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1 Nanoparticles of Short Cationic Peptidopolysaccharide Self-
2 Assembled by Hydrogen Bonding with Antibacterial Effect against
3 Multi-Drug Resistant Bacteria

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1 **Abstract**

2 Cationic antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) and polymers are active against many multi-drug resistant (MDR)
3 bacteria but only a limited number of these compounds are in clinical use due to their unselective toxicity. The
4 typical strategy for achieving selective antibacterial efficacy with low mammalian cell toxicity is through
5 balancing the ratio of cationicity to hydrophobicity. Herein, we report a cationic nanoparticle self-assembled
6 from chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CSM5-K5) chains with ultra-low molecular weight (1450 Daltons) that
7 selectively kills bacteria. Further, hydrogen bonding rather than the typical hydrophobic interaction causes the
8 polymer chains to be aggregated together in water into small nanoparticles (with about 37nm hydrodynamic
9 radius) to concentrate the cationic charge of the lysine. When complexed with bacterial membrane, these
10 cationic nanoparticles synergistically cluster anionic membrane lipids and produce greater membrane
11 perturbation and antibacterial effect than would be achievable by the same quantity of charge if dispersed in
12 individual copolymer molecules in solution. The small zeta potential (+15 mV) and lack of hydrophobicity of
13 the nanoparticles impedes the insertion of the copolymer into the cell bilayer to improve biocompatibility. *In*
14 *vivo* study (using a murine excisional wound model) shows that CSM5-K5 suppresses the growth of
15 methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) bacteria by 4.0 orders of magnitude, an efficacy
16 comparable to that of the last resort MRSA antibiotic vancomycin; it is also non-inflammatory with little/no
17 activation of neutrophils (CD11b and Ly6G immune cells). This study demonstrates a promising new class
18 of cationic polymers -- short cationic peptidopolysaccharides -- that effectively attack MDR bacteria due to
19 the synergistic clustering of, rather than insertion into, bacterial anionic lipids by the concentrated polymers
20 in the resulting hydrogen bonding-stabilized cationic nanoparticles.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Drug-resistant bacterial infections challenge the efficacy of antibiotic therapies and result in major
3 healthcare-associated problems¹⁻². With the increasing number of multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacterial strains,
4 antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have become an attractive potential alternative form of therapy³. AMPs are
5 usually constituted of cationic and hydrophobic residues and primarily function somewhat like surfactants by
6 physically disrupting cellular membranes. In contrast to antibiotics, the frequency of bacterial AMP-resistance
7 emergence is typically very low³⁻⁴. However, poor biocompatibility is one of the major obstacles to the clinical
8 exploitation of the large number of characterized AMPs⁵. The interaction of AMPs with cellular membranes
9 typically involves the electrostatic attraction to anionic lipid head groups followed by peptide insertion into
10 the hydrophobic interior of membrane aided by its hydrophobic residues^{3,6}. Both leaflets of the cytoplasm
11 membrane of bacteria are rich in anionic lipids, such as phosphatidylglycerol, cardiolipin and
12 phosphatidylserine. On the other hand, the similar outer leaflet of cytoplasmic mammalian membranes is
13 composed mainly of zwitterionic lipids such as phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine or cholesterol
14 which are net neutral⁷⁻⁸. The differences in anionic charge of cytoplasmic membranes of bacterial cells
15 compared with mammalian cells, though small, may possibly be exploited for selective killing. On the other
16 hand, the hydrophobic component of these peptides facilitates the peptide insertion into the bacterial lipid
17 bilayer but results in non-selective toxicity. Tuning the hydrophobic to charge balance has been a common
18 strategy for improving the bactericidal efficacy of AMPs. However, the inability of many AMPs to
19 differentiate the subtle differences between the plasma membranes of mammalian cells from those of bacterial
20 cells is a major limitation to their clinical potential. Increasing biocompatibility of cationic antimicrobial
21 agents through alternative rational design is an attractive research agenda.

22 Cationic polymers, unlike sequence-dependent AMPs, have also been exploited as antibacterial agents
23 and they are usually more economical to make and are attractive materials for coatings, personal care
24 formulations, rinse, etc. Amongst these, chitosan (CS) has been extensively explored for antibacterial effect

1 since it is biocompatible and relatively cheap. Various cationic derivatives of chitosan based on quaternary
2 ammonium⁹⁻¹⁰, quaternary pyridinium¹¹, quaternary piperazinium¹², quaternary phosphonium¹³,
3 sulfonamide¹⁴ functional groups, *etc* have been made for improving antibacterial efficacy. However, the
4 antibacterial effects of these quaternized chitosan derivatives are also based on their charge and hydrophobicity.

5 On the other hand, chitosan is known to have strong intra-/inter-molecular hydrogen bonding, so that
6 suitably designed chitosan derivatives based on hydrogen bonding and cationic charge may offer an alternative
7 strategy for biocompatible antibacterial effect. Chitosan-*graft*-polycationic polymers have been demonstrated
8 to have good antimicrobial activities¹⁵⁻¹⁶. We have previously reported that medium molecular weight cationic
9 chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CS-K16) bromide salt has good antibacterial killing effect on some laboratory
10 bacterial strains with excellent non-hemolytic property¹⁷. To improve the toxicity of this class of compound
11 so that it may be applied for *in vivo* application, we postulate that ultrashort chitosan-*graft*-cationic peptides
12 may offer better biocompatibility since the charge differential between bacterial and mammalian cells is subtle.
13 However, lowering the molecular weight of cationic polymer reduces charge density which may possibly
14 result in sacrifice of the bactericidal effect and so that there is possibly a contradiction in this strategy of
15 toxicity reduction unless the shorter molecular weight molecule may be self-assembled into nanoparticles, as
16 the antimicrobial activity of nanoparticles were well-studied¹⁸. There has been numerous reports on short
17 AMPs¹⁹⁻²⁰ and lipopeptides²¹⁻²² that are antibacterial but there has been no reports yet of short
18 peptidopolysaccharides. Additionally, there has been also no demonstration of peptidopolysaccharides
19 efficacy towards multi-drug resistant (MDR) superbugs with *in vitro* nor *in vivo* models.

20 In this study, a short chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine chloride salt (Scheme 1) was synthesized via an optimized
21 procedure. The molecular weight of the copolymer was controlled to be around 1450 Daltons by pre-sonication
22 of the starting chitosan molecule and employing hydrochloric acid (HCl) for the post-polymerization
23 deprotection. From Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization –time of flight (MALDI-TOF) analysis, the
24 chemical structure of the polymer may be represented by CSM5-K5 (CSM denotes one chitosan monomer

1 repeat). We show that these short CSM5-K5 molecules self-assembled into nanoparticles because of strong
2 hydrogen bonding due to the chitosan chains²³ causing synergistic selective bacterial cell membrane damage²⁴.
3 We showed that CSM5-K5 chloride salt is bactericidal against methicillin- and oxacillin-resistant *S. aureus*
4 (MRSA and ORSA), and pathogenic strains of *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa*, with minimum inhibitory
5 concentrations of 16-64 μ /mL and hemolytic concentration (HC10) of greater than 5000 μ g/mL which is much
6 higher compared with the MIC values. We also showed that CSM5-K5 is effective at treating MRSA infections
7 in a murine excisional wound infection model and measured the neutrophils (CD11b and Ly6G immune cells)
8 activation. To characterize the nanoparticle solution properties (*i.e.* size, pH-responsiveness, proton sponge
9 effect and interaction forces), we applied light scattering, pH-potentiometric titrations, transmission electron
10 microscopy (TEM) and computer simulation. To show that CSM5-K5 is membrane active, we applied
11 membrane assays, confocal microscopy and cryo-TEM. To understand the interaction forces between
12 copolymer particles with bacterial membranes and compare CSM5-K5 with homo-polylysine, we applied
13 isothermal calorimetric titration (ITC) and molecular dynamics (MD) computer simulation.

14 15 **2. Results and Discussion**

16 **2.1. *In vitro* and *in vivo* antibacterial activities of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle**

17 Low molecular weight chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (**Scheme 1**) was synthesized via a multi-step reaction
18 involving the protection of chitosan (CS), N-carboxyanhydride (NCA) polymerization from the $-NH_2$ group
19 on the CS backbone followed by HCl deprotection (**Figure S1A**). The molecular weight of the resulting graft
20 polymer measured by MALDI-TOF was 1450 Daltons (**Figure S2**). The actual structure of the copolymer
21 molecule is likely to be CSM5-K n where there are 5 chitosan monomer (CSM) repeat units with a total of 'n'
22 lysine amino acids and 'n' ranges from 3 to 8 (the polymer shall be abbreviated hereafter just as CSM5-K5,
23 **Scheme 1**). The number/ weight-average molecular weights (M n /M w) of the polymer determined by GPC
24 was 3648Da/4084Da respectively (**Table 1 and Figure S3**).

1 CSM5-K5 is broad spectrum active against various bacterial strains (**Table 2**) including multi-drug
2 resistant (MDR) Gram-positive MRSA/ORSA and clinical MDR Gram-negative *E. coli* EC8739 and *P.*
3 *aeruginosa* PAD25 strains. The MICs against MRSA, ORSA, *E. coli* EC958 and *P. aeruginosa* PAD25 are
4 16, 16, 64 and 64 µg/mL, respectively, which are comparable with most published AMPs²⁵⁻²⁷. The
5 antimicrobial activity towards Gram-positive bacteria is slightly better compared with Gram-negative bacteria,
6 probably due to the barrier imposed by the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria which generally
7 restricts cationic hydrophilic molecules from trespassing. However, more hydrophobic cationic molecule
8 generally leads to better bacteria penetration but also more toxicity to mammalian cell.

9 The *in vivo* antimicrobial efficacy of CSM5-K5 against MRSA (BAA-40) was measured using a murine
10 excisional wound model. The CSM5-K5 treated wounds resulted in significantly lower MRSA bacteria
11 concentration. With a dosage of 2.5 mg/kg of CSM5-K5 applied to the murine wound, the MRSA burden has
12 a statistical significant lowering of 4.0 orders compared to that of the control without treatment, making it
13 comparable in efficacy to that with vancomycin which is a last resort antibiotic against MRSA (**Figure 1A**).
14 The immune response of the infected skin was also quantified by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS)
15 of Lymphocyte antigen 6 complex locus G6D (Ly6G) and CD11b immune cells (neutrophils)²⁸ (**Figure 1B**),
16 where Ly6G is a marker on the surface of neutrophils and may be used for neutrophil detection and
17 quantification, regardless of the cause for neutrophil increase²⁹; CD11b expression of wound tissues is a
18 marker for leukocytes such as monocytes, neutrophils, natural killer cells, granulocytes and macrophages. The
19 negative control group (*i.e.* wound without bacterial infection and without polymer addition) gives a 3.2%
20 activation of CD11b⁺ and Ly6G⁺ neutrophils, while the MRSA infection group gives 21% activation of
21 CD11b⁺ and Ly6G⁺ neutrophils, suggesting that inflammatory response is caused by bacteria infection. The
22 neutrophils activation were 13 % and 10% for vancomycin and CSM5-K5 respectively, showing statistically
23 insignificant difference between these 2 treatment groups. Comparing CSM5-K5 with the negative control,
24 there was significant activation of neutrophils (*p<0.1); however, as compared with infection control mice,

1 CSM5-K5 treated mice shows lower neutrophils activation suggesting CSM5-K5 reduces inflammation
2 compared with the untreated wound. (negative control is wound without bacterial infection and without
3 polymer addition.)

4 The *in vitro* cytotoxicity against 3T3 fibroblasts and human red blood cell hemolysis were also measured
5 (**Table S1**); the 3T3 cell viability with 100 µg/mL CSM5-K5 is 83.34% indicating good biocompatibility. The
6 CSM5-K5 copolymer has 10% hemolytic concentration (HC10) above 5000 µg/mL (1hr and 8hr treatment)
7 (**Table S1**) indicating that it is highly non-hemolytic compared to most AMPs³⁰⁻³¹. The *in vitro*
8 immunomodulatory ability of CSM5-K5 to prevent LPS/LTA-mediated activation of TLR4/TLR2 is proved
9 by measurement of pro-inflammatory cytokines secretion (IL-6, IL-8 and TNF-α)³² from cultured macrophage
10 cells. We see that LPS and CSM5-K5 both individually induce the secretion of IL-6, IL-8 and TNF-α secretion
11 by the macrophages (Figure 1C). With LPS mixed with CSM5-K5 at 1:1 weight ratio, the cytokines secretions
12 are lower compared with only LPS or CSM5-K5, suggesting that CSM5-K5 nanoparticle can suppress the
13 cytokines secretion caused by LPS, which is a common endotoxin found in bacterial infection.

14 For studying the importance of having chitosan backbone in the graft copolymer of CSM5-K5, a series
15 of linear poly(L-lysine) (denoted by K10, 20, 30, 40 and 100) were also synthesized via NCA polymerization
16 (**Figure S1B**). However, this series of homopolylysine (PK) without the chitosan backbone shows poor
17 bactericidal activity but has good fibroblast and human red blood cell compatibility (**Table 2, Table S1**).

19 **2.2. Nanoparticle Formation and Hydrogen Bonding Effect**

20 Using a Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) setup (where intensity changes with time), we can determine
21 the particle hydrodynamic radius (R_h) by first calculating the diffusion coefficient (D_T) from the measured
22 slope of decay rate (Γ) versus wave factor (q^2) (Figure 2A) and applying the Stokes-Einstein Equation (1):

$$23 \quad R_h = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta D_T} \quad \text{where} \quad D_T = \frac{\Delta\Gamma}{\Delta q^2} \quad (1)$$

24 (Γ is reciprocal of time; q is a function of angle and wavelength).

1 In an aqueous environment with neutral pH, CSM5-K5 copolymers aggregate into nanoparticles with R_h of
2 36.5 ± 3.5 nm, (**Figure 2A**).

3 From a Static Light Scattering (SLS) setup (where intensity is measured over a short time) to get the plot
4 of intensity reciprocal (I^{-1}) versus wave factor (q^2) and applying the Rayleigh-Debye-Zimm formulism³³, the
5 radius of gyration (R_g) of CSM5-K5 can be obtained; the R_g of CSM5-K5 is measured to be 42.7 ± 5.6 nm. The
6 aggregated molecular weight of CSM5-K5 is measured to be 4.03×10^5 g/mol using via a Zimm plot with
7 different polymer concentrations. (The calculation procedure of R_g and R_h follows those of references.³⁴⁻³⁵
8 The Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) analysis is presented in **Figure S5** and the calculated size distribution is
9 summarized in **Figure S6**). The nanoparticles are in equilibrium with individual polymer chains with R_h
10 smaller than 10 nm. The average radius of the polymer nanoparticle determined by TEM is 27.4 nm (**Figure**
11 **2B**), qualitatively corroborating the size distribution determined by light scattering. The dynamic light
12 scattering studies of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle were also done at different fluids to confirm the stability of the
13 nanoparticle (**Table S2**).

14 From the light scattering study, if the R_g/R_h is greater than 1, we can infer that the polymer forms a
15 Gaussian chain aggregation³⁴ (**Figure S4**). The CSM5-K5 has a R_g/R_h ratio of 1.17, as well as an average
16 aggregation number of 110 (**Figure S4**, Zimm Plot), indicating that our nanoparticle is probably a Gaussian
17 chain aggregation.³⁶ As the solution pH value was reduced below 3.5, the aggregates disappeared probably
18 due to increased repulsion of the more protonated CSM5-K5 and then only individual CSM5-K5 polymer
19 chains with R_h of 7.75 nm were detected by DLS (**Figure 2A**). In contrast, linear K100 does not aggregate in
20 solution but rather exists as individual polymer chains with hydrodynamic radius (R_h) less than 10 nm (**Figure**
21 **2A**, **Table 1**).

22 The circular dichroism (CD) spectra of CSM5-K5 and linear K100 in DI water were also measured
23 (**Figure S7**). CSM5-K5 exhibits a positive band appearing at 218 nm that resembles that of collagen³⁷⁻³⁸
24 suggesting aggregation of rigid rod-like chitosan backbone which corroborates the particle aggregation

1 detected by DLS.

2 Computer simulation was performed to understand the interaction forces causing the CSM5-K5
3 nanoparticle formation. The simulation shows that pairs of the CSM5-K5 copolymer molecules aggregate in
4 solution because of hydrogen bonding between two -NHC(=O) groups (**Figure 3A1 and A2; Figure S8A**),
5 as well as two -OH groups (**Figure 3A3**). It appears that dimerization maximizes the hydrogen bonding
6 interaction between 2 chitosan backbones and minimizes the energy of unfavorable side chain Kn-Kn contacts
7 (**Figure S8B, C**). The computer simulation corroborates the light scattering observation of nanoparticle
8 formation from CSM5-K5.

9 CSM5-K5 exists as nanoparticles because of hydrogen bonding between two -NHC(=O) , as well as
10 between two -OH groups on two chitosan backbones.

12 **2.3. Surface charge and proton sponge effect of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle**

13 pH-potentiometric titration of CSM5-K5 and linear K100 (**Figure S9A**) with pH varying from 12 to 2
14 were performed to track the protonation process. From the pH-potentiometric titration curve, the degree of
15 protonation (α) can be estimated from the plateau region of the conductivity curve (**Figure S9B**). The apparent
16 dissociation constant (pK_α) can also be calculated from the pH-potentiometric curves by the Henderson-
17 Hasselbalch equation (**Figure S9**).

18 The variation of the apparent dissociation constant (pK_α) with the degree of protonation (α) for both
19 CSM5-K5 and K100 is shown in **Figure 2C** and they are quite different. Unlike linear K100, CSM5-K5 is
20 only partially protonated: for example, at neutral pH, the latter is only 46 % protonated (**Figure S9A**). For the
21 linear K100, the apparent pK_α varies linearly with α , suggesting that protonation is a simple one-stage process
22 in which addition of H^+ leads to incremental protonation of the amine groups. In contrast, the plot of pK_α
23 against α for CSM5-K5 shows two regions, one (from pK_α of 13 to around 3) at the initial protonation stage
24 in which pK_α decreases rapidly with increasing α , and a second (for $\alpha > 0.6$, $\text{pK}_\alpha < 3$) regime in which the pK_α

1 change is much slower and the slope of $\Delta pK_a/\Delta\alpha$ becomes much more negative and similar to that of K100
2 (**Figure 2C**). This suggests that there are two mechanisms of protonation for the graft CSM5-K5 copolymer
3 compared to the linear K100 polymer³⁹⁻⁴⁰: in the first stage, H^+ enters the spaces between the polylysine side
4 chains and in the second stage, protonation of the amine groups on polylysine side chain occurs. At
5 physiological pH (around 7), the CSM5-K5 copolymer aggregates into nanoparticles which can absorb more
6 protons into the interior but when $pK_a < 3$, the free protons cause the sharp in the degree of protonation (α)
7 (**Figure 2C**); the absorption of protons by CSM5-K5 which is probably due to the branched cationic
8 copolymer structure makes it behave like a “proton sponge”³⁹. Additionally, the surface charges of CSM5-
9 K5 at different pH values were measured in water (**Figure S9C**); protonation of nanoparticle begins at the
10 basic pH of 9 indicated by a zeta potential of +15mV which increases to +26.5mV as pH decreases to 4 and
11 plateaus off, which is consistent with the pH-potentiometric trend (Figure S9B).

12 The surface charges of CSM5-K5 and linear K100 in PBS buffer solution (pH=7.4, *i.e.* physiological pH)
13 and DI water at 3 concentrations (1000, 100 and 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) were determined by zeta potential measurements
14 (**Figure 2D and Figure S9D**). In both media, CSM5-K5 copolymer possesses higher zeta potential than K100
15 (**Figure 2D**), indicating greater surface cationic charge. The zeta potential values, as well as particle size, in
16 PBS with the 2 higher concentrations were quite close to each other (Table S2), suggesting their stabilities
17 under these conditions. The difference in cationic surface charge may be attributable to the aggregated
18 structure of CSM-K5 nanoparticles and to its higher amine concentration density per unit mass. Based on the
19 pH-potentiometric titration, CSM5-K5 has about 2.6 times more amine groups on the polymer backbone than
20 linear K100 (0.121 mole/g versus 0.047 mole/g) (**Figure S9A and Table S3**). Since there are more amines on
21 CSM5-K5 and it tends to aggregate, whereas K100 remains in the form of individual polymer chains, the
22 overall surface charge density of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle is higher.

23 The “proton sponge” character with “free” protons within the nanoparticles, together with higher cationic
24 zeta potential (a surface charge measure), would favor the interaction of the copolymer with negatively

1 charged bacteria cell membrane compared to the linear K100 that lacks the “proton sponge” effect⁴¹. Upon
2 binding with the cytoplasm membrane, the excess protons can increase the local osmotic pressure, eventually
3 leading to membrane rupture⁴². This may be the cause for the higher potency of antimicrobial efficacies of
4 CSM5-K5 versus K100 (**Table S1**).

6 **2.4 Hydrogen bonding and electrostatic interaction between CSM5-K5 and bacterial membrane models**

7 To study the interaction of CSM5-K5 with different model membranes, we utilized Isothermal Titration
8 Calorimetry (ITC) (**Figure S10A, B, and C, Table 3**) and Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) (**Figure S11**).
9 Three kinds of liposome models were prepared (Table 3) to mimic the bacterial outer membrane (OM),
10 bacterial inner membrane (IM), and cytoplasmic membrane of human red blood cells respectively; specifically,
11 the liposomes were composed of POPC(4):LPS(1), POPC(4):POPG(1) and pure POPC⁴³ respectively. To
12 mimic the OM of Gram-negative bacteria *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa*, their respective LPS molecules were used.

13 For both the POPC:LPS and POPC:POPG liposomes, the ITC measurements show that their binding with
14 CSM5-K5 is favorable as the Gibbs energy change is negative (**Table 3**). (DLS shows increase of the
15 hydrodynamic diameter (R_h) of POPC:LPS and POPC:POPG liposomes after CSM5-K5 treatment (**Table S4**),
16 corroborating the ITC results indicating favorable interaction with CSM5-K5.) In contrast, pure POPC
17 liposome (mimicking human red blood cell membrane) titrated with CSM5-K5 shows no change in Gibbs
18 energy from ITC (**Figure S10B iv and C iv**) and no increase in hydrodynamic diameter from light scattering
19 (**Table S4 and Figure S11**), hence no interaction with CSM5-K5 copolymer.

20 The negative ΔH value for the bacterial OM and IM liposomes (Table 3, a-c) indicates that the interactions
21 are electrostatic-driven. Also, the lower affinity towards LPS from *P. aeruginosa* indicated by a smaller
22 association constant (K_A) suggests a possible explanation for the poorer bactericidal activity against *P.*
23 *aeruginosa* compared with *E. coli* (**Table 1**). The electrostatic basis of binding of CSM5-K5 with IM is also
24 consistent with positive zeta potential of CSM5-K5 (**Figure 2D**).

1 For the interaction of CSM5-K5 with POPC: LPS of *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa* (**Table 3, a-b**), the positive
2 ΔS indicates that the interaction between the bacterial OM and CSM5-K5 is also contributed by entropy
3 increase. The increase in entropy is probably caused by conformational change: expulsion of water molecules
4 at the lipid/water interface into the bulk surrounding water due to hydrogen bonding between saccharide-rich
5 LPS molecules and CSM5-K5.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁵

6 The interactions between CSM5-K5 nanoparticle and the bacterial inner membrane (IM) versus
7 mammalian cell membrane (MM) were also analyzed by computer simulation (see Methods). The CSM5-K5
8 nanoparticle comprised many copolymer molecules aggregated together but for simplicity, we modelled a
9 dimer of the CSM5-K5 copolymer. Compared with the MM-dimer system, binding in IM-dimer system was
10 stronger (**Figure 3B**) because of the large amount of negatively charged POPG in IM. The computer
11 simulation shows that the binding was driven initially by long-range electrostatic attraction between lysine
12 residues of the CSM5-K5 dimer and the PO_4^- head groups of IM, and further stabilized by H-bonds (also
13 between the lysine of CSM5-K5 and head groups of membranes) when contacts between the dimer and IM
14 were established; the predominant H-bonding interaction is with head groups of lipids, but some could reach
15 deeper to H-bond with carbonyl groups of lipids (**Figure 3C**).

16 We also compared the effect of different oligomerization forms of CSM5-K5 versus individual
17 homopolylysine (PK) chain on anionic lipid domain formation in the model inner bacterial membranes (*i.e.* a
18 POPC: POPG (4:1) mixture). We investigated 4 bacterial inner membrane(IM)-polycation systems: i) a control
19 without any polymers (IM); ii) IM interacting with two individually dispersed CSM5-K5 copolymers (IM-
20 2mon; where mon stands for monomeric form of CSM5-K5), iii) IM interacting with a dimer comprising 2 of
21 CSM5-K5 chains (IM-dimer); and iv) IM interacting with two individual PK chains (IM-2PK) (**Table S5** and
22 **Figure S12A, B, and C**). Based on the calculated lateral radial distribution function (**Figure 3D**), we see
23 spikes only in the IM-2mon and IM-dimer systems showing the CSM5-K5 individual chain as well as the
24 CSM5-K5 dimer cause the anionic POPG lipids to be concentrated into domains in these 2 systems compared

1 with the IM control and IM-2PK systems, indicating that the CSM5-K5 copolymer more favorably induces
2 POPG domain formation than the polylysine molecules. Although the IM-2PK system has 2 positive charge
3 centers, each belonging to one PK chain (**Figure S12B**), which are comparable to that in the IM-2mon system,
4 enrichment of POPG was lower than in the IM-2mon system. This is reasonable since positive charges grafted
5 around the chitosan backbone in the CSM5-K5 have a higher charge density than those involving PK which
6 is linear with charges more spread out. Further, the CSM5-K5 dimer exhibited a stronger propensity to gather
7 POPG into domains (with the highest spike in **Figure 3D**) than two individual CSM-K5 monomers, due to its
8 higher charge density and avoidance of competition between the two copolymer monomers (**Figure S12B**).
9 The much higher clustering of anionic POPG by CSM5-K5 corroborates that it kills bacteria by the carpet
10 model which is consistent to it not having the hydrophobic residues.

12 **2.5. Mechanistic studies with membrane assays, confocal microscopy and Cryo-TEM with bacteria**

13 To confirm the mechanism of the penetration of CSM5-K5 or K100 of bacteria cell membrane, membrane
14 assays with *1-N-phenyl*naphthylamine (NPN) and Adenosine Triphosphate (ATP) bioluminescence assay
15 were performed. NPN fluoresces inside a phospholipid bilayer but does not in solution and is used to probe
16 bacterial OM permeabilization. The sharp rise of NPN fluorescence intensity with CSM5-K5 (**Figure 4A**)
17 shows that it effectively permeabilizes the outer membrane (OM) of the Gram-negative *E. coli* K12 and to a
18 limited extent that of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (**Figure 4B**) but the linear K100 is ineffective for both bacteria
19 (**Figure 4A, B**). The ATP bioluminescence assays were performed (**Figure 4C, D**) to study the extent of
20 permeabilization into the bacterial inner membrane respectively. The intracellular ATP release test shows that
21 there were only increase of intracellular ATP detected, when both *E. coli* K12 and MRSA BAA-40 were treated
22 with polymer concentration greater than the MIC values (**Table 2**); suggesting the antimicrobial activity of
23 CSM5-K5 nanoparticle is strongly related to cytoplasm membrane interruption. Also, MRSA BAA-40 has a
24 more anionic cytoplasm membrane than *E. coli* and hence also a stronger interaction with CSM5-K5 as this

1 interaction is dominated by charge interaction (**Table 3**), and proved by stronger ATP release. Our computer
2 simulation shows that CSM5-K5 leads to anionic lipid clustering and this corroborates with the ATP
3 bioluminescence assays which indicates cytoplasm membrane interruption is the main antimicrobial
4 mechanism. Taken together, CSM5-K5 is membrane-active and is more effective than K100 in permeabilizing
5 the OM of *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* and the cytoplasm membrane (IM) of *E. coli* and *S. aureus*.

6 Super resolution STED microscopy experiment was performed on polymer-treated bacteria. Lissamine
7 rhodamine (Rho) B sulfonyl chloride fluorescent dye was used to label CSM5-K5 copolymer (**Figure S1C**)
8 to study the localization of the copolymer within different strains of bacteria. The MIC of Rho-CSM5-K5 was
9 tested to be similar to pristine CSM5-K5 (**Table S1**). Two Gram-positive bacteria (*E. faecalis* V583 and MRSA
10 BAA-40) and one Gram-negative strain (*E. coli* K12) were incubated for 1 hour with 50 µg/mL of rhodamine-
11 labeled CSM5-K5 (in red) and the plasma membrane was stained using FM1-43FX probe (in green). For the
12 three strains tested, we observed colocalization of the rhodamine-labeled CSM5-K5 with the bacteria
13 membrane as well as internalization of the polymer into the cell cytoplasm (**Figure 5**). The relative degrees
14 of internalization of CSM5-K5 among the three strains correlate well with the relative magnitudes of the MICs
15 (**Table 2**). MRSA BAA-40 showed the best copolymer uptake together with the best MIC of the three tested
16 bacteria, and the copolymer probably enters the disrupted membrane bacteria. Altogether, it is observed that
17 CSM5-K5 copolymer binds to the bacteria membrane and gets internalized into the cytoplasm.

18 Cryo-TEM was utilized to visualize nanoscale effects of CSM5-K5 copolymer on the IM of Gram-
19 positive MRSA BAA-40 at 1×, 2×, 4× and 8× MICs. Our discussion here is based on 8x MICs which are
20 representative of the images with other concentrations (**Figure S13**). Without treatment, the bacterial cell
21 membrane and cell wall are intact (**Figure 6A**); also, the cell wall is thin and of defined and regular thickness.
22 **Figure 6B** (red circle) shows that after treatment with CSM5-K5, large vesicle-like space formed between cell
23 membrane and cell wall, suggesting the separation of cell membrane from cell wall⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷. The vesicle may be
24 caused by permeabilization of cytoplasmic membrane by CSM5-K5, resulting in leakage and accumulation

1 outside the membrane of low density constituents from the cytoplasm⁴⁷. Also, the damaged cytoplasmic
2 membrane can separate from the cell wall during sample preparation⁴⁷. Membrane ripples were also observed
3 (**Figure 6C Blue circle**), suggesting cell membrane shrinking from the cell wall, due to leakage of cytoplasm
4 of dead bacteria⁴⁶ caused by CSM5-K5.

5 We also observed that in CSM5-K5 treated MRSA, the cell wall became irregular in thickness and
6 generally thicker; furthermore the septum growth and cell division were inhibited⁴⁸ (**Figure 6D Yellow circle**).
7 Further, in untreated cells, we found 17 Cryo-TEM images (out of 57 Cryo-TEM images taken) of cell division
8 whilst in treated cells, we found only 2 cases of cell division (out of 83 Cryo-TEM images taken). We
9 hypothesize that CSM5-K5 may be “mistaken” by bacterial cells to be lipid II as the former is similar in its
10 backbone to the latter and also contains lysine and so it may get incorporated into the cell wall which becomes
11 thicker⁴⁹. It also may bind to glycoltransferase⁵⁰. We postulate that cell division is impeded by CSM5-K5 due
12 to the thicker cell wall; this also has been reported for other systems⁵¹. Also, the disruption of cytoplasm
13 membrane may interrupt the cell division (**Figure 6D**) which requires invagination of the membrane⁵². Our
14 proposed hypothesis of cell membrane disruption leading to inhibition of cell growth has also been observed
15 with daptomycin which disrupts cytoplasmic membrane; in the cell wall synthesis pathway, the Lipid II needs
16 to bind to the MurJ flippase⁵² of Penicillin Binding Protein (PBP) anchored on IM but this process is
17 interrupted by the membrane disruption caused by daptomycin or CSM5-K5 preventing cell wall synthesis
18 and septum formation⁵³.

20 **2.6 Discussions**

21 CSM5-K5 is a unique short cationic peptidopolysaccharide that self-assembles into nanoparticles which
22 effectively kill various Gram-positive and Gram-negative MDR bacteria such as MRSA, VRE and pathogenic
23 *E. coli*. The membrane activity of CSM5-K5 was confirmed by Confocal microscopy and cryo-TEM, as well
24 as NPN membrane assay and ATPase assay with model bacterial membranes.

1 The CSM5-K5 chains self-assemble into nanoparticles (of around 36.5 nm in hydrodynamics radius) in
2 solutions as shown by DLS and TEM studies. The CSM5-K5 nanoparticles act to concentrate charges and
3 exert the “proton sponge” effect for effective bactericidal effect. Compared with individual CSM5-K5 chains,
4 the aggregated CSM5-K5 nanoparticles more easily lead to clustering and domain formation of the anionic
5 POPG lipids in the IM (that also contains zwitterionic lipids); this effect likely leads to bacterial membrane
6 phase boundary defects and increases membrane leakage⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵, which could be the first step of experimentally-
7 observed membrane disruption. The nanoparticles, rather than the individual molecules, collectively exert
8 their antibacterial effect mainly through electrostatic interaction between the copolymer lysine side chain and
9 head groups (PO_4^-) of bacterial lipids as shown by ITC and simulation results.

10 The two parts of CSM5-K5, *i.e.* the chitosan backbone and lysine side chain, work together synergistically
11 to achieve effective bactericidal activity: hydrogen bonding due to the chitosan backbone results in
12 aggregation into nanoparticles while the multiple lysine side chain of the aggregated nanoparticle causes
13 bacterial damage through electrostatic interaction. Hence, the good bactericidal activity of CSM5-K5 is due
14 to hydrogen bonding between chitosan chains and electrostatic interaction of lysine side chains with bacteria,
15 and not due to hydrophobic interaction as in most other AMP.

16 CSM5-K5 copolymer causes the bacteria cell wall to become thicker and cell division is retarded (possibly
17 due to thicker cell wall and membrane disruption). CSM5-K5 also causes separation between cell wall and
18 cytoplasmic membrane of bacteria⁵⁶, possibly contributing to the erratic growth of thicker bacteria cell wall,
19 and inhibition of cell division. The peptidoglycan mimic copolymer of CSM5-K5 has backbone structure
20 similar to Lipid II, the peptidoglycan precursor; it may be mistaken for Lipid II and participate in the synthesis
21 route of peptidoglycan cell wall of bacteria^{57,49} as an intermediate compound to cause thicker cell wall.

22 The CSM5-K5 MICs are generally similar or higher than those of other cationic chitosan derivatives or
23 antimicrobial peptides (**Table S6, Table S7**)^{25, 58-60}. However, though other cationic antimicrobial polymers
24 or chitosan derivatives have better MICs, they are also usually more cytotoxic to mammalian cells and/or more

1 hemolytic. Biocompatibility of these other cationic polymers are generally lower due to their constituent
2 hydrophobic components together with cationic charges. With CSM5-K5, the low molecular weight of the
3 single polymer chain is compensated by self-assembly of multiple chains leading to aggregated nanoparticles
4 which are the entities meeting the bacteria to kill them effectively.

5 The low molecular weight of CSM5-K5 makes its toxicity lower than most other reported cationic
6 chitosan derivatives, albeit its single molecule charge density may be lower⁵⁹⁻⁶². For example, Yu et al have
7 demonstrated that high molecular weight (Mw of 38.1kDa) poly(L-lysine-graft-chitosan) (PLL-g-Chi)
8 effectively complexes DNA and possibly acts as a Toll-Like Receptor 9 (TLR9) agonist⁶³. Compared with
9 their high molecular weight chitosan, our CSM5-K5 may not act so effectively for the gene transfer. However,
10 the toxicity of the naked PLL-gr-Chi towards mammalian cell may be high because of its high molecular
11 weight.

13 **3. Conclusion**

14 Short CSM5-K5 peptidopolysaccharide with only a few (about 5) repeats of chitosan monomer in the
15 backbone can effectively reduce the MRSA bacterial burden in a murine excisional wound model by 4.0 orders
16 of magnitude, and can eradicate clinically important MDR MRSA and Gram-negative *E. coli* and *P.*
17 *aeruginosa* in *in vitro* studies. CSM5-K5 spontaneously self-assembles in water and the consequent
18 concentration of multiple charged polymer chains in a single nanoparticle causes high localized charge density
19 and enhanced bactericidal activity. Hence, the good bactericidal activity of CSM5-K5 is due to hydrogen
20 bonding between chitosan chains and electrostatic interaction with bacteria, and not due to hydrophobic
21 interaction as in most other AMPs. When complexed with bacterial membrane, these highly charged
22 nanoparticles cluster anionic membrane lipids and result in greater membrane perturbation and antibacterial
23 effect than would be achievable by the same quantity of charge if dispersed in individual copolymer molecules
24 in solution. CSM5-K5 does not rely on membrane insertion for its kill mechanism – indeed its lack of

1 hydrophobic content makes such insertion energetically unfavorable – and so by design it is intrinsically more
2 biocompatible than agents which are able to insert into lipid bilayers. Due to its concentrated charge, it more
3 strongly interacts with anionic than zwitterionic membrane components and so, by design, more strongly
4 interacts with bacterial membrane than with mammalian membrane.

5 CSM5-K5 represents a novel approach to rational design of selective peptide-based antimicrobial
6 nanoparticles based totally on hydrogen bonding, rather than hydrophobic interaction, for particle assembly
7 and based on electrostatic interaction without bilayer insertion for membrane perturbation effects. This new
8 approach may accelerate the development of a wide range of next-generation membrane-targeting anti-
9 microbial therapies.

11 **Experimental Section**

12 **Materials**

13 Low molecular weight chitosan (200 KDa), N ϵ -benzyloxycarbonyl-L-lysine, triphosgene, ethyl acetate
14 (anhydrous), hexane, phthalic anhydride, triphenylchloromethane, hydrazine solution, hydrochloric acid (37
15 v/v% in water), hydrogen bromide (33% in acetic acid), *N,N*- dimethylformamide (DMF dried on CaH₂ and
16 freshly distilled before use), pyridine, trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), Lisamine rhodamine B sulfonyl chloride,
17 sodium hydroxide, Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (extracted from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 10 and *Escherichia*
18 *coli* 0111: B4), and vancomycin HCl salt were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Corp. 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-
19 glycerol-3-phosphocholine (POPC) and palmitoyl-oleoyl phosphatidylglycerol (POPG) were purchased from
20 Avanti Polar Lipid.

21
22 Bacteria: *S. aureus* strains ATCC 29213, MRSA BAA-40 and ORSA USA-300, *E. coli* strain ATCC 8739,
23 ATCC 25922 and *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica* ATCC 13076, and *Vibrio*

1 *parahaemolyticus* ATCC 17802 were obtained from the ATCC. *E. coli* K12 and *E. coli* W3110 were obtained
2 from laboratory stocks. MRSA 1-7 are clinical strains from Tan Tock Seng Hospital (TTSH); Pan-sensitive
3 strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PAES) and Pan-resistant strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PAER) were
4 clinical strains from Tan Tock Seng Hospital (TTSH) Singapore. *Enterococcus faecalis* OG1RF, V583, *E.*
5 *coli* UTI89, EC958, PTR3 were obtained from Singapore Center for Environmental and Life Sciences
6 (SCElse). Balb/C mice were obtained from InVivos, Singapore.

7 8 **Synthesis**

9 **Synthesis of N-Phthaloyl Chitosan** (Figure S1A): A mixture of chitosan (10 g, 55.86 mmol) and DMF
10 (anhydrous, 200 mL) was bath (preheated at 80 °C) sonicated for 1 hour. Then phthalic anhydride (27.6 g,
11 186.4 mmol) was added into the mixture and heated at 130 °C for 24 hours under argon atmosphere. Then
12 mixture was precipitated into distilled water and solid was collected by suction filtration. The solid was
13 washed multiple times with DI water, ethanol, acetone, respectively and dried overnight at 80 °C under vacuum.
14 The NMR analysis shows that >96% of chitosan amine groups are phthaloyl-protected. ¹H NMR (300 MHz)
15 (spectrum can be found in Supporting Information Synthesis Scheme S1) DMSO-D₆, 25°C: δ_H (ppm) 8-7.5
16 (m, 5H, phthalic) 5-3.5 (m, overlap, 7H chitosan backbone).

17 **Synthesis of N-Phthaloyl-6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan (3)**: To a solution of N-phthaloyl chitosan (14 g,
18 45.27 mmol) in anhydrous pyridine (250 mL) was added triphenylmethyl chloride (41.9 g, 150.3 mmol) at
19 room temperature under argon atmosphere. The solution was heated at 100 °C for 24 hours. Then mixture was
20 precipitated into distilled water and solid was collected by suction filtration. The solid was washed multiple
21 times with water, ethanol, acetone, respectively and dried overnight at 80 °C under vacuum. ¹H NMR
22 (300MHz) (Spectrum can be found in Supporting Information Synthesis Scheme S2) DMSO-D₆, 25°C: δ_H
23 (ppm) 8-7.5 (m, 5H, phthalic) 7.5-6.5 (m, 15H, trityl) 5-3.5 (m, overlap, 7H chitosan backbone). The NMR

1 analysis shows that >89% of 6-OH groups are trityl protected.

2 **Synthesis of 6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan (4):** A mixture of N-Phthaloyl-6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan (10
3 g) and hydrazine hydrate (200 mL, 50%wt solution) was heated at 100 °C for 24 h. The mixture was cooled,
4 diluted with distilled water and suction filtered. The solid product was washed multiple times with water,
5 ethanol and acetone. The derived macroinitiator **4** was re-purified by dissolution in DMF followed by
6 precipitation in diethyl ether to remove traces of trapped hydrazine. The dissolution and precipitation process
7 was repeated two more times. Finally, precipitate was washed multiple times with diethyl ether and dried for
8 overnight at 55 °C. ¹H NMR (300MHz) (Spectrum can be found on Supporting Information Synthesis Scheme
9 S3) DMSO-D6, 25C: δ_H (ppm) 7.5-6.5 (m, 15H, trityl) 5-3.5 (m, overlap, 7H chitosan backbone).

10 **Synthesis of NCA monomers (5);** The NCA monomer was synthesized by a previously described method⁶⁴.
11 Briefly, a mixture of amino acid (5 g, 17.8 mmol) and anhydrous ethyl acetate (150 mL) in a flask fitted with
12 reflux condenser was heated to reflux under N₂ atmosphere. Triphosgene (6 g, 20.2 mmol) was added to the
13 mixture and refluxing continued for next 6 hours. The reaction mixture was then filtered and the filtrate was
14 cooled to -5 °C. Separately, de-ionized water and NaHCO₃ (0.5% W/V) was chilled to 0 °C. The cooled filtrate
15 was transferred to a separation funnel and washed with cooled de-ionized water followed by the cooled
16 NaHCO₃ solution. The organic layer containing the partially purified monomers was separated and then dried
17 over MgSO₄, filtered and 1/3 evaporated with a rotary evaporator. Then an equal volume of anhydrous hexane
18 was poured into the organic solution. The obtained solid was suction filtered under Ar atmosphere and then
19 vacuum dried overnight. The product yield was 60%. ¹H NMR (300MHz) (Spectrum can be found in
20 Supporting Information Synthesis Scheme S4) CDCl₃, 25C: δ_H (ppm) 7.5-7.1 (m, 5H, benzyl) 5 (s, 2H
21 COCH₂O) 4.1(s, 1H, α-H) 3.2-3.1 (s, 2H, CH₂NH) 2-1(m, 6H, side chain of lysine).

22 **Representative Procedure for Synthesis of CSM5-K5 copolymers (6):** The 6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan

1 macroinitiator (200 mg, 0.474 mmol) was dried overnight at 80 °C under vacuum and pre-dissolved in
2 anhydrous DMF (6 mL) before use. Separately, lysine NCA monomer (2.32 g, 7.58 mmol) was dissolved in
3 anhydrous DMF (14 mL) under Ar atmosphere and the 6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan macroinitiator solution
4 was added immediately. The solution was stirred at room temperature for 3 days. The product was precipitated
5 into diethyl ether, washed multiple times with the same and dried under vacuum at 55 °C overnight. ¹H NMR
6 (300MHz) (Spectrum can be found on Supporting Information Synthesis Scheme S5) DMSO-D6, 25C: δ_H
7 (ppm) 7.5-6.5 (m, trityl and benzyl) 5 (m, α-H of polylysine and COCH₂O) 4.5-3.5 (m, overlap, 7H chitosan
8 backbone) 2-1 (m, side chain of polylysine).

9 **Deprotection of CS-Kn(CBz) with conc. HCl (7):** 6-O- triphenylmethyl chitosan-g-NCA copolymers (CS-
10 Kn(CBz)) were typically deprotected as follows: To 1.0 g of the powdered copolymer in a round bottom flask,
11 20 mL conc. HCl (37%) was added under closed system. The mixture was stirred in preheated oil bath at 60
12 °C for exactly 100 min, then cooled to room temperature and adjusted to pH 7 with NaOH solution (1M). The
13 obtained solution was dialyzed with cellulose membrane (Spectrum Chemical, M.W. 1000 Da.) for 5 days and
14 then freeze-dried (Figure S1A). ¹H NMR (300 MHz) (Spectrum can be found in Supporting Information
15 Synthesis Scheme S6) D₂O, 25C: δ_H (ppm) 4.2 (m, 1H, α-H of polylysine) 4.0-3.0 (m, overlap, chitosan
16 backbone), 2.5 (m, 2H, CH₂NH₂), 2-1 (m, 6H, side chain of polylysine).

17 **Synthesis of Lisamine Rhodamine B dye attached CSM5-K5 (12):** To a solution of CSM5-K5 (20 mg) in
18 0.1 M sodium carbonate/bicarbonate buffer (4 mL, pH 9.0) (5 mg/mL) was added Lisamine Rhodamine B
19 sulfonyl chloride (200 μL, 1 mg/mL in DMF) solution under dark conditions. The solution was stirred at room
20 temperature for 1 h and dialyzed with cellulose membrane (Spectrum Chemical, M.W. 1000 Da.) for 2 days
21 and then freeze-dried (Figure S1C).

22 **Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC) study of molecular weight:** The molecular weight of protected

1 product 4 was measured with an Agilent PolarGel column using HPLC grade dimethylformamide (DMF) with
2 1mg/mL LiBr as effluent. The molecular weight of deprotected product 5 was determined by water phase GPC
3 using a Waters Ultrahydrogel column with acidic buffer (0.5M Sodium acetate and 0.5M Acetic acid, with
4 pH=4.5) as eluent.

5
6 **Preparation of Liposome models:** Combinations of the lipids 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn- glycerol-3-
7 phosphocholine (POPC), palmitoyl-oleoyl phosphatidylglycerol (POPG) and Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) were
8 used to model the cell membranes of different types of cells. Mammalian cell membrane from mammalian
9 cell was modeled as pure POPC lipid bilayer. The outer cell membrane of Gram-negative bacteria was
10 modeled by a mixture of POPC and LPS with mass ratio 4:1. The plasma membrane of Gram-positive bacteria
11 was modeled by a mixture of POPC with POPG with mass ratio 4:1.

12 Typically, the liposomes were prepared at a scale of 10 mg. 10 mg of lipid was dissolved in
13 methanol/chloroform (v/v=3:1). The solution was then evaporated. The residue was re-suspended in 1mL of
14 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer solution. The suspension was sonicated for 2 hrs for more even
15 dispersion in the buffer. After sonication, the suspension was frozen in liquid nitrogen and thawed in 40 °C
16 water. The freeze-thaw process was performed repeatedly for a total of 5 cycles include the first cycle. The
17 suspension was filtered 10 times using 200 nm polycarbonate membrane. The prepared liposome suspension
18 was stored at 4 °C prior to use in various tests. For light scattering measurements, the suspension was diluted
19 100-fold.

20
21 **Light Scattering study of polymer aggregation:** The Light Scattering study of polymer aggregation and
22 interaction with liposomes were performed with a BI-200SM light scattering system (Brookhaven
23 Instruments).

24 For study of polymer aggregation, 1 mg of polymer was dissolved in 1 mL of DI water and filtered against

1 0.45 μm PES filter. The Radius of Gyration (R_g) and Zimm plot were measured using Static Light Scattering
2 with scattering angles from 30 to 90 degrees. The hydrodynamic radius (R_h) was calculated based on Dynamic
3 Light Scattering (DLS) measurements at 30, 45, 60, 75, 90, 105, 120, 135, and 150 degree scattering angles.
4 The method of mathematical analysis of autocorrelation function based on light scattering follows the protocol
5 published by Schillen *et al*⁶⁵ using the GENDIST package (Figure S4, Figure S5).

6
7 **Light Scattering study of polymer binding with model liposomes:** Liposome suspensions were prepared
8 as previously described. 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of polymer solution was mixed with liposome suspension (mass ratio of
9 polymer: lipid=1:1) and after standing for 20 min to allow the mixture to stabilize, Dynamic Light Scattering
10 measurements were performed.

11
12 **pH-potentiometric titration:** pH titration was performed according to a published procedure⁶⁶ with
13 modification. A polymer solution of 5 mM actual amine repeat unit in the polymer was prepared in 0.01M
14 NaOH solution (with pH=12). 15 mL of the prepared solution was titrated with 10 μL droplets of 0.1M HCl
15 until pH reached 2. The pH potentiometer used was a 809 Titrand, Metrohm. The pH and conductivity of the
16 solution in the beaker changed with addition of HCl and was plotted. The calculations based on pH-
17 potentiometric titration curve are presented in Figure S9.

18
19 **Circular Dichroism Measurement:** Far-UV Circular Dichroism measurements were done over the
20 wavelength range 190 nm to 260 nm at 298.13K in DI water solution, with 0.4 mM concentration based on
21 amine unit using Chirascan CD spectrometer from Applied photophysics.

22
23 **Surface charge characterization of nanoparticle:** The surface charge of nanoparticle was characterized in
24 DI water as well as PBS buffer, which provides a constant pH environment (pH=7.4, physiological pH) using

1 a Malvern Nano ZS sizer.

3 **Isothermal Titration Calorimetry**

4 Isothermal titrations were performed using PEAQ-ITC from MicroCal Malvern. Polymer and liposomes were
5 dispersed in MES buffer at pH=6.5. The background Gibbs energy change is firstly tested using 2 μL of
6 polymer solution titrated against MES buffer (Figure S10A). 2 μL aliquots of polymer solutions were added
7 via syringe to 270 μL liposome solution in the cell at 150s intervals with 750 rpm stirring speed. Nineteen
8 injections were performed in each experiment. The temperature was held at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ with reference power set at
9 10 $\mu\text{cal/s}$. The concentrations of polymer and lipid were adjustable parameters. Thermodynamic parameters
10 were determined from the Gibbs free energy equation:

$$11 \quad \Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S = -RT\ln K_D$$

12 Where ΔG is Gibbs free energy for binding, ΔH is enthalpy change of binding, ΔS is entropy change of binding.
13 K_D is the association constant.

15 **ATP bioluminescence assay of cytoplasm membrane interruption**

16 The overnight culture of *E. coli* K12 and MRSA BAA-40 were firstly prepared by picking a few colonies from
17 bacteria streaked plate into 10mL of fresh MHB broth. The MHB broth were incubated overnight at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$,
18 200rpm in an incubator. The subculture was prepared by diluting overnight culture to 0.01 in fresh MHB
19 media and grown until OD600 of 0.2 reached. Bacteria were washed at 3800rpm for 10mins and resuspend
20 the bacteria pellet with fresh MHB and adjust the starting OD of bacteria inoculum, OD600: 0.2 (108cfu/mL).
21 Aliquot 200uL of bacteria suspension into each well of 96-well flat bottom clear plate incubated with
22 corresponding antibiotics. After 1hour of incubation, transfer 50uL of bacteria suspension into each well of
23 96-well black clear bottom plate. Add 50uL of Luciferase reagent and take the luminescence readings
24 immediately at 135 gains.

1

2 **Outer cytoplasmic membrane depolarization**

3 The outer cytoplasmic membrane depolarization activity of polymer was determined using the membrane
4 potential-sensitive fluorescent dye 1-N-Phenyl-naphthylamine (NPN). *E.coli* K12 and *P. aeruginosa* O1
5 bacteria were harvested at mid-log phase and washed three times with HEPES buffer (5 mM HEPES, pH 7.4).
6 The bacteria were resuspended to an O.D 600 of 0.2 in HEPES buffer. Subsequently the bacterial suspensions
7 were diluted to 10^6 CFU/mL by HEPES buffer and incubated with NPN (20 nM). Fluorescence was recorded
8 for subtraction with Perkin Elmer LS-55 luminescence spectrometer (excitation $\lambda = 350$ nm, emission $\lambda = 420$
9 nm, high stirring speed), then polymers were added at a concentration of 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and the fluorescence
10 was recorded. Polymyxin B with same concentration as polymer (100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) is used as positive control.

11

12 **Stimulated emission depletion microscopy (STED)**

13 To prepare samples for super resolution STED microscopy, bacteria from logarithmic phase cultures were
14 pelleted by centrifugation at 3,000 X g for 10 min, suspended in culture media at a concentration of 10^8 CFU
15 mL^{-1} and incubated for 1 h in darkness with the rhodamine-labeled copolymer (CSM5-K5). Membrane stain
16 FM1-43FX (5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; Life Technologies) was added to the samples for 5 min, as suggested by the
17 manufacturer, before washing the bacteria three times with PBS and resuspending in a fixative solution of 2%
18 paraformaldehyde in PBS [pH 7.0]. Bacteria were fixed for 2 h at room temperature, washed three times in
19 PBS and applied to a sterile glass bottom collagen coated dish (MatTek Corporation). STED super resolution
20 microscopy was performed on a Leica TCSM SP8 STED-3X (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) at
21 SingHealth Advanced Bioimaging Core. Further image processing required deconvolution, which was done
22 using Huygens Professional software (Scientific Volume Imaging, Hilversum, Netherlands). ImageJ was
23 utilized for further image processing.

24 **Cryo-Electron Microscopy**

1 To prepare samples for super resolution Cryo-Electron microscopy, bacteria from logarithmic phase cultures
2 were pelleted by centrifugation at 3,000 X g for 10 min, washed by PBS for 3 times and diluted to
3 concentration of 10^8 CFU mL⁻¹. The bacteria were then incubated with polymer at concentration of specific
4 concentrations of polymer (times of MIC value) in PBS at 37°C for 3 hours.

5 A 4 µL prepared bacteria culture was applied on a Quatafoil 2/2 grids and plunged frozen into liquid ethane at
6 liquid nitrogen temperature using a Vitrobot Mark IV (FEI Company, USA/Netherland). The grids were
7 imaged at liquid nitrogen temperature with a nominal magnification of 18000X on a 300 kV Titan Krios
8 transmission electron microscope (FEI Company, USA/Netherland), equipped with a Falcon II electron
9 detector (FEI Company, USA/Netherland). The pixel size of final image is 4.6 angstrom.

11 **Anti-microbial activity assay**

12 **Microbial Strains, culture medium and inoculums preparation:** The test microorganism strains selected
13 to evaluate the antibacterial activity of cationic polymers were both Gram-negative and Gram-positive species
14 which obtained from ATCC. Gram-negative species which involved in this study were *Escherichia coli* (ATCC
15 8739), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PA01), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC 27853), and Gram-positive
16 species were *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 29213), *MRSA* (ATCC BAA 40) and *Enterococcus faecalis*
17 (ATCC 29212). The mid log phase (4hr) microbial cell suspension was mixed to homogeneity and the optical
18 density (OD) was measured to give a final density of 10^5 CFU/ml in the test plate and these were confirmed
19 by viable counts (Colony Forming Units, CFU/ml).

20 **Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC):** The MICs values of the cationic polymers
21 against the test microorganism were determined by broth microdilution method using 96-well microtiter plates
22 as recommended by (CLSI, 2011) with slight modification. The MHB broth was placed into 96-well plate and
23 the stock solutions were serially diluted and the bacterial cultures were added sequentially into the each well.
24 The final concentrations of the polymers into the test plate were ranging from 512 ug/ml to 1 ug/ml and the

1 microplate were aerobically incubated at 37 °C for 24 hr. The well with inoculums and without test polymers
2 serves as controls. The bacterial growth was examined by measuring the optical density at a wavelength of
3 600nm (TECAN, infinite F200) as well as visual examination of turbidity. This MIC values are defining as
4 the lowest concentration that showed no growth or non-turbid and which kills the bacterial growth by more
5 than 90%. The entire test was carried out in triplicate.

7 **Cytotoxicity assay**

8 **a) Mammalian Cell Biocompatibility test via MTT cell proliferation assay;** The mammalian cell
9 biocompatibility test was done according to the published protocol using 3T3 cells. In a 96-well plate, 3T3
10 cells were co-cultured for 24 h at 37 °C with polymer (100 µg/mL and 200 µg/mL) at initial cell density of
11 1×10^5 cells per well. At the end of the incubation period the culture medium was removed, each well was
12 washed with PBS followed by addition of MTT solution, and the plate was incubated for 4 h at 37 °C. The
13 MTT medium was then removed, 100 µL of DMSO was added to each well, the plate was shaken at 100 rpm
14 for 15 mins and the absorbance at 570 nm was measured with plated reader (BIO-RAD Benchmark Plus, US).

15
16 **b) Hemolytic activity test;** Fresh human blood was collected from a healthy donor (age 23, Male). 1 mL
17 blood was mixed with 9 mL Tris buffer (10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.2) and centrifuged at 1000 rpm for
18 5 min. The red blood cell (RBC) pellet was collected and subsequently washed with Tris buffer three times
19 and diluted to a final concentration of 5% v/v. 50 µL of antimicrobial solution at different concentrations
20 mixed with 50 µL red blood cell stock were added to a 96-well microplate and incubated for 1 hr or 8hr at
21 37 °C with 150 rpm shaking. The microplate was centrifuged at 1,000 rpm for 10 min. 80 µL aliquots of the
22 supernatant were then transferred to a new 96-well microplate and diluted with another 80 µL of Tris buffer.
23 Hemolytic activity was determined by absorbance measured at 540 nm with a 96-well plate spectrophotometer
24 (Benchmark Plus, BIO-RAD). Triton X-100 (0.1% in Tris buffer) which is able to lyse RBCSM completely

1 was used as positive control, while Tris buffer was used as negative control. The hemolysis percentage (H)
2 was calculated from the following equation:

$$3 \quad \text{hemolysis}\% = \frac{[(O_p - O_b)]}{[(O_t - O_b)]} \times 100\%$$

4 where O_p is the absorbance for the antimicrobial agent, O_b is the absorbance for the negative control (Tris
5 buffer), and O_t is the absorbance for the positive control of Triton X-100.

6 7 **b) *In vitro* cytokine release assay**

8 The *in vitro* cytokine release studies were carried out with acute monocytic leukemia cells THP-1 (ATCC TIB-
9 202). Cell culture media used were RPMI-1640 with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 0.05 mM 2-
10 mercaptoethanol. THP-1 cells were cultured in 96-well plates with cell density of 1×10^4 cells in each well,
11 and addition of 100 ng/mL 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate (TPA) and incubated in a CO₂ incubator at
12 37 °C for 24 h for differentiation into macrophages and cell attachment. The cells were then washed with
13 phosphate buffered saline (PBS) once and the different samples were added into each well and further
14 incubated for 24 h. LPS at 100ng/mL is used as positive control to trigger the expression of cytokines. After
15 incubation, the culture media from each well were retrieved and centrifuged to remove floating cells and debris
16 and aliquots of 100 µL were used for the cytokines (IL-6, IL-8 and TNF-α) release assay tested by Eve
17 technologies, Canada.

18 19 **Animal Test:**

20 **Murine excisional wound model**

21 Bacterial cultures of *S. aureus* BAA40 were prepared and used to infect 8-week-old female BALB/c mice
22 (InVivos Pte Ltd.). Wound were prepared as previously described⁶⁷ with minor modifications. Mice were
23 anesthetized by inhalation of 3% isoflurane followed by wound preparation. Mice were shaved, skin sterilized

1 by 70% ethanol swabbing, and an excisional wound punctured with a single 6 mm diameter biopsy through
2 the skin. 2.5 μ L of bacterial cultures (1×10^3 CFU/wound) were administered to the wound site, and then 2.5
3 μ L of treatment solutions were applied after 4 hours of wound infection. The wound site was sealed using
4 Tegaderm TM dressing (3M, St Paul Minnesota, USA). Mice euthanization at indicated time points (24hrs)
5 was achieved by CO₂ asphyxiation followed by cervical dislocation. Wound sites were excised and the
6 bacteria present in the wound were determined by homogenization and colony forming unity plating of serially
7 diluted samples to selective media. Statistical significance was determined by the Mann-Whitney test with
8 Dunn's post-test for multiple comparisons using Prism (GraphPad) software. Recovered titres of zero were
9 set to the limit of detection for statistical analysis and graphical representation. All studies and protocols were
10 approved by the Nanyang Technological University Institutional Care and Use Committee (NTU IACUC).

11 **Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS):** Single cell suspensions from wound samples were obtained
12 using MACSM Dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec). The digested tissue solution was gently filtered through a 40
13 μ m nylon filter cup by gravity. The single cell suspension was pelleted. The cell pellet was resuspended,
14 transferred to a 1.5 mL microfuge tube and blocked in 1 mL of 3% BSA (in PBS) on ice for 30 minutes. Cells
15 were then probed with the fluorescence-labelled antibodies against CD11b and Ly6G (Miltenyi Biotec) in the
16 dark for 30 minutes on ice, followed by washing using PBS buffer. The washed pellet was then re-suspended
17 in 300 μ L of PBS for flow cytometry using Accuri C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). Data was analyzed
18 using Flowjo software version 7.6.5.

20 **Computational Simulation**

21 **a) Well-tempered meta-dynamics simulation⁶⁸ of chitosan-graft-oligolysine:** Well-tempered meta-
22 dynamics simulation of two chains of CSM5-K5 copolymer was performed in NPT ensemble to investigate
23 the self-assembly mechanism. Deacetylation degree of chitosan in experiment is 80%; thus the simulation

1 model of CSM5-K5 contains one chitosan chain with the length of 5-sugar-unit, and four oligolysine chains,
2 whose length is 1, 2, 1, and 1 respectively and are grafted on the amino groups of the sugar units. Protonation
3 degree of lysine was set as 100% so altogether there are 9 positive charges in each molecule. We finished 400
4 ns meta-dynamics simulation with the help of PLUMED 2.1.3⁶⁹. The system temperature was maintained at
5 300 K by V-rescale temperature coupling method and pressure maintained at 1 bar by Parrinello-Rahman
6 pressure coupling method. Force field parameters Glycam_06j⁷⁰ and AMBER99SB⁷¹ were employed to
7 characterize the chitosan and polylysine parts, respectively. Distance and angle between two molecules were
8 defined as two collective variables (CV) for the free energy calculation. Gaussian height was set to 2 kJ/mol
9 and Gaussian widths for distance and angle were set to 0.1 nm and 0.05 rad respectively. Gaussian potential
10 was deposited every 500 calculation steps (1 ps). A constrained potential was added on distance CV to limit
11 the size of CV space and enhance the simulation efficiency. Bias factor used in the simulation was 8 (More
12 parameters could be found in Supporting Information).

13 **b) Interaction between polycations and membrane:** Two kinds of membrane were constructed in our
14 simulation. Mammalian cell membrane was mimicked by zwitterionic POPC. Each leaflet of the mammalian
15 cell membrane was composed of 81 POPC molecules. Bacterial inner membrane was modelled by a mixture
16 of zwitterionic POPC and negatively charged POPG with a ratio of 4:1. Each leaflet of the bacterial inner
17 membrane was composed of 65 POPC and 16 POPG molecules. The membrane models were built by a web
18 server MemBuilder II and parameterized with a Slipid/AMBER force field published by Jambeck and
19 Lyubertsev⁷²⁻⁷³.

20 Six different systems were simulated for 200 ns: a) pure mammalian membrane (MM); b) mammalian
21 membrane and two aggregated CSM5-K5 molecules (MM-dimer); c) pure bacterial inner membrane (IM); d)
22 bacterial inner membrane and two aggregated CSM5-K5 molecules (IM-dimer); e) bacterial inner membrane
23 and two separated CSM5-K5 molecules (IM-2mon); f) bacterial membrane and two polylysine (PK) chains
24 with nine residues each (IM-2PK). These simulations were also performed in NPT ensemble at 300 K and 1

1 bar and a Nose-Hoover temperature coupling method and a semi-isotropic Parrinello-Rahman pressure d
2 coupling method were exerted. In systems b, d, e, and f, all membrane models were equilibrated for 200 ns
3 before they were simulated with polycations and all polycations were placed above center of mass of
4 membrane with a distance of 5 nm.

5
6 **Supporting Information:** Supplementary synthesis scheme, equations, NMR spectra, summary of biological
7 activity for all the synthesized polymers as well as published antimicrobial peptides, GPC and MALDI-TOF
8 spectra, calculations based on light scattering and pH-potentiometric titration, energy profile of Isothermal
9 Titration Calorimetry and Computational Simulation procedures. This material is available free of charge via
10 the internet at <http://pubs.acs.org/>.

11 12 **Notes**

13 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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- 28 (73) Jämbeck, J. P. M.; Lyubartsev, A. An Extension and Further Validation of an All-Atomistic Force Field for Biological
29 Membranes. *Journal of Chemical Theory and Computation* **2012**, *8*, 2938-2948.

30

Table 1 Molecular weight and Light scattering study of CSM5-K5, and K100

Polymer	M _n [†]	M _w [†]	R _h for individual polymer (nm)	Polymer aggregates (DI water, pH=7)		
				R _g (nm)	R _h (nm)	Aggregation number
CSM5-K5	3648Da	4084Da	7.75	42.7±3.4	36.5±3.5	110 ^{\$}
K100	10947Da	12522Da	9.25	No aggregation		

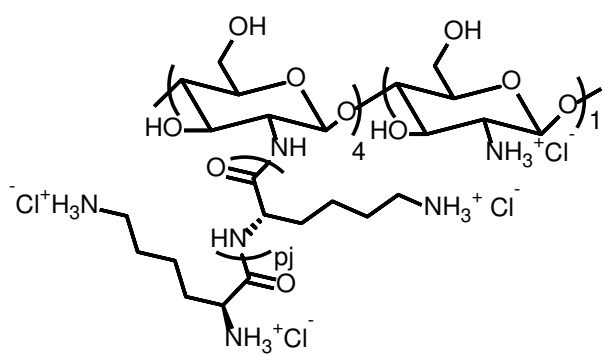
[†]Using GPC^{\$}Based on M_n from GPC**Table 2** MIC (in µg/mL) of CSM5-K5 (and K100) against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria

	CSM5-K5	K100
Gram-positive Strains		
<i>S. aureus</i> 29213	32	128
<i>S. aureus</i> BAA-40 (MRSA)	16	
<i>S. aureus</i> USA-300 (ORSA)	16	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-1	32	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-2	32	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-3	16	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-4	32	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-5	32	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-6	32	
<i>S. aureus</i> MRSA-7	32	
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	8	
<i>Enterococcus faecium</i> 19434	128	
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> OG1RF	256	
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> V583	128	
Gram-negative strains		
<i>E. coli</i> K12	32	256
<i>E. coli</i> W3110	32	
<i>E. coli</i> UTI89	64	
<i>E. coli</i> EC958	64	
<i>E. coli</i> PTR3	64	
<i>E. coli</i> 8739	16	
<i>E. coli</i> 25922	64	
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAO1	64	512
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAD1	64	
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAD25	64	
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAW238	64	
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAES	128	
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAER	128	
<i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> 13076	64	
<i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i> 17802	64	

Table 3 Summary of thermodynamic parameters of CSM5-K5 with various liposomes as determined by isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC)

Components	$\Delta G(\text{kcal/mol})$	$\Delta H(\text{kcal/mol})$	$-T\Delta S(\text{kcal/mol})$	$\Delta S(\text{kcal/K}\cdot\text{mol})$	$K_A(\text{M}^{-1})$	*Binding Site, n
OM interaction						
a. POPC:LPS(<i>E. coli</i>) (4:1)	-6.21	-0.21	-6.00	-0.0194	23753	0.392
b. POPC:LPS(<i>P. aeruginosa</i>) (4:1)	-5.20	-1.10	-4.10	-0.0132	4608	0.296
IM interaction						
c. POPC:POPG (4:1)	-5.86	-8.96	+3.10	0.01	13333	0.173

*Binding Site, n is determined based on no. of moles of CSM5-K5 polymer binding with no. of moles of liposome.



Scheme 1 Schematic of CSM5-K5 ($\sum_{j=1}^4 p_j \approx 5$)

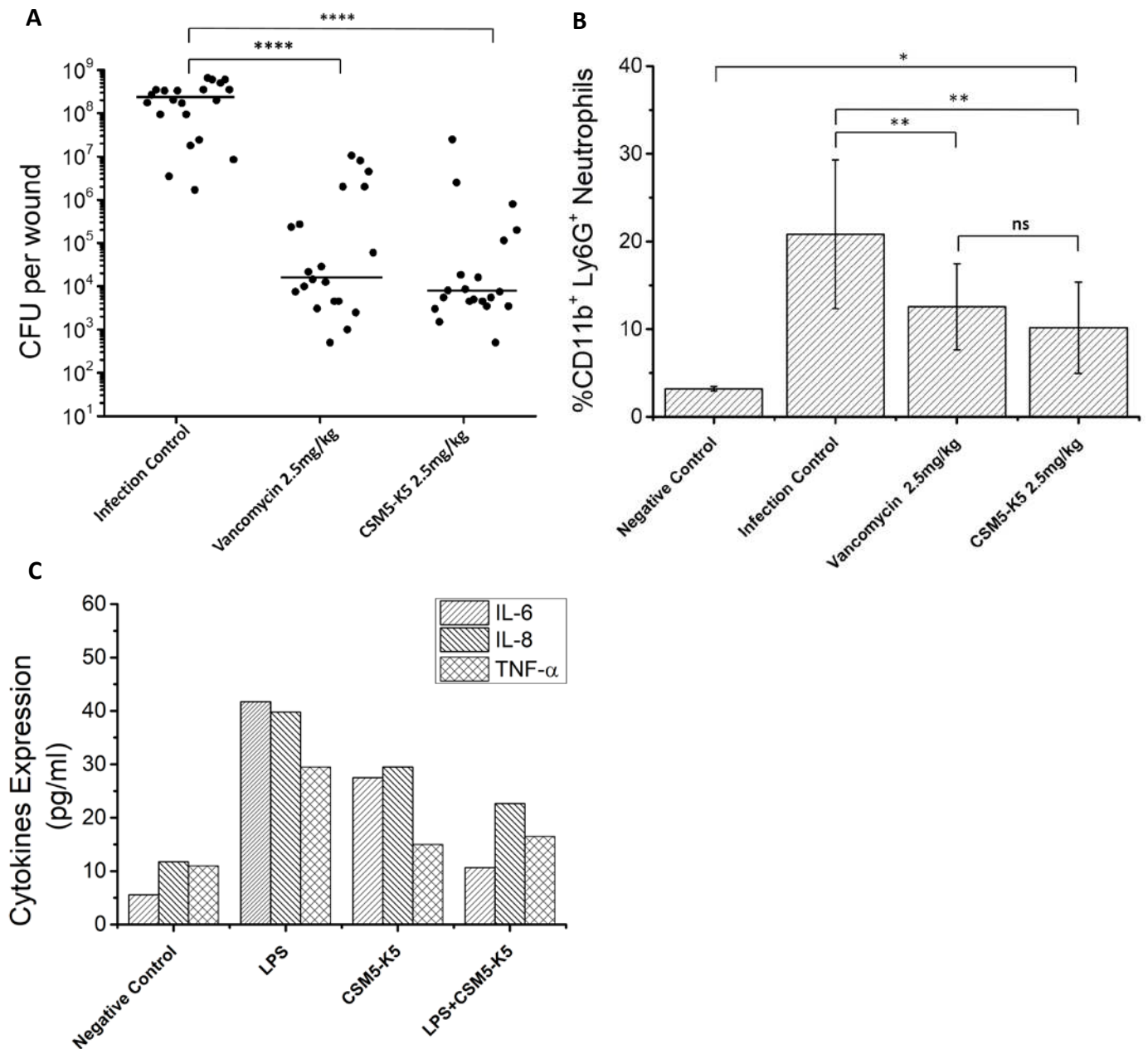


Figure 1 (A) *In vivo* test of antibacterial activity of CSM5-K5 in a murine excisional wound model. Bacteria (MRSA BAA-40) concentration (CFU per wound) of control mice was compared with treated mice (the median is presented by the horizontal line for each group). The values were obtained from 3 experimental replicates with **** $P \leq 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney test compared to infection control (with bacteria and no treatment). (B) The FACS analysis of *in vivo* immune cell neutrophils characterized by positive expression of both CD11b and Ly6G antibody. The values were obtained based on experimental replicates, with ** $p \leq 0.01$ Mann-Whitney test compared to infection control (CSM5-K5 treated group) and * $p < 0.1$ Mann-Whitney test compared to negative control (negative control is wound without bacteria and without any treatment). (C) *In vitro* cytokines secretion from macrophages by LPS, CSM5-K5 nanoparticle and their combination; negative control is macrophage cells without addition of LPS or CSM5-K5.

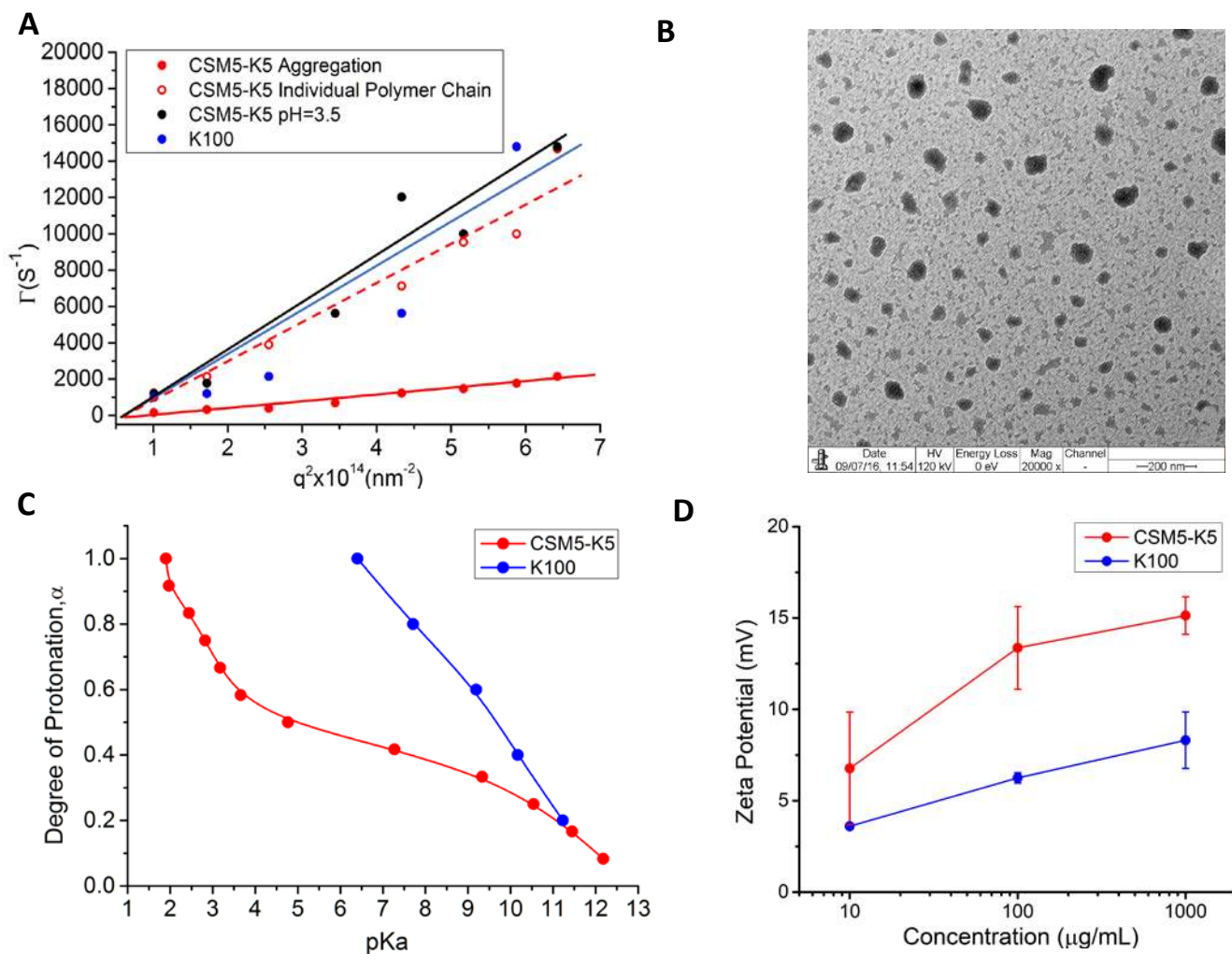


Figure 2. Solution properties of CSM5-K5 compared with K100: **(A)** Dynamic light scattering (DLS) data: decay rate (Γ) versus wave vector (q^2) for CSM5-K5 suspension at pH=7 (red), CSM5-K5 suspension at acidic pH (pH=3.5) (black) and K100 (blue). The decay rate (Γ) variations with wave vectors (q^2) were evaluated using the relaxation function measured at specific angles (Figure S5); the relaxation function is the inverse Laplace Transformation of the autocorrelation function of intensity versus time. **(B)** TEM image of CSM5-K5 at pH=7. **(C)** Degree of protonation (α) of CSM5-K5 and K100 change versus pKa. **(D)** Zeta-potential of CSM5-K5 and K100 measured at different concentrations at physiological pH (PBS, pH=7.4).

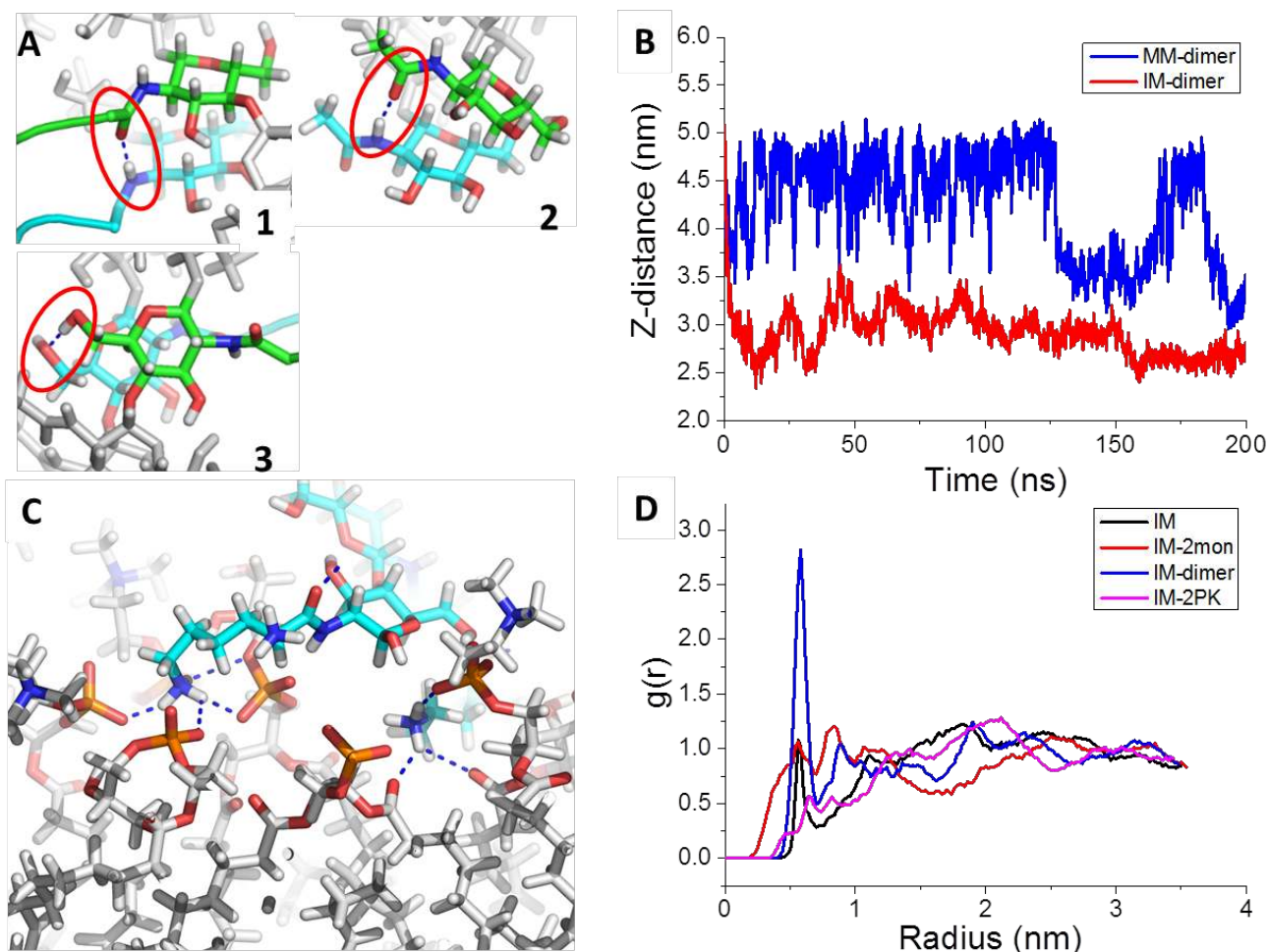


Figure 3 (A) H-bonds between the chitosan chains that maintain the dimerization of two copolymer can be divided into two categories: the $-\text{NHC}(=\text{O})\cdots\text{NHC}(=\text{O})$ H-bonds and the $-\text{OH}\cdots\text{OH}$ H-bonds. The former are defined as H-bonds between the two 2-position amide groups which are directly attached to chitosan backbone of CSM5-K5 (A1 and A2); and the latter are defined as the H-bonds between hydroxyl groups of chitosan (A3). (B) IM-dimer system has a relatively lower Z-distance between center of mass (COM) of CSM5-K5 dimer and membrane than versus the MM-dimer system indicating a stronger binding of dimer with bacterial inner membrane than with mammalian cell membrane. (C) A snapshot of IM-dimer system showed oligolysine of CSM5-K5 were mainly H-bonded with phosphate groups (PO_4^-) of lipids, but some could reach deeper to H-bonded with carbonyl groups of lipids. (D) POPG clustering effect within bacterial model membrane (POPC: POPG = 4:1) was shown by the lateral radial distribution function (RDF) of POPG with respect to itself in membrane systems with or without presence of polycations. Polycations showed different capability of gathering negatively charged POPG. CSM5-K5 dimer was the most effective for POPG domain formation over three kinds of polycations. Nitrogen, oxygen, and hydrogen atoms are colored as blue, red, and white respectively, carbon atoms are colored as green and cyan (A) or cyan and gray (C) to differentiate different molecules.

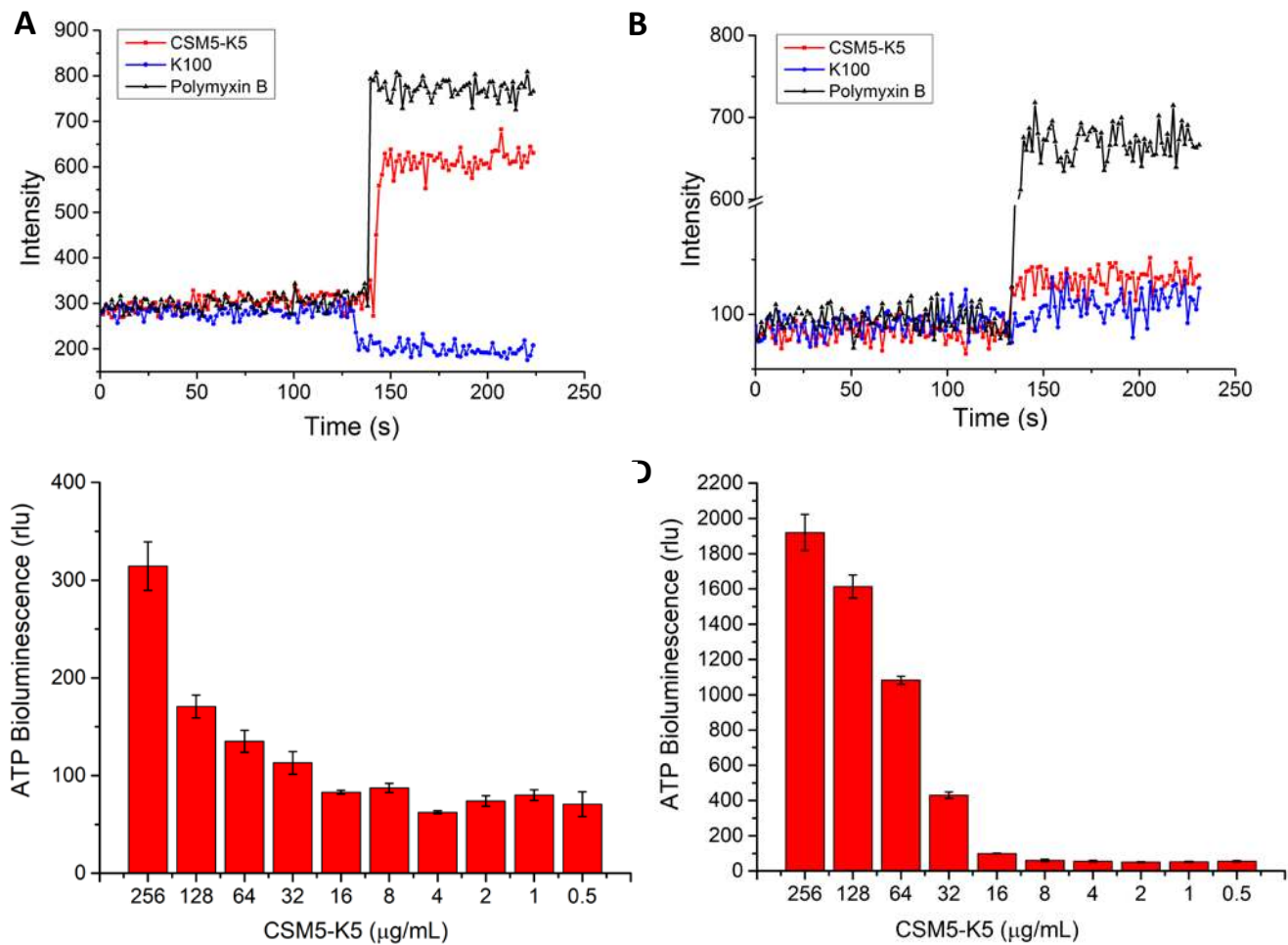


Figure 4 NPN dye leakage assay of (A) *E. coli* K12, and (B) *P. aeruginosa* PA01 Polymyxin B was used as control with same concentration as polymer (100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$); ATPase assay of (C) *E. coli* K12, and (D) MRSA BAA-40.

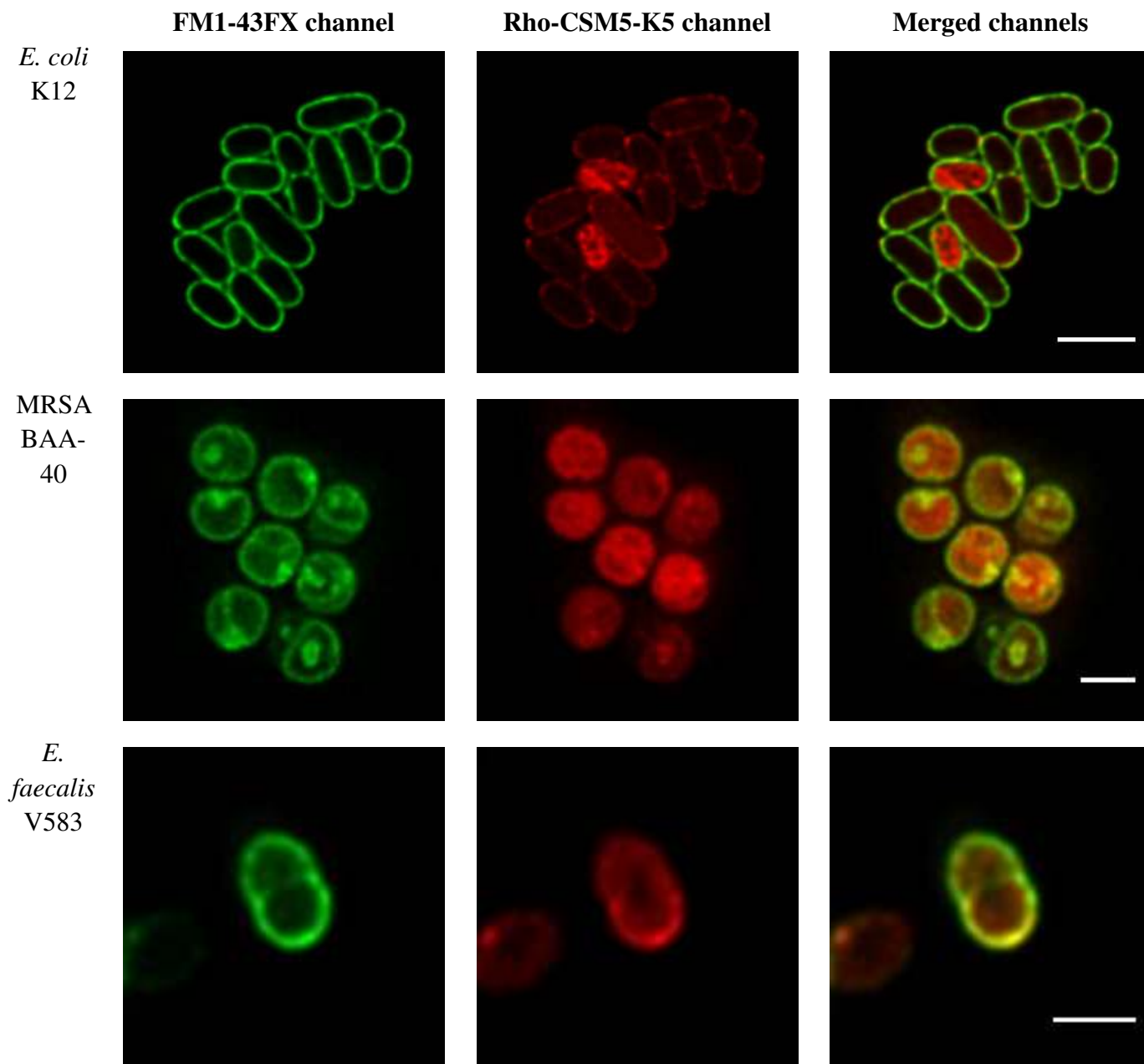


Figure 5 Fluorescence microscopy images of *E. coli* K12, MRSA BAA-40 and *E. faecalis* V583 incubated with Rho-CSM5-K5 (first column is the FM1-43FX membrane dye; second column is CSM5-K5 conjugated with Rhodamine dye; third column is the merging of both channels). *E. coli* K12 scale bar = 2 μm . MRSA BAA-40 and *E. faecalis* V583 scale bars = 1 μm .

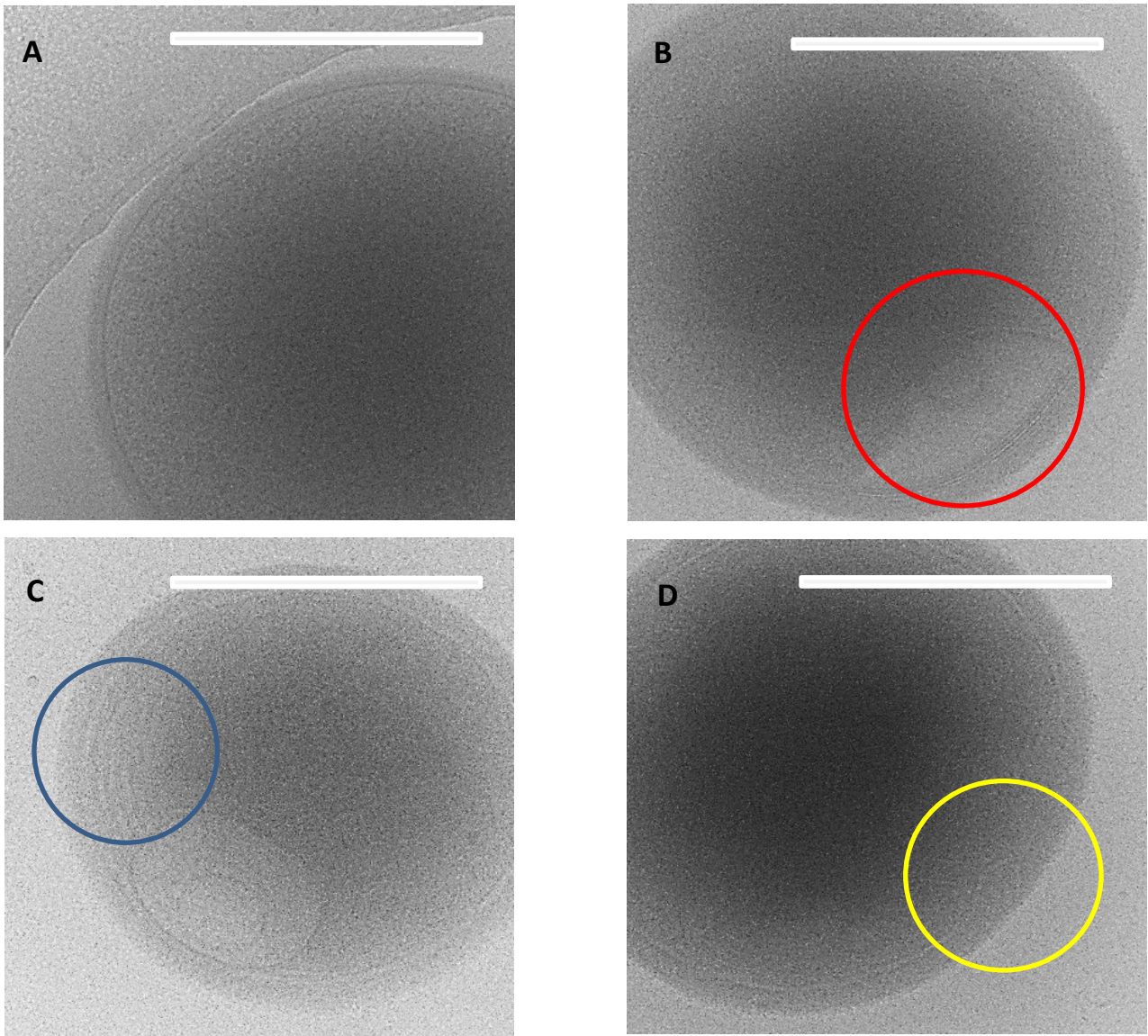
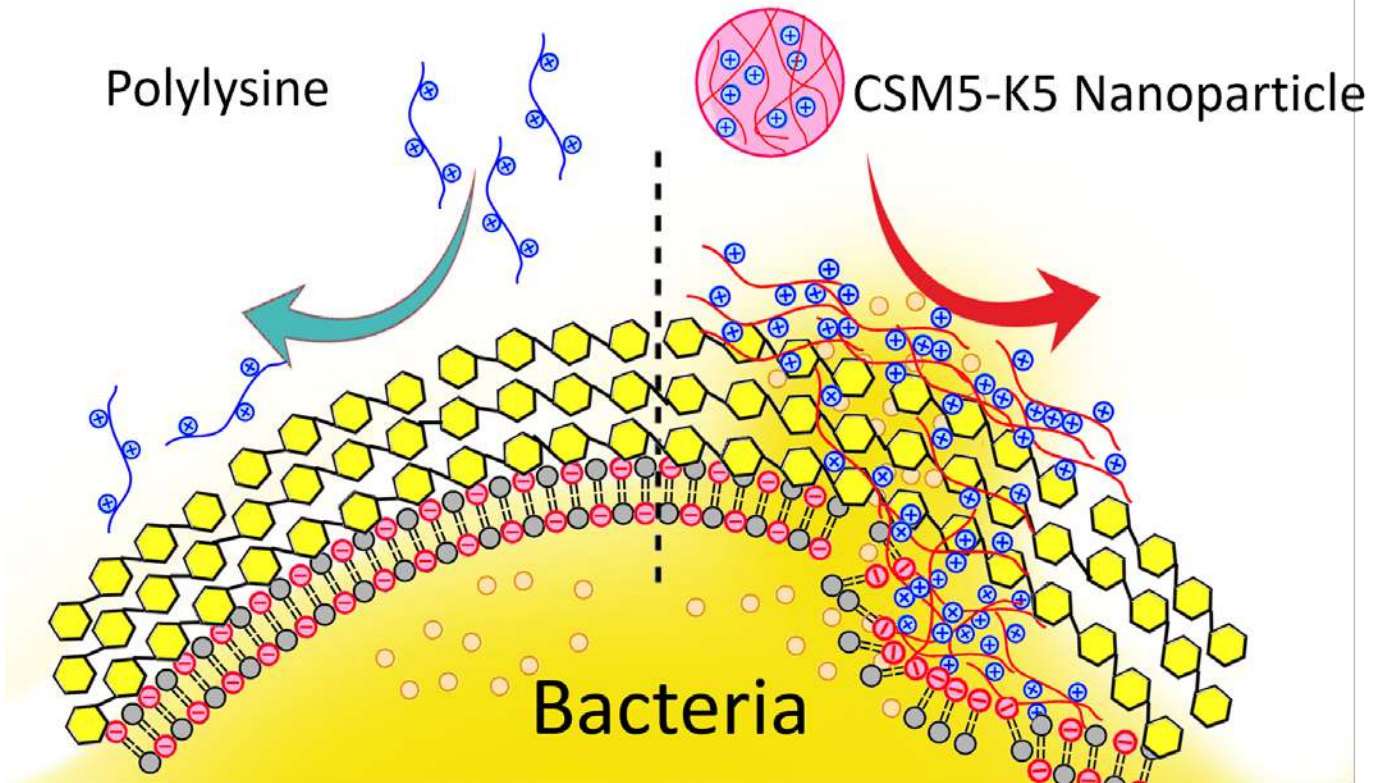


Figure 6 Cryo-TEM images of MRSA treated with CSM5-K5 at 8×MIC. **(A)** MRSA Control without treatment by CSM5-K5; **(B)** Circle shows separation of Cell membrane from cell wall after treatment of CSM5-K5; **(C)** Circle shows shrinking of cell membrane after treatment of CSM5-K5; **(D)** Circle shows irregular cell wall after treatment of CSM5-K5; Magnification is same in all the sub-figures; Scale bar=500nm.

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Supporting Information

Nanoparticles of Short Cationic Peptidopolysaccharide Self-Assembled by Hydrogen Bonding with Antibacterial Effect against Multi-Drug Resistant Bacteria

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Table S1 Antimicrobial activity, mammalian cell biocompatibility and hemolysis of Chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine and comparison with polylysine and some published antimicrobial peptides

Entry	MIC ^a (µg/mL)				^b %Cell Viability Test with 100 µg/mL of compound	Hemolytic Activity (HC10, RBC) (µg/mL)	^c Selectivity based on HC10	
	Gram-negative		Gram-positive					
	<i>E. coli</i> K12	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> PAO1	<i>S. aureus</i> 29213	MRSA BAA- 40				
1(a)	^d CSM-K5	16	64-128	32	32	83.34	>5000	>312.5
2(a)	K10	>512	>512	>512	>512	96.26	>5000	
2(b)	K20	>512	>512	>512	>512	97.4	>5000	-
2(c)	K40	512	512	>512	>512	86.7	>5000	
2(d)	K100	256	>512	128	128	82.12	>5000	
3(a)	Magainin- 2	64	512	512	512	98.22	>500	>7.8125
3(b)	LL-37	512	64	512	512	75.8	-	-
3(c)	Melittin	32	64	8	8	2.16	16	0.5
3(d)	polymyxin B	2	1	32	64	99.64	>2500	>1250
4(a)	Rho- CSM5-K5	32	128	32	32			

^a The strains used in this study were: *E. coli* (K12), *P. aeruginosa* (PA01), *S. aureus* (ATCC 29213), *E. faecalis* (ATCC 8739), methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA, BAA-40), as well as oxacillin resistant *S. aureus* (ORSA, USA-300). The MIC value may vary for different strains of the same bacterial species. ^b Cell Viability is tested against 3T3 cells at 100000 cells per well. ^cSelectivity is HC10/MIC of *E. coli* K12. ^dMore strains: *E. coli* (ATCC 8730, K12, W3110, UTI89, EC958, and PTR3), *P. aeruginosa* (PA01, and D25), *S. aureus* (ATCC 29213), *E. faecalis* (OG1RF, and V583), methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA, BAA-40), as well as oxacillin resistant *S. aureus* (ORSA, USA-300) were tested against CSM5-K5 and summarized in Table 2.

Table S2 Dynamic Light scattering of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle in various fluids

Concentration ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	Hydrodynamic Radius (R_h) in nm			
	DI water (pH=7)	PBS buffer (pH=7.4)	Urea (8M)	Acidic condition (pH=3.5)
1000	36.5 \pm 3.5	48.7 \pm 5.5	122 \pm 3	6.5 \pm 0.4
100	34.8 \pm 2.6	30.4 \pm 2.4	6.4 \pm 0.8	5.1 \pm 0.4
10	6.1 \pm 0.5	8.1 \pm 0.7	6.1 \pm 0.9	3.5 \pm 0.7

Table S3 Calculated results of moles of amine per unit weight (moles/g) of polymer

	HCl used for amine neutralization (mM)	Moles of amine/g
K100	0.34	0.047
CSM-K5	0.91	0.121

Table S4 Hydrodynamic radii (R_h , nm) of different liposomes and liposome mixture with different polymer, in nm determined by Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS)

	POPC: LPS	POPC: POPG	POPC
Control ^a	75.0	60.1	70.0
CSM5-K5	682.0	81.4	70.6
Chitosan 3kDa	75.9	70.0	64.5
K100	69.2	66.2	68.0

^aControl is Liposome with no test agent

Table S5 Total number of water molecules that penetrated the membrane hydrophobic area in different time interval was counted for different systems.

	IM	IM-2mon	IM-dimer	IM-2PK
Time interval 1	21	20	26	23
Time interval 2	9	15	35	15
Time interval 3	26	31	30	24

Average \pm s.d: 19 ± 7 , 22 ± 7 , 30 ± 4 , and 21 ± 4 water molecules captured in 20 ns for system IM, IM-2mon, IM-dimer, IM-2PK respectively.

To compare the membrane defects generated in different systems, the total number of water molecules that penetrated the hydrophobic area of membrane was averaged over the last three time intervals of each simulation, 20 ns each (Table S5). Averages of 19 ± 7 , 22 ± 7 , 30 ± 4 , and 21 ± 4 water molecules were captured for IM, IM-2mon, IM-dimer, IM-2PK respectively, suggesting that the copolymer increased the permeability of the bacterial membrane, and the dimer was more effective than two monomers. No statistically significant permeability change was caused by linear polylysine, consistent with the experimental findings about K100, and indicating the importance of the chitosan backbone and shorter lysine chains for increasing the charge concentration.

Table S6 Summary of reported MIC and cytotoxicity and mechanism of promising AMPs

Antimicrobial peptide	MIC ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)			Hemolysis/Cytotoxicity
	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	
omiganan ¹	32	64-256	32	100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (HC10) ²
pexiganan ³	16	16	64	40 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (HC10) ⁴
plectasin ⁵	-	-	32	>512 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (HC10) ⁶

Table S7 Summary of reported MIC and cytotoxicity of chitosan derivatives

Chitosan derivatives	MIC ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)			Hemolytic activity/Cytotoxicity
	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	
CS [§] -sulfate ⁷	31.25	31.25	62.49	10~1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (IC ₅₀)
CS-Trimethyl ammonium ⁸	16-64	-	8-64	
CS-N-pyridinium/aryltrimethylammonium ⁹	64	-	32	-
CS-thiourea ¹⁰	15.62	62.49	62.46	-
CS-PHGH ^{†11}	15.6	-	-	-

[§]CS=chitosan

[†]PHGH= polyhexamethylene guanidine hydrochloride

Synthesis Schemes

Synthesis of CSM5-K5

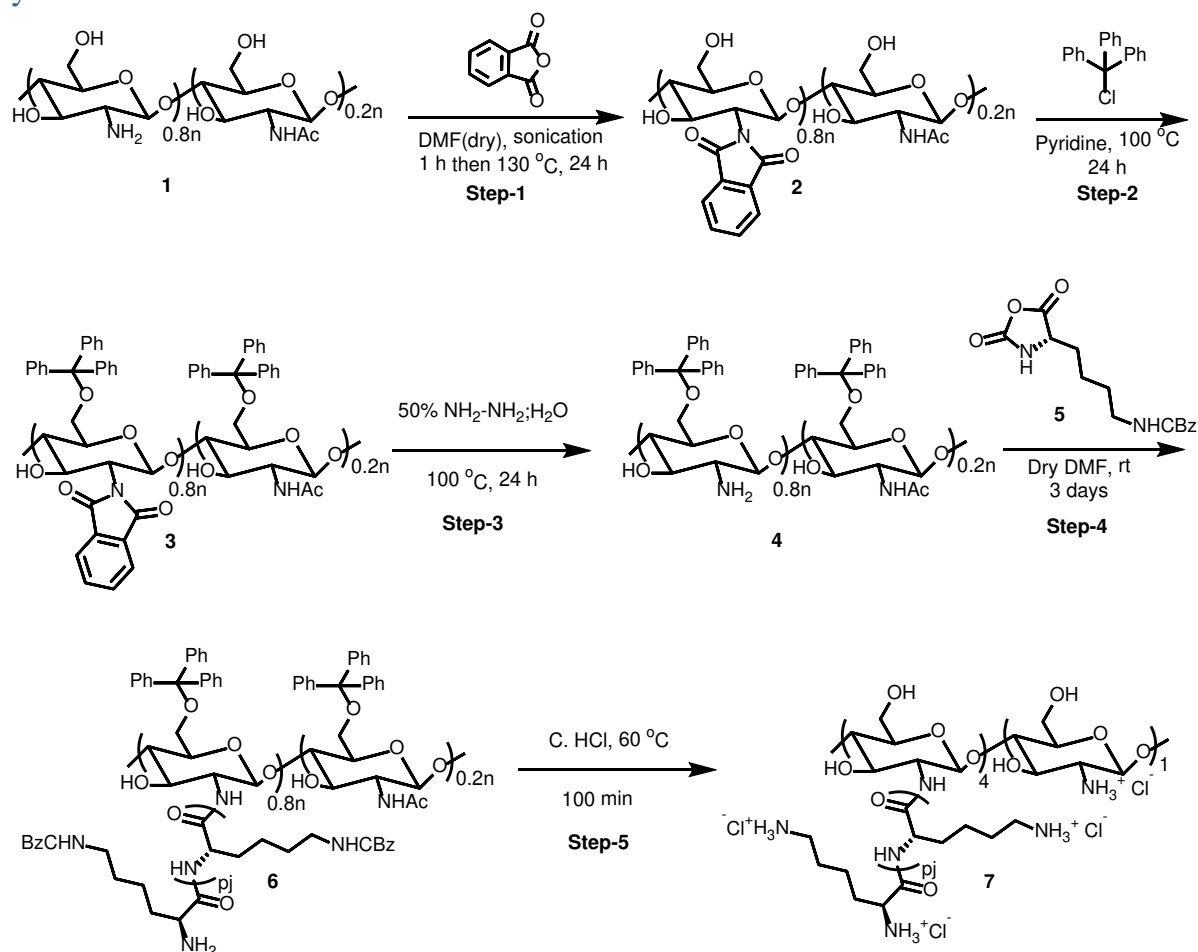


Figure S1A Synthesis scheme for CSM-K5 copolymer (CBz is Benzyl carbamates protection group for side chain amine of lysine)

Protocol:

CSM5-K5 (Scheme 1) was synthesized via NCA polymerization initiating from protected chitosan followed by acidic hydrolysis (Figure S1A). GPC of protected CS-Kn(CBz) shows that the “grafting from” the protected CS backbone was mostly successful with only a single major peak attributed to the protected CS-Kn(CBz) (Figure S3A). The major peak attributed to the protected CS-Kn(CBz) moved to the left indicating increased molecular weight and successful grafting from NCA polymerization, which requires very pure NCA monomer. The left minor peak at around 10 mins is due to the secondary structure formed as the polylysine chain length increased above 10 repeated units¹². The right minor peak at around 13.9 min is due to unreacted chitosan. It

appears that not all the chitosan macroinitiator can initiate the NCA ring-opening polymerization, possibly because of the aggregation of chitosan macroinitiator in DMF, as shown by dynamic light scattering study of DMF solution of chitosan. The aggregation of the CS macroinitiator will lead to shielding of some of the amine groups.

Different reaction times and temperature conditions were evaluated for deprotection of trityl and CBz groups. The reaction time 100 min was found best to obtain >98% deprotection and molecular weight range from 3,500-4,000 Da by water phase GPC (**Figure S3B**). After deprotection the chitosan macroinitiator peak also disappeared in GPC spectrum. This can be attributed to the drastic cleavage of chitosan backbone during HCl deprotection process. The unreacted chitosan backbone is hydrolyzed to lower molecular weight N-glucosamine oligomers, and removed during dialysis. Further, after deprotection, there are no high molecular weight peaks found in water phase GPC (**Figure S3B**), as all the polylysine chains are in random coil.

The removal of trityl and CBz groups was verified by absence of chemical shift δH in the range from 7.0 to 7.5, which corresponds to the benzyl rings in both trityl and CBz groups. The crude product 7 was adjusted to pH=7 with NaOH solution (1M) and dialyzed with cellulose membrane (spectrum chemicals M.W. 1000 Da.) against DI water. After 5 days of dialysis, the residue was lyophilized to give off-white solid.

Synthesis of Linear Polylysine

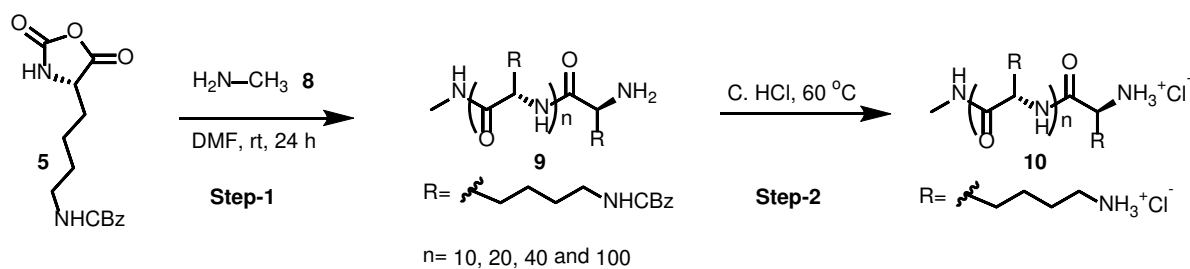


Figure S1B Synthesis of different linear L-polylysines.

Protocol:

The series of L-polylysine (K10, 20, 30, 40 and 100) (**10**) were synthesized from the compound **5**. The Methyl amine **8** was used as initiator for polymerization of NCA monomer **5** to produce compound **9** with good yield. The salt of compound **10** was obtained from **9** by using concentrated HCl deprotection.

Synthesis of dye-attached CSM5-K5

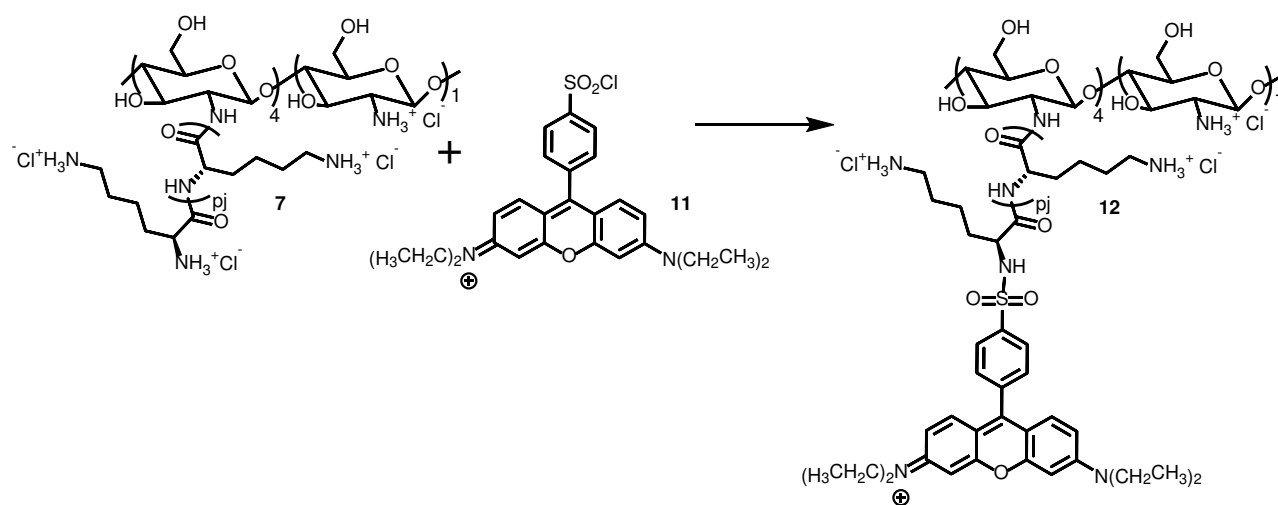
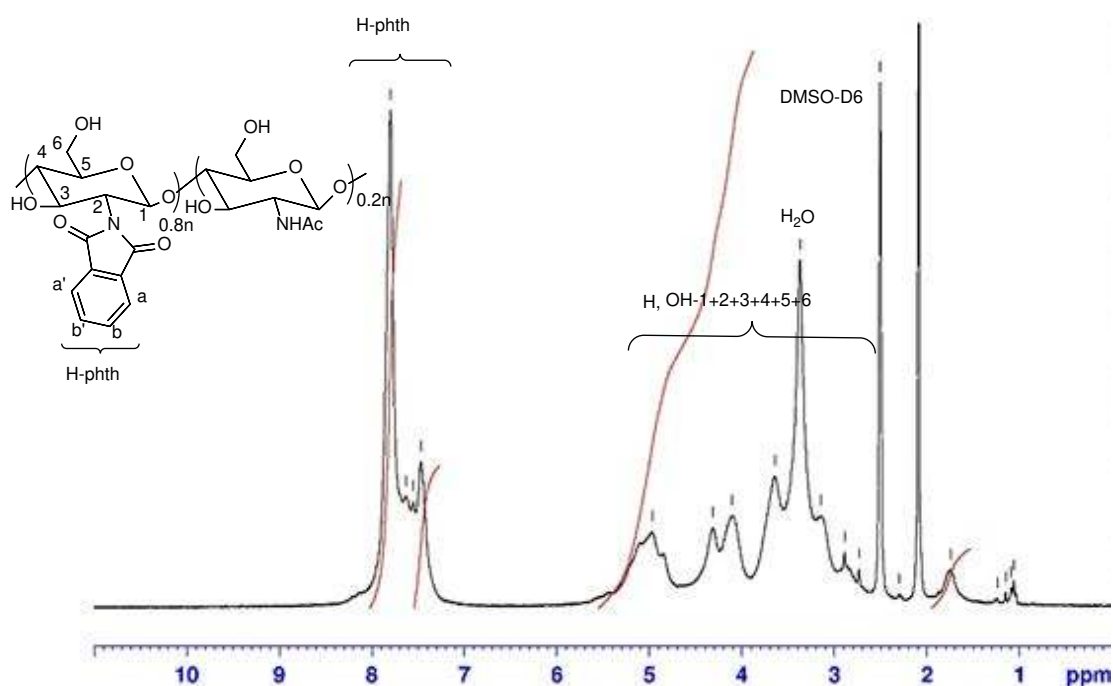


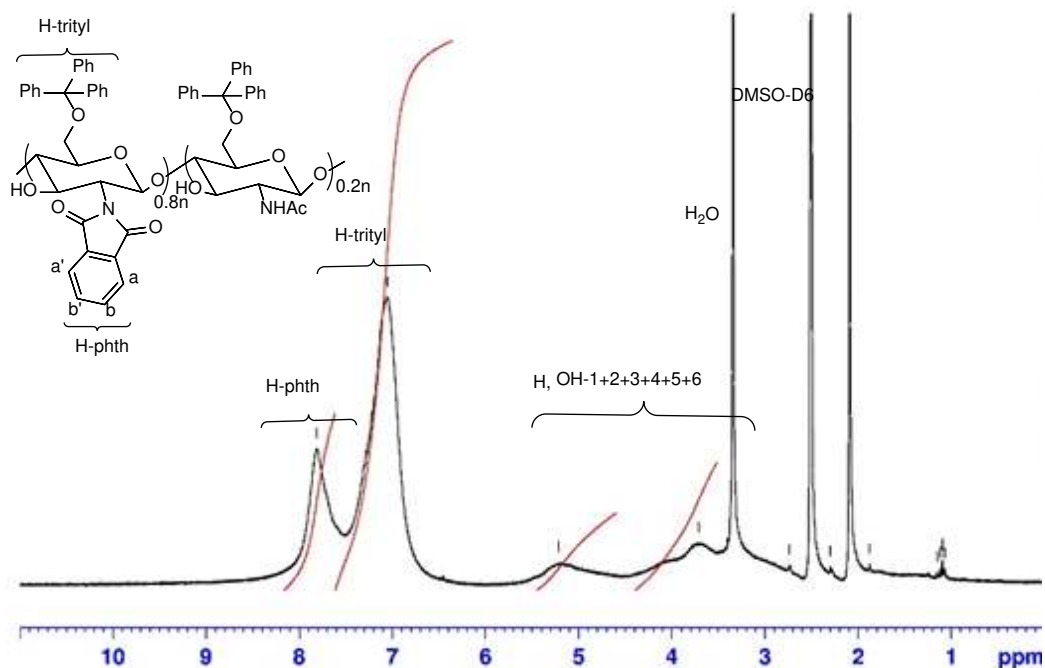
Figure S1C Synthesis of Lisamine Rhodamine B dye attached CSM5-K5

NMR Characterization of Intermediates



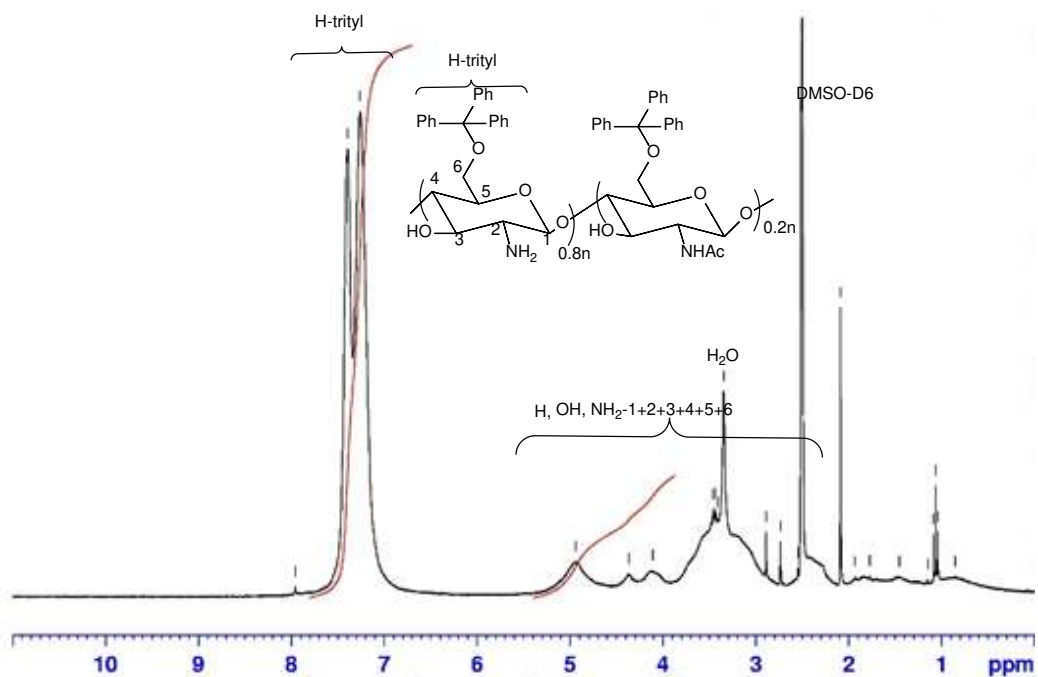
Scheme S1 Synthesis of N-Phthaloyl Chitosan (compound **2**)

$$\text{Phthaloylation percentage} = \frac{(\text{integration from } 7.5 \text{ to } 8)/4}{(\text{integration from } 4 \text{ to } 5.5)/4} \times 100$$



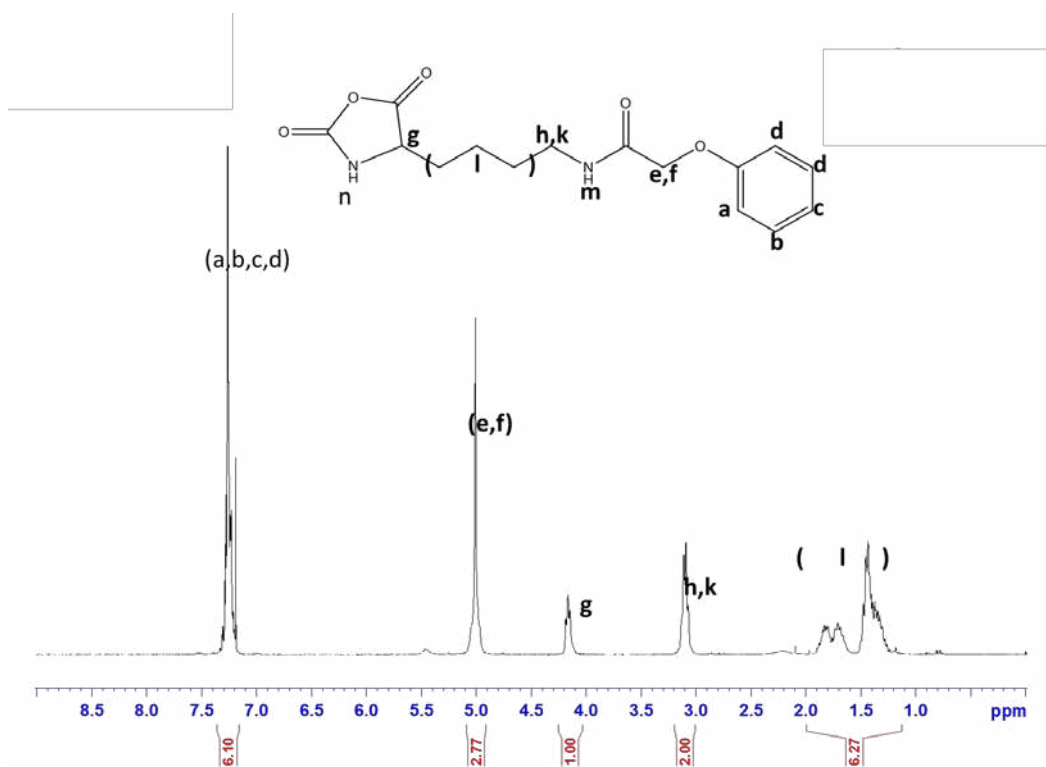
Scheme S2 Synthesis of N-Phthaloyl-6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan (compound **3**)

$$\text{Trityl Percentage} = \frac{(\text{integration from } 6.5 \text{ to } 7.5)/15}{(\text{integration from } 3.5 \text{ to } 5.5)/5} \times 100\%$$

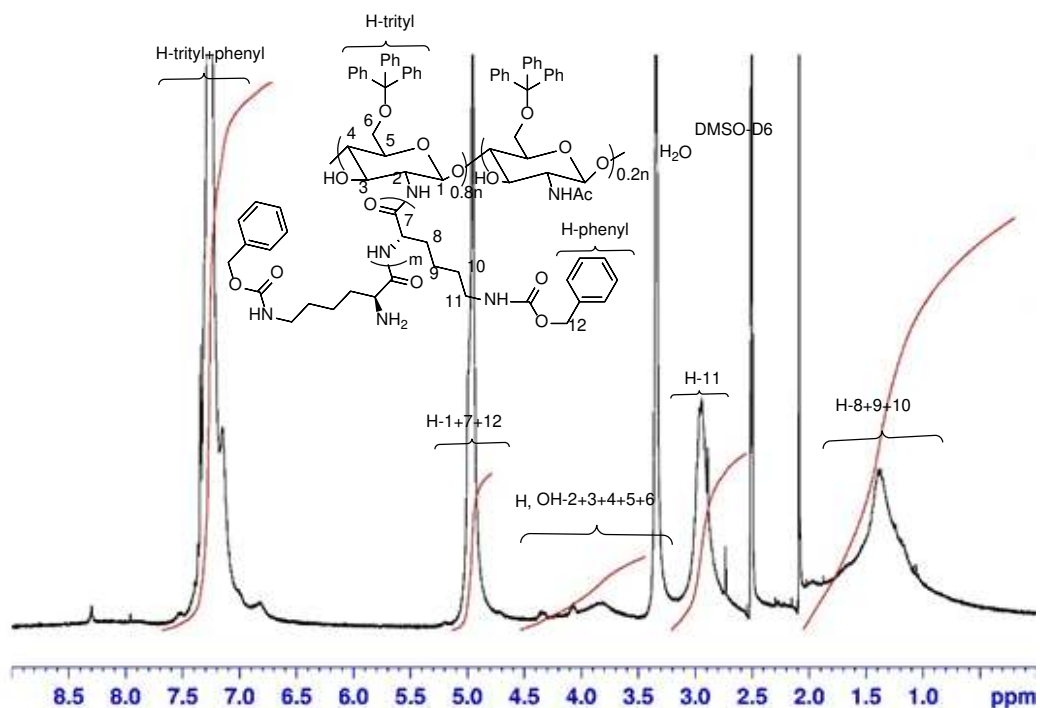


Scheme S3 Synthesis of 6-O-triphenylmethyl chitosan (compound **4**):

$$\text{Trityl Percentage} = \frac{(\text{integration from 7 to 8})/15}{(\text{integration from 4 to 5})/3} \times 100\%$$

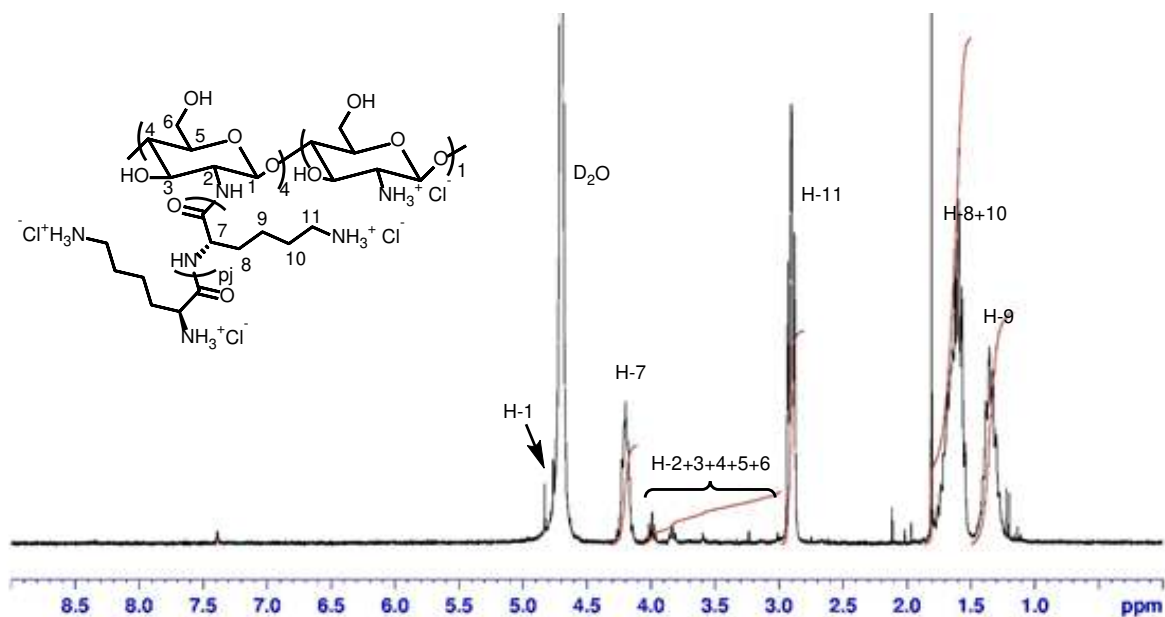


Scheme S4 Synthesis Lysine NCA monomers (compound **5**)



Scheme S5 Synthesis of Protected CSM5-K5 copolymers (compound **6**);

$$N \text{ of protected polymer} = \frac{(\text{integration at } 5)/3}{(\text{integration from } 3.5 \text{ to } 5.5)/5}$$



Scheme S6 Deprotected CSM5-K5

$$\text{polysine chain length per glucosamine units} = \frac{(\text{integration from } 4.1 \text{ to } 4.3)}{(\text{integration from } 3 \text{ to } 4)/6}$$

$$\text{Degree of Deprotection} = \frac{(\text{integration from } 7.3 \text{ to } 7.4)/5}{(\text{intergation from } 4.1 \text{ to } 4.3)} \times 100\%$$

Summary of molecular weight characterization

a) Maldi-Tof Spectrum of CSM5-Kn

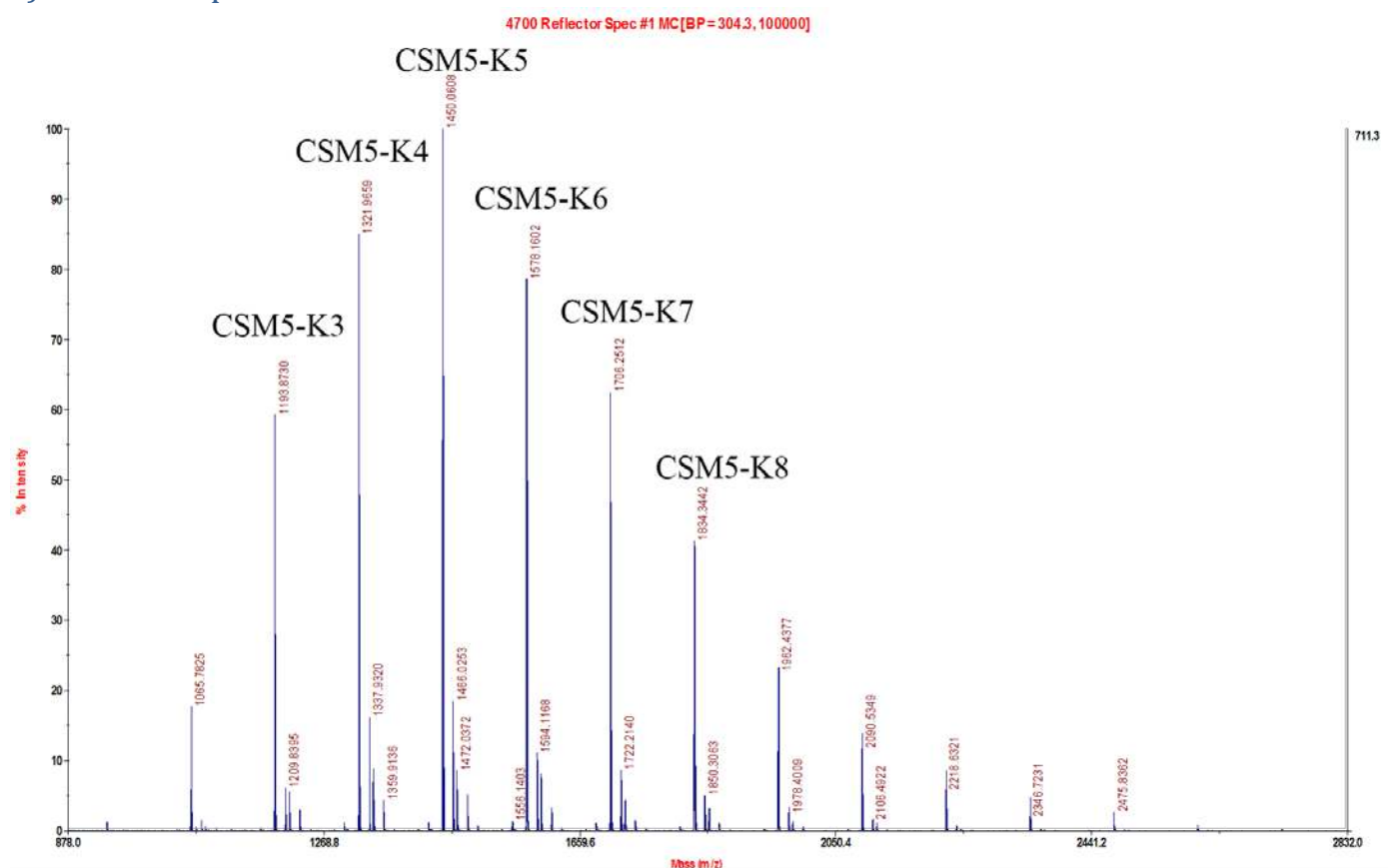


Figure S2 Maldi-Tof Spectrum of CSM5-K5 (Molecular weight: CSM5-K3=1194Da, CSM5-K4=1322Da, CSM5-K5=1450Da, CSM5-K6=1578Da, CSM5-K7=1706, CSM5-K8=1834Da)

b) GPC characterization

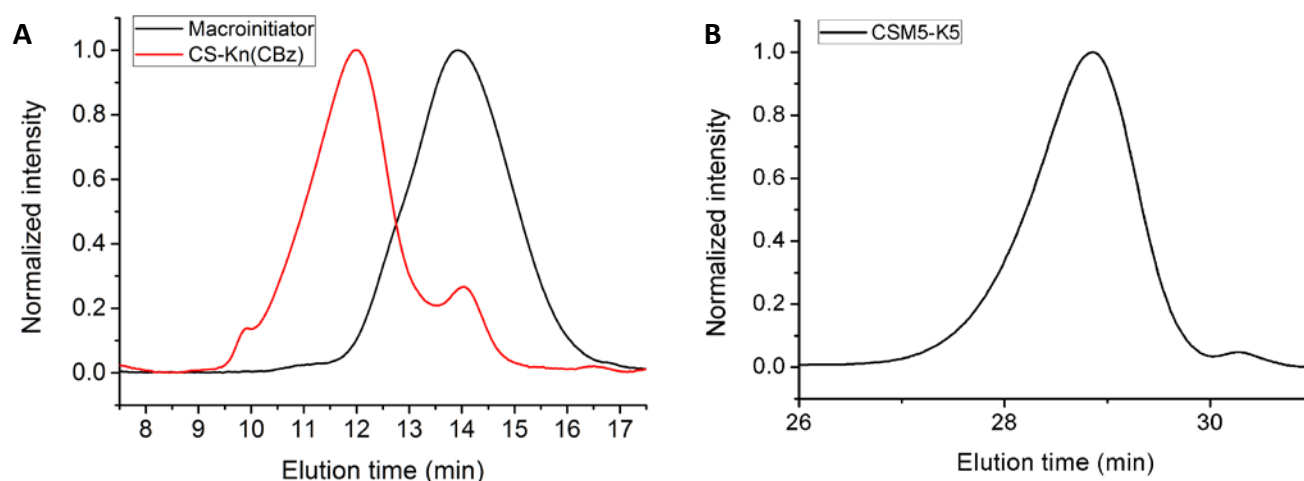


Figure S3 (A) Summary of DMF phase GPC spectra for protected chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CS-Kn(CBz)) compared with macroinitiator. (B) water phase GPC spectra for deprotected chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CSM5-K5) via HCl deprotection method

Light Scattering Study

Calculation of Radius of Gyration (R_g)¹³

The Radius of Gyration of nanoparticles can be obtained by static light scattering interpreted by Zimm plot at specific concentration:

The basic static light scattering principle equation is Rayleigh-Debye-Zimm Formulism:

$$\frac{Kc}{R_\theta} = \left(\frac{1}{M_w} + 2A_2c \right) \frac{1}{P_\theta}$$

where M_w is the aggregated molecular weight of nanoparticle; c is the concentration of solution.

The constant K is calculated from:

$$K = \frac{2\pi^2}{\lambda_0^4 N_A} \left(n_0 \frac{dn}{dc} \right)^2$$

where λ_0 is laser wavelength; N_A is Avogadro's Number; n_0 is refractive index number of solvent; and $\frac{dn}{dc}$ is the differential refractive index number of solvent increment.

The P_θ is calculated from:

$$P_\theta = 1 + \frac{16\pi^2 n_0^2 R_g^2}{3\lambda_0^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

where R_g is Radius of Gyration, and θ is the angle of measurement.

The R_θ can be calculated based on average light scattering intensity of solution over time:

$$R_\theta = \frac{I_A n_0^2}{I_T n_T^2} R_T$$

where I_A is the average intensity of solution over time, I_T is the intensity of standard (Toluene); n_T is refractive index of standard (Toluene); and R_T is Rayleigh ratio of standard (Toluene).

The Rayleigh-Debye-Zimm Formulism can be further simplified into:

$$\frac{Kc}{\Delta R_{(\theta,c)}} = \frac{1}{M_w} \left(1 + \frac{R_g^2}{3} q^2 \right) + 2A_2c$$

where A_2 is the second coefficient, and $\Delta R_{(\theta,c)}$ is measured on specific angle of measurement (θ) and concentration of solution (c); and wave factor q^2 is calculated as:

$$q = \frac{4\pi n_0}{\lambda} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

The Radius of gyration (R_g) at specific concentration can be then calculated out by plotting of measured I_A^{-1} against wave factors q^2 at different angles,

$$\frac{Kc}{I_A} = \frac{R_T n_0^2 R_g^2}{3I_T n_T^2 M_w} q^2 + \left(\frac{R_T n_0^2}{M_w I_T n_T^2} + \frac{2R_T n_0^2 A_2 c}{I_T n_T^2} \right)$$

Zimm plot and aggregation number:

The Zimm plot also utilizes the equation:

$$\frac{Kc}{\Delta R_{(\theta,c)}} = \frac{1}{M_w} \left(1 + \frac{R_g^2}{3} q^2 \right) + 2A_2c$$

With different concentration of solution measured at different angles (Figures S4), the extrapolated Y-intercept

at $(\theta,c)=(0,0)$ is the aggregated molecular weight.

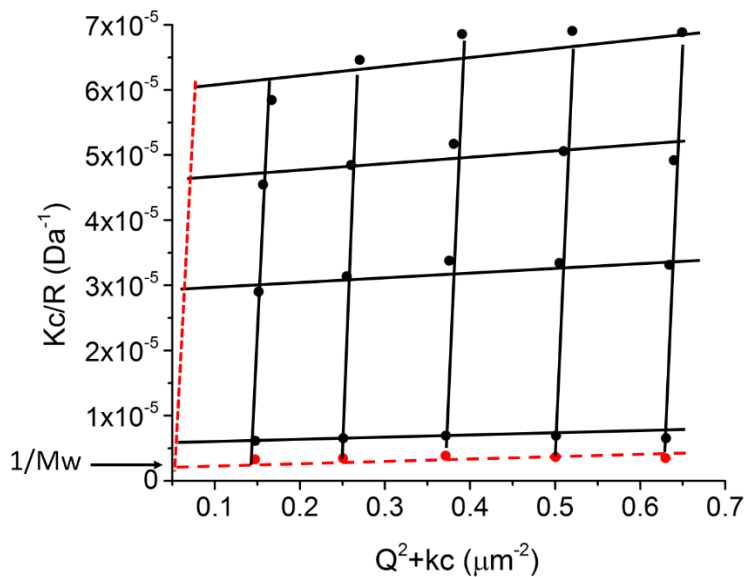


Figure S4: Zimm plot of CSM5-K5, the average molecular weight of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle is:

$$Mw = \frac{1}{0.248 \times 10^5} = 403325Da$$

Therefore, the average aggregation number of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle is:

$$N = \frac{\text{Molecular weight of CSM5 - K5 nanoparticle}}{\text{Molecular weight of CSM5 - K5}} = \frac{403325Da}{3648Da} = 110$$

The molecular weight of CSM5-K5 is based on GPC study.

Determination of (R_h) Hydrodynamic Radius using Correlation functions measured by dynamic light scattering:

The intensity autocorrelation functions of light scattered by the copolymer were measured at angles: 45, 60, 75, 90, 105, 120, 135 and 150.

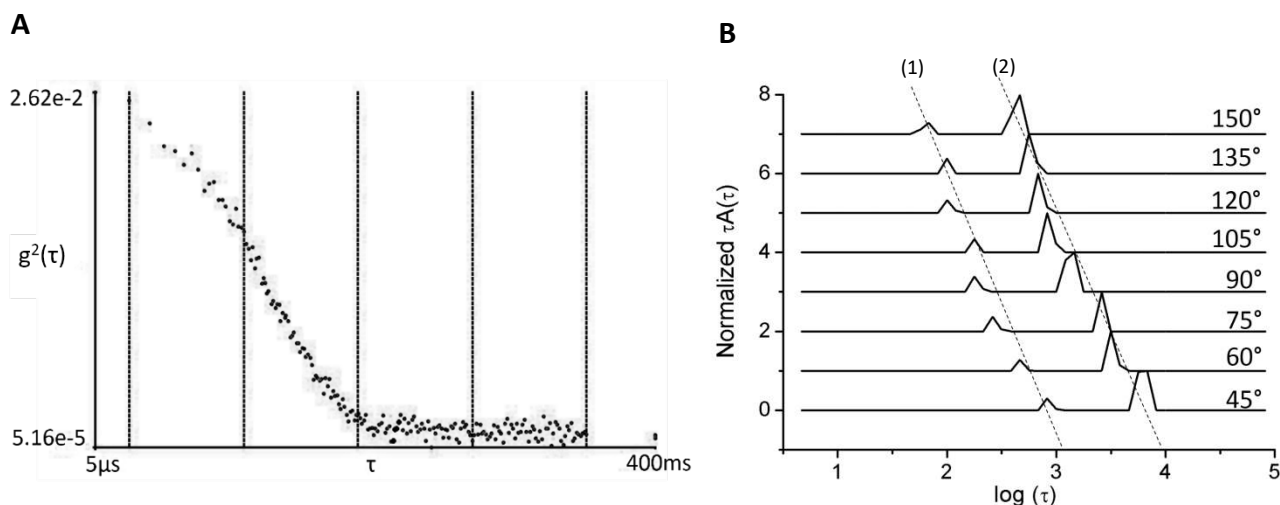


Figure S5 The mathematical analysis of dynamic light scattering followed method presented by Schillen *et al*¹⁴: (A) Autocorrelation function of scattered light ($g^2(\tau)$ vs τ) measured at 90 degrees. The $g^2(\tau)$ is the intensity measured at τ , τ is time in logarithmic scale; (B) Normalized relaxation time distribution function $\tau A(\tau)$ vs. $\log(\tau)$ at different angles (θ) (45, 60, 75, 90, 105, 120, 135 and 150)

The autocorrelation functions (Figure S4A) were processed using GENDIST package. The autocorrelation function was firstly processed by Regularized Inverse Laplace Transformation (RILT), to obtain relaxation time distribution functions ($\tau A(\tau)$ vs. $\log(\tau)$) at different angles (Figure S4B).¹⁴

The hydrodynamic radius (R_h) is calculated based on Stokes-Einstein Equation:

$$R_h = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta D_T}$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, η is the viscosity of the polymer solution and T is absolute temperature in Kelvin (K).

To obtain the diffusion coefficient (D_T) of the polymer suspension, the wave vector q at different angles (θ) are firstly calculated via:

$$q = \frac{4\pi n_0}{\lambda} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

where n_0 is the refractive index of copolymer solution, and λ is incident wavelength, 637 nm.

Then, the decay rates (Γ) at different angles are obtained from relaxation time distribution function, with respect of τ :

$$\Gamma = 1/\tau$$

The decay rates (Γ) at different angles are then plotted against square of wave vector (q^2) as a straight line passing origin point (0,0). The diffusion coefficient (D_T) is the gradient of the of decay rate Γ variation with q^2 :

$$D_T = \frac{\Delta\Gamma}{\Delta q^2}$$

Finally, the hydrodynamic radius R_H was calculated using this diffusion coefficient in the Stokes-Einstein Equation, giving:

$$R_h = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta D_T}$$

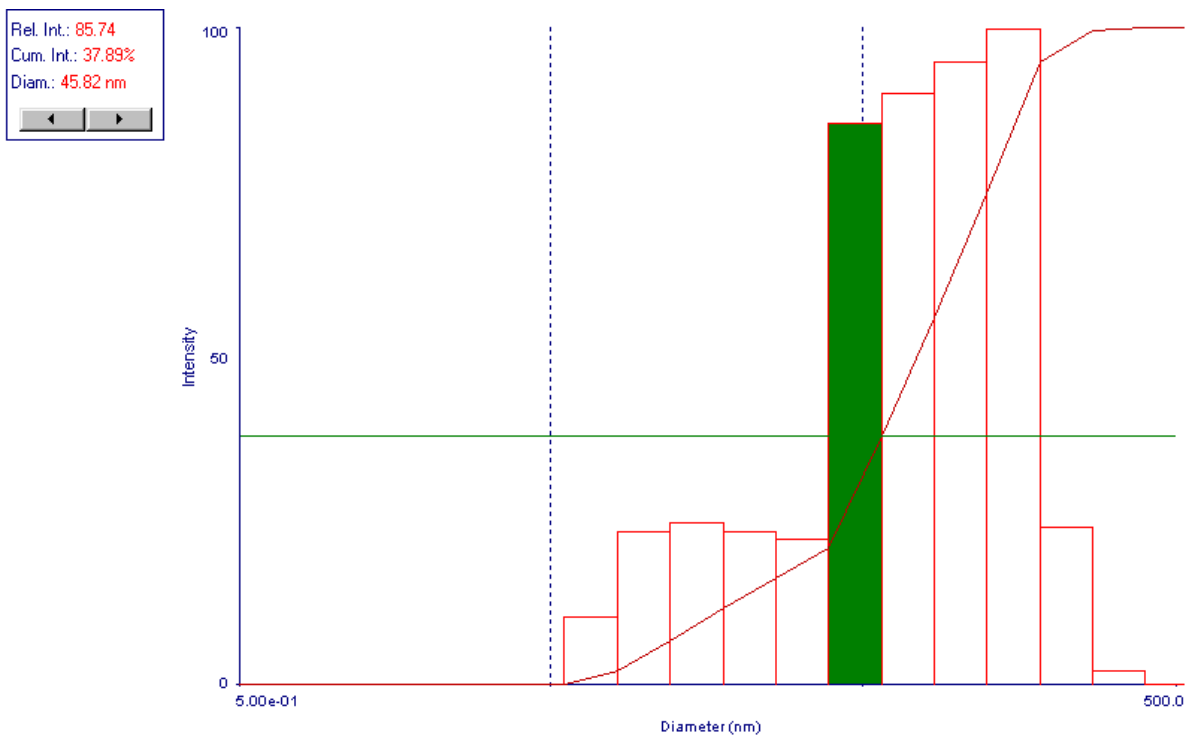


Figure S6 Distribution of hydrodynamic radii for CSM5-K5 measured by dynamic light scattering at 90 Degree. Orange bins: size frequency histogram normalized to 100 at peak. Red line: cumulative size. Green Bar: tracking of intensity at different diameter in curse modal.

Correlation of R_g/R_h to the morphology of a nanoparticle

The structure information can be understood by studying the shape factor, which is calculated via R_g/R_h ¹³:

R_g/R_h	Structure
< 0.6	Core-shell
~ 0.774	Hard Sphere
~ 1	Vesicle
~ 1.5	Gaussian Chain
>2	Long Rod

Circular Dichroism

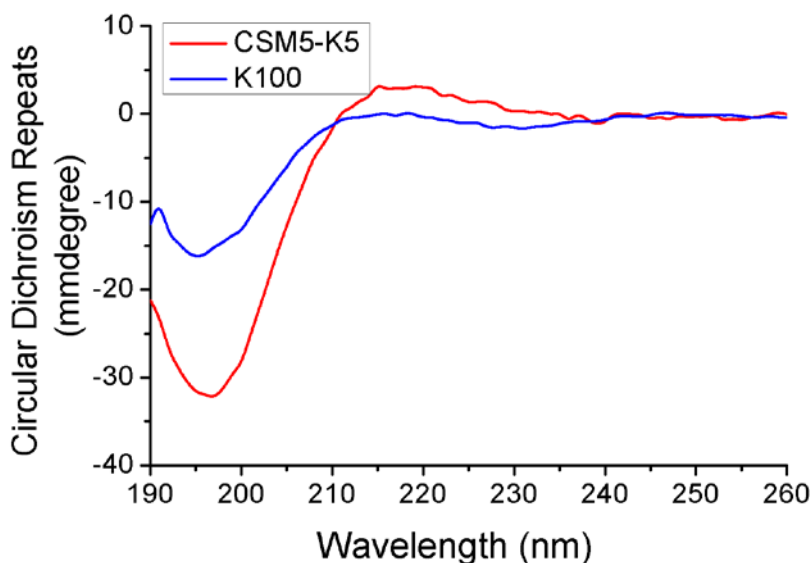


Figure S7 Far-UV Circular Dichroism spectra of chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CSM5-5) and homo-polylysine K100 in DI water, 298.13K.

The CSM5-K5 and K100 show similar negative bands at 195 nm, indicating that the polylysine chains are in the random coil conformation, suggesting a lack of intramolecular hydrogen bonds between the amine groups of lysine repeat units due to protonation

Computational simulation of chitosan-*graft*-oligolysine (CSM5-K5) Aggregation behavior

a) General MD simulation parameters

All MD simulations were performed with GROMACS package, version 4.6.3¹⁵. A leap-frog algorithm was used to integrate Newton's equation of motion, and the time step was set to 2 fs along with the application of LINCS algorithm¹⁶, by which all the covalent bonds between hydrogen atoms and heavy atoms were constrained. Simulation systems were solvated in TIP3P water model¹⁷. Sodium and chlorine ions, characterized by Joung *et al.*¹⁸, were used as the counter ions and added to reach a concentration of 0.17 M

physiological salt solution. A cutoff of 1.2 nm was used for both van der Waals interaction calculation and short-range electrostatic interaction calculation, and correspondingly Particle mesh Ewald (PME)¹⁹ method was employed to deal with the long-range electrostatic interaction. All the visualization work was done by PyMol, version 1.5.0.3.

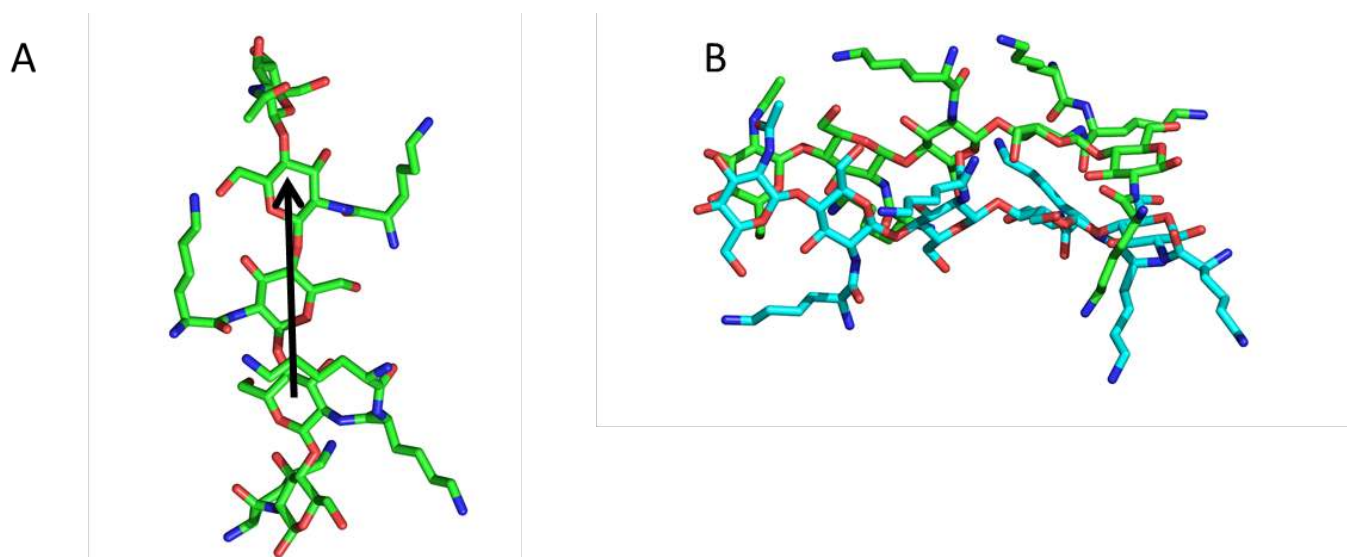


Figure S8A Molecular structure of CSM5-K5 (A) one CSM5-K5 is composed of one chitosan chain with 5 sugar repeat units and 4 oligolysine side chains (length 1, 2, 1, and 1 respectively), which are grafted onto the amino group of sugar units. (B) Two CSM5-K5 exist in an aggregated state in solution. This self-assembly happens with a configuration of two parallel chitosan chains, which is favorable for the chitosan-chitosan H-bonds formation. Nitrogen and oxygen atoms are colored as blue and red respectively, carbon atoms are colored as green and cyan to differentiate different molecules.

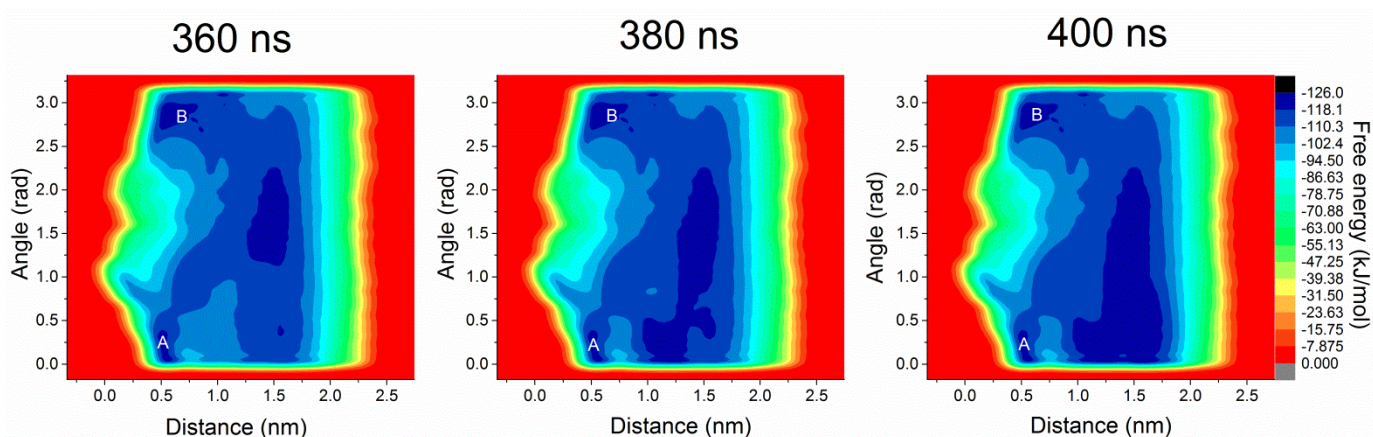


Figure S8B Free energy surfaces (FES) of CSM5-K5's dimerization. A well-tempered meta-dynamics simulation was performed using the distance and angle as collective variables (CVs). Distance is defined as center of mass distance between the chitosan chains of two CSM5-K5 molecules, and angle is the included angle between two vectors, each of which points from the 2nd sugar residue to the 4th sugar residue, as the black arrow shown in Figure S8A. FES was similar at different simulation time, especially in the area with small distance value, indicating the convergence of the simulation. Two local minima, labelled as A and B, were found in the FES, and both of them appeared in the area with small chitosan-chitosan distance and small

or large chitosan-chitosan angle.

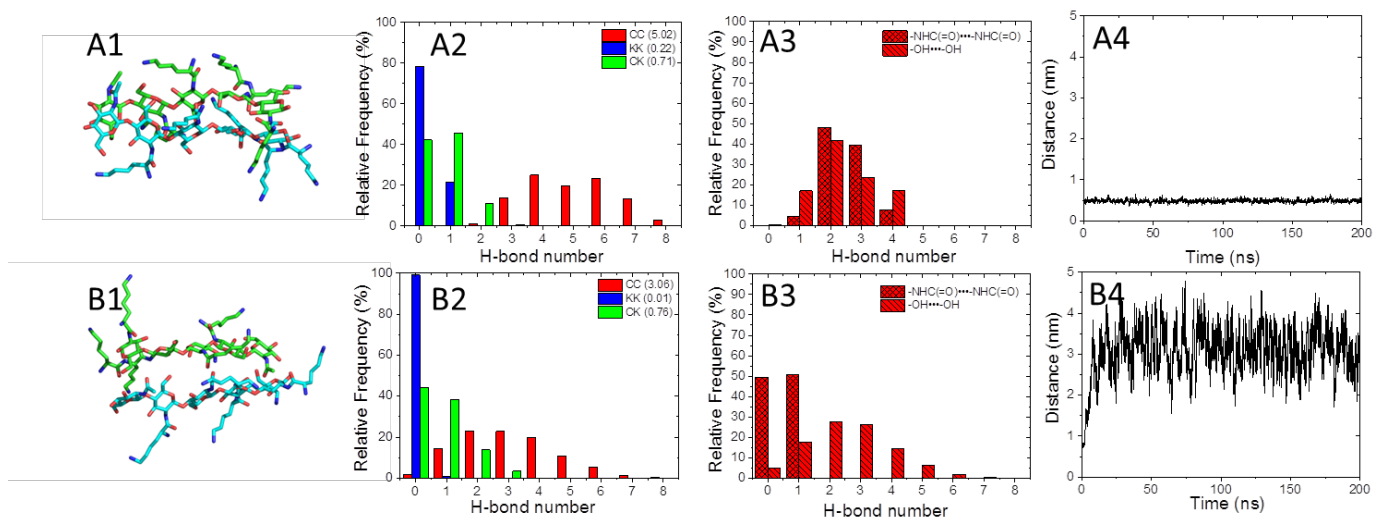


Figure S8C H-bonds and stability of structures in minimum A and B. Representative dimer conformations of minimum A (A1) and minimum B (B1) were obtained by clustering structures in each minimum based on RMSD with respect to the two chitosan chains with a cutoff of 0.1 nm using gromos method²⁰. A2 and B2 presented frequency distributions of H-bonds, distinguishing chitosan (C) and polylysine (K), between the 2 molecules of configurations within each minimum. H-bonds between chitosan and chitosan, chitosan and polylysine, polylysine and polylysine were denoted as CC, CK, KK respectively. Also shown in A2 and B2 was the average number of H-bonds (inside the parenthesis). CC H-bond played a critical role in aggregation of CSM5-K5. CC H-bonds could be divided into two categories: the $-NHC(=O)\cdots NHC(=O)$ H-bonds and $-OH\cdots OH$ H-bonds, and their frequency distribution were shown in A3 and B3. Minimum A has more $-NHC(=O)\cdots NHC(=O)$ H-bonds than minimum B. Started from the representative structures, 200 ns simulation was performed for each FES minimum. COM distance between two CSM5-K5 (A4 and B4) showed that minimum A was more stable than minimum B, indicating that more $-NHC(=O)\cdots NHC(=O)$ H-bonds promoted a more stable dimer conformation.

pH potentiometric titration of chitosan-graft-oligolysine and linear polylysines

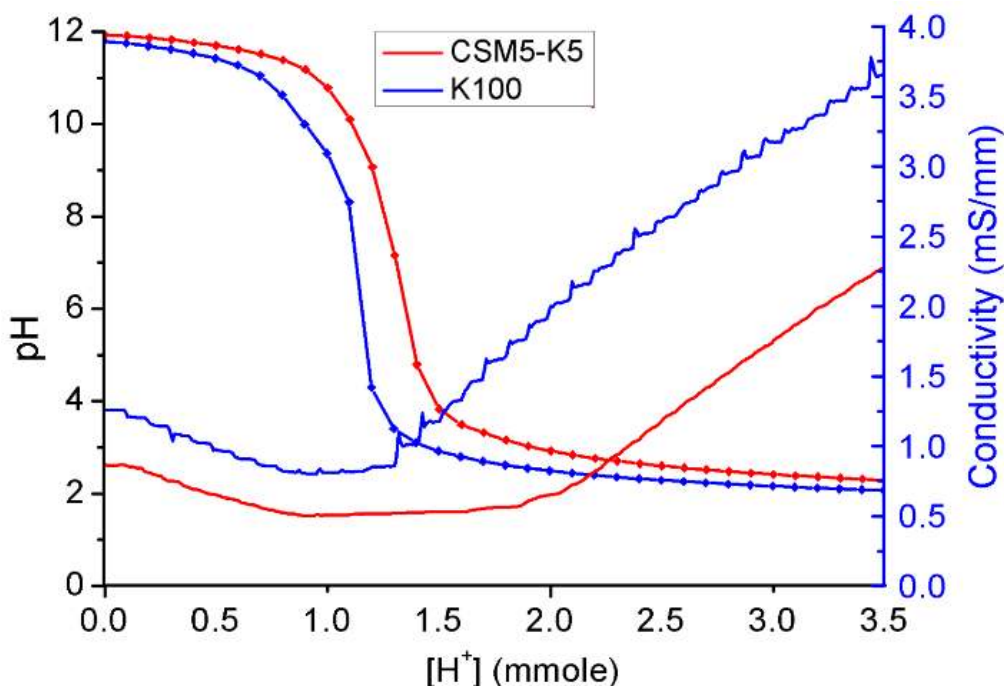


Figure S9A pH potentiometric titration curves for (A) Chitosan-graft-oligolysine (CSM5-K5) and (B) Linear polylysine (K100)

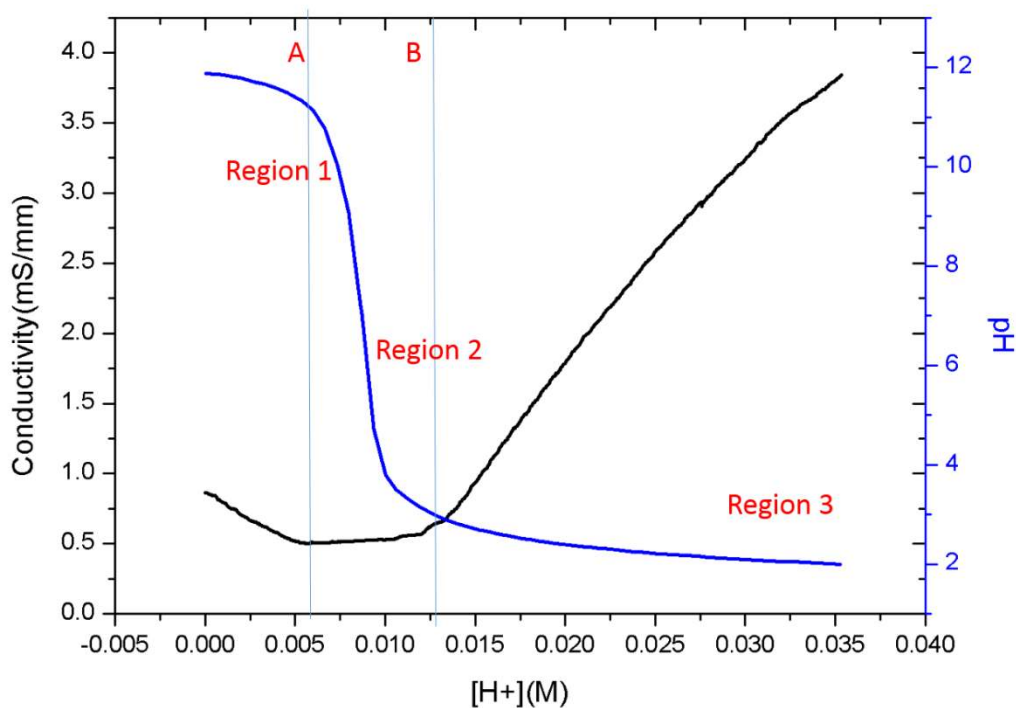


Figure S9B Illustration of pH titration calculation

pH-potentiometric titrations of CSM5-K5 (Figure S9B) show the protonation process as pH is tuned from 12 to 2. As pH is reduced from 11.5 to 3.0 (Region 2) the conductivity of the solution increases slowly as the

amine groups are protonated. As pH is reduced further to values below 3.0 (Region 3), the conductivity increases more rapidly, suggesting that the amine groups are fully protonated by pH about 3.0

The acidic dissociation constant (pKa) of the polymer corresponding to protonation curve (Figure 3C) is obtained from the pH-potentiometric titration curve. Taking Figure S9B as an example, the protonation process of amine groups (Region 2) on polymer is detected by conductivity curve between point (A) and (B), with point (A) as 0% protonation ($\alpha=0$), and point (B) as 100% protonation ($\alpha=1$). The acidic dissociation constant (pKa) value is calculated based on the pH value corresponding to each degree of protonation in Region 2 via the Henderson-Hasselbalch Equation:

$$pK_a = pH + \log\left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha}\right)$$

pKa is not defined for the limits $\alpha = 0$ and 1, corresponding to the pH values of ~ 11.5 and ~ 3.0 . For intermediate values of pH, α is interpolated between these two limits and pKa at the corresponding pH computed from the above relation.

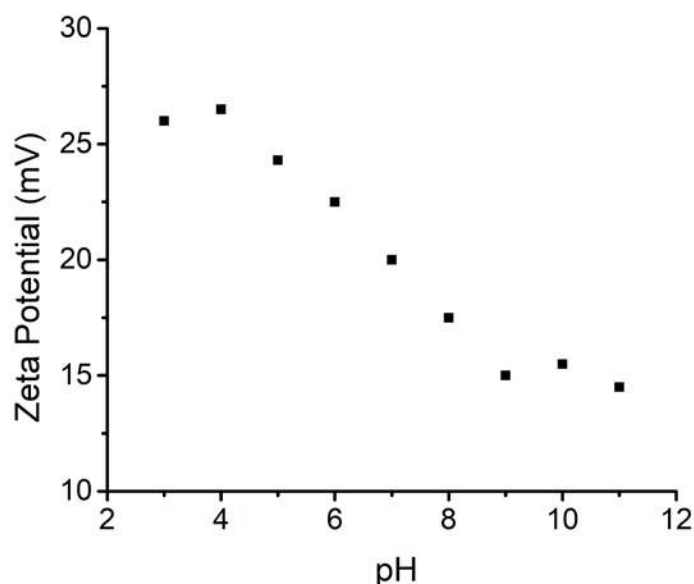


Figure S9C Zeta-potential of CSM5-K5 nanoparticle measured from pH=3 to pH=11 in water

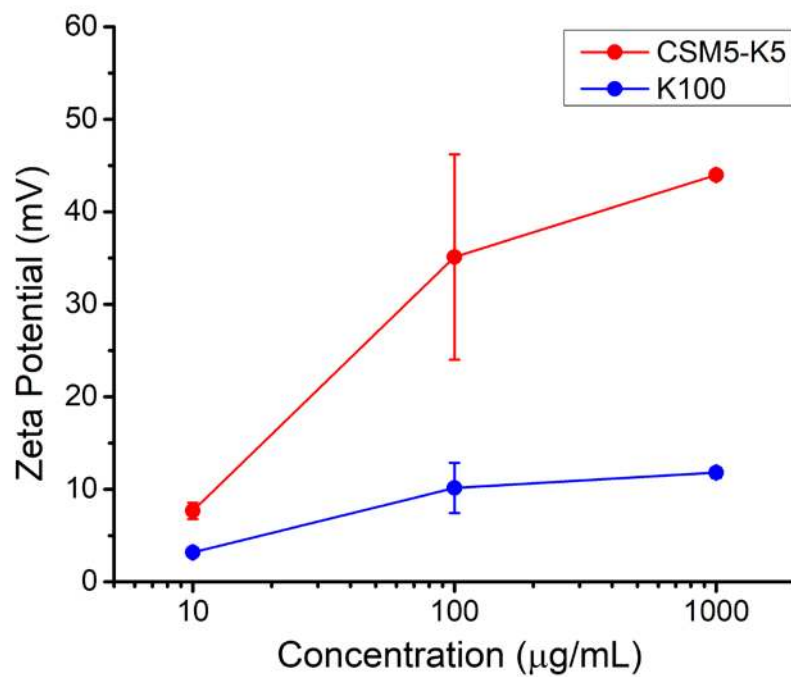


Figure S9D Zeta-potential of CSM5-K5 and K100 measured at different concentration in DI water.

Isothermal Titration Calorimetry Studies

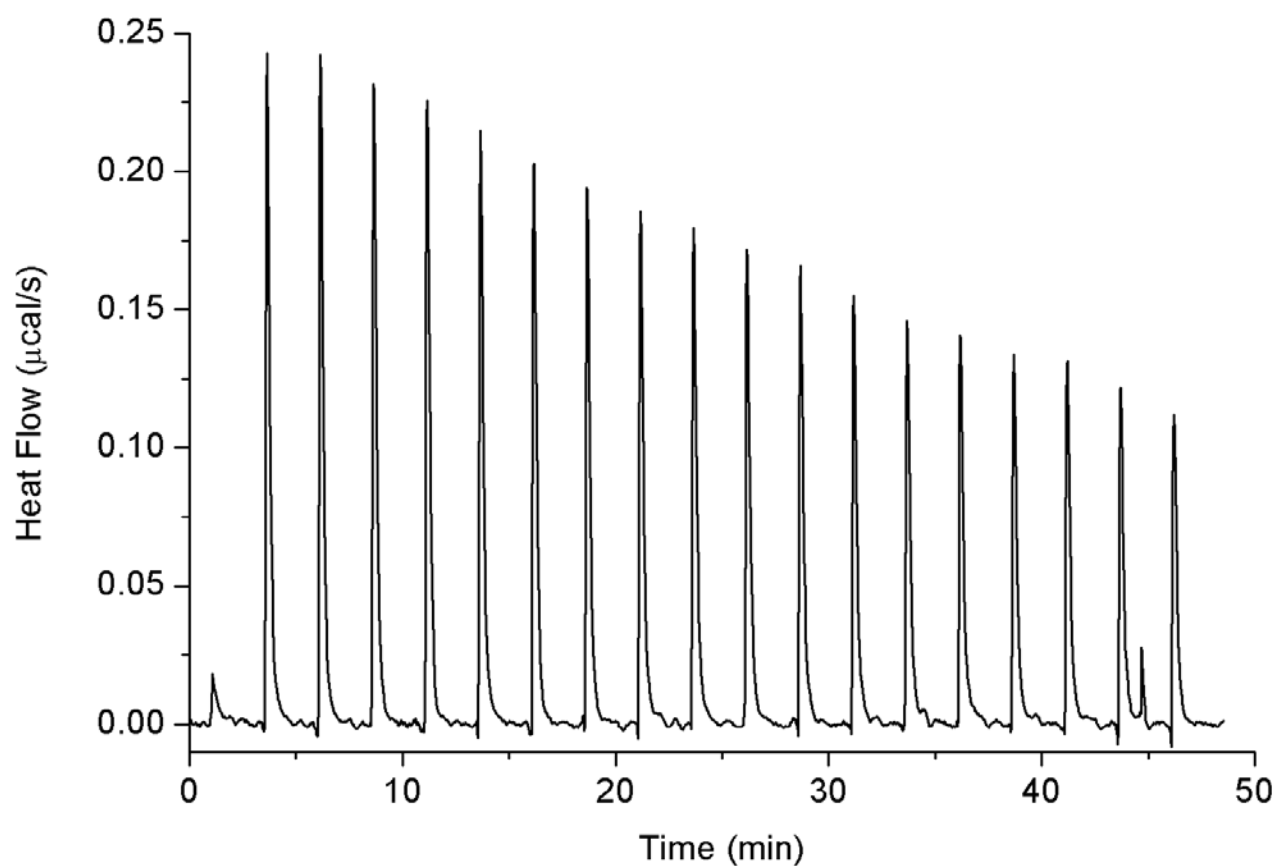


Figure S10A Isothermal Titration Calorimetry Spectrum of CSM5-K5 with pure MES buffer (pH=6.5)
For CSM5-K5 titrated with pure MES buffer (pH=6.5), trace amount of enthalpy heat is released at first, followed by greater increase in entropy, suggesting the dilution effect of concentrated CSM5-K5 solution.

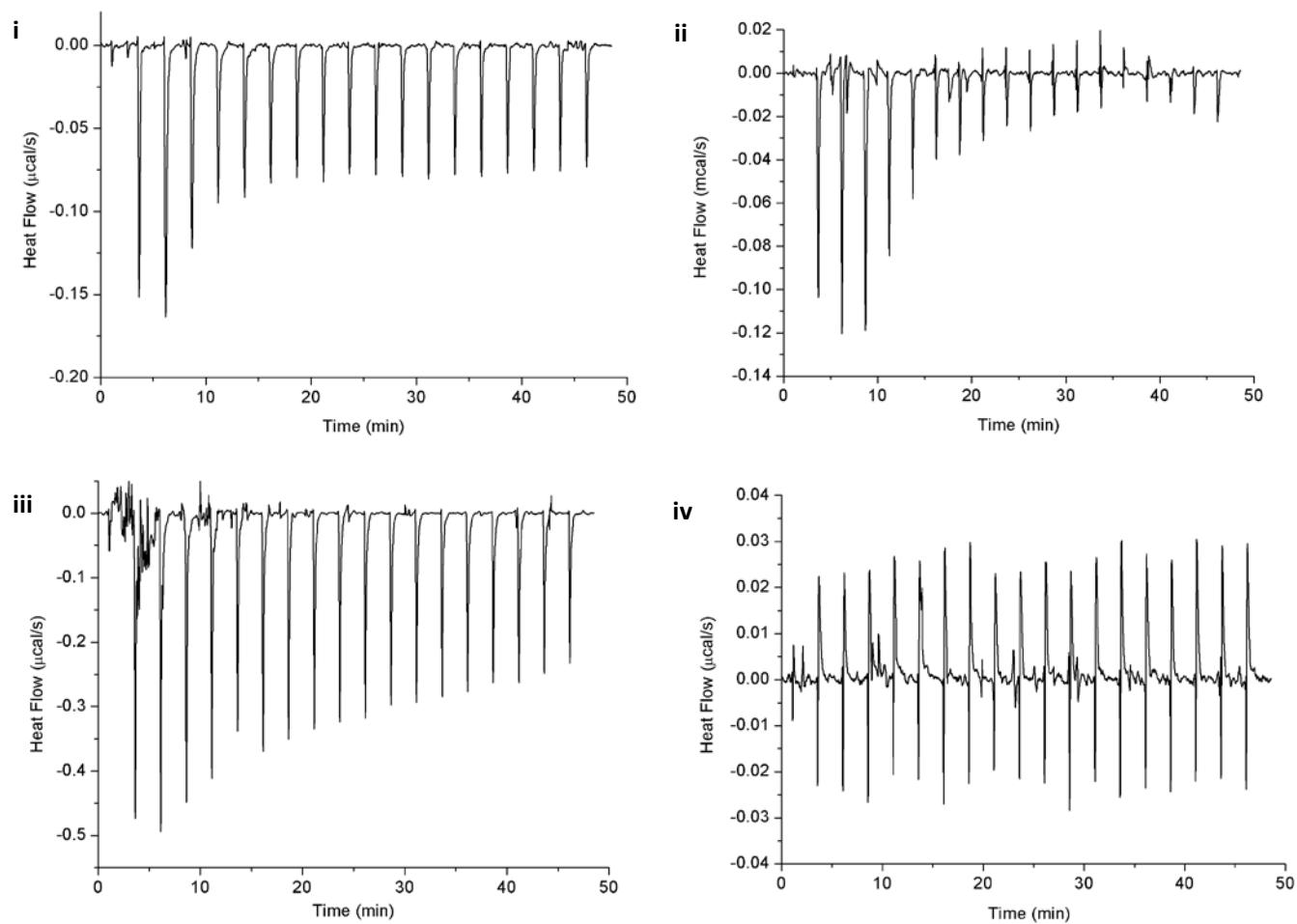


Figure S10B Summary of heat flow ($\mu\text{cal/s}$) change with time determined by isothermal titration calorimetry study of CSM5-K5 interaction with (i) POPC: LPS liposome with LPS from *E. coli*; (ii) POPC: LPS liposome with LPS from *P. aeruginosa* PA01; (iii) POPC: POPG liposome; (iv) Purely POPC liposome

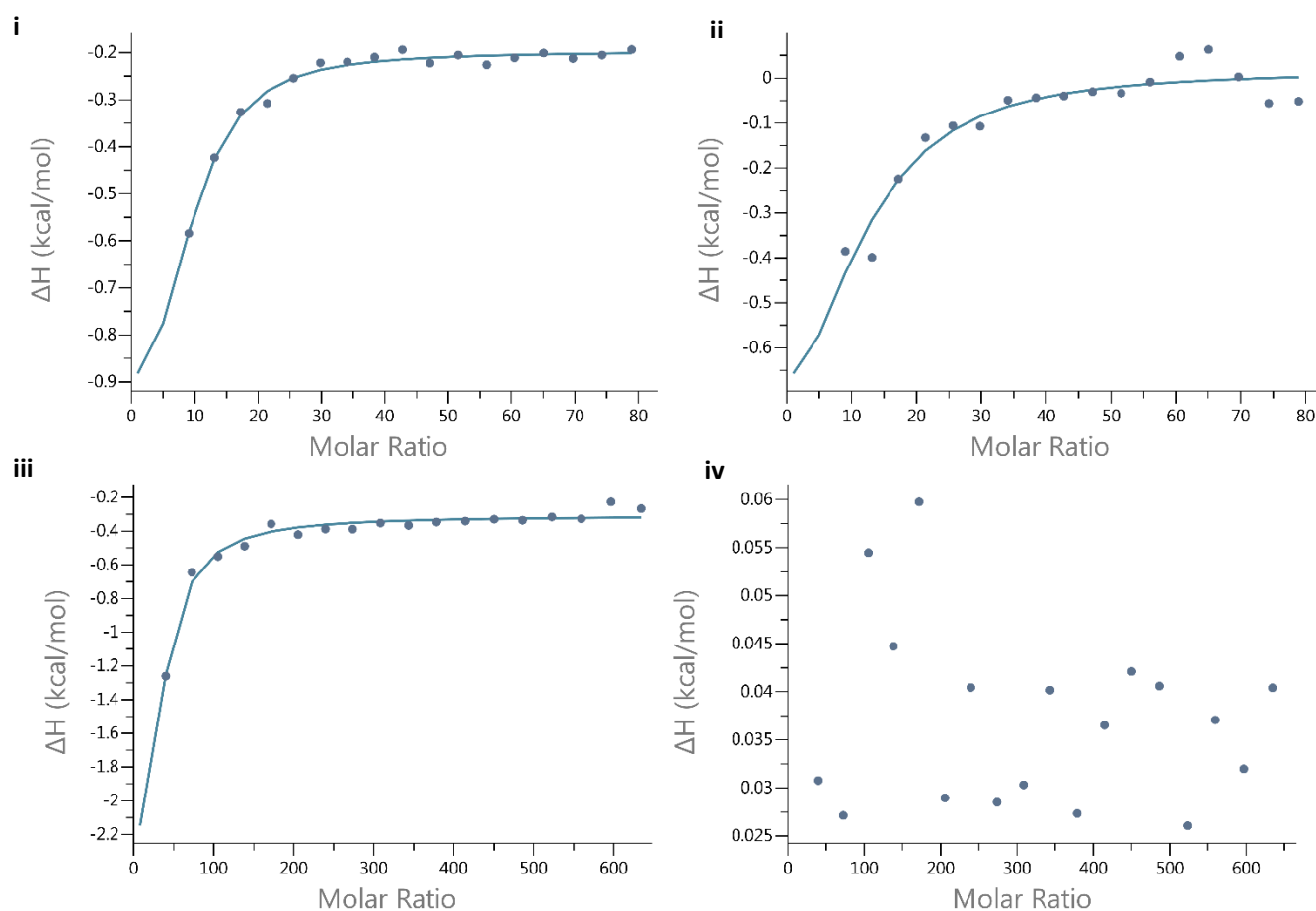


Figure S10C Summary of enthalpy profile (kcal/mol) change with mole ratio of polymer added into liposomes determined by isothermal titration calorimetry study of CSM5-K5 interaction with (i) POPC: LPS liposome with LPS from *E coli*; (ii) POPC: LPS liposome with LPS from *Paeruginosa* PAO1; (iii) POPC: POPG liposome; (iv) Pure POPC liposome.

Dynamic Light Scattering Study of liposome interaction with polymers

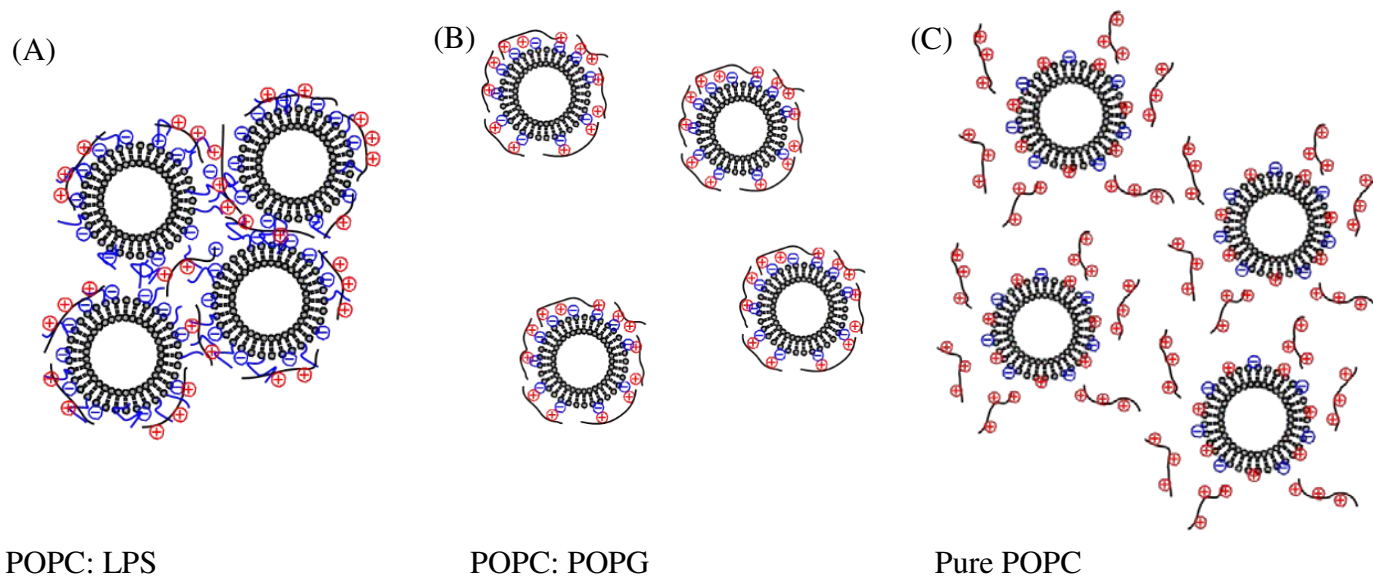


Figure S11 Illustration of cationic copolymer binding on model liposomes: (A) the polymer has very strong interaction with POPC:LPS liposomes and mediates aggregation, (B) the polymer can bind with POPC:POPG liposomes, (C) the polymer has no interaction with Pure POPC liposomes).

We applied dynamic light scattering (DLS) to study the interaction of CSM5-K5 with different model liposomes. Pristine chitosan (3kDa molecular weight) and linear K100 salt were used as comparisons (Table S5). Pristine chitosan 3kDa and linear polylysine individually did not cause any change in hydrodynamic radius, indicating negligible interaction. However, CSM5-K5 copolymers show strong binding interaction with POPC:LPS liposome model: the hydrodynamic radii of POPC:LPS liposome incubated with the CSM5-K5 series increase dramatically from around 75 nm to 682 nm, suggesting aggregation of liposomes mediated by the copolymer (Figure S11A). This result is consistent with the ITC finding that the binding of LPS with CSM5-K5 is thermodynamically favorable. CSM5-K5 also shows some interaction with POPC:POPG liposome, as the size slightly increases. The polymers might be adsorbed on the surface of the liposomes (Figure S11B). For the pure POPC model, which represents mammalian cells, the interaction with CSM5-K5 copolymer is not significant as the size of liposome shows almost no changes from DLS (Figure S11C). These

DLS results suggest CSM5-K5 preferentially interacts with bacterial membrane.

Computational Simulation of chitosan-graft-oligolysine Interaction with membrane

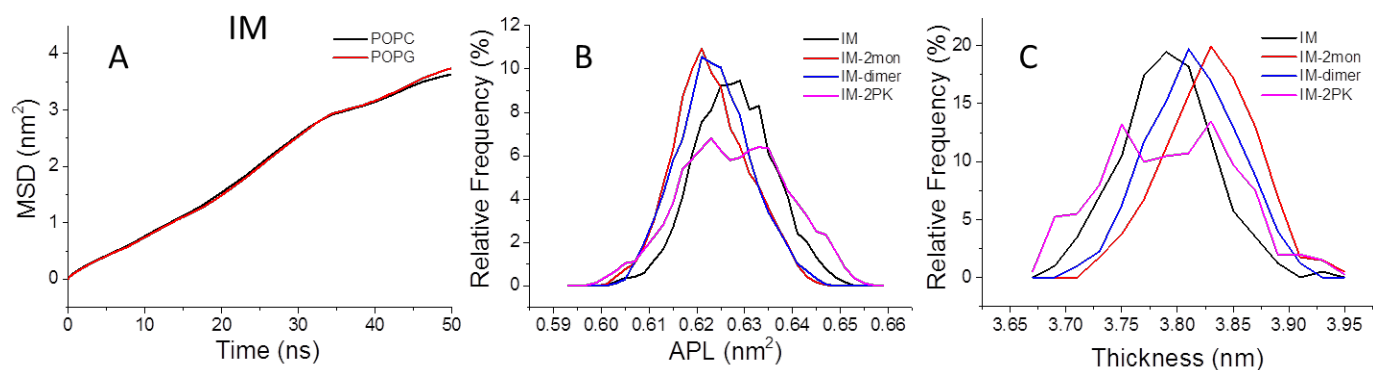


Figure S12A Lateral mean square displacements (MSD) of POPC and POPG in IM system is shown in (A). Based on the least squares fitting to Einstein relation $MSD = 4Dt + c$, where D is the diffusion coefficient and c is a constant, diffusion coefficients for POPC and POPG were 2.19 ± 0.25 ($1e-7$ cm²/s) and 2.23 ± 0.08 ($1e-7$ cm²/s) respectively. The high diffusion constant indicated that our membrane was in a fluid phase. Area per lipid (APL) in IM-2mon and IM-dimer systems showed a slight decrease as compared to APL in IM system (B), and correspondingly, a slight increase of thickness for membranes in IM-2mon and IM-dimer systems was observed (C). Distance of phosphorus atoms in different membrane leaflet were used to calculate membrane thickness.

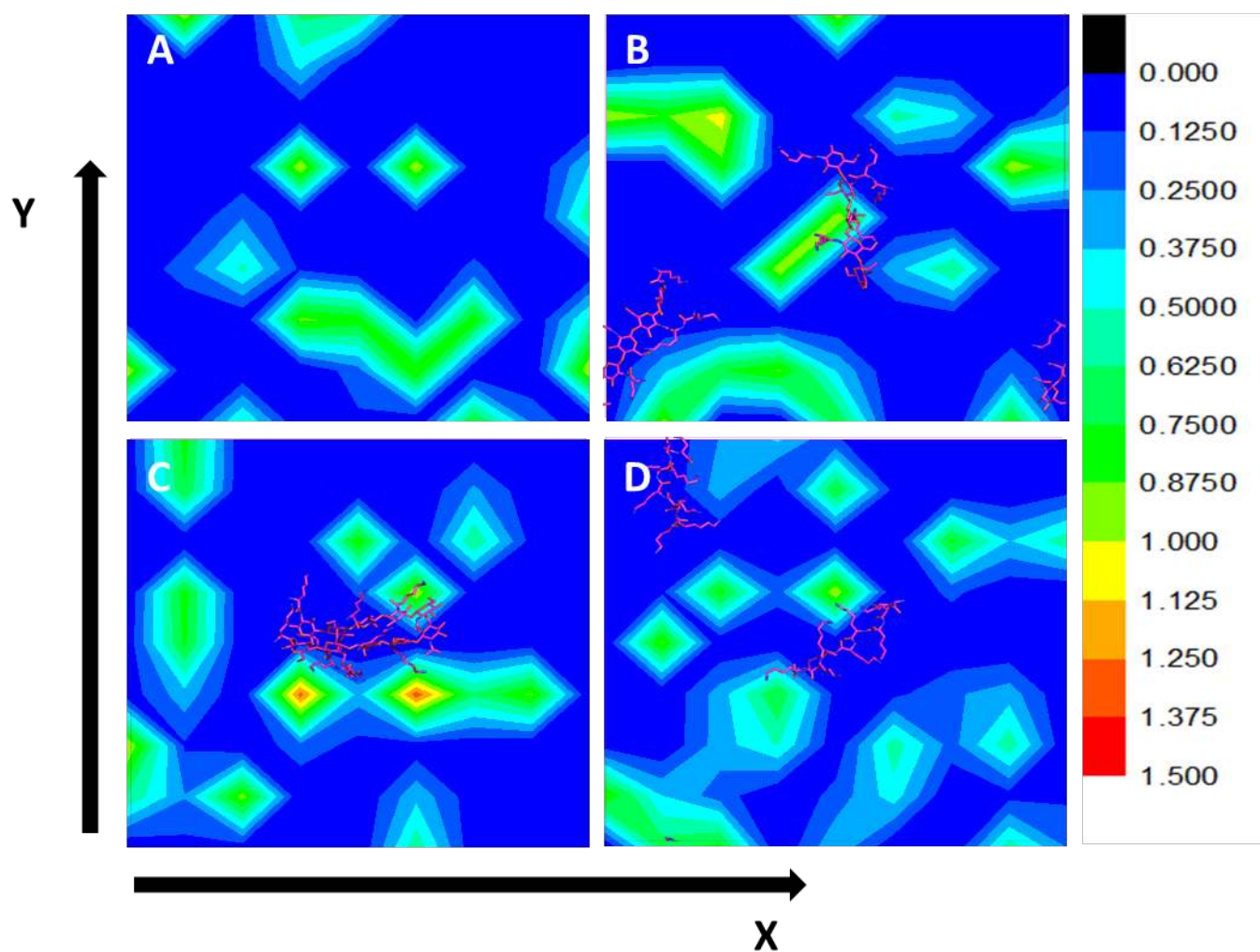


Figure S12B. Accumulation of POPG in system IM (A), IM-2mon (B), IM-dimer (C) and IM-2PK (D). 100 frames in the last 1 ns simulation were picked out to compute the average number of lipid molecules as a function of X,Y coordinates. Each window is a top view of simulation box and has a size of approximately 7.1nm * 7.1nm. The positions of the polycations are labeled with red lines. One molecule in (B) is divided at the simulation boundary due to the periodic boundary conditions (PBC). POPG in IM-dimer system was more concentrated than others.

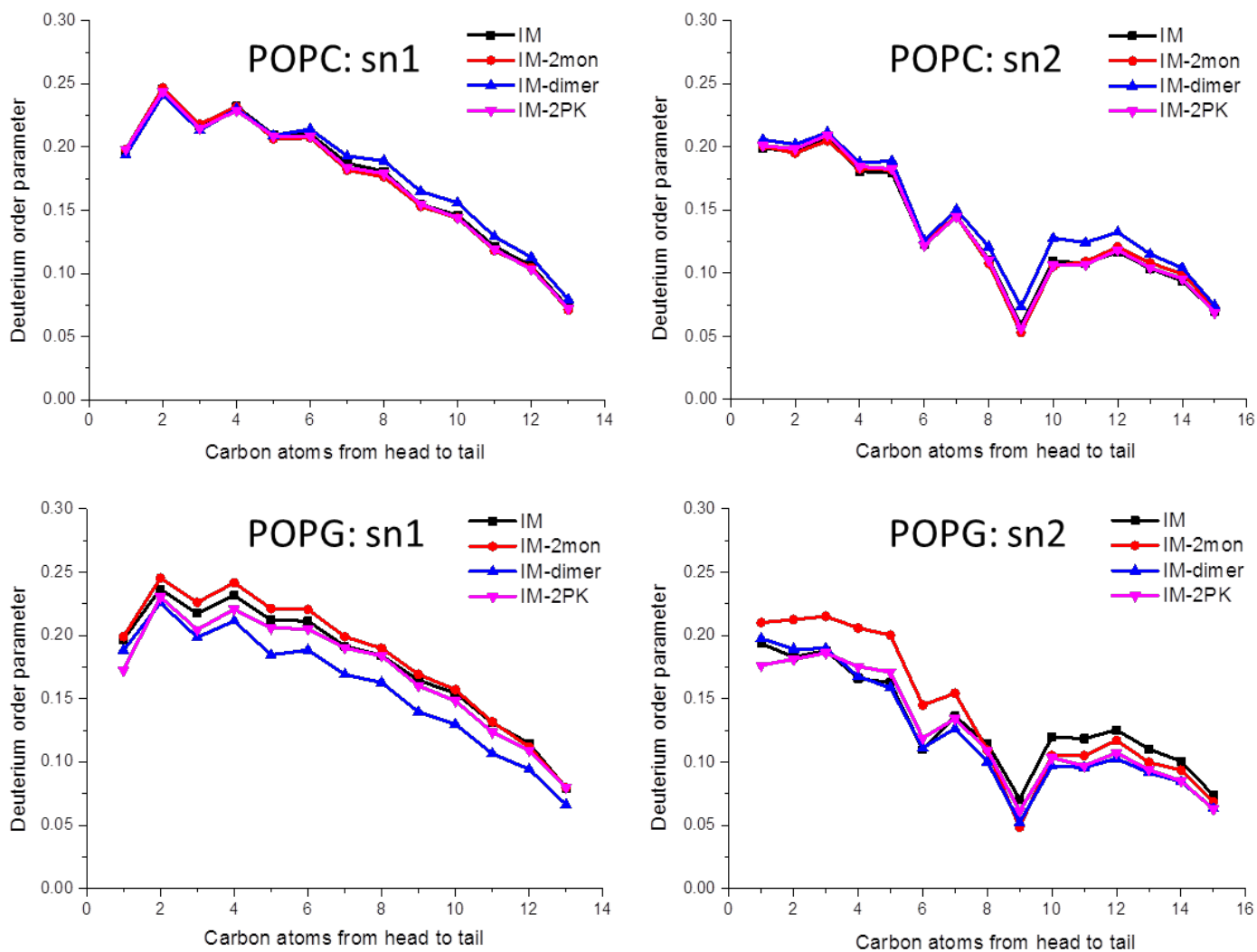


Figure S12C Deuterium order parameters for two acyl chains of POPC and POPG in different systems. Parameters were calculated based on $S_{cd}(z) = \frac{3}{2} \langle \cos^2 \theta(z) \rangle - \frac{1}{2}$, where $\theta(z)$ is the angle between the normal to the bilayer and the C-C vector located at z . CSM5-K5 were more effective to POPG than to POPC, but the effect was limited based on our simulation.

Cryo-TEM images of MRSA BAA-40 treated with CSM5-K5

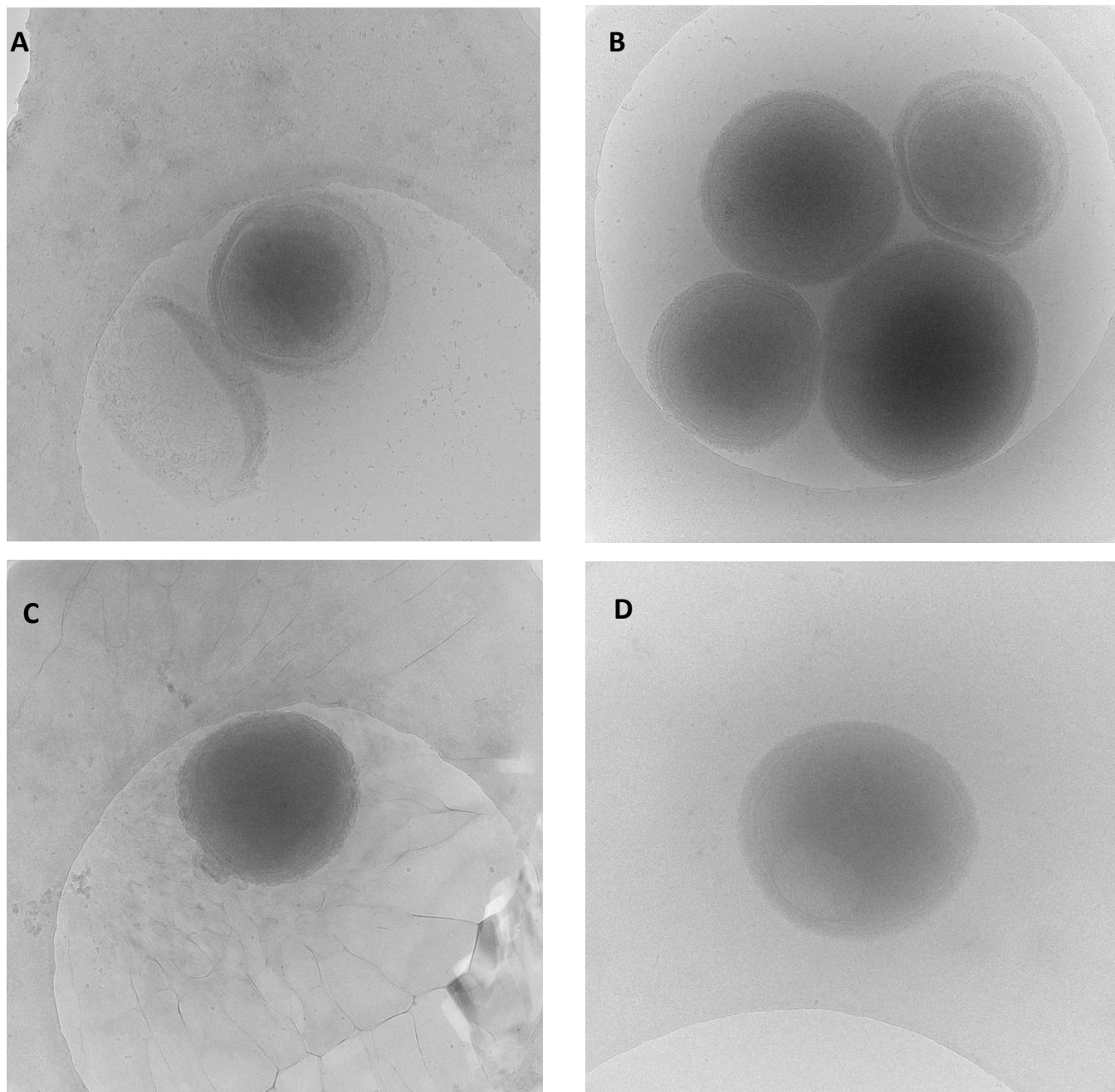


Figure S13 Cryo-TEM images of MRSA BAA-40 treated with (A)1×MIC, (B)2×MIC, (C)4×MIC and (D)8×MIC concentration of CSM5-K5

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