

1 **Controlled Intracellular Generation of Reactive Oxygen Species in Human Mesenchymal** 2 **Stem Cells Using Porphyrin Conjugated Nanoparticles**

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14 15 **Abstract**

16 Nanoparticles capable of generating controlled amounts of intracellular reactive oxygen
17 species (ROS) were synthesized by functionalizing polyacrylamide nanoparticles with Zinc (II)
18 porphyrin photosensitisers. Controlled ROS production was demonstrated in human
19 mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs) through 1) production of nanoparticles functionalized with
20 varying percentages of Zinc (II) porphyrin and 2) modulating the number of doses of
21 excitation light to internalized nanoparticles. hMSCs treated with nanoparticles
22 functionalized with increasing percentages of Zn(II) porphyrin and high number of
23 irradiations of excitation light were found to generate greater amounts of ROS. A novel dye,
24 which is transformed into a fluorescent entity in the presence of hydrogen peroxide,
25 provided an indirect indicator for cumulative ROS production. The mitochondrial membrane
26 potential was monitored to investigate the destructive effect of increased intracellular ROS
27 production. Flow cytometric analysis of nanoparticle treated hMSCs suggested irradiation
28 with excitation light signalled controlled apoptotic cell death, rather than uncontrolled
29 necrotic cell death. Increased intracellular ROS production did not induce phenotypic
30 changes in hMSC subcultures. Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles could find broad
31 utility in stimulation of intracellular oxidative stress and communication.

32 33 **Introduction**

34 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) form through conversion of molecular oxygen, by either (Type
35 I) electron transfer, to produce superoxide, hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and hydroxyl radicals
36 or, (Type II) energy transfer, to produce singlet oxygen.¹ At a cellular level ROS production is
37 highly regulated, typically through confinement of their production to specific organelles,
38 such as the mitochondria,² and management of overproduction with antioxidants.³
39 Controlled ROS production is known to regulate processes, such as programmed cell death,⁴
40 initiation of host defences to pathogens⁵ and production of energy *via* the mitochondrial
41 electron transport chain.⁶ Uncontrolled ROS production can propagate chain reactions that
42 can cause irreversible damage to intracellular nucleic acids,⁷ proteins⁸ and lipids⁹ that can
43 result in cellular necrosis,¹⁰ neoplastic mutations¹¹ and neurodegenerative disorders.¹²

44 The effects of ROS on intracellular processes have been investigated through exogenous
45 addition of H₂O₂.^{13, 14} However, diffusion of H₂O₂ through cell membranes is thought to be
46 restricted,¹⁵ due to tightly regulated membrane channels, such that the effect of exogenous
47 ROS on intracellular effects can be misinterpreted.¹⁶ Therefore, artificially stimulating
48 intracellular ROS, independent of innate and exogenous ROS, in a controlled manner would
49 enhance the understanding of how oxidative stress contributes to healthy or diseased
50 states.

51 Polyacrylamide nanoparticles are at the forefront of investigating cellular
52 microenvironments of interest.¹⁷ Due to their 1) small size, 2) optical transparency, 3) large
53 surface to volume ratio, and 4) highly versatile matrix, which can be readily engineered to
54 control physicochemical parameters, they can be delivered to biological systems with
55 minimal perturbation.¹⁸ We and others have shown previously how polyacrylamide
56 nanoparticles can be utilized as an analytical tool¹⁹⁻²² to target subcellular spaces²³⁻²⁵ and
57 provide a real-time measurements of the role of key biological parameters *in situ*.²⁶

58 More recently, polyacrylamide nanoparticles have been used as a drug delivery tool for
59 photodynamic therapy²⁷ that utilise photoexcitable compounds that cause extensive tissue
60 damage when irradiated with excitation light. The damage is inflicted through the
61 generation of ROS, when excited photosensitizers come into contact with biological systems.
62 Porphyrins are examples of photosensitisers that have been extensively used to treat
63 diseased tissue.²⁸ They are composed of a sixteen membered aromatic ring, synthesised
64 through condensation of substituted pyrroles, to produce a planar structure. The planar
65 structure can be used to stabilise metal complexes, usually with a 2+ valency, which dictate
66 the photo excitable properties of the porphyrin.²⁹

67 This article describes the synthesis and characterization of polyacrylamide nanoparticles
68 conjugated to Zinc (II) or Copper (II) complexed porphyrins. Nanoparticles were doped with
69 cationic chemical groups, to improve sub-cellular localization³⁰ and delivered to human
70 mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs). Control over ROS generation was demonstrated by: (1)
71 attenuating the percentage of porphyrins on the nanoparticle surface and (2) modulating
72 the number of light doses to the internalized nanoparticles. The degree of ROS production
73 was visualized through use of a newly synthesized dye, which is chemically transformed into
74 a fluorescent entity in the presence of ROS. The cytotoxic effects and possible phenotypic
75 changes, induced by intracellular ROS generation, on hMSCs were investigated using flow
76 cytometry.

77

78 **Results and Discussion**

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80 **Synthesis and Characterisation of Porphyrin Functionalised Nanoparticles**

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82 Two porphyrins with different metal complexes, Zn (II) and Cu (II), were utilised as part of
83 this study, Scheme 1.³¹ Porphyrins with Zn (II) have been shown to generate ROS, whereas,
84 porphyrins with Cu (II) do not demonstrate ROS production.³² The difference in activity is
85 due to the electronic properties of the metal ions. When excited, porphyrins with Zn (II)
86 permit intersystem crossing of electrons to the triplet state and demonstrate
87 photosensitising activity. Porphyrins with Cu (II) do not permit intersystem crossing of
88 excited electrons and as a result do not possess enough energy to produce photosensitising
89 activity. Due to the differences in activity the Cu (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles
90 were utilised as a control, so that the photosensitising activity could be attributed to the Zn
91 (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles alone.

92

93 Porphyrins were covalently linked to nanoparticles via a Cu (I)-catalysed alkyne-azide
94 cycloaddition reaction.³¹ The percentage of nanoparticle functionalization was determined
95 by titrating alkyne functionalised nanoparticles with porphyrin azides. Nanoparticles
96 saturated with porphyrin were considered to be 100 % functionalised. Nanoparticles
97 functionalised with 5 %, 10 % and 20 % Zn(II) or Cu (II) porphyrins were prepared with
98 nanoparticle diameters centred at 80 nm (ranging between 10 and 100 nm) and positive
99 surface charge (zeta potential > +15 mV) (see supporting information Figure S2 and S3).

100

101 **Delivery of Porphyrin Functionalised Nanoparticles**

102

103 Mitochondria are known as the major source of ROS within cells. Therefore, it is highly
104 desirable for tools engineered to trigger the production of ROS, like the porphyrin
105 functionalised nanoparticles presented here, to preferentially target the mitochondria. To
106 determine the subcellular localisation of the nanoparticles, co-localisation analyses were
107 performed on hMSCs treated with Zn (II) porphyrin (5%) functionalised nanoparticles, and
108 stained with LysoTracker® blue and MitoTracker® Green.

109

110 Figure 1A shows a representative merged channel image of Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised
111 nanoparticles delivered to hMSCs. The insets show the individual channels; (Ai) brightfield,
112 (Aii) blue (LysoTracker®), (Aiii) green (MitoTracker®) and (Aiv) red fluorescent channels (Zn
113 (II) porphyrin conjugated nanoparticles). Separation of the fluorescence channels to observe
114 co-localisation of Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles with the mitochondria,
115 Figure 1B, and lysozymes, Figure 1C, facilitates characterisation of the subcellular location.

116

117 The lysozymes, as highlighted by LysoTracker® blue, appear in punctate vesicles that are co-
118 localised in regions with Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised particles (Figure 1B, *purple*). The
119 nanoparticles are internalized efficiently as highlighted by the strong signal observed in the
120 red fluorescence channel (Figure 1Aiv). The mitochondria, identified by MitoTracker® green,
121 are distributed throughout the cytoplasm and are also co-localised with Zn (II) porphyrin
122 conjugated nanoparticles (Figure 1C). The images comprising Figure 1 indicate porphyrin
123 functionalised nanoparticles are internalised and preferentially associate with mitochondria,
124 although not exclusively, over lysozymes.

125

126 **Fluorescence Imaging ROS Production**

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128 A novel dye, 7-(4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolan-2-yl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)-2H-
129 chromen-2-one (BPTFMC), was used to determine the ability of the Zn(II) porphyrin
130 functionalised nanoparticles to generate ROS. BPTFMC is transformed in the presence of
131 hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) to the fluorescent entity 7-hydroxy-4-(trifluoromethyl)-2H-
132 chromen-2-one (HTFMC), Scheme 2. Visualisation of HTFMC fluorescence in subcellular
133 spaces can therefore be utilised as an indirect indicator for cumulative ROS production (see
134 supporting information Figures S6-S8).

135

136 **Controlled ROS generation in hMSCs**

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138 Controlled ROS production in hMSCs was demonstrated through: 1) irradiation of
139 internalised nanoparticles with increasing percentages of Zn (II) porphyrin (5 %, 10 % and 20
140 %), with a single dose of excitation light and 2) irradiation of internalised nanoparticles,
141 functionalised with 5% Zn(II) porphyrin, with repeated doses of excitation light.

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144 Effect of increases in the percentage of Zn (II) porphyrin functionalisation

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146 The effect of a single dose of excitation light on internalised nanoparticles bearing 5 %, 10 %
147 and 20 % of Zn(II) porphyrin was investigated. hMSCs were treated with nanoparticle
148 suspensions after which they were thoroughly washed to remove non-internalised
149 nanoparticles then stained with BPTFMC and MitoTracker® red; to observe ROS production
150 events and location of viable mitochondria in sub-cellular spaces, respectively.

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After irradiation with a single dose of light (512 μ W, 8mm², 2 seconds), an increase in the fluorescence intensity from HTMFC (*blue*) was observed, which correlates with percentage increases in Zn (II) porphyrin conjugated to the nanoparticle, Figure 2. The extent of cytotoxicity caused by the ROS production was demonstrated by the fluorescence response from MitoTracker[®] red, which emits a fluorescence response when bound to viable mitochondrial membranes with active membrane potentials.³³ Figure 2 highlights the presence of a 'blast zone' within which substantial amounts ROS has been produced, whilst the number of cells with active mitochondrial membrane potentials has been considerably reduced. The extent of the lethality of high percentages of Zn (II) porphyrin is demonstrated by hMSCs treated with 20 % Zn(II) porphyrin, which show a clear perimeter between viable and non-viable cells. Therefore, the extent of ROS production and consequential cytotoxicity, as indicated by enhanced HTFMC and diminished MitoTracker[®] red fluorescence, respectively, is profoundly influenced by increases in the percentage of porphyrin functionalization.

Effect of repeat doses of excitation light to produce ROS

A single dose of excitation light produced subtle increases in ROS for hMSCs treated with nanoparticles functionalised with 5% Zn (II) porphyrin, Figure 2. To investigate if ROS production can be augmented in a controlled manner, internalised nanoparticles functionalised with 5% Zn (II) porphyrin were subjected to repeat doses of excitation light. hMSCs were irradiated with a dose of excitation light every 5 minutes for 100 minutes. The progress of cellular events was captured at 5, 30, 60 and 100 minutes, corresponding to 1, 6, 12 and 20 irradiations, respectively, Figure 3.

hMSCs treated with 5% Cu(II) functionalised porphyrins show no observable differences in cellular morphology, increases in ROS production or cytotoxicity after 20 irradiations, as indicated by brightfield images, absence of HTFMC fluorescence and similarity of fluorescence emission from mitrotracker red across all time points, respectively. This observation is also true for hMSCs treated with nanoparticles functionalised with 5% Zn(II) porphyrin after a single dose of excitation light.

The first signs of ROS generation appear after 6 irradiations for hMSCs treated with 5% Zn(II) functionalised nanoparticles, Figure 3 (*blue*). At these low levels of ROS, there are no apparent changes in cellular toxicity, as there are no noticeable changes in cellular morphology or fluorescence intensity from MitoTracker[®] red. After 12 irradiations, ROS production and its cytotoxic effects are evident, as the fluorescence intensity of HTFMC is pronounced; the signal from the MitoTracker[®] red begins to decrease and the first signs of apoptotic blebbing can also be observed on cell surfaces (Figure 3). For hMSCs dosed with 20 irradiations of excitation light the signal from HTMFC was intensified further, suggesting sub-cellular spaces were being enriched with ROS. In addition, the MitoTracker[®] red emission was greatly diminished, implying that the number of active mitochondrial membrane potentials was reduced; and there are more signs of a decline in cellular viability as bright field images showed signs of increases in apoptotic blebbing (Figure 3).

Quantification of the effects of controlled intracellular ROS generation on cellular viability and hMSCs characterisation

202 Flow cytometry was employed to quantify the viability and any phenotypic variation in hMSC
203 populations treated with Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles and after
204 illumination with repeated doses of light (produced using a custom designed irradiator that
205 replicated the power and wavelength of excitation light used during fluorescence
206 microscopy, see supporting information). Cell viability, apoptosis (controlled cell death),
207 necrosis (uncontrolled cell death), and cellular differentiation were investigated through the
208 use of fluorescent probes. Apoptosis was investigated using Annexin V Alexa Flour® 488,
209 which binds to cell surface markers that are translocated during apoptosis.³⁵ Whereas,
210 necrosis was determined using the DNA intercalator propidium iodide, which stains
211 deteriorating cells with permeable membranes.³⁶ The effect of intracellular ROS on hMSCs
212 phenotype was studied using fluorescent antibodies for specific cell surface markers.^{37, 38}

213

214 Controlled apoptotic and uncontrolled necrotic cell death

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216 Figure 4 shows there are no significant differences in the percentage of apoptotic and
217 necrotic cells for 1) untreated and 2) Cu (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticle treated
218 hMSC populations, after irradiation with 5 to 20 doses of excitation light (approximately 20%
219 of the population express markers for apoptotic events that can be attributed to cell death
220 during storage and thawing). However, hMSCs treated with Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised
221 particles demonstrate statistically significant increases in the population of apoptotic cells
222 when compared to 1) untreated and Cu(II) functionalised nanoparticle treated hMSCs
223 ($p < 0.05$) and 2) after repeated irradiation with excitation light ($p < 0.001$). Dosing hMSCs with
224 5, 10, 15 and 20 irradiations of excitation light increases the percentage of apoptotic cells to
225 29 %, 30 %, 37 % and 44 %, respectively ($n=6$). We postulate that the percentage of
226 apoptotic cells does not increase at low irradiation levels due to the natural antioxidant
227 levels present in the cell.³⁴ However, once this antioxidant reservoir is exhausted it is
228 noticeable the percentage of apoptotic cells increases linearly with light irradiations.

229

230 Populations of untreated hMSCs and Cu (II) or Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles
231 treated hMSCs contained low levels of propidium iodine positive cells; less than 5% of total
232 population, Figure 4. There were no significant differences between the hMSC populations
233 after repeated doses of excitation light, from 5 to 20 irradiations. These findings suggest
234 repeated irradiation of internalised Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles generate
235 doses of ROS that signal hMSCs to undergo controlled apoptotic cell death rather than
236 uncontrolled necrotic cell death. These observations also mirror findings observed in Figure
237 3, which show signs of apoptotic blebbing, rather than necrotic cell lysis.

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239 hMSC differentiation

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241 Phenotypic characterisation of hMSCs was explored, by fluorescently labelling cell surface
242 markers with antibodies, after 20 irradiations of excitation light and two cellular passages.
243 Phenotypic characterisation of hMSCs showed untreated hMSCs and, Cu (II) or Zn (II)
244 porphyrin functionalised nanoparticle treated hMSCs presented virtually identical
245 phenotypic profiles (see supporting information Figure S9 & S10). These results suggest that
246 irradiation of Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles and subsequent ROS generation
247 does not change the phenotype or induce senescence patterns in hMSCs.

248

249

250 **Conclusion**

251

252 We have demonstrated nanoparticles functionalised with Zn (II) porphyrin trigger
253 intracellular ROS production. The intracellular effects of enhanced ROS production were
254 evidenced through visualisation using BPTFMC, which is transformed into fluorescent
255 HTMFC in the presence of H₂O₂, and observation of diminishing mitochondrial membrane
256 potentials, using MitoTracker® red. Increases in: 1) the percentage of Zn (II) porphyrin
257 conjugated to nanoparticles, from 5 % to 20 %, and 2) the number of irradiations of
258 excitation light, enhanced ROS production and subsequent cytotoxicity. Controlled
259 irradiation of Zn (II) porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles was found to signal apoptosis in
260 hMSCs, but did not induce necrosis or phenotypic changes in hMSC subcultures. We
261 anticipate porphyrin functionalised nanoparticles will prove to be a valuable tool to generate
262 controlled amounts of intracellular ROS to advance the study of cellular processes and
263 disease progression.

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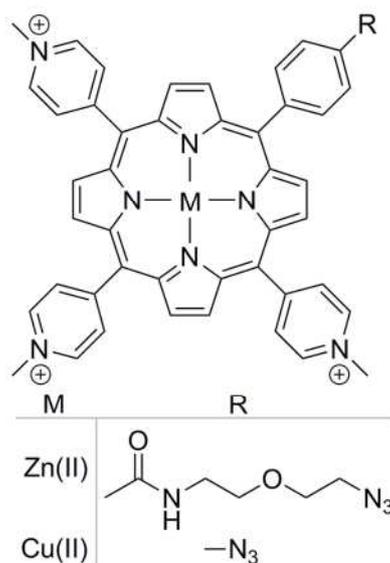
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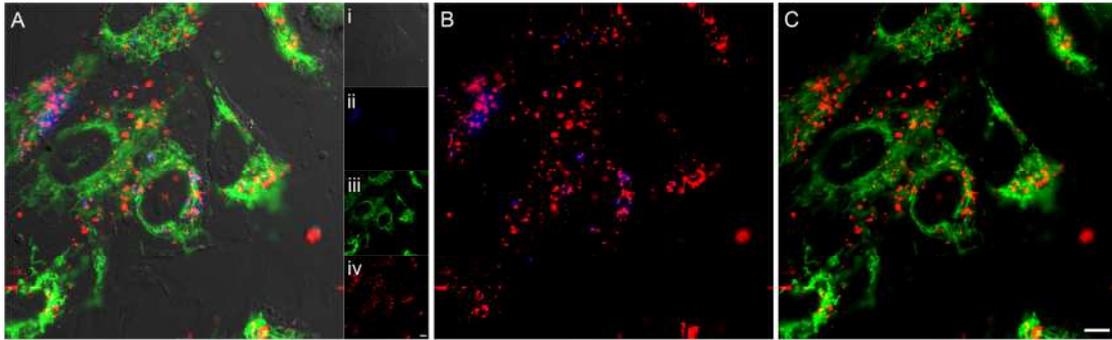
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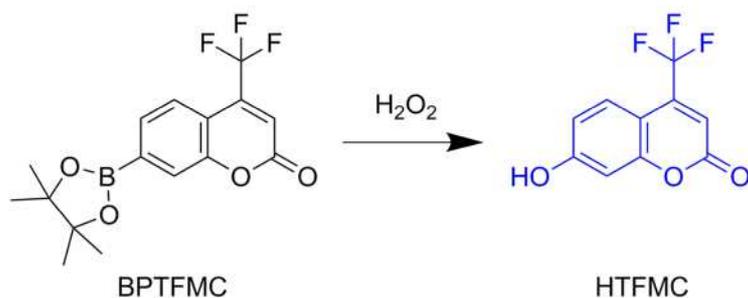
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Scheme 1. Chemical structure of azide functionalised cationic porphyrin with zinc (II) and copper (II) metal centres.



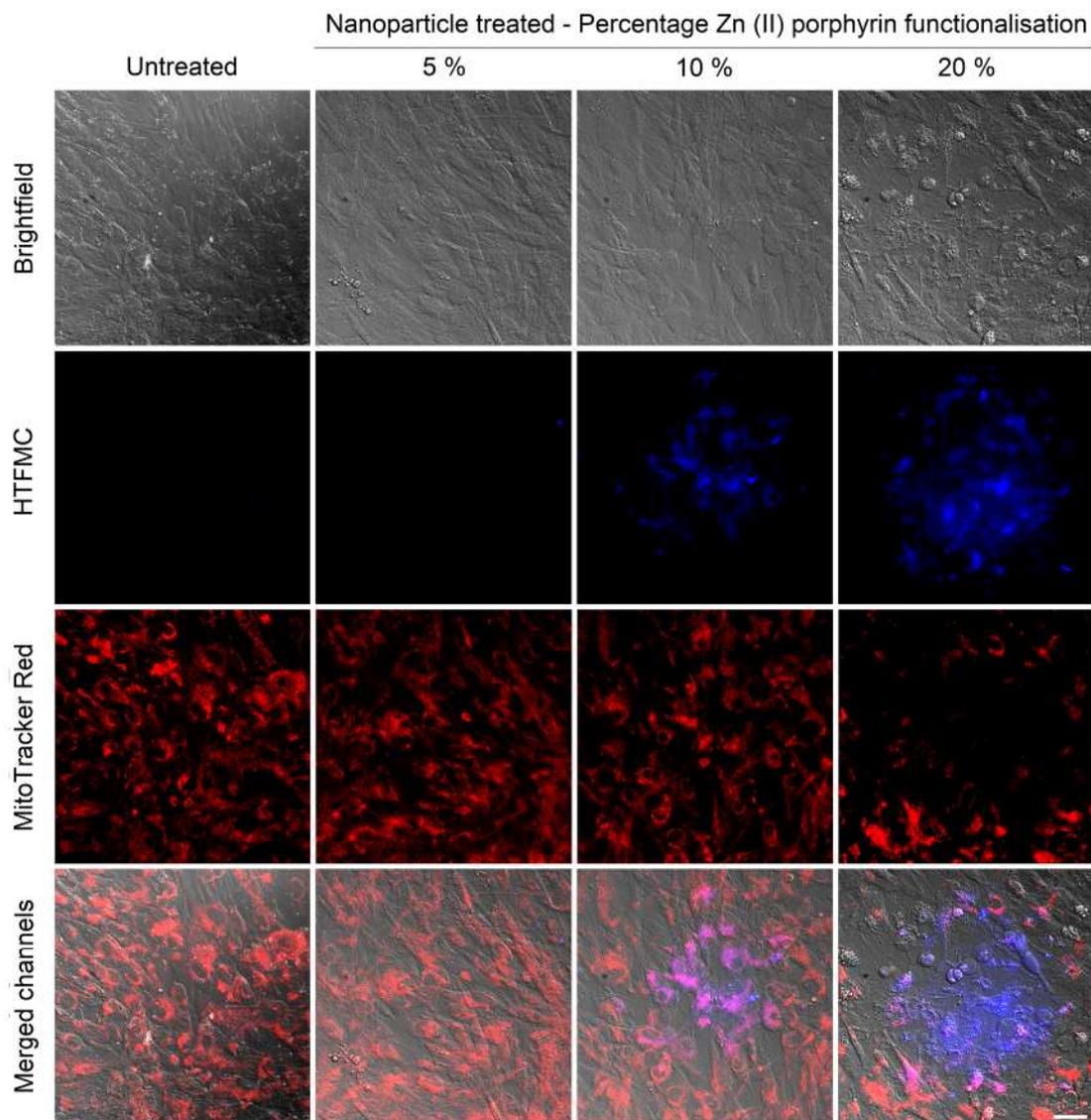
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Figure 1. (A) Merged fluorescence image of (Ai) bright-field image of hMSCs treated with (Aii) LysoTracker® blue, (Aiii) MitoTracker®green and (Aiv) Zn(II) porphyrin conjugated nanoparticles (*red*). Co-localisation analysis between (B) Zn(II) porphyrin conjugated nanoparticles and LysoTracker® blue, and (C) Zn(II) porphyrin conjugated nanoparticles and MitoTracker®green. Scale bar = 10 µm.



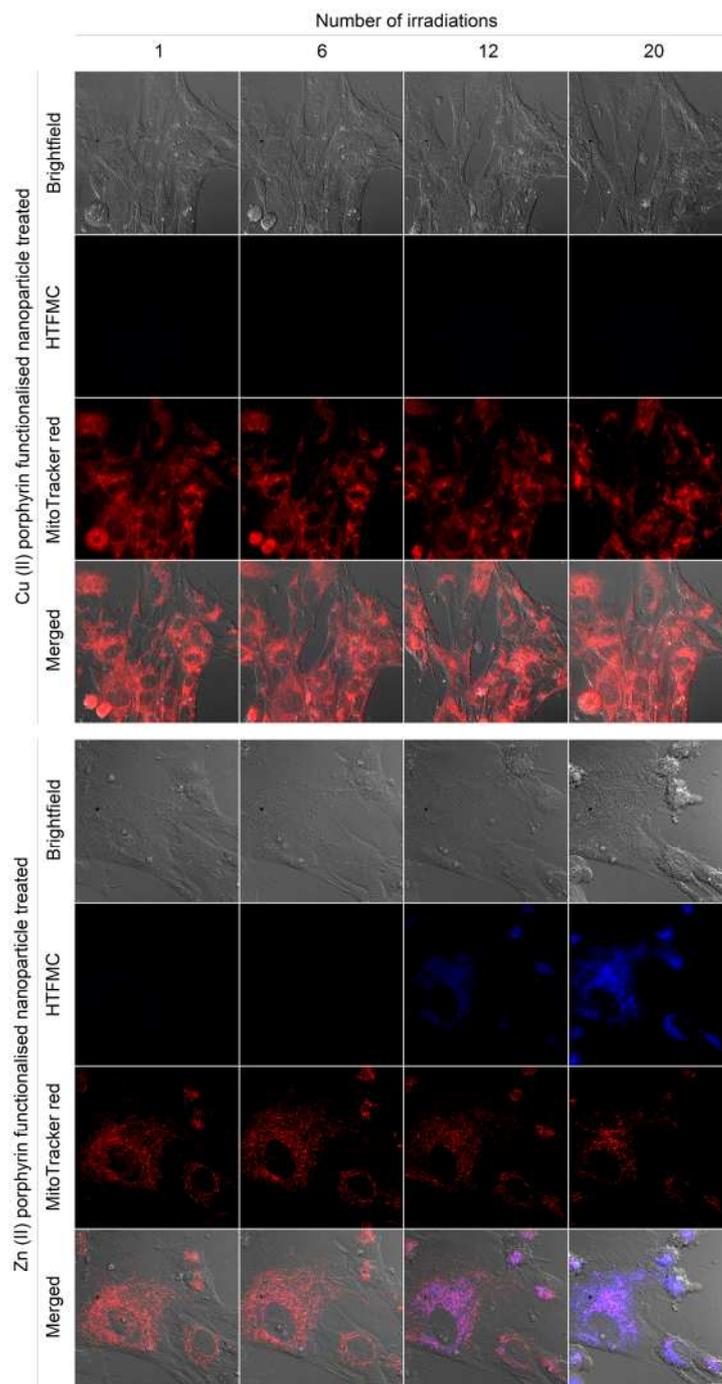
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Scheme 1. Reaction between non-fluorescent 7-(4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolan-2-yl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)-2H-chromen-2-one (BPTFMC) and ROS producing fluorescent - hydroxy-4-(trifluoromethyl)-2H-chromen-2-one (HTFMC). HTFMC peak excitation and emission wavelengths are 395 nm and 435 nm, respectively.



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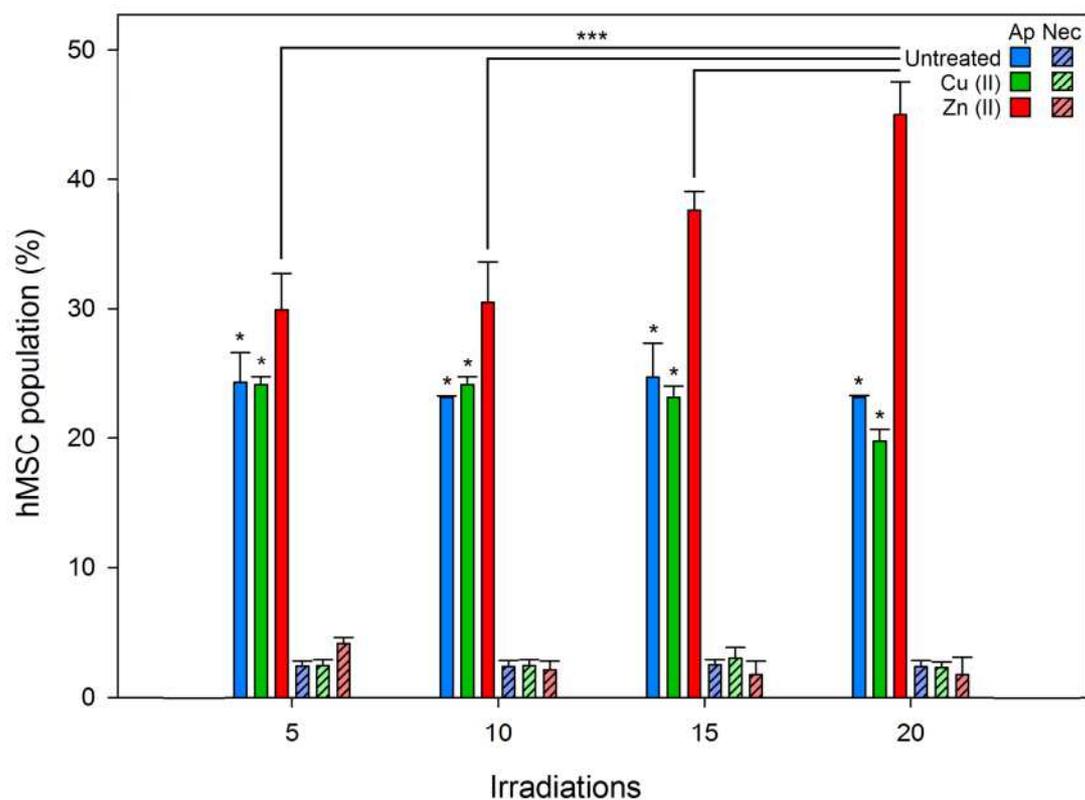
Figure 2. Bright-field and fluorescence images of untreated hMSCs and hMSCs treated with 5, 10 and 20 % Zn(II) functionalised nanoparticles, stained with BPTFMC and MitoTracker Red, irradiated with a single dose of light. BPTFMC, in the presence of H₂O₂, is converted to fluorescent HTMFC. Scale bar = 50 µm.



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Figure 3. (1) Merged bright-field and fluorescence images of hMSCs with internalised Cu(II) (control) and Zn(II) functionalised nanoparticles (photosensitiser) and (2) merged fluorescence images of hMSCs stained with BPTFMC and MitoTracker® red. Green, blue and red fluorescence are indicative of (1) nanoparticle location, (2) HTFMC production and subsequent ROS production and (3) active mitochondrial membrane potentials and cell viability. Scale bar = 20 µm.

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Figure 4. Comparison of untreated (blue) and 5% Cu (II) (green) or 5% Zn (II) (red) functionalised nanoparticle treated hMSC populations undergoing apoptosis (Ap, solid) and necrosis (Nec, diagonal lines) after 5, 10, 15 and 20 irradiations of excitation light. Percentage of apoptosis and necrosis was determined using flow cytometry by staining apoptotic hMSCs with Annexin V 488 and propidium iodide, respectively. Error bars represent standard deviation from the mean (n=6). One Way ANOVA *** = $p < 0.001$; One way ANOVA * = $p < 0.05$. *P* values less than 0.05 were considered statistically different.