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Quantification of Lipid Corona Formation on Colloidal Nanoparticles from Lipid Vesicles

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ABSTRACT

Formation of a protein corona around nanoparticles when immersed into biological fluids is well-known; less studied is the formation of lipid coronas around nanoparticles. In many cases, the identity of a nanoparticle-acquired corona determines nanoparticle fate within a biological system and its interactions with cells and organisms. This work systematically explores the impact of nanoparticle surface chemistry and lipid character on the formation of lipid coronas for three different nanoparticle surface chemistries (two cationic, one anionic) on 14 nm gold nanoparticles exposed to a series of lipid vesicles of four different compositions. Qualitative (plasmon band shifting, ζ potential analysis, dynamic light scattering on the part of the nanoparticles) and quantitative (lipid liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry) methods are developed with a “pull-down” scheme to assess the degree of lipid corona formation in these systems. In general, cationic nanoparticles extract 60–95% of the lipids available in vesicles under the described experimental conditions, while anionic nanoparticles extract almost none. While electrostatics apparently dominate the lipid-nanoparticle interactions, primary amine polymer surfaces extract more lipids

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3 than quaternary ammonium surfaces. Free cationic species can act as lipid-binding competitors in
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5 solution.
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11 INTRODUCTION 12

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14 Nanotechnology is one of the enabling technologies of the twenty-first century. Much progress has
15 been made in controlling material composition and structure at the nanoscale, which leads to
16 control of the physicochemical properties and function of nanomaterials.¹ In particular, gold
17 nanoparticles (AuNPs) are of particular interest due to their relative chemical inertness, versatile
18 surface chemistry, and unique optical properties, allowing applications in diagnostics, imaging,
19 drug delivery, and therapeutics.^{2–7} In the context of these biological applications, knowledge of
20 the interaction of nanomaterials with biomolecules, cells, and organisms is critical,^{8,9} and concerns
21 about potential environmental, health, and safety issues have been raised.^{10–12} How do
22 nanomaterials interact with their surroundings, and what are the molecular mechanisms driving
23 those interactions? Answers to these questions will improve the design of nanomaterials to retain
24 function while minimizing detrimental effects.^{13,14}
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27 When nanoparticles are exposed to biological or natural environments, they are known to acquire
28 a coating (“corona”) of biomolecules.^{15–17} While much work to date has focused on protein coronas,
29 fewer studies examine other biomolecular coronas such as lipid coronas.^{18,19} In one recent example,
30 lipids, along with proteins, were found to attach to nanoparticles when interacting with pulmonary
31 surfactant.¹⁹ Also, computational simulations suggest that lipid coronas form on nanoparticles with
32 specific surface chemistries.^{20–22}
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35 Since cellular membranes are composed primarily of phospholipid bilayers, forming the frontier
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3 between the cell and its environment,²³ the membrane can be considered as one of the initial points
4 of contact between a nanomaterial and a living system. Supported lipid bilayers and suspended
5 lipid vesicles are commonly used as models for phospholipid cell membranes; suspended lipid
6 vesicles are good models for intracellular organelles.²⁴⁻²⁸ Recent collaborative work from our
7 laboratory showed lipid corona formation on polycation-wrapped gold nanoparticles upon
8 interaction with anionic supported lipid bilayers via several techniques including ζ -potential
9 measurement, single molecule imaging, and molecular dynamics simulations.²⁹ Analysis of
10 colloidal nanoparticles via centrifugation-based assays have been used to determine corona-
11 nanoparticle interactions.^{30,31}

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25 Developing quantitative relationships between observables can help predict the biological
26 responses to nanoparticles and eventually assist in uncovering the fundamental mechanisms of
27 nano-bio interactions.³² Therefore, the goal of this study is to quantify the degree of lipid binding
28 to nanoparticles in colloidal solution: the lipids are in the form of vesicles, to simulate organelles.
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30 A centrifugation-based pull-down assay was developed wherein three AuNPs were incubated with
31 suspended phospholipid vesicles of varied composition; lipids associated with the AuNPs were
32 pulled down via centrifugation, and remaining lipids were left in the supernatant. UV-visible
33 spectroscopy, dynamic light scattering (DLS), and laser Doppler electrophoresis measurements
34 were performed on the AuNPs, while quantitative liquid chromatography-tandem mass
35 spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) experiments quantified lipids in each fraction.

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49 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

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52 *Materials.* Gold(III) chloride trihydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\geq 99.9\%$), sodium citrate tribasic dihydrate
53 ($\text{Na}_3\text{Ct} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\geq 99\%$), poly(allylamine) hydrochloride (PAH) ($\sim 17500 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$), sodium chloride
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(NaCl), and (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid) (HEPES) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. 16-(Mercaptohexadecyl)trimethylammonium bromide (MTAB) was prepared according Zubarev *et al.* (see Supporting Information for detailed procedures and characterization).³³ The lipids 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC), 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho-L-serine (DOPS), 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho-(1'-rac-glycerol (DOPG), 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (DOPE) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids. All solutions were prepared in 18 MΩ·cm nanopure water. Glassware was cleaned prior to synthesis using aqua regia (*Caution!*) and then rinsed with nanopure water.

Citrate-AuNPs synthesis. We synthesized AuNPs of 14 nm diameter, capped with citrate, by the Turkevich method.³⁴ Briefly, 1.25 mL of 0.1 M HAuCl₄·3H₂O was added to 498.75 mL of ultrapure water, and the solution was heated to a rolling boil. Then, 10 mL of 1% w/w sodium citrate was added, and the solution was kept boiling for an additional 40 min. After the heat was turned off, the solution was allowed to cool naturally, and an additional 2.5 mL of 1% w/w sodium citrate was added. To purify, the AuNPs were centrifuged at 8000g for 20 min twice unless stated otherwise. The supernatant was discarded, and the remaining sample was redispersed in nanopure water. To calculate concentrations of the AuNPs, an extinction coefficient of $2.18 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ was used.³⁵

Wrapping Citrate-AuNPs with PAH. A 20 mL solution of 2 nM Citrate-AuNPs was prepared in a 50 mL centrifuge tube. In another tube, 2 mL of 0.01 M NaCl was mixed with 4 mL of 10 mg mL⁻¹ PAH. The PAH solution was then added to the AuNP solution. The tube was placed on a BellyDancer shaker overnight to mix, and the nanoparticle solution was purified by centrifugation at 8000g for 20 min twice unless stated otherwise. The final pellet of PAH-AuNPs was resuspended in 10 mM HEPES buffer (1 mM NaCl, pH 7.4).

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3 *Coating Citrate-AuNPs with MTAB.* A 1.0 mL aqueous solution of 1.5 mg mL⁻¹ MTAB was heated
4 at 60 °C for 30 min to achieve dissolution. Subsequently, 0.30 mL of 300 nM 15 nm AuNPs were
5 added to the MTAB solution. The solution was kept at 60 °C overnight and purified by
6 centrifugation at 8000g for 20 min twice unless stated otherwise. The final pellet of MTAB-AuNPs
7 was resuspended in 10 mM HEPES buffer (1 mM NaCl, pH 7.4).
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16 *Lipid vesicle preparation.* Small unilamellar vesicles were prepared by a sonication method
17 previously described by the Morrissey Lab at UIUC (<https://tf7.org/suv.pdf>). Briefly, lipid
18 mixtures in chloroform were combined to the desired ratio (pure DOPC, 9:1 DOPC/DOPS, 9:1
19 DOPC/DOPG, 9:1 DOPC/DOPE), and vortexed for 30 s in a glass vial to achieve a homogenous
20 mixture. The solvent was evaporated under a stream of ultrapure N₂ gas, and the dried film was
21 placed in vacuum for additional 2 h. The dried lipid film was rehydrated to a 1 mg mL⁻¹ stock
22 solution in 10 mM HEPES buffer (1 mM NaCl, pH 7.4) for 1 h. The rehydrated lipid solution was
23 vortexed for 1 min to a milky solution, then was placed in a bath sonicator until the suspension
24 changes from milky to nearly clear in appearance (~15 min for DOPC/DOPG and DOPC/DOPS,
25 ~30 min for DOPC and DOPC/DOPE). Final lipid vesicle solutions were stored at 4 °C and used
26 within 2 days. The lipid vesicles were characterized by DLS and laser Doppler electrophoresis.
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43 *Nanoparticle and lipid vesicles interactions.* All experiments and analyses were conducted in 10
44 mM HEPES buffer (1 mM NaCl, pH 7.4). In a typical experiment, unless stated otherwise, 500 μL
45 2.4 nM AuNPs were added to 500 μL 1 μg mL⁻¹ diluted as-prepared lipid vesicles in glass vials.
46 Controls were done with an equivalent of same buffer in place of the colloidal gold solution, which
47 take into account any potential losses of lipids due to adsorption to vials, etc. during processing.
48 The combined solutions were mixed gently well before storage at room temperature overnight
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(~18h) to achieve equilibrium. All samples were prepared in triplicate. After incubation, the solutions were transferred to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged at 16,000g for 50 min to achieve a clear separation. The AuNPs were redispersed in buffer and characterized by several methods, while the supernatants, containing free lipids, were quantified via LC-MS/MS. The concentration of lipids bound to AuNPs was equated, by mass balance, to the concentration in the control (C_{total}) minus the concentration in the supernatant ($C_{supernatant}$) to get the concentration of nanoparticle-bound lipids (C_{bound}), and bound lipid percentage of total (C_{bound}/C_{total}).

Nanoparticle and lipid vesicle characterization and instrumentation. Absorption spectra of all AuNPs were taken on a Cary 500 scan UV-vis-near-IR spectrophotometer. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) data of AuNPs were obtained with a JEOL 2100 cryo electron microscope operating at 200 kV. DLS and laser Doppler electrophoresis were conducted on a Brookhaven ZetaPALS instrument. For lipid quantification, samples were analyzed with a 5500 QTRAP LC/MS/MS system (Sciex, Framingham, MA) in the Metabolomics Lab of the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Details are described in the Supporting Information.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For this study, 14 nm diameter AuNPs with either an anionic ligand: sodium citrate (Citrate-AuNPs) or two different cationic ligands: 16-mercaptophexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (MTAB-AuNPs) or poly(allylamine) hydrochloride (PAH-AuNPs) were studied. MTAB displays a quaternary ammonium group to the solvent while PAH displays primary amines (Figure 1). We chose PAH as a coating because it is a common polyelectrolyte wrapping for nanoparticles, widely

used in studies concerning nanoparticle organismal toxicity, lipid membrane interactions, and more.³⁶⁻³⁸ In previous studies in our group, we found PAH-AuNPs promoted protein aggregation and beta-sheet formation whereas MTAB-AuNPs did not, even when the AuNPs possessed similar ζ -potentials, suggesting that protein behavior on NPs cannot be predicted by surface potential alone.^{39,40} The question, then, is to what extent do lipids also distinguish molecular-level details of nanoparticle surfaces. The suspended lipid vesicles were made in four combinations: pure zwitterionic DOPC, and DOPC containing 10% anionic DOPS, anionic DOPG, or zwitterionic DOPE. These DOPC-rich lipid vesicles were chosen because the zwitterionic PC headgroup is one of the most abundant headgroups in biological membranes.^{41,42}

The workflow for the lipid corona-nanoparticle experiments is shown in Figure 1e.

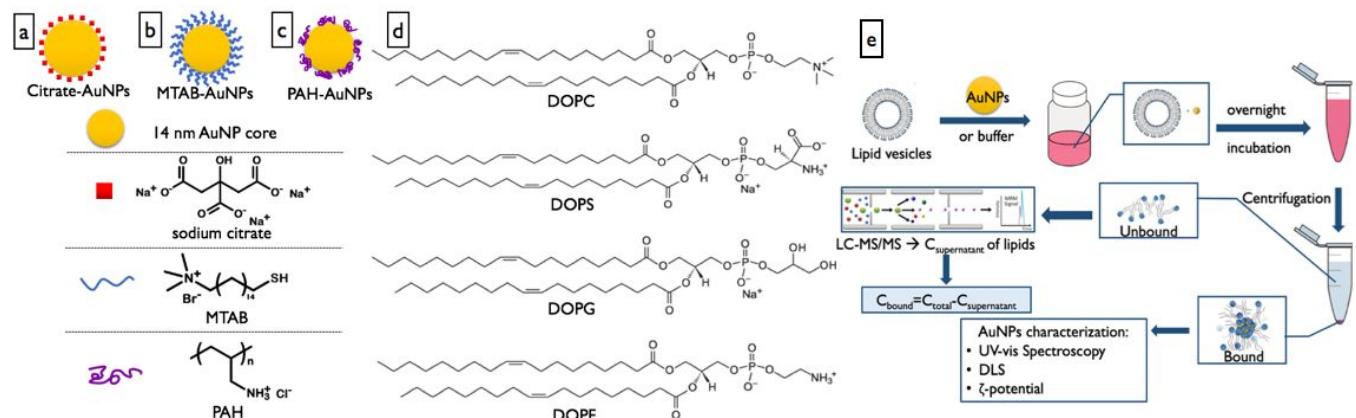


Figure 1. Schematic of a) Citrate-AuNPs, b) MTAB-AuNPs, c) PAH-AuNPs, d) structures of lipids, e) Experimental workflow for quantification of lipid coronas on gold nanoparticles. After incubation with lipid vesicles, gold nanoparticles are centrifuged to separate free from bound lipid. Lipid quantification is performed by LC-MS/MS in the supernatants compared to standards in the same buffer system as the original incubation; total lipid – free lipids = bound lipids. Figures are

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3 not drawn to scale, and the state of the lipids upon and after incubation with nanoparticles (vesicle
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5 vs. free) is not known.
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10 *AuNPs and lipid vesicle characterizations.* All AuNPs before lipid incubation were well
11 characterized. The UV-vis spectra of representative batches of Citrate-AuNPs, MTAB-AuNPs and
12 PAH-AuNPs are shown in Figure S1. The plasmon band maximum at ~520 nm is consistent with
13 AuNPs of this size, and slight shifts in the plasmon peak are expected due to the change in local
14 refractive index at the surface for the different surface groups.⁴³ The plasmon bands broaden
15 slightly after functionalization, indicating a small amount of aggregation. The increase in
16 hydrodynamic diameters(d_h) derived from DLS measurements and the ζ -potentials calculated from
17 electrophoretic mobilities for AuNPs in buffer further show the success of AuNPs
18 functionalization (Table S1). TEM images (Figure S2) and the associated histograms (Figure S3)
19 indicate that representative Citrate-AuNPs possessed a core diameter of 14.2 ± 1.6 nm, MTAB-
20 AuNPs 13.9 ± 1.5 nm, PAH-AuNPs 14.5 ± 1.7 nm ($n > 200$).
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36 The data in Table S2 indicate that the hydrodynamic diameters of lipid vesicles range from
37 approximately 70 to 150 nm in diameter on average. We used 100 nm as an average size to estimate
38 the molar concentration of $1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ lipid vesicles (see SI for calculation), which is $M_{\text{lipid}} =$
39 $1.27 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$. As designed for these experiments, with the addition of 2.4 nM AuNPs, the number
40 ratio of AuNP:lipid vesicle is approximately 150:1, which is also within a range reported
41 previously.⁴⁴ Based on their average composition, the ζ -potential of DOPC vesicles and 9:1
42 DOPC/DOPE vesicles are close to neutral because they are zwitterionic lipids, whereas 9:1
43 DOPC/DOPS and 9:1 DOPC/DOPG are negatively charged as DOPS and DOPG are both anionic
44 lipids. It is worth mentioning that while extrusion is also a common method for lipid vesicle
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3 production, in our hands it led to more variability in final lipid vesicle concentration than
4 sonication; therefore, we chose sonication over extrusion for making vesicles.
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8 *Anionic Citrate-AuNPs interactions with 4 types of lipid vesicles.* To validate the hypothesis that
9 electrostatic attraction is one of the main forces driving nanoparticle-lipid vesicle interactions, we
10 incubated anionic Citrate-AuNPs with the anionic lipid vesicles. As shown in Figure 2a, the
11 extinction spectra of Citrate-AuNPs did not exhibit shifts in the plasmon maximum following
12 interaction with any vesicle systems, after redispersion of the pellets after separation from free
13 lipids. A slight broadening at longer wavelengths was observed, possibly due to the aggregation
14 caused by high centrifugation force. No significant changes in hydrodynamic diameters or ζ -
15 potential were observed, and analysis of the LC-MS/MS data by comparing C_{bound}/C_{total} indicated
16 minimal lipid was bound to the Citrate-AuNPs (Figure 2b-d). This data also demonstrates that ~5%
17 or less of the lipids end up in the pellet, if NP-lipid electrostatics are not in favor of lipid-NP
18 binding. Control experiments of lipid vesicles without undergoing the centrifugation process (data
19 not shown) were also compared to the controls being centrifuged, showing that these centrifugation
20 conditions did not sediment lipids ($p > 0.05$, $n > 30$). These data suggested no/little lipid coronas
21 were formed on Citrate-AuNPs, presumably due to the electrostatic repulsion between anionic
22 phospholipids and anionic nanoparticles. (No measurements were made to quantify any citrate
23 desorption, but if lipids simply replaced citrate on the nanoparticles, we would have expected to
24 bind nearly all of the lipids, based on the available surface area of the nanoparticles).
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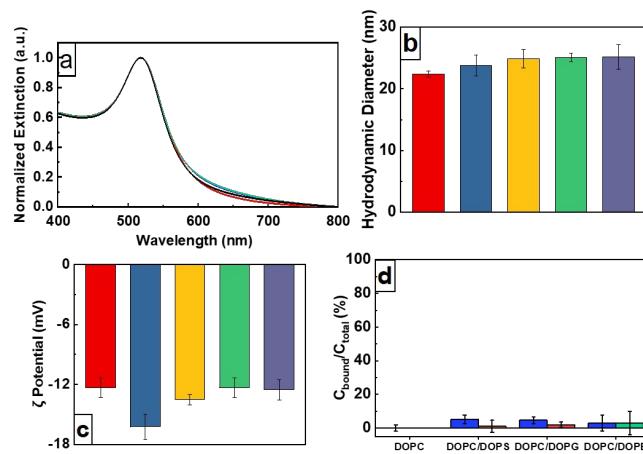


Figure 2. a) UV-vis spectra of Citrate-AuNPs before interaction(red), after interaction with DOPC(blue), 9:1 DOPC/DOPS(green), 9:1 DOPC/DOPG(orange), 9:1 DOPC/DOPE(black); b) DLS and c) ζ -potential of Citrate-AuNPs before interaction (red), after interaction with DOPC (blue), 9:1 DOPC/DOPS (yellow), 9:1 DOPC/DOPG(green), 9:1 DOPC/DOPE(purple); d) LC-MS/MS quantification: $C_{\text{bound}}/C_{\text{total}}$ (blue: DOPC, red: DOPS, orange: DOPG, green: DOPE). Bar heights represent mean values; error bars correspond to one standard deviation for triplicate runs from the same batches of nanoparticle and lipid vesicle solutions.

Cationic MTAB-AuNPs and PAH-AuNPs interactions with 4 types of lipid vesicles. Incubation experiments of cationic AuNPs were performed to assess the ability of AuNPs to acquire lipid coronas from vesicles. The hydrodynamic diameters and ζ -potentials of AuNPs and vesicles are reported in Table S2("Figure 5 data"). Upon addition of PAH-AuNPs to vesicle solutions, the samples gradually aggregated, leading to sedimentation. In contrast, no visual aggregation was observed for MTAB-AuNPs, despite the similar ζ -potentials of two AuNPs. UV-vis spectra (Figure 3) of the MTAB-AuNPs before and after vesicle incubation and subsequent separation, showed a slight red shift of ~5 nm in the plasmon maximum, suggesting lipid attachment.⁴⁵ For PAH-AuNPs, the original peak at ~520 nm was damped, and a new, broadened peak at a longer

wavelength (ranging from 619 to 653 nm) appeared after, indicative of aggregation.⁴⁶ These spectroscopic data support the notion that lipid corona formation occurs on MTAB-AuNPs, but for PAH-AuNPs, spectroscopic evidence for lipid corona formation is convoluted with lipid-induced aggregation.

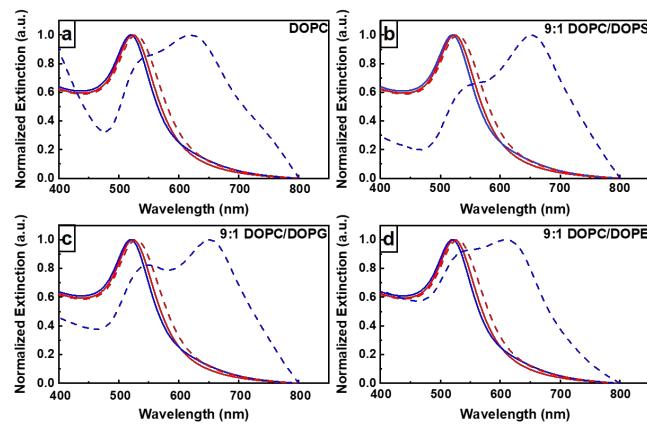


Figure 3. Representative normalized extinction spectra of ~7 nM MTAB-AuNP (red) and PAH-AuNPs (blue) before (solid) and after (dashed) lipid pull-down experiment with a) DOPC, b) 9:1 DOPC/DOPS, c) 9:1 DOPC/DOPG, d) 9:1 DOPC/DOPE.

The hydrodynamic diameters of AuNPs before interaction and lipid-AuNP conjugates after pull-down were measured by DLS. As shown in Figure 4a-d, the hydrodynamic diameters of the MTAB-AuNPs increase by 5-10 nm after addition of vesicles, indicative of the formation of a nanoscale lipid layer(s). A dramatic increase in hydrodynamic diameters of PAH-AuNPs after vesicle incubation, for all lipid systems, indicates aggregation, consistent with both visual observations and UV-vis spectra.

After incubation with DOPC or 9:1 DOPC/DOPE vesicles, the ζ -potentials of both cationic AuNPs did not show drastic changes, which is expected because DOPC and DOPC/DOPE are zwitterionic

(Figure 4e-h). However, the ζ -potentials decreased and switched from positive to negative after interacting with 9:1 DOPC/DOPS or 9:1 DOPC/DOPG, providing compelling evidence for the binding of anionic DOPS or DOPG onto initially cationic AuNPs.

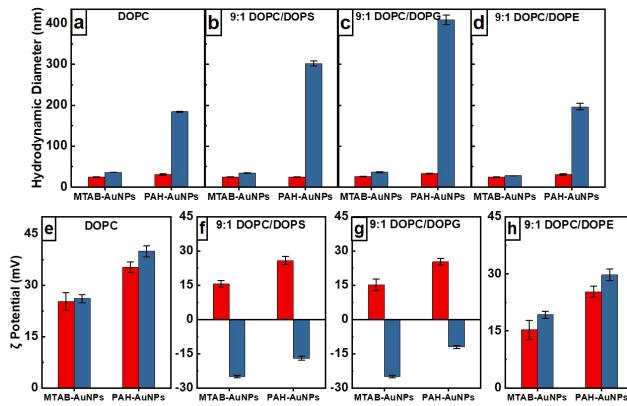


Figure 4. Hydrodynamic diameters and ζ -potential of MTAB- and PAH-AuNPs before (red) and after (blue) lipid pull-down experiments, for lipid vesicles of a/e) DOPC, b/f) 9:1 DOPC/DOPS, c/g) 9:1 DOPC/DOPG, d/h) 9:1 DOPC/DOPE. Bar heights represent mean values; error bars indicate the standard error for 10 runs of DLS analysis or ζ -potential measurements for representative samples.

All the above data qualitatively supports the notion that cationic colloidal nanoparticles can acquire lipids from vesicles. To be more quantitative, lipid concentrations in the supernatants, after nanoparticle pull-down, were measured by LC-MS/MS. Figure S4 shows representative raw data, compared to controls, which underwent the same centrifugation steps as all other samples but contained no nanoparticles. Significant decreases in the amount of lipids in the supernatants were observed for both types of cationic AuNPs in all vesicle systems, indicating the acquisition of lipids from the vesicles by both AuNPs. In Figure 5a, both types of AuNPs bound more than 80% of DOPC under the described conditions, and the amount of DOPC pulled down by the nanoparticles did not differ ($p > 0.05$), indicating a lack of preference of DOPC binding to PAH-

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3 AuNPs or to MTAB-AuNPs. However, when presented with both DOPS and DOPC (Figure 6b),
4 PAH-AuNPs bound more than 95% of both lipids whereas MTAB-AuNPs bound less than 60%
5 of lipids, with a strong preference for anionic DOPS relative to zwitterionic DOPC. Similar, but
6 not identical, results were obtained for 9:1 DOPC/DOPG anionic vesicles (Figure 6c): PAH-
7 AuNPs bound more lipids than MTAB-AuNPs. For zwitterionic 9:1 DOPC/DOPE vesicles, the
8 two types of nanoparticles pulled down 85-95% of both lipids. Table S2 lists the characteristics
9 for each batch of vesicles and nanoparticles for each data set in Figure 5.
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22 While these data themselves to not provide direct binding affinities for lipid-nanoparticle
23 interactions, in initial experiments (data not shown) we found that 3X lower vesicle concentrations
24 than the ones described above led to complete lipid pulldown by PAH-AuNPs. Related
25 experiments from our group suggest that cationic gold nanoparticles irreversibly adsorb to
26 supported lipid bilayers with $\sim 1 \times 10^{11}$ particles/cm², albeit under different conditions and for
27 DOPC with a different co-lipid.²⁸ Taken together, these data provide qualitative context for the
28 relative strength of lipid-NP interactions. Another question that might arise is: do the lipids replace
29 MTAB and PAH on the particle surface, or do they merely associate with the surface-bound
30 ligands? In the absence of quantitative data in which free MTAB or PAH is measured in
31 supernatants, we suggest that lipid replacement is unlikely due to the strong Au-S bonds and
32 hydrophobic tail interactions in the case of MTAB, and the multivalent electrostatic points of
33 contact in the case of PAH. The surface chemistry and DLS/zeta potential data, taken together,
34 suggest that the assumption of lipid acquisition by nanoparticles with intact surface ligands is a
35 reasonable one.
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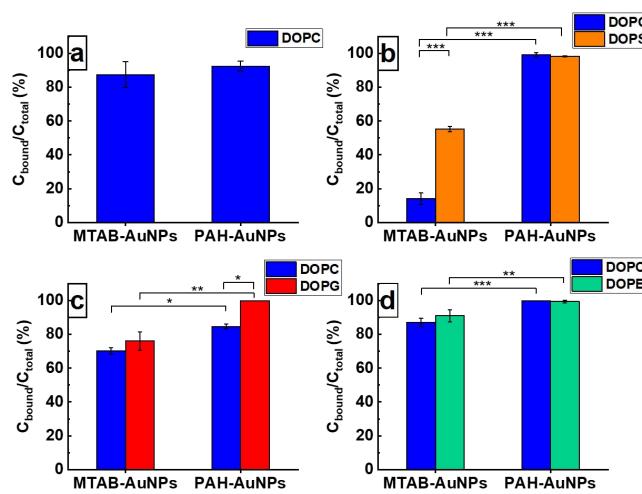


Figure 5. $C_{\text{bound}}/C_{\text{total}}$ percentage, after pull-down separation of AuNP pellets, based on LC-MS/MS quantification. The lipids are a) DOPC, b) 9:1 DOPC/DOPS, c) 9:1 DOPC/DOPG, d) 9:1 DOPC/DOPE. Bar heights represent mean values; error bars correspond to one standard deviation for triplicate runs from the same batches of nanoparticle and lipid vesicle solutions. The nanoparticle batches were independently synthesized for a, b, c, d, as were the lipid vesicle solutions. Asterisks correspond to the following p values using ANOVA followed by post hoc multiple comparisons test: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

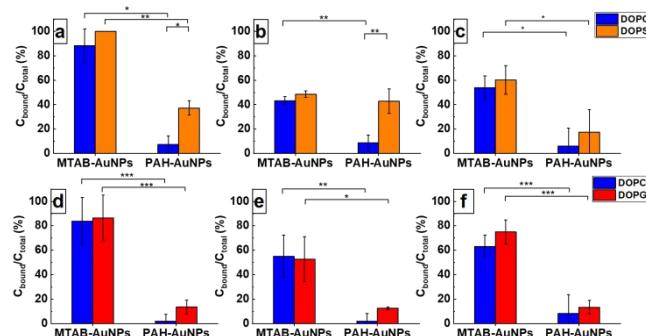
Batch-to-batch variation in zeta potential and hydrodynamic size does occur for both nanoparticles and lipid vesicles (Table S2, Figure S5). An example of analogous results for Figure 5, but with an unusual batch of MTAB-AuNPs (+ 46 mV zeta potential compared to the usual +15 mV; Figure S6b) shows that while the absolute magnitude of lipid pull-down is altered (more positive zeta potential does lead to more lipid binding), the general trends of Figure 5 are robust, and more lipids are pulled down by PAH-AuNPs compared to MTAB-AuNP, while very little are pulled down by

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3 the anionic citrate-capped nanoparticles. The natural assumption is that electrostatic interactions
4 dominate relations between vesicles and nanoparticles.⁴⁷ This is perhaps obvious, but the chemical
5 nature of MTAB and PAH are quite different. For example, the quaternary ammonium headgroup
6 of MTAB is a poor hydrogen bond donor or acceptor compared to PAH, whereas the
7 hydrophobicity of MTAB is higher than PAH due to its C16 chain, which one could have
8 postulated would have resulted in favorable hydrophobic interactions with the hydrophobic tails
9 of lipids.⁴⁰ Furthermore, MTAB is a classic example of a self-assembled thiol on a gold surface
10 via Au-S bonds, and is expected to display a rather packed, uniform cationic surface to the solvent.
11 PAH, on the other hand, is a polymer that is electrostatically associated with the nanoparticle core,
12 and, according to NMR experiments of it bound to other nanoparticles, it has segments farther
13 away from the surface and in highly mobile environments (loops and tails).⁵⁷ The mobility of
14 polymer segments or ligands on nanoparticles may potentially affect how they interact with lipid
15 vesicles.^{13, 57} It also has been reported previously that polymers bearing primary amines exceed
16 their quaternary ammonium counterparts in membrane binding and disruption.⁴⁸ In spite of the
17 many contributors to the thermodynamics of lipid-nanoparticle interactions that make quantitative
18 predictions difficult (charge density, water and ion local concentrations, hydrophobic and
19 electrostatic interactions, hydrogen bonding), we conclude that the primary amine, “loopy” surface
20 of PAH is more likely to pull lipids out from vesicles than the quaternary ammonium “uniform”
21 surface of MTAB.⁴⁹

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49 A large amount of evidence shows that cationic nanoparticles have more adverse outcomes than
50 their anionic counterpart at the cellular level.^{12,37,50} The evidence we present, that lipids are
51 quantitatively extracted from vesicles by cationic nanoparticles, may provide a mechanism at the
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3 cellular level: lipid extraction from membranes by nanoparticles would disrupt the cell membranes
4 and induce membrane damage which can eventually lead to cell death.^{51,52} While MTAB-AuNPs
5 have shown an excellent ability to be taken up by cells, the toxicity of MTAB itself to biological
6 systems has not been reported yet,^{53,54} but PAH seems to be rather cytotoxic.^{47,55,56}
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15 *Effects of purification method of AuNPs and other ratios of AuNPs:lipid vesicles.* The purification
16 method of the nanomaterials used in this study above was twice-centrifugation. This rigorous
17 purification scheme was chosen because it was found that an extra round of centrifugation can
18 further reduce the amount of unbound PAH polymer in the nanoparticle solution by an order of
19 magnitude, which eliminates most of the free PAH, resulting in a relatively clean system.⁵⁶
20 However, we noticed that PAH-AuNPs are less stable than MTAB-AuNPs, and they eventually
21 aggregated in buffer after ~2 days. As a 1× centrifugation of PAH-AuNPs leads to more stable
22 colloidal suspensions (but also leaves measurable quantities of free PAH in the supernatant), we
23 also quantified the lipids pulled down by both MTAB- and PAH-AuNPs purified with 1×
24 centrifugation. In these experiments, 500 μ L 4.8 nM AuNPs were added, respectively, in 500 μ L
25 2, 20, or 200 μ g mL⁻¹ (at number ratio of 150:1, 15:1, 1.5:1) of two vesicles system (9:1
26 DOPC/DOPS, 9:1 DOPC/DOPG), and underwent the same process of pull-down experiment as
27 above described.
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3 **Figure 6.** $C_{\text{bound}}/C_{\text{total}}$ percentage, after pull-down separation of AuNP pellets, based on LC-
4 MS/MS quantification, for 9:1 DOPC/DOPS (a-c) and 9:1 DOPC/DOPG (d-f), for 4.8 nM MTAB-
5 and PAH- AuNPs interacting with a/d) 2 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, b/e) 20 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, c/f) 200 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ lipid vesicles,
6 compared to controls. Bar heights represent mean values; error bars correspond to one standard
7 deviation, $n = 3$, for three batches of nanoparticles and one batch of lipid vesicles. Asterisks
8 correspond to the following p values using ANOVA followed by post hoc multiple comparisons
9 test: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.
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22 With a competitor in the supernatant for lipids – free PAH – the comparison between MTAB-
23 AuNPs and PAH-AuNPs is tilted far in apparent favor of MTAB, meaning PAH-AuNPs acquired
24 much less lipids. The likely reason for the significant change in lipid association with the PAH-
25 AuNPs is that free PAH (7.53 mg L^{-1} per mg L^{-1} in supernatants of 1x centrifuged AuNPs, instead
26 of 0.49 mg L^{-1} in supernatants of 2x centrifuges AuNPs)⁵⁶ sequesters lipids and competes with
27 PAH bound to nanoparticles. In this circumstance, lipids appear to prefer free PAH compared to
28 nanoparticle-bound PAH. Details of the conformation of free PAH and bound PAH are doubtless
29 involved in this discrimination, as well as considerations of possible differences in the relative
30 binding energies of lipid/free PAH compared to lipid/bound PAH;^{57,58} we note that previous NMR
31 experiments of 4 nm PAH-AuNPs suggested that the PAH polymer is “loosened” upon lipid
32 vesicle interaction.²⁸ The other interesting point about the data in Figure 6 is that even though
33 lipid concentrations are increasing 100×, $C_{\text{bound}}/C_{\text{total}}$ is only modestly affected, meaning
34 absolutely more lipids are bound and are likely forming multilayers on cationic NP surfaces,
35 similar to what we have observed before for both PAH and hydrophobic particle surfaces.¹⁸
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CONCLUSION

In summary, we developed a centrifugation-based pull-down assay in which one anionic AuNP and two cationic AuNPs were incubated with four lipid vesicles systems. Collective data demonstrate both qualitatively and quantitatively that phospholipids in vesicles are extracted and bound to cationic AuNPs, indicating a lipid corona formation on both types of cationic AuNPs. Little lipid corona was formed on Citrate-AuNPs, supporting the electrostatic nature of the interactions. Different degrees of binding to both cationic AuNPs were observed in the binary vesicles systems, and different compositions of lipids may lead to different lipid coronas, independent of abundance of lipids. In the binary vesicle systems, the quantitative data show that PAH-AuNPs has higher tendency to extract lipids from the vesicles. We also note that insufficient purification of nanoparticle solutions can lead to free ligand, which competes for lipid binding and can give erroneous conclusions about NP-lipid affinities.

With the promising, though challenging, development of lipidomics by LC-MS/MS, we envision the work presented herein setting the stage for generation of a “lipid corona fingerprinting” database by quantitatively correlating lipid corona information to cellular uptake, membrane disruption, trafficking and cytotoxicity, to improve quantitative predictions of nano-bio interactions.^{32,59}

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5 lipid quantification.
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11 Supporting Information Available: Representative extinction spectra, TEM images and diameter
12 histograms, λ_{max} , d_h , and ζ -potentials of citrate-AuNPs, MTAB-AuNPs and PAH-AuNPs; Raw
13 quantification of lipids in the supernatants by LC-MS/MS; d_h and ζ -potentials of two batches of
14 lipid vesicles, MTAB-AuNPs and PAH-AuNPs used in different systems; batch-to-batch
15 reproducibility data; LC-MS/MS method; Calculation of the number ratio of AuNPs:lipid vesicles;
16 ζ -potentials of 16 batches of MTAB-AuNPs; MTAB synthesis and characterization.
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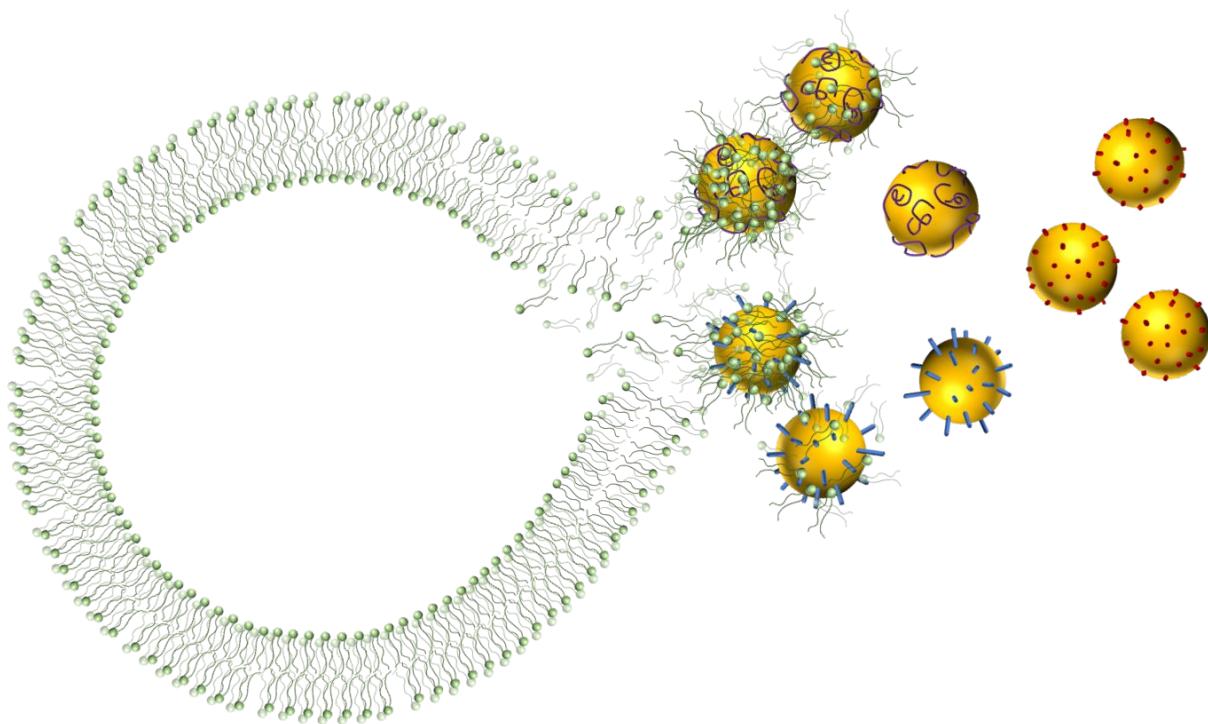
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