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Oxidation-Sensitive Polymersomes Based on Amphiphilic Diblock Copolypeptoids

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KEYWORDS: polypeptoid; self-assembly; polymersome; oxidation-responsive;
light-responsive

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ABSTRACT

Stimuli-responsive polymersomes formed by amphiphilic block copolymers have attracted substantial attention as smart and robust containers for drug delivery and nano/micro-reactors. Bio-sourced amphiphilic diblock copolypeptoids were developed that can self-assemble into oxidation-responsive unilamellar vesicles. These vesicles can burst under the action of reactive oxygen species which can be the hydrogen peroxide, or the singlet oxygen produced by light-activation of photosensitizer with spatiotemporal control. Polysarcosine (PSar, also called poly(*N*-methyl glycine)) was selected as the hydrophilic block, due to its resistance to protein adsorption and low toxicity, similar to PEG. We designed and synthesized poly(*N*-3-(methylthio)propyl glycine) as the hydrophobic block. Its polyglycine backbone is the same as that of PSar, and especially its hydrophobic *N*-substituents, thioether side-chains, can be oxidized to hydrophilic sulfoxides. These oxidation-responsive polymersomes entirely based on *N*-substituted poly(amino acid)s were biocompatible as confirmed by cell viability tests, and may find applications in drug delivery, biosensing, biodetection, and nano-/micro-reactors.

INTRODUCTION

Polymersomes are stable and robust vesicles made of amphiphilic block copolymers.¹ Polymer chemistry enables almost unlimited molecular design of responsive polymersomes whose rupture upon environmental changes can be used for the controlled release of active substances. Moreover, targeted transport can be achieved by taking advantage of the many possibilities to end-functionalize the copolymers. Therefore, polymersomes are good candidates for carriers in drug delivery and bio-imaging, or for micro/nano-reactors to conduct sophisticated and cascade catalytic reactions.²⁻⁵ For the potential applications in drug delivery, controlled release of active species has been studied through the use of copolymers that respond to stimuli like reduction, oxidation, pH changes, temperature variation, shear stress, and light illumination.⁶⁻¹⁴ Among these stimuli, the reactive oxygen species (ROS) existing in high concentration within tumors and inflammatory tissues present special interests and have been used as effective triggers to develop oxidation-responsive polymer nanostructures for target-specific therapeutic delivery.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$), superoxide, and hydroxyl radicals are the most well studied ROS in cancer and inflammatory diseases.¹⁸⁻²¹ These ROS can also be generated easily with spatiotemporal control by *in situ* biochemical or photochemical reactions.²²⁻²³ For example, H_2O_2 can be produced by the glucose-oxidase(GOx)/glucose/oxygen system and can induce destabilization of oxidation-sensitive polymersomes.²⁴ $^1\text{O}_2$ and other ROS can be generated under light illumination through photosensitizers incorporated in polymersomes and can

eventually cause polymersome rupture and payload release.^{23, 25-26} Here, we report the ROS-activated bursting of polymersomes formed from the amphiphilic diblock copolypeptoids that are H₂O₂-sensitive and also engineered to be light-responsive by the incorporation of a photosensitizer.

The most common oxidation-sensitive polymers²⁷⁻²⁹ include sulfur-containing aliphatic polymers (polythioethers),³⁰⁻³³ selenium/tellurium-based polymers,³⁴⁻³⁵ aryl oxalate-containing polymers,³⁶ and phenylboronic ester-containing polymers.³⁷⁻³⁸ In recent years, there has been an emerging interest in polythioethers of both main-chain and side-chain types, such as main-chain poly(propylene sulfide) (PPS),³⁹ polyethylene glycol with pendent thioethers,⁴⁰ and polypeptides with pendent thioethers (poly(L-methionine) and *S*-substituted poly(L-cysteine)).⁴¹⁻⁴⁵ The hydrophobic thioether groups can be transformed into more polar sulfoxide or sulfone groups under the oxidation by ROS, leading to a significant increase of the water solubility of polymers. This solubility change results in a modification of the hydrophobic/hydrophilic balance of amphiphilic copolymers containing thioethers and causes the disassembly or dissolution of their polymersomes³⁹ or polymer micelles.^{44, 46} In the present work, a bio-sourced side-chain polythioether was synthesized as a polypeptoid with pendant *N*-substituted thioether (poly(*N*-3-(methylthio)propyl glycine, PMeSPG), and their amphiphilic block copolymer poly(*N*-3-(methylthio)propyl glycine)-*block*-polysarcosine (PMeSPG-*b*-PSar). PMeSPG-*b*-PSar was used to construct polymersomes responsive to ROS (Scheme 1).

Scheme 1. Synthesis of PMeSPG-*b*-PSar block copolymers and their self-assembly into polymersome.

Polypeptoids, as the derivatives of polypeptides without hydrogen on the amide groups, avoid the formation of intra- and intermolecular hydrogen bonds. Consequently, polypeptoids possess generally a random coil conformation in solution similar to common polymers and show much better solubility in organic solvents compared to polypeptides.⁴⁷ On the other hand, polypeptoids, similar to polypeptides, maintain good biocompatibility and biodegradability.⁴⁸⁻⁵² PMeSPG and PSar (also named as poly(*N*-methyl glycine)) have a shared polyglycine backbone with, respectively, methyl-*S*-propyl and methyl as the side chain substituting for the hydrogen on the nitrogen atom. These compounds show the common properties of polypeptoids. Moreover, PSar is a water soluble polypeptoid based on a natural amino acid, which has been investigated for biomedical applications.⁵³⁻⁵⁵ With good protein resistance,⁵⁶⁻⁵⁷ PSar is considered to be a potential alternative to poly(ethylene glycol)

(PEG).⁵⁸⁻⁵⁹ Thus, PSar and PMeSPG represent interesting and useful alternatives to PEG and poly(L-methionine)/poly(L-cysteine)/PPS as copolymer building blocks to prepare oxidation-responsive self-assemblies for controlled drug delivery applications. Up to now, reports of polymersomes based on polypeptoid-containing copolymers have been scarce.⁶⁰⁻⁶⁵ Here we report the first oxidation-responsive polymersomes made of amphiphilic block copolypeptoids. As a typical ROS, H₂O₂ is produced at a rate of 5 nmol per hour by ten thousand units of cancer cells.⁶⁶ The relatively high H₂O₂ concentration in tumor and inflammatory tissues has been utilized in targeted drug delivery studies.⁶⁷⁻⁶⁸ In our work, H₂O₂ was first employed to assess the oxidation-sensitive property of the polymersomes. A photosensitizer, tetraphenylporphyrin (TPP), was also introduced into the system of polymersomes, which generated *in situ* ROS under illumination of visible light, and provoked the rupture of polymersome. Our system may be useful in target-specific therapeutic delivery and in the combination of chemotherapy and photodynamic therapy (PDT).⁶⁹⁻⁷⁰ Other applications in biosensing, biodetection, and nano-/micro-reactors might be possible.

EXPERIMENTAL

Monomer, Homopolymer and Block-Copolymer Synthesis

To synthesize the *N*-substituted thioether-bearing glycine, MeSPG, the purchased D,L-methionine (Sigma Aldrich) was firstly decarboxylated by reflux at 195 °C with the catalysis of R-(–)-carvone and then with hydrochloric acid. The aqueous solution of

decarboxylated 3-(methylthio)propylamine (MeSPA) hydrochloride was then reacted with glyoxylic acid under reflux. The MeSPG hydrochloride was obtained after the removal of water. Sarcosine and MeSPG hydrochloride were, respectively, reacted with *S*-ethoxythiocarbonylmercaptoacetic acid (XAA), and followed by PBr₃-catalyzed cyclization, to obtain the monomers Sar-NTA and MeSPG-NTA. Homopolymerization of MeSPG-NTA was conducted in THF at 60 °C, initiated by benzylamine with a controlled feeding ratio. The block copolymers PMeSPG-*b*-PSar were synthesized by sequential ROP of MeSPG-NTA and Sar-NTA using benzylamine as initiator. The detailed procedures and characterizations are described in Supporting Information.

Vesicle Preparation

In nanoprecipitation method, typically, the copolymer was dissolved in 1 mL of DMF (at 0.5 wt %). A total of 2 mL of deionized milli-Q water was injected slowly to the organic solution under mild shaking (2–3 µL of water per minute to 1 mL of polymer solution). The process of nanoprecipitation was carried out at 25 °C. The turbid mixtures were then dialyzed against water for 3 days to remove DMF using a Spectra/Por regenerated cellulose membrane with a molecular weight cutoff (MWCO) of 3500. In double emulsion method, copolymer was firstly dissolved in chloroform at a concentration of 5 g/L, together with Nile Red at 0.05 g/L (if applicable). Water (10 µL) was added to 1 mL of the above solution. The mixture was then treated by the homogenizer ULTRA-TURRAX T25, at the rate of 20000 rpm for 5 min, to prepare W/O inverse emulsion. W/O emulsion (300 µL) was transferred to 3 mL water, and

dispersed by the homogenizer at 5000 rpm for 1 h. The obtained W/O/W double emulsion was heated at 50 °C with stirring (around 500 rpm) for 36 h to remove chloroform by evaporation, resulting in the vesicle sample with polymer concentration of 0.5 g/L. For the vesicle sample in D₂O for ¹H NMR analysis, the copolymer/chloroform solution was prepared at 50 g/L, and 400 μL heavy W/O emulsion was prepared and transferred to 2.5 mL heavy water (D₂O). About 2 mL vesicle-in-D₂O was finally obtained after chloroform evaporation, with concentration at 10 g/L. For photo-activated experiments, TPP/dioxane solution (in the case of ¹H NMR analysis) or TPP/THF solution (in the case of CLSM observation) was added to the vesicle samples (volume ratio of 1 : 100) to obtain the “vesicle + TPP” blend. The molar ratio was typically at [TPP] : [copolymer] = 2.00 : 1 and [TPP] : [MeSPG] = 1 : 30.

Cryo-Electronic Microscopy (cryo-EM)

Samples (5 μL) were deposited onto a 200 mesh holey copper grid (Ted Pella Inc., U.S.A.) and flash-frozen in liquid ethane cooled down at liquid nitrogen temperature. Cryo-EM images were then acquired on a JEOL 2200FS energy-filtered (20 eV) field emission gun electron microscope operating at 200 kV using a Gatan ssCCD 2048 × 2048 pixels.

Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CLSM)

For CLSM sample preparation, the coverslips were first treated with *N*-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS). The NHS esters grafted on the surface of coverslips can trap PMeSPG-*b*-PSar vesicles, through the reaction between NHS esters and amino groups at the end of PSar on the

polymersome surface. This allows the immobilization of polymersomes during microscopic analysis. A narrow chamber between a slide and a surface-modified coverslip was formed using two plastic paraffin film (Parafilm M) strips as spacers. The vesicle dispersion was introduced inside the chamber by capillarity. In oxidation experiments with H_2O_2 , H_2O_2 aqueous solution (10 μL , 35 mM) was added by capillarity to the chamber together with vesicle dispersion (30 μL) to obtain a mixture with a final H_2O_2 concentration at 8.8 mM. CLSM images were recorded with Leica TCS SP5 confocal scanning system equipped with a 63 $\times$ oil immersion objective. HeNe 543 nm laser (maximum working power at 1.5 mW) was employed as the excitation light to obtain the fluorescent images.

Cell Viability Test

Human vein endothelial cells and mouse embryonic fibroblast (NIH 3T3) cells were purchased from the Center for Typical Culture Collection, Chinese Academy of Sciences (Shanghai, China). Cells were maintained in high-glucose DMEM (Gibco), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sijiqing Co., Ltd., Hangzhou, China), 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ penicillin, and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ streptomycin, and cultured at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$ in a 5% CO_2 humidified environment. 1.0×10^4 cells were seeded in a 96-well plate and cultivated over night to allow cell attachment. The medium was replaced with fresh medium containing varying concentrations of polymersomes C2. After 24 h incubation, the cells were carefully washed with PBS and their viability was quantified using the MTT assay.⁷¹⁻⁷³ The viability of cells

1 treated with polymersomes-free medium was denoted as 100%. 4 replicates were used for cell
2 experiments.

3 4 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

5 **Synthesis of Oxidation-sensitive Homopolymer PMeSPG and Diblock Copolymer** 6 **PMeSPG-*b*-PSar**

7 As poly(amino acid)s, polypeptoids can be synthesized by solid phase synthesis,⁷⁴ ring
8 opening polymerization (ROP) of *N*-carboxyanhydrides (NCA),⁷⁵ and ROP of
9 *N*-thiocarboxyanhydride (NTA).⁷⁶ The *N*-substituted glycine *N*-thiocarboxyanhydrides
10 (NNTAs) have recently emerged as promising monomers for polypeptoid preparation
11 because they can be prepared in open air, have a long shelf life in an inert atmosphere, and
12 can conduct well-controlled polymerization.⁷⁷⁻⁸¹ In this work, the synthesis of a new NNTA
13 was introduced, as *N*-3-(methylthio)propyl glycine NTA (MeSPG-NTA) bearing an
14 oxidizable thioether group (Scheme 1). The *N*-substituted thioether-bearing glycine, MeSPG,
15 was firstly synthesized from the natural amino acid methionine, through a sequential one-pot
16 “decarboxylation–*N*-carboxymethylation” procedure (Scheme S1). We implemented this
17 method, for the first time, to transfer the substituting group R of the amino acid from the
18 *C*-substituted position (*C*-R) to the *N*-substituted position (*N*-R). A number of *N*-R glycines
19 can potentially be synthesized from natural amino acids using this approach. The monomers

MeSPG-NTA and sarcosine-NTA (Sar-NTA) were then prepared from MeSPG and sarcosine, respectively, as described previously (Section 3 in SI).⁷⁸

The homopolymer PMeSPG₈₄ was synthesized by benzylamine-initiated ring-opening polymerization of MeSPG-NTA (Scheme S2). The block copolymers PMeSPG-*b*-PSar were synthesized by feeding in sequence MeSPG-NTA and Sar-NTA in amine-initiated polymerizations (Scheme 1, more details in Section 4, SI).⁷⁹ The structures of the homopolymer and block copolymers were confirmed by NMR, SEC, and MALDI-TOF (Figure S2–S5). The compositions of two block copolymers PMeSPG₄₅-*b*-PSar₆₅ (C1) and PMeSPG₆₀-*b*-PSar₅₀ (C2) used in this study are summarized in Table S2.

We then investigated the thioether-to-sulfoxide modification of the homopolymer PMeSPG₈₄ under a simple oxidation by H₂O₂. As shown in Figure S11, ¹H NMR spectra of PMeSPG₈₄ before and after a 90-min treatment by 2.9 M H₂O₂ (10 wt%) (Section 7 in SI) indicated clearly the reaction from thioether to sulfoxide, in comparison with the spectra of polymethionine sulfoxides reported previously.⁸²

Nano-Polymersomes and Their Destruction by Oxidation

Two copolymers PMeSPG₄₅-*b*-PSar₆₅ (C1) and PMeSPG₆₀-*b*-PSar₅₀ (C2) (Table S2) were chosen for the preparation of polymersomes, since their hydrophilic weight ratios (41% and 29%, respectively) were favorable for vesicle formation.⁸³ Nanoscale vesicles of diameter of 100–250 nm, together with lamellae and spherical/cylindrical micelles, were obtained by

nanoprecipitation (Section 5 in SI). Figure 1A and Figure S6 show the images of cryogenic electronic microscopy (cryo-EM) of the C1 self-assemblies, where the process of vesicle formation was detectable with the semi-closed vesicle (as shown by the arrow). The C1 self-assemblies obtained by nanoprecipitation exhibited non-ergodic characteristics and some intermediate morphologies, like the semi-closed vesicle in the form of a pulled bag from the closure of the lamellae, were kinetically frozen (detailed discussion in Section 5, SI). The thickness of the hydrophobic part of the membrane was estimated to be 12 ± 1 nm, based on high-resolution cryo-EM image showing the electron-dense (darker) edges of the membrane. The contour length of the hydrophobic part (PMeSPG₄₅) was calculated as 17.6 nm using the MeSPG unit length of 3.9 Å obtained by modelling an oligomer of 8 repeat units after the MM2 energy minimization with the software Chem3D (Figure S8). We noted that the membrane thickness was much lower than the sum of the lengths of two stretched chains (35.2 nm). Therefore, the conformation of the hydrophobic chain PMeSPG should be coil-like in the membrane and the membrane has a unilamellar bilayer structure where the chain entanglement would be possible between two leaflets.

The C1 self-assemblies were then treated with 2.9 M H₂O₂ (10 wt%) (more details in Section 7, SI). After the treatment no vesicle was observed under cryo-EM. Instead, only a very few loose irregular clusters were detected (Figure 1B), which were probably the residues left by the oxidized vesicles. The oxidation of the C1 self-assemblies was also followed by the evolution of the count rates measured by dynamic light scattering (DLS) in kilo counts per

second (kcps). The count rates represent the scattering intensity and indicate the size and/or concentration of particles. The count rates decreased exponentially upon the addition of H_2O_2 with a characteristic time $\tau = 20.2$ min (Figure 1C). The decline in count rates can be explained by the decrease in the size and/or concentration of the self-assemblies. After a 60-min or longer treatment, the count rates decreased to less than 100 kcps, the limit below which the size measurement becomes unreliable. The evolution of count rates confirmed the disruption of vesicles and other self-assemblies upon oxidation by H_2O_2 . The variation of count rate was also analyzed with lower concentration of H_2O_2 , such as 8.8 mM and 88 mM (Figure S12). The count rates also declined along with the oxidation time, but more slowly with a characteristic time $\tau = 288.8$ min and 112.8 min for H_2O_2 concentration of 8.8 mM and 88 mM, respectively.

Figure 1. (A) Cryo-EM images of self-assemblies C1 obtained by nanoprecipitation before any treatment. (B) Self-assemblies C1 after 90-min of 2.9 M H_2O_2 (10 wt%) treatment. (C)

The evolution of count rates of self-assemblies C1 measured by DLS as a function of the time of treatment with 2.9 M H₂O₂. The symbols are the experimental points. The dashed line is the fit with the exponential decay function $c = c_{\max}e^{-t/\tau}$, where $c_{\max}$ is the maximum count rate at $t = 0$, and $\tau = 20.2$ min is the characteristic time for c to decrease to 36.8% of $c_{\max}$.

Giant Polymersomes and Their Destruction by Oxidation

To address in more detail the oxidation-responsive transformation of the vesicular morphology, we prepared micrometer-sized giant vesicles and then followed their disruption under the oxidation of H₂O₂ *in situ* using confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM). An emulsion-mediated approach through water-in-oil-in-water (W/O/W) double emulsion⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶ was employed to prepare giant vesicles (see SI and Figure S9). Both block copolymers C1 and C2 can form giant vesicles by this double emulsion method. As the vesicles obtained from C2 have larger sizes compared to those from C1, C2 was chosen to make giant polymersomes in the following studies for their easier optical observation by CLSM. The obtained polymersomes C2 had a wide size distribution from 0.5 to 20 μm in diameter (Figure 2A). The relatively small vesicles among them were trapped successfully in the sample grid by the rapid vitrification for cryo-EM imaging (Figure 2B and Figure S10). Their membrane thickness measured as around 12 nm, which is consistent with a unilamellar bilayer structure of amphiphilic block copolymer C2 as discussed above.

1 The sample of giant polymersomes labeled with Nile Red (1 wt%) was placed between a
2 slide and a surface-modified coverslip to observe the response of polymersomes to H₂O₂
3 oxidation under CLSM (more details in SI for CLSM experiments and surface treatment
4 procedure). The disruption of C2 vesicles was initiated by the addition of H₂O₂. Typically, 10
5 μL of 35 mM H₂O₂ (0.12 wt%) was added into 30 μL of polymersome dispersion (60 wt% of
6 copolymer), resulting in a final concentration of 8.8 mM for H₂O₂ (0.03 wt%) and a molar
7 ratio of [H₂O₂] : [MeSPG] = 3.62 : 1. We observed two pathways in the vesicle disruption.
8 Figure 2D and Movie S1 (in SI) present the pathway I^O (the superscript ^O indicate the trigger
9 is H₂O₂): the initial polymersome appears floppy with some slight membrane undulation; it
10 becomes well-rounded after 89 s of treatment; then the membrane fluctuates with more and
11 more turbulence and many pores appear on the vesicle surface, which finally leads to the
12 bursting of the polymersome. The whole procedure takes 4 min. The pathway II^O (Figure 2E
13 and Movie S2 in SI) also starts by the transformation from a floppy vesicle to a well-rounded
14 vesicle (achieved after around 282 s of H₂O₂ treatment), but is followed by the slow
15 shrinkage of the vesicle to a smaller size and outward budding in the final stage. The pathway
16 II^O takes a longer time than the pathway I^O, with over 13 min passing before the vesicle
17 shrinks out of focus. The change from undulating and floppy vesicle to well-rounded vesicle
18 in both pathways can be explained by the decrease of the membrane surface caused by the
19 first fraction of polymers changing from amphiphilic to water soluble upon the oxidation of
20 thioether to sulfoxide. It was noticed that the vesicle following the pathway II^O is not alone,

but some small solid particles sticking on its surface. These solid particles can play the role of the reservoir of initial copolymer PMeSPG-*b*-PSar to repair the pores left by the solubilized PMeSPG^O-*b*-PSar in the membrane, because they may present multilamellar structures and can only be attacked by H₂O₂ much more slowly. We interpret this behavior as a kind of self-healing process that is absent in the pathway I^O. This healing process may explain the more progressive reduction of the vesicle surface area and of the whole vesicle size in pathway II^O.

Figure 2. (A) Bright-field optical microscopy image of polymersomes C2 prepared by double emulsion method. (B) Cryo-EM image of small vesicles among polymersomes C2. (C) Fluorescence CLSM image of polymersomes C2 loaded with Nile Red. (D) and (E) CLSM recordings of the vesicle disruption under the action of 8.8 mM H₂O₂ with the molar ratio of [H₂O₂] : [MeSPG] = 3.62 : 1. Two different pathways are observed. (D) Pathway I^O: the vesicle turns first from an undulating and floppy vesicle to a well-rounded vesicle in the first

89 s, then the membrane starts to fluctuate more and more intensely and many pores appear around the vesicle surface (209 s) leading finally to vesicle bursting (225 s). (E) Pathway II^O: the vesicle changes first from an undulating and floppy vesicle to well-rounded vesicle in the first 282 s, but followed by the slow shrinkage of the vesicle to smaller size (example at 560 s) and outward budding in the final stage (754 s). Scale bar = 25 μm .

Figure 3. (A) The ratio of count rates α ($\alpha = (\text{count rates at the time } t)/(\text{count rate at } t = 0$ before H_2O_2 addition) of polymersomes C2 as a function of oxidation time t , at different

H₂O₂ concentrations (8.8 mM, 88 mM, and 880 mM). The symbols are the experimental points. The lines are the fits with the function $\alpha = (1 - \alpha_{\min})e^{-t/\tau} + \alpha_{\min}$, where $\alpha_{\min} = 0.215$ is the minimum count rate ratio when the copolymers are totally oxidized, leaving a few aggregates of Nile Red molecules, and τ is the characteristic time when $(\alpha - \alpha_{\min})$ declines to 36.8% of $(1 - \alpha_{\min})$. τ is 302.6 min, 70.6 min, and 7.4 min for H₂O₂ concentration at 8.8 mM, 88 mM, and 880 mM, respectively. (B) ¹H NMR spectra of polymersomes C2 obtained by double emulsion in D₂O in the presence of 176 mM H₂O₂ with the molar ratio of [H₂O₂] : [MeSPG] = 3.62 : 1. The photographs of the NMR sample tube beside the ¹H NMR spectra show clearly the turbidity change (from turbid to transparent) of the polymersome dispersion before and after oxidation. The logo is used with permission from Zhejiang University.

To confirm the chemical oxidation of copolymers under the conditions of CLSM observation, the analyses by DLS was performed for giant polymersomes C2 treated by 8.8 mM H₂O₂. The ratio of count rates α in Figure 3 represents the count rates at time t normalized with respect to count rates before H₂O₂ addition. The evolution of α as a function of time (Figure 3A, red curve) supported the tendency of concentration/size of the self-assemblies to decrease through the oxidation. We also examined the cases with higher H₂O₂ concentrations (88 mM and 880 mM). As shown in Figure 3A (blue and black curves), the value of α decreased more rapidly when treated with higher H₂O₂ concentration. The decay of α under each condition was fitted with an exponential function, giving the characteristic time τ of 302.6 min, 70.6

min, and 7.4 min for H₂O₂ concentration at 8.8 mM, 88 mM, and 880 mM, respectively. The polymersome oxidation was also followed by ¹H NMR. For this analysis, polymersomes C2 was prepared by double emulsion using deuterium oxide (D₂O) instead of water. The mixture of polymersomes C2 and H₂O₂ has a concentration of H₂O₂ at 176 mM, but with the molar ratio of [H₂O₂] : [copolymer] = 217 : 1, and of [H₂O₂] : [MeSPG] = 3.62 : 1 (the same molar ratio as used in CLSM experiment). The evolution of ¹H NMR spectra as a function of oxidation time is shown in Figure 3B (only the characteristic interval of chemical shift is displayed). In general, the intensities of many signals tended to increase with time, either because of the rise of mobility of polymers in the polymer assemblies upon oxidation such as the signal c and signal d, or because of the appearance of oxidized signals such as a^o, b^o and c^o. The signals assigned to the thioether eventually disappeared after sufficient oxidation time (here 12 h). The photographs of the NMR sample tube beside the ¹H NMR spectra show clearly the turbidity changes of the polymersome dispersion. After 12 h of H₂O₂ treatment, the initial turbid dispersion became transparent, confirming the transformation from giant vesicles to solution of free polymers or of tiny aggregates.

Light-Activated Bursting of Giant Polymersomes

Having successfully prepared oxidation-sensitive giant polymersomes, we then searched for a more controllable and more practical way to introduce the oxidation agents rather than the direct addition of H₂O₂. The generation of ROS such as singlet oxygen (¹O₂) can be triggered remotely and precisely by light. ¹O₂ transformed from the ground state triplet oxygen (³O₂)

upon light illumination has been reported to destabilize liposomes⁸⁷ and polymersomes.^{23, 25,}
In a few examples,^{23, 25} ROS thus produced reacted with thioether groups and provoked
the disassembly of polymersomes. The light-triggered rupture of polymersomes made of
PEG-*b*-PPS with a main-chain polythioether (poly(propylene sulfide)) has been shown to be
useful in precision intracellular delivery.²³ Here, we explored photo-activated rupture of
PMeSPG-*b*-PSar polymersomes by introducing photosensitizers into the system.

The giant polymersomes C2 obtained from double emulsion method were blended with the
photosensitizer, tetraphenylporphyrin (TPP).²⁵ TPP is a hydrophobic porphyrin, which emits
red fluorescence under visible light excitation and can be activated to transform dissolved
oxygen to ¹O₂. TPP has a strong absorption band with maximum at 419 nm (so called Soret
band) and four weak bands with maxima at 515, 550, 593 and 649 nm (so called Q-bands).⁹⁰
Visible lights and lasers in the Q-bands have been used frequently to activate the generation
of ¹O₂.²⁵ The mixture of polymersomes C2 and TPP was prepared by adding 10 μL TPP/THF
solution to 1 mL vesicle samples. As shown in Figure S13, the CLSM fluorescence image
confirmed that TPP molecules could attach on the surface of the polymersomes and might
enter by diffusion in the hydrophobic part of the membrane via hydrophobic interaction. The
evolution of ¹H NMR spectra was followed of polymersomes C2 loaded with TPP in D₂O (10
μL TPP/1,4-dioxane solution was added to 1 mL polymersome C2/D₂O sample, resulting in
the “vesicle + TPP” blend with the molar ratio of [TPP] : [MeSPG] = 1 : 30) as a function of
the illumination time under white LED light with irradiance of 500 mW/cm² (Figure S14).

The sample appearances in NMR tube before illumination and after 300 min of illumination are also shown in Figure S14. Similar to the case of giant polymersomes treated by H_2O_2 , the transformation from thioether to sulfoxide, triggered here by light in the presence of photosensitizer TPP, also led to the disassembly of giant polymersomes.

The *in situ* and real-time observation of the photo-activated polymersome opening was performed by CLSM using the light source of the microscope as both observation and activation tools. Giant polymersomes C2 labeled by Nile Red were first prepared and then mixed with TPP solubilized in a tiny volume of THF (10 μL TPP/THF was added to 1 mL polymersome C2/ D_2O sample, resulting in the “vesicle + TPP” blend with the molar ratio of $[\text{TPP}] : [\text{MeSPG}] = 1 : 30$). Figure 4B and Movie S3 (in SI) show the real-time evolution of vesicles until disruption was provoked by the confocal laser (543 nm) of the microscope, with the maximum working power of 1.5 mW. The two vesicles in the view were disrupted through two different pathways: the upper vesicle by pathway I^{L} and the lower one by pathway II^{L} (the superscript L indicates the trigger is light, to distinguish from that of O with H_2O_2 trigger in the previous section). In the pathway I^{L} , the vesicle size decreased slightly in the first 37 s, then the membrane fluctuated (until 118 s) and subsequently opened at the upper-right side with a micron-size pore and outward curling; the whole process of vesicle disassembly required around 6 min. In contrast, in the pathway II^{L} , the vesicle decreased its size continuously until its disappearance and the whole process lasted 14 min. The different ways of disruption could be explained by the different distribution of TPP in these vesicles. If

1 the distribution of TPP molecules around a vesicle was not homogeneous and more
2 concentrated in some places, high concentration of $^1\text{O}_2$ could be generated by TPP in these
3 places, which transformed locally many amphiphilic copolymers to water soluble polymers.
4 The subsequent removal of the water soluble chains from the membrane was so substantial
5 and rapid that the big pores left could not be healed by decreasing the vesicle surface and
6 diameter. Eventually, the vesicle burst rapidly after only 118 s of illumination. This is the
7 case of the pathway I^L. In contrast, in the case of the pathway II^L, TPP should be distributed
8 more uniformly at the vesicle surface; copolymers in the membrane were oxidized and
9 withdrawn at a rather constant and slower rate. Consequently, the membrane had time to heal
10 the pores by decreasing its surface area, leading to the slow and progressive shrinking of the
11 vesicle (over 14 min).

Figure 4. (A) The schematic illustration of the disruption process of PMeSPG₆₀-*b*-PSar₅₀ (C2) polymersome by singlet oxygen generated from light-activated TPP. (B) Snapshots of the sequence of evolution of two polymersomes C2 labeled with Nile Red and loaded with TPP (the molar ratio of [TPP] : [MeSPG] = 1 : 30) under the illumination of the confocal laser (543 nm) of CLSM at the power of 1.5 mW. Two pathways are observed for the polymersome disruption. Scale bar = 25 μ m. (C) The CLSM images of a large area (I) before the observation and (II) after the observation of around 15 min with two focused spots marked by the circles as described in (B). The vesicles under the focus disappear, while those in other regions remain. Scale bar = 25 μ m.

The photo-activated bursting of polymersomes can also be controlled locally with the precision of micrometers. Figure 4D shows the CLSM images of a large area (I) before the observation and (II) after the observation of around 15 min with two focused spots marked by circles (conditions as described in Figure 4C). The vesicles under the focus area disappeared, while those in other regions remained. During the photo capture and video recording, these two focused regions received more laser dose and produced more ROS leading to the vesicle disruption. This observation suggests that the oxidation-responsive PMeSPG-*b*-PSar vesicles can be opened or destroyed selectively in a controllable way through the manipulation of laser irradiation.

Cell Viability Test

For the potential biomedical applications of PMeSPG-*b*-PSar polymersomes, we assessed their biocompatibility using cell viability test with MTT as the indicator. Two kinds of cells, human vein endothelial cells (ECs) and mouse embryonic fibroblast cells (MEFs), were incubated, respectively, with the polymersomes C2 obtained from double emulsion. Different concentrations of polymersomes such as 31.25, 62.50, 125.0, 250.0, 500.0 and 1000 µg/mL were tested. As presented by the histogram in Figure 5, the tested cells maintained the relative viability above 80% after 24 h of incubation, even with the polymersome suspension at a concentration as high as 1 mg/mL. These observations confirmed reliable biocompatibility of PMeSPG-*b*-PSar copolymers and their polymersomes.

Figure 5. Relative cell viability of polymersomes C2 obtained from double emulsion, for human vein endothelial cells (ECs) and mouse embryonic fibroblast cells (MEFs), after 24 h of incubation at 37 °C and at sample concentrations of 31.25, 62.50, 125.0, 250.0, 500.0 and 1000 µg/mL.

CONCLUSION

In this work, the synthesis of oxidation-responsive amphiphilic diblock copolypeptoids (PMeSPG-*b*-PSar) was presented using the ring opening polymerization of *N*-substituted glycine *N*-thiocarboxyanhydrides under mild conditions. The hydrophobic PMeSPG bearing thioether side-chains has the repeating unit transformed from methionine, an essential human amino acid, and can be transformed into hydrophilic poly(amino acid) with sulfoxide side-chains under the action of ROS generated chemically or photochemically. Polymersomes

were then prepared from PMeSPG-*b*-PSar using nanoprecipitation and double emulsion methods. We have shown that the polymersomes PMeSPG-*b*-PSar can be destroyed by H₂O₂ added in the aqueous dispersion in the time scale from several minutes to several hours. It was also demonstrated that with the aid of a photosensitizer the rupture of giant polymersomes can be triggered by light with high spatial and temporal precision. The light source from standard white lamps or visible light laser also allows broad applicability with standard laboratory equipment. The cell viability test on the polymersomes PMeSPG-*b*-PSar confirmed their biocompatibility for possible bio-related applications.

Even though the H₂O₂ concentration used here is on the order of millimole and greatly exceeds the micromolar level of H₂O₂ *in vivo*, encapsulation of oxidant-generating enzymes can be envisioned, such as glucose-, lactose-, or uric acid-oxidase,²² to produce *in situ* high concentration of H₂O₂ at the targeted sites where the corresponding substrate is present in sufficient quantity. For the light-sensitive vesicle rupture, with judicious choice of the photosensitizer, the light source can be extended to the near-infrared range. All these possibilities are very promising for controlled drug delivery without damaging surrounding cells or organelles. It will also be possible to combine chemotherapy and photodynamic therapy with the use of photosensitizers. These systems can also be used for the design of polymersome-based micro/nano-reactors, biosensors and biodetectors.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

1 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at

2 DOI:...

3 Materials and methods, experimental details, characterization data (PDF).

4 Videos of vesicle disruption under the stimuli of H₂O₂ or light irradiation (AVI).

5

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14 **Author Contributions**

15 M.-H.L., J.L. and Y.D. designed the research. Y.D. performed the research. H.C. and S.T.
16 contributed to the cryo-EM characterization. X.T. gave assistance in polymerization and

surface treatment of coverslips. F.C. synthesized the photosensitizer. M.-H.L. and Y.D. wrote the paper.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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1 Table of Contents

2 Oxidation-Sensitive Polymersomes Based on Amphiphilic Diblock Copolypeptoids

3 Amphiphilic diblock copolypeptoids with oxidation-responsive properties were synthesized,
4 which self-assembled into unilamellar vesicles. These vesicles can burst under the action of
5 reactive oxygen species (ROS) like the hydrogen peroxide, or the singlet oxygen produced by
6 light-activation of photosensitizer with spatiotemporal control.