions within such highly crowded polycationic 12 environment. Indeed, in contrast to low density polymer coatings typically achieved via a "grafting 13 to" approach, the grafting density of polymer brushes grown via surface initiated polymerization 14 techniques is not limited by thermodynamically controlled surface adsorption, but is determined 15 by the initiator density deposited and the kinetic control of polymerization and termination 16 reactions. As a result of such structural control, we report the use of PDMAEMA brush-17 functionalized nanoparticles with high knock down efficiency. In addition, we demonstrate the 18 high flexibility of structural design of such nanomaterials, using block copolymer brushes, for their 19 stabilization in complex protein mixtures such as sera and the reduction of cytotoxicity.

20

21

1 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials. 2-(Dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate (DMAEMA, Mn = 157.21), oligo(ethylene 2 3 glycol methyl ether methacrylate) (OEGMA, $M_n = 300$), copper chloride (Cu(I)Cl), copper 4 bromide (Cu(II)Br₂), 2,2'-bipyridyl (bipy), anhydrous toluene, triethylamine (Et₃N) and 1-5 undecanethiol were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. All chemicals and 6 solvents were analytical grades unless otherwise stated. Cu(I)Cl was kept under vacuum until used. 7 Silicon wafers (100 mm diameter, <100> orientation, polished on one side/reverse etched) were 8 purchased from Compart Technology Ltd and cleaned in a Plasma System Zepto from Diener 9 Electronic, for 10 min in air. Gold-coated substrates were obtained through the evaporation of a 10 chromium layer (20 nm followed by the evaporation of a gold layer (200 nm) using an Edwards 11 Auto 500 evaporator. Silica particles (unfunctionalised) were purchased from Bangs Laboratories 12 (supplied as powder, mean diameters of 300 nm). The thiol initiator, ω -mercaptoundecyl bromoisobutyrate was synthesised according to the literature²⁰, and silane initiator, (3-13 14 trimethoxysilyl)propyl 2-bromo-2-methylpropionate was purchased from Gelest. Surface plasmon 15 resonance (SPR) chips (10 x 12 x 0.3 mm) were purchased from Ssens. Triton X-100, gelatin, 16 phallodin-tetramethylrhodamine B isothiocyanate, PFA (paraformaldehyde), DAPI (4,6-17 diamidino-2-phenylindole), phosphate buffered saline (PBS, 150 mM) were purchased from 18 Sigma Aldrich. Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) medium, OPti-MEM[™] medium, 19 Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS), trypsin, versene, penicillin-streptomycin, L-glutamine, Alexa Fluor 20 goat anti-rabbit 488 and DNA fragmens were from Thermo-Fisher. Collagen type I was from BD 21 Bio-science. GFP siRNA (target sequence CGG CAA GCT GAC CCT GAA GTT CAT), EGFR 22 siRNA (target sequence CAG GAA CTG GAT ATT CTG AAA), negative control (NC) siRNA 23 (N/A) were purchased from Qiagen®. The EGFP plasmid was purified by using a plasmid

purification kit from PureLink[™], thermo fisher. Anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody (rabbit) was
 purchased from Abcam. Western blot gel, buffers, transfer kit and protein ladder were purchased
 from Bio-Rad. Secondary IRDye® 800CW Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H + L) was from Li-cor.

4

5 Polymer brush synthesis on flat surfaces (silicon wafer, gold substrate and SPR chips)

6 The brushes were synthesised from the bromo initiator moieties with the 'grafting from' method,7 using atom transfer radical polymerisation (ATRP).

8 Deposition of the ATRP silane initiator on silicon wafers. A piece of plasma-oxidized silicon wafer 9 was immersed in a solution of silane initiator (30 μL), Et₃N (50 μL), anhydrous toluene (30 mL), 10 and left at room temperature overnight. Then the wafer was rinsed with ethanol and dried under 11 nitrogen stream. Initiator-coated wafers were kept in a dry and dust free nitrogen box until needed. 12 The dry thickness of silane initiator layers was near 2 nm, as measured via spectroscopic 13 ellipsometry (JA Woollam, -SE).

14 Deposition of ATRP thiol initiator on gold substrates and SPR chips. Gold substrate and SPR chips 15 were first plasma-oxidised and immersed in 5 mM thiol initiator ethanoic solutions containing two 16 different ratios of ω -mercaptoundecyl bromoisobutyrate to 1-undecanethiol (100 % and 10 %, 17 depending on the grafting density targeted). The chips were left at room temperature overnight, 18 then washed with ethanol and dried under nitrogen. The thiol initiator functionalised chips were 19 used to grow polymer brushes freshly. The dry thickness of thiol initiator layers was near 2 nm, as 20 measured via ellipsometry.

1 Synthesis of PDMAEMA brushes. To study PDMAEMA brush growth and the evolution of its 2 thickness as a function of time, a solution of CuBr₂ (18 mg, 80 µmol), bipy (320 mg, 2.05 mmol), 3 and DMAEMA (42 mmol, 6.6 g) in water/ethanol (4/1 (v/v), 30 mL) was degassed using argon 4 bubbling for 30 min. CuCl (82 mg, 828 µmol) was added into this solution quickly and the resulting 5 mixture was sonicated to ensure fully dissolve of CuCl and further degassed for 30 min before polymerization. Initiator-coated silicon/gold substrates ($\sim 1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ each) were placed in reaction 6 7 vessels and degassed via four cycles of high vacuum/nitrogen gas refilling. Subsequently, 1 mL of 8 DMAEMA solution was transferred to reaction vessels under inert atmosphere via a syringe. The 9 polymerization was stopped at different time points (2.5, 5, 10, 20, 30 min) by immersing the 10 coated substrates in deionized water, followed by washing with copious amounts of ethanol and 11 drying under a nitrogen stream. The dry thickness of PDMAEMA brush was measured via 12 ellipsometry afterwards. PDMAEMA brush growth kinetics can be found in Fig. S1. For the preparation of sparse PDMAEMA brushes on gold substrates, the thiol initiator was diluted with 13 14 1-undecanethiol at a ratio of 1:9. Brush thickness on undiluted and diluted thiol monolayers can 15 be found in Fig. S2.

16 Synthesis of POEGMA brushes. The procedure of POEGMA brush synthesis was similar as for 17 PDMAEMA brushes except for the difference in monomer solution: the OEGMA solution 18 consisted CuBr₂ (18 mg, 80 μ mol), bipy (320 mg, 2.05 mmol), and OEGMA (42 mmol, 12.6 g) 19 and CuCl (82 mg, 828 μ mol) in water/ethanol (4/1 (v/v), 30 mL). Kinetics for POEGMA brush 20 growth was also studied at time points of 2.5, 5, 10, 20, 30 min. POEGMA brush growth kinetics 21 can be found in Fig. S10.

22 Synthesis of block copolymer brush (BCB). For preparation of block copolymer brush, 1 mL
23 DMAEMA solution (composition is the same as in 1.2.1) was add to each reaction vessel

containing the initiator-coated silicon wafers, gold substrates or SPR chips under inert atmosphere.
After polymerisation for the time corresponding to the targeted thickness (10 nm, 4 min
polymerization, or 30 nm, 20 min polymerization), according to PDMAEMA brush growth
kinetics in Figure S1), 10 mL of OEGMA monomer solution (composition is the same as in 1.2.2)
was injected and left to polymerise for different time points before the reaction was stopped. Total
dry thicknesses were measured afterwards by ellipsometry. Growth kinetics for the second block
can be found in Fig. S11.

8

9 Synthesis of polymer brush coated silica nanoparticles

10 Initiator deposition. Anhydrous toluene (4 mL) kept under nitrogen was added to 200 mg 300 nm 11 silica nanoparticles. The particles were sonicated for 10 min and were shaken until the suspension 12 turned cloudy and homogenous. The silica particles were then centrifuged at 4000 rpm x 15 min 13 and the toluene was aspirated out. The sonication and centrifugation process was repeated three 14 times and the particles were finally dispersed in 4 mL anhydrous toluene. The initiator grafting 15 process was carried out by adding 200 µL Et₃N, 40 µL silane initiator to the 4 mL silica dispersion 16 and stirring overnight. Then the silica particles with silane initiator (SiO₂-silane) were washed with 17 4 mL ethanol three times and stored in final water/ethanol (4/1 (v/v), 10 mL)) in the fridge until 18 needed for polymerization.

Synthesis of PDMAEMA brushes on silica nanoparticles (SiO₂-PDMAEMA). The polymerization
solution was prepared as described previously by dissolving DMAEMA (6.6 g, 42 mmol), bipy
(320 mg, 2.05 mmol), CuBr₂ (80 mmol) and CuCl (0.082 g, 828 µmol) in half of the total
polymerization solvent (water/ethanol 4/1 (v/v), 15 mL). 10 mL SiO₂-silane dispersion obtained

1 in 2.1 were degassed for 30 minutes with argon bubbling while stirring. An equal volume of 2 DMAEMA monomer solution was added to the SiO₂-silane suspension. Polymerization was 3 allowed to proceed under argon at RT for 20 min to get 30 nm of PDMAEMA brush on SiO₂. To 4 terminate the polymerization, the particle dispersion was diluted using deionized water and 5 bubbled with air until the color changed from dark brown to blue (oxidization of CuCl). The 6 particles were recovered via centrifugation, washed successively with water and ethanol to get rid 7 of the catalysts and residual monomer, during which, sonication was applied to reduce the 8 aggregation and finally the particles were dispersed in 10 mL deionized water and stored in the 9 fridge.

10 Synthesis of POEGMA brushes on silica nanoparticles (SiO₂-POEGMA). The procedure of 11 POEGMA brush synthesis was similar to that used for PDMAEMA brushes except for the 12 difference in monomer solution. For OEGMA polymerization on silica nanoparticles, the 13 monomer solution was: OEGMA (12.6 g, 42 mmol), bipy (320 mg, 2.05mmol), CuBr₂ (80 mmol) 14 and CuCl (0.082 g, 828 μ mol) in 15 mL solvent (water/ethanol 4/1 (v/v), 15 mL).

15 Synthesis of block copolymer brushes on silica nanoparticles (SiO₂-BCB). For preparation of block 16 copolymer brushes on silica nanoparticles, 2.5 mL DMAEMA monomer solution described in 17 2.2.1 was added to an equal volume of degassed SiO₂-silane dispersion under inert atmosphere. 18 After achieving 30 nm of PDMAEMA brush (polymerisation for 20 min), 50 mL OEGMA 19 monomer solution described in 2.2.2 was injected and left to polymerise for 120 min according to 20 Figure S11 to generate a second block containing POEGMA and PDMAEMA (molar ratio of 10) 21 with a thickness of 30 nm. Polymerisation was stopped and particles were purified in the same 22 way as for SiO₂-PDMAEMA, as described in 2.2.1.

2 Polymer brush coated nanoparticle characterization

Size and zeta potential measurement. The size and zeta potential of PDMAEMA, POEGMA and block copolymer brush coated silica nanoparticles were measured with a Malvern zetasizer nano ZS. Samples were prepared by dispersing particles in PBS until obtaining a slightly cloudy solution and then sonicated for 10 min with shaking at regular intervals. Each samples were measured in triplicates (three independent samples from at least two batches of particles) at 25°C and the average result was taken as the final hydrodynamic diameter or zeta potential.

9 *Thermogravimetric (TGA) measurement.* By using TGA, the dry mass of polymer on silica 10 nanoparticles was determined. Herein, the TGA was performed in air using a TA Instruments 11 Q500. All samples were heated from room temperature to up to 1000 °C at a heating rate of 10 12 °C/min and dried under vacuum at room temperature prior to TGA runs. It was assumed that the 13 mass change from 100 °C to 900 °C was due to the burning of the organic polymer brush coatings 14 and the remainder was non-combustible silica particles. The polymer brush thickness on silica 15 nanoparticles was calculated according to TGA results in Fig. S6 and equation S3.

Fourier transform infrared - attenuated total reflectance (FTIR-ATR). FTIR was used to characterise the different chemical groups expected within the respective materials through obtaining an infrared spectrum. ATR-FTIR spectroscopy in this study was carried out using a Bruker Tensor 27 with an MCT detector (liquid N2 cooled). Spectra were taken at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ with a total of 128 scans per run. FTIR spectroscopy was carried out on bare SiO₂, SiO₂-PDMAEMA, SiO₂-POEGMA and SiO₂-BCB, results in Fig. 4C.

1 Brush density measurement on silica nanoparticles. PDMAEMA brush density on silica 2 nanoparticles can be determined by Equation S4, knowing the weight percentage (characterised 3 by TGA) and molecular weight of PDMAEMA on silica nanoparticles. For molecular weight 4 characterization, PDMAEMA was cleaved from silica nanoparticles and characterized with gel 5 permeation chromatography (GPC). Briefly, 5 mL SiO₂-PDMAEMA particle suspension (20 6 mg/mL) was added to 25 mL 10 % hydrofluoric acid solution and stirred at room temperature for 7 4 h. The cloudy particle suspension turned clear after silica cores dissolved completely. The 8 solution was then transferred to a 3.5 KD Spectra/Por® dialysis bag, dialyzed with deionized water 9 and freeze dried afterwards. GPC measurements were carried on an Agilent 1260 infinity system 10 operating in dimethylformamide (DMF) with 5 mM ammonium tetrafluoroborate at 50 °C and 11 equipped with refractive index detectors and variable wavelength detectors. The instrument was 12 calibrated with linear narrow polystyrene standards in a range of 550 to 46,890 g/mol. 2 mg of 13 PDMAEMA cleaved from silica nanoparticles was dissolved in 2 mL of DMF completely and 14 filtered before GPC characterization.

15 *Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)*. TEM measurements were carried out using a JEOL 16 2010 transmission electron microscope with a LaB6 filament, operated at 200 kV. Samples were 17 prepared by dropping the diluted brush coated silica nanoparticle suspension on a copper grid with 18 porous carbon film and drying at room temperature.

19

20 Charactersiation of interactions between polymer brushes and nucleic acids via SPR

SPR was used to evaluate the interaction between nucleic acid molecules (10 bp DNA, 100 bp
DNA, 22 bp RNA and 4.5 kbp plasmid) and polymer brushes with a Biacore 3000. SPR chips were

1 coated with polymer brushes prior to mounting on a substrate holder. Mounted chips were docked, 2 primed with PBS and equilibrated with PBS at 10 µL/min flow rate until a stable baseline was 3 obtained. 50 µL nucleic acid solutions (plasmid DNA or RNA) were injected at 10 µg/mL. Once 4 the injection was finished, washing with PBS was continued at 10 μ L/min flow rate. The nucleic 5 acid adsorption level was measured after washing with PBS for 15 min. Nucleic acid adsorption 6 studies via SPR was carried out with chips coated with 30 nm brushes, at densities of 100 % and 7 10 % for PDMAEMA, POEGMA brushes and 100 % density of block copolymer brush 8 (PDMAEMA, 10 nm, + POEGMA, 10 nm). All measurements were carried out in triplicates (three 9 separate chips freshly prepared).

10

11 Characterisation of protein adsorption to polymer brushes and nanoparticle aggregation

Proteins adsorption to polymer brush coated SPR chips. SPR was used to investigate the binding of proteins on polymer brushes. Similar methods to those used for the characterisation of nucleic acid adsorption were used, but chips were exposed to 50 µL of 10 % FBS during injection of the protein samples. Measurements were carried on 10 nm PDMAEMA, POEGMA brushes and 100 % density of block copolymer brushes (PDMAEMA, 10 nm, + POEGMA, 10 nm). All measurements were carried out in triplicates (three separate chips freshly prepared).

18 Nanoparticle and siRNA complex aggregation in serum solutions. SiO₂-PDMAEMA, SiO₂19 POEGMA, SiO₂-BCB and their siRNA complexes (N/P of 10) were dispersed in 10 % FBS (PBS)
20 solution for 30 min, 2 h, 24 h and 48 h respectively. Subsequently, particles were centrifuged and
21 washed three times and redispersed in PBS before characterisation via DLS. Changes in size after

incubation in FBS solutions indicated the aggregation of particles following protein adsorption.
 Each sample was measured in triplicate at 25°C.

3

4 *Cell viability assay*

5 HaCaT Cell culture and passage. DMEM media supplied with 10 % FBS, 1 % Penicillin-6 Streptomycin (P/S) and 1 % glutamine was used to culture HaCaT cells in 37°C/5 % CO2 7 incubator. To harvest HaCaT cells (T75), cells were washed twice with pre-warmed PBS solution 8 and then cells were detached from the flask by trypsinisation (versene/trypsin, 4/1 v/v, 5 mL, 9 37°C). 15 mL of DMEM medium was then added to the flask to quench the trypsin. Cells were 10 transferred to a 50 mL centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 1200 rpm for 5 min. After discarding the 11 supernatant solution, the pellet was resuspended in 10 mL FAD medium and the concentration of 12 cells was measured with a haematocytometer.

13 *Cell viability test.* Cells were seeded at a density of 50 k cells per well (in 500 µL of DMEA 14 medium) in 24-well plates 24 h prior. SiRNA (with a final concentration of 50 nM/well) complexed 15 with SiO₂-PDMAEMA, SiO₂-POEGMA, SiO₂-BCB at N/P=5, 10, 15 and Lipofectamine/siRNA 16 were added into each well for 4 h in serum free OPTI-MEM medium and then the medium was 17 replaced by full culture DMEM medium for further 24 h incubation. Cell viability was carried out 18 by live/dead assay in which, cells were incubated in 500 µL DMEM medium of 4 mM calcein AM 19 and 2 mM ethidium homodimer for 30 min prior to imaging. Fluorescence imaging was used to 20 capture the live-dead cells and these were counted via ImageJ to obtain the percentage of live cells 21 of total number of cells.

1 Transfection assay

Establishment of stable HaCaT Cells expressing green fluorescence protein (HaCaT-GFP). Stable
HaCaT cell lines expressed EGFP-actin were generated by transfection with linearized plasmids
for EGFP-actin (Clontech, Mountain View, CA) as previously described²¹. Cells were transfected
using Lipofectamine 2000 according to the manufacturer's instructions and selected with 0.5
mg/mL G418 until a stable GFP positive population was established.

7 Knock down assay with SiO₂-PDMAEMA and SiO₂-BCB. The protocol for culturing and passaging 8 HaCaT-GFP cells was the same as for HaCaT cells. HaCaT-GFP cells were seeded at a density of 9 50 k/well on glass cover slips pre-treated with collagen in 24 well plates, 24 h prior to the 10 transfection assay. A final siRNA concentration of 50 nM/well was used for all transfection assays 11 described in this report. 100 µL SiO₂-PDMAEMA/GFP siRNA (or SiO₂-BCB/GFP siRNA) 12 complexes were prepared at N/P=5, 10 and 15, in serum free OPTI-MEM medium. After removing 13 the DMEM medium, cells were washed twice with pre-warmed serum free OPTI-MEM medium 14 and another 400 μ L was added. 100 μ L siRNA complex was then added dropwise to each well and 15 mixed by shaking gently. Cells were incubated with siRNA complexes for 4 h in the incubator and 16 the medium was then replaced by 500 µL full culture DMEM medium for a further 24 h of 17 incubation. Lipofectamine® 2000 complexed with GFP siRNA/negative control (NC) siRNA 18 (protocol according to the manufacturer's instruction with a final siRNA concentration of 50 19 nM/well) was used as a positive/negative control. The transfected cells were washed with PBS 20 three times, fixed in paraformaldehyde (PFA, 4%, 10 min) and permeabilised with Triton X-100 21 (0.2 %, 5 min). Cells were then stained with TRITC-phalloidin (1:1000) and DAPI (4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, 1:1000) in blocking buffer (10% FBS and 0.25% gelatin from cold water fish skin, 22

Sigma-Aldrich) and kept at room temperature for 1 h. Cover slips with fixed cells were mounted
 on glass slides before imaging with a Leica DMI4000 fluorescence microscope.

3 SiO₂-BCB/EGFR siRNA on cancer cells (immunostaining and western blot). Cancer cells used in 4 this study were HeLa cells and A549 cells. The culture medium and protocol were similar with 5 HaCaT cells except for shorter trypsinisation times. Both cancer cells were transfected with SiO₂-6 BCB/EGFR siRNA, lipofectetamine/EGFR siRNA and lipofectetamine/NC siRNA at N/P ratio of 7 10. After transfection, cells were washed with PBS, fixed and permeabilised as described in 7.1. 8 Non-specific protein binding was blocked by incubating the cover-slips for 1 h in blocking buffer 9 (10% FBS and 0.25% gelatin in PBS). Subsequently, the cover-slips were incubated with anti-10 EGFR monoclonal antibody (anti-EGFR, 1:200, Abcam) in blocking buffer for 1 h at room 11 temperature. After washing with PBS three times, cells were then incubated with Alexa Fluor 488-12 conjugated secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit, 1:1000, Thermo-Fisher), phalloidin (1:1000) and 13 DAPI (1:1000) in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. Samples were washed and mounted 14 onto glass slides prior to imaging. The relative protein abundance across samples was determined 15 for western blot. After transfection, cells were harvested, lysised and the protein content was 16 quantified (PierceTM BCA Protein Assay Kit, Thermo-Fisher). Equal protein loadings was further 17 confirmed by GAPDH. Bands were separated on a 4% to 15% SDS-PAGE gradient gels (Bio-Rad) 18 and semi-dry transferred on to PVDF membranes. Blots were incubated with blocking buffer (5 % 19 milk powder and 5 % FBS in TBS buffer) at room temperature for 1 h before incubating with an 20 anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody 1:1000 (identical to that used for immunostaining) in blocking buffer at 4 °C overnight. After washing three times with TBS + tween buffer, secondary IRDye® 21 22 800CW Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H + L) (1:15000, Li-cor) in blocking buffer was applied for a further 1 h incubation at room temperature. Bands were visualized using an Odyssey® imaging
 system (Li-cor).

3

4 Statistics

5 Data are reported as averages ± stdev for groups of at least three replicates, or as individual values
6 with the average indicated. An unpaired, two-tailed Student's t test was used for assessing of
7 statistical significance (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

8

9 **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

10 **Controlled polymer brush growth on flat surfaces**

11 The growth kinetics of PDMAEMA brushes generated via ATRP was investigated first, both on 12 silicon wafers and gold substrates to confirm the control of brush growth from silica-type materials 13 and SPR chips (gold coated on glass). Progress of the polymerisation was monitored by 14 characterising the dry brush thickness via ellipsometry (Figure S1). The brush growth rate can be 15 controlled by varying the monomer concentration, the ratio of Cu(I) to Cu(II), the nature of the 16 ligands, and the solvent composition. In this study, addition of ethanol resulted in particularly well-17 controlled growth of PDMAEMA brush especially for thin brushes below 45 nm, as the 18 PDMAEMA brush thickness profile is linear with little initial jump. Moreover, by diluting the 19 initiator with its non-reactive analogues, the desired grafting density of PDMAEMA can be easily 20 achieved according to Equation 1:

$$\sigma = \frac{\rho_m N_A h_{dry}}{M_n} \quad \text{(Equation 1)}$$

2 where ρ_m is the density of DMAEMA (1.318 g/cm³), N_A is Avogadro's number, h_{dry} is the dry 3 thickness of the brushes, and M_n is the average molecular weight of the tethered polymer chains 4 ²²⁻²³.

5 Monitoring the interaction of PDMAEMA brush with nucleic acids

6 The interactions of double stranded DNA and RNA probes with PDMAEMA brushes was 7 investigated via surface plasmon resonance (SPR), in order to establish how brush density and 8 nucleic acid probe size control their interactions and infiltration. To investigate the role of grafting 9 density on such interactions, the density of PDMAEMA brushes was controlled by diluting the 10 silane ATRP initiator with an unreactive silane (Figure S2). The adsorption of DNA probes, with 11 sizes ranging from 10 to 4.5 kbp and a 22 bp RNA probe, to PDMAEMA brushes was monitored via SPR (Figure 1A and B). On dense brushes (0.50 chains/nm²²²⁻²⁴), fast adsorption was observed 12 13 for all probes, but in particular for the shorter 10 bp DNA and 22 bp RNA molecules. Upon 14 washing with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), stable retention was observed, except for the 15 smallest DNA probe, implying a weaker entropic drive for the adsorption of such small molecules. 16 In contrast, the adsorption profile of nucleic acid molecules to lower density brushes (0.12 17 chains/nm²) displayed no significant differences in the initial rate of adsorption (with the exception 18 of the large plasmid DNA), followed by a relatively fast desorption upon washing with PBS, in 19 particular for the 10 bp DNA probe. Hence our results imply that nucleic acid adsorption to 20 polymer brushes is kinetically limited by molecular crowding but results in considerable 21 stabilization of adsorbed nucleic acid molecules with intermediate sizes. In all cases, the calculated 22 negative charge density (phosphates) of molecules adsorbed remained significantly lower (< 7,800

pmol/cm² for 22 bp RNA Figure 1C) than the positive charge density measured for high density 1 2 PDMAEMA brushes (26,500 pmol/cm²). Therefore, in polymer brushes, molecular crowding, and local desorption/re-adsorption phenomena²⁵, combine to entropic stabilization (including a strong 3 4 component resulting from counterion release), resulting in stable retention of the corresponding 5 molecules (Figure 1D). Entropic stabilization of oligonucleotides may also be enhanced in polymer 6 brushes, due to the frustrated conformation of polymer chains. Surprisingly, this effect was 7 particularly pronounced in the case of 22 bp RNA molecules (Figure 1C), perhaps as a result of additional hydroxyl groups and the presence of uridyl bases present on RNA probes²⁶. The short 8 9 length and stiffer structure of RNA molecules, compared with larger DNA molecules and 10 plasmids, is typically though to reduce interactions and condensation, with cationic polymeric nonviral delivery agents.²⁷⁻²⁹ Consequently, a higher N/P ratio is typically required to form polyplexes 11 with siRNA molecules, to optimize knock down efficiencies.²⁷ Therefore the dense crowding of 12 13 cationic polymer brushes constitutes a unique environment for highly stable RNA uptake.

14

15 Synthesis and characterization of PDMAEMA brush coated silica nanoparticles

The high binding capacity of RNA probes within dense PDMAEMA brushes suggested their use for siRNA delivery and the regulation of gene expression. Firstly, PDMAEMA brush coated 300 nm silica nanoparticles (SiO₂-PDMAEMA, measured with DLS in PBS) were prepared via ATRP with well dispersed particle size of 443 ± 6 nm in PBS (Figure S3) and zeta potential of 15.8 ± 4.4 mV. Our previous work showed that PDMAEMA brush growth from silica particles is well controlled at the targeted thickness¹⁴. The morphology of SiO₂-PDMAEMA was confirmed by transmission electron microscope (TEM, Figure S4), which displayed an obvious organic layer of

1 PDMAEMA surrounding the silica core. The associated changes in surface chemistry were confirmed by fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR, Figure S5), with the appearance of a 2 band at 1730 cm⁻¹, characteristic of C=O vibrations for PDMAEMA. The amount of PDMAEMA 3 4 on the surface of SiO₂ was determined by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) analysis, with 24 % 5 weight loss associated with the polymer coating (Table1 and Figure S6). According to Equation 2, 6 the dry brush thickness of PDMAEMA brushes on SiO₂ was calculated as 28 nm. After cleavage 7 of PDMAEMA chains from silica nanoparticles by hydrofluoric acid, the resulting PDMAEMA 8 was characterized by gel permeation chromatography (GPC in Figure S7) and using Equation 3. 9 The PDMAEMA chain density on SiO₂ was found to be 0.45 chain/nm², close to the dense brushes 10 achieved on flat silicon wafers. Thus, dense PDMAEMA brush coated silica nanoparticles were 11 prepared for further siRNA knock down studies.

12
$$h = R(\frac{W_{brush}\rho_{SiO_2}}{W_{SiO_2}\rho_{brush}} + 1)^{1/3} - R \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

Equation 2 was used to determine the brush thickness on silica nanoparticles, where W_{brush} is the weight loss percentage corresponding to the decomposition of polymer brush component, W_{SiO2} is the residual weight percentage, ρ_{brush} is the mass density of polymer brush ($\rho_{PDMAEMA}$, 1.318 g/cm³, ρ_{POEGMA} , 1.105 g/cm³), ρ_{SiO2} is the density of bulk SiO₂ (2.4 g/cm³), R is the radius of SiO₂ (150 nm).

18
$$\delta = \frac{\frac{W_{PDMAEMA}}{W_{SiO_2}}\rho_{SiO_2}V_{SiO_2}N_A}{M_{PDMAEMA}S_{SiO_2}} \quad (Equation 3)$$

Equation 3 was used to determine the PDMAEMA brush density on silica nanoparticles, where WPDMAEMA is the weight loss percentage corresponding to the decomposition of PDMAEMA, WSiO2 is the residual weight percentage, ρ_{SiO2} is the density of bulk SiO2 (2.4 g/cm³), VSiO2 is the volume of SiO2 nanoparticle calculated from the average diameter of SiO2 (300 nm), N_A is Avogadro's number, MPDMAEMA is the molecular weight of PDMAEMA cleaved from SiO2, and 1 S_{SiO2} is the surface area of SiO₂ nanoparticle calculated from the average diameter of SiO₂ (300 $nm)^{30}$.

3

4 SiO₂-PDMAEMA knocking down efficiency and cell viability

5 A keratinocytes cell line expressing actin-GFP was selected for simple quantification of siRNA 6 efficiency, using GFP siRNA (allowing simultaneous imaging of endogenous and GFP-tagged 7 actin after phalloidin staining for quantification). Knock down levels were determined for different 8 N/P ratios (5, 10 and 15) and compared to the commercialized transfection agent lipofectamine 9 2000 as a positive control. The fluorescent intensity ratio of GFP (green)/ phalloidin (red) was 10 measured and compared with the ratio of non-transfected cells to determine the knock down 11 efficiency. Highest knock down efficiencies (66 ± 6 %) were measured at N/P=10, comparable 12 with those measured with lipofectamine (Figure 2A and 2B), whilst there was no significant 13 increase in transfection levels at N/P=15. In comparison, green fluorescence in the blank and 14 negative control (NC) siRNA groups remained unaltered (Figure S8). However, the toxicity of 15 SiO₂-PDMAEMA/siRNA complexes was found to be lower than that of lipofectamine (Figures 16 2C), in which cell viability at N/P=5 or 10 were maintained above 65 % (full set of images can be 17 found in Figure S9). Indeed the inherent toxicity of cationic vectors remains an important issue to address in the field of gene delivery³¹⁻³² via non-viral cationic vectors. In addition, cationic vectors 18 19 typically display poor stability in complex protein solutions, such as serum and blood, limiting the 20 bloodstream circulation time and translation of these technologies³³.

21

1 Design of block copolymer brush-based nanoparticles

2 In order to address simultaneously cytotoxicity and stability issues, we developed a double shell 3 approach enabling the coating of the PDMAEMA shell with a protein resistant and cytocompatible 4 POEGMA shell^{9, 34-36}, to reduce protein adsorption and shield cell membranes from toxic cationic 5 moieties. However, despite the wide range of block copolymer brushes generated and studied on flat substrates^{1, 37}, few reports have presented the synthesis of block copolymer brushes from 6 7 nanoparticles³⁸. In addition, "grafting to" approaches do not allow high grafting densities suitable 8 for stable RNA loading (Figure 1). Hence we re-initiated POEGMA blocks from the PDMAEMA 9 first shell on both flat surfaces and silica nanoparticles (Figure 3) via the growth of a mixed 10 PDMAEMA/POEGMA block (1/10 ratio, particles designated as SiO₂-BCB). Ellipsometry was 11 used to characterize dry brush thickness of block copolymer brushes generated from silicon 12 substrates (Figure S10 and S11), indicating the good control of brush re-initiation from both 10 13 and 30 nm PDMAEMA brushes. SiO₂-BCB (silica nanoparticles with grafted block copolymer 14 brushes) displayed a hydrodynamic radius of 550 ± 14 nm, as determined by DLS (Figure 4A), 15 and a zeta potential of 4.4 ± 2.4 mV, considerably reduced compared with SiO₂-PDMAEMA. 16 Additionally, FTIR (Figure 4C) spectra of SiO₂-PDMAEMA and SiO₂-BCB displayed characteristic bands of PDMAEMA (C-H stretching of amines) at 2767 cm⁻¹ and 2820 cm⁻¹ 17 18 whereas SiO₂-POEGMA and SiO₂-BCB displayed bands characteristics of (C-H stretching characteristic of POEGMA) at 2870 cm⁻¹, further indicating the successful systemes of SiO₂-BCB 19 20 particles. In addition, an increased organic polymer layer (double the thickness) was observed by 21 TEM (Figure 4B), in agreement with TGA analysis (Figure S6), confirming the increased dry 22 brush thickness (Table 1) of SiO₂-BCB.

1 We then characterized RNA loading within the block copolymer brushes generated (Figure 5). SPR 2 experiments demonstrated that 22 bp RNA molecules rapidly diffused through the outer block of 3 the brush and bound to the PDMAEMA block at levels comparable to those measured for mono-4 block PDMAEMA brushes. We confirmed that POEGMA brushes did not bind any detectable 5 level of RNA. RNA binding was further evidenced by light scattering experiments, which 6 indicated increases in brush thickness and reduction in zeta potential for SiO₂-POEGMA and SiO₂-7 BCB but not SiO₂POEGMA (Supplementary Table S1). Similarly the protein absorption of the 8 block copolymer brushes synthesized reduced by about 50 %, compared to pure PDMAEMA 9 brushes, in good agreement with differential adsorption to PDMAEMA and POEGMA brushes from serum^{7-8, 35}. Therefore our results indicate that a block copolymer brushes reduce significantly 10 11 protein adsorption whilst retaining high levels of RNA uptake.

12

13 Serum stability and cell viability of SiO₂-BCB nanoparticles

14 The potential of SiO₂-BCB particles to improve the safe delivery of siRNA to cells and to resist to 15 aggregation and destabilization in complex protein solutions was evaluated. We first characterized 16 the stability of these colloids in 10% FBS solutions (Figure 6A), from 30 min to 48 h via DLS. SiO₂-POEGMA particles were also prepared and characterized using the same protocol, as 17 18 negative control (anti-fouling POEGMA brushes resist protein adsorption and confer colloidal 19 stability). In agreement with the high level of protein adsorption measured by SPR from 10% FBS 20 solutions (Figure 5C), SiO₂-PDMAEMA particles aggregated and sedimented rapidly (with charge 21 reversal +16 mV to -5 mV) within 30 mins. In comparison, SiO₂-POEGMA and SiO₂-BCB 22 particles did not display notable signs of aggregation (Figure 6A), even after 48 h (Figure S12). In

1 addition, we monitored changes in particle sizes for complexes formed at N/P of 10 (see 2 Supplementary Figure S13), which were used in transfection assays. As for pristine particles, serum stability was investigated by incubation of siRNA complexes in 10 % FBS solutions. No 3 4 obvious aggregation was observed for SiO₂-BCB/siRNA and SiO₂-POEGMA/siRNA complexes. 5 In contrast, for SiO₂-PDMAEMA/siRNA, although after binding with siRNA part of the positive 6 charge from PDMAEMA brushes was shielded, a marked increase in particle size was observed 7 after short periods of incubation, followed by aggregation at later time points. The cytotoxicity of 8 SiO₂-BCB remained low (96 \pm 4 % viability at an N/P of 10), in contrast to that observed for SiO₂-9 PDMAEMA and lipofectamine in Figure 2C. Full set of images were displayed in Figure S9). 10 Together, these results demonstrate that the addition of a POEGMA outer block to the PDMAEMA 11 brush significantly improves cell viability, in addition to particle stability in the presence of serum.

12

13 SiO₂-BCB-mediated knock down actin-GFP and EGFR

To determine whether SiO₂-BCB retained a high siRNA delivery efficiency, their knock down performance was assessed in our HaCaT-GFP model. Similar transfection levels (near 60 %) were measured with SiO₂-BCB (N/P=10), SiO₂-PDMAEMA (N/P=10) and lipofectamine (Figure 7). In contrast, no reduction level was observed in any of our controls (Figure 7B and S13). Therefore, the addition of a POEGMA outer block did not prevent siRNA delivery and knock down of the targeted gene, despite the expected reduction in cell membrane interactions, perhaps as a result of the residual positive zeta potential of SiO₂-BCB particles.

To demonstrate the application of our brush-based vectors, we investigated their use for the knock
down of edpidermal growth factor receptors (EGFR) in cancer cells, receptors often overexpressed

in epithelial malignancies³⁹⁻⁴⁰. Gene therapy and knock down of EGFR would allow the reduction 1 of tumor growth, in combination to other therapeutic strategies⁴¹. An optimized N/P ratio of 10 2 3 was used as in the case of SiO₂-BCB/EGFR siRNA. Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase 4 (GAPDH) was used as internal loading control. No obvious EGFR knock down was observed in 5 groups of blank cells and Lipofectamine/NC siRNA (non-targeting) complex. In contrast, 6 transfection of EGFR siRNA with SiO₂-BCB nanoparticles allowed efficient knock down of 7 EGFR in HeLa and A549 non-small lung carcinoma cells (western blotting results in Figure 8A 8 and 8B). Immunofluorescence microscopy further confirmed the reduction in the expression of 9 EGFR (Figure 8C). EGFR in non-transfected cells or cells transfected with the negative control 10 siRNA was clearly visible at the cell membrane and within the cytoplasm, whereas cells 11 transfected with SiO₂-BCB/EGFR siRNA displayed reduced levels of EGFR, in agreement with 12 western blots. Hence block copolymer brush-based vectors are versatile agents for efficient knock 13 down of genes for the treatment of diseases and molecular biology studies

14

15 CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we showed that the binding of nucleic acid molecules to cationic polymer brushes depends both on brush density and size of the nucleic acid sequence. We demonstrated that such brushes can be applied to the design of nanoparticles displaying a combination of high knock down efficiency, improved protein resistance and solution stability, as well as low cytotoxicity. In addition to the ease with which polymer brushes can be functionalised with bioactive moieties (to confer targeting for example) from a wide range of nanomaterials conferring imaging capability, degradability or responsive behavior, such block copolymer brush siRNA delivery

1	vectors are attractive candidates for the design of a new generation of therapeutic platforms.
2	Improving our understanding of parameters (chemical and structural) regulating such RNA-brush
3	interactions, and the stable assembly and dissociation of RNA molecules from brush-based
4	vectors, should enable the improved design of new RNA delivery platforms.
5	
6	ASSOCIATED CONTENT
7	Supporting Information.
8	Additional ellipsometry, TEM, DLS, FTIR, TGA, GPC data and additional images of knock down
9	experiments and cell viability assays.
10	
11	AUTHOR INFORMATION
12	Corresponding Author
13	j.gautrot@qmul.ac.uk
14	
15	Author Contributions
16	DL carried out experiments. ASS prepared the plasmid and reviewed the manuscript. DL, JC and
17	JEG prepared the manuscript.
18	Notes
19	The authors declare no competing financial interests.
20	

- 1 ACKNOWLEDGMENT
- 2 We thank Dr. Nadezda Tarakina and Mr. Russel Bailey for assisting TEM imges in this article.
- 3 Funding from the China Scholarship Council (No.201406240022) for Danyang Li's studentship is
- 4 gratefully acknowledged.
- 5 **REFERENCES**
- 6 (1) Barbey, R.; Lavanant, L.; Paripovic, D.; Schuwer, N.; Sugnaux, C.; Tugulu, S.; Klok, H. A.
- 7 Chem. Rev. 2009, 109, 5437-5527.
- 8 (2) Edmondson, S.; Osborne, V. L.; Huck, W. T. Chem. Soc. Rev. 2004, 33, 14-22.
- 9 (3) Krishnamoorthy, M.; Hakobyan, S.; Ramstedt, M.; Gautrot, J. E. Chem. Rev. 2014, 114, 10976-
- 10 11026.
- 11 (4) Cheng, G.; Zhang, Z.; Chen, S.; Bryers, J. D.; Jiang, S. *Biomaterials* **2007**, *28*, 4192-4199.
- (5) Li, G.; Xue, H.; Cheng, G.; Chen, S.; Zhang, F.; Jiang, S. J. Phys. Chem. B 2008, 112, 1526915274.
- (6) Rzhepishevska, O.; Hakobyan, S.; Ruhal, R.; Gautrot, J.; Barbero, D.; Ramstedt, M. *Biomater*.
 Sci. 2013, *1*, 589-602.
- 16 (7) Gautrot, J. E.; Trappmann, B.; Oceguera-Yanez, F.; Connelly, J.; He, X.; Watt, F. M.; Huck,
- 17 W. T. S. Biomaterials 2010, 31, 5030-5041.
- 18 (8) Ma, H.; Hyun, J.; Stiller, P.; Chilkoti, A. Adv. Mater. 2004, 16, 338-341.
- 19 (9) Gautrot, J. E.; Wang, C.; Liu, X.; Goldie, S. J.; Trappmann, B.; Huck, W. T. S.; Watt, F. M.
- 20 Biomaterials 2012, 33, 5221-5229.
- (10) Di Cio, S.; Bøggild, T. M. L.; Connelly, J.; Sutherland, D. S.; Gautrot, J. E. Acta Biomater.
 2017, 50, 280-292.
- (11) Mello, C. C.; Conte, D. *Nature* 2004, *431*, 338-342.
- 24 (12) Carthew, R. W.; Sontheimer, E. J. *Cell* **2009**, *136*, 642-655.
- (13) Schallon, A.; Synatschke, C. V.; Jérôme, V.; Müller, A. H. E.; Freitag, R. *Biomacromolecules* **2012**, *13*, 3463-3474.
- 27 (14) Krishnamoorthy, M.; Li, D.; Sharili, A. S.; Gulin-Sarfraz, T.; Rosenholm, J. M.; Gautrot, J.
- 28 E. Biomacromolecules 2017, 18, 4121-4132.
- 29 (15) Zhang, P.; Yang, J. H.; Li, W. C.; Wang, W.; Liu, C. J.; Griffith, M.; Liu, W. G. J. Mater.
- 30 *Chem.* **2011**, *21*, 7755-7764.
- 31 (16) Yan, P.; Zhao, N.; Hu, H.; Lin, X.; Liu, F.; Xu, F.-J. Acta Biomater. **2014**, *10*, 3786-3794.
- (17) Majewski, A. P.; Stahlschmidt, U.; Jérôme, V.; Freitag, R.; Müller, A. H. E.; Schmalz, H. *Biomacromolecules* 2013, *14*, 3081-3090.
- 34 (18) Ohno, K.; Mori, C.; Akashi, T.; Yoshida, S.; Tago, Y.; Tsujii, Y.; Tabata, Y.
 35 *Biomacromolecules* 2013, 14, 3453-3462.
- 36 (19) Zeng, H. C. J. Mater. Chem. 2011, 21, 7511-7526.
- 37 (20) Jones, D. M.; Brown, A. A.; Huck, W. T. S. Langmuir 2002, 18, 1265-1269.
- 38 (21) Sharili, A. S.; Kenny, F. N.; Vartiainen, M. K.; Connelly, J. T. Sci. Rep. 2016, 6, 33893.
- 39 (22) Christau, S.; Moller, T.; Yenice, Z.; Genzer, J.; von Klitzing, R. Langmuir 2014, 30, 13033-
- 40 13041.
- 41 (23) Sanjuan, S.; Perrin, P.; Pantoustier, N.; Tran, Y. Langmuir 2007, 23, 5769-5778.

- 1 (24) Bhat, R. R.; Genzer, J. Appl. Surf. Sci. 2006, 252, 2549-2554.
- (25) Gautrot, J. E.; Huck, W. T. S.; Welch, M.; Ramstedt, M. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2010,
 2, 193-202.
- 4 (26) Shen, Z. L.; Xia, Y. Q.; Yang, Q. S.; Tian, W. D.; Chen, K.; Ma, Y. Q. Top. Curr. Chem.
 5 2017, 375.
- 6 (27) Katas, H.; Alpar, H. O. J. Controlled Release 2006, 115, 216-225.
- 7 (28) Gary, D. J.; Puri, N.; Won, Y. Y. J. Controlled Release 2007, 121, 64-73.
- 8 (29) Cun, D.; Jensen, L. B.; Nielsen, H. M.; Moghimi, M.; Foged, C. J. Biomed. Nanotech. 2008,
- 9 4, 258-275.
- 10 (30) Chen, J.; Liu, M.; Chen, C.; Gong, H.; Gao, C. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces **2011**, *3*, 3215-11 3223.
- (31) Synatschke, C. V.; Schallon, A.; Jerome, V.; Freitag, R.; Muller, A. H. *Biomacromolecules*2011, *12*, 4247-4255.
- 14 (32) Huang, Y. Y.; Lin, D. S.; Jiang, Q.; Zhang, W. D.; Guo, S. T.; Xiao, P.; Zheng, S. Q.; Wang,
- 15 X. X.; Chen, H. B.; Zhang, H. Y.; Deng, L. D.; Xing, J. F.; Du, Q.; Dong, A. J.; Liang, Z. C.
- 16 Biomaterials 2012, 33, 4653-4664.
- 17 (33) Hwang, S. J.; Davis, M. E. Curr. Opin. Mol. Ther. 2001, 3, 183-191.
- 18 (34) Ladd, J.; Zhang, Z.; Chen, S.; Hower, J. C.; Jiang, S. *Biomacromolecules* **2008**, *9*, 1357-1361.
- 19 (35) Tan, K. Y.; Lin, H.; Ramstedt, M.; Watt, F. M.; Huck, W. T. S.; Gautrot, J. E. Integr. Biol.
- 20 **2013**, *5*, 899-910.
- 21 (36) Rodriguez Emmenegger, C.; Brynda, E.; Riedel, T.; Sedlakova, Z.; Houska, M.; Alles, A. B.
- 22 Langmuir 2009, 25, 6328-6333.
- (37) Kizhakkedathu, J. N.; Kumar, K. R.; Goodman, D.; Brooks, D. E. *Polymer* 2004, 45, 74717489.
- 25 (38) He, X. H.; Wu, X. M.; Cai, X.; Lin, S. L.; Xie, M. R.; Zhu, X. Y.; Yan, D. Y. *Langmuir* **2012**,
- 26 *28*, 11938-11947.
- 27 (39) Normanno, N.; De Luca, A.; Bianco, C.; Strizzi, L.; Mancino, M.; Maiello, M. R.; Carotenuto,
- 28 A.; De Feo, G.; Caponigro, F.; Salomon, D. S. Gene 2006, 366, 2-16.
- 29 (40) Sasaki, T.; Hiroki, K.; Yamashita, Y. Biomed. Res. Int. 2013, 2013, 546318.
- 30 (41) Zheng, D.; Giljohann, D. A.; Chen, D. L.; Massich, M. D.; Wang, X.-Q.; Iordanov, H.; Mirkin,
- 31 C. A.; Paller, A. S. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **2012**, *109*, 11975-11980.
- 33

- 34
- 35
- 36
- 37





Figure 1. SPR traces for different nucleic acid molecules adsorbing to dense (A) and sparse
PDMAEMA brushes (B). After equilibration, nucleic acid solutions were introduced at t = 0 s
and stopped after 300 s (dotted lines), followed by washing with PBS. C, Quantification and
statistical analysis of nucleic acids binding levels on dense and sparse brushes in A and B. D,
Schematic illustration of nucleic acid molecules interacting with PDMAEMA brushes (chain
conformations are indicative and only intended to illustrate differences in binding capacity, not
thought to be representative of the true brush structure).



Figure 2. Knock down efficiency of SiO₂-PDMAEMA/GFP siRNA with HaCaT-GFP cells at
N/P=5, 10 and 15 compared with Lipofectamine 2000/GFP siRNA (or NC siRNA, 2A and 2B,
scale bar: 50 μm); HaCaT cell viability test with live/dead assay on siRNA complexes with
different N/P (2C).



2 Figure 3. Schematic illustration and chemical structures of SiO₂-BCB.



Figure 4. Characterisation size of SiO₂-PDMAEMA and SiO₂-BCB via DLS, in PBS (A); B,
TEM image of SiO₂-BCB displaying a 16 nm thick dry block copolymer brush (the inner
PDMAEMA block was 8 nm thick, see Figure S4); C, FTIR characterization of SiO₂-BCB.

1 Table 1.TGA characterization and dry brush thickness on SiO₂.

Sample	Initiator (w %)	PDMAEMA (w %)	POEGMA (w %)	SiO ₂ (w %)	PDMAEMA (nm)	POEGMA (nm)
Bare SiO ₂	0	0	0	95	0	0
SiO ₂ -initiator	5	0	0	90	0	0
SiO ₂ -PDMAEMA	5	24	0	66	28	0
SiO ₂ -POEGMA	5	0	25	65	0	33
SiO ₂ -BCB	5	24	14	52	28	25



Figure 5. FBS (A and C) and siRNA (B and D) binding levels on PDMAEMA brushes, BCB (10
 nm PDMAEMA + 10 nm second block) and POEGMA brushes



Figure 6. Serum stability of SiO₂-PDMAEMA, SiO₂-BCB and SiO₂-POEGMA (A; DLS,
incubation with 10 % FBS, solid line: initial size, dotted line: after incubation in 10 % FBS for
24 h); HaCaT cell viability with SiO₂-POEGMA and SiO₂-BCB/siRNA complexes compared
with blank and Lipo/siRNA controls (B and C).



2 Figure 7. Knock down efficiency of SiO₂-BCB/GFP siRNA with HaCaT-GFP cells (A and B).





3 HeLa and A549 cells after transfection with SiO₂-BCB/EGFR siRNA.