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**Effect of Hybrid SiO₂@Ag Nanoparticles with Raspberry-like Morphology on the Excited States of the Photosensitizers
Rose Bengal and Riboflavin.**

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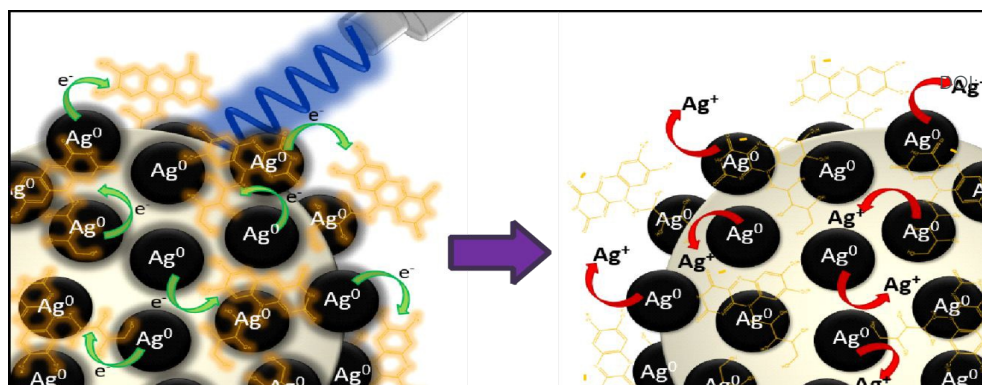
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ABSTRACT

Metal nanoparticles (NPs) can strongly affect the photophysics of organic molecules through different mechanisms. To investigate the effect of silver nanomaterials on the triplet state dynamics of the photosensitizers Riboflavin (Rf) and Rose Bengal (RB²⁻), we have here synthesized core-shell silica silver nanoparticles with raspberry-like morphology (SiO₂@Ag NPs). For the synthesis of SiO₂@Ag NPs from SiO₂ nanoparticles a new combination of reported strategies was employed. The synthetic methodology involves in a first step SnCl₂ as a precursor to obtain a homogeneous deposition of silver nuclei on colloidal silica spheres. In a second step, the growth of the silver nanoparticles is mediated by the photochemically generated ketyl radical of the substituted benzoin Irgacure-2959 (I-2959). Both Rf and RB²⁻ dyes are adsorbed on the nanoparticles. Transient absorption spectroscopy experiments showed that there is a charge transfer process from the excited state of the adsorbed Rf to the silver nanoparticles. However, no similar reaction is observed for RB²⁻. These results are explained in terms of the expected equilibrium constants of the electron transfer for both dyes.

INTRODUCTION

Collective oscillations of electrons in metal nanostructures or a localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) can strongly affect the dynamics of the singlet and triplet excited states of organic molecules.^{1,2} Due to their LSPRs, metal nanoparticles (NPs) can intensely interact with adjacent organic molecules by different mechanisms, including electron transfer, energy transfer, and by affecting both radiative and nonradiative deactivation processes of excited states of the organic molecules.^{3,4} Pacioni et al. reported the enhancement of the quantum yield of the triplet state of methylene blue by gold NPs.² The increase of the triplet quantum yields of organic photosensitizers in the neighborhood of metal nanoparticles (NPs) can lead to the so called metal-enhanced production of singlet oxygen, which can be applied for tumor treatment in photodynamic therapy.⁵

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2 In a recent paper of our group⁶ we have shown that in the presence of pectin-coated silver nanoparticles a Riboflavin-Ag
3 complex increases the triplet state population of the flavin. As a consequence, higher concentrations of singlet oxygen and
4 superoxide radical anion are formed in aerated solutions. We have also observed in HeLa cells a higher phototoxicity of
5 the photosensitizer when complexed with the nanoparticles, as an indirect result of the enhanced triplet state population of
6 the flavin.⁷

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12 In this line, we have here prepared and characterized core-shell silica silver nanoparticles with raspberry-like morphology
13 (SiO₂@Ag NPs). This nanomaterial has been chosen for two main reasons: (a) The surface of the nanoparticles presents
14 exposed silanol groups from SiO₂, which can potentially act as sites for the adsorption of organic molecules.⁸ (b) At the
15 same time the Ag nanoparticles supported by the silica are in proximity with the dye. The silica support acts as a mean to
16 immobilize both the metal NP and the dye in a close range. This nanomaterial also offers the possibility of performing
17 comparative experiments with silica nanoparticles without silver shell (SiO₂NP) in order to corroborate whether the
18 observed effects of SiO₂@AgNP on the photophysics of the photosensitizers are due to the metal and not only to the
19 immobilization of the dyes on the silica surface.

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21
22 For the synthesis of SiO₂@Ag NPs from SiO₂ nanoparticles a new combination of reported strategies was employed.
23 (Figure 1). This method involves in the first two steps the homogeneous deposition of silver nuclei on colloidal silica
24 spheres as reported by the group of Liz-Marzán.⁹ In this procedure SiO₂ NPs were treated with SnCl₂ in acid medium to
25 yield SiO₂@Sn²⁺ NPs, which have Sn²⁺ ions adsorbed on their surface. The Sn²⁺ ions reduce Ag⁺ ions, and superficial Ag
26 nuclei (seeds) are generated, resulting in SiO₂@nucAg NPs. For the growth of Ag nanoparticles from seeds the
27 photochemical method reported by the group of Scaiano¹⁰ was applied. This method has many advantages since it is a room
28 temperature procedure, which combines the characteristic features of light activation i.e. versatility and convenience of the
29 process, high spatial resolution and reaction controllability (intensity and wavelength).¹¹

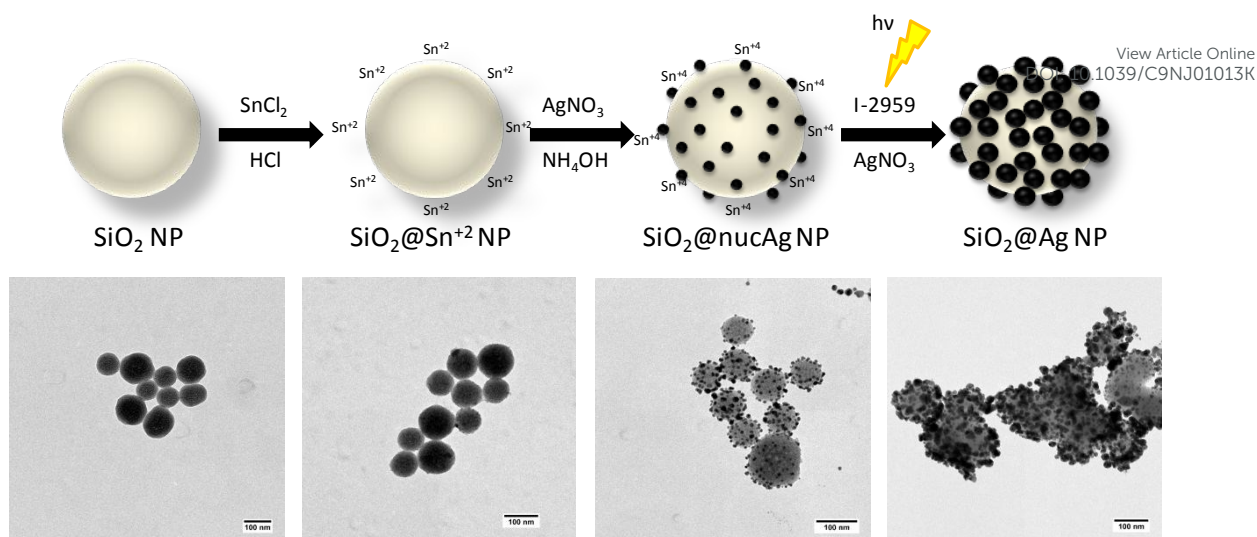
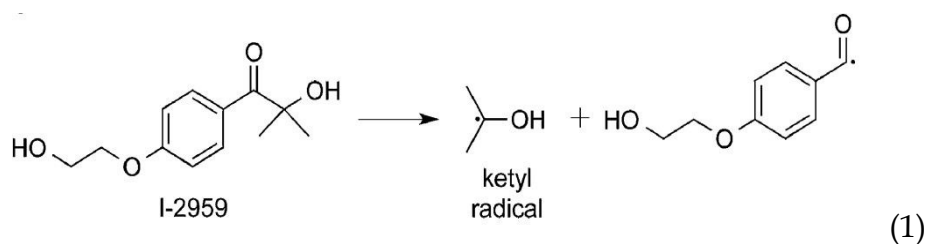


Figure 1: Top: Synthesis of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs from SiO_2 NPs. Bottom: TEM micrographs of the nanoparticles obtained in each synthesis step.

This latter procedure consists in the photogeneration of ketyl radicals (reaction 1), produced by photolysis of the substituted benzoin Irgacure-2959 (I-2959), which induce the reduction of Ag^+ ions to metallic silver.



The colloidal nanoparticles produced at different stages during synthesis were analyzed by zeta potential (ξ) measurements, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

We will investigate here the interaction of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs with the excited states of two photosensitizers: the anionic form of Rose Bengal (RB^{2-}) and the neutral Riboflavin molecule (Rf). These two photosensitizers have been chosen because of their potential in photodynamic therapy.^{12,13,14}

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials. Silver nitrate, Sodium Hydroxide, Tin (II) Chloride, I-2959, TEOS, Riboflavin and Rose Bengal were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ammonium Hydroxide and Hydrochloric acid were obtained from Acros Organics, and Absolute Ethanol from Scharlau. All experiments were performed with deionized water.

Synthesis of SiO₂ NPs. Colloidal silica particles were prepared by the well-known Stöber method.¹⁵ Briefly, 3 mL of 30% w/v aqueous ammonia and 50 mL of absolute alcohol were mixed in an Erlenmeyer flask. Then, 1.5 mL of tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) was added quickly under stirring. Gentle stirring was continued overnight. Under these conditions 100 nm-diameter nanoparticles should be formed.¹⁶ The solvent was then exchanged by centrifugation at 7000-9000 rpm for 30 min, removing the supernatant and adding water. This procedure was repeated a second time to complete the solvent exchange. The solvent was then evaporated to dryness and the solid stored at room temperature.

Synthesis of SiO₂@Sn²⁺ NPs. SiO₂ NPs (10 mg) were resuspended in 10 mL of a 0.02% w/v NaOH solution and then 10 mL of a 3 % w/v SnCl₂ solution in 1 M HCl was added. The mixture was stirred for 2 h, and then centrifuged at 7000-9000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant was separated and the precipitate was washed 3 times with ultrapure water. In some experiments a lower concentration of SnCl₂ (1.0 % w/v) was employed. These nanoparticles were also treated to yield SiO₂@nucAg NPs and SiO₂@Ag NPs, as indicated in the following paragraphs.

Synthesis of SiO₂@nucAg NPs. The SiO₂@Sn²⁺ NPs were resuspended in a 0.35 M ammoniac AgNO₃ solution and the mixture was stirred for 2 h. Then, after centrifugation at 7000-9000 rpm for 10 min, the supernatant was separated and the precipitate was washed 3 times with water.

Synthesis of SiO₂@Ag NPs. The SiO₂@nucAg NPs were resuspended in 20 mL of ultrapure water in a quartz tube containing 3.4 mg of AgNO₃ and 4.5 mg of I-2959. The colloidal suspension was irradiated for 15 min in a Rayonet RPR-100 reactor equipped with 8 RPR-2537A lamps. The supernatant was separated after centrifugation at 7000-9000 rpm for 10 min. The precipitate was resuspended in 20 mL of ultrapure water. The colloidal suspension obtained displays a yellow-red brownish color.

Most experiments were performed with SiO₂@Sn²⁺ NPs, SiO₂@nucAg NPs, SiO₂@Ag NPs prepared employing the highest concentration of SnCl₂ (3 % w/v). When the 1.0 % w/v SnCl₂ was used to obtain the tin precursor, the resulting silver-coated silica nanoparticles were named SiO₂@Ag-low NPs to indicate the lower silver coverage achieved.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). Transmission electron microscopy images were acquired by using a JEOL JEM 1010 microscope operating at an acceleration voltage of 120 kV. Carbon films supported on 400 mesh copper grids

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2 were used. 5 μL of undiluted suspension with SiO_2 , $\text{SiO}_2@\text{nuncAg}$, $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag-low}$ and $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs were transferred to
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4 grids and incubated for 1 min. The excess of the suspension was removed with a paper filter.
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8 **Dynamic Light Scattering and ζ -potential.** Dynamic Light Scattering measurements were carried out with a ζ -Sizer
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10 Malvern Instrument in backscattering mode. All studies were performed at a 173° scattering angle with temperature
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12 controlled at 25°C in 1 mL polystyrene cuvettes. The NPs were characterized in terms of hydrodynamic diameter and ζ -
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14 potential. For DLS short time measurements were carried out for a total of 15 min, with 3 consecutive measurements for
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16 each sample. ζ -potential measurements were performed in auto-mode at 25°C , with 3 consecutive measurements at
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18 different pH values.
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22 **Silver amount determination by ICP.** In order to determine the silver content of the nanoparticles, 0.5 mL of the samples
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24 were digested with 0.5 mL of concentrated HNO_3 for 24 h. Then, water was added to a final volume of 10 mL. The resulting
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26 solutions were analyzed by Inductively Coupled Plasma Emission Spectroscopy (ICPE) with a Shimadzu ICPE-9800
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28 equipment. From now on, the concentration of Ag will be specified instead of that of the nanoparticles containing Ag.
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32 **Fluorescence Spectroscopy.** Fluorescence measurements were carried out with a HORIBA JOBIN-YVON Spex Fluorolog
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34 FL3-11. For steady-state measurements the excitation wavelength was 355 nm.
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38 **Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy (FCS).** FCS experiments were performed with a Confocal Microscope ZeissNLO
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40 880 (Carl Zeiss Gmbh). Acquisition and analysis are controlled by Zen black software. Argon laser at 458 nm and the HeNe
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42 laser at 633 nm were used as excitation sources. GaASP and PTM detectors were used for single molecules fluorescence
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44 detection and dynamic characterization. Measurements were performed with a Zeiss C-Apochromat 40, NA 1.2 water
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46 immersion objective. 1 mL of dispersion were measured in Lab-Tek Q5 Chambered Coverglass (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
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48 QuickFit 3.0 free software was used for FCS data analysis.

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50 **Laser Flash-Photolysis (LFP).** An LP980 laser flash-photolysis from Edinburgh instruments was employed. The third
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52 harmonic (355 nm) of a Continuum Surelite Nd:YAG laser (20 ns fwhm) was employed as excitation source (1 Hz, 10
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54 mJ/pulse). Since several species contribute to the absorption traces, a global analysis of the transient absorption data was
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56 carried out. Decay-associated difference spectra (DADS) were performed with the free software program Glotaran.¹⁷
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RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and characterization of SiO₂@Ag NPs. The average hydrodynamic diameter of SiO₂@Ag NPs obtained from DLS measurements was 133 ± 86 nm. An additional peak in the intensity distribution, which accounts for less than 3% of the overall scattered light, was also detected. The large average hydrodynamic diameter of this peak, $4.6 \mu\text{m}$, indicates aggregation (see Figure S1 in the Supplementary Material).

The composite nanomaterials at the different steps of synthesis (Figure 1) were examined by TEM, DLS, XPS and Zeta potential.

The TEM micrographs for SiO₂@nucAg and SiO₂@Ag NPs (Figure 1) show discontinuous and random deposits of nanosilver (as shown by small darker spheres) on silica surfaces, confirming the formation of core-shell silica-silver nanoparticles with raspberry-like morphology.

The size distribution histogram of SiO₂ NPs obtained from TEM images shows a NP population with a diameter of 85 ± 15 nm (Figure 2). The average size of the Ag nanoparticles on the surface of SiO₂@Ag NPs is 7 ± 3 nm (Figure 2). TEM images of SiO₂@Ag-low NPs with a lower silver coverage on the SiO₂ spheres is shown in Figure S2 (Supplementary Material).

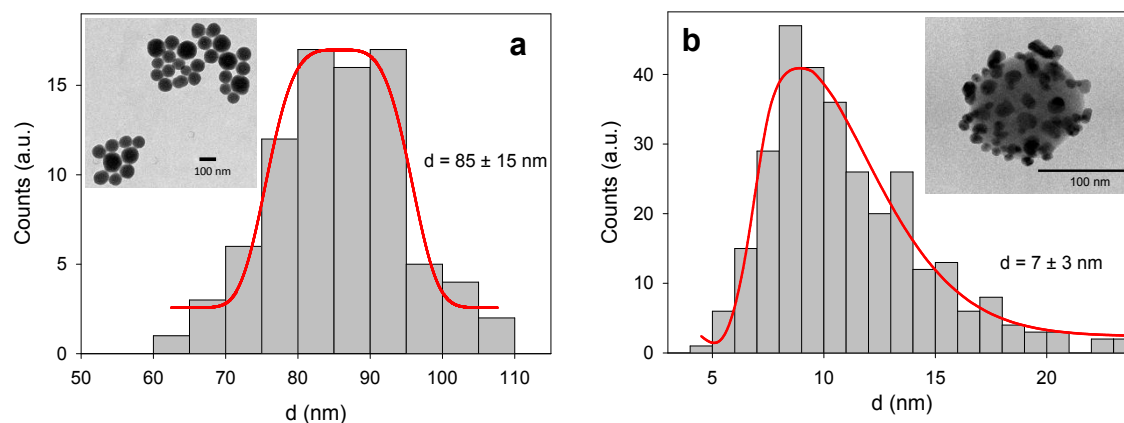


Figure 2: Size distribution histograms of: (a) SiO₂ NPs, (b) Ag NPs on the surface of SiO₂@Ag NPs. The insets correspond to characteristic TEM images of the NPs.

Dynamic light scattering experiments yielded hydrodynamic radii in complete agreement with TEM results (see Electronic Supporting Information Figure S1).

Figure 3 shows the pH-dependence of the zeta potential (ζ) of the NPs generated at each synthesis step, i.e., SiO₂, SiO₂@Sn²⁺, SiO₂@nucAg, and SiO₂@Ag NPs. Negative values of ζ were measured for the SiO₂ NPs in the whole pH range of analysis (4 - 12), as a result of deprotonation of surface silanols.¹⁸ In contrast, for SiO₂@Sn²⁺ a point of zero charge of ca. 4.5 was obtained. Since at this pH the ζ measured for SiO₂ was negative, the zero charge measured after Sn²⁺ complexation is indicative of the successful surface adsorption of Sn²⁺ ions on the silica nanoparticles.

The values of ζ for SiO₂@nucAg and SiO₂@Ag were also negative in the pH range 4 - 12, in line with the negative contribution to ζ of the silanol groups and the negative zeta potential of silver nanoparticles above pH 8.¹⁹

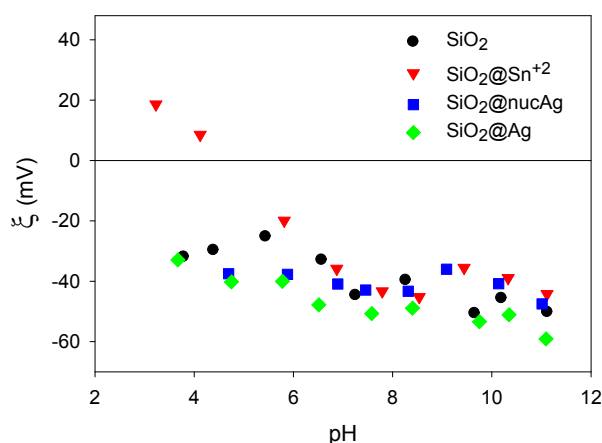


Figure 3: Zeta potential (ζ) dependence on pH for the suspensions of the nanoparticles obtained during the different synthesis stages.

Figure S3 (Supplementary Material) shows the evolution of the XPS spectra of silica spheres during the successive synthesis steps. Deconvolution of the XPS spectra of SiO₂, SiO₂@Sn²⁺, and SiO₂@nucAg shows Si2p peaks in the 101 - 102 eV range (Table 1), which are characteristic of Si²⁺ and Si³⁺ present in S_xO_y suboxides.^{20,21} Additionally, Si2p peaks in the 101-102 eV region were also assigned to SiO_xC_y species.²² However, the sample SiO₂@Ag, which was photoirradiated at 253.7 nm, shows the characteristic Si2p signal of SiO₂ at 103.5 eV.^{21,23} Aminuzzaman et al.²³ reported that after exposure

to 254 nm light, the Si2p peak of polysilsesquioxane films shifts from 102.22 eV to 103.50 eV. Their results were explained considering a chemical conversion from a T cage moiety of polysilsesquioxane to SiO₂.

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Table 1. Detail of the XPS Si2p and O1s peaks obtained by deconvolution of the experimental signals.

	Peak 1(eV)	Area (%)	Peak2 (eV)	Area (%)	Peak3 (eV)	Area (%)
Si 2p						
SiO ₂	102.0	83.9	101.8	16.1	---	---
SiO ₂ @Sn ⁺²	101.9	97.8	101.4	2.2	---	---
SiO ₂ @nucAg	101.2	100	---	---	---	---
SiO ₂ @Ag	103.5	84.3	103.2	15.7	---	---
O 1s						
SiO ₂	531.3	100			---	---
SiO ₂ @Sn ⁺²	531.1	44.3	529.6	40.3	533.8	15.4
SiO ₂ @nucAg	530.2	54.9	530.8	45.1	---	---
SiO ₂ @Ag	532.9	96.0	530.6	4.0	---	---

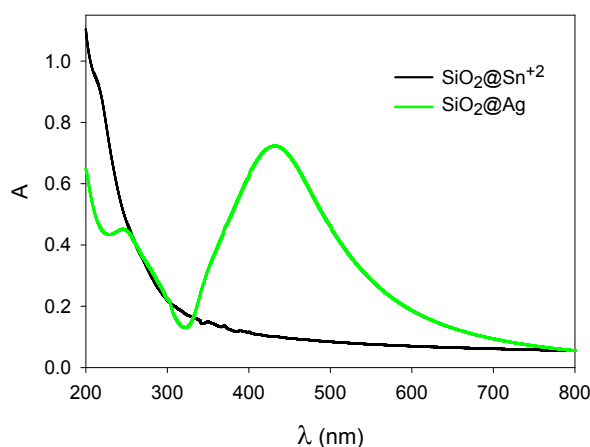
For SiO₂, SiO₂@Sn⁺², and SiO₂@nucAg the O 1s signal of Si-O at nearly 531 eV is observed.²⁴ But the SiO₂@Ag sample shows the typical signal of SiO₂ at nearly 533 eV, in complete agreement with the shift in the Si2p signal due to irradiation at 254 nm.²³ The shoulder at nearly 534 eV present in SiO₂@Sn⁺² can be ascribed to (OH)-groups.²⁵ A signal at 529.9-529.8 eV, close to that observed here for SiO₂@Sn⁺² (529.7 eV), was assigned to O bonded to Sn⁺².²⁶ The peaks at 530.2 eV for SiO₂@nucAg and at 530.6 eV for SiO₂@Ag were assigned to Sn-O.²⁷ Metallic silver nanoparticles typically show a 3d_{5/2} Ag peak at nearly 368 eV⁸ in agreement with the signal at 367.9 eV obtained here for SiO₂@Ag. The lower binding energy of 366.0 eV detected here for SiO₂@nucAg was previously obtained for the emission of 3d_{5/2} photoelectrons from Ag⁰ in nanoclusters.²⁷

1
2 It is difficult to distinguish between Sn^{2+} and Sn^{4+} from XPS data.⁹ However, from the observed peaks of Sn $3d_{5/2}$ at ca.
3
4 486 eV we can definitely exclude the presence of Sn^0 in samples $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Sn}^{2+}$, $\text{SiO}_2@\text{nucAg}$, and $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$.
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6 Figure 4 shows the extinction spectra of SiO_2 , $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Sn}^{2+}$, $\text{SiO}_2@\text{AgNPs}$ suspensions. The spectrum of aqueous
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8 suspensions of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ shows the characteristic plasmon resonance band of silver nanoparticles with a maximum located
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10 at 432 nm.



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Figure 4: UV-visible extinction spectra of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Sn}^{2+}$ and $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs suspensions as indicated.

Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS). From the time dependent fluorescence signals within the focal volume it is possible to obtain autocorrelation functions to yield the diffusion time of the fluorescent probe. From this information diffusion coefficients are calculated.

Care must be taken when performing FCS experiments with colloidal suspensions of nanoparticles because besides the fluorescence fluctuations detected with this technique, the Brownian motion of a single nanoparticle in a small highly focused detection volume (less than 1.0 fL) generates resonance light scattering fluctuations.²⁸ In fact, the detection of these fluctuations is the foundation of Resonance Light Scattering Correlation Spectroscopy (RLSCS). Since the translational diffusion model of fluorescent molecules in FCS can also be adopted in the diffusion model of metal nanoparticles in RLSCS, it is also possible to obtain diffusion coefficients from measurement of scattering fluctuations.²⁸

For the above-given reasons, we here performed several FCS assays with suspensions of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs, solutions of the dyes and mixtures of both, in order to differentiate between signals arising from fluorescence and scattering. The criterion

employed for this distinction was based on signal intensity, which is expected to be much higher for fluorescence than for scattering effects.

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FCS here is used to determine the degree of association of the dyes with the nanoparticles. By means of FCS is possible to distinguish between free dye, fast diffusing, and dye associated with the nanoparticles, which should diffuse more slowly.

The autocorrelation functions obtained from FCS experiments ($\lambda^{\text{exc}} = 458 \text{ nm}$; λ^{em} in the 500 - 570 nm range) performed with Rf solutions at a concentration of $9.3 \mu\text{M}$ at 37°C were fit with a single component equation from which a diffusion coefficient $D_{c1} = (485 \pm 15) \mu\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ was retrieved. This value can be attributed to the diffusion of the free molecule in solution. Similar assays were also carried out with samples containing $9.3 \mu\text{M}$ of Rf and 13.905 to $41.715 \mu\text{M}$ of Ag in $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$. Under these conditions, the autocorrelation function was fit with a two-components equation highlighting the existence of a second fluorescent species with diffusion coefficient $D_{c2} = (4.2 \pm 0.4) \mu\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$, which is related to diffusion of the dye absorbed on the NPs. Indeed, the sizes for the diffusing species calculated from the diffusion coefficient applying Stokes- Einstein is very similar to the sizes measured by TEM and DLS, confirming that the diffusion coefficient measured corresponds to the dye linked to the NP (Figure 5 and Table 2).

FCS experiments performed with the dye RB^{2-} did not yield good correlation diagram due to the low quantum yield of this dye.²⁹ Thus, it was not possible to employ the FCs technique with this dye to show binding to $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs.

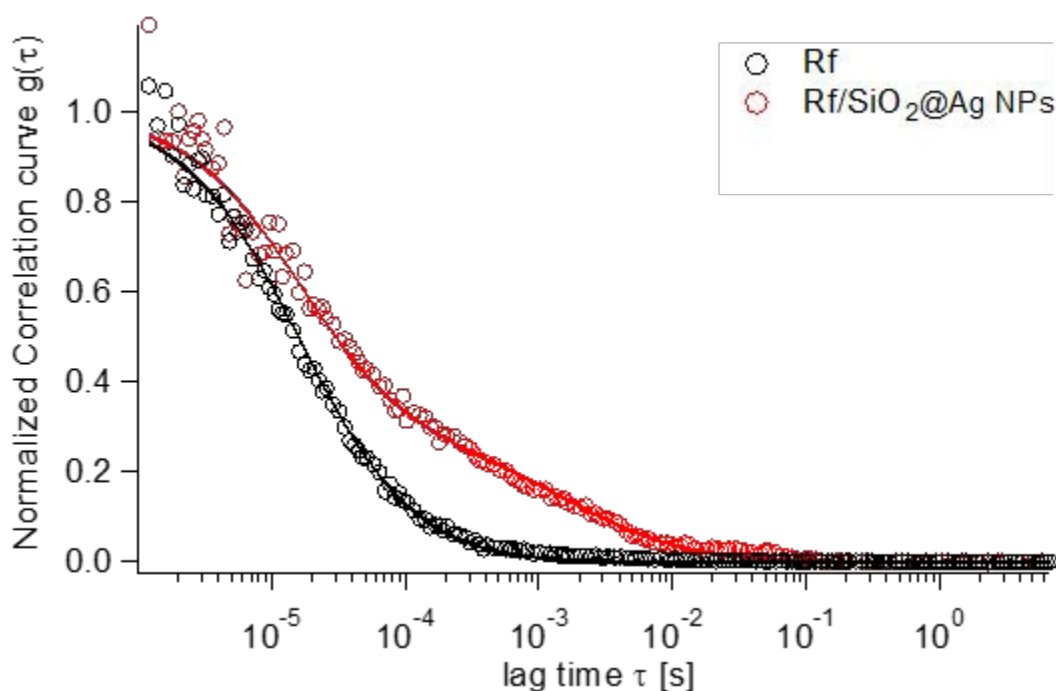


Figure 5: Normalized autocorrelation curves of Riboflavin alone (black circles) and Riboflavin incubated with SiO₂@Ag NPs (red circles). Solid lines are the respective fits.

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Table 2. FCS data obtained from the fitting of autocorrelation functions in Figure 6. The diffusion times (t_D) are obtained fitting the raw data by 3D-Normal Diffusion Model with 1 or 2 components. The confocal volume was estimated using 25 nM Rhodamine 6G.

	t_{D1} [μ s]	t_{D2} [μ s]	D_{c1} [μ m ² /s]	D_{c2} [μ m ² /s]
Rf	16.2 \pm 0.5	-----	485 \pm 15	-----
Rf/SiO ₂ @Ag*	16.2 \pm 2.5	1886 \pm 166	485 \pm 75	4.2 \pm 0.4

*Fitting is obtained fixing the diffusion time of the first component equivalent to the diffusion times of the free species.

Adsorption of the dyes on SiO₂@Ag and SiO₂. The chemical structure of the dyes is shown in Figure 6.

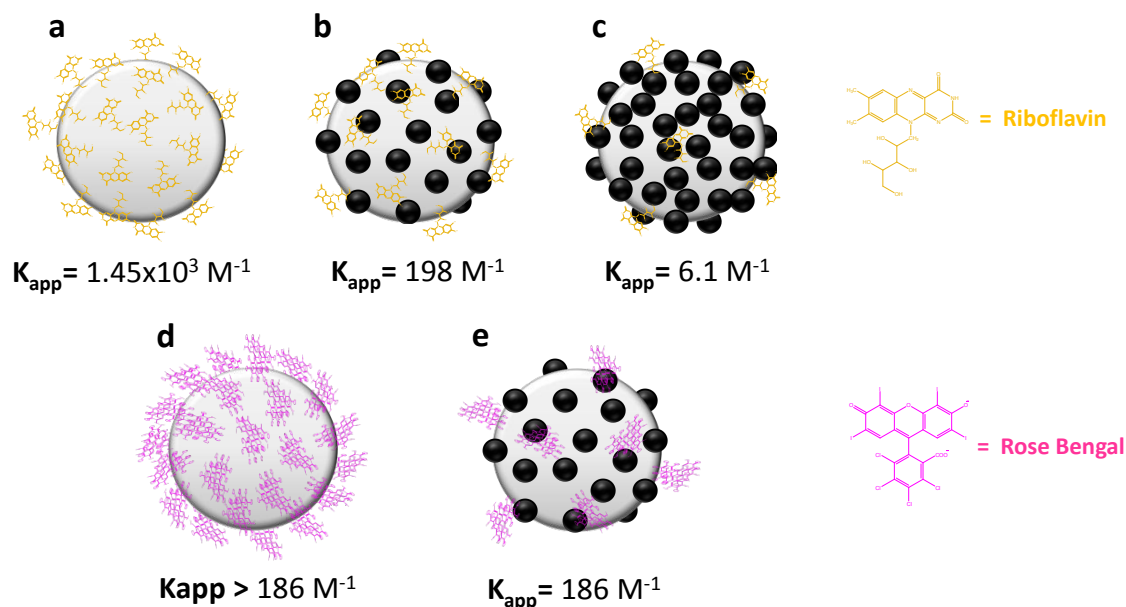


Figure 6 Scheme showing the adsorption of: (a) Rf on SiO₂ NPs; (b) Rf on SiO₂@Ag-low NPs; (c) Rf on SiO₂@Ag NPs; (d) RB²⁻ on SiO₂ NPs; (e) RB²⁻ on SiO₂@Ag-low NPs.

The absorption spectra of the dyes in the presence of increasing amounts of SiO₂@Ag are shown in Figures S3 - S4 in the Electronic Supporting Information. There is an enhanced absorption all over the evaluated wavelength range (200 - 800 nm). However, the increase of absorbance was wavelength dependent and after subtracting the contribution of the nanoparticles to the absorbance of the mixture the Benesi and Hildebrand eq 1³⁰ was applied to obtain the apparent equilibrium constants (K_{app}) for the complexation of the dyes with the nanoparticles.

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$$\frac{1}{A - A_{dye}} = \frac{1}{A_C - A_{dye}} + \frac{1}{K_{app}(A_C - A_{dye})[NP]} \quad (I)$$

In eq I A is the corrected absorbance at the analysis wavelength λ^{an} of the dye samples in the presence of different amounts of SiO₂ or SiO₂@Ag, and A_{dye} and A_C are the absorbances of the dye and the complex at λ^{an} , respectively. In order to be able to compare the data obtained with SiO₂ and SiO₂@Ag NPs, the insets of Figure S4 in the Electronic Supporting Information show the linear dependence of the left-hand side of eq I vs. the reciprocal of the silica concentration in the suspensions, $[\text{SiO}_2]^{-1}$ for Rf. The values of K_{app} obtained from the slopes and intercepts of the straight lines are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Analysis wavelength λ^{an} and K_{app} values for the three dyes.

	$K_{app}(M^{-1})$
Rf^(a)	
SiO ₂	1.45×10^3
SiO ₂ @Ag-low ^(b)	198
SiO ₂ @Ag	6.1
RB^{2-(c)}	
SiO ₂ @Ag	186

(a) Data obtained at $\lambda^{\text{an}} = 440$ nm. (b) Sample prepared employing a lower amount of the precursor SnCl_2 . (c)

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Data obtained at $\lambda^{\text{an}} = 400$ nm.

Table 3 shows that for the adsorption of Rf the values of K_{app} follow the trend $\text{SiO}_2 > \text{SiO}_2@Ag\text{-low} > \text{SiO}_2@Ag$, which is indicative of the preference of Rf for the adsorption on SiO_2 sites compared to Ag. Figure 6 qualitatively shows this behavior. The absorption spectrum of RB^{2-} in the absence of nanoparticles (Figure 7a) shows a peak at 550 nm, which is characteristic of the monomer, with a shoulder at 510 nm assigned to the dimer.^{31,32} Addition of even small amounts of SiO_2 NPs produces significant changes in the absorption spectra: the monomer band appears truncated, whereas the shoulder remains approximately constant (Figure S5 and Table S1). Thus, the presence of the nanoparticles leads to dimerization of the dye at the water/ silica interface. Similar experiments performed with $\text{SiO}_2@Ag$ NPs instead of SiO_2 NPs (Figure 7a) show a gradual increase of the 510 shoulder with a concomitant decrease of the A^{550}/A^{510} ratio, as a measure of the dye aggregation (Figure 7b). These results show that aggregation is indicative of adsorption of RB^{2-} on the nanoparticles, and thus there is a lower affinity of the dye for $\text{SiO}_2@Ag$ NPs than for SiO_2 NPs. The analysis of the spectra according to equation (I) for SiO_2 NPs yielded a high dispersion of the data irrespective of the wavelength chosen for analysis. However, for the interaction of RB^{2-} with $\text{SiO}_2@Ag$ NPs it was possible to obtain the K_{app} of 186 at $\lambda^{\text{an}} = 400$ nm, a wavelength far from the monomer peak (550 nm) and dimer shoulder (510 nm). Figure 7c shows the Benesi-Hildebrandt plot. In summary, both dyes Rf and RB^{2-} are preferentially adsorbed on SiO_2 sites (silanols), being the values of K_{app} for both dyes similar.

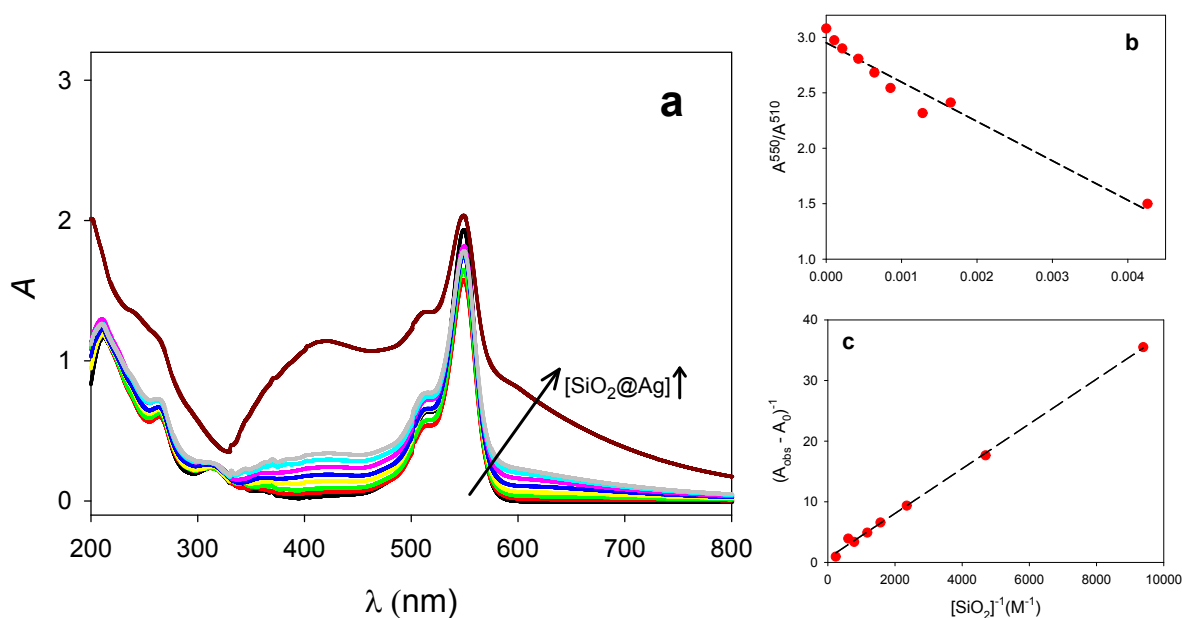


Figure 7:(a) UV-visible absorption spectra of a 29.4 μM solution of RB^{2-} in the presence of increasing amounts of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs. (b). Plot of the ratio A^{510}/A^{550} as a measure of the dye aggregation vs. $[\text{Ag}]$. (c) Plot of $(A_{\text{obs}} - A_0)^{-1}$ vs $[\text{Ag}]^{-1}$ at 400 nm for $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs.

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Laser Flash-Photolysis (LFP). Data obtained with Ar-saturated 27 μM Rf solutions in the absence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs show positive values of ΔA in the 500-770 nm wavelength range employing a 0-40 μs time window. The photophysics of Rf is complex and thus, several species contribute to the observed signals, such as the triplet state (${}^3\text{Rf}^*$), its radical cation (Rf^+), and its neutral radical (HRf), formed by fast protonation of the radical anion (Rf^-).³³ Due to the complexity of the system, the data were analyzed with the aid of the Glotaran program,¹⁷ employing a sequential model with three species. Decay associated difference spectra (DADS) and lifetimes of each component were retrieved. Figure 8a shows the DADS of the species with the shortest lifetime (3.4 μs), which displays contributions of the spectra of ${}^3\text{Rf}^*$ and Rf^+ . The second species decays with a lifetime of 10.9 μs and has a DADS very similar to the absorption spectrum of Rf^+ (Figure 8b), and is thus assigned to this radical ion.³³ The third species (Figure 8c) is attributed to HRf ³³ and, as expected, decays with a longer lifetime (> 50 μs).

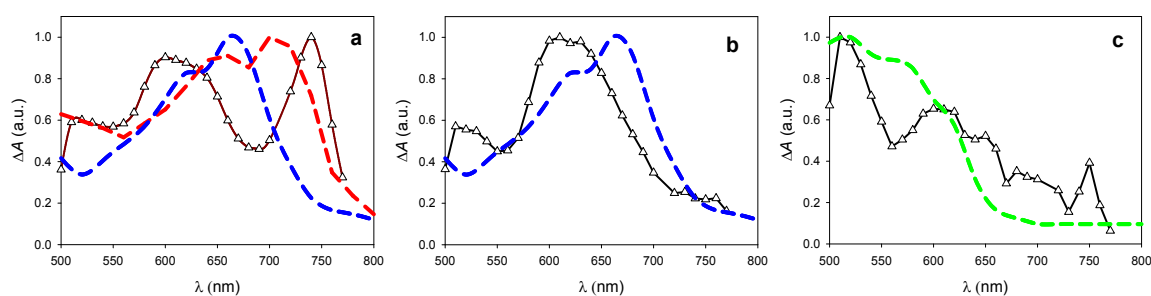


Figure 8: DADS corresponding to the lifetimes of: 3.4 μs (a), 10.9 μs (b), and > 1 ms (c), obtained from laser flash-photolysis experiments ($[\text{Rf}] = 27 \mu\text{M}$) under Ar-saturation after 355 nm excitation. The dashed lines represent the reported absorption spectra of ${}^3\text{Rf}^*$ (red), Rf^+ (blue), and HRf (green).³³

The analysis with the Glotaran program of LFP signals obtained with 27 μM Rf ($A^{355} = 0.5$) samples prepared in suspensions of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs ($0.301 \mu\text{M} \leq [\text{Ag}] \leq 1.81 \mu\text{M}$) also yielded three DADS. The spectrum with the shortest lifetime (15 - 40 ns) with negative contributions in the whole wavelength range, is ascribed to the electronic response of our LFP set-up to scattering of the samples. The second DADS (see Figure 9a) had a lifetime of 9 μs . This DADS is very similar to the reported absorption spectrum of Rf^+ and is assigned to this radical. The third species, assigned to HRf^{\cdot} (Figure 9b) displayed longer lifetime ($> 50 \mu\text{s}$).

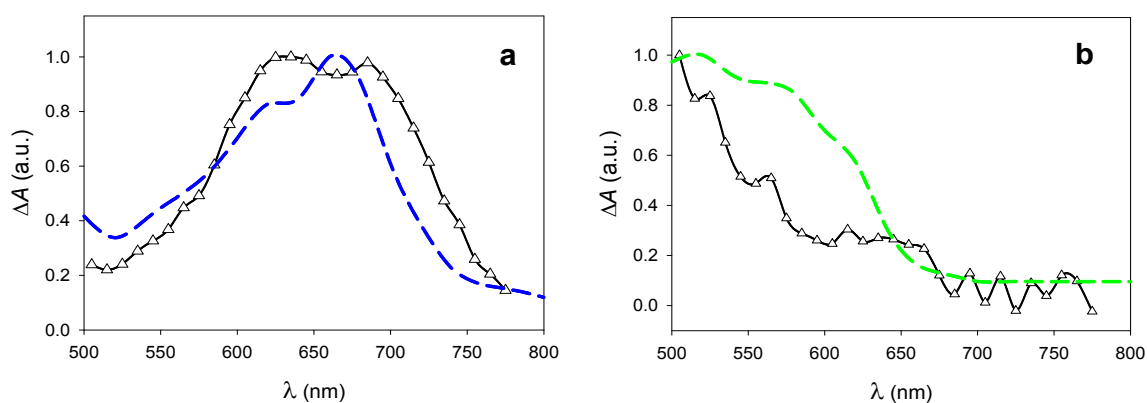


Figure 9: DADS corresponding to Rf species in the presence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs: Rf^+ (a) and HRf^{\cdot} (b) obtained from laser flash-photolysis experiments under Ar-saturation after 355 nm excitation. Experiments performed with $[\text{Rf}] = 27 \mu\text{M}$ and $[\text{Ag}] = 3.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{M}$. The dashed lines represent the reported absorption spectra of Rf^+ (blue), and HRf^{\cdot} (green).³³

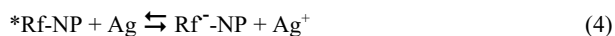
The reason why the triplet state of Rf is not observed in the presence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs could be the occurrence of an efficient charge transfer from the silver nanoparticles to the singlet excited state of Rf ($^1\text{Rf}^*$) (reaction 2). The competition of this reaction with the intersystem crossing process (3) precludes the detection of $^3\text{Rf}^*$ in the LFP assays.



Reaction (2) is thermodynamically feasible, as indicated by the Gibbs energy calculated from the Rehm-Weller equation³⁴:

$\Delta_{\text{ET}}G^{\circ} = -111 \text{ kJ/mol}$. The existence of this reaction implies a decrease of the singlet state lifetime (τ_s) in the presence of the nanoparticles. However, τ_s was not affected by the nanoparticles (see Table S2 in the Supplementary Material).

These results support the idea that the charge transfer from silver nanoparticles to the excited singlet state of Rf in solution ($^1\text{Rf}^*$) is not the responsible for the absence of the triplet signal in the LFP assays performed with $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs. A plausible explanation involves the charge transfer reaction (4) from Ag to the excited state of the non-fluorescent complex between Rf and the nanoparticles ($^*\text{Rf-NP}$).

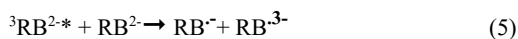


$\text{Rf}^{\cdot-}\text{-NP}$ represents the adsorbed radical anion of Rf.

From reaction 4, we can conclude that the presence of Rf and further laser excitation will induce the generation of Ag^+ ions, which can have interesting antimicrobial applications.

In order to investigate the effect of the degree of silver coverage on the silica surface, another series of LFP experiments were performed with Rf in the presence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs with higher Ag content. Surprisingly, in this case the results were different from those obtained with $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs. The Glotaran analysis yielded three species with DADS and kinetics similar to the data shown in Figure 8 (see Figure S6 in the Electronic Supporting Information). The species with the shortest lifetime (11.50 ns) can be assigned to a scattering component. The second species with a lifetime of 12.54 μs shows unambiguous contribution of $^3\text{Rf}^*$. This result is in line with the lower affinity of Rf for the core-shell NPs with lower amounts of surface silanol groups, which disfavors the occurrence of reaction (4). The third component (99.68 μs) can be assigned to the radical cation of Rf.

LFP experiments were performed with RB^{2-} samples in the presence and absence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ NPs in the wavelength ranges 580- 700 nm and 350- 480 nm. In the former region the only transient species absorbing in the time window of our experiments is the triplet state of the dye, $^3\text{RB}^{2-*}$. In the shorter wavelengths region the triplet state also absorbs along with the semi-reduced radical ($\text{RB}^{\cdot-}$) and semi-oxidized ($\text{RB}^{\cdot+}$) radicals. These radicals are formed through disproportionation of the triplet state and ground state of RB (RB^{2-}).³⁵



Global analysis of the experiments performed under Ar saturation in the 580- 700 nm range showed the contribution of only one species with a lifetime of $10 \pm 2 \mu\text{s}$ and an absorption spectrum coincident with that of $^3\text{RB}^{2-*}$ (Figure 10a). Both the lifetime and the spectrum were independent of the presence of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{Ag}$ -low NPs. In the 350 - 480 nm range the program detected three components: the lifetime of the first component was again $10 \pm 2 \mu\text{s}$ and the DADS showed positive

absorption in the absence of the particles, whereas a negative region at around 430 nm appeared in the presence of SiO₂@Ag NPs. We should here stress that with the LFP technique differential spectra are obtained, i.e., the measured ΔA values are the difference between the absorbance of the triplet state and that of the unexcited sample. Thus, in the 350 - 480 nm region and in the absence of SiO₂@Ag-low NPs, the absorption of the triplet is larger than that of the ground-state and $\Delta A > 0$. When the SiO₂@Ag NPs are present the plasmon absorption contributes to the negative component of ΔA in the region at around 420 nm. As can be seen in Figure 10b, this negative contribution increases with increasing amounts of nanoparticles in the samples. All these results support the assignment of the first component to ³RB^{2*}.

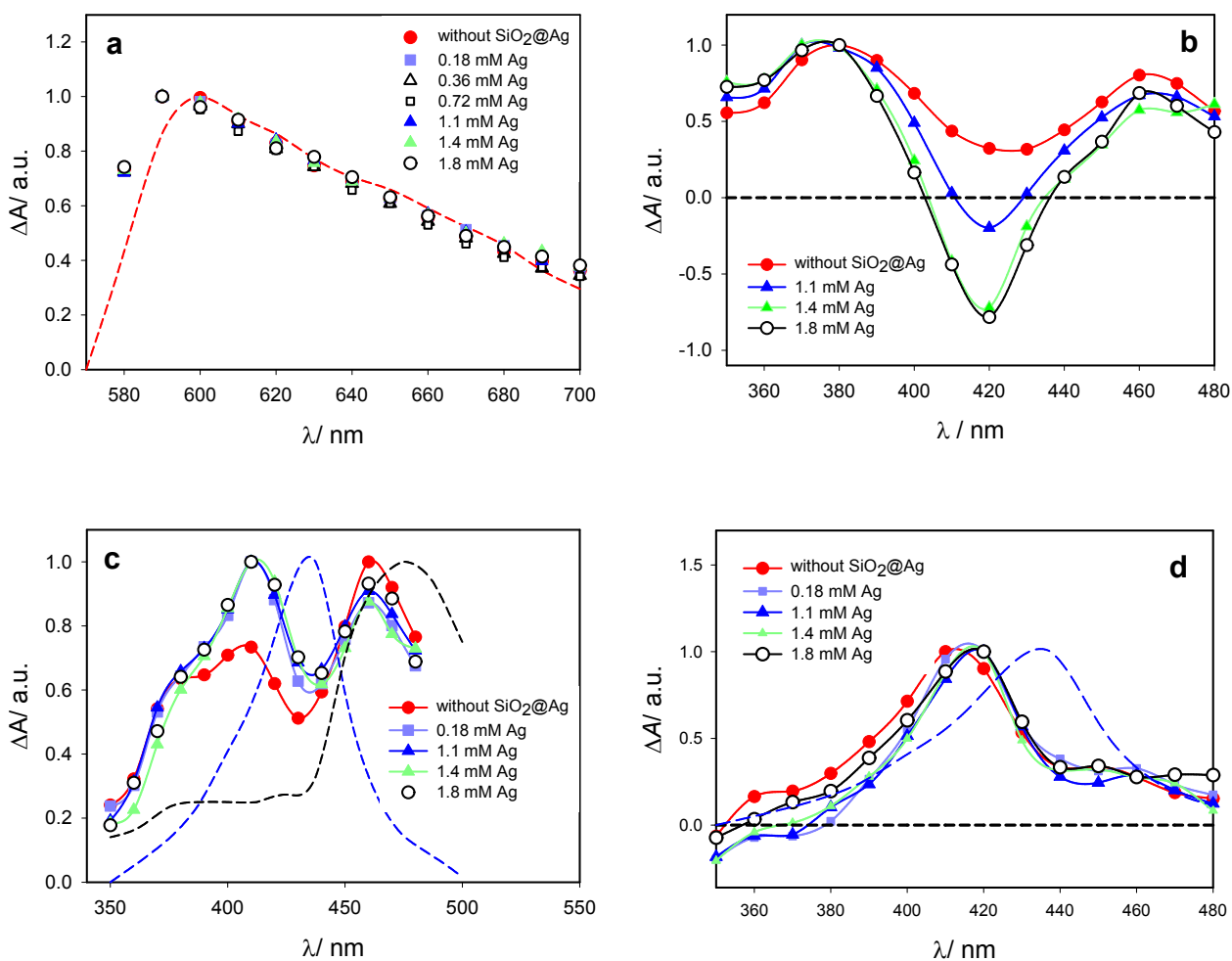


Figure 10: DADS corresponding to Rose Bengal species in the absence and presence of SiO₂@Ag NPs: the first component assigned to ³RB^{2*} (a and b); the second component (c) and the third component (d) obtained from photolysis experiments under Ar-saturation after 355 nm excitation. Experiments performed with [RB^{2*}] = 147 μM and various amounts of Ag in

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2 SiO₂@Ag NPs as indicated. The dashed lines represent the reported absorption spectra of ³RB²⁻* (red), RB⁻ (black) RB³⁻
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4 (blue).
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9 The second component with a lifetime of 23 ± 8 μs shows a DADS with contributions of RB⁻ and RB³⁻ radicals (Figure
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11 10c), whereas the DADS of the third component with a lifetime of 239 ± 37 μs is coincident with that assigned to RB³⁻
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13 (Figure 10d).³⁶ These results are in line with the longer lifetime reported for the semi-reduced radical RB³⁻ compared to
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15 RB⁻.³⁶

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Glutaran analysis of data obtained from LFP experiments performed with RB²⁻ samples in the presence and absence of
SiO₂@Ag-low NPs in the wavelength ranges 580- 700 nm under air-saturation yielded one component with a lifetime of
2.15 ± 0.03 μs. From this lifetime, the triplet decay obtained in Ar-saturated samples (10 μs), and the concentration of
molecular oxygen in air-saturated solutions (0.29 mM)³⁷, a quenching rate constant of ³RB²⁻* by oxygen of 1.3×10⁹ M⁻¹s⁻¹
is obtained, in excellent agreement with the reported value of 1.6×10⁹ M⁻¹s⁻¹.³⁸The DADS were also coincident with the
reported spectrum of the triplet state (result not shown).

In summary, although RB²⁻ adsorbs on SiO₂@Ag-low NPs, no effect of the nanoparticles could be observed on the triplet
state of the dye could be observed.

Comparison of the data obtained with both dyes indicate that Rf and RB²⁻ are more favorably adsorbed on SiO₂ NPs,
showing preference for the silanol groups of the nanoparticles compared to the metal sites. The apparent rate constants K_{app}
obtained for the complexation are similar. When nanoparticles with a low coverage of silver (SiO₂@Ag-low NPs) were
employed in LFP assays, it was not possible to observe the absorption of the excited triplet state of Rf (³Rf*) and this
behavior was explained by a charge transfer reaction from Ag to the excited state of the non-fluorescent complex between
Rf and the nanoparticles (*Rf-NP) (reaction 4). However, neither the amount nor the decay of the triplet state of Rose
Bengal (³RB²⁻*) were affected by the presence of SiO₂@Ag-low NPs. This result indicates that the complex of this dye
with the nanoparticles (*RB²⁻-NP) is not prone to transfer electrons to the silver nanoparticles in a reaction similar to
reaction (4). These results are explained in terms on the feasibility of the one-electron transfer from the nanoparticles to
triplet states of both dyes.

Table 4 lists the values of the triplet state energy (E_T), ground state and triplet state redox potentials of the sensitizers, and the Gibbs energy ($\Delta_{ET}G^\circ$) and equilibrium constants for the one-electron transfer process (6) for ${}^3S^* = {}^3Rf^*$ or ${}^3RB^{2*}$.

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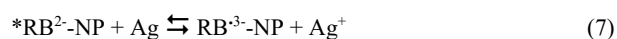


Table 4. Triplet state energy (E_T), ground- and triplet state redox potential of the sensitizers, Gibbs energy ($\Delta_{ET}G^\circ$) and equilibrium constants (K) of reaction (6) for $S = RB^{2-}$ and Rf.

S	$E_T/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	Ground State Redox Potential vs. NHE/ V	Triplet State Redox Potential vs. NHE/ V	$\Delta_{ET}G^\circ/\text{kJ mol}^{-1(a)}$	K
RB^{2-}	175.6 ^(b)	$E^\circ (RB^{2-}/RB^{3-}) = -0.78$ ^(c)	$E^\circ ({}^3RB^{2*}/RB^{3-}) = 1.04$ ^(b)	-25.1	2.5×10^4
Rf	209 ^(d)	$E^\circ (Rf/Rf^{\cdot-}) = -0.546$ ^(e)	$E^\circ ({}^3Rf^*/Rf^{\cdot-}) = 1.62$ ^(f)	-81.0	1.6×10^{14}

^(a) Calculated from the Rehm-Weller equation³⁴taking 0.78 V for the redox potential $E^\circ (Ag^+/Ag)$ vs. NHE, which is the value reported for silver nanoparticles of about 10 nm diameter diameter.^{39(b)} From³⁵. ^(c)From⁴⁰. ^(d) From⁴¹. ^(e) From⁴². ^(f) From⁶.

Assuming that the triplet state redox potentials of the sensitizers are similar when they are free or adsorbed on the nanoparticles, we can predict that reaction (7), a thermodynamically feasible process, has an equilibrium constant K ten orders of magnitude lower than reaction (4). This should be the reason why no effect of $SiO_2@Ag$ -low NPs on the triplet state of Rose Bengal is observed, whereas the nanoparticles had a drastic quenching effect on the triplet state of Rf.



It is also noteworthy that although RB^{2-} dimerizes on the surface of SiO_2 NPs, our transient absorption assays clearly show that the dimer dissociates in the triplet excited state, in complete coincidence with reported data on the excited states of

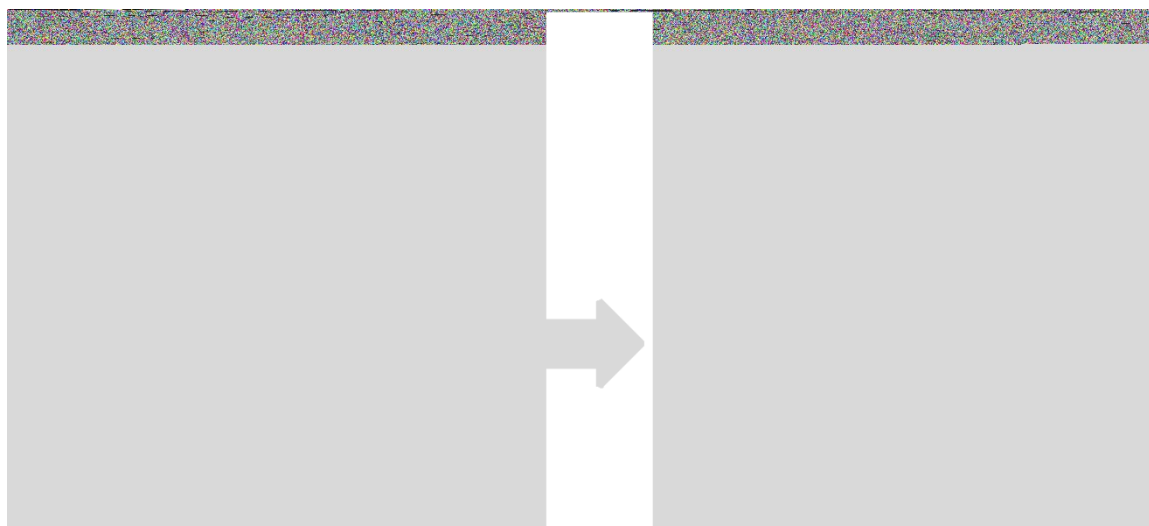
1 RB²⁻ on silica surfaces.⁴² This agreement supports the absence under our experimental conditions of any effect of the silver
2 nanoparticles on the photophysics of RB²⁻.
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8 CONCLUSION

10 We have here synthesized novel core-shell SiO₂@Ag nanoparticles by a two steps method, which involves the
11 homogeneous deposition of silver nuclei on colloidal silica spheres followed by a photochemical method employed for the
12 growth of silver nanoparticles from silver seeds.
13

14 Nanoparticles were characterized by several methods and their interaction with the ground-states and excited triplet states
15 of Rose Bengal and Riboflavin, two typical photosensitizers with photodynamic activity, were investigated. Both dyes were
16 shown to be adsorbed on the nanoparticles. Transient absorption spectroscopy experiments showed that in samples
17 containing Rf and SiO₂@Ag-low NPs, the absorption of the triplet excited state of Riboflavin is not observed because of
18 an electron transfer process from Ag to the excited state of the complex formed between Rf and SiO₂ nanoparticles. This
19 result means that under these conditions upon photoirradiation Ag⁺ are released to the aqueous medium (see Figure 11).
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50 **Figure 11:** Schematic picture of the photoinduced release of Ag⁺ from samples containing Rf and SiO₂@Ag-low NPs.

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52 However, no effect of SiO₂@Ag-low NPs on the triplet excited state of Rose Bengal was observed, being the electron
53 transfer much less favorable in this case.

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55 It is accepted that the localized release of Ag⁺ ions at the cell walls of microorganisms contributes to the antibacterial
56 activity of the silver nanomaterials.^{43,44} For this reason, our core-shell SiO₂@Ag-low NPs are promising candidates for the
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1 photodynamic inactivation (PDI) of microorganisms. Photoirradiation of Riboflavin in suspensions of the nanoparticles
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3 should release Ag⁺ ions, enhancing the intrinsic antibacterial effect of the non-irradiated nanomaterials.
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10 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

11 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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