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Lanthanide-Complex-Loaded Polymer Nanoparticles for Background-Free Single-Particle and Live-Cell Imaging

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ABSTRACT

Imaging single molecules and nanoparticles in complex biological media is highly challenging notably due to autofluorescence of cells and tissue. Lanthanides and lanthanide complexes, with their particularly long luminescence lifetimes, offer the possibility to perform time-gated imaging and thus to strongly reduce the autofluorescence background. However, their very low brightness and photon flux have limited their use in single molecule imaging. Here, we encapsulate high amounts of Europium complexes into poly(methyl methacrylate) based particles of 10, 20, and 30 nm size. The resulting particles contain up to 5000 copies of the complex with quantum yield ≥ 0.2 , resulting in a per particle brightness of up to $4 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$. They can be imaged at the single particle level using low illumination intensities (0.24 W cm^{-2}) and low acquisition times (300 ms) and internalize well into living cells, where they can be monitored through time-gated imaging at illumination conditions compatible with living specimen. These Eu-complex loaded NPs can thus be applied for highly sensitive and autofluorescence-free imaging and have the potential to become very performant probes for fast intra-cellular tracking for single biomolecules.

The field of luminescent nanoparticles (NPs)^{1,2} for bioimaging and sensing is in constant expansion and emerging NPs, such as semiconductor quantum dots,^{3,4} upconverting NPs,⁵⁻⁸ graphene or carbon dots,^{9,10} lanthanide nanoparticles,¹¹⁻¹³ organic nanoparticles based on dyes and polymers,¹⁴⁻¹⁸ and nanodiamonds,^{19,20} have significantly advanced the versatility and capabilities of bioimaging applications. Detection and tracking of NPs, especially at the single-particle level, remain, however, challenging and often require very high illumination power and sensitive detectors to observe the particles in the presence of autofluorescence of cells and tissues.⁶ Indeed, various compounds inherently present in cells or tissues, including aromatic amino acids, flavins and NAD(P)H, elastin, and porphyrins, and emitting in different wavelength regions, contribute an autofluorescence background over practically the entire visible spectrum.²¹ Very bright NP probes that can be imaged while suppressing cell autofluorescence would hence offer the possibility to significantly increase the signal to background ratio. They would thus be valuable probes for monitoring single biomolecules with unprecedented precision directly inside living cells and thus obtain a wealth of information on biological processes at the molecular level in real time.^{22,23}

Lanthanides have particularly long photoluminescence (PL) lifetimes, which offer the possibility to strongly reduce the autofluorescence background of living samples by time-gated (TG) imaging. Numerous studies have used inorganic lanthanide particles for immunodetection,²⁴⁻²⁶ or for imaging *in vitro*^{11,27-30} or in tissues and small animals.^{31,32} However, the low photon flux of long-lived lanthanide PL (PL decay times up to ms)¹² has strongly limited their use in single particle imaging.^{26,33-35} Imaging of single lanthanide particles requires NIR irradiance power in the order of 10^3 - 10^6 W cm⁻²,^{6,33,34} which can cause high phototoxicity,³⁶ or extremely long exposure times (30s),²⁶ which are not compatible with single molecule dynamics.

In the case of fluorescent dyes, the limits of brightness can be overcome by so called dye-doped or dye-loaded polymer NPs.^{16,18,37-39} Encapsulation of large amounts of fluorescent dyes in these NPs allows exceeding largely the brightness of fluorescent proteins or quantum dots (up to 100-fold), while the NPs are compatible with cellular imaging.⁴⁰⁻⁴² Application of this approach to lanthanide compounds would thus offer the possibility to combine high signal with suppression of the autofluorescence background, but remains largely unexplored, especially in view of high loadings, which are needed to achieve high absorbance.⁴³⁻⁴⁷ Indeed, attempts to directly load high amounts of Ln complexes either led to significant quenching of the PL intensity or to leakage and instability of the resulting NPs.^{48,49} This was either due to insufficient retention of the complexes in the host polymer or to the formation of clusters of complexes. In consequence, most Ln complex loaded polymer NPs are limited with respect to their loadings and often an optimum loading of about 2 wt% was used.^{45,49-53} Particularly interesting candidates for encapsulation are lanthanide complexes (chelates or cryptates), which provide much higher absorption cross sections and PL quantum yields than the pure lanthanide ions and have been used in many biosensing applications.^{12,54} Loading of high amounts of these bright lanthanide complexes with long PL lifetimes into small polymeric NPs has the potential to extend NP-based PL imaging to challenging biological samples (e.g., tissues) with high intrinsic autofluorescence through the use of TG. In this work, we demonstrate that single-particle and live-cell imaging of small polymer-NPs (down to 10 nm) loaded with lanthanide complexes can be performed with short acquisition times and low irradiation power (Figure 1). Our proof-of-concept study demonstrates the possibility to extend lanthanide-NP imaging toward single-particle tracking, and thus their potential as probes for the investigation of cellular and molecular dynamics.

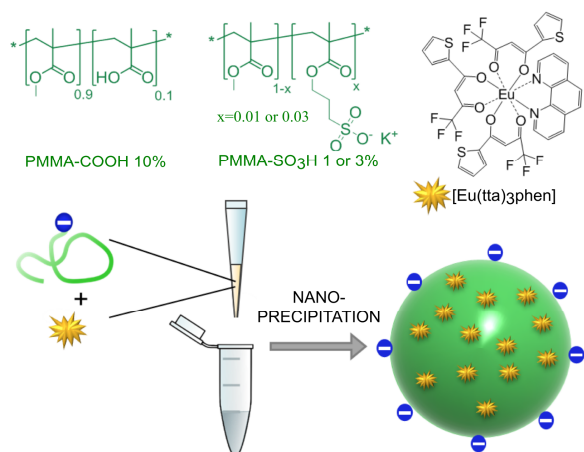


Figure 1. Chemical structures of the polymers and the lanthanide complex used in this study, and schematic representation of the synthesis of Europium-complex-loaded polymer-NPs (ECP-NPs).

Results and Discussion

Europium-complex-loaded polymer-NPs (ECP-NPs) were prepared through nanoprecipitation of acetonitrile solutions containing the Eu^{3+} -complex and methylmethacrylate based copolymers (PMMA) bearing sulfonate (1 and 3 mol%) or carboxylate (10 mol%) groups in water (Figure 1). The charged groups were introduced during polymerization to reduce and control the size of the particles.^{55,56} We encapsulated 1 to 40 wt% (relative to the polymer) of $\text{Eu}(\text{tta})_3\text{phen}$ (Eu^{3+} surrounded by three [4,4,4-trifluoro-1-(2-thienyl)-1,3-butanedionate] and 1,10-phenantroline ligands)⁵⁷ inside the NPs. This resulted in three series of ECP-NPs with mean diameters as obtained from transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of ~30 nm, ~20 nm, and ~10 nm for PMMA-COOH 10%, PMMA-SO₃H 1%, and PMMA-SO₃H 3%, respectively (Figure 2). Particle sizes slightly increased with increasing $\text{Eu}(\text{tta})_3\text{phen}$ loading. At the highest loading of 40 wt% $\text{Eu}(\text{tta})_3\text{phen}$, TEM showed spherical NPs with sizes of 13, 23, and 34 nm, respectively, and relatively narrow size distributions (Figure 2B). Especially in view of their future use as labels for intracellular imaging small sizes are important.^{56,58} The smallest ECP-NPs obtained here have sizes of the order of those of antibodies, which makes them particularly attractive as labels for single biomolecules. Encapsulation of the Eu^{3+} -complex was confirmed by the higher contrast of the loaded NPs in TEM (Figure S1).

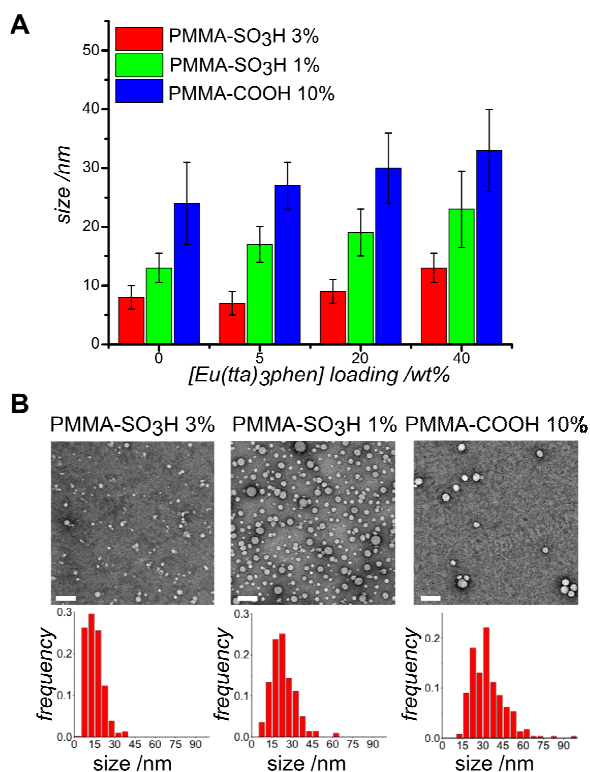


Figure 2. (A) Size measurements of ECP-NPs by TEM. NPs of PMMA-SO₃H 1% and 3% and PMMA-COOH 10% were loaded with different amounts of [Eu(tta)₃phen]. Sizes are mean values over at least 200 particles; error bars correspond to width at half maximum of the size distributions. (B) TEM images and size distribution of NPs at 40 wt% [Eu(tta)₃phen] loading made from different polymers. Scale bars correspond to 100 nm. At least 100 NPs were analyzed per condition.

We then characterized the photophysical properties of these ECP-NPs. Their absorption showed no spectral variations (compared to Eu(tta)₃phen in organic solution) and the absorbance increased with Eu(tta)₃phen loading (Figure S2). ECP-NP emission spectra clearly showed the Eu(tta)₃phen characteristics with intense PL of the hypersensitive ⁵D₀ → ⁷F₂ transition of Eu³⁺ between 610 and 630 nm (Figures 3A, and S2).⁵⁹ PL quantum yields (QY) in water increased with Eu(tta)₃phen loading and reached a maximum of ~0.25 at around 20 wt% (Figures 3B). QYs were highest in

PMMA-SO₃H 1%, followed by PMMA-SO₃H 3%, and PMMA-COOH 10%. The bi-exponential PL decays of ECP-NPs indicated two distinct populations of Eu(tta)₃phen inside the NPs (Figure 3C, Table 1). The shorter decay time ($\tau_1 = 0.54 \pm 0.02$ ms) was in the same range as for Eu(tta)₃phen in acetonitrile ($\tau = 0.63$ ms) and therefore assigned to a population close to the surface of the NPs. The longer decay ($\tau_2 = 1.26 \pm 0.04$ ms) exceeded the lifetime of Eu(tta)₃phen measured in solid state ($\tau = 0.87$ ms)⁶⁰ and was therefore assigned to a population in the core of the NPs.

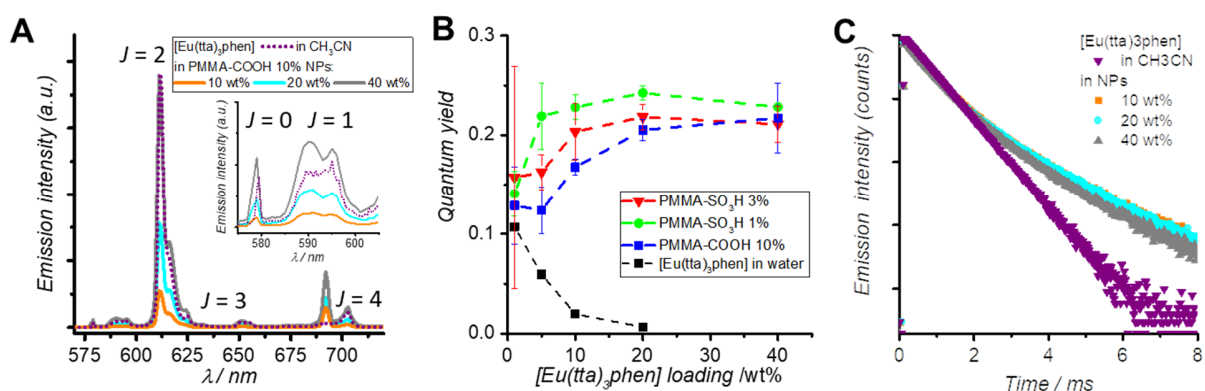


Figure 3. (A) Emission spectra ($\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 350$ nm) recorded in aqueous solution for PMMA COOH 10% NPs loaded with different amounts of [Eu(tta)₃phen], as well as of [Eu(tta)₃phen] in CH₃CN. *Inset:* Zoom on the $^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow ^7\text{F}_{J=0,1}$ transitions. (B) Photoluminescence quantum yields of ECP-NPs vs [Eu(tta)₃phen]-loading. Data points correspond to mean values from 3 independent measurements. Error bars correspond to SEM. ([Eu(tta)₃phen] in water at 40 wt% led to formation of sedimenting aggregates.) (C) Time-resolved emission decay profiles (r.t., $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 350$ nm) measured for solutions of [Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile and of PMMA COOH 10% NPs loaded with different amounts of [Eu(tta)₃phen]. Note: Log-scale for emission intensity.

These results indicate an efficient encapsulation of $\text{Eu}(\text{tta})_3\text{phen}$ in the polymer-NPs and a good protection of the Eu cations from water deactivation. Indeed, addition of $\text{Eu}(\text{tta})_3\text{phen}$ to water (in the absence of polymer) led to aggregation and thus a strong decrease in the absorbance together with QYs close to zero (Figure 3B). The influence of the nature of the polymer on the QY could stem from the differences in size of the resulting NPs, the number of charged groups, or their nature. No clear correlation with size was observed. At the same time, the QYs decreased with increasing fraction of charged groups on the polymer. These might hence interact with part of the complexes, as their concentrations lie in a similar range. The nature of the charged groups could also play a role, with carboxylates interacting more strongly with the complexes than sulfonates. The observed increase in QY with loading of the complex could be explained by a higher fraction of the complex encapsulated in the core of the NPs, which is characterized by a prolonged lifetime. The increase of the PL decay time upon encapsulation is of high interest for applications such as time-resolved microscopy or fluoroimmunoassays because it allows for a more efficient autofluorescence background suppression. Interestingly, practically no concentration quenching was observed for these complexes, at least up to 20 wt%. This results in a very high brightness of the obtained luminescent NPs: The PMMA-COOH 10% NPs of 34 nm encapsulate about 5,000 complexes per particle (based on NP size for 40 wt% loading) with a QY of 21%, yielding a brightness of $B = 0.21 \times 40,000 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1} \times 5,000 = 4.2 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ and a luminescence cross-section of $\sigma = 1.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$ (see *Methods* for calculations). For the PMMA-SO₃H 1% and 3% NPs the corresponding brightness is 1.2×10^7 and $0.34 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$, respectively. These differences are first of all due to the differences in size and the resulting variation of the number of complexes per particle. Indeed, dividing the particle brightness by the particle volume gives similar values of $(2100 \pm 200) \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1} \text{ nm}^{-3}$ for all three polymers. The brightness of our ECP-NPs thus largely

exceeds that of classical molecular fluorophores (of the order of $10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$) and even that of the brightest quantum dots (e.g. $7.4 \cdot 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ for QDot 625 from Invitrogen).

Table 1. Lifetimes of [Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile and of ECP-NPs in water (r.t, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 350 \text{ nm}$).

	τ_1		τ_2	
	<i>ms</i>	%	<i>ms</i>	%
[Eu(tta) ₃ phen] in CH ₃ CN	0.625	100	-	-
PMMA 10% - 10% [Eu(tta) ₃ phen]	0.524	50	1.301	50
PMMA 10% - 20% [Eu(tta) ₃ phen]	0.524	50	1.301	50
PMMA 10% - 40% [Eu(tta) ₃ phen]	0.553	65	1.218	34

Estimated errors: $\pm 10\%$ on lifetimes

Taking advantage of the exceptional brightness of our ECP-NPs, we assessed their performance for single-particle imaging, using both, continuous illumination (for photon counting) and TG imaging. For this very dilute solutions of the NPs were deposited on PEI treated glass or in PVA gels under conditions favoring immobilization as single particles.^{40,41} The NPs could be imaged at the single particle level using both imaging modes (Figure 4 and S3, S4): Using a set-up for photon-counting and steady state illumination allowed to determine the absolute brightness of the particles as 2.9×10^7 , 1.2×10^7 , and $0.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$, respectively for the 40 wt% PMMA-COOH 10%, PMMASO₃H 1%, and PMMASO₃H 3% particles ($\sigma = 1.1$, 0.48 , and $0.18 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$, respectively). These values are in reasonable agreement with the particle brightness obtained from spectroscopic data, and in line with their size and thus the number of encapsulated complexes per particle (see *Supporting Information* for details on calculations). In TG imaging (detection window

from 0.01 to 0.61 ms after pulsed excitation)⁶¹, efficient detection of single particles of all three types of ECP-NPs loaded with 40 wt% of Eu(tta)₃phen was accomplished with excitation power densities as low as 0.24 W cm⁻² and an impressively short total acquisition time (for lanthanide detection) of 666 ms (Figures 4, S3). The brightness of the particles in TG imaging also increased in the order PMMA-SO₃H 3% < PMMASO₃H 1% < PMMA-COOH 10%. It should be noted, that these results could be obtained on an imaging setup that used extremely low light doses in the sub- μ J/cm² range, which is several million times lower than found in conventional fluorescence imaging studies and thus avoids cytotoxic effects.¹¹ Besides being even brighter than QDs, the ECP-NPs have thus the distinct advantage that they are suitable for TG imaging down to the single particle level, which opens the way to suppression of autofluorescence background in cellular imaging.

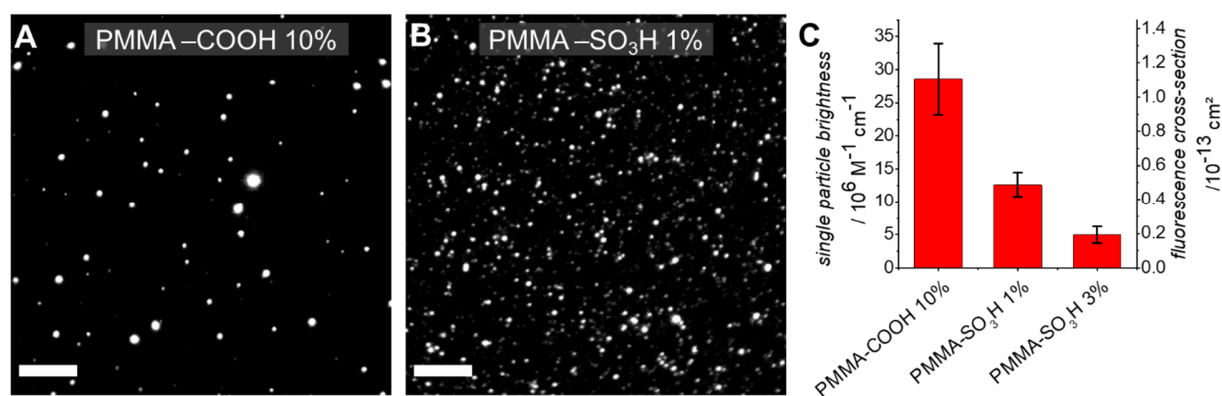


Figure 4. TG single-particle images of PMMA-COOH 10% (A) and PMMA-SO₃H 1% (B) at 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen] loading. Scale bars: 10 μ m. (C) Average single particle PL brightness in M⁻¹cm⁻¹ and their correspondence in luminescence cross-section as obtained from single particle microscopy. At least 100 particles were analyzed for each condition. Error bars correspond to SD.

Encouraged by the single-particle imaging capability of the ECP-NPs, we investigated their potential for live-cell imaging. For this purpose, the NPs were incubated for 3 h with HeLa cells and TG imaging was performed with a very low excitation power density of 0.24 W cm^{-2} , which is compatible with biological samples and 4 orders of magnitude lower compared to conventional lanthanide-based imaging.⁶² Figure 5 shows strong PL signals from endocytosed ECP-NPs, for both the sulfonate and the carboxylate based particles. Highest luminescence was observed for the PMMA-SO₃H 1% particles followed by PMMA-SO₃H 3% and PMMA-COOH 10% particles, which indicates the highest uptake efficiency for the former NPs. These differences indicate that sulfonate bearing NPs are more readily internalized than those bearing carboxylate. However, as size and NP concentration change at the same time, it is difficult to derive general relations. An acquisition time of 333 ms (0.01 ms delay, 0.6 ms gate, 100 gates/exposure), corresponding to acquisition times used in conventional imaging, was sufficient to clearly image our NPs inside cells. In order to better appreciate the localization of NPs inside the cells, PL and DIC images were overlaid and the intensity scale adapted according to the PL level (Figure 5C). In addition, TG imaging eliminates all autofluorescence, such that the experiments could be performed in complete cell culture medium (Figure S8). The intracellular position of the ECP-NPs was studied by optical sectioning of HeLa cells in Z-direction (Figure 5D, Supporting Movie 1), by imaging after different incubation times (Figure S9), and by costaining with LysoTracker (Figure S6). These experiments indicated that the ECP-NPs first adsorbed on the membrane and then were located in endosomes or lysosomes inside the cells. To investigate intracellular brightness as a function of Eu(tta)₃phen loading, cells were incubated with carboxylate polymer NPs at 40, 20, 10 and 5% doping ratio (Figure S7). At the highest loading ratio, PL intensities of the brightest points inside the cells exceeded 10,000 counts, whereas those at the lowest loading ratio still reached 1000

counts, confirming increasing luminescence intensity of the particles with increasing loading directly in the cells.

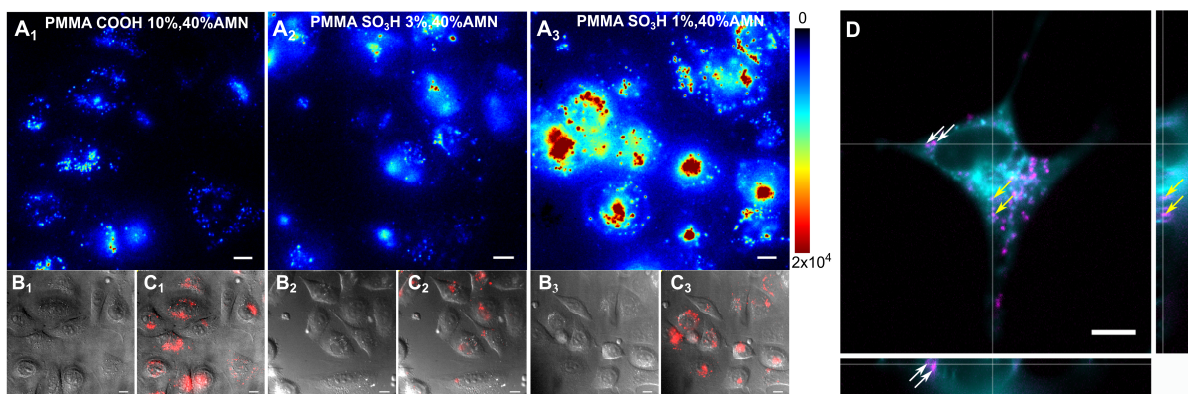


Figure 5. Live-cell images of HeLa cells incubated with ECP-NPs. (A) TG PL images with PMMA-COOH 10% (A₁), %, PMMA-SO₃H 3% (A₂), and PMMA-SO₃H 1% (A₃) NPs at 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen] loading. For a better comparison between the different images, the intensity scale was fixed at 0 to 2x10⁴ counts (B) Differential interference contrast (DIC) images. (C) Overlay of images from A and B (ECP-NP PL is shown in red, PL intensities were normalized to the highest values in A₁, A₂, and A₃, respectively). (D) Projections of a Z-stack of images of a HeLa cell incubated with ECP-NPs (PMMA-COOH 10% at 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen]) ECP-NPs are shown in magenta and the plasma membrane in turquoise (costained with DiD). Large image: x/y-optical section at 6 μm from the surface; small images are optical sections of cell along x and y axis of the z-stack with a x/z side view (bottom) and y/z side view (right). Lines in the images indicate positions of the sections, white and yellow arrows point to ECP-NPs in endosomes/lysosomes. Scale bars in all images: 10 μm.

To investigate a long-term effect of NPs on live cells, we controlled cell development within 7 days for cells incubated with NPs PMMA-SO₃H 3% at 20% [Eu(tta)₃phen] loading (Figure S10A).

The results showed no influence of the NPs on cell development. Furthermore, the presence of NPs was observed in cells even after 7 days post-incubation (Figure S10B), even though their luminescence decrease accordingly to cell division.

Conclusions

ECP-NPs with diameters of 10, 20, and 30 nm and up to 40 wt% of Eu-complex-loading were successfully assembled by nanoprecipitation. This corresponds to encapsulation of up to 5000 emitters per particle thus reaching very high absorbances. The ECP-NPs showed high PL QYs in water (up to 26%) and long PL decay times (up to 1.3 ms). High loading together with high QYs led to an exceptionally high brightness of more than $10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$. Together with their ms lifetimes this allowed us to use ECP-NPs for TG imaging at the single-particle level at low laser powers and short acquisition times. ECP-NPs were spontaneously endocytosed and detected by autofluorescence-free TG imaging inside live HeLa cells in the presence of whole culture medium. Our Eu-complex-doped polymer NPs particles successfully demonstrated that lanthanide-based NPs can be applied for highly sensitive and autofluorescence-free imaging using a standard wide-field fluorescence microscope and low excitation powers. Upon suitable functionalization they could thus be applied to label biomolecules and allow their imaging at the single-particle level with high spatial and temporal resolution, even in complex biological systems. The ECP-NPs presented here thus open a whole new field of high precision tracking of single biomolecules at low excitation light conditions inside living cells.

Methods

Materials.

Milli-Q water (Millipore) and acetonitrile ($\geq 99.9\%$, Sigma-Aldrich) were used for the preparation of NPs. CELLview petri dishes (35x10 mm, Greiner Bio-One, 627860), Nunclon Delta petri dishes (35x12 mm, Nunc, 150318), and LabTek II (8 well, Nunc, 155409) cell culture chambers were used for cell and single NP imaging. Polyethylenimine (PEI, 408727) and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, Sigma-Aldrich, 341584) were used to immobilize single NPs on the glass surface. Human cervical carcinoma (HeLa) cells were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (CCL-2). Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM, D6546), fetal bovine serum (FBS, F0804), antibiotics (Pen Strep, P4333), L-glutamine (G7513), trypsin-EDTA 0.05% (59417C) for cell culture were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Opti-MEM I reduced serum medium (1x, Gibco, 11058-021), Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS, Sigma-Aldrich, H6648), and fibronectin (Sigma-Aldrich, F1141) were used for cell imaging. DID probe (1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-tetramethylindodicarbocyanine, 4-chlorobenzenesulfonate salt, D7757, Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) and LysoTracker green DND-26 (ThermoFisher Scientific, L7526) were used for colocalization imaging.

Polymer synthesis:

Poly(methyl methacrylate)s bearing carboxylate groups at 10 mol% (PMMA-COOH 10%) and sulfonate groups at 1 or 3 mol% (PMMA-SO₃H 1 and 3%) were synthesized through copolymerization of methyl methacrylate (Sigma-Aldrich, M55909), with methacrylic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, 155721) or 3-sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt (Sigma-Aldrich, 251658), respectively, *via* radical polymerization at 70 °C using AIBN as initiator, and reprecipitated twice in methanol. PMMA-COOH 10%: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 3.60 (s, 3 H), 2.2 – 0.5 (m, 6

H). Molecular weight by GPC: $M_w = 35,200$, $M_w / M_n = 1.29$. PMMA-SO₃H: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆, δ): 3.97 (br. s, 0.02; 0.06 H), 3.57 (s, 3 H), 2.45 (m, partial covered by the solvent peak), 2.1 – 0.5 (m, 6 H). %. Molecular weight by GPC: 1%: $M_w = 51,200$, $M_w / M_n = 1.58$; 3%: $M_w = 106,600$, $M_w / M_n = 1.37$.

Preparation of nanoparticles.

Stock solutions of PMMA-COOH 10%, PMMA-SO₃H 1% and 3% were prepared at a concentration of 10 g L⁻¹ in acetonitrile. These solutions were diluted to 2 g L⁻¹ for PMMA-COOH 10% and PMMA-SO₃H 1% and to 1.2 g L⁻¹ for PMMA-SO₃H 3% in acetonitrile containing different amounts of [Eu(tta)₃phen] (0 to 40 wt% relative to the polymer). 50 µl of polymer solution was added in 450 µl of water with a micropipette under shaking at 21°C. Then the obtained suspension was quickly diluted fivefold in water.

Characterization of Nanoparticles

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM). 5 µl of nanoparticle solution at 40 µg.ml⁻¹ were deposited onto carbon-coated copper-rhodium electron microscopy grids following amylamine glow-discharge. They were then treated for 1 min with a 2% uranyl acetate solution for staining. The obtained grids were observed using a Philips CM120 TEM equipped with a LaB6 filament and operating at 100 kV. The acquisition of areas of interest was performed with a Peltier cooled CCD camera (Model 794, Gatan, Pleasanton, CA). Images were analyzed using Fiji software.

Spectroscopy. Absorption and emission spectra of NPs were recorded on a Cary 4000 Scan ultraviolet–visible spectrophotometer (Varian) and a FluoroMax-4 spectrofluorometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon) equipped with a thermostated cell compartment, respectively. The excitation wavelength was set to 345 nm and emission was recorded from 550 to 720 nm. QYs of the NPs were calculated using [Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile as reference (QY = 0.30, see below). For

[Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile UV-visible absorption spectra were recorded on a Specord 205 (Analytik Jena) spectrometer, while steady state emission and excitation spectra were recorded on a FLP920 spectrometer from Edinburgh Instrument working with a continuous 450W Xe lamp and a red sensitive Hamamatsu R928 photomultiplier in Peltier housing. All spectra were corrected for the instrumental functions. A 455 nm highpass filter was used to remove second order artifacts. Phosphorescence lifetimes were measured on the same instrument working in Multi-Channel-Scaling (MCS) mode and using a Xenon flash lamp as the excitation source. Errors on the PL lifetimes were estimated to ±10 %. PL quantum yields of [Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile were determined independently using an absolute method (QY= 0.32) on a Horiba Jobin Yvon Fluorolog 3 spectrometer equipped with a G8 integration sphere (GMP SA, Switzerland) and by comparison with a reference sample, [TbL(H₂O)] in water (QY = 0.31, λ_{exc} = 308 nm) as reference,⁶³ using optically diluted solutions (optical density < 0.05) and yielding QY = 0.28. Estimated errors on the PL quantum yields were ±15 % and the reported value for [Eu(tta)₃phen] in acetonitrile (0.30) was taken as the average of both methods. The particle brightness is then obtained as follows: The number of emitters can be calculated based on the wt% of encapsulated complexes and the mean particle size as obtained from TEM. Multiplication with the per complex extinction coefficient (40,000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ at 350 nm) and the QY yields then the brightness:

$$B = N \varepsilon QY$$

The fluorescence cross-section in cm² can be obtained by multiplying this value with 3.82x10⁻²¹.

Immobilization of ECP-NPs. The surface of CELLview petri dishes was treated overnight with 1 M NaOH. Then, the petri dish surface was extensively rinsed with ultrapure water and incubated with PEI solution (2 mg ml⁻¹ in 20 mM tris-buffer at pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl) at 37°C for 1.5 h

followed by rinsing with ultrapure water. Solutions of ECP-NPs in water at 40 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ were sonicated for 15 min and diluted in ultrapure water to 0.8 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ (for PMMA-SO₃H 1%, 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen]) or 0.4 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ (for PMMA-COOH 10%, 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen]). Petri dishes were incubated with NPs for 2 h, rinsed, and immersed in ultrapure water. PMMA-SO₃H 3%, 40% [Eu(tta)₃phen] NPs were also sonicated for 15 minutes and diluted to 2 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ in PVA at 15 % in water, heated to 70°C.

Cell culture

Cells were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin and 2 mM L-glutamine at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. The cells were passaged with trypsin-EDTA 0.05%.

Cell incubation with ECP-NPs. HeLa cells were seeded at 3×10^5 cells/dish in Nunclon Delta petri dishes and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO₂ overnight. The following day, ECP-NPs were sonicated for 15 min then mixed rapidly with Opti-MEM at 4 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$. Cells were washed with HBSS and incubated with ECP-NPs in Opti-MEM for 3 h at 37 °C, followed by rinsing with PBS. Cells were detached using trypsin and centrifuged for 5 min at 37°C and 1500 RPM. Cells were resuspended and seeded at 5×10^4 cell/well in LabTek chambers previously coated with fibronectin at 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$. Cells were incubated for 1 h then imaged at 37°C.

Costaining with DiD and LysoTracker. DiD was used for plasma membrane labeling of HeLa cells following 20 h incubation with ECP-NPs. First, cells were suspended using trypsin in 1 ml of complete culture medium. Then, DiD in DMF was added at the final concentration of 5 μM and gently mixed. Cells were incubated for 10 minutes at 37°C and 5% CO₂. In order to remove not incorporated DiD, cells were washed three times using centrifugation at 1500 rpm and 37°C for 5 min. After each spin, cells were resuspended in a fresh complete culture medium. For labeling of endosomes/lysosomes, HeLa cells were first incubated with ECP-NPs for 24h, then coincubated

with green LysoTracker in complete DMEM at 50 nM for 30 min. In both cases, cells were imaged in OptiMEM.

TG PL microscopy.

Single NP imaging and cell imaging were performed using a wide-field, inverted microscope (Olympus IX71) that uses a UV laser (349 nm, 300 Hz, Nd:YLF, Triton, Spectra Physics) for pulsed excitation and an intensified CCD camera (ICCD, PI-MAX3, Princeton Instruments) for TG detection. Laser irradiance on the sample was 0.24 W cm^{-2} corresponding to a UV light dose of $1 \mu\text{J cm}^{-2}$. The laser beam was redirected onto the sample with a 405 nm dichroic mirror (Di02-R405, Semrock Inc.). PL signals of ECP-NPs were collected with a high numerical aperture (NA=1.35) immersion oil objective (UPLSAPO 60xO, Olympus) and detected using a 605 nm bandpass filter (FF01-605/15-25, Semrock Inc.). Acquisition settings in Winview software controlling the camera were fixed at: delay time: 10 μs , gate width: 0.6 ms, gates/exposure: 200 (for single NP imaging) or 100 (for cell imaging) and intensifier gain of 100 V. DIC images were acquired with no delay time, gatewidth: 300 ms, gates/exposure: 1, accumulations: 10 and intensifier gain at 6 V. The background acquired on a bare substrate with the same acquisition settings (gating sequence, laser frequency) was subtracted from the raw images. For single NP imaging the mean intensities of circular regions of 6 pixels around the particles were measured for at least 200 particles and the background signal was subtracted. Zones with intensities above 4 times the mean per particle intensity were excluded from the analysis.

Details on steady-state and 3D imaging as well as on Photon counting can be found in the *Supporting Information*.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. The following files are available free of charge.

Supporting Information contains additional experimental details, as well as TEM images, absorption and emission spectra, and micrographs of single NPs and cells incubated with ECP-NPs (PDF).

The Supporting Video shows a scan through a cell after incubation with PMMA-COOH 10% NPs loaded with 40 wt% of [Eu(tta)₃phen] (AVI).

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