

Regular Article

Supramolecular dextran/polyamine phosphate nanocapsules with smart responsiveness for encapsulation of therapeutics

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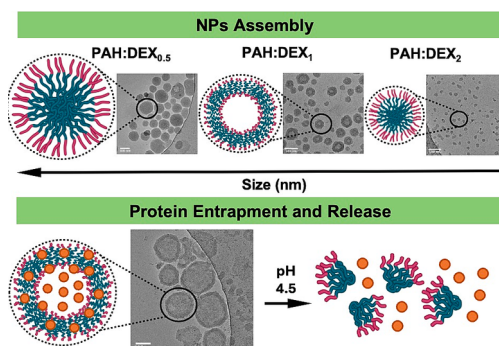
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Dextran (DEX)-polyallylamine (PAH) assembles in phosphate buffer with different morphology depending on DEX loading.
- PAH modified with one DEX chain per polyamine form glyconanocapsules with sizes around 100 nm.
- PAH:DEX glyconanocapsules assemble and disassemble in response to external pH.
- pH sensibility of glyconanocapsules can be used for protein entrapment and release.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

The polyallylamine hydrochloride (PAH) polymer is here functionalized with branched and biocompatible polysaccharide dextran (DEX) molecules. Covalent conjugation of DEX to PAH has been achieved through a straightforward reductive amination approach, allowing for a controlled number of DEX chains per PAH polymer

Abbreviations: BCA, Bicinchoninic acid; BSA, Bovine serum albumin; CD, Circular dichroism; cryo-EM, Cryogenic electron microscopy; DEX, Dextran; DLS, Dynamic light scattering; FCS, Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy; NMR, Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; NCs, Nanocapsules; NPs, Nanoparticles; OA, Oleic acid; PAH, Poly(allylamine hydrochloride) salt; PANs, Phosphate polyamine nanoparticles; PB, Phosphate buffer; PBS, Phosphate buffer saline; PEG, Polyethylene glycol; RBITC, Rhodamine B isothiocyanate; r.t., Room temperature; SAXS, Small-angle X-ray scattering; UV-Vis, Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy.

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pH responsiveness
 Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS)
 Cryogenic transmission electron microscopy
 (cryo-EM)
 Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS)

(PAH:DEX_n, $n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$). When exposed to phosphate buffer, PAH:DEX_n polymers form supramolecular assemblies. Physico chemical characteristics and pH responsiveness of the assemblies are correlated with the number of dextran chains per PAH molecule. Nanocapsules (NCs) are formed when PAH:DEX ratio is 1. Capsule formation is explained by the branched nature of DEX and steric consideration ruling the organization of polyamine chains in phosphate buffer. NCs and glyconanoparticles formed with $n < 1$ are responsive to pH changes, being disassembled at endosomal pH < 6 and reassembled when $6 < \text{pH} < 9$. Dynamic light Scattering (DLS), ζ -potential measurements, cryo-Electron Microscopy and Small Angle X-ray Scattering (SAXS) provided key information about their structure, morphology, size, polydispersity, surface charge, and stability over time. Protein entrapment into the NCs and pH-dependent release is demonstrated with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as model protein by diffusion measurements in fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS), following changes in BSA conformation before and after triggering NC disassembly by circular dichroism (CD), and comparing NCs SAXS fingerprints with and without BSA. Our results show novel assemblies based on polyamine phosphate interactions with capacity of loading large molecules through the formation of capsules, which may find applications in the endosomal delivery of therapeutic proteins and enzymes.

1. Introduction

Loading therapeutics into suitable nanocarriers is of utmost importance to address the challenge of stimuli-responsive and targeted drug delivery [1,2]. pH-responsive nanoparticles have recently called the attention because of their high therapeutic potential for targeted delivery due to their capacity to release encapsulated therapeutics in response to pH changes [3]. Differences in pH values can be found in organs and tissues, as well as between cell interior and outside environment, and/or as a consequence of pathological states. This offers many possibilities for triggering pH-mediated selective delivery [4]. Bloodstream pH is 7.4, but it reduces to $\text{pH} \approx 6.5$ intracellularly, in the early endosomal compartment, further decreasing to values below pH 5 in the lysosomal compartment [5]. Endosomes become more acidic inside cancer cells and tumor microenvironment is usually more acidic than healthy tissue ($\text{pH} \approx 6.4\text{--}6.8$). pH-responsive NPs can be hence successfully designed to disassembly and/or release their cargo when exposed to these pH stimuli. Supramolecular phosphate polyamine nanoparticles (PANs), formed by electrostatic and hydrogen bonding interactions between phosphate ions and primary amines from the poly (allylamine) hydrochloride (PAH) polymer [6], are an interesting system for intracellular pH stimulated delivery [7–10]. PANs dynamically respond to changes in pH: (i) they are stable at pHs between 6 and 9, (ii) completely disassemble outside this pH range, (iii) reversibly reassemble when they return to the range of pH of stability. This reversibility is indefinitely preserved and makes PANs particularly suitable for cellular and endosomal delivery [7]. Stability at physiological pH 7.4 – the pH of blood – suggests that these nanoparticles will circulate into the bloodstream without disassembling. Instead, when they enter inside cells, the pH of endosomes – around 5.5 – will lead to the protonation of the phosphate groups resulting in the disassembly of the nanoparticles, thus triggering the release of encapsulated cargo [8,11–13]. We have shown that PANs can deliver silencing RNA (siRNA) with good transfection efficiency [14,15]. The positive charges of the polyamine permit the complexation with the phosphate backbone of nucleic acids, supporting polyplex nanoparticle formation and resulting in the same pH responsiveness as those prepared with phosphate buffer (PB). However, polyamines have a drawback: positive charges can induce cytotoxicity, limiting transfection over certain concentrations [16,17]. To enhance their therapeutic window, polyethylene glycol (PEG) and oleic acid (OA) have been used for PAH modification. Oleic acid chemical modification lowered the positive charges of the PAH and resulted in a spontaneous self-assembly of the modified PAH through the hydrophobic chains of OA [18]. Although PAH:OA nanoparticles showed decreased cytotoxicity and an improved *in vitro* transfection efficacy, OA does not fully screen surface charges. Functionalization with PEG is another strategy, which has been widely investigated in several nanomedicines. For instance, PEGylation has been used to increase solubility and reduce cytotoxicity of polyethylenimine (PEI)-DNA complexes without affecting their transfection efficiency [19]. PEG grafting onto

polycations has thus proved to be critical to avoid aggregation of complexes, reduce the interaction with serum proteins, and thus boost transgene expression. To further reduce cytotoxicity, some of us modified PAH with PEG chains varying the number of PEG chains per PAH molecule [10,20]. As the number of PEG chains increases per PAH molecule, the resulting core (PAH)/shell (PEG) nanoparticles reduce their size and display practically no surface charge. While PAH:PEG PANs show reduced *in vitro* toxicity through the screening of positive charges, they do not respond to pH changes as compared to PANs prepared with unmodified PAH. This pH stability is likely due to the packing of PEG chains, which is thermodynamically favored. As for PEG, polysaccharides such as dextran (DEX) have been exploited to improve the performance of polyamines. For instance, some studies have demonstrated that DEX plays an essential role in mitigating the high PEI cytotoxicity, improving the stability of polyplexes in presence of serum proteins, and enhancing cellular entry and maintaining transfection efficacy, both *in vitro* [21,22] and *in vivo* [23].

In this work, PAH has been modified with dextran (DEX), a non-charged water-soluble polysaccharide with a characteristic branched structure. Among natural polymers, polysaccharides can be considered as natural analogues of PEG, but with higher biocompatibility [24,25]. Indeed, DEX has been used in several biomedical applications due to aqueous solubility, biocompatibility, biodegradability, wide availability, ease of modification, and non-fouling properties [26–28]. Due to its branched nature, DEX has a larger volume than a PEG of the same molecular weight limiting dense packing arrangements. These characteristics should allow to explore a different organization of DEX chains as compared to the PEG coating. DEX provides biological recognition properties that could also be used for targeted delivery and cell penetration avoiding the need of positive charges for polyplex translocation, too. In this work, DEX has been covalently conjugated to PAH at different molar ratios (PAH:DEX_n, $n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$), and self-assembled into PANs at different concentrations of PB. PAH:DEX_n PANs display a rich and complex self-assembly behavior, unique among other PAH functionalizations studied. According to the n value, different nanoassemblies are obtained. Interestingly, at PAH:DEX ratio of 1, nanosized core-shell capsules (NCs) are mainly obtained. Instead, at lower or higher n , nanoparticles are formed. When $n \geq 5$ single chain NPs and random coils are obtained. The glycoNCs are responsive systems and can disassemble at endosomal pH values. As a proof of concept, the pH-mediated entrapment in the glycoNCs of bovine serum albumin (BSA) as model protein has been conducted. In this way, we demonstrate that the glycoNCs are interesting nanoscale carriers with supramolecular organization and smart pH responsiveness, which could be exploited for intracellular delivery of therapeutics.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Materials

Poly(allylamine hydrochloride) salt, 99 % (average M_w 17.5 kDa), dextran (average M_w 6 kDa), sodium cyanoborohydride, 97.9 % (NaCNBH_3), Rhodamine B isothiocyanate (RBITC), Bovine Serum Albumin protein, 99 % (BSA), sodium chloride (NaCl) and BCA protein assay kit were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. Dialysis was performed using SnakeSkin® Pleated Dialysis Tubing 3500 MWCO purchased from Thermo Fisher or Dialysis Tubing Cellulose Membrane 14,000 MWCO purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

2.2. General procedure for the preparation of PAH:DEX_n ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) polymers

DEX and NaCNBH_3 were added to a 1.8 mM solution of PAH in borate buffer (0.03 M, pH 8.4). The reaction mixture was kept under magnetic stirring at r.t. and, after 72 h, was loaded into dialysis tubing (cellulose membrane, 14,000 MWCO) which were placed in a 2 L beaker of deionized water. The content of the beaker was gently stirred, recharging with fresh distilled water every 3–4 h over the course of 72 h. Finally, the product was lyophilized and stored at 4 °C. The PAH:DEX_n polymers were analysed by ^1H NMR and IR spectroscopy. The assignment of the polymers signals was performed on the basis of the ^1H NMR characterization reported in literature for DEX [29] and PAH [10]. ^1H NMR spectra are reported in Fig. S1. The specific syntheses of PAH:DEX_n ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) polymers are reported in SI.

2.3. General procedure for the preparation of fluorescent PAH:RBITC:DEX_n ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) polymers

DEX and NaCNBH_3 were added to a 1.8 mM solution of PAH:RBITC in borate buffer (0.03 M, pH 8.4). The reaction mixture was kept under magnetic stirring at r.t. and, after 72 h, was loaded into dialysis tubing (cellulose membrane, 14,000 MWCO) that were placed in a 2 L beaker of deionized water. The content of the beaker was gently stirred, recharging with fresh distilled water every 3–4 h over the course of 72 h. Finally, the product was freeze-dried and stored at 4 °C. The PAH:DEX_n polymers were analysed by ^1H NMR and IR spectroscopy. The RBITC loading in the PAH:RBITC:DEX_n polymers was confirmed through UV–Vis spectroscopy. The specific syntheses of PAH:RBITC:DEX_n ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) polymers are reported in the Supporting Material.

2.4. Synthetic procedure for the preparation of PAH:DEX_n PANs

PANs were prepared through a self-assembly process. 0.1 mL of a stock solution (10 mg/mL, Milli-Q water) of PAH:DEX_n polymer ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) was added to 0.9 mL of PB at pH 7.2 and different concentrations (2, 5, 7, 10 mM).

2.5. BSA entrapment into nanocapsules

0.1 mL stock solution of PAH:DEX₁ polymer (10 mg/mL, Milli-Q water) was mixed with 0.1 mL of different stock solutions of BSA (0.5, 1, 2.5, 5, 7.5, and 10 mg/mL). Then, the mixture was added to PB 5 mM (0.8 mL, pH 7.2). The free BSA was quantified by UV–Vis through analysis of the protein content in the supernatant ($C_{\text{BSA, supernatant}}$) after centrifugation of the dispersion at 10,000 rpm for 20 min (16,882 g, Fixed angle rotor AFI-RA24-2, AFI SIRENA Refrigerated Centrifuge 0.6L, 230 V, 50 Hz). This analysis was performed using the Novagen® BCA Protein Assay Kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The absorbance at 562 nm of the resulting solution was measured in a 96-well by using a SpectroStarNano Microplate Reader. The free BSA was calculated as $\% = (C_{\text{BSA, supernatant}}/C_{\text{BSA, total}}) \times 100$.

2.6. Cryogenic electron microscopy (cryo-EM)

PAH:DEX_n NPs were assembled in PB at a final concentration of 1 mg/mL and let stabilize for 30 min. Ultra-thin plasma-treated carbon film TEM grids (Quantifoil holey carbon film R2.2 on 300 Cu Mesh, Electron Microscopy Sciences) were glow discharged (negative, 21 mA, 60 sec) and a small volume of the sample (3 μL) was deposited onto them. NP samples were blotted for 1 sec (100 % humidity, zero force and zero sec wait) and automatically vitrified in liquid ethane by the Vitrobot instrument (ThermoFisher). The imaging was performed with cryo-EM Glacios microscope (ThermoFisher) with magnification from 36 kX to 92 kX. The images obtained from the cryo-EM analysis were analyzed using ImageJ software (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html>).

2.7. Dynamic light scattering (DLS)

DLS measurements were carried out with a Malvern Zetasizer Pro Red Lab Advance instrument in backscattering mode. All studies were performed at a 173° scattering angle with temperature controlled at 25 °C in 1 mL polystyrene cuvettes. Nanoparticles were characterized in terms of size and ζ -potential. Short time measurements were carried out with 3 consecutive measurements for each sample. ζ -potential measurements were performed in auto-mode at 25 °C, with 3 consecutive measurements for each sample.

2.8. Circular dichroism (CD)

CD experiments were performed in a JASCO-1500 spectrophotometer at 20 °C using a quartz cuvette of path length 10 mm. Free BSA and BSA-loaded NCs, with a final BSA concentration of 0.01 mg/mL, were measured in PB 5 mM. Empty NCs were also measured at the same concentration (0.1 mg/mL) as those loaded with BSA. The spectra were recorded in the range of 190–350 nm with a scan rate of 50 nm min⁻¹. Each data point was collected as an average of three accumulation plots at a bandwidth of 1.00 nm.

2.9. Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS)

FCS was performed with Confocal Microscope Zeiss LSM 880 (Carl Zeiss GmbH). Acquisition and analysis were controlled by Zen black software. GaASP detector for single fluorescence molecules detection and dynamic characterization was used. Measurements were performed with a Zeiss C-Apochromat 40x, NA 1.2 water immersion objective. Fluorescence was detected in the range 492–754 nm and 571–754 nm, for Atto488-labelled and RBITC-labelled species respectively. Ibidi μ -Slide 8 well ibiTreat chambered coverglass were used. The solutions were diluted in water or PB 5 mM to concentrations four or ten times lower than the original one, resulting in a final volume of 200 μL , in order to avoid the saturation of the detector. QuickFit 3.0 [30] free software was used for FCS data analysis. To fit data the Global Fitting with 2 components 3D Normal Diffusion model was used. The confocal volume was determined using 50 nM Atto488 and 200 nM Rhodamine B solutions. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was labelled with Atto488 NHS-ester in the following way. BSA (5 mg, 0.0755 μmol , 1 eq) was dissolved in PBS (5 mL) adjusted to pH = 8.3 by using NaHCO_3 0.2 M and incubated overnight with 222 μL of Atto488 NHS-ester DMF solution (1 mg/mL, 0.226 μmol , 3 eq). The crude product was purified by dialysis (10 kDa MWCO) during 48 h. BSA-Atto488 was freeze-dried and a purple solid was obtained (79 % yield).

2.10. Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS)

SAXS experiments were performed at the Austrian SAXS beamline at the Elettra Synchrotron in Trieste, Italy. The energy of the X-rays was 8 keV, corresponding to a wavelength $\lambda = 1.55 \text{ \AA}$. The sample-to-detector (P1M) distance was adjusted to 1.347 m for the desired Q-range

($0.01\text{--}0.5\text{ \AA}^{-1}$), where Q is the scattering vector with θ one-half of the scattering angle. The specified beam dimensions were $500 \times 1500\text{ mm}$. All samples were measured using the beamline automatic μDrop Sample Changer [31]. Data were acquired in triplicate, by taking 20 images with an exposure time of 10 s in every case. Before and after every sample measurement, the scattering of the correspondent buffer was also acquired. Radiation damage of the samples was checked and only the appropriate waves were selected for the data analysis. The reduction of the primary data was performed using Igor Pro. SAXS data analysis was performed by using the software GENFIT [32]. Two models were adopted to analyse SAXS curves: homogeneous spheres and core-shell spheres, whose radius is considered polydisperse as in previous works [8].

3. Results

3.1. Synthesis of PAH:DEX_n polymers

PAH polymers functionalized with dextran (DEX) were synthesized at different PAH:DEX_n molar ratios ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) through a reductive amination reaction between the free amine groups in PAH backbone and the terminal aldehyde group present in each DEX chain. The reaction was performed in borate buffer (pH 8.4) with sodium cyanoborohydride as reducing agent, as sketched in Scheme 1.

The reaction mixture was purified by dialysis and then freeze-dried. The detailed synthetic procedures are reported in the [Supplementary material](#) Section I. The polymers were analyzed by ^1H NMR spectroscopy (Fig. S1) to determine the experimental ratio between the PAH backbone and the DEX polysaccharide after conjugation, i.e. the value of n in PAH:DEX_n. As detailed in Table S1, the theoretical molar ratios closely matched the experimental ones, suggesting that the reductive amination approach is efficient.

In addition, fluorescent polymers were also prepared by inserting a fluorescent tag on the PAH framework. In particular, PAH was covalently coupled with commercially available Rhodamine B isothiocyanate (RBITC) through thiourea formation in basic conditions. After dialysis and freeze-drying, the resulting fluorescent polymer PAH-RBITC was analyzed through UV–Vis spectroscopy to quantify the amount of fluorophore ([Supplementary material](#) Section I for detailed synthesis procedure and characterization). Then, fluorescent PAH:DEX_n polymers (with $n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) were synthesized by using PAH-RBITC in place of PAH and following the same synthetic procedure as for non-labelled PAH:DEX_n ([Supplementary material](#), Section I).

3.2. Preparation and characterization of PAH:DEX_n nanoparticles

PAH:DEX_n nanoassemblies were prepared with a simple one-step

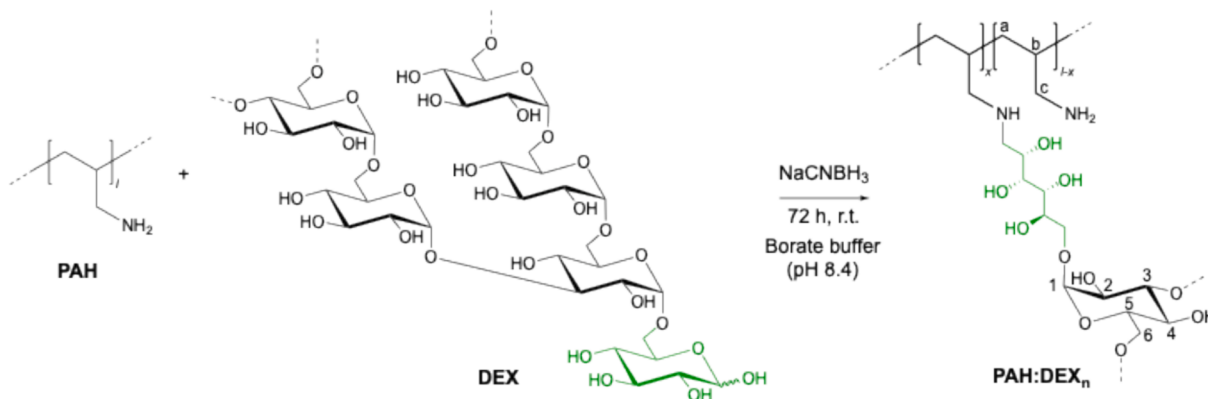
procedure by mixing synthesized PAH:DEX_n polymers ($n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$) with PB. An initial screening of PB concentrations was carried out to optimize the NPs formation in terms of size and monodispersity. Furthermore, the effect of ionic strength on NPs synthesis was evaluated adding NaCl to the NPs dispersion to reach a final concentration of NaCl between 0 and 150 mM. In addition, the pH-responsiveness of PAH:DEX_n NPs was evaluated across a wide pH range ($3 \leq \text{pH} \leq 11$) by addition of hydrochloric acid or sodium hydroxide to the NPs dispersion. PAH:DEX_n NPs were extensively characterized by dynamic light scattering (DLS) and ζ -potential to determine size, polydispersity, surface charge, and stability over time. Cryogenic electron microscopy (cryo-EM) and synchrotron small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) also provided key information about their structure and morphology.

A DLS screening in 10 mM PB at pH 7.2 (Table 1) indicate that monodisperse samples are obtained for $n = 0.5, 1$ and 2 , and that the size of the corresponding nanoassemblies decreases as the DEX functionalization increases. In particular, the size of PAH:DEX_{0.5} is 212 nm with PdI 0.02, PAH:DEX₁ is 85 nm with PdI 0.04, and PAH:DEX₂ is 43 nm with PdI 0.04 (Fig. 1B, Fig. S3). For lower DEX functionalization, i.e. PAH:DEX_{0.1}, the size of nanoassemblies is 534 nm with PdI 0.17 that is very similar to non-functionalized PAH [8]. Higher PAH:DEX ratios ($n = 5$ and 10) result in very polydisperse populations, with sizes indicating the presence of free random-coil polymer chains rather than self-assembled species. Furthermore, DLS measurements after 24 h showed that PAH:DEX_n ($n = 0.5, 1$, and 2) nanoassemblies were more stable and monodisperse than the others over time (Table 1).

Table 1

Size (hydrodynamic diameter, nm) and polydispersity index (PdI) of PAH:DEX_n NPs as measured by DLS, immediately after their synthesis (0 h) and after 24 h, in PB 10 mM, at pH 7.2 and 25 °C. Data were acquired in triplicate.

Polymer samples	Size (nm) $\pm$ SD	PdI $\pm$ SD	Size (nm) $\pm$ SD	PdI $\pm$ SD
	0 h		24 h	
PAH	681 $\pm$ 18	0.27 $\pm$ 0.06	1060 $\pm$ 48	0.46 $\pm$ 0.05
PAH:DEX _{0.1}	534 $\pm$ 10	0.17 $\pm$ 0.02	807 $\pm$ 32	0.10 $\pm$ 0.02
PAH:DEX _{0.5}	212 $\pm$ 2	0.02 $\pm$ 0.02	223 $\pm$ 5	0.05 $\pm$ 0.04
PAH:DEX ₁	85 $\pm$ 1	0.04 $\pm$ 0.01	92 $\pm$ 1	0.05 $\pm$ 0.02
PAH:DEX ₂	43 $\pm$ 1	0.04 $\pm$ 0.01	43 $\pm$ 1	0.05 $\pm$ 0.02
PAH:DEX ₅	28 $\pm$ 1	0.27 $\pm$ 0.01	29 $\pm$ 1	0.23 $\pm$ 0.02
PAH:DEX ₁₀	200 $\pm$ 165	0.43 $\pm$ 0.21	52 $\pm$ 35	0.55 $\pm$ 0.26



Scheme 1. Synthetic approach for the preparation of PAH:DEX_n polymers, based on reductive amination: the masked aldehyde of the DEX reducing end reacts with the primary amines of the PAH, and the Schiff's base intermediate is reduced in situ with NaCNBH₃.

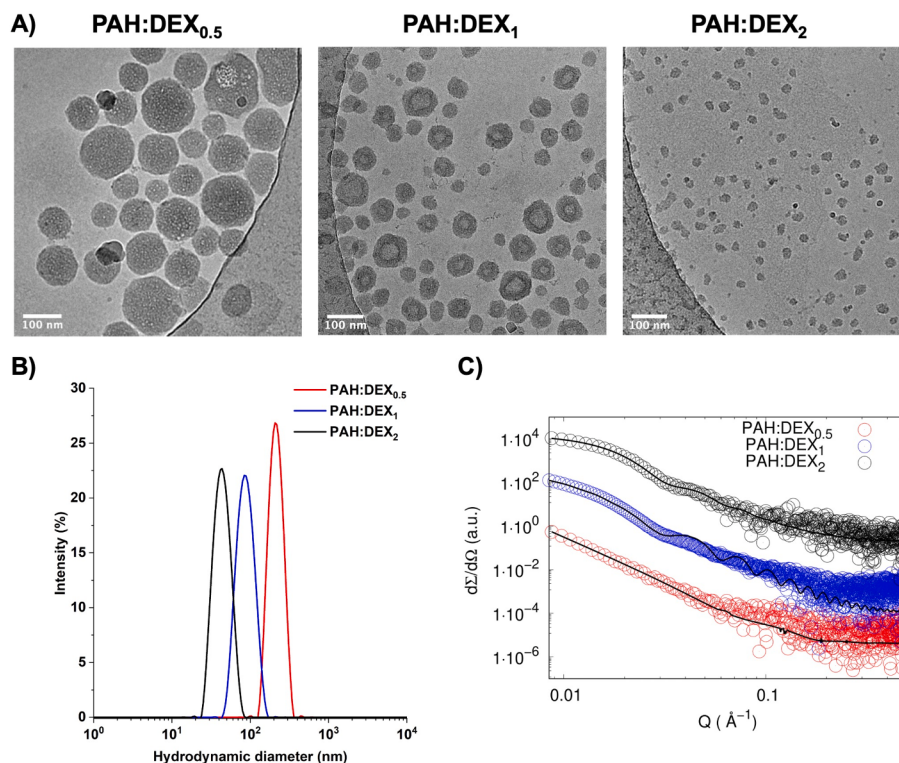


Fig. 1. Analysis of PAH:DEX_n NPs prepared in PB (10 mM, pH 7.2) at 1 mg/mL with different PAH:DEX_n molar ratios ($n = 0.5, 1, 2$) by A) cryo-EM images; B) DLS intensity-based size distribution; C) SAXS experimental curves (circles) and theoretical fitting (lines), from bottom to top each curve has been scaled by a factor 100 in respect to the lower n molar ratio, for the sake of clarity.

Surface charge measurements (Table S2) show that the ζ -potential decreases from +20 mV for PAH [10] to +0.6 mV for PAH:DEX₂ NPs, as consequence of the shielding of positive charges by dextran molecules.

These results have been confirmed by cryo-EM that allowed for a more detailed study by direct visualization of the nanoassemblies in cryogenic conditions. Indeed, cryo-EM images (Fig. 1A and Figs. S4.1, S4.2A, S5A and S6A) reveal an interesting morphological behavior of PAH:DEX in PB 10 mM at different molar ratio of DEX.

In particular, PAH:DEX_{0.5} and PAH:DEX₂ clearly appear as spherical nanoparticles (Fig. 1A), PAH:DEX₅ and PAH:DEX₁₀ appear as very small NPs or random coils (Fig. S4.2A), while PAH:DEX₁ showed a completely different morphology. PAH:DEX₁ assemble into nanocapsules (NCs) with a core-shell structure formed by an electrodense polymeric layer with an inner core having an electron density similar to the outer space, suggesting an empty core.

A detailed analysis of the cryo-EM images of PAH:DEX₁ (Fig. S5A) shows that the NCs population exhibited an average diameter around 70 nm, even though sizes up to 100 nm can be detected. Fig. S5B illustrates the size-distribution histogram. Statistical analysis on the nanocapsules reveals that NCs represent about 66 % of the assemblies and show a polymeric shell with an average thickness of 22 nm, which denotes that the inner core volume of the capsule is relatively small, close to 40 nm in diameter. Additionally, together with the NCs, a small population of nanoparticles below 40 nm can be detected.

The concentration of PB used during the synthesis significantly influenced the formation of PAH:DEX₁ NCs as reported in Fig. S6. Cryo-EM images (Fig. S6A) show that NCs start to form at PB 5 mM. A further increase in PB concentration to 10 mM leads to a decrease in the size of NCs. DLS (Fig. S6B and Fig. S6C) confirm these data.

Since cryo-EM provides information on a limited set of nanostructures, SAXS was applied to gain information of a wider population of the nanoassemblies. Cryo-EM results were used to select the fitting model for SAXS experimental data obtained for PAH:DEX_n with $n = 0.5, 1$, and 2 (Fig. 1). SAXS data corresponding to PAH:DEX_n are shown in

Fig. 1C (curves are shifted for visual clarity). A model free approach, aimed to obtain the Guinier gyration radius, suggested that increasing n (number of DEX chains per PAH chain), the average radius decreased. However, since the Q -range where the Guinier approximation is perfectly valid is lower in respect to available experimental set-ups, a theoretical model has been adopted that allows to analyze the whole SAXS spectrum and involves polydisperse spheres, possibly with denser shells, taking advantage of DLS and cryo-EM results. SAXS measurements of PAH:DEX_{0.5} and PAH:DEX₂ samples were successfully fitted considering polydisperse spheres with diameters of 180 and 30 nm, respectively, with a polydispersity between 10 and 20 %. On the other hand, SAXS spectrum of PAH:DEX₁ could not be quite well analyzed considering just one species in solution. Hence, taking advantage of cryo-EM results, both homogeneous and core-shell spheres were considered to be present in solution for PAH:DEX₁ sample. NCs resulted to be ≈ 60 % of the total species, in good agreement with cryo-EM image. Also, an average diameter of ≈ 30 nm resulted for NPs, while NCs were characterized by an inner diameter of ≈ 60 nm and a denser shell of ≈ 20 nm thickness.

Furthermore, the stability against ionic strength was evaluated. An increase in the size of PAH:DEX₁ NCs is observed in PB 10 mM when the ionic strength raises from 0 to 150 mM through the addition of NaCl, as shown in Fig. 2A. The hydrodynamic diameter and PDI of the NCs increases with augmenting NaCl concentration, starting from ≈ 100 nm in a PB solution (no NaCl), growing to ≈ 150 nm in PB with saline 50–100 mM, and reaching 1115 nm when NaCl concentration is brought to 150 mM. Additionally, DLS measurements were conducted to evaluate the stability of PAH:DEX₁ NCs across a wide pH range, from pH 3 to pH 11. These experiments were carried out by adding few microliters of 0.5 M HCl for pH values below 7 or 0.5 M NaOH for pH values above 7. No variation in the scattered intensity of PAH:DEX₁ NCs at pH values between 6 and 9 was observed, as shown in Fig. 2B. In this pH region, all PAH chains become saturated with phosphate ions causing their stable complexation and NCs formation. Instead, a decrease in the scattering

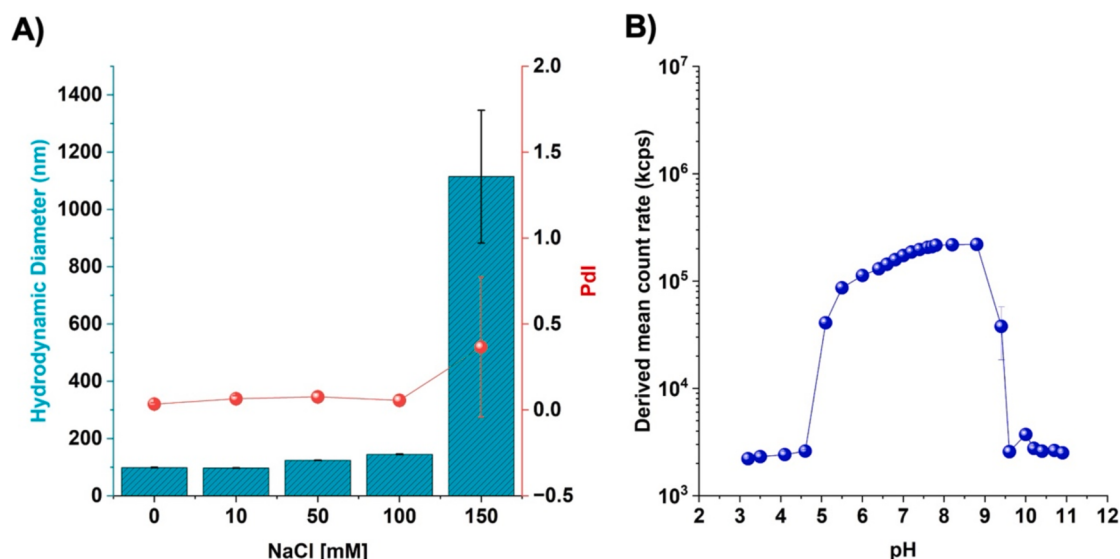


Fig. 2. (A) Hydrodynamic diameter (nm) and PDI of PAH:DEX₁ in PB 10 mM vs different molar concentrations of NaCl. (B) Derived mean count rate in kilocounts per second (kcps) of PAH:DEX₁ in PB 10 mM at different pH values.

intensity at acidic pH levels below 6 is likely due to the disassembly of PAH, resulting from the loss of negative charges in phosphate groups at acidic pH. Indeed, at $\text{pH} < 6$, the protonation of PAH is maintained (pK_a PAH ~ 8.92 , [33,34]) but the main phosphate species are H_2PO_4^- , thus the resulting PAH-phosphate interactions are no longer sufficient to generate stable complexes [35]. Similarly, a disassembly process is observed when the pH is raised above 9. At high pH, the PAH becomes neutral due to the complete deprotonation of amino groups resulting in negligible interactions with phosphate ions, NCs disassembly and lower scattered intensity.

3.3. Entrapment of BSA protein to the PAH:DEX nanocapsules

The potential of PAH:DEX₁ NCs for the encapsulation of biological macromolecules was evaluated by preparing the NCs in presence of BSA at different concentrations (from 0.1 to 1.0 mg/mL). DLS data showed that PAH:DEX₁-BSA_{0.1} NCs exhibit an average diameter of 156 nm with PDI 0.11 ± 0.04 , while PAH:DEX₁-BSA₁ NPs a smaller diameter around 48 nm with PDI 0.14 ± 0.02 , as clearly visible from intensity-based size distribution graphs (Fig. 3A). Similar results were obtained by SAXS measurements on PAH:DEX₁-BSA_{0.1} and PAH:DEX₁-BSA₁, which are shown in Fig. 3B. When BSA is entrapped at the lower concentration, large NCs are observed, whose diameter is ≈ 200 nm, including a higher electron density shell with a thickness of ≈ 20 nm. On the other side, increasing BSA amount until 1 mg/mL, NCs collapse into a population whose average diameter is ≈ 80 nm. Both SAXS results arise from a theoretical fitting with a noticeable polydispersion, in agreement with cryo-EM. In fact, cryo-EM images were acquired to visualize the entrapment and structural changes at 0.1 mg/mL and 1.0 mg/mL of BSA (Fig. 3C and D). Cryo-EM images show an inner compartment of the NCs with a higher contrast as compared to the regions outside the capsule walls, which was not observed in the absence of protein, thus suggesting that a portion of the BSA is entrapped inside the NCs (Fig. 3C). Conversely, at 1 mg/mL of BSA, relatively small (≈ 25 nm) nanoparticles are formed (Fig. 3D).

The entrapment efficiency at different concentrations of BSA (ranging from 0.05 to 1.0 mg/mL) in PAH:DEX₁ was evaluated in PB 5 mM ($\text{pH} 7.2$, 20°C) using the Novagen® BCA Protein Assay Kit, immediately after mixing ($t = 0$ min), as shown in Fig. S7 (blue bars). The bar plot indicates that, when the BSA concentration is below 0.1 mg/mL, no free protein is detected in the supernatant. However, as the BSA concentration increases to 1 mg/mL, complete encapsulation of the

protein cannot be achieved. As DLS showed that the NCs disassemble at pH below 6 (Fig. 2B), the release of BSA was studied at pH 4.5 using the Novagen® BCA Protein Assay Kit. As shown in Fig. S7 (orange bars), at $t = 0$ min, the disassembly of the NCs and the release of the protein occur immediately, reaching a plateau when the concentration exceeds 0.5 mg/mL. Furthermore, this trend was confirmed even at $t = 60$ min indicating no changes in the amount of protein present in the supernatant, reinforcing the conclusion that the release is immediate, as reported in Fig. S8.

DLS (Fig. S9A) provides a clear correlation between pH variation and the disassembly of the NCs. This visual transition is evident in Fig. S9B that shows the sample at pH 7.2 on the left and at pH 4.5 on the right. The solution appears opalescent at pH 7.2, indicating the presence of intact NCs. However, when the pH is adjusted to 4.5, the solution becomes clear, indicating the complete disassembly of the NCs. These observations confirm that the lower pH environment effectively triggers the disassembly of the PAH:DEX₁-BSA_{0.1} NCs, releasing the entrapped BSA and resulting in the disruption of the NCs.

Far-UV CD spectroscopy was applied to further evaluate the entrapment/release process, but focusing on the cargo, i.e. BSA (Fig. 4A and B), since no meaningful CD signal was observed for the empty NCs as reported in Fig. S10. In particular, the aim of the CD experiments was to monitor the structural changes of BSA when entrapped in PAH:DEX₁ NCs at pH 7.4, and to evaluate its stability and release at pH 4.5 [36]. Fig. 4A shows that free BSA at pH 7.4 vs BSA mixed with PAH:DEX₁ NCs (at the same pH) provide different CD spectra with a significant change in the relative intensity of the two minimums of the free BSA. These CD spectra demonstrate two distinctive BSA structures, and hence confirm BSA entrapment. Specifically, the encapsulated BSA shows a decrease in the intensity of the bands at 190 nm and 208 nm, while the band at 220 nm remains unchanged in intensity, but it exhibits a slight red shift. The changes in both bands suggest a loss of conformation of BSA through the interaction with the PAH:DEX polymer. These changes are due to the modification of BSA secondary structures induced by its entrapment in the NCs. Indeed, lowering the pH from 7.4 to 4.5, the encapsulated BSA display similar CD spectra to the free BSA (Fig. 4B) with a comparable intensity ratio between the two minima, suggesting that BSA is released from the NCs at this pH, recovering the initial conformation. The peak at 220 nm becomes less negative when the pH decreases, in agreement with literature data [37].

To have an additional proof of the entrapment capability of proteins, fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS) studies were carried out

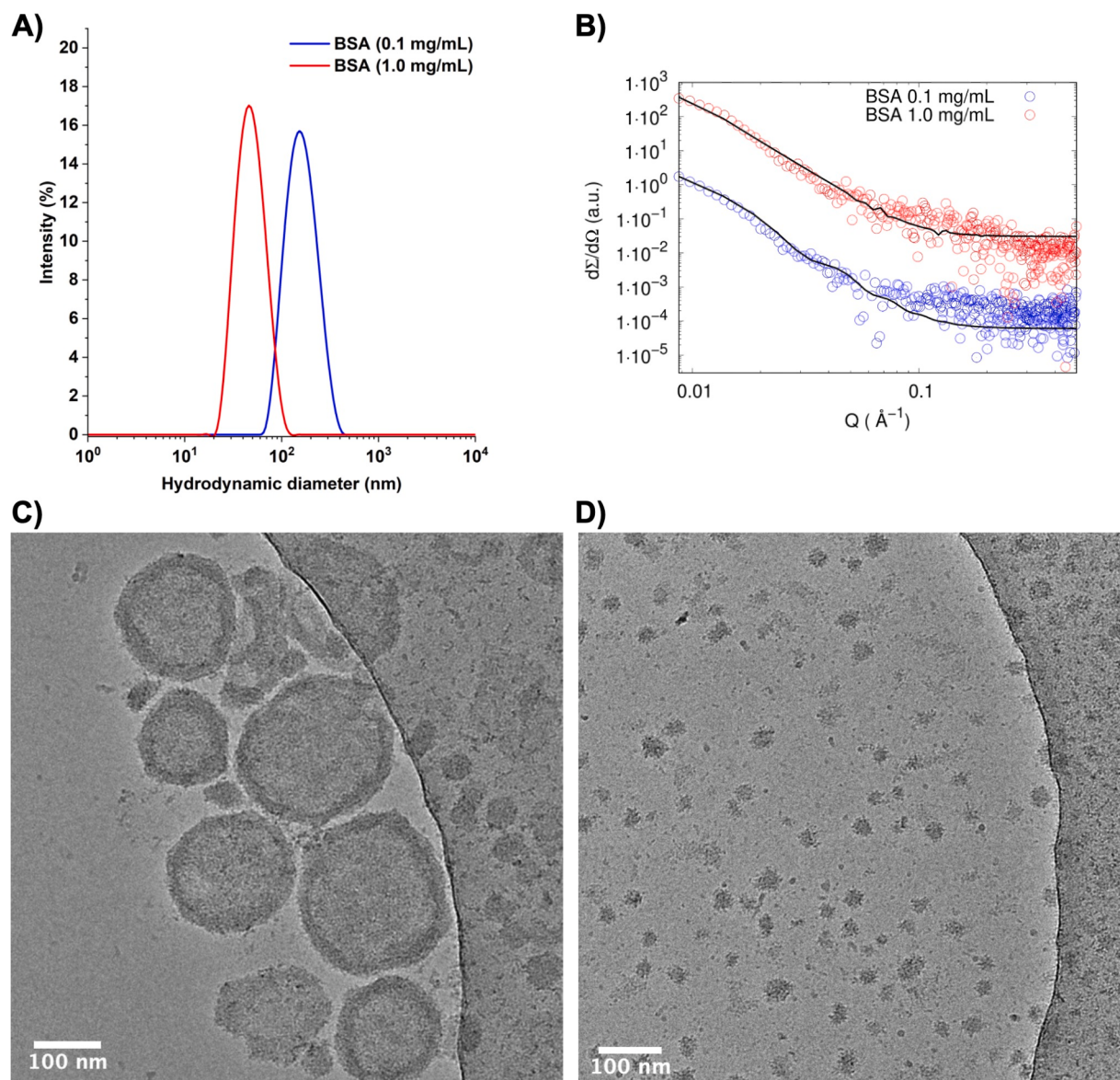


Fig. 3. Entrapment of BSA (0.1 or 1.0 mg/mL) in PAH:DEX₁ (1 mg/mL in PB 5 mM, pH 7.2). (A) Size distribution based on DLS intensity; (B) SAXS experimental curves (circles) and theoretical fitting (lines); SAXS curve at higher BSA concentration has been shifted by a factor 100 for clarity; Cryo-EM images with (C) 0.1 mg/mL of BSA, and (D) 1 mg/mL of BSA.

(Fig. 4C and D). FCS allows to measure the diffusion coefficient of fluorescently labelled molecules. BSA was labelled with Atto488 through a standard protocol and its diffusion coefficient was measured before and after entrapment in the PAH:DEX₁ NCs. The diffusion coefficient of the protein decreases after encapsulation from $31.6 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ to $3.3 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$, which means that the protein diffuses in a similar way as the NCs. To probe that, PAH-RBITC:DEX₁ NCs without BSA were prepared (Fig. 4D). Their diffusion coefficient was measured, which resulted in the same order of magnitude as the one observed for the encapsulated protein. When the ionic strength was increased over 150 mM of NaCl (Fig. S11) or the pH decreased to 5 (Fig. 4C), the diffusion time of the entrapped protein decreased to values of free protein, indicating a disassembly of the NCs and the BSA protein release.

4. Discussion

The preparation of PAH:DEX PANs requires the controlled synthesis of pristine polymers, which has been carried out through a reductive amination reaction profiting of the masked aldehyde at the terminal

glucoside in the DEX chains. This strategy allows for a significant chemical control (PAH:DEX_n, with $n = 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$; see [Supplementary material](#), Section I). Due to the chemoselectivity of the reaction, free amine groups in PAH backbone react with the unique hemiacetal at DEX terminal end affording the corresponding Schiff base that is in situ reduced to the corresponding secondary amine by NaCNBH₃. The reaction is easy to perform and straightforward, as well as the purification process that is based on dialysis vs water. In addition, it ensures that a single DEX chain reacts independently from another chain and specifically, as the hydroxyl groups are not involved in the bond formation. The high chemical control allows for obtaining different PAH:DEX ratios. PAH:DEX_n PANs show a richer assembly behavior than PANs prepared with PAH or with PAH modified with oleic acid or PEG [10,18,20]. The size and the morphology of PAH:DEX_n assemblies are modulated by changing the molar ratio of DEX and PAH. In PB 10 mM, PAH:DEX_n with densities of DEX chains below 1 per PAH chain assemble forming PANs, as PAH does. In fact, a density of DEX chains below 1 implies that not all chains are modified with DEX, thus the polymers can interact among themselves as unmodified PAH chains.

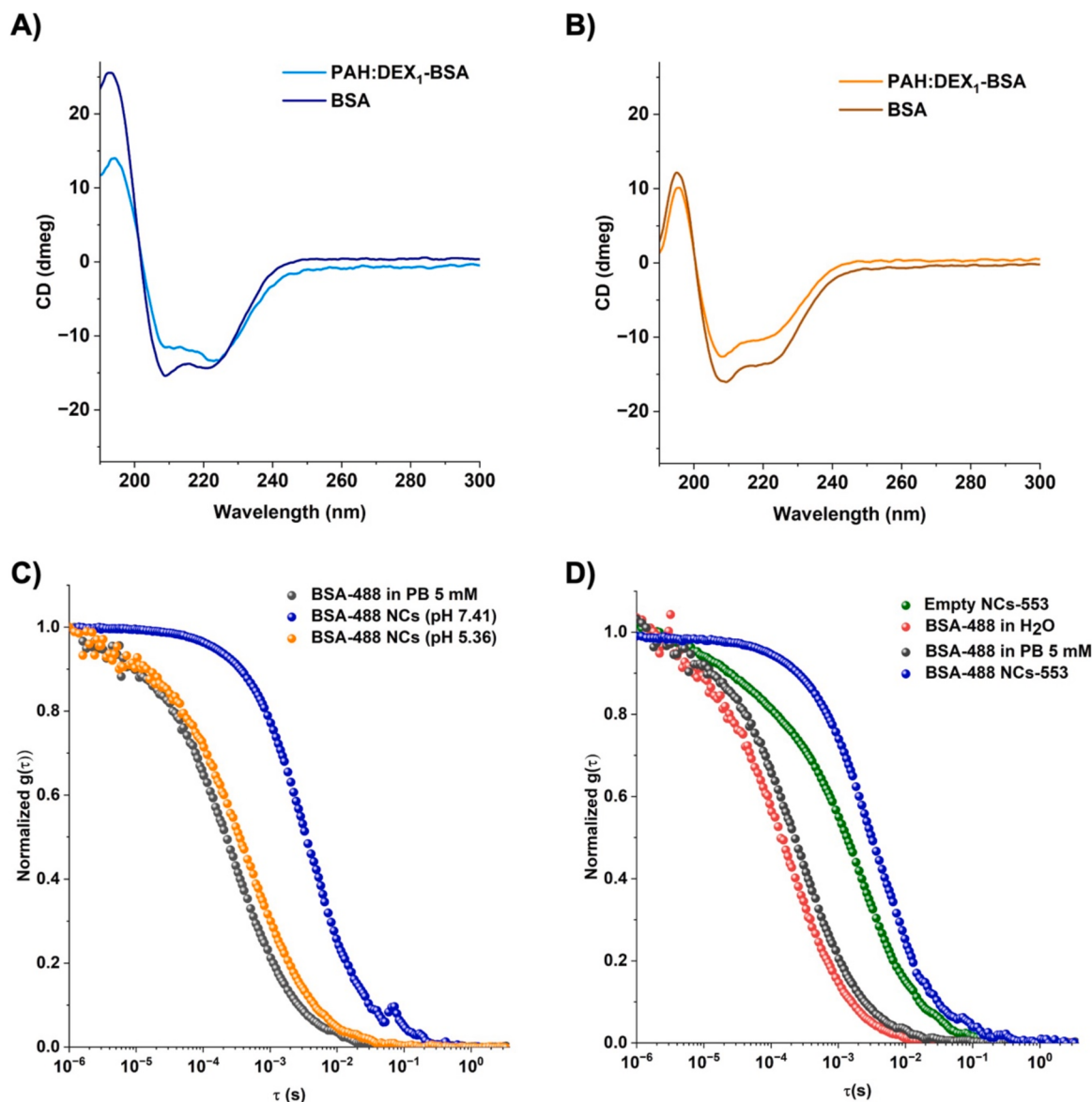


Fig. 4. CD spectra of PAH:DEX₁-BSA (0.1 mg/mL) and free BSA (0.1 mg/mL) in PB 5 mM at pH 7.4 (A) and at pH 4.5 (B). Autocorrelation curves obtained from FCS using Atto488-labelled BSA (BSA-488) for (C) BSA-488 in PB 5 mM, after forming PAH:DEX₁ NCs at pH 7.4 and pH 5.4; (D) Empty NCs formed with RBITC-labelled PAH:DEX₁ (NC-553), the same NCs with BSA-488, and free BSA-488 in water and PB 5 mM.

The interaction of PAH chains free of DEX with PAH:DEX_n at densities below 1 can take place randomly among amines of both chains, except for the regions of PAH:DEX_n that are sterically protected by DEX. DEX is a large and branched polysaccharide attached from one point to the PAH. A non-modified PAH can interact with the PAH:DEX_n in PB from any direction except from the side protected by DEX. For the case of PAH:DEX_n with $n = 0.1$, a PAH chain is most likely to encounter another PAH chain than a PAH functionalized with DEX. In these conditions, the assembly is very similar to the PAH, resulting in particles with size and morphology similar to PANs synthesized with unmodified PAH, as shown in cryo-EM images. However, when a PAH:DEX chain assembles, DEX must be placed on the surface of the nanoparticle otherwise the interaction among PAH chains would not be optimal, since if DEX were inside the nanoparticle it would sterically shield the interaction of amines from one chain to another through the phosphate ions, acting as a barrier.

In the case of PAH:DEX_n with $n = 1$ (approximately one dextran polysaccharide per PAH chain), each PAH:DEX polymer can only interact with other PAH:DEX chains. The assembly can hence proceed by

the side if the DEX chains do not impose steric constraints or two PAH chains come together from opposite directions with the dextran chains on their back (Fig. 5). When this occurs, the assembly cannot grow further in thickness as the PAH chains are trapped between dextran layers. The assembly continues sideways, or it is stopped if DEX imposes restrictions for lateral growth. In one case, nanocapsules are formed; in the other case, small nanoparticles. The size of the DEX is smaller than the side of the PAH chain to which is attached, and this allows the PAH:DEX chains to assemble side by side. In analogy to a lipid bilayer, we assume that they close on themselves forming a sort of polymer vesicle. Reasonably, the capsule formation is only possible when the DEX chains are located both on the external and internal surface of the assemblies. The thickness of the NCs must be at most the thickness of two PAH:DEX chains in the conditions for the assembly and DEX must be present in both the inner and external surface, extended for around 20 nm. This is also the size of small nanoparticles, which makes us think that the nanoparticles are formed by two PAH:DEX chains, which were not able to grow laterally. It could also be possible that one or two additional chains of PAH:DEX could be present, consequently forming the complex

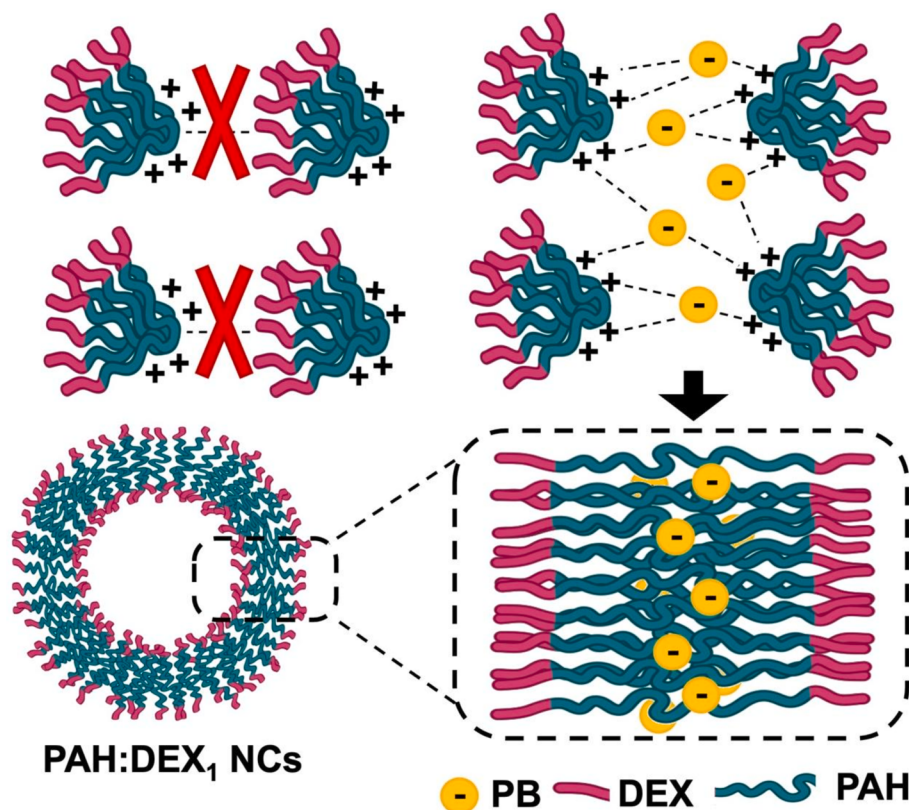


Fig. 5. Sketch of the self-assembly mechanism of PAH:DEX₁ into nanocapsules. The sketch shows how DEX poses constrain for the assembly that leads to the interaction of PAH:DEX chains only when the PAH backbone of two chains are facing one to the other. The assembly can grow laterally when the positive charges in the complex can interact with the charged backbone of other PAH:DEX. The negative charges are intended to be the $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^- / \text{HPO}_4^{2-}$ ions; the positive charges are intended to be the protonated amino groups of the PAH.

in such a way that the DEX chains do not allow for further growth of the assembly.

More insight on the structural features of PAH:DEX_n ($n = 0.5, 1, 2$) are given by the surface charge measurements in PB 10 mM at pH 7.2 (Table S2), which corroborate the successful functionalization of DEX on PAH. Notably, there is a significant decrease of the positive surface charge in PAH:DEX_n NPs as the amount of DEX on PAH increases. The DEX polysaccharide shields the PAH positive charges, bringing ζ -potential close to 0 mV in the measuring conditions. This result also confirms that the DEX chains are mainly exposed to the bulk solution, similarly to what happened when PAH was functionalized with PEG [10].

The absence of nanoparticle formation for $n > 2$ is probably due to the large screening of charged of PAH by the two DEX moieties per PAH molecule, which prevents the interaction of unmodified PAH segments with the phosphate ions imposing steric constraints for particle formation and growth. When the number of DEX per PAH is increased over 5, the interaction between chains is limited by steric restrictions. They cannot assemble resulting in single chain nanoparticles when segments of PAH can interact within a single chain through phosphate ions or when the number of DEX chains does not allow for this interaction the PAH:DEX chains remain unperturbed, and no nanoparticle is formed.

The pH-responsiveness of PAH:DEX₁ NCs was evaluated across a pH range from 3 to 11. As shown in Fig. 2B, the nanocapsules are stable in a $6 < \text{pH} < 9$ range and disassemble at $\text{pH} < 6$ or $\text{pH} > 9$. The protonation of the phosphate groups at acidic pH, as well as the deprotonation of amino groups at $\text{pH} > 9$, leads to the disassembly of the NCs. In addition, the increase in size with ionic strength (>150 mM), shown in Fig. 2A, is probably due to the decrease in repulsive interactions among the PAH chains that facilitate grows of the particle, while the attractive interaction between the amines of PAH and the phosphate ions are still present.

Further increases in the ionic strength weakens the phosphate amine interactions and capsules dissolve. The above data indicate that the nanocapsules show a narrow size distribution and should disassemble in conditions of pH displayed in late endosomes but not during circulation into the bloodstream, which makes them an interesting and innovative system for the encapsulation and the delivery of large therapeutics and biologics, such as proteins and nucleic acids. In order to demonstrate that these capsules can be exploited to encapsulate hydrophilic biomolecules, BSA has been used as a model protein. Measuring by FCS the diffusion time of the fluorescently labelled NCs and the free labelled BSA, in comparison with the PAH:DEX₁-BSA_{0.1}, indicate that most of BSA is encapsulated and diffuses with the capsules as it has a very similar diffusion time to the empty NCs. FCS data show that, when encapsulated, the protein diffuses with the capsule and can be easily released by a decrease in pH to values below 4.5, as shown in Fig. 4C and D.

When the final concentration of BSA was 0.1 mg/mL, the formation of the nanocapsules with entrapped protein has been visualized by cryo-EM (Fig. 3C). The images show a contrast in the inner volume of the capsules, which is not observed in the absence of the protein (Fig. 1A and Fig. 6SA). Increasing BSA concentration to 1.0 mg/mL led to the formation of small nanoparticles without the characteristic core-shell structure (Fig. 3D). Since BSA is added to PAH:DEX before the addition of PB, it is possible that the protein forms a complex with the polymer before the nanocapsule formation. The structure of the capsules with proteins may be different from the empty capsules and is the subject of further studies.

5. Conclusions

Novel supramolecular polyamine phosphate nanoassemblies, *i.e.* glyconanocapsules, have been here reported for the first time, and have

been obtained after controlled chemical modification of PAH polymer with DEX polysaccharide through a reductive amination-based process that allows for a controlled DEX conjugation to the polyamine backbone. Varying the number of DEX chains attached to PAH chains and inducing self-assembly through the addition of PB provide a palette of polymer assemblies. At low DEX densities, the formation of dense polymer nanoparticles takes place. When the number of DEX chains per PAH molecule becomes 1, the PAH:DEX polymers form capsules in the 100 nm range. At larger densities of DEX, single chain nanoparticles are formed, or the polymers do not form nanostructures at all. The rich behavior of DEX-modified PAH can be explained by the steric constraints in the assembly imposed by the bulky DEX. As the number of chains of DEX per PAH increases, the growth of the assemblies in the regions of the PAH chains is limited by the shielding effect of the DEX. When all chains are functionalized with one DEX chain, the interaction of two PAH:DEX₁ polymers with the DEX chain behind limits the growth from the DEX sides and the growth can only proceed laterally, forming capsules. Dextran densities below 1 impose less constraints to self-assembly forming dense particles with variable size and with DEX located on the surface. Larger DEX densities prevent interactions between polymer chains, resulting in single or few chain nanoparticles or the absence of particle formation, if the density of DEX is too high. PAH:DEX₁ capsules are pH-responsive systems capable of encapsulating macromolecules and releasing them at acid pH comparable with late endosomal pH values. The functional behavior of this responsive glyconanocapsules was demonstrated with FCS and CD with the entrapment and release of BSA as a model protein. Cryo-EM was able to visualize the structural characteristics of the nanocapsules and the interactions with the entrapped BSA protein, in combination with SAXS.

The results of this work show that the branched nature of DEX together with a strict control of chemical functionalization allows for the generation of alternative novel PAH-based nanoassemblies in phosphate buffer, *i.e.* nanocapsules, which were not previously observed for PEG-functionalized PAH [10]. It is here demonstrated that the completely different supramolecular organization driven by DEX chains as capsules offers the possibility to encapsulate biologics, such as proteins, and to control their release by pH modulation. These glycoNCs are thus interesting nanoscale carriers with supramolecular organization and smart pH responsiveness, which could be exploited for intracellular delivery of therapeutics. The optimization of the systems in terms of stability to higher ionic strengths by using higher molecular weight DEX is ongoing. Furthermore, the biocompatibility and targeting properties of DEX towards carbohydrate binding proteins expressed at cell surface [38] pave the way for further investigations of targeted drug delivery applications through glycoNCs.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2024.12.074>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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