



Light-induced Polymer Response Through Thermoplasmonics Transduction in Highly Monodisperse Core-Shell-Brush Nanosystems

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4 **Light-induced Polymer Response Through Thermoplasmonics Transduction in Highly**
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6 **Monodisperse Core-Shell-Brush Nanosystems**
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ABSTRACT

Smart nanosystems that transduce external stimuli to physical changes are an inspiring challenge in current materials chemistry. Hybrid organic-inorganic materials attract great attention due to the combination of building blocks responsive to specific external solicitations. In this work, we present a sequential method for obtaining an integrated core-shell-brush nanosystem that transduces light irradiation into a particle size change through a thermoplasmonic effect. We first synthesize hybrid monodisperse systems made up of functionalized silica colloids covered with controllable thermo-responsive Poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide), PNIPAm, brushes, produced through radical photopolymerization. This methodology was successfully transferred to Au@SiO₂ nanoparticles, leading to a core-shell-brush architecture, in which the Au core acts as a nano-source of heat; the silica layer, in turn, adapts the metal and polymer interfacial chemistries and can also host a fluorescent dye for bioimaging. Upon green LED irradiation, a light-to-heat conversion process leads to the shrinkage of the external polymer layer, as proven by *in situ* DLS. Our results demonstrate that modular hybrid nanosystems can be designed and produced with photo-thermo-physical transduction. These remote-controlled nanosystems present prospective applications in smart carriers, responsive bioscaffolds or soft robotics.

KEYWORDS

Smart nanosystems, hybrid materials, core-shell-brush colloids, photothermal effect, UV-photo induced polymerization, *in-situ* DLS.

Introduction

The field of materials with stimuli-responsive properties has experienced an impressive growth during the last years, due to their potential high impact in fields such as drug delivery, energy storage, bioelectronics, wearable sensors, biomaterials, medical imaging, tissue regeneration, catalysis or soft robotics.¹⁻⁴ The basic concept of stimuli-responsive materials, also known as “smart”, “intelligent” or “adaptive”, implies controlling and exploiting relatively large and abrupt physical or chemical changes as responses to external stimuli,⁵⁻⁷ such as temperature, pH, redox potential, light, ionic strength, and magnetic fields.^{5,8-15}

The design of these platforms takes advantage of a well-established “library” of functionalized nanomaterials combining different building blocks such as polymeric liposomes, dendrimers, self-assembled objects, inorganic nanoparticles, metal nanoparticles, carbon nanotubes, and mesoporous silica.¹⁶⁻²⁰ These systems can be tailor-made with a large variety of architectures and in diverse physical forms, adjustable to the requirements of their final application, by selecting the strategies of synthesis and functionalization.

Many functional molecules, polymers or nanostructures have been developed that have paved the way to a new class of stimuli-sensitive materials. In particular, light triggering permits a facile control of the stimulus, through the arbitrary choice of wavelength, irradiation time, and localization.^{21,22} Metal nanoparticles are attractive due to their enormous variety of compositions, sizes and shapes that give rise to distinctive optical and catalytic properties.^{23,24} Gold nanoparticles (Au NPs) show great advantages in the biomedical field because of their biocompatibility and non-citotoxicity.²⁵⁻²⁷ The exposure of Au nanocarriers to an external light source leads to strong absorption and/or scattering at the Localized Surface Plasmon

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3 Resonance (LSPR), which leads to heat dissipation into the particle surroundings. This
4 thermoplasmonic effect can be purposefully directed to therapeutic and diagnostic
5 applications, through exploiting local light-induced heating.^{7,28–30}
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10 On the other hand, polymers with a lower critical solution temperature (LCST) have been
11 largely explored as building blocks that introduce temperature responsiveness into smart
12 systems. Poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide), PNIPAm, is a well-established temperature-
13 responsive material used in drug delivery systems, human gene delivery vectors, biocatalysts,
14 super absorbents and devices for separation and purification of metal ions and
15 biomolecules.^{31–34} PNIPAm undergoes a phase transition from a hydrophobic to a
16 hydrophilic state when the external temperature is below the LCST of about 32 °C in aqueous
17 solution, a temperature range that depends on the polymer length and cross-linking.¹³
18 Recently, Wu and co-workers have combined Au and PNIPAm microgel producing a
19 thermosensitive yolk–shell system that proved to be an effective light-triggered catalyst for
20 the reduction of 4-nitrophenol and nitrobenzene in aqueous solution.³⁵ Shen and coworkers
21 fabricated a yolk-shell thermosensitive nanoparticle using PNIPAm microgel and the silica-
22 etching method. In this case, the nanoparticles were developed using Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles as
23 photothermal cores and applied as remote-controlled targeting drug delivery platform for
24 multimodal imaging and combined therapy of cancer.³⁶
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46 In addition, the development of oxide shells on metallic nanoparticles allows combining and
47 integrating the plasmonic effects in a single core-shell nanosystem. Silica is a useful platform
48 due to its optical transparency, colloidal stability, biocompatibility, and versatile surface
49 modification.^{37,38} Core-shell Au@SiO₂ nanoparticles³⁰ are efficient to prevent Au NPs from
50 aggregation and deformation, while permitting to access the extensive silica surface
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3 functionalization chemistry.³⁹⁻⁴² In this context, Tian and collaborators reported a strategy to
4 fabricate core-satellite multicomponent nanostructures, MNP@SiO₂-PNIPAm-Au, with
5 tunable interparticle distances and catalysis properties by the combination of surface-initiated
6 reversible addition-fragmentation chain transfer (SI-RAFT) polymerization and self-
7 assembly.⁴³ In other report, Wang and co-workers synthesized near-infrared light-responsive
8 plasmonic core-shell thermosensitive ionic microgels based on Au nanorods coated with
9 microgel shells of ionic liquids.⁴⁴ In both reports, authors used a SiO₂ shell on the metallic
10 core surface in order to access to the extended silica surface functionalization. More recently,
11 Villaverde and colleagues reported the synthesis of a core-multishell gold nanorods, coated
12 with mesoporous silica and further covered with a thermosensitive polymer, which is
13 vectorized for selective internalization in melanoma cells, leading to on-demand release of
14 cytotoxic compounds in response to near-IR irradiation ⁴⁵

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31 In this work, we present a reproducible and simple one-pot sequential method to create core-
32 shell-brush nanosystems with light-induced size change. The methodology is based in
33 controlling the modification of silica surfaces through a radical photopolymerization
34 procedure, which permits to synthesize hybrid nanoparticles containing PNIPAm brushes.
35 This procedure can be applied either to monodisperse silica or plasmonic Au@SiO₂
36 nanoparticles, obtaining well-dispersed colloids with controllable metallic core and shell
37 sizes, and tunable thickness polymer coatings. We demonstrate that these core-shell-brush
38 nanosystems present a transduction from light to heat that impacts in the shrinkage of the
39 polymeric shell, leading to a remote-controlled light-induced shrinkable nanosystem. The
40 obtained results have practical implications in smart carriers or soft robotics. Finally, to the
41 best of our knowledge we report for the first time a new methodology for studying *in situ* the
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3 effects of irradiation on the physical response of these systems, and thus to directly witness
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5 the remote control of nanoparticle response.
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10 11 **Materials and methods**

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14 Tetraethylorthosilicate (98%, TEOS), $\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, sodium citrate, polyvinylpyrrolidone
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16 (PVP, MW = 10kDa), vinyltriethoxysilane (97%, VTES), N-isopropylacrylamide (97 %,
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18 NIPA), 2,2-dimethoxy-2-phenylacetophenone (99%, DMPA), benzophenone (99%, BP),
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20 $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3\text{Cl}_2$ were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich; concentrated aqueous ammonia and
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22 absolute ethanol, were obtained from Biopack, toluene and methanol were purchased from
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24 Merck. All chemicals were used as received. Water used was deionized (18 M Ω .cm) and
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26 filtered prior to solution preparation.
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32 Core-shell-brush hybrid nanosystems were prepared combining three building blocks, a gold
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34 core, silica shell and a brush of poly(N-isopropylacrylamide), PNIPAm. Surface
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36 modification of core-shell NPs with PNIPAm brushes was performed using a photoinitiated
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38 free radical graft polymerization. This implied following these two stages:
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42 - Optimization of the synthesis conditions for PNIPAm grafting carried out using dense
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44 spherical silica nanoparticles (SiO_2 NPs), obtained from controlled growth from Si alkoxide
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46 precursor (TEOS) in aqueous ethanol, using ammonia solution as the catalyst.
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50 - Synthesis of core-shell $\text{Au}@ \text{SiO}_2$ NPs and then, PNIPAm grafted on the $\text{Au}@ \text{SiO}_2$ NPs
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52 surface using the previously optimized conditions.
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3 The experimental details regarding the nanoparticle preparation and the characterization
4 techniques used are reported in the ESI.
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8 We should note that in the present work, for simplicity of expression, the term “polymer
9 brush” is used as a synonym of the terms “tethered polymer chains” or “end-grafted
10 polymers”. Strictly speaking the term “polymer brush” should be associated with a layer of
11 densely grafted polymer chains whose behaviour is dictated by strong interactions between
12 those chains.^{46–49}
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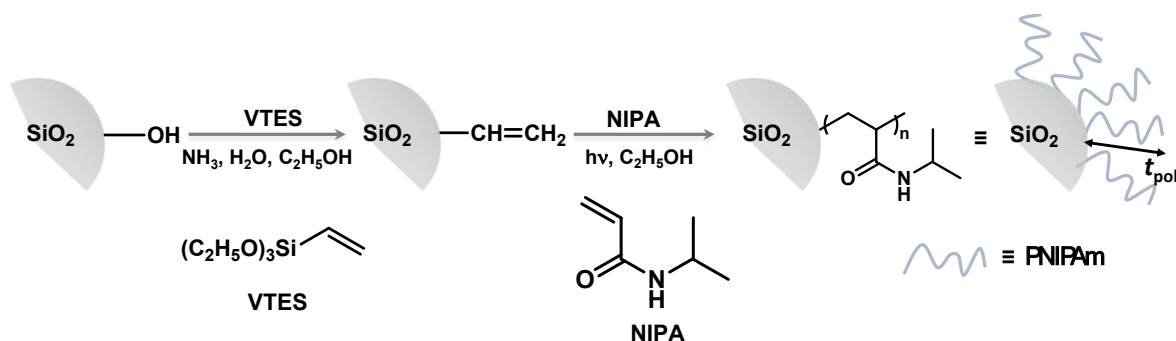
24 **Results and discussion**

25 *Optimization of PNIPAm photografting on SiO₂ NPs surface*

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29 The optimization of the synthesis conditions for PNIPAm grafting on the silica surface was
30 carried out on dense SiO₂ NPs obtained by the Stöber method.^{50,51} The molar concentrations
31 of TEOS, NH₃ and H₂O used in synthesis were 0.17, 0.75 and 2 M, respectively, leading to
32 highly monodisperse NPs of around 100 nm in diameter.
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42 Surface modification of SiO₂ NPs with PNIPAm was performed using a photoinitiated free
43 radical graft polymerization, by a two-stage process. **Scheme 1** presents a simplified
44 description of the PNIPAm grafting on SiO₂ NPs. In the first step, SiO₂ NPs were surface
45 functionalized by a "one-pot" reaction, adding vinyltriethoxysilane (VTES), directly into the
46 alcosol of the Stöber synthesis, resulting in vinyl modified NPs, SiO₂-V NPs.^{52,53} In the
47 second step, the previously immobilized vinyl groups worked as a coupling agent to
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introduce reactive groups onto the particle surface and the PNIPAm was then grafted-on using these groups. This synthesis methodology allowed obtaining core-brush SiO₂ NPs covered with PNIPAm brushes of controlled thickness.



Scheme 1. Simplified description of synthetic steps used in preparation of (SiO₂-V)-g-PNIPAm NPs.

In this type of experimental process, the postulated mechanism of polymer chain grafting on the silica surface consists of two main steps. First, a polymeric radical formed in solution reacts with the immobilized double bond, generating a new reactive surface site from which the new chain growth can be subsequently initiated (see **Scheme S1**).^{54–56} In our previous report, we demonstrated that the selection of the synthetic route is key to control crucial characteristics of silica-brush NPs such as grafted polymer density, dispersion and colloidal stability.¹⁵ In addition, non-controlled radical polymerizations generally present some advantages at the moment of polymer grafted into surfaces; for example they involve simple equipment, low cost of processing, fast reaction rate and therefore, they are the most viable from an industrial scalability point of view.^{57,58}

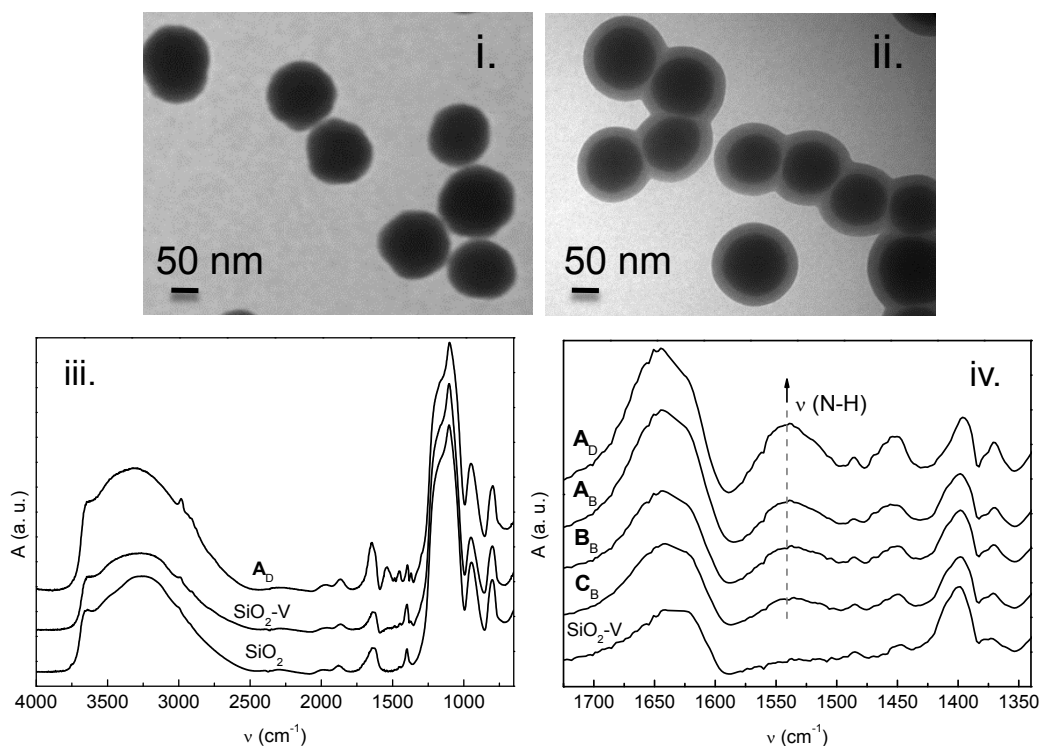
Table 1 summarizes synthetic parameters evaluated in order to maximize the grafted polymer content on SiO₂ NPs surface. The evaluated conditions were: final concentration of SiO₂ NPs in the reaction suspension (C_{NP}), molar ratio between NIPA and organosilane (N/VTES), type of initiator (i) and molar ratio of initiator with respect to the monomer (i/N). The same SiO₂-V NPs batch was used in all PNIPAm grafting reactions, so concentration of surface reactive sites was the same for all samples.

Table 1. Evaluated conditions for PNIPAm photografting on SiO₂ NPs optimization: final concentration of SiO₂ NPs in the reaction suspension (C_{NP}), molar ratio between NIPA and organosilane (N/VTES), type of initiator (i) and molar ratio of initiator with respect to the monomer (i/N).

Sample	C_{NP} (%m/V)	Molar ratio N/VTES	Type of initiator (i)	% Molar ratio i/N	Dh mean (nm)	PDI mean	t_{pot} mean \pm SD (nm)
SiO ₂ -V					158	0.054	
a_B	0.25	40	BP	1	172	0.056	14 \pm 4
a_{B10}	0.25	40	BP	10	164	0.087	6 \pm 3
a_D	0.25	40	DMPA	1	177	0.072	19 \pm 3
C_B	0.5	10	BP	1	163	0.073	5 \pm 3
B_B	0.5	20	BP	1	168	0.052	10 \pm 4
A_B	0.5	40	BP	1	179	0.051	21 \pm 5
A_D	0.5	40	DMPA	1	188	0.079	30 \pm 5

Figure 1 presents TEM images of silica nanoparticles before and after PNIPAm photografting in the **A_D** conditions, where individual NPs can be observed in addition to those grouped for capillary forces by TEM high vacuum conditions. The dense silica NPs presented an average diameter of 124 ± 11 nm (see **Figure 1-i**). After its polymerization, the core-brush

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3 type hybrid structure could be clearly distinguished in the TEM images: a darker gray core
4 of silica is surrounded by a light gray layer, typical of a polymer layer (**Figure 1-ii**).
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37 **Figure 1.** TEM images of NPs, (i) SiO_2 and (ii) $(\text{SiO}_2\text{-V})\text{-g-PNIPAm}$. DRIFTS spectra of
38 different NPs, SiO_2 , VTES functionalized and grafted with PNIPAm brushes (iii) and a zoom
39 in PNIPAm signals region for different synthesis conditions of the core-brush NPs.
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48 DLS provides valuable information of the particle size, as well as on the level of aggregation
49 and interaction between them in suspension, through the values of hydrodynamic diameter
50 (D_h) and the polydispersity index (PDI). The latter is an experimental observable that gives
51 a direct indication of the monodispersity and dispersibility of the nanoparticles submitted to
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3 different synthetic steps. A detailed analysis of the DLS data and models used is provided in
4 the ESI. All samples presented in **Table 1** led to stable dispersions compatible with
5 monodisperse colloids showing $PDI < 0.1$ (Figures S6 and S7). In addition, the decay curves
6 of the autocorrelation functions (Figure S8) permit to rule out the presence of both large
7 aggregates and other relaxation processes. The polymer thickness, t_{pol} , was calculated from
8 the difference of core-brush NPs D_h in comparison to the SiO_2 -V NPs precursor. The PDI of
9 SiO_2 -V (0.054) was similar to as synthesized SiO_2 NPs (0.062). This is related to a low size
10 distribution of the dispersing entities in the suspension, and indicates that, after silanization,
11 the SiO_2 -V remained as individual particles.⁵⁹

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24 After PNIPAm photografting when core-brush NPs was obtained, the particles sizes and the
25 PDI value was similar to the ones of SiO_2 NPs, suggesting that the colloidal stability was
26 conserved and the formation of polydispersed aggregates did not take place (See **Table 1**,
27 PDI values). Moreover, we are able to relate directly the particle size increase due to the
28 polymeric layer grafting. Comparing the t_{pol} for different samples in **Table 1**, it was found
29 that PNIPAm layer thickness increased with higher NIPA concentration (see t_{pol} for samples
30 **a_B** vs. **A_B**) and the rise of N/VTES ratio (see t_{pol} for samples **C_B**, **B_B** and **A_B**). Considering
31 the mechanism in **Scheme S1** and the direct proportionality relationship between
32 polymerization rate and monomer concentration, it is reasonable to assume that this occurred
33 because a higher average molecular weight of the polymeric radical that binds to the double
34 bond (**Scheme S1-ii**) as well as by a faster propagation rate (**Scheme S1-iii**).⁶⁰ In addition, a
35 higher t_{pol} was observed when a lower proportion of photoinitiator (see t_{pol} sample **a_B** vs. **a_{B10}**)
36 was used. Moreover, the performance was improved when DMPA was selected instead of
37 BP (see t_{pol} sample **a_B** vs. **a_D**). It has been suggested that an excess of initiator tends to favor
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3 chain termination reactions, especially in case of the relatively stable ketyl radical (HO-
4 C(Ph₂)·), formed by an H abstraction by BP (type II photoinitiation).⁶¹ We hypothesize that
5 this fact, added to the great efficiency in radical formation by photo- unimolecular cleavage
6 (type I) mechanism of DMPA, could explain its better performance for polymer brushes
7 generation. Finally, when the best parameters were combined (sample A_D) the polymer layer
8 thickness was maximized. The t_{pol} value for this sample was 31 ± 5 nm, similar to the t_{pol} of
9 27.4 nm reported by Ketelson *et al.* in the case of methyl methacrylate (MMA) radical
10 polymerization on vinyltrimethoxysilane functionalized colloidal silica, performed through
11 thermal initiation.⁵⁶

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25 FTIR and TGA data were used to qualitative and quantitative techniques for detection of
26 presence of polybrushes. **Figure 1-iii** shows the DRIFTS spectra corresponding to SiO₂,
27 SiO₂-V and (SiO₂-V)-g-PNIPAm sample A_D, confirming the successful silanization process
28 and the hybrid core-brush preparation. As it can be seen in DRIFTS spectra for all the samples
29 main bands corresponded to the inorganic core: the wide band around 3800-3200 cm⁻¹
30 originated by adsorbed water and hydroxylated Si-OH groups stretching vibrations, the 1640
31 cm⁻¹ band attributed to OH groups flexing from the adsorbed water and the strong bands in
32 the 1200-800 cm⁻¹ region, attributed to the Si-O-Si vibrations. After silanization with VTES,
33 the characteristic bands of the anchored vinyl group were masked by silica core strong
34 vibrations and stretching and deformation vibrations of C-H bond (1550-1350 cm⁻¹), which
35 were originated by alkyl residues of non-hydrolyzed Si-OC₂H₅ groups during SiO₂ NPs
36 synthesis.⁶² After photografting, new bands appeared in the DRIFTS spectrum, which
37 confirms that PNIPAm was successfully grafted on the SiO₂-V surface. The signals due to
38 the PNIPAm aliphatic chain, -CH₂- symmetric and antisymmetric stretching modes, were
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3 distinguishable at 2929 and 2858 cm^{-1} . Moreover, the intensity of the 1500-1430 cm^{-1} band
4 assigned to C-H vibrations increase in comparison with the SiO_2 -V samples. In addition, an
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6 amide group C=O stretching at 1650 cm^{-1} was overlapped with the H_2O adsorbed band.
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8 Finally, the N-H bending vibration of the polymer's amide group at 1540 cm^{-1} , was clearly
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10 distinguished. A zoom of PNIPAm signals region is presented in **Figure 1-iv** for different
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12 synthesis conditions of the core-brush NPs. Besides, it was observed that its intensity changed
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14 markedly according to core-brush synthesis conditions for the four selected samples, being
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16 the sample **A_D** which presented higher intensity, in agreement with the DLS results that lead
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18 to thicker brush shells.
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25 In addition, the thermal properties of unmodified and silanized SiO_2 NPs and PNIPAm core-
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27 brush NPs were evaluated using TGA (see **Figure S1**). The weight loss observed for the
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29 unmodified SiO_2 heating from room temperature to 800 °C was around 10-15%, mainly due
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31 to the removal of water adsorbed to approximately 200 °C, and then by dehydroxylation
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33 processes of the Si-OH groups present in the structure of the silica core at $T > 400$ °C.⁵⁰ After
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35 the silanization of SiO_2 with VTES, the mass loss was higher, as expected, due to the
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37 functional groups immobilized on the surface, while the profile of mass loss did not show
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39 significant differences in comparison with bare silica NPs. In case of PNIPAm core-brush
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41 NPs, a second mass loss was observed starting around 200 °C, due to the progressive thermal
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43 decomposition of the organic content. This takes place in several closely related and non-
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45 distinguishable stages, making difficult to specifically assign them to the loss of polymer
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47 fragments such as monomers, dimers, etc. From 600 °C until the end of the assay, masses
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49 remain constant. The organic content of each system, as well as the organic content reached
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in each synthetic step were calculated taking into account the weight loss that occurs from 200 °C.

From TGA results and equations 1 and 2, the grafting percentage (%G) and the estimated number of functional groups anchored on the surface per unit area (N_{exp}) were estimated, for selected core-brush NPs. For SiO₂-V NPs, N_{exp} was 17.2; this high density of vinyl groups per unit area indicates that after the surface functionalization, multiple layers of vinylsilane were obtained, probably like polycondensate networks, a typical result in aqueous reaction media.⁶³ In **Table 2**, the values corresponding to the PNIPAm content reached for selected samples are presented. It can be seen that, when photopolymerization conditions were optimized, an increase in %G was achieved, which correlates very well with DLS and FTIR results. For the sample with highest polymer content, sample **A_D**, the %G value was 3.4, which corresponds to a N_{exp} of 8.2 NIPA molecules per nm². This surface density of grafted monomer units is in the same order of magnitude as that reported by Ketelson et al.⁵⁶ In summary, the best grafting conditions were obtained in the case of sample G, C_{NP} : 0.5%, molar ratio N/VTES: 40, type of initiator: DMPA, % Molar ratio i/N: 1.

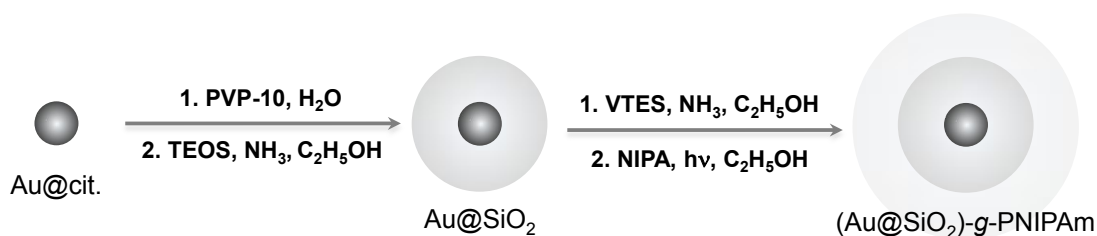
Table 2. Estimated number of surface grafted groups per area unit, N_{exp} , and grafting percentage, %G, calculated from TGA experiments.

Sample	%G	N_{exp} (nm ⁻²)
C_B	2.3	5.3
B_B	2.6	6.0
A_B	3.2	7.6
A_D	3.4	8.2

Core-shell-brush nanosystems preparation

Scheme 2 shows the synthetic methodology carried out for obtaining hybrid colloids with a plasmonic core. The synthesis of spherical gold NPs with diameter closer to 15 nm (Au NPs) was performed following the well-known Turkevich method based on the Au precursor reduction using sodium citrate.⁶⁴ For core-shell NPs preparation with dense silica layer, Au@SiO₂, the Au colloid was transferred into a typical Stöber medium, after citrate exchanging by the polymeric amphiphilic stabilizer PVP.⁶⁵ A post-synthesis solvothermal treatment was carried out at 60 °C, in order to achieving a higher consolidation degree of the silica structure and improve its stability against dissolution.

Subsequently, surface hybrid Au@SiO₂ NPs were functionalized with vinyl groups by a VTES silanization process similar to the one previously described. Finally, PNIPAm brushes were grafted on its surface according to the previously optimized methodology, using sample **A_D** conditions. This multi-stage synthesis allowed obtaining complex hybrid nanostructures as a stable colloidal system.



Scheme 2. Synthesis methodology of core-shell Au@SiO₂ and nanoparticles and core-shell-brush nanosystems, Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm.

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6 **Figure 2** shows TEM micrographs of hybrid NPs before and after PNIPAm brushes graft.
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8 For core-shell NPs containing a plasmonic core and dense silica shell (sample Au@SiO₂
9 **Figure 2-i**) monodispersity was observed, with an average total diameter of 74 ± 4 nm having
10 a single metallic core in approximately 70% of the NPs. After PNIPAm photopolymerization,
11 monodisperse particles with a double shell are clearly observed, (**Figure 2-ii**).

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18 In addition, **Figure 2.iii** presents the UV-vis spectra for the hybrid NPs at the different
19 synthesis steps mentioned before. The maximum attributed to the Localized Surface Plasmon
20 Resonance (LSPR) for citrate stabilized Au NPs was around 519 nm, as previously
21 reported.⁶⁴ In **Figure 2-iii** a change in λ_{max} was observed from 519 to 522 and 528 nm when
22 the Au NP being surrounded by citrate molecules, then by the PVP polymer and by the
23 compact silica shell, respectively. As previously mentioned, the LSPR band location varies
24 when modifying the immediate environment of plasmonic NP; specifically the absorbance
25 maximum, λ_{max} , experiences a slight bathochromic shift when the surrounding medium
26 refractive index is increased.³⁰ After performing the graft polymerization, λ_{max} did not
27 change. This result was attributed to the fact that a second hybrid layer on Au NP has much
28 less influence onto the plasmon resonance position, due to the longer distance to the
29 plasmonic surface. It is important to notice that, in all spectra, the plasmonic band conserves
30 the shape and wavelength range of the original Au NPs, indicating that the successive surface
31 modifications did not produce an extended aggregation of the colloid.
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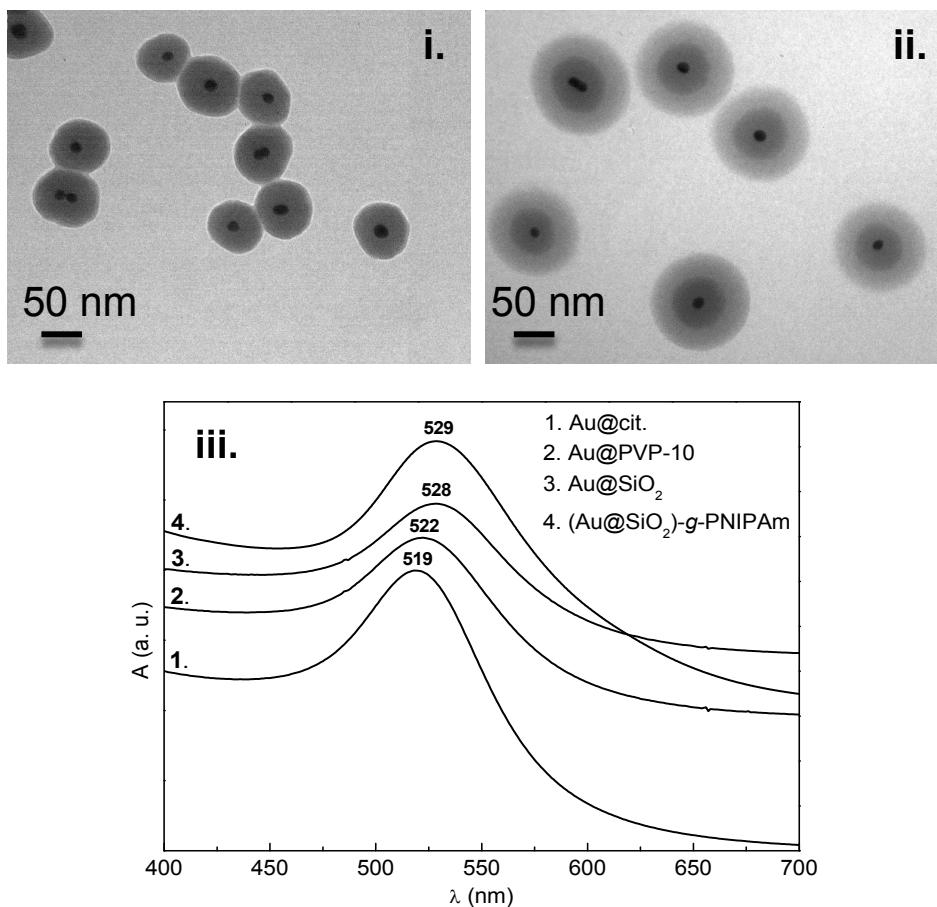


Figure 2. TEM images of NPs i. Au@SiO₂, ii. Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm and iii. UV-Vis spectra of Au NPs, Au@SiO₂ at different reactions steps, as indicated in the labels.

In addition, a luminescent silica shell can be prepared by adding tris(bipyridine)ruthenium(II), Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ in the Stober reaction mixture. **Figure S3** shows the steady-state emission spectrum of Au@SiO₂/Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ NPs and indicates that the complex has indeed been entrapped into the SiO₂ matrix during the formation of the shell. This behavior makes the nanosystems ideal for bioimaging or theranostics, opening a new gate for functional integration.

Thermo-responsiveness behavior

Thermosensitivity of the as-prepared complex hybrid nanosystems was investigated by performing DLS experiments.

At first, polymer thickness, t_{pol} was evaluated by DLS at extremes temperatures from PNIPAm LCST. **Figure 3** shows the t_{pol} results of aqueous colloidal suspensions for sample **A_D** and Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm at 10 and 40 °C. In both cases, when the temperature solution was lower than LCST (10 °C) the obtained t_{pol} was higher than when temperature was above the LCST (40 °C). This can be interpreted as a consequence of PNIPAm brushes collapsing due to the phase transition from a hydrophobic to a hydrophilic state in aqueous solution. A detailed analysis of the DLS experiments is provided in the ESI, Figures S6 and S7.

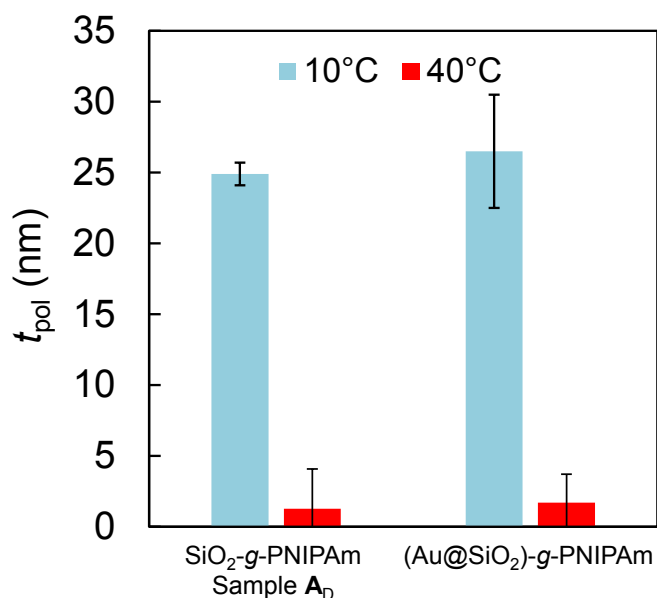


Figure 3. Polymer thickness (t_{pol}) studied by DLS below and above PNIPAm LCST for Sample **A_D** and Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm.

On the other hand, as it was mentioned in the introduction, the exposure of Au nanocarriers to an external light source leads to strong absorption at a specific wavelength, which is referred to as LSPR.^{10,66–68} In order to induce the PNIPAm thermo-responsiveness by efficient light absorption and fast heat conversion caused for Au LSPR excitation, a DLS experiment using sample Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm was performed coupling a commercial green LED lamp (5W λ =530 nm), as seen in **Figure 4-i**.

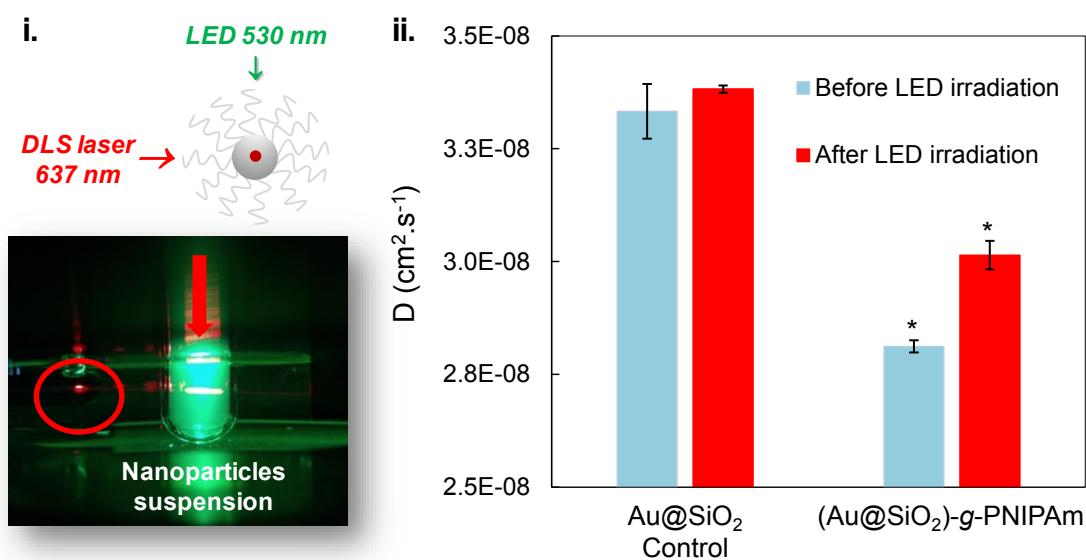


Figure 4. i. DLS experiment setup using sample Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm. ii. Diffusion coefficient obtained by DLS experiments before and after irradiation of Au@SiO₂ (control) and Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm colloid suspension with a commercial green LED lamp. The corresponding Autocorrelation functions (ACF) are presented in ESI, **Figure S8**. Statistical

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3 differences between groups were calculated by applying ANOVA and Tukey post test, $P <$
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5 0.05.
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8 The heat produced by LSPR irradiation was evaluated on a bare Au NPs colloidal suspension.
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10 An increase of around 6 °C from room temperature after 15 minutes of irradiation with a
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12 green LED was observed; this period was enough to appreciate a difference in the
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14 temperature effect between the dispersions containing or not Au NP species (See ESI **Table**
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16 **S1**). The same temperature increase was detected when Au@SiO₂ NPs colloidal suspension
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18 was irradiated under the same conditions, suggesting that the silica shell did not affect the
19
20 heat conversion. It is important to notice that, when water was irradiated a smaller
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22 temperature increment was sensed (2 °C), it means that the temperature rise on Au and
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24 Au@SiO₂ was a consequence of light absorption and fast heat conversion caused by Au
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26 LSPR excitation with the green commercial LED lamp employed.
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32 Afterwards, LED lamp irradiation was combined with DLS experiment. DLS is a technique
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34 that measures directly the diffusion coefficient (D_h) of colloidal particles from time intensity
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36 autocorrelation functions due to fluctuations of the scattered light in an observation volume.
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38 At constant temperature, as solvent's viscosity is fixed and the hydrodynamic radius of the
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40 dispersed colloids is easily obtained through the Stokes-Einstein relationship assuming a
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42 spherical shape:
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$$D = \frac{kT}{6\pi\eta r} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

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50 where k is Boltzmann constant, T is temperature, η is viscosity and r is the hydrodynamic
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52 ratio, **Eq. 3**. Hence, when Au@SiO₂ based NP are irradiated with green light, we should
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54 expect a temperature change of the surrounding solvent. In fact, Schaertl and Roos reported
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3 convection and thermodiffusion of Au NPs during DLS experiments but using a very high
4 power laser for plasmon absorption and scattering (Ar+ laser, 250 – 500 mW output power).⁶⁹
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6 Nonetheless, in our case, the light scattering autocorrelation function obtained for Au@SiO₂-
7 g-PNIPAm NPs fits a simple exponential decay, suggesting that thermoconvection can be
8 disregarded.
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15 As temperature measurement in the scattering volume proved to be highly problematic, we
16 decided to refer the hydrodynamic changes after LED irradiation to the diffusion coefficients
17 (D) of the particles, which is an unbiased measurement of a DLS experiment. Moreover, a
18 simple calculation in **Eq. 3** using the temperature dependence of the water viscosity and
19 assuming a constant hydrodynamic radius for an ideal nanoparticle, reveals that the
20 difference expected in the diffusion coefficients values for a $\Delta T=2^\circ\text{C}$ lies around 1% ($\eta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, 20^\circ\text{C}} = 1\text{ mPa s}$ and $\eta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, 22^\circ\text{C}} = 0,9544\text{ mPa s}$). When this temperature difference is increased
21 to $\Delta T=5^\circ\text{C}$, the change in the diffusion coefficients relation is now 1.1% ($\eta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, 22^\circ\text{C}} = 0,9544$
22 mPa s and $\eta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, 25^\circ\text{C}} = 0,8900\text{ mPa s}$). Clearly, temperature and solvent viscosity changes in
23 this range do not alter significantly the relation between the diffusion coefficients as long as
24 the particle size does not change. Thus, D was obtained before and after 15 minutes of LED
25 irradiation on Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm colloidal suspension. An Au@SiO₂ sample was
26 employed as control, which showed the same temperature increase, and in which it can be
27 safely assumed that no change in particle size takes place.
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49 The results obtained are presented in **Figure 4-ii**. For the control sample, even the
50 temperature increases around 6 °C, the diffusion coefficient did not present significant
51 differences after LED irradiation using Tukey's Multiple Comparison Test, $P < 0.05$. While,
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3 in case of sample Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm, diffusion coefficient increases after LED
4 irradiation. Taken into account the heating produced by LED irradiation and the diffusion
5 coefficient rise observed, we could assume that PNIPAm thermo-responsiveness was
6 activated producing smaller hydrodynamic ratio and as a consequence the particles presented
7 higher mobility and diffusion.
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15 After irradiation with the LED lamp, we observed a small variation in the hydrodynamic
16 diameter of the Au@SiO₂ NPs ($\Delta \sim 1.2$ nm, 118.5 ± 2.1 vs. 117.3 ± 0.7). However, this
17 difference is not statistically relevant as a Tukey test points. In contrast, when the same
18 treatment was applied to Au@SiO₂-g-PNIPAm NPs, a decrease in size of 9.3 nm ($140.4 \pm$
19 0.7 vs. 131.1 ± 1.5), can be considered a statistically significant difference. In this case, we
20 attribute this behavior to the contraction of the PNIPAm thermo-responsive external polymer
21 layer. This variation corresponds to a $\sim 6\%$ change of the total diameter of the NPs, but \sim
22 37% of the total contraction of the polymeric layer (see Figure 3, right). The latter is
23 consistent with the magnitude of the variation of the thickness of the polymer layer in the
24 temperature range increased by photothermal effect during the irradiation treatment (initial
25 T: 18.5°C and final T: 20.9°C); see thickness vs. temperature plots in Figure S3.
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45 **Conclusions**

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48 We report a reproducible and simple sequential one-pot method for obtaining core-shell-
49 brush nanosystems with light-induced size change through thermoplasmonics transduction.
50 This strategy is based in a controlled sequence of orthogonal processes in one-pot conditions:
51 precipitation, coating and radical photopolymerization, which allowed to synthesize hybrid
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3 nanosystems based on a monodisperse silica nanoparticle platform, to which surface
4 PNIPAm brushes are added. In order to maximize the polymeric layer thickness, the
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6 polymerization parameters were optimized on dense silica NPs, leading to a 15 nm thickness
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8 polymer layer that presented significant shrinkage upon heating above the LCST. The
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10 methodology was successfully transferred to PNIPAm brush grafting on plasmonic core-shell
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12 NPs with a gold core and dense silica layers, which preserved the system colloidal stability.
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14 For this three-layer nanosystem, we demonstrated that the thermo-responsiveness was
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16 efficiently induced by LSPR excitation through *in-situ* DLS measurements.
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22 It is also important to stress that we reported for the first time a new methodology for studying
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24 *in situ* the thermo-response activation by plasmonic irradiation. These light-remote
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26 controlled thermo-responsive hybrid nanosystems are composed of three modular
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28 components: Au (plasmon heating module), silica (stabilizes the metal and compatibilizes
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30 the surface chemistry), and PNIPAm brushes (thermo-responsive domain). In order to
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32 validate our findings, the light-to-heat induced shrinkage was evaluated using DLS under
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34 LED irradiation.
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39 As an outlook for future developments, the modular features of this kind of multilayered
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41 particles can be further exploited for the design of tunable nanosystems. All three modules
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43 can be modified at will to tune either the plasmonic excitation wavelength or the LCST. The
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45 silica middle layer can also be modified to include other functional groups, mesopores or
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47 fluorescent tracking species, as was demonstrated with $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$, opening the gate for
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49 bioimaging or theranostics. Although PNIPAm microgels have been exhaustively studied, it
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51 is important to notice that in this work the PNIPAm is integrated into a light-controllable
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53 nanosystem with an excellent colloidal stability and dispersibility. We anticipate that the
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3 versatility of this platform with photo-thermo-physical transduction has broad potential
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5 applications in smart drug or gene carriers, theranostics, and responsive bioscaffolds for
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7 tissue engineering or soft robotics.
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10 **Conflicts of interest**

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13 There are no conflicts to declare.
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23
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35 **Supporting Information.** Additional details on the methods used in this work that may be
36
37 of interest to specialists, including characterization techniques, a Supplementary Scheme and
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39 Supplementary Figures. This material is available free of charge *via* the Internet at
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41 <http://pubs.acs.org>.
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