Self-Immolative Polymers with Potent and Selective Antibacterial Activity by Hydrophilic Side Chain Grafting

Cansu Ergene and Edmund F. Palermo*

Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 110 8th St., Troy, New York 12180, USA

*Email: palere@rpi.edu

10 Abstract. We report the first example of a self-immolative polymer that exerts potent antibacterial activity combined with relatively low hemolytic toxicity. Specifically, self-11 12 immolative poly(benzyl ether)s bearing pendant cationic ammonium groups and grafted poly(ethylene glycol) chains in the side chains were prepared via post-polymerization thiol-ene 13 14 chemistry. These functional polymers undergo sensitive and specific triggered depolymerization 15 into small molecules upon exposure to a designed stimulus (in this example, fluoride ion cleaves 16 a silvl ether end cap). The molar composition of the resulting statistical copolymers was varied 17 from 0 to 100% PEG side chains. The average molar mass of the pendant PEG chains was either 18 800 or 2000 g/mol. The antibacterial and hemolytic activities were evaluated as function of 19 copolymer composition. Strong bactericidal activity (low µg/mL MBC) was retained in 20 copolymers containing 25 – 50% PEG-800, whereas hemolytic toxicity monotonically decreased 21 (up to $HC_{50} > 1000 \ \mu g/mL$) with increasing PEG content. PEG-2000 was far less effective; both 22 the MBC and HC₅₀ decreased to a comparable extent with increasing PEGylation. Overall, the 23 best cell type selectivity index (HC₅₀/MBC ~ 28) was obtained for the copolymer containing ~ 50% cysteamine and $\sim 50\%$ PEG-800 side chains, as compared to the cationic homopolymer 24 25 $(HC_{50}/MBC < 1)$. Thus, systematic tuning of PEG graft density and chain length effectively 26 enhances the cell-type selectivity of these self-immolative polymers by orders of magnitude.

27

1

2 3

4

5

6

7 8

9

- 1 Introduction
- 2

3 The alarmingly rapid proliferation of antibiotic-resistance bacterial infections, compounded by the continuously declining number of new antibiotic drug approvals, is a global health crisis. 4 The urgency of this problem has led many researchers to seek new antibacterial agents¹⁻³. Host 5 defense peptides (HDPs) are components of innate immunity that exert antibacterial efficacy 6 with minimal toxicity to host cells⁴⁻⁶. Synthetic mimics of HDPs including β -peptides⁷, 7 copolymers⁹, polymethacrylates¹⁰⁻¹². peptoids⁸, nvlon-3 polymethacrylamides.¹³ 8 polycarbonates¹⁴⁻¹⁷ and polynorbornenes¹⁸⁻²⁰, are designed to capture the essential 9 physiochemical features of the peptides: cationic charge, hydrophobicity, and short chain 10 length.²¹⁻²⁴ HDPs and their synthetic mimics are widely thought to exert a mechanism of action 11 involving membrane disruption^{25, 26} and are less likely to induce bacterial resistance as compared 12 to conventional antibiotic drugs²⁷. Still, HDPs are expensive to manufacture and are rapidly 13 degraded by proteases in $vivo^{28}$, which motivates the continued development of biomimetic 14 synthetic polymers.²⁹⁻³¹ 15

In contrast to the proteolytic instability of HDPs, vinyl-based synthetic antibacterial polymers 16 do not degrade appreciably in physiological conditions. Their chemical stability may restrict 17 18 biomedical use due to long-term toxicity in vivo, even if they are non-toxic in short-term in vitro studies^{17, 32}. Thus, biodegradable antibacterial polymers such as polyesters^{32, 33}, polycarbonates¹⁵, 19 ³⁴ and even acetal networks³⁵ are of increasingly high interest. These polymers are subject to 20 21 cleavage at random sites along the backbone of the polymer chains, thus representing a passive 22 degradation rate that is dictated by the chemical structure of the linkage and the solventaccessibility of the microenvironment³⁶. In contrast to conventional biodegradable polymers, 23 metastable "self-immolative" polymers (SIMPs) undergo triggered end-to-end depolymerization 24

in response to a specific stimulus.³⁷ Upon the cleavage of a labile ω -end-cap, above the ceiling 1 2 temperature T_c, the active species of depropagation is liberated and the chain will spontaneously unzip into its component monomers.³⁸⁻⁴¹ This unique phenomenon provides marked signal 3 4 amplification, as well as mechanical transduction of chemical signals, and the unparalleled 5 specificity to control the onset of chemical degradation (rather than simply tuning the passive release profile). SIMPs have been used in applications of drug delivery⁴²⁻⁴⁴, biosensors⁴⁵, 6 microfluidics⁴⁶ and dynamically recyclable plastics^{47, 48} but were not utilized in antimicrobial 7 8 platforms until very recently. In the context of antibacterial materials development, self-9 immolation provides a unique opportunity to trigger the conversion from polymer to small 10 molecule, which dramatically alters the mechanical properties and solubility characteristics of 11 the material, on demand. One may envision application in "smart" bio-responsive coatings that 12 mediate triggered release of biologically active small molecules into the surrounding media.

We recently reported the first example of a biocidal self-immolative polymer⁴⁹ based on 13 modifications to the poly(benzyl ether) (PBE) platform pioneered by Phillips and co-workers.^{50, 51} 14 15 The cationic PBEs bearing primary amine groups displayed rapid, broad-spectrum antibacterial 16 activity and were readily depolymerized into small molecules upon introduction of chemical "trigger". However, these first-generation cationic PBEs are also highly toxic to red blood cells 17 (RBCs). We hypothesized that the intensely hydrophobic nature of the PBE backbone leads to 18 19 the high hemolytic toxicity and limits aqueous solubility. In this work, we present a simple 20 PEGylation strategy to decrease the overall hydrophobicity of the PBEs and thus reduce the 21 hemolytic toxicity, while retaining the antibacterial potency.

The classical approach to HDP-mimetic design involves optimization of two key features in a
 polymer structure: the cationic charge and the hydrophobicity. However, binary copolymers

1 were found to contain both higher cationic charge density and higher hydrophobicity than the average HDP.⁵² It is clear that HDPs are not solely composed of cationic and hydrophobic 2 3 residues, but also contain an abundance of neutral, hydrophilic groups. Consequently, ternary copolymer systems containing neutral, hydrophilic groups (hydroxyls,^{53, 54} sugars,^{55, 56} 4 Zwitterions, ⁵⁷ PEG^{58, 59}) have been studied. Incorporation of the third component played an 5 6 important role in modulating the cell-type selectivity of a polymer by reducing the hemolytic toxicity while maintaining (or even improving) the antibacterial efficacy. Youngblood and co-7 workers reported⁶⁰ ternary antimicrobial copolymers of hydrophobically guaternized 4-vinyl 8 9 pyridine (4VP) with PEG methacrylate. Compared to highly antibacterial and hemolytic quaternized PVP, the PEGylated copolymers exhibited lower hemolytic toxicity and their 10 retained antibacterial activity.⁶⁰ 11

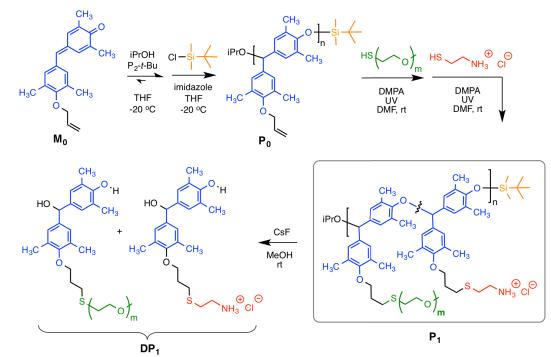
12 In this paper, we modified cationic PBEs with varying content of PEG grafts in the side chains to quantify the effects of reducing hydrophobicity on the antibacterial and hemolytic 13 14 activities. Poly (benzyl ether)s with allyl side chains and silyl ether end-caps were synthesized based on modifications to the route recently described by Phillips and co-workers⁵⁰. Relative to 15 16 the first-generation cationic PBEs, the PEGylated variants exhibited lower hemolytic toxicity while maintaining comparable level of antibacterial potency. The best example showed a 28-fold 17 selectivity toward E. coli over red blood cells, which is a remarkable improvement over our first-18 generation biocidal SIMPs, which gave a selectivity index of < 1. 19

20

21 **Results and Discussion**

Polymer Synthesis. We prepared a library of PBEs with PEGylated and cationic side chains,
in various copolymer ratios and with two different PEG chain lengths (Figure 1). Briefly, anionic

polymerization was carried out at -20 °C in THF, which is below the ceiling temperature of PBE ($T_c \sim 0$ °C at 1M), followed by end-capping with TBDMS-Cl, to give the pre-polymer P₀. The monomer:initiator ratio was fixed at 10:1 in all polymerizations to give short oligomers, because previous work has shown this chain length regime to be the most promising for nontoxic antibacterials.



6 DP1
 7 Figure 1. General scheme for the synthesis of self-immolative antibacterial polymers with pendant PEG
 8 and ammonium groups: low-temperature anionic polymerization of a quinone methide monomer, end 9 capping, post-polymerization thiol-ene functionalization, and chemically triggered depolymerization with
 10 fluoride.

11

We obtained PBEs with the number-average molecular weights in the range of $M_n = 3.4 -$ 3.6 kDa with dispersities of D = 1.42 - 1.57 by GPC. The moderately broad dispersities observed here are comparable to previous reports on related polymerizations by Phillips⁵⁰ and our group.⁴⁹ Although the "livingness" of this polymerization has not been examined mechanistically to date, there are two reasonable hypotheses regarding the cause of MWD broadness; either chain transfer or equilibration of the propagation and depropagation processes 1 following complete conversion. Similar M_n values were found by ¹H NMR end-group analysis 2 (see Supporting Information). The side chains of P_0 are allyl-functionalized for further 3 modification.

4 The goal of this study was to incorporate neutral, hydrophilic functionality into self-5 immolative polymers to confer antibacterial activity with minimal hemolytic toxicity. To that 6 end, the allyl side chains of the pre-polymer P_0 were functionalized with cysteamine HCl (the 7 thiol obtained by cleavage of the disulfide bond in cystamine HCl) and PEG methyl ether thiol 8 (PEG-SH $M_n \sim 800$ Da or 2 kDa) via thiol-ene radical addition. The UV photoiniator Irgacure 9 651 was employed under irradiation of a handheld UV lamp (6W, 365 nm) for 10 min at room 10 temp. In order to control the ratio of PEG and primary amines in the side chains, we first functionalized a fraction of the allyl side groups with PEG thiols, confirmed the partial 11 conversion by ¹H NMR (see data in ESI), and then proceeded to functionalization of the 12 remaining unreacted allyl groups with excess cysteamine HCl. Each copolymer was purified by 13 preparative size exclusion chromatography on LH-20 gel in MeOH. Copolymer compositions 14 and number-average chain lengths were quantified by ¹H NMR for the final copolymer products 15 (Figure 2). See the SI for spectra of all polymers. We successfully obtained graft copolymers 16 across the full range of copolymer compositions (from 0 to 100 mol% PEG). In all cases, the 17 observed copolymer composition is in good agreement with the target values (data in ESI). 18

All of the functionalized copolymers dissolve in polar solvents such as MeOH, DMF and DMSO. Whereas the copolymers containing 0-33% PEG₈₀₀ are not soluble in aqueous buffers, the copolymers with 50% or more PEG₈₀₀ in side chains demonstrated facile water solubility (up to 1 mg/mL). This observation is consistent with the idea that PEGylation alleviates the intense hydrophobicity of the PBE scaffold. Each copolymer was serially diluted in 2-fold increments

from a DMSO stock solution (20 mg/mL) into aqueous buffers to give final polymer
 concentrations in the μg/mL range, which is the desired range for our biological assays. As a
 control experiment, we confirmed that the residual amount of DMSO (maximum 5% v/v in assay
 condition) had no significant effect on bacterial cell viability or on hemolytic activity.

5

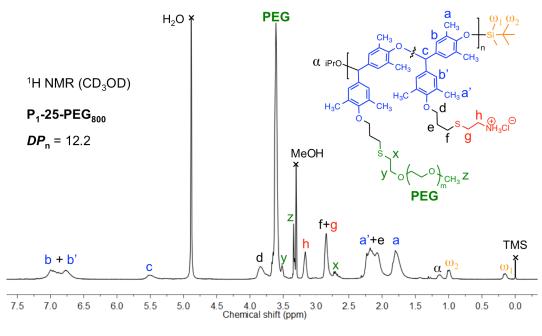


Figure 2. ¹H NMR spectrum (CD₃OD) of P_1 -25-PEG₈₀₀. Copolymer composition and degree of polymerization are calculated based on the ratios of integrated peak areas.

9

6

7 8

10 **Dye-Labeled Polymers.** We also prepared PBEs end-capped with Rhodamine NHS ester, in 11 order to enable their observation by confocal fluorescence microscopy (Figure 5A and B), as 12 well as to aide in quantification of the water-octanol partition coefficients [logP = 13 $log([polymer]_{octanol} / [polymer]_{water})]$, a standard measure of hydrophobicity that is widely used as 14 a metric in structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies. Positive logP values indicate a 15 preference for solubility in octanol, whereas negative values indicate preference for the water 16 phase. These dye labeled polymers were functionalized with cysteamine and PEG-SH in various

1 ratios (0, 50, and 100% PEG) by the same methods 2 as above. Our hypothesis was that PEGylation 3 would reduce the overall hydrophobicity of the 4 copolymers. Indeed, the logP values exhibit a 5 marked dependence on PEG fraction. The logP 6 values for copolymer containing 0, 50, and 100% 7 PEG_{800} in the side chains are +0.26, -0.56, and 8 -1.20, respectively (Figure 3). Thus. the 9 hydrophobicity trend is guite clear: increasing the 10 leads markedlv PEG content to increased

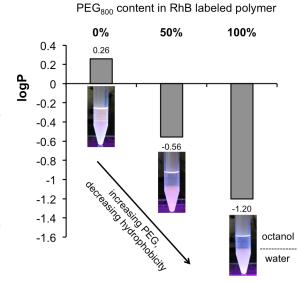


Figure 3. Water-octanol partition coefficients (logP) for the Rhodamine-labeled polymers with 0, 50, and 100% PEG_{800} in the side chains.

hydrophilicity in the copolymers, which strongly supports of the central hypothesis driving this
work. Encouraged by this result, we proceeded to perform SAR studies on this class of polymers.

13

Bactericidal activity. The minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) is defined here as the 14 lowest polymer concentration required to induce at least a 3-log reduction in the number of 15 16 viable E. coli cells in PBS buffer after 90 min incubation at 37 °C. We quantified the effect of PEGylation extent, as well as the length of the pendant PEG chains, on bactericidal activity 17 (Table 1 and Figure 4). The cationic homopolymer, bearing 100% primary ammonium side 18 chains (P_1 -0), exhibited potent bactericidal action against *E. coli* with a MBC of 12 µg/mL, 19 20 which is similar to the MBC of the bee venom toxin peptide melittin (MBC = 4 μ g/mL) in the same assay conditions. In our earlier study, we reported similar polymers as strong bactericides 21 22 with a high degree of cationic charge and hydrophobicity via surfactant-like mode of action.

To dilute the high degree of cationic charge and partially screen the hydrophobicity of the

1 PBE backbone, we grafted hydrophilic PEG 2 chains onto a fraction of the PBE side chains. 3 Incorporation of modest amounts of PEG₈₀₀ 4 (11 and 25 mol %) did not significantly alter 5 the antibacterial potency, with MBC values of 6 26 µg/mL. Further increasing the PEG content 7 (33 and 50 mol %) resulted in MBC values of 12 μ g/mL, which is unchanged relative to the 8 cationic homopolymer. Although PEGvlation 9 10 reduces the hydrophobicity and cationic charge of the copolymers, the improved 11 12 aqueous solubility of the PEGylated copolymers is a countervailing effect that may 13 offset the reduced electrostatic interaction 14 with bacterial membranes⁶¹. Further increases 15 in the PEG₈₀₀ content (beyond 50%) lead to a 16 dramatic loss of antibacterial potency; the 17

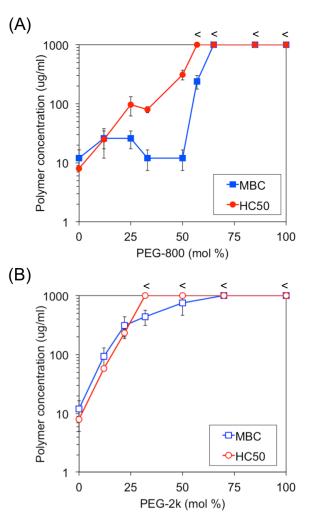


Figure 4. Antibacterial activity and hemolytic activities of polymers with varying mole % of (A) PEG-800 and (B) PEG-2k, as a function of PEG content.

18 copolymer with 57 mol% PEG₈₀₀ has a modest MBC value of 219 μ g/mL and those with 63 19 mol% or higher do not measurably kill *E. coli* even at the highest concentration tested (1000 20 μ g/mL).

The size effect of grafted PEG chains on antibacterial activity is rather pronounced. When PEG_{2k} is employed instead of PEG₈₀₀, the antibacterial potency decreases monotonically with increasing PEG content across the entire range of copolymer compositions (0-100%). Inclusion of just 12 mol% PEG_{2k} in side chains caused an increase in the MBC to 94 μ g/mL, compared to the cationic homopolymer MBC of 12 μ g/mL (~8-fold change). Further increasing PEG_{2k} content significantly abrogated the antibacterial activity, leading to MBC values on the order of some hundreds of $\mu g/mL$. Copolymers containing 50 mol% or more of PEG_{2k} are completely inactive against E. coli even at the highest concentration tested (1000 µg/mL). The simplest explanation for this trend is that longer PEG_{2k} chains excessively shield the cationic charge and backbone hydrophobicity of the polymers, thus deterring the interaction between polymers and cell membranes to a greater extent than the shorter PEG_{800} chains.

Table 1. Summary of antimicrobial and hemolytic activities of cationic amphiphilic poly(benzyl ether)s as a function of molar percent PEGylation and PEG chain length.

100		$(\mu g/mL)$		MBC
100	10	>1000	>1000	
85	12	>1000	>1000	
63	11	>1000	>1000	
57	11	219	>1000	> 4.6
50	12	12	340	28.3
33	12	12	83	6.9
25	12	26	89	3.4
11	12	26	25	0.96
100	13	>1000	>1000	
70	13	>1000	>1000	
50	11	750	>1000	>1.3
34	12	438	>1000	>2.3
22	12	313	234	0.8
12	11	94	46	0.5
0	13	12	< 8	< 0.7
100		>1000	>1000	
0		31	62	2
50		8	104	13
	63 57 50 33 25 11 100 70 50 34 22 12 0 100 0 50	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

*Degree of polymerization (DP) from ¹H NMR end group analysis. **Data from reference⁴⁹ for comparison.

1 It is widely understood that "amphiphilic balance" – finely tuning the interplay of cationic charge to hydrophobic character – is central to the design rationale for antibacterial polymers.⁶², 2 ⁶³ Overall, the results here show that PEGylation is an effective strategy to influence the 3 4 "amphiphilic balance" of cationic, amphiphilic polymers, although judiciously tuning the PEG 5 content and PEG chain length is clearly required. This stands in accord with literature precedent on other polymer platforms.^{60, 61} The optimal formulation identified in this work is the copolymer 6 7 containing $\sim 50\%$ PEG₈₀₀, which shows improved solubility and slightly enhanced antibacterial 8 activity relative to the cationic PBE homopolymer (P_1 -0).

9 We also compared the activity of dye labeled polymers to that of their unlabeled (silyl ether 10 end-capped) counterparts. The MBC values for RhB-P₁-0, RhB-P₁-40-PEG₈₀₀ and RhB-P₁-100-11 PEG₈₀₀ are 31, 31 and >1000 µg/mL, respectively, which are comparable to P₁-0, P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ 12 and P₁-100-PEG₈₀₀ (12, 12, and >1000 µg/mL) Thus we conclude that dye itself has only a 13 marginal effect on the antibacterial activity, differing only by a single 2-fold dilution, and 14 therefore these dye-capped polymers are appropriately representative of the polymer library in 15 this work.

Hemolytic activity. The toxicity of these copolymers against mammalian cell membranes is 16 17 quantified in terms of hemoglobin release from sheep red blood cells (RBCs). The hemolytic 18 concentration (HC_{50}) is defined here as the characteristic polymer concentration that induces 19 50% hemolysis after 1 h incubation at 37 °C, as determined by curve fitting to the Hill equation. The cationic homopolymer (P_1-0) was markedly hemolytic with an HC₅₀ value lower than 8 20 μ g/mL, which is comparable to melittin (HC₅₀ = 6 μ g/mL) in the same assay conditions, in 21 agreement with our recent report.⁴⁹ Incorporation of increasing amounts of PEG₈₀₀ 22 monotonically increases the HC₅₀ values by orders of magnitude (Table 1 and Figure 4). The 23

1 addition of just 11 mol% of PEG₈₀₀ in side chains reduced the hemolytic toxicity by ~ 4-fold (HC₅₀ = 25 μ g/mL). Further increasing the PEG₈₀₀ content to 25% and 33% mole led to an 2 3 additional \sim 3-fold increase in the HC₅₀ (89 µg/mL). This trend continued for copolymers containing up to 50 mol% PEG₈₀₀ (HC₅₀ = 340 μ g/mL). Higher PEG₈₀₀ content led to complete 4 5 loss of hemolytic activity with HC₅₀ values above the highest concentration tested (1000 µg/mL). 6 Cell-type selectivity against bacterial cells without toxicity to mammalian cells is crucial for 7 biomedical-related applications. Comparing the relative magnitudes of HC₅₀ and MBC values for the copolymers in this work reveals that the most promising example thus far is the PBE 8 9 copolymer containing 50% PEG_{800} (HC₅₀/MBC = 28.3). This metric represents a very marked improvement relative to our first-generation self-immolative antibacterial PBE (HC₅₀/MBC = 10 0.5).49 Thus, we report the first example of a cell-type selective antibacterial polymer that 11 12 possesses the unique self-immolative characteristic.

13 Incorporation of longer grafted PEG_{2k} in side chains exhibited similar effect on hemolytic activity; higher degrees of PEG substitution are associated with loss of hemolytic toxicity in a 14 15 monotonic manner. The slope of the HC₅₀ versus PEG mol% plot (Figure 4) is higher for PEG_{2k} 16 than for PEG₈₀₀, implying that the longer PEG chains impact the activity more significantly in the low PEG content regime. For example, incorporation of 12 mol% PEG_{2k} gave an HC₅₀ value 17 of 46 μ g/mL, which is about 6-fold higher than the cationic homopolymer **P**₁-**0** and about 2-fold 18 less hemolytic than the copolymer containing about the same molar percent of PEG₈₀₀. 19 Increasing PEG_{2k} mole content to 20% further decreased hemolytic activity. All polymers having 20 34% or more of PEG_{2k} in the side chains were non-hemolytic even at maximum concentration 21 tested, 1000 µg/mL. Comparing two polymers with similar % mole of PEG, it is obvious that 22 those with longer PEG_{2k} units showed much more hemocompatibility relative to polymer bearing 23

shorter PEG₈₀₀. For example, P_1 -34-PEG_{2k} has an HC₅₀ > 1000 µg/mL, compared to P_1 -33-1 2 **PEG**₈₀₀, which has HC₅₀ = 83 μ g/mL (a difference of more than 12-fold). The effect again can be explained by backbone screening by the longer grafted PEG chains, which shields the potent 3 4 hydrophobicity of the benzyl ether backbone, thus diminishing the interactions with RBC lipid 5 bilayers. Even though polymers with longer PEG side groups are non-hemolytic, they are also 6 less potent antibacterial agents, and hence do not confer excellent selectivity. The best cell-7 selectivity for a copolymer bearing PEG_{2k} was a modest $HC_{50}/MBC > 2.3$ for the polymer with 34 mol% PEG_{2k}. This value is far lower than the best example from the PEG₈₀₀ series, which was 8 $HC_{50}/MBC = 28.3$. It is thus reasonable to speculate that even shorter PEGs may have an even 9 10 greater effect on the enhancement of selectivity, although at some point the palliative effect is expected to diminish. 11

12 In contrast to negatively charged bacterial cell surfaces, the outer leaflet of the phospholipid bilayer in the RBC membrane displays a lower density of anionic charges.^{6, 25} The hemolytic 13 behavior of amphiphilic polymers has thus been mostly associated with their hydrophobicity, 14 which results in membrane binding and surfactant-like disruption⁶⁴. The incorporation of 15 16 hydrophilic PEG side chains plays a prominent role in dictating the hemolytic activity of 17 synthetic polymers. Plasma proteins in blood absorb on RBCs and protect them from external 18 stresses. In the absence of blood plasma, RBCs become more delicate and susceptible to lytic agents (such as in PBS, the assay media used here).⁶⁵ PEG also behaves as a protective agent by 19 20 shielding cells from foreign body contact. It has been shown that PEG weakly absorbs to the cell membrane via hydrogen bonding to improve protection through cells⁶⁶. Consequently, polymers 21 22 containing PEG may also reduce hemolytic toxicity by these or related mechanisms, in addition 23 to its role in reducing the overall hydrophobicity of the copolymers.

Broad Spectrum and Kinetics. The most promising candidate identified in our initial screen was the copolymer containing 50 mol% PEG₈₀₀ and 50 mol% cysteamine in the side chains, P₁-**50-PEG₈₀₀**. We further examined the bactericidal profile of this select formulation in terms of broad-spectrum activity and bactericidal kinetics (Figure 5). The copolymer does exert bactericidal activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Bactericidal activity is generally more potent in the case of Gram-

negatives; the MBC values against E. coli and P. 7 aureginosa are 12 and 4 µg/mL, respectively, 8 9 whereas against S. aureus and E. faecalis the values are 250 and 125 µg/mL. This observation is similar 10 our previous findings with PBE cationic 11 to 12 homopolymers, which exerted much more potent activity against Gram-negatives as compared to 13 Gram-positives. In addition, it was found that the 14 are slower against Gram- positives, 15 kinetics 16 requiring 4-hr incubation to induce a 4-log reduction in the number of viable S. aureus cells (99.99% 17 18 killing) as opposed to less than 1-hr in the case of E. 19 coli. It is interesting that these PEGylated PBEs 20 generally show better activity against Gram negative 21 strains relative to Gram positives. Indeed, many 22 examples of antibacterial polymers are more active 23 against Gram-positive bacteria relative to Gram-

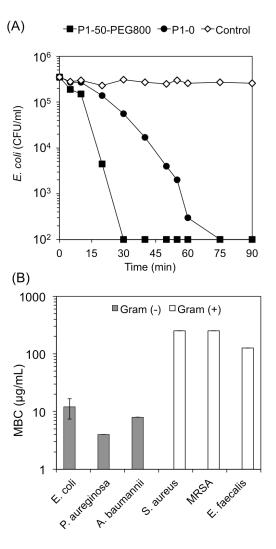


Figure 5. (a) Bactericidal kinetics of P_1 -0 and P_1 -50-PEG₈₀₀ against *E. coli* in PBS at 2×MBC and (b) Broad spectrum activity against Gram-positive and -negative bacteria.

negatives, although there are also examples that show the opposite preference.⁶⁷ A study by
Lienkamp *et al* found that there may also be a molecular seiving effect of the peptidoglycan layer
in Gram positves.⁶⁸ The details of the mechanism of action are outside the scope of this work,
but we hypothesize that the thick, cross-linked peptidoglycan layer present in Gram positives
may be difficult for these PBE-*graft*-PEG copolymers to translocate.

6 The PEGylated copolymer P_1 -50-PEG₈₀₀ exerts markedly faster bactericidal kinetics against 7 *E. coli* (4-log reduction in < 30 min) relative to the cationic homopolymer P_1 -0 (~ 90 min), as 8 shown in Figure 4A. This observation initially seems counterintuitive because the PEGylated 9 copolymer has a lower cationic charge density and lower hydrophobicity, relative to the cationic 10 homopolymer, and the membrane disruption is thought to depend on both electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions. We hypothesized that the PEGylated polymer acts faster overall due to 11 12 the more subtle hydrophobicity, which disfavors aggregation in solution and thus may facilitate 13 the binding of individually solvated polymer chains onto the bacterial cell envelope. In contrast, 14 the excessively hydrophobic P_{1} -0 may exist as aggregates in solution that display cationic groups 15 on the surface and bury the hydrophobic residues in an inner globule. This sort of hydrophobic clustering hypothesis has been invoked to explain the reduced antibacterial activity in the case of 16 excessively hydrophobic polymethacrylates.⁶⁹ 17

To probe our hypothesis, we used the Rhodamine-labeled variants of P_{1} -0, P_{1} -50-PEG₈₀₀, and P_{1} -100-PEG₈₀₀ each containing one dye tag in the terminal end group (see ESI for synthetic details). The MBC values of these tagged polymers are similar to the untagged polymers of same copolymer composition (data in ESI). Indeed, confocal microscopy images of the *RhB*-P₁-0 show micron-sized aggregates in PBS buffer at concentrations as low as 16 µg/mL (Figure 6A), which is similar to the MBC value. In stark contrast, *RhB*-P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ and *RhB*-P₁-100-PEG₈₀₀ both show diffuse, uniform fluorescence intensity in PBS even up to 1000 μg/mL, which is well
 above the MBC value (Figure 6B). Although a detailed study the role of PEGylation in the
 aggregation process, perhaps using Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS), is outside the scope of this
 work, it may be an interesting topic for further study of antibacterial SIMPs.

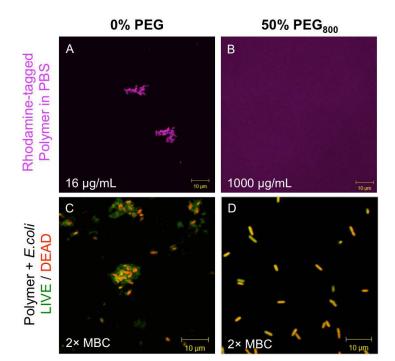


Figure 6. Confocal images of (A, B) rhodamine dye-labeled polymers in PBS media and (C, D) non-labeled polymers at 2x MBC with *E. coli* and LIVE/DEAD stains.

9

56 78

Moreover, when the Rhodamine-labeled polymers are mixed with *E. coli* cells, there is a very clear localization of RhB-P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ specifically on the cell membrane observed in the confocal images (Figure 7A). In contrast, when RhB-P₁-0 is mixed with the *E. coli* cells, aggregates on the order of 10s of microns are observed, with no clear individual rod-shaped bacteria cells (Figure 7B). These data strongly support the notion that the activity of the cationic homopolymer P₁-0 is indeed hampered by extensive polymer-polymer aggregation in aqueous media, as we expected. The PEGylation strategy indeed alleviates the excessive hydrophobicity

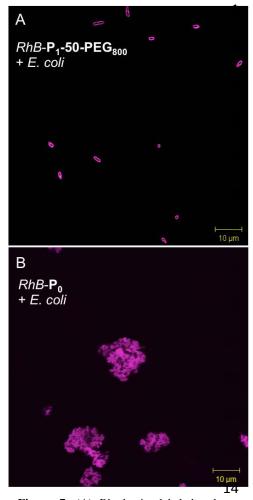


Figure 7. (A) Rhodamine-labeled polymer with 50% PEG₈₀₀ in the side chains binds specifically to the membranes of individual planktonic *E. coli* cells, seen as bright emission from the outlines of smooth rpgshaped cells. (B) Rhodamine-labeled polymer with no PEG (all cysteamine side chains) shows only indistinct aggregates. 17 of the PBE backbone and brings the global physiochemical properties of the copolymer into the appropriate range for "amphiphilic balance" required to give favorable biological activity.

Triggered depolymerization. We next examined the influence of specifically triggered depolymerization on the antibacterial and hemolytic activities of PEGylated cationic PBEs. In accord with our prior work, TBDMScapped pre-polymers undergo (\mathbf{P}_0) rapid depolymerization to small molecules upon fluoride exposure, evidenced by ¹H NMR and GPC⁴⁹. In this work, fluoride was introduced as an exogenous trigger. In general, the PBE platform boasts a great deal of diversity in terms of end-cap/trigger combinations that can be used to mediate self-immolation. The present example was selected for synthetic accessibility and because the

18 fluoride ion is biologically *inactive* against bacterial and human cells. Indeed, we are also 19 interested in expanding this work to include naturally occurring *endogenous* triggering 20 chemistries, perhaps involving natural changes in redox, pH, or enzymatic cues, but these efforts 21 are outside the scope of the present work.

Triggered depolymerization of P_1 -50-PEG₈₀₀ was initiated by cesium fluoride (CsF) in MeOH or DMF, and monitored by ¹H NMR and GPC (Figure 8). Upon F⁻ treatment, broad

features in the ¹H NMR spectra attributed to the PBE backbone disappeared and were replaced 1 2 by sharp peaks corresponding to small molecule products of depolymerization. The 3 disappearance of the resonance at ~ 5.5 ppm is used to quantify the percent depolymerization, 4 which was quantitative after stirring overnight (Figure S35, ESI). The GPC trace (in DMF) also shows a corresponding shift to longer retention times, in accord with products of smaller 5 6 hydrodynamic volume that match the chromatogram for the PEG_{800} grafted monomer M₂. The MBC for intact polymer P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ was 12 µg/mL. In response to fluoride, P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ 7 8 degraded into its small molecule components (referred to as **DP₁-50-PEG₈₀₀** in Table 1), which 9 had an MBC value of 8 µg/mL. Thus, the products of depolymerization appeared to exert similar 10 antibacterial activity than the intact polymer. The small change in MBC upon depolymerization 11 is consistent with the observation that the small molecule product of depolymerization containing 12 an ammonium cation is a potent antibacterial agent, although the PEGylated monomer has no antibacterial activity. 13

We also investigated the biological activities of model small molecule compounds that contain either primary amine (M_1 in Table 1) or PEG₈₀₀ (M_2) attached to a single unit of the bisphenol (chemical structures given in Figure 1) as a standard for comparison. In contrast to the potent antibacterial activity of the primary amine functionalized monomer M_1 (31 µg/mL), the PEGylated monomer M_2 was inactive against *E. coli* up to 1000 µg/mL.

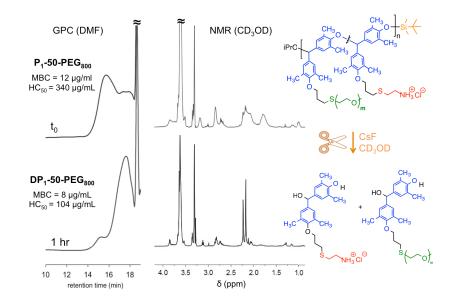
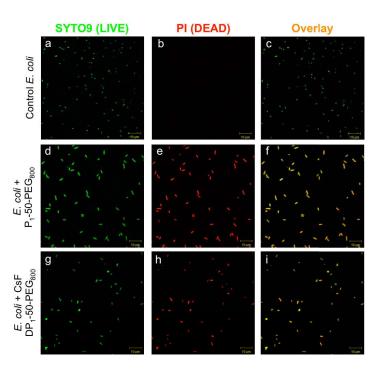


Figure 8. ¹H NMR (CDOD₃) and GPC (DMF) of P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ before and after CsF in MeOH, with their corresponding chemical structures and biological activities.

6 Triggered self-immolation also influences the hemolytic activity compared to intact polymer. 7 For example, P_1 -50-PEG₈₀₀ (HC₅₀ = 340 µg/mL) depolymerized into DP₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ (HC₅₀ = 104 μ g/mL), about a 3-fold change. This result can be understood in terms of the HC₅₀ values for 8 9 the two monomer components: 62 μ g/mL for M₁ and >1000 μ g/ml for M₂. If one considers that 10 the two are present in approximately a 1:1 ratio (for this 50-50% copolymer), and that one component is completely inactive, then we expect the simple mixture to have an HC_{50} value that 11 12 is simply double that of the active component $(2 \times 62 = 124 \,\mu\text{g/mL})$. The experimental result is 13 104 µg/mL, which is in reasonably good agreement with the prediction for a simple mixture. Slight differences may be due to the presence of some amount of dimeric species, which has 14 been observed previously in the depolymerization byproducts for PBE.⁴⁹ 15

In addition to the MBC assay that quantified cell death in terms of the number of viable colonies observable to the unaided eye, we also evaluated the antibacterial activity of polymers and its small components by confocal laser scanning microscopy to visualize the antibacterial





2

Figure 9. Confocal images of *E. coli* cells (a-c) alone, (d-f) after exposure to P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀, (g-i) after
 exposure to CsF-depolymerization products DP₁-50-PEG₈₀₀. Scale bar is 10 μm in all images. Additional
 images of cells treated with M₁ and M₂ are in the SI.

7 For this study, we employed the commercially-available BacLight LIVE/DEAD staining kit, 8 which includes the proprietary SYTO9 dye (green) that stains both live and dead cells 9 indiscriminately, and propidium iodide (PI, red) that emits only when intercalated into DNA within the cytoplasm.⁷⁰ PI staining is thus used as a metric to confirm the permeabilization of the 10 11 cell membrane, which is the putative mechanism of action for cationic, amphiphilic antibacterial agents.⁷¹⁻⁷⁵ Firstly, as a positive control, *E. coli* cells in the absence of polymers were examined. 12 In confocal images, we observed smooth, rod-shaped E. coli cells in the green SYTO9 channel 13 with no detectable emission in the red PI channel, which suggests healthy live cells (Figure 9 a-14 c). To assess the impact of the polymers, *E. coli* (5×10^7 CFU/mL) was incubated for 90 min at 37 15 °C in the presence of antibacterial polymers above their lethal concentration (4×MBC). We 16

examined both the intact copolymer P₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ (Figure 9 d-f) as well as the products of the
triggered depolymerization DP₁-50-PEG₈₀₀ (Figure 9 g-i). Both samples showed bright emission
in the green and red channels, suggesting substantial co-localization of both fluorophores within
the cells.

5 Based on the fact that the PI stain cannot translocate healthy cell membranes, combined with 6 specific membrane stained by our Rh-labeled polymers, we conclude that DNA-intercalated PI 7 stain within the cytoplasm is associated with a deterioration of the cell membrane barrier 8 function upon exposure to antibacterial polymers. Thus, it would appear that the polymers in this 9 work are capable of permeabilizing the *E. coli* cells, in accord with numerous other literature 10 examples on cationic, amphiphilic polymers.⁷¹⁻⁷⁵

The primary amine functionalized model monomer M₁ also showed extensive PI staining 11 12 within the cells (images in ESI). On the other hand, monomer with PEG_{800} functionality M₂ did 13 not induce any red PI emission from cells, which again confirms that the PEG₈₀₀ monomer units 14 are not bactericidal (images in ESI). Interestingly, the confocal images in this work are rather 15 different in appearance relative to our previous report on the cationic homopolymer. Whereas P_1 -0 showed red PI staining of large cell-cell aggregates on the order of several tens of microns 16 (Figure 6C),⁴⁹ the PEGylated variants in the present study appear to stain cells individually 17 without inducing extensive cell-cell aggregation (Figure 6D and 7B), which is also consistent 18 19 with the concept of reduced hydrophobicity (more negative logP values) for the PEGylated 20 polymers.

Control Experiments. The CsF was not removed prior to testing the biological activity; CsF
 showed no effect on *E. coli* cell viability even at concentrations 10× higher than present in the
 assays. As a negative control for triggering, PBEs were end-capped with inert methyl groups,

1 side-chain functionalized and exposed to CsF under same conditions. The fluoride-triggered depolymerization did not occur in those polymers, evidenced by ¹H NMR, and tested for MBC 2 and HC₅₀. Before and after CsF exposure, MBC and HC₅₀ values did not show any significant 3 4 changes. Hence, we confirmed that fluoride-triggered depolymerization is specific to silvl ether 5 end-capped polymers. In addition, we confirmed that no adverse side reactions occur when the 6 allyl functionalized pre-polymer P_0 is exposed to cysteamine (or PEG-SH) under UV irradiation 7 with no photoinitiator present. Similarly, no reaction is observed when P_0 and photoinitiator under UV irradiation without any thiol present. 8

9

10 **Experimental**

11 Materials and Methods. Reagents were purchased commercially and used as received without further 12 purification unless noted. 4,4'-methylenebis(2,6-dimethylphenol) was purchased from Tokyo Chemical Industry 13 (TCI America, USA), Potassium carbonate (K₂CO₃), allyl bromide (allyl Br), ammonium chloride (NH₄Cl), sodium 14 chloride (NaCl), anhydrous sodium sulfates (Na₂SO₄), silver oxide (Ag₂O), tert-butyldimethylsilyl chloride 15 (TBDMS-Cl), imidazole, 2-aminoethanethiol hydrochloride (cysteamine), poly(ethylene glycol) methyl ether thiol 16 $(M_n = 800g/mole and M_n = 2000 g/mole)$, 2,2- dimethoxy-2-phenylacetophenone (DMPA), cesium fluoride (CsF), 17 Triton X-100, sodium phosphate monobasic monohydrate and sodium phosphate dibasic heptahydrate were 18 (USA). 1-tert-Butyl-2,2,4,4,4-pentakis(dimethylamino)- $2\lambda^5$, $4\lambda^5$ purchased from Sigma-Aldrich 19 catenadi(phosphazene) (P2-t-Bu base) (2.0 M solution in THF) was also purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and stored 20 in a glove box under N₂ atmosphere. BacLightTM Bacterial Viability Kit L-7007 and NHS-Rhodamine (5/6-carboxy-21 tetramethyl-rhodamine succinimidyl ester) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). 10% (v/v) red 22 blood cells (RBCs) was obtained from MP Biomedicals (USA). Organic solvents: diethyl ether (Et₂O), N,N-23 dimethylformamide (DMF), ethyl acetate, hexane, methanol (MeOH), and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were 24 obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). Isopropanol (iPrOH) was distilled before use. Anhydrous tetrahydrofuran 25 (THF) was obtained from solvent purification system. Deionized water was purified using EDM Millipore 26 purification system. Sephadex LH-20 was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Flash-column chromatography was

employed using silica gel (60 Å pore size, 40-63 μm technical grade, Sigma-Aldrich). Thin-layer chromatography
 was performed on IB2-F J.T. Baker silica gel TLC (Germany).

Proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR) spectra were recorded using 500 MHz Agilent NMR
spectrometer at 25 °C. NMR chemical shifts were reported in parts per million (ppm, δ) and referenced to
tetramethylsilane ((CH₃)₄Si, 0.00 ppm) or to residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ (δ 7.27), (CD₃)₂OS (δ 2.50), or CD₃OD
(δ 3.31 and 4.78). Carbon nuclear magnetic resonance (¹³C NMR) spectra were recorded using 500 MHz Agilent
NMR spectrometer at 25 °C. NMR chemical shifts were reported in parts per million (ppm, δ) and referenced to
residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ (δ 77.0), or CD₃OD (δ 49.0).

9 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC) was performed on Agilent Technologies 1260 Infinity GPC system
10 equipped with a refractive index detector and PLGel columns using THF and DMF as the mobile phase (flow rate: 1
11 mL/min, 25 °C for THF, flow rate: 1 mL/min, 45 °C for DMF). Molecular weight was calibrated using
12 monodisperse polystyrene standards.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy (Zeiss LSM 510 Meta) was employed using Argon (458-488-514 nm) and
 HeNe1 (543 nm) lasers. 512 x 512 pixel images were recorded from single scan.

Mass spectra were measured on Thermo LTQ XL Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo, Bremen, Germany)
with electrospray ionization ion source. Samples were injected using an Agilent 1200 nano-HPLC system (Agilent,
Palo Alto, CA) using an Agilent 1200 autosampler. The flow rate of the solvent was 50 µL/min. The injection
volume was 1-2 µL. The data were collected in m/z range of 100-900 at the resolution of 30,000. The accuracy of
mass measurements was ~3 ppm.

20 Monomer Synthesis. Allyl Br (1.0 equiv) was added dropwise to a stirred mixture of 4.4'-methylenebis(2.6-21 dimethylphenol) (1.0 equiv) and K_2CO_3 (1.1 equiv) in DMF (0.4 M). After 24 h reaction at room temperature, the 22 mixture was extracted with ethyl acetate and deionized H₂O. The organic layer was washed with saturated NH₄Cl 23 solution and then brine. It was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered to separate salts and concentrated via rotary 24 evaporation. On TLC plate, there were three spots observed, assigned to compounds with double allyl and single 25 allyl in the side chains, and unreacted starting material. The viscous oil was purified by silica gel column 26 chromatography with gradient elution of solvents (10 - 33%) ethyl acetate in hexanes) to afford compound with 27 single allyl as a yellow oil (yield 28%).

Ag₂O (2.0 equiv) was added into the solution of single allyl compound (1.0 equiv) and Et₂O (0.1 M). The

1 reaction was stirred for 16 h at room temperature. The mixture was filtered to remove silver oxide particles, 2 concentrated via rotary evaporator and recrystallized in hot cyclohexane to afford yellow crystals. The monomer M_0 3 crystals were ground and dried in vacuum for 72 h. Dry monomer (67%) was store in an inert glovebox atmosphere.

Polymer Synthesis. The monomer M₀ (1.0 equiv) was dissolved in anhydrous THF. A stock solution of distilled
iPrOH (0.1 equiv) and 2.0 M P₂-*t*-Bu base solution (0.1 equiv) in THF was prepared in anhydrous THF (1:1 ratio).
The chain length of polymer was tuned by altering the number of equivalents of initiator relative to monomer. Based
on that, certain amount of initiator-base stock solution was added into monomer solution to pre-initiate and stirred
for 1 h at room temperature. Final concentration of reaction was adjusted to 0.8 M. The reaction became dark red
from bright yellow color after the addition of base. Following the initiation, polymerization was conducted in -20 °C
for 4 h with stirring. All steps were carried out in glovebox under inert N₂ environment.

End-capping. TBDMS-Cl (1.0 equiv) and imidazole (1.0 equiv) were dissolved in anhydrous THF and then
injected into polymer reaction at -20 °C which immediately turned into orange-yellow color from dark red. Reaction
was stirred for 24 h at -20 °C. It was allowed to warm to room temperature and continued to stir at this temperature
for few hours. The polymer was precipitated in MeOH and collected via centrifuge. Excess MeOH was decanted.
The polymer was redissolved in THF and precipitated in MeOH and centrifuged again, whole process was repeated
three times. Polymers were dried in vacuum for 24 h. Yields for each polymerization are given in the ESI.
Synthetic procedures largely followed the precedent by Phillips,⁵⁰ and our own prior report,⁴⁹ with minor

modifications. Further synthetic details, triggered depolymerization, NMR and GPC data, biological assay protocols,
and microscopy procedures, are included in the Electronic Supporting Information (ESI) document.

20

21 **Conclusions**

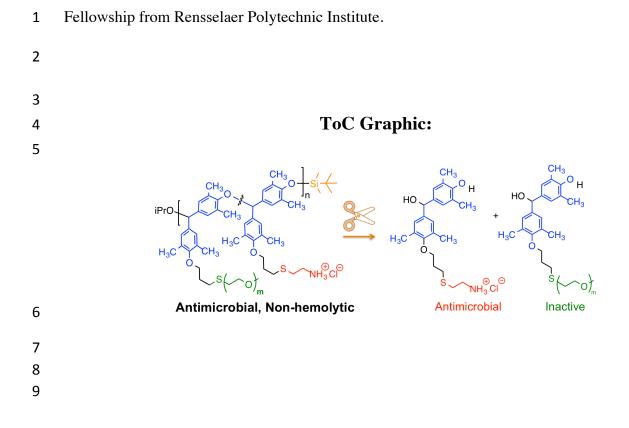
We functionalized the side chains of a self-immolative poly(benzyl ether) with a combination of cationic ammonium groups and neutral, hydrophilic PEG chains. The antibacterial and hemolytic activity of these copolymers is sensitively dependent on the cationic charge and hydrophobicity of the polymer chains. Here, we find that side chain PEGylation is a highly effective strategy to modulate the hydrophobicity and to enhance cell-type selectivity. The copolymer composition (molar percentage of PEG grafts) and the PEG chain length are key design parameters for tuning biological activity. From our library of PBE copolymers, the most promising example is one that contains 50 mol% PEG₈₀₀ and 50 mol% primary ammonium cationic side chains. This select example exerts excellent 28-fold selectivity for bacterial cells relative to mammalian RBCs. The sensitive and specific self-immolative characteristics of the backbone are retained upon side chain functionalization.

In this work, we used stimuli-responsive end-caps that are cleaved on demand by externally 7 applied stimulus, like fluoride ions. The beauty of the self-immolative PBE platform is that these 8 9 polymers can be designed with a variety of responsive groups, triggered by light, pH, or redox. 10 Currently, we are developing biologically active degradable macromolecules that can be 11 degraded by naturally occurring stimuli including bacterial enzymes. We envision these 12 materials may be useful in a broad range of antibacterial and antibiofilm coatings with unique 13 "triggered-cleaning" characteristics. These and related studies are currently underway in our 14 laboratory.

15

16 Acknowledgements

We thank Prof. Scott Phillips for helpful discussions on self-immolative polymer synthesis,
Prof. Sangwoo Lee and Prof. Chulsung Bae for the use of GPC, Dr. Ao Chen for helpful
discussions, and undergraduate students Samuel Ellman, Sadjo Sidikou, and Phillip Falcone for
their assistance with the synthesis and scale-up of the monomers used in this study. E.F.P.
acknowledges funding from a 3M Non-Tenured Faculty Award, a National Science Foundation
CAREER Award (DMR BMAT #1653418), and the American Chemical Society Petroleum
Research Fund (57806-DNI7). C.E. was supported in part by a Presidential Graduate Research



References 1

- 2
- 3 1. H. W. Boucher, G. H. Talbot, J. S. Bradley, J. E. Edwards, D. Gilbert, L. B. Rice, M. Scheld, B. Spellberg 4 and J. Bartlett, Clin Infect Dis, 2009, 48, 1-12.
- 5 6 7 H. C. Neu, Science, 1992, 257, 1064-1073. 2.
- J. Rello, E. Bunsow and A. Perez, Expert Rev Clin Phar, 2016, 9, 1547-1555. 3.
- 4. M. Zasloff, Nature, 2002, 415, 389-395.
- 8 5. T. Ganz, Nature, 2001, 412, 392-393.
- 9 R. E. W. Hancock and H. G. Sahl, Nat Biotechnol, 2006, 24, 1551-1557. 6.
- 10 7. E. A. Porter, X. F. Wang, H. S. Lee, B. Weisblum and S. H. Gellman, Nature, 2000, 404, 565-565.
- 11 8. J. A. Patch and A. E. Barron, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 2003, 125, 12092-12093.
- 12 9. B. P. Mowery, S. E. Lee, D. A. Kissounko, R. F. Epand, R. M. Epand, B. Weisblum, S. S. Stahl and S. H.
- 13 Gellman, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 2007, 129, 15474-+.
- 14 K. Kuroda and W. F. DeGrado, J Am Chem Soc, 2005, 127, 4128-4129. 10.
- 15 11. E. F. Palermo and K. Kuroda, Biomacromolecules, 2009, 10, 1416-1428.
- 16 12. E. F. Palermo, S. Vemparala and K. Kuroda, *Biomacromolecules*, 2012, 13, 1632-1641.
- 17 13. E. F. Palermo, I. Sovadinova and K. Kuroda, Biomacromolecules, 2009, 10, 3098-3107.
- 18 14. W. Chin, G. S. Zhong, Q. Q. Pu, C. Yang, W. Y. Lou, P. F. De Sessions, B. Periaswamy, A. Lee, Z. C. 19 Liang, X. Ding, S. J. Gao, C. W. Chu, S. Bianco, C. Bao, Y. W. Tong, W. M. Fan, M. Wu, J. L. Hedrick 20
 - and Y. Y. Yang, Nat Commun, 2018, 9.
- 21 W. Chin, C. A. Yang, V. W. L. Ng, Y. Huang, J. C. Cheng, Y. W. Tong, D. J. Coady, W. M. Fan, J. L. 15. 22 Hedrick and Y. Y. Yang, Macromolecules, 2013, 46, 8797-8807.
- 23 A. C. Engler, J. P. K. Tan, Z. Y. Ong, D. J. Coady, V. W. L. Ng, Y. Y. Yang and J. L. Hedrick, 16. 24 Biomacromolecules, 2013, 14, 4331-4339.
- 25 17. F. Nederberg, Y. Zhang, J. P. K. Tan, K. J. Xu, H. Y. Wang, C. Yang, S. J. Gao, X. D. Guo, K. Fukushima, 26 L. J. Li, J. L. Hedrick and Y. Y. Yang, Nature Chemistry, 2011, 3, 409-414.
- 27 18. M. F. Ilker, K. Nusslein, G. N. Tew and E. B. Coughlin, J Am Chem Soc, 2004, 126, 15870-15875.
- 28 19. G. J. Gabriel, J. A. Maegerlein, C. E. Nelson, J. M. Dabkowski, T. Eren, K. Nusslein and G. N. Tew, 29 Chem-Eur J, 2009, 15, 433-439.
- 30 20. K. Lienkamp and G. N. Tew, Chem-Eur J, 2009, 15, 11784-11800.
- 31 C. Ergene, K. Yasuhara and E. F. Palermo, Polym Chem-Uk, 2018, 9, 2407-2427. 21.
- 32 22. Y. C. Yang, Z. G. Cai, Z. H. Huang, X. Y. Tang and X. Zhang, Polym J, 2018, 50, 33-44.
- 33 23. W. Ren, W. R. Cheng, G. Wang and Y. Liu, J Polym Sci Pol Chem, 2017, 55, 632-639.
- 34 24. M. Hartlieb, E. G. L. Williams, A. Kuroki, S. Perrier and K. E. S. Locock, Curr Med Chem, 2017, 24, 35 2115-2140.
- 36 K. A. Brogden, Nat Rev Microbiol, 2005, 3, 238-250. 25.
- 37 H. G. Boman, Immunological Reviews, 2000, 173, 5-16. 26.
- 38 27. I. Sovadinova, E. F. Palermo, M. Urban, P. Mpiga, G. A. Caputo and K. Kuroda, Polymers, 2011, 3, 1512-39 1532.
- 40 28. A. K. Marr, W. J. Gooderham and R. E. W. Hancock, Current Opinion in Pharmacology, 2006, 6, 468-472.
- 41 29. G. N. Tew, R. W. Scott, M. L. Klein and W. F. Degrado, Accounts Chem Res, 2010, 43, 30-39.
- 42 30. A. C. Engler, N. Wiradharma, Z. Y. Ong, D. J. Coady, J. L. Hedrick and Y. Y. Yang, Nano Today, 2012, 7, 43 201-222.
- 44 31. H. Takahashi, G. A. Caputo, S. Vemparala and K. Kuroda, *Bioconjugate Chem*, 2017, 28, 1340-1350.
- 45 32. M. Mizutani, E. F. Palermo, L. M. Thoma, K. Satoh, M. Kamigaito and K. Kuroda, Biomacromolecules, 46 2012, 13, 1554-1563.
- 47 33. E. A. Chamsaz, S. Mankoci, H. A. Barton and A. Joy, ACS Appl Mater Inter, 2017, 9, 6704-6711.
- 48 34. V. W. L. Ng, J. P. K. Tan, J. Y. Leong, Z. X. Voo, J. L. Hedrick and Y. Y. Yang, Macromolecules, 2014, 49 47, 1285-1291.
- 50 35. D. N. Amato, D. V. Amato, O. V. Mavrodi, W. B. Martin, S. N. Swilley, K. H. Parsons, D. V. Mavrodi and 51 D. L. Patton, ACS Macro Lett, 2017, 6, 171-175.
- 52 36. M. Vert, Biomacromolecules, 2005, 6, 538-546.
- 53 A. Sagi, R. Weinstain, N. Karton and D. Shabat, J Am Chem Soc, 2008, 130, 5434-+. 37.
- 54 S. T. Phillips and A. M. DiLauro, ACS Macro Lett, 2014, 3, 298-304. 38.
- 55 39. G. I. Peterson, M. B. Larsen and A. J. Boydston, *Macromolecules*, 2012, 45, 7317-7328.

- 1 40. A. D. Wong, M. A. DeWit and E. R. Gillies, Adv Drug Deliver Rev, 2012, 64, 1031-1045. 2
 - 41. B. Fan, J. F. Trant, A. D. Wong and E. R. Gillies, J Am Chem Soc, 2014, 136, 10116-10123.
- 3 42. M. Shamis, H. N. Lode and D. Shabat, JAm Chem Soc. 2004. 126, 1726-1731.
- 4 43. H. Wang, Q. Huang, H. Chang, J. R. Xiao and Y. Y. Cheng, Biomater Sci-Uk, 2016, 4, 375-390.
- 5 6 7 Y. Xie, T. Murray-Stewart, Y. Z. Wang, F. Yua, J. Li, L. J. Marton, R. A. Casero and D. Oupicky, J 44. Control Release, 2017, 246, 110-119.
- A. M. DiLauro, G. G. Lewis and S. T. Phillips, Angew Chem Int Edit, 2015, 54, 6200-6205. 45.
- 8 9 46. H. Zhang, K. Yeung, J. S. Robbins, R. A. Pavlick, M. Wu, R. Liu, A. Sen and S. T. Phillips, Angew Chem Int Edit, 2012, 51, 2400-2404.
- 10 47. A. P. Esser-Kahn, S. A. Odom, N. R. Sottos, S. R. White and J. S. Moore, *Macromolecules*, 2011, 44, 11 5539-5553.
- 12 M. S. Baker, H. Kim, M. G. Olah, G. G. Lewis and S. T. Phillips, Green Chem, 2015, 17, 4541-4545. 48.
- 13 C. Ergene and E. F. Palermo, Biomacromolecules, 2017, 18, 3400-3409. 49.
- 14 50. M. G. Olah, J. S. Robbins, M. S. Baker and S. T. Phillips, *Macromolecules*, 2013, 46, 5924-5928.
- 15 K. Yeung, H. Kim, H. Mohapatra and S. T. Phillips, J Am Chem Soc, 2015, 137, 5324-5327. 51.
- 16 K. Hu, N. W. Schmidt, R. Zhu, Y. J. Jiang, G. H. Lai, G. Wei, E. F. Palermo, K. Kuroda, G. C. L. Wong 52. 17 and L. H. Yang, Macromolecules, 2013, 46, 1908-1915.
- 18 53. X. Yang, K. Hu, G. T. Hu, D. Y. Shi, Y. J. Jiang, L. W. Hui, R. Zhu, Y. T. Xie and L. H. Yang, 19 Biomacromolecules, 2014, 15, 3267-3277.
- 20 54. S. Chakraborty, R. H. Liu, Z. Hayouka, X. Y. Chen, J. Ehrhardt, Q. Lu, E. Burke, Y. Q. Yan, B. Weisblum, 21 G. C. L. Wong, K. S. Masters and S. H. Gellman, J Am Chem Soc, 2014, 136, 14530-14535.
- 22 55. M. Alvarez-Paino, A. Munoz-Bonilla, F. Lopez-Fabal, J. L. Gomez-Garces, J. P. A. Heuts and M.
- 23 Fernandez-Garcia, Biomacromolecules, 2015, 16, 295-303.
- 24 E. H. H. Wong, M. M. Khin, V. Ravikumar, Z. Y. Si, S. A. Rice and M. B. Chan-Park, Biomacromolecules, 56. 25 2016. 17. 1170-1178.
- 26 S. Colak, C. F. Nelson, K. Nusslein and G. N. Tew, Biomacromolecules, 2009, 10, 353-359. 57.
- 27 A. Punia, A. Mancuso, P. Banerjee and N. L. Yang, ACS Macro Lett, 2015, 4, 426-430. 58.
- 28 59. A. Punia, K. Lee, E. He, S. Mukherjee, A. Mancuso, P. Banerjee and N. L. Yang, Int J Mol Sci, 2015, 16, 29 23867-23880.
- 30 B. C. Allison, B. M. Applegate and J. P. Youngblood, Biomacromolecules, 2007, 8, 2995-2999. 60.
- 31 P. H. Sellenet, B. Allison, B. M. Applegate and J. P. Youngblood, *Biomacromolecules*, 2007, 8, 19-23. 61.
- 32 E. F. Palermo and K. Kuroda, Appl Microbiol Biot, 2010, 87, 1605-1615. 62.
- 33 63. H. Takahashi, E. F. Palermo, K. Yasuhara, G. A. Caputo and K. Kuroda, Macromol Biosci, 2013, 13, 1285-34 1299.
- 35 K. Kuroda and G. A. Caputo, Wires Nanomed Nanobi, 2013, 5, 49-66. 64.
- 36 M. V. Kameneva, J. F. Antaki, K. K. Yeleswarapu, M. J. Watach, B. P. Griffith and H. S. Borovetz, Asaio 65. 37 Journal, 1997, 43, M571-M575.
- 38 M. V. Kameneva, B. M. Repko, E. F. Krasik, B. C. Perricelli and H. S. Borovetz, Asaio Journal, 2003, 49, 66. 39 537-542.
- 40 67. K. Lienkamp, A. E. Madkour, A. Musante, C. F. Nelson, K. Nuesslein and G. N. Tew, J Am Chem Soc, 41 2008, 130, 9836-9843.
- 42 K. Lienkamp, K. N. Kumar, A. Som, K. Nusslein and G. N. Tew, Chem-Eur J, 2009, 15, 11710-11714. 68.
- 43 69. K. Kuroda, G. A. Caputo and W. F. DeGrado, Chem-Eur J, 2009, 15, 1123-1133.
- 44 70. P. Stiefel, S. Schmidt-Emrich, K. Maniura-Weber and Q. Ren, Bmc Microbiol, 2015, 15.
- 45 71. L. H. Yang, V. D. Gordon, D. R. Trinkle, N. W. Schmidt, M. A. Davis, C. DeVries, A. Som, J. E. Cronan,
- 46 G. N. Tew and G. C. L. Wong, P Natl Acad Sci USA, 2008, 105, 20595-20600.
- 47 72. H. Choi, S. Chakraborty, R. H. Liu, S. H. Gellman and J. C. Weisshaar, ACS Chem Biol, 2016, 11, 113-48 120
- 49 73. S. Hovakeemian, R. H. Liu, S. H. Gellman and H. Heerklotz, *Biophys J*, 2015, 108, 551a-551a.
- 50 74. S. G. Hovakeemian, R. H. Liu, S. H. Gellman and H. Heerklotz, Soft Matter, 2015, 11, 6840-6851.
- 51 75. E. F. Palermo, D.-K. Lee, A. Ramamoorthy and K. Kuroda, J Phys Chem B, 2011, 115, 366-375.
- 52
- 53
- 54