This is an Accepted Manuscript, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about Accepted Manuscripts in the Information for Authors.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal’s standard Terms & Conditions and the Ethical guidelines still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this Accepted Manuscript or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.
Synthesis and In Vitro Evaluation of Charge Reversal Photoresponsive Quinoline Tethered Mesoporous Silica for Targeted Drug Delivery

S. Karthik,† Avijit Jana,‡ Biswajit Saha,§ B. Krishna Kalyani,∥ Sudip Kumar Ghosh,∥ Yanli Zhao,*‡§ and N. D. Pradeep Singh*†

We developed excellent charge reversal photoresponsive nanoparticles for targeted delivery of anticancer drug chlorambucil. The charge reversal photoresponsive nanoparticles were constructed using two main ingredients namely folic acid decorated mesoporous silica and quinoline chromophore. The newly synthesized quinoline chromophore performed three important roles, i.e., (i) fluorescent chromophore for cell imaging, (ii) phototrigger for regulated release of anticancer drug, and (iii) charge reversal based on its zeta potential for nuclear localization. Furthermore, folic acid decorated mesoporous silica facilitated active internalization of drug inside the cancer cells. In vitro biological studies reveal that our photoresponsive DDS could deliver the anticancer drug chlorambucil into the tumor cells, killing the cancer cells by both one photon (≥365 nm) and two photon (675 nm) irradiation.

Introduction

Photoresponsive nanoparticles have recently received much attention for their applications especially in the area of drug and gene delivery, since they allow precise control over the release including location, timing and dosage.¹⁻² Generally, photoresponsive nanoparticles are composed of two main ingredients: biocompatible nanocarrier and phototrigger. A major drawback of the photoresponsive nanoparticles is their non-specificity to cancer cells, which can lead to high toxicity to normal cells causing undesirable side effects. To overcome this problem, several folate-decorated photoresponsive nanoparticles have been constructed for targeted drug delivery to cancer cells.³⁻⁴ However, these types of tumor targeted photoresponsive nanoparticles were found to be largely retained in cytoplasmic organelles, including lysosomes, rather than the nucleus of cancer cells.⁵⁻⁶

Hence, there is a real need to design multifunctional photoresponsive nanoparticles that could target not only the cancer cells but the nucleus of cancer cells. Such may effectively magnify therapeutic potential of anticancer drugs. In general, nuclear localization peptides (NLPs) and cationic polymer, such as polyethyleneimine (PEI), have been used to construct nuclear targeted photoresponsive nanoparticles.⁷ Recently, pH dependent targeted charge reversal nanoparticles (TCRNs) have drawn great attention for nuclear targeted drug delivery, since they undergo a negative to positive charge reversal when exposure to the extracellular acidic environment (pH < 7) and within the acidic lysosomal environment (pH 4-5) of cells. Since negatively charged TCRNs have some interactions with blood components, they have been used extensively in vitro. Shen⁸ group has prepared several TCRNs that were negatively charged under neutral conditions and positively charged at endosomal pH. They have demonstrated the application of TCRNs for lysosomolytic pH responsive protein and gene delivery. In addition, Shen⁸ and co-workers have synthesized pH responsive charge reversal polymeric micelles decorated with folic acid for both cellular and nuclear targeted drug delivery. Recently, Wang et al.¹⁰ have also developed a pH responsive charge conversional nanogel for promoted tumoral cell uptake and doxorubicin delivery. Inspired by the nuclear targeted drug delivery ability of TCRNs, in this work, we developed for the first time charge reversal photoresponsive nanoparticles for both cellular and nuclear targeted delivery of anticancer drug.
The basic requirement to construct cellular and nuclear targeted charge reversal photoresponsive nanoparticles is to develop two essential ingredients: (i) chromophore that has a combination of pH sensitive charge reversal property and phototrigger ability and (ii) tumor targeted nanocarriers. For the current study, we selected quinoline moiety as a chromophore for three main reasons: (i) “quinoline derivatives are highly pH sensitive”, and pKa of quinoline is 4.8.\(^6\) Hence, under slightly acidic conditions, it can be easily protonated to reveal a positive charge, which can be exploited for charge reversal property, (ii) “quinoline–based derivatives are well known phototriggers”.\(^7\) They have been well demonstrated for the controlled release of physiologically active messengers through both one–photon excitation (1PE) and 2PE (near–IR light) that is the optimal wavelength for tissue penetration, and (iii) “quinoline derivatives are well known pH sensitive fluorophores”, and they have been exploited for cellular imaging application. Furthermore, we also chose folic acid decorated mesoporous silica as the nanocarriers because of their biocompatibility, enhanced cellular uptake and high drug loading ability. The design of targeted drug delivery process was schematically shown in Scheme 1.

**Experimental section**

**Materials and Methods**

All reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used without further purification. Acetonitrile and dichloromethane were distilled from CaH\(_2\) before use. \(^1\)H NMR spectra were recorded on a BRUKER–AC 200 MHz spectrometer with complete proton decoupling. Chemical shifts are reported in ppm from tetramethylsilane with the solvent resonance as the internal standard (deuterochloroform: 7.26 ppm). UV/vis absorption spectra were recorded on a Shimadzu UV–2450 UV/vis spectrophotometer, fluorescence emission spectra were recorded on a Hitachi F–7000 fluorescence spectrophotometer, FT–IR spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer RXI spectrometer. Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) was measured on a FEI Tecnai G220S–Twin at 200 kV. The TEM sample was prepared by dispersing compounds in water and dropping on the surface of a copper grid. Low angle powder XRD was measured by Philips PW 1710 X-ray diffractometer (XRD). The surface area of the mesoporous TP was measured by the N\(_2\) sorption experiment using BET (Brunauer–Emmett–Teller) technique, performed at liquid N\(_2\) temperature on Quanta chrome Autosorb1 surface area analyzer after degassing the samples at 200 °C for 4 h. The pore size distribution curve of mesoporous TP was obtained from the analysis of the adsorption branch of the isotherm by BJH (Barrett–Joyner–Halenda) method.

The surface charge of the nanoparticles was investigated through zeta potential measurements (Zetasizer 4, Malvern Instruments, U.K.). DLS measurements at different pH were done using a Brookhaven 90 Plus particle size analyzer. Thermal analysis was done with a thermal analyzer (Pyris Diamond TG/DTA) with a heating rate 8 °C/min with a temperature range 50 to 1000 °C. Photolysis of the ester conjugate were carried out using 125 W medium pressure Hg lamp supplied by SAIC (India) and Laser diode of 675 nm, 15 mW supplied by Thor Labs. Chromatographic purification was done with 60–120 mesh silica gel (Merck). For reaction monitoring, precocated silica gel 60 F254 TLC sheets (Merck) were used. RP–HPLC was taken using mobile phase acetonitrile, at a flow rate of 1mL / min (detection: UV 254 nm). Cell imaging was done in Olympus confocal microscope (FV1000, Olympus) using the respective filter.

**Synthesis of Qucbl**: quinoline chlorambucil conjugate (Qucbl) was synthesized using previously reported procedure (supporting information scheme S1).\(^8\)

**Synthesis of trimethoxysilyl tagged Qucbl**: Amino propyl trimethoxy silane (0.5mL) was added to an ice-cooled solution of compound 1 (150 mg) in dry DCM (10mL). After stirring for 6 h, the solvent was removed by rotary evaporation to yield 175 mg of trimethoxysilyl tagged Qucbl, which was used in the next step without purification.

**Synthesis of Quinoline chlorambucil loaded on MSNs Q1(Qucbl-MSNs)**: Trimethoxysilyl tagged Qucbl was dissolved in dry toluene (10 mL) containing 100 mg of mesoporous silica nanoparticle and the mixture was refluxed for 20 h at 80°C to afford compound Q1(Qucbl-MSN). The course of loading was followed by UV–vis absorption spectra for regular time interval. Finally the materials were recovered by centrifugation, washed twice with toluene and dried under vacuum. We calculated Qucbl loaded on mesoporous silica nanoparticle used the below equation.

\[
\text{Qucbl loaded on MSNs} = \frac{\text{initial cone of Qucbl} - \text{final cone of Qucbl in reaction medium}}{\text{X MW of Qucbl} \times \text{Amount of mesoporous silica taken}}
\]
Synthesis of Folate loaded Qucbl–MSN Q2 (Qucbl–Fol–MSN): Folic acid was attached to Qucbl–MSNs. In a round bottom flask, folic acid (50 mg) and APTS (0.2 mL) were mixed in DMSO (3 mL). N-hydroxysuccinimide (30 mg) and 1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-3-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (50 mg) were then added into the mixture and stirred for 2 h. To the reaction mixture, 50 mg of Q1 DMSO suspension was added and the mixture was stirred for 20 h at room temperature. The MSN have approximately 0.5 wt % of folic acid grafted on the surface of Q1. Finally, folate decorated quinoline chlorambucil tagged MSN Q2 (Qucbl–Fol–MSN) was recovered by centrifugation washed twice with toluene and dried under vacuum.

Hydrolytic Stability of Q2: To check the stability of Q2 in the cell culture medium, we dispersed 1 mg/ mL Q2 with 10% fotal bovine serum and incubated at 37 °C in the dark for 72 h. The tubes were kept in ultrasonic for 10 min to make the solutions homogeneous and stored at 37 °C in dark condition for 96 h. Then all the solutions were centrifuged (5000 r/min) for 10 min and the supernatant solutions were analyzed by reverse phase HPLC to examine the percentage of drug depleted.

Cell Imaging and Cytotoxicity of MSNs, and Q2 on HeLa cell line: Qucbl–Fol–MSN for cell imaging studies using HeLa cell line: Cell imaging studies were carried out using the HeLa cell line which was maintained in minimum essential medium (EMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C and 5% CO2. To study the cellular uptake of Q2, briefly HeLa cells (5×104 cells/well) were plated on 12 well plates and allowed to adhere for 4–8 h. Cells were then incubated with 50 µg of Q2 separately in cell culture medium for 4 h at 37 °C and 5 % CO2. Thereafter, cells were fixed in paraformaldehyde for 15 min and washed twice with PBS Imaging was done in Olympus confocal microscope (FV1000, Olympus) using the respective filter.

Lyso tracking experiment: Cell imaging studies were carried out using the HeLa cell line which was maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C and 5% CO2. To study the intracellular localization of Q2 nanoparticles, briefly HeLa cells (5×104 cells/well) were plated on coverslips in a 6 well plate and allowed to adhere for 4–8 h. Cells were then incubated with 50 µg of Q2 in PBS for 6 h at 37 °C and 5 % CO2. Then, the medium was discarded and washed two times with PBS followed by lysotracker Red DND–99 (2 mL, 50 nM) in culture medium was added and were incubated at 37°C and 5 % CO2 for 1 h. Thereafter, cells were fixed in paraformaldehyde for 15 min and washed twice with PBS. Imaging was done in Nikon confocal microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE2000–E) using the respective filter.

Time dependent internalization studies of Q2 at pH 7.4: Following the above procedure HeLa cells (5×104 cells/well) were plated on coverslips in 6 well cell culture plates and allowed to adhere for 4–8 h. Cells were then incubated with 50 µg of Q2 in PBS for different time interval at 37 °C and 5 % CO2. Thereafter, cells were fixed in paraformaldehyde for 15 min and washed twice with PBS. Imaging was done in Nikon confocal microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE2000–E) using the respective filter.

Time dependent internalization studies of Q2 at pH 7.4: We followed the same procedure except the Qcbl–Fol–MSN nanoparticles were dispersed in PBS of pH 4.8.

Nuclear Co–localization Studies using Qucbl–Fol–MSN and a nuclear staining dye propidium iodide: Cells, grown and plated as described above, were incubated for 4 h at 37 °C with 1 mL of MEM containing 20 µM of Qcbl–Fol–MSNs. Thereafter, cells were washed 3 times with 10 mM PBS and fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde for 15 mins at room temperature. After fixation cells were washed 3 times with 10 mM PBS permiabilized with 0.01% triton X 100, a nonionic surfactant. The cells were counterstained with 10 µg/mL propidium iodide (PI) and 0.5 µg/mL RNase at room temperature in the dark for 30 mins. After gentle washing in 10 mM PBS for 3 times the cells were viewed under confocal microscope.

Photolysis of Q2 using soft UV irradiation (≥ 365 nm) and 675 nm laser diode: Photolysis of Q2 using soft UV irradiation (≥ 365 nm): A suspension of 5 mg / 5 mL of the Q2 was prepared in acetonitrile. Half of the suspension was kept in dark and to the remaining half nitrogen was passed and irradiated using 125 W medium pressure Hg lamp as the light source (λ ≥ 365 nm) and 1 M CuSO4 solution in 0.1N H2SO4 the transmittance for the above filter = 365 to 500 nm). At regular time intervals, a small aliquot (100 µL) of the suspension was taken out and centrifuged (5000 r/min) for 10 min, the obtained transparent solution was analyzed by reverse phase HPLC using mobile phase acetonitrile, at a flow rate of 1 mL / min.

Photolysis of Q2 using Red laser: 1 mg of Q2 was dissolved in 1ml acetonitrile. Half of the solution was kept in dark and to the remaining half nitrogen was passed and irradiated using 675 nm laser diode (15 mW/ cm²). At regular time intervals, a small aliquot (100 µL) of the suspension was taken out and centrifuged (5000 r/min) for 10 min, the obtained transparent solution was analyzed by reverse phase HPLC using mobile phase acetonitrile, at a flow rate of 1 mL / min.

Cytotoxicity of Q1 and Q2 on HeLa cell line Cytotoxicity before photolysis: The cytotoxicity in vitro was measured using the MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol–2–yl)–2,5–diphenyltetrazolium bromide, a yellow tetrazole) assay on HeLa cell line. Briefly, cells growing in log phase were seeded into 96–well cell–culture plate at 1×104 cells/mL. Different concentration of Q1, Q2 and chlorambucil were added in the wells with an equal volume of PBS in the control wells. The cells were then incubated for 72 h at 37 °C in 5% CO2. Thereafter, fresh media containing 0.40 mg/ml MTT were added to the 95 well plates and incubated for 4 h at 37 °C in 5% CO2. Formazan crystals thus formed were dissolved in DMSO after decanting the earlier media and absorbance recorded at 595 nm.

Cytotoxicity after photolysis: HeLa cells maintained in minimum essential medium (in 96–well cell–culture plate at concentration of
1×10^4 cells/mL) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and different concentration of Q1, Q2 and chlorambucil was incubated for 4 h at 37 °C and 5% CO_2. Then the cells were irradiated (keeping the cell–culture plate 5 cm apart from the light source) using 125 W medium pressure Hg lamp as irradiation source (≥ 365 nm) and 1M CuSO_4 solution as UV cut–off filter. After irradiation the cells were again incubated for 72 h. Then cytotoxicity was measured using the MTT assay as described in the earlier section.

**Results and discussion**

We synthesized mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs) using previously reported procedure. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), powder X–ray diffraction and nitrogen sorption isotherm analysis reveals that MSNs are of ~ 50-66 nm particle size, and honeycomb like porous structure with a 2.9 nm average pore diameter and a surface area of 302.69 m^2/g (SI, Figures S1–S3).

Next, quinoline chlorambucil conjugate (Qucbl) was synthesized using previously reported procedure (Scheme S1). Finally, Qucbl and folic acid were covalently anchored on the surface of MSNs with silane coupling agent in stepwise manner as depicted in Scheme 2. Quinoline–chlorambucil loaded mesoporous silica Q1 (Qucl–MSNs) and folic acid decorated quinoline–chlorambucil loaded mesoporous silica Q2 (Qucl–Fol–MSNs) were characterized by IR spectra, solid state UV and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) (Figure S4–S6).

The physicochemical properties of Q2 such as morphology, size, and zeta potential were studied since they have influence on cellular uptake. DLS (Figure S7) studies reveal that the average particle size of MSNs, Q1 and Q2 were 85.26 ±1.82 nm, 134.82 ±1.54 nm and 143.49 ±1.52 nm, respectively. The increase in particle size of Q2 compared to free MSNs and Q1 implies that mesoporous silica was decorated by both folic acid and Qucbl conjugate. TEM observation shows that MSNs, Q1 and Q2 were well dispersed and spherical in shape. The size of the Q2 is well within the preferred range of the nanoparticles useful for effective drug delivery.

The amount of the quinoline chlorambucil loaded on MSNs is calculated to be about ∼273µg/mg, based on UV–Vis absorption spectra (Figure 1). The UV–Vis absorption and fluorescence spectra of Q2 are presented in Figure S8. Similar to quinoline chromophore, Q2 also showed broad absorbance from 300 to 365 nm and emission maxima at 460 nm. Hence, Q2 can be explored like quinoline chromophore for simultaneous cell imaging and release of the anticancer drug by both one photon (365 nm) and two photon (675 nm) excitation.

![Scheme 2. Synthesis of quinoline–chlorambucil loaded mesoporous silica (Qucbl–MSNs) and quinoline chlorambucil and folic acid decorated mesoporous silica (Qucbl–Fol–MSNs).](image)

A key pH dependent charge reversal property of Q1 and Q2 was determined by measuring their zeta potentials at different acidities (Figure 2a). The MSNs revealed a zeta potential of about −19 mV in acidic pH ranges of 6.5–3, indicating that they always remain negatively charged due to the presence of Si–OH group on their surface. On the other hand, Q1 and Q2 showed zeta potentials of −5 mV and −1 mV at pH 6.5, respectively. But, in the pH ranges of 5–4.5, both Q1 and Q2 became positively charged, and gradually, their zeta potential reached about +1.65 mV and +3.67 mV, respectively. At pH 3, the zeta potentials of Q1 and Q2 were found to be about +9.5 mV and +11.6 mV, respectively.

![Figure 1. Quinoline chlorambucil loaded on MSNs the course of loading was followed by UV–vis absorption spectra (b) calibration curve for the concentration of chlorambucil on the surface of MSNs.](image)

![Figure 2. (a) The zeta potential of MSNs, Qucl–MSNs (Q1) and Qucl–Fol–MSNs (Q2) at different pH. (b) pH responsive fluorescence spectra of compound 2. (c) ^1H NMR spectra of 2 in 10 mM HCl (10µL) in MeOH–D4 (inset of c: corresponding emission images from protonated and nonprotonated 2 under UV light of 366 nm).](image)
To evaluate the proton-binding behaviour of Q2, we recorded the emission spectra of model compound 2 in Na₂HPO₄-citrate buffer at different pH values ranging from 7.0 to 2.6 (Figure 2b). We noted the fluorescence maxima of compound 2 in neutral pH is around 380 nm, which was red shifted to 450 nm at lower pH. Interestingly, we also observed an isoemissive point in emission spectra at around 410 nm, indicating the presence of two distinct species in equilibrium. This is because, at lower pH, protonation is favoured and hence protonated 2 is the predominant species. Further proton–binding behavior of compound 2 was also supported by ¹HNMR spectroscopy. We recorded ¹HNMR spectrum of compound 2 and its protonated form (10 mM HCl). As shown in Figure 1c, upon protonation the quinolinic protons H3 and H4 displayed significant downfield shifts to 8.99 and 8.25 ppm respectively, suggesting that the protonation occurred at the quinolinic site.

On the other hand, we explored the pH dependent charge reversal property of Q2 in vitro by carrying out cellular internalization studies at two different pH 7.4 and 4.8.⁵⁹ The time dependent confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) imaging studies showed significant difference in cellular internalization of Q2 at pH 7.4 and 4.8. At pH 4.8, Q2 were more effectively internalized by the cell membrane (Figure S9) than that at pH 7.4. The above studies clearly indicate that Q2 is indeed charge-reversal nanoparticles. Thus, Q2 should be negatively charged at physiological pH and be suitable for in vivo applications. Once localized in solid tumors/lysosomes, Q2 will undergo negative to positive charge reversal and thus be more readily internalized by the cells. Further, the effectiveness of the targeting group folic acid on the Q2 in binding folate receptors and promoting the cellular uptake was evaluated using HeLa cell and normal cells-L929, since it is well known that folate receptors are overexpressed in HeLa cells compared to normal cells.¹⁴ The time dependent CLSM imaging studies (0–6 h) revealed that Q2 was internalized to a greater extent in HeLa cells compared to normal cells-L929 (Figure 3).

Further the above studies also showed that Q2 was largely internalized in HeLa cells compared to Q1. The intracellular distribution of Q2 was further evaluated by CLSM. A lysotracker red dye DND–99 was used to stain the acidic organelles in HeLa cells. We found that Q2 were dominantly localized in lysotracker–labeled acidic organelles after 6 h of incubation (Figure 4a-d). Those nanoparticles that were trapped inside endosome/lysosome are pink in color. Nevertheless, some of the Q2 appeared to be able to escape from the endosome, and were distributed in the cytoplasm. The nitrogen of Quinoline unit on the nanoparticles was protonated at acidic endosomal pH, which could disrupt the endosome and promote the escape of the nanoparticles from the endosome into the cytoplasm. The behavior can be attributed to the “proton–sponge” or “endosome buffering” effect.¹³

We also investigated the nuclear localization ability of Q2. Previous literature studies indicated that nuclear localization of TCRNs was observed after longer time of incubation (20–24 h).¹⁵,¹⁶ Hence we incubated Hela cells with Q2 for 24 h. To distinguish, nuclei were stained with PI, showing red fluorescence in the images. Figure 4g showed strong fluorescence corresponding to Q2, which was quite evenly distributed throughout the cytoplasm and nucleus, indicating that the drug might entered into the nucleus. Generally, nanoparticles larger than 70 nm in diameter were considered to be quite large to enter into cell nuclei. Our newly synthesised nanoparticles Q2 have an average particle size of 143.49 nm. Hence, we presume that our photocage compound Qucl would have been leached out from silica cores of Q2 due to the breakage of secondary silica coating in acidic medium, and then, freely diffused throughout the whole intracellular area, resulting in the accumulation of Qucl in the nucleus due to its intercalation with double stranded DNA.¹⁷

After successful demonstration of cellular internalization and distribution of Q2, we studied photoinduced anticancer drug release behaviour of Q2. The time courses of the anticancer drug release by Q2 under photolysis at both ≥ 365 nm (Hg vapour lamp) and two–photon 675 nm diode laser were monitored by HPLC. The HPLC profile indicates (Figure 5a) that, after 45 min of irradiation, 65 % of loaded anticancer drug (chlorambucil) was effectively released by using UV light (λ ≥ 365 nm, 120 mW/cm²), whereas 15 % of the drug was released using diode laser (675 nm, 15mW/cm²) (Figure
S10), suggesting that external light intensity could regulate the drug release. Furthermore, we demonstrated precise control over the photolytic release of loaded anticancer drug by monitoring the release of chlorambucil after periods of exposure to light and dark conditions (Figure S11), which clearly showed that the drug release proceeded only under illumination. In addition, the photochemical quantum yield of Q2 was measured to be 0.29, which resembles previous report.12

![Figure 5](image)

**Figure 5.** (a) Time course for the photorelease of chlorambucil from Qucbl-Fol-MSNs (Q2) under soft UV irradiation 1PE (≥365 nm, 120 mW/cm²) and 2PE (675 nm, 15mW/cm²) b) Progress of release of chlorambucil under bright and dark conditions. “On” indicates the beginning of light irradiation and the “OFF” indicates the ending of light irradiation.

After successful demonstration of photoinduced anticancer drug release by Q2, we evaluated the cytotoxicity of chlorambucil, Q2, and MSNs in vitro using the MTT assay in HeLa cell line. It was observed that cell viability remains above 90% at 50 µg/mL of Q2 and MSNs. However, cells treated with chlorambucil showed increasing cytotoxicity with increasing drug concentration (Figure 6a). The above studies indicated that Q2 and MSNs were relatively nontoxic to the cells. For the light exposure experiment, cells incubated with chlorambucil, Q2, and MSNs were irradiated for 30 min under UV light (≥ 365 nm). Cell viability of 27.8% was observed with free chlorambucil at the concentration of 50µg/mL. For the same concentration of Q2, the cell viability of 23% was noted, which can be due to the efficient photorelease of anticancer drug chlorambucil inside the cancerous cell. Further 73% of cell viability was observed at the concentration of 50µg/mL for two photon irradiation (Figure S11). On the other hand, cell viability was found to be largely unaffected by drug-free -MSNs, indicating the cytotoxicity was likely caused by the released drug chlorambucil upon light irradiation on Q2. In comparison with the same concentration of chlorambucil to that of Q2 (Figure 6b), Q2 showed much lower cytotoxicity. But upon irradiation, Q2 showed an enhanced cytotoxicity to cancer cells in comparison to chlorambucil, because of the efficient photorelease of chlorambucil inside the cancerous cells.

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6.** (a–b) Cell viability test of (i) MSNs, (ii) chlorambucil, and (iii) Qucbl–Fol–MSNs (Q2) and in HeLa cell line: (a) before irradiation and (b) after irradiation. Values are presented as mean ±5d.

### Conclusion

We have developed pH dependent charge reversal photosensitive nanoparticles for in vitro targeted drug delivery. The TCRNs, i.e., Qucbl–Fol–MSNs, were negatively charged in neutral solution and quickly transformed into positively charged at pH 6 and highly positively charged at pH 5.0–4.5. The charge reversal has enhanced the cellular uptake of the photosensitive TCRNs and greater accumulation of drug in the nucleus and cytoplasm. Even though the size of the nanoparticle was much larger than that of nuclear pores, the released Qucbl from the silica cores was able to freely diffuse and accumulated inside nucleus, giving much improved cytotoxicity. Photoregulated drug release ability of Qucbl–Fol–MSNs has been established by the means of periodic exposure to light and dark condition. Strong fluorescence of Qucbl–Fol–MSNs has been explored for the in vitro cellular imaging application and precise drug release inside the cancer cells upon irradiation. Thus, we expect that the above study may be a promising starting point for the utilization of charge reversal photosensitive nanoparticles in construction of nuclear targeted drug delivery systems.

### Acknowledgements

[*] DST-SERB for financial support. DST–FIST for 400 MHz NMR and CLSM. S. Karthik is thankful to IIT KGP, B.Krishna Kalyani to Inspire Fellowship and Biswajit Saha to DBT for their fellowship. Yanli Zhao thanks financial support from the Singapore National Research Foundation Fellowship (NRF2009NRFRF001–015)

### Notes and references


