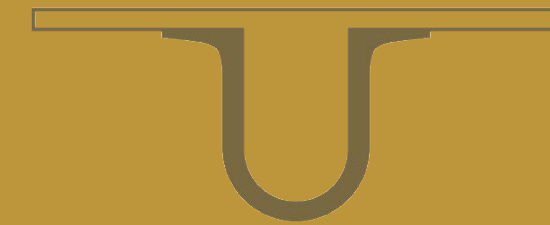




UNIVERSIDADE DE
COIMBRA



André Filipe Simões Ferreira

**INSIGHTS INTO GOLD NANOPARTICLES FUNCTIONALIZED
WITH CYSTEINE-TERMINATED CECROPIN MELITTIN AND
CATHELICIDIN-DERIVED ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDES - A
COMPUTATIONAL APPROACH**

Tese no âmbito do Doutoramento em Engenharia Química orientada pelo Professor
Doutor Pedro Nuno das Neves Lopes Simões e apresentada à Faculdade de Ciências e
Tecnologia.

Agosto de 2018

Faculdade de Ciências e Tecnologia

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Acknowledgements

Ao meu orientador científico, Professor Doutor Pedro Nuno Simões, por ter embarcado comigo neste desafio. Obrigado pela disponibilidade inabalável, pela confiança, pelo espírito crítico que sempre me inculuiu e por todo o conhecimento que me transmitiu. Esta colaboração foi preponderante para meu desenvolvimento pessoal, não apenas pela vertente científica.

Aos colegas do CNC/Biocant, Doutor Lino Ferreira, Doutor Akhilesh Rai e Doutora Michela Comune. Obrigado pelo desafio que nos lançaram, pelo conhecimento científico partilhado e pela disponibilidade para o esclarecimento de dúvidas.

Ao grupo de Computação, Estatística e Materiais (CEM) do Departamento de Engenharia Química de Coimbra. Obrigado por me ter providenciado todas as, excelentes, condições para execução deste plano doutoral.

Ao Professor Doutor Nuno Oliveira e Doutor Adamo Caetano. Obrigado por toda disponibilidade demonstrada durante a configuração e manutenção dos *clusters* de cálculo.

Aos meus amigos. Obrigado pela incansável boa disposição e força que me deram nos momentos mais difíceis.

À minha família. Obrigado a todos pelos momentos que proporcionaram, pelo convívio, por todo o apoio e por me terem ajudado a tornar naquilo que sou hoje.

Aos meus pais. Obrigado por sempre me terem dado as ferramentas necessárias para seguir o meu caminho e por sempre me terem ajudado. Todos os meus sucessos têm o vosso cunho!

À Inês. Obrigado pela companhia, suporte, alegria, energia e força que me deste durante toda esta caminhada. Apesar de todos desafios que enfrentámos, tive sempre o teu apoio incondicional. Não teria aqui chegado sem a tua ajuda. Obrigado!

Abstract

Despite the remarkable development of antimicrobial drugs during the past decades, infectious diseases remain the second-leading cause of death worldwide. Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are a class of antimicrobials that are known to hinder the antimicrobial resistance and are very effective against several strains of bacteria, fungi and viruses. However, these materials lack bloodstream stability and targeting capabilities, which has motivated the search for nanomaterials to be used as carriers. The immobilization of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) with AMPs appeared as a new and promising way to enhance both activity and targeting capabilities of AMPs. Nonetheless, the investigation of these systems on how they function at the nanoscale is scarcely reported. In this context, Molecular modelling and simulation tools are crucial to address issues which are extremely difficult, or even impossible, to be addressed experimentally.

This work aimed at gaining new insights into gold nanoparticles functionalized with two types of cysteine-terminated antimicrobial peptides – a cecropin melittin hybrid and a cathelicidin-derived peptide – from a computational approach. In line with this objective a molecular dynamics based study was carried out to probe the targeted systems at nanoscale in three vectors: i) adsorption capability of the AMPs onto gold surfaces; ii) free-energy characterization of the AMP/AuNP conjugate interaction using an advanced sampling method; iii) assessment of the interaction of a AMP/AuNP conjugate with a biomembrane mimetic model.

The obtained results show that the way the peptides approach the surface dictates the final conformation and the time required to achieve it. The AMP diffusion process is affected by the attraction field projected by the gold surface into the solvent, resembling an exponential decay. It was possible to identify a high affinity between the AMPs and the gold surface, characterized by the direct contact between the α -carbon protons and the surface. Furthermore, it is demonstrated that cysteine (CYS) promotes a faster conformational stabilization during the lockdown regime of the CYS-terminated AMPs, noticeably affecting this by acting as a preferential anchoring point.

The structural analysis combined with the free energy surface (FES) characterization allowed to assess the role of CYS residue during the formation of the conjugate, and, more significantly, has helped to understand how the AuNP contributes to improve the antimicrobial activity of the peptide. It was found that CYS promotes a lower conformational entropy (before and after adsorption onto the AuNP) and a faster adsorption process when compared to the AMP without CYS. The presence of the AuNP fosters the elongation of the peptides along with the adsorption, which translates into the increase of the solvent accessible surface area. This elongation, combined with the greater availability

of positively charged residues upon adsorption, provide a rationale for the enhancement of the activity of AMP/AuNP conjugates.

The simulation of the interaction between the cathelicidin-derived peptide conjugate and the lipid bilayer model allowed to unveil the effect of each component on the bilayer characteristics. The bare AuNP causes a severe deformation in the bilayer leaflets, motivated by the displacement of the lipid molecules. The fact that the lipids are adsorbing to the AuNP by displacing the water on its surface suggests an adsorption mechanism similar to that for AMPs. Oppositely, the conjugate tends to migrate to the bilayer surface without penetrating in it, thus causing minor disturbances in the bilayer properties. The AuNP corona formed by the AMP shields the AuNP from lipids, precluding its permeation in the bilayer. Similarly to the conjugate, the free AMPs consistently migrate to the bilayer surface. The AMP residues with hydrophobic side-chains eventually orient themselves to the bilayer center, hampering its release to the solvent.

It is believed that the wealth of data provided by this work contributes to a better understanding of the conjugate formation of cecropin melittin and cathelicidin-derived AMPs with AuNPs, and constitutes a solid starting point for more in-depth studies on the mechanisms that govern the interactions of these conjugates with cell membranes.

Resumo

Apesar do extraordinário desenvolvimento dos medicamentos antimicrobianos, as doenças infecciosas continuam a ser a segunda maior causa de mortalidade a nível mundial. Os péptidos antimicrobianos (PAM) são uma classe de agentes antimicrobianos aptos a fazer face à resistência antimicrobiana, com actividade contra diferentes estirpes de bactérias, fungos e vírus. Contudo, possuem baixa estabilidade na corrente sanguínea e fraca capacidade de visar o agente patógeno pretendido. Estas limitações levaram à pesquisa e desenvolvimento de materiais nanoestruturados para serem utilizados como suporte, e, neste âmbito, a conjugação de nanopartículas de ouro (AuNP) com PAM emergiu como uma estratégia promissora no sentido de melhorar a actividade e o efeito dirigido sobre os patógenos. A investigação experimental deste tipo de sistemas à nanoescala é escassa, difícil, ou mesmo inexequível, pelo que o recurso a ferramentas de modelação e simulação computacional revela-se determinante no estudo fundamental de fenómenos cujo acesso por via exclusivamente empírica é uma impossibilidade.

Este trabalho teve por finalidade resolver, mediante uma abordagem computacional, pormenores fundamentais sobre sistemas baseados em nanopartículas funcionalizadas com péptidos antimicrobianos (híbrido de cecropina e melitina e um derivado da catelicidina). Para o efeito, recorreu-se a ferramentas de dinâmica molecular para explorar os sistemas objecto de estudo em três vertentes: i) capacidade de adsorção dos PAM em superfícies de ouro; ii) caracterização da superfície de energia livre da formação do conjugado PAM/AuNP recorrendo a métodos de dinâmica molecular convencionais e avançados; iii) avaliação da interação do conjugado do derivado da catelicidina com um modelo de biomembrana.

Os resultados obtidos indicam que a orientação do péptido na sua aproximação à superfície dita a sua conformação final, bem como o tempo necessário para a atingir. O processo de difusão dos PAM é afectado pelo campo de atracção projectado pela AuNP no solvente, resultando em um perfil semelhante a um decaimento exponencial. Os PAM e a superfície revelam grande afinidade, caracterizada pelo contacto directo entre os protões dos carbonos- α e a superfície. Adicionalmente, foi demonstrado que a presença da cisteína (CYS) acelera a estabilização do PAM durante o regime de ajuste à superfície, sendo que este resíduo actua como um ponto ancoragem no ouro.

A análise estrutural e a caracterização da superfície de energia livre permitiram, por um lado, avaliar o efeito da cisteína durante o processo de formação do conjugado, e, por outro, não menos importante, ajudar a perceber como é que a AuNP afecta a actividade dos PAM. Verifica-se que a CYS promove uma entropia conformacional inferior (antes e depois da adsorção) e parece catalisar o processo de adsorção. A presença da AuNP no

sistema leva a que os PAM se apresentem preferencialmente alongados após a adsorção, o que se traduz numa área de acesso de solvente superior. Este alongamento e o facto de os PAM terem os resíduos com carga positiva mais disponíveis ajudam a explicar o aumento de actividade dos conjugados.

A simulação da interacção do conjugado do derivado da catelicidina com o modelo de biomembrana permitiu avaliar o efeito de cada componente nas características dessa bicamada lipídica. Os resultados mostram que a AuNP sem PAM provoca severas deformações na superfície da biomembrana, promovida por uma forte interacção com os lípidos constituintes. O facto de os lípidos aderirem à superfície da AuNP por deslocalização das moléculas de água na sua superfície sugere que o mecanismo de adsorção é similar ao dos PAM na AuNP. Contrariamente, e apesar de migrar para a superfície, o conjugado não provoca deformações na biomembrana. De facto, o revestimento de PAM do conjugado actua como um agente protector da AuNP, não permitindo a sua permeação. De forma semelhante, os PAM livres migram consistentemente para a superfície da biomembrana, tendendo a manter-se nessa condição. Este comportamento com a biomembrana é motivado pela orientação dos resíduos hidrofóbicos para o interior da membrana, actuando como uma âncora.

Em suma, confia-se que o conjunto de dados originais reunidos neste trabalho é uma contribuição importante para melhor compreender, de um ponto de vista fundamental, a formação e as características essenciais de conjugados de cecropia e do derivado de catelicidina com AuNP, e constitui um ponto de partida relevante na avaliação detalhada dos mecanismos prevalentes na sua interacção com membranas celulares.

List of Publications

- **Computational modelling contribution on experimental comprehensiveness studies**

– A. Rai, S. Pinto, T. R. Velho, A. F. Ferreira, C. Moita, U. Trivedi, M. Evangelista, M. Comune, K. P. Rumbaugh, P. N. Simões, L. Moita, and L. Ferreira, “One-step synthesis of high-density peptide-conjugated gold nanoparticles with antimicrobial efficacy in a systemic infection model,” *Biomaterials*, vol. 85, pp. 99–110, apr 2016

– M. Comune, A. Rai, K. K. Chereddy, S. Pinto, S. Aday, A. F. Ferreira, A. Zonari, J. Bliersch, R. Cunha, R. Rodrigues, J. Lerma, P. N. Simões, V. Pr eat, and L. Ferreira, “Antimicrobial peptide-gold nanoscale therapeutic formulation with high skin regenerative potential,” *J. Control. Release*, vol. 262, pp. 58–71, sep 2017

- **Molecular modelling and simulation based studies**

– A. F. Ferreira, A. Rai, L. Ferreira, and P. N. Simões, “Findings on the interaction of the antimicrobial peptide cecropin-melittin with a gold surface from molecular dynamics studies,” *Eur. Biophys. J.*, vol. 46, pp. 247–256, apr 2017

– A. F. Ferreira, M. Comune, A. Rai, L. Ferreira, and P. N. Simões, “Atomistic-Level Investigation of a LL37 Conjugated Gold Nanoparticle by Well-Tempered Metadynamics,” *J. Phys. Chem. B*, p. acs.jp cb.8b05717, aug 2018

– A. F. Ferreira, M. Comune, A. Rai, L. Ferreira, and P. N. Simões, “Computational study of the interaction of a LL37 Conjugated Gold Nanoparticle with a keratinocyte analogous bilayer”. In preparation.

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Abbreviations

AgNP	Silver nanoparticle
AuNP	Gold nanoparticle
AIMD	<i>Ab initio</i> molecular dynamics
AMP	Antimicrobial peptide
ATB	Automated topology builder
AuNP	Gold nanoparticle
CEM	Computação, Estatística e Materiais
CIEPQPF	Centro de Investigação em Engenharia dos Processos Químicos e dos Produtos da Floresta
CM	Cecropin-Melittin
CM-SH	Cecropin-Melittin Cysteine terminated
CPU	Central processing unit
CQC	Computational quantum chemistry
CV	Collective variable
DDS	Drug delivery systems
DFT	Density functional theory
DMPC	1,2-dimyristoyl- <i>sn</i> -glycero-3-phosphocholine
FE	Free energy
FES	Free energy surface
fcc	Face-centered cubic
FF	Force field
GPGPU	General purpose graphics processing unit
GPU	Graphics processing unit
GVB	Generalized valence bond
HF	Hartree-Fock
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
HPC	High-performance computing
LL37	Cathelicidin-Derived
LL37-SH	Cathelicidin-Derived Cysteine terminated
MCSCF	Multi-configurational self-consistent field
MD	Molecular dynamics
MM	Molecular mechanics
MO	Molecular orbitals
MP2	Møller-Plesset second-order perturbation theory

ABBREVIATIONS

MPI	Message passing interface
NMNP	Noble metal nanoparticle
NP	Nanoparticle
PAM	Peptídeos anti-microbianos
PBC	Periodic Boundary Conditions
PEG	Polyethylene glycol
PME	Particle Mesh Ewald
R&D	Research and Development
SCF	Self-consistent field
WHO	World Health Organization
WL	Water Layer

1. Introduction

1.1 Framework, motivation, and scope

The development of antimicrobial drugs during the past decades is remarkable. The evolution from the penicillin *Penicillium* in the late 1920s to the recent antibiotics, such as fidaxomicin and bedaquiline, is a paradigmatic case of a such development.^[5] The noticeable success of antimicrobial drugs in the late 1960s and early 1970s resulted in the misconception that infectious diseases had been conquered. However, fifty years later, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that infectious diseases remain as the second leading cause of death worldwide.^[6] This is a consequence of the extensive use of antibiotics over the years, and the concomitant emergence of multidrug resistance in common pathogens (Fig. 1.1), as well as the rapid appearance of new infections.^[7] Thus, along with the research and development (R&D) of new ones, the continuous optimization of existing drugs is mandatory. By improving the targeting capabilities and stability of existing antimicrobial drugs, it will be possible to reduce the administrated amount. This, in combination with a rational use of antimicrobial drugs, will hopefully prevent the emergence of multidrug resistance pathogens.

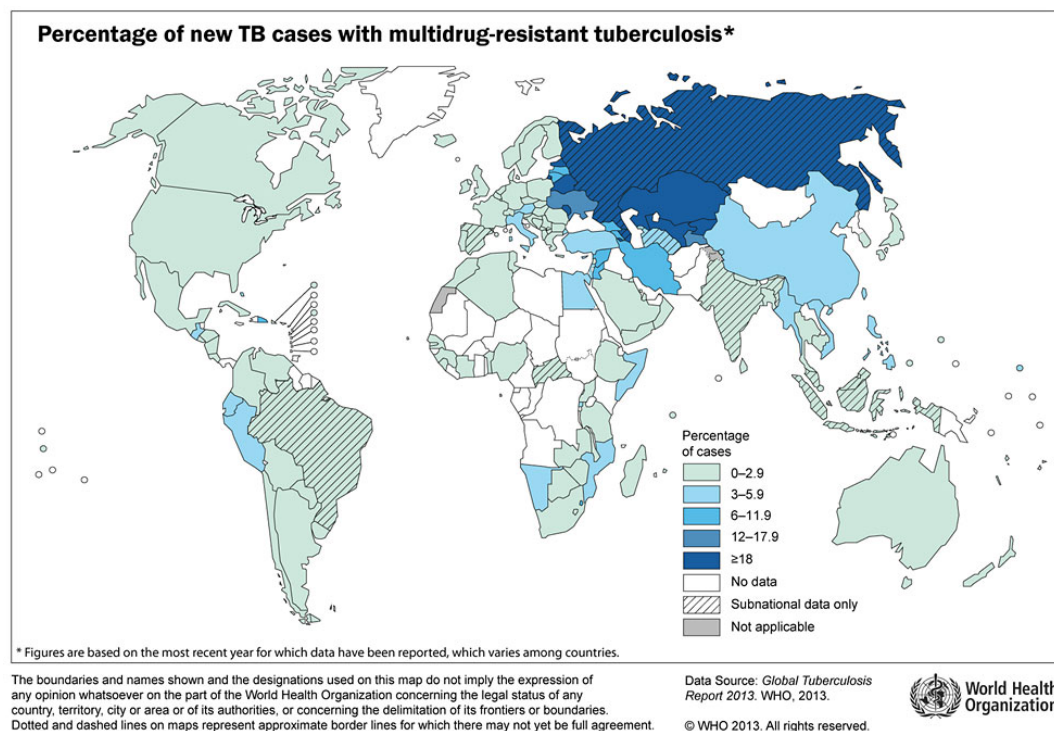


Figure 1.1: Percentage of new cases of tuberculosis that presented multidrug resistance according to the WHO. Reprinted with permission from^[8] - Published by The World Health Organization.

More recently, WHO was requested by member states to develop a global priority pathogens list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria to help in prioritizing the R&D of new and effective antibiotic treatments.^[9] In this list WHO focused only on bacteria (viruses and parasites will be addressed in future) ranking their priority based on criteria such as: all-cause mortality, healthcare and community burden, prevalence of resistance, 10-year trend of resistance, transmissibility, preventability in hospital and community settings, treatability and current pipeline. A group of 70 experts with different backgrounds and geographical origin were involved in the criteria weighting process. The WHO was able to identify a total of 12 bacteria, organized in three prioritizing tiers (medium, high and critical), which should be prioritized in terms of R&D.

With nearly 3000 Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) registered in the antimicrobial peptide database,^[10] their potential is tremendous.^[11] AMPs are a class of antimicrobials abundantly existing in nature (more than 800 sequences), which are very effective against a broad range of micro-organisms, including Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria, fungi, and viruses. More, alongside these antimicrobial characteristics, AMPs can also control host physiological functions such as inflammation, angiogenesis, and wound healing.^[1,12,13] AMPs are constantly available in multicellular organisms and serve as a first-line defense of the immune system, and, in case of inflammation and injury, its concentration increases.^[11,14] With the enhanced resistance of pathogens to conventional antibiotics, the interest in the pharmacological application of AMPs has increased significantly.

As mentioned, the new trends demand creative improvements in the effectiveness and targeting capabilities of these antimicrobial drugs. Nanotechnology is one of the most promising ways to achieve such a goal. Worldwide, products incorporating nanotechnology present a multibillion-dollar revenue industry expected to increase to three-trillion-dollar by 2020.^[15] Recent developments have prompted new and improved materials for biomedical applications, with particular emphasis in therapy and diagnostics, or their combination in the same nano-platform (theranostics). Nanoparticles (NPs) present a huge potential for biomedical applications. Due to their small size, they are able to interact with biomolecules both at surface and inside cells, yielding faster and better targeting specificity for therapeutic treatments.^[16] Noble metal nanoparticles (NMNPs) are particularly suitable for nanomedicine. They present a great versatility, with applications ranging from highly sensitive diagnostic assays^[17,18], radiotherapy enhancement^[19,20], to drug and gene delivery^[21-23]. In fact, the use of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) to immobilize AMPs is not new. The end conjugate (AMP/AuNP) tend to retain the peptide activity, while benefiting of AuNPs targeting, thermal and bioimaging characteristics. During the past decade several studies emerged reporting the synthesis, characterization and activity of these materials.^[1,2,24-26] In most of these studies the authors demonstrated an improvement of the AMP characteristics while immobilized in the AuNP.

Currently, there are several reported works describing the synthesis and characterization of AMP/NMNP conjugates^[1,2,27–29]. A survey of the most significant results will be presented in Sec. 1.2. For now it is of interest to convene for this point a set of unanswered questions raised by a deep analysis of the existing investigations, namely: “how does the diffusion process prior to the adsorption of the AMP to the NMNP affects the final structure?”; “how selective is the adsorption process?”; “how long does it takes to achieve a stable conjugate?”; “how stable is the final conjugate?”.^[30–34] These questions have a common frame, i.e., they are referred to events occurring at nanoscale (or below) and in time scales ranging from femtoseconds (fs) to several hundreds of nanoseconds (ns). Despite the notable advances in experimental oriented techniques/equipment, the real difficulties in assessing the nanoscale in real time explains the lacking or even the nonexistence of actual results with such a detail. Recent multi-scale modelling and simulation techniques, supported by advanced and high-performance computing (HPC) resources, pave the way for the atomistic investigation of these materials and their interactions.^[35]

Molecular modelling and simulation techniques emerged over the last years as a decisive practice in modern Chemical Engineering as a whole, and in Product Engineering in particular, allowing for a deep understanding of material structures, properties and interactions, starting at and below nanoscale. The theoretical (computational) study of crystalline and amorphous solids, nanostructures, supramolecular systems, liquids and solutions is now possible with acceptable simulation times thanks to the dramatic advances in HPC architectures and molecular modelling codes thereof. Indeed, with the proper articulation of several computational methods, it is possible to target a wide range of length (Å to nm) and time (fs to ns) scales.^[36–38] Techniques such as computational quantum chemistry (CQC), static, dynamic, and classical molecular dynamics (MD) are good examples of methods which can be successfully used to investigate AMPs and AMP/NMNP interactions. Classical MD in particular has been a valuable tool in studying the adsorption process of some AMPs in to metal surfaces.^[30–32]

MD can capture the behavior of biological macromolecules in full atomic detail. This technique enables the replication, computationally, of key biochemical processes such as protein folding, drug binding, membrane transport, and other conformational changes critical to protein function.^[35] In fact, one can find several studies addressing adsorption process of peptides onto gold surfaces.^[3,4,30,32,34,39] However, the topology of the surface is, most of the times, flat and the AMP dimension is small (less than 20 residues). Plus, these systems are characterized by multiple local minima which are separated by high-energy barriers, represented by a coarse energy landscape.^[40–44] In order to properly address the conformation variability inherent to proteins/peptides, the production of multiple MD runs or the use of state-of-art sampling methods is recommended.

Given this framing, this PhD thesis looks towards contributing to understand how

AMPs interact with AuNPs, and how these conjugates (AMP/AuNP) affect cell membranes. Two AMP/AuNP systems were selected on the basis of their applicability, demonstrated in recent studies^[1,2]. The objective of the study will be accomplished using a computational approach to tackle three interconnected specific objectives described as follows.

i) Study of the adsorption process *per se*. To investigate the overall adsorption capabilities of the selected AMPs to a gold surface. To assess the dynamic behavior of AMPs by investigating the regimes inherent to the adsorption process (electrostatic interactions, dispersion forces, structural rearrangements). To determine the AMP three-dimensional orientation of the atoms, their primary and secondary structures, and respective dynamic behavior while approaching and interacting with the gold surface.

ii) Free energy investigation by an advanced sampling method. To model and simulate the dynamic behavior of the AMPs chain interaction with gold surfaces through conventional MD supported by an advanced sampling method, viz. well-tempered metadynamics. To address the possibility of formation of metastable conformations, due to the strong interaction between gold and peptides. To thoroughly characterize the free-energy landscape by generating new data with statistical significance, capable of providing a reliable picture of the AMP/AuNP interaction.

iii) Interaction of AMP/AuNP conjugates with a biomembrane model. To elucidate how the AMP/AuNP conjugates affect a biomembrane by investigating the mechanisms of interaction between them both. To search for the interplay between AMP, AuNP and AMP/AuNP with the bilayer and to provide information on the effect of a specific amino acid, or even a functional group, from AMP over the bilayer properties. To assess the capability of the conjugate, and its components, to permeate the bilayer and the underlying mechanisms.

Thesis outline

The thesis is organized in five chapters. The current chapter frames the theme, describes the motivation for the proposed work (Sec. 1.1), provides an overview of the state of the art (Sec. 1.2) of matters addressed in the work, viz. topics as AMPs, NMNPs, AMP/NMMP conjugates, their interaction with biomembrane, and how molecular simulation allows to shed light about the specificities of these materials.

Chapter 2 is referred to the computational approach used in the work (Sec. 2.1). It provides an overview on the software packages used and on the related mathematical the related models (Sec. 2.1.1). The chapter ends with a comprehensive explanation of

system preparation and simulation protocol established to generate the results presented and discussed in the subsequent chapters.

Chapters 3 and 4 gather the core of the results achieved in this study, dedicated, respectively, to the cecropin-melittin (CM) peptides and to the cathelicidin-derived (LL37) based peptides. In both cases, the select approach and the underlying rationale is described, after which results are systematically presented and discussed. Apart from the interaction of the peptides with a gold surface (slab and AuNP for CM and AuNP for LL37), a study of the interplay of a LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate with a biomembrane model is also tackled.

Finally, Chapter 5 gives an overview of the achievements of this PhD project.

The content of the main body of the document is complemented by other relevant information compiled as **Appendix**. Additionally, several footnotes are used throughout the document to aid the reader in some technical terms less commonly used within the scope of Chemical Engineering.

1.2 State of the art

Medicine has been exploiting extensively the unique properties of nanomaterials. Widely referred as nanomedicine, it is nothing more than nanotechnology enabled medicine. The European Technology Platform on Nanomedicine defines nanomedicine “as the application of nanotechnology to Health. It exploits the improved and often novel physical, chemical, and biological properties of materials at the nanoscale. It has potential impact on the prevention, early and reliable diagnosis and treatment of diseases”.^[45] Although the first developments in nanomedicine are reported in the late 1960s during the ETH (Swiss Federal Institute of Technology) in Zürich, the major technological developments occurred throughout the past two decades. During this period, besides the technological advances, governments and scientific foundations took actions in order to establish regulations and create platforms to establish new investigation trends and strategies.^[46] Nowadays, several countries have regulatory frameworks that address basic safety rules concerning nanomedicine.

When considering the use of nanomaterials for therapeutic purposes, drug delivery systems (DDS) are claimed as the most promising and used technique. DDS enhance the therapeutic effectiveness of the used drug through a controlled release and by improving its targeting capabilities. This is achieved by means of drug carriers, which include several types of materials, such as liposomes, polymers and metals.^[47] Liposomes are biocompatible but find some drawbacks in terms of stability while in the bloodstream. On the other hand, polymers overcome the stability issues but may have biocompatibility problems. Currently, it is possible to find some works combining liposomes and polymers in order to obtain stimuli-responsive complexes.^[48,49] However, if the active substances are proteins or peptides, the use of metallic based carriers is preferable. It is known that peptide-metal binding can be very strong leading to stable conjugates.^[32] The particular case of NMNPs claim great potential. As already mentioned, NMNPs can be used simultaneous for diagnostic and therapy, i.e. besides the desirable therapeutic effect they can be tracked within the body, allowing a more efficient therapy with a reduced risk when compared to conventional therapies. Other important feature of some NMNPs, such as gold NP (AuNP), is that they are said to be non-toxic.^[16]

1.2.1 Antimicrobial peptides

AMPs are a class of biomolecules which are very effective against several strains of bacteria, fungi and viruses.^[11] Because they kill quickly and target the membrane nonspecifically, they are less prone to develop resistant bacteria than traditional antibiotics.^[12] At the current stage, there are several databases of AMPs ranging from 2408 to 6756 sequences^[50–52]. A literature survey allows us to categorize AMPs in several ways, as indi-

cated in the listing below (see also Fig. 1.2):

1. Origin:^[11]
 - Insects
 - Other animals
 - Engineered organisms
 - Synthesized
2. Function:^[11]
 - Anti-bacteria
 - Anti-fungi
 - Anti-parasites
 - Anti-virus
 - Anti-cancer
3. Three-Dimensional Structure:^[53]
 - α -Helical
 - Cysteine rich
 - β -Sheet
 - Regular amino acids rich
 - Modified with rare amino acids

Since our particular focus includes AMPs to be used for therapeutic effects, the categorization by function will be used throughout this project. As the name suggests, the categorization by function reports the type of pathogen that the peptide targets. The combination of AMPs to take advantage of their distinct characteristics is a well-know practice. In fact, aside from combining sections from APMs into a single one, Yu et al.^[54] investigated the potential synergies from mixing multiple AMPs in a single pot. The authors investigated six different AMPs from different organisms to test their individual and combined effects *in vitro*. In order to do so, the pharmacodynamics was evaluated by combining two and three AMPs. A synergetic behavior was found in most cases, with the combination of three AMPs being higher. The authors have proposed the synergism as a common phenomenon in AMPs, stating that they displayed a sharp increase in killing within a narrow dose range (contrasting with antibiotics).

The first reported application of AMPs^[55], in the early 1980s, was directed to bacteria. Since then known as anti-bacterial AMPs, this class represents more than 50% of the reported AMPs. Anti-bacterial AMPs can be subdivided into anti-Gram-positive, anti-Gram-negative or simultaneously anti-Gram-positive and negative. Bacteria can be Gram-positive or Gram-negative, and, despite being usually differentiated by the capability of

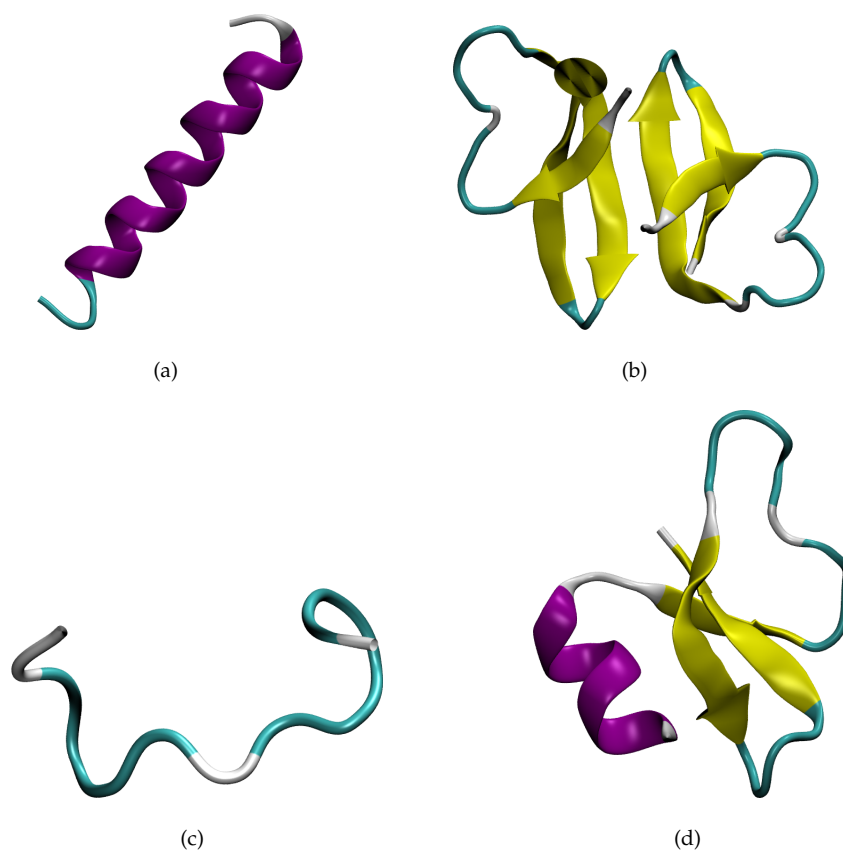


Figure 1.2: Possible 3D structures for AMPs and its ID name. (a) α -Helical (2MAG); (b) β -Sheet (3GNY); (c) Extended (1QXQ); (d) Mixed (2NLS).

retaining or not the violet stain, they present an essentially different outer cell wall, thus affecting the AMP effectiveness. Due to the increase of resistant bacteria, most research has been focused on the design and engineering of peptides. Field et al.^[56] and Torcato et al.^[57] have developed modified AMPs that target Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Field et al.^[56] reported the first derivatives of nisin, with a serine to glycine change at position 29, with enhanced antimicrobial activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Torcato et al.^[57] developed two newly designed BP100 analogues which, apart from being active against Gram-negative bacteria, showed activity against Gram-positive bacteria. This was made possible by the inclusion of arginine, which, together with the presence of a tryptophan residue, allows a deeper insert into the membrane environment of Gram-negative bacteria. Recent developments on anti-Gram-negative bacteria were reported by Jiang et al.^[58,59]. The authors described a peptide D16 developed from the peptide D1 (V13). By optimizing the number and location of positively charged residues on the polar face and the number, location, and type of hydrophobic residues on the non-polar face, improvements in antimicrobial activity and dramatic reductions in hemolytic activity were achieved.^[58] Three years later the same group published a study in which piscidin-1 and dermaseptin S4 were modified by substituting

lysine at different positions. Apart from maintaining, and in some cases improving, the antimicrobial activity against Gram-negative pathogens, the hemolytic activity of human red blood cells was also dramatically decreased.^[59] Falciani et al.^[60] synthesized a M33 peptide isomer consisting of D-amino acids (M33-D). In this way, a higher activity against Gram-positive bacteria was achieved when compared to the original peptide, which was synthesized with L-amino acids (M33-L). According to the reported *in vivo* tests, M33-D showed 100% effectiveness against mice infected with *Staphylococcus aureus*^a, against 0% effectiveness of the M33-L.

There are also several recent examples of anti-fungi and anti-parasite peptides. Gupta et al.^[61] reported the effect of the LR14 AMP produced by *Lactobacillus plantarum*^b. It exhibited a strong anti-fungal activity when tested against fungi that are usually related with food spoilage. Results such as the prevented fungal growth under laboratory conditions for about 2.5 years on LR14 treated wheat seeds presented a huge achievement for the food storage industries. In order to develop new strategies that aiming at blocking malaria transmission, Carter et al.^[62] examined a wide range of AMPs to be used against *Plasmodium*^c and anopheline mosquitoes. After several test and screening processes, the authors were able to narrow down to five AMPs effective against malaria parasites. The AMPs Melittin, TP10, Vida3, Mastoparan X and Anoplin presented themselves as promising candidates to limit malaria transmission in *Anopheles gambiae*^d. The authors emphasized the importance of using multiple peptides, acting in synergy, which could possibly achieve a complete transmission blockade within the mosquito.

The use of AMPs as anti-virus and anti-cancer agents is also being thoroughly investigated due to their great potential. The use of AMPs to target the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and cancer cells are paradigmatic cases of their potential. Indeed, Wachinger et al.^[63] reported that melittin and cecropin A suppressed the production of HIV by acutely infected cells. The authors suggested that the AMPs appear to interfere with the cellular capacity to support HIV replication by suppressing HIV transcription, thus reducing the overall levels of viral gene products. More recently, Wang et al.^[64] investigated LL37 and BMAP-27 derivate AMPs which are active against HIV. From the 20 synthetic AMPs, GI-20 and BMAP-18 showed the highest therapeutic index. As a consequence, these AMPs may now be used as templates for the engineering of novel anti-HIV AMPs. Anti-cancer AMPs are unique compared to other cytostatic^e drugs by selectively interfering with cancer cells via a charge-triggered membrane disruptive mode of action.^[65] Chang et al.^[66] synthesized tilapia hepcidin (TH)1-5 peptides and tested

^aGram-positive bacteria that is frequently found on the human respiratory tract and on the skin.

^bDerived from the genus *Lactobacillus*, with applications ranging from the food industry to the production of AMPs.

^cParasite that causes the malaria infection.

^dMosquito widely associated with the spread of the malaria infection.

^eInhibiting or suppressing cellular growth and multiplication.

their anti-tumor activity against several tumor cell lines. The results showed that TH1-5 exhibited potent disruption of tumor cell membranes and was able to selectively induce blockage of cell cycle progression of cancer cells. In other work, Ausbacher et al.^[67] reported that even small $\beta^{2,2}$ -amino acid derivatives (BAA-1 and BAA-2) are active against cancer cells. Although by means of different mechanisms, BAA-1 destabilizes the cell membrane and BAA-2 causes apoptosis^f by the mitochondrial mediated pathway, both AMPs killed lymphoma cells.

Cecropin-melittin

Cecropin-melittin is a hybrid peptide that combines two well-know natural peptides (cecropin A and melittin) that exhibit potent antimicrobial activity.^[68] Cecropins are positively charged antibacterial peptides that were first isolated from the hemolymph^g of *Hyalophora cecropia*^h. The antibacterial spectrum of cecropins is broad and includes both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria.^[69] It is a small peptide, with a number of residues ranging from 31 to 37. Cecropin A (KWKLFKKIEKVGQNIRDGIIKAGPAVAVV-GQATQIAK) is one member of the cecropin family that presents high potential as AMP. It is a naturally occurring, linear, cationic, 37 residue AMP, that kills bacteria by dissipating transmembrane electrochemical ion-gradients.^[70] Melittin is the principal toxic component in the venom of the European honey bee *Apis mellifera*ⁱ. It is a 26 residue (GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ) peptide characterized by its amphiphilic property and antimicrobial attributes.^[71] To date, melittin has shown its potential to be used in the treatment of the yeast *Candida albicans*^j^[72], to suppress *Mycoplasma hominis*^k, *Chlamydia trachomatis*^l and *Staphylococcus aureus*^m infections^[73,74], as well as anticancer properties^[75].

Besides their unique characteristics solo, these two AMPs present a great potential when combined. While the residues might not be necessarily the same, multiple publications can be found advocating the potential of cecropin-melittin (CM) hybrids. Boman et al.^[76], Saugar et al.^[77] and Ji et al.^[78] are some of the authors that addressed this hybrid. Boman et al.^[76] was able to prepare 5 different CM hybrids with different combinations of sections of cecropin and melittin. From these 5 CM hybrids, 4 presented good antibacterial activity against representative Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacterial species. The CecropinA(1-13)Melittin(1-13), with the sequence KWKLFKKIEKVGQGI-GAVLKVLTTGL, was found to be 100-fold more active than single cecropin A against

^fA form of cell death in which a programmed sequence of events leads to the elimination of the cell.

^gHemolymph is a fluid, analogous to the blood in vertebrates, that circulates in the interior of the arthropod (arachnids, crustaceans and insects) body.

^hNorth America native moth.

ⁱWestern honey bee, or European honey bee, found in Europe, the Middle East, and Africa.

^jFungi commonly available in the gut flora which can become pathogenic under a variety of conditions.

^kBacteria often present concurrently in the lower urogenital tract of healthy adults.

^lBacteria responsible for the most common sexually transmitted infection worldwide.

^mBacteria known to cause a wide variety of clinical manifestations

Staphylococcus aureus. Saugar et al.^[77] was able to demonstrate that 4 CM hybrids are active against two *Acinetobacter baumannii*ⁿ strains resistant to common antibiotics. The CM hybrids were able to permeate the inner membrane, regardless of the resistance pattern of the strain. Finally, Ji et al.^[78] reports the biosynthesis process of a CM mutant, named CAM-W (KWKLWKKIEKWGQGIGAVLKWLTTWL). This was developed for the first time using a *Bacillus subtilis*^o strain that was genetically modified. The CAM-W entity shows more potent antimicrobial activity against a wide range of clinically important bacterial and fungal pathogens than its parental peptide.

Cathelicidin-derived LL37

LL37 is the only cathelicidin-derived antimicrobial peptide found in humans. It is formed by 37 residues, has amphiphilic behavior, in some cases it exhibits α -helical structure, but most importantly, it has been shown to have a broad spectrum of antimicrobial activity.^[79,80] LL37 acts as first line of defense against bacteria, virus and fungi^[81]. Turner et al.^[82] described the LL37 peptide antibacterial potential. The authors have identified considerable activity of LL37 against multiple pathogens, such as the well-known *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*^p and *Salmonella typhimurium*^q. Furthermore, due to broad-spectrum antimicrobial properties of LL37, it is present in neutrophils^r, and its influence in keratinocytes^s suggests that this peptide may protect skin and other tissues from bacterial intrusions. Hase et al.^[83] have also reported a new use of LL37 in the targeting of gastric pathogen *Helicobacter pylori*^t. The authors claimed that LL37 significantly increases in the epithelium and gastric secretions in patients infected with *Helicobacter pylori*. This suggests that LL37 determines the balance between host defense and survival mechanisms, related to increase of *Helicobacter pylori*, that governs chronic infection with this gastric pathogen. Howell et al.^[84] investigated the effect of LL37 in the *Vaccinia* virus^u. Data from electron microscopy studies have shown that LL37 has direct effects on the integrity of the *Vaccinia* viral membrane structure. This data made possible to foresee the potential of LL37 in the inhibition of virus *Vaccinia* replication.

In addition to the remarkable AMP characteristics of LL37 mentioned above, it also defends the organism by speeding wound healing.^[85] In fact, Ramos et al.^[86] confirmed that a recombinant^v LL37 preserves its wound healing capabilities and immunophysio-

ⁿBacterial pathogen associated with hospital acquired infections.

^oGram-positive bacteria found in soil and the gastrointestinal tract.

^pGram-negative bacteria commonly associated with hospital acquired infections.

^qGram-negative bacteria that can cause infections often related to food

^rNeutrophils are the most abundant type of granulocytes and the most abundant (40% to 75%) type of white blood cells in most mammals.

^sKeratinocyte is the predominant cell type in the epidermis, the outermost layer of the skin.

^tBacteria associated with chronic gastritis and gastric ulcers.

^uVirus associated with smallpox disease.

^vRecombinant artificially produced (and often purified) protein/peptide.

logical properties *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Gronberget al.^[87] performed trials with LL37 in 34 participants with venous leg ulcers (one of the most prevalent types of chronic wounds). The results showed a three to sixfold higher healing rate constant than those treated with placebo. Furthermore, the treatment was able to decreased the mean ulcer area, 68% for 0.5 mg/mL and 50% for 1.6 mg/mL groups.

1.2.2 Noble metal nanoparticles

Noble metals have the well-known attribute of being resistant to corrosion and oxidation. Unlike transition metals based NPs, noble metal NPs (NMNPs) have lesser cytotoxicity, making them attractive candidates for biological and environmental applications (Fig. 1.3).^[88] In fact, NMNPs are finding use in molecular-specific probes, bioimaging, cancer diagnostics and therapeutics across the biomedical spectrum due to their surface-plasmon resonance-enhanced optical and thermal properties.^[89] Moreover, they have been successfully used in novel cancer therapies.^[90,91] Although NPs are not restricted to spherical shape, this is probably the most common geometry because it can be easily obtained with a simple reduction of metal salts by reducing agents. However, despite the favorable attributes of NMNPs, there are toxicity effects that must be taken into consideration. Properties such as NP size and type noble metal can dramatically influence the cytotoxicity^[16].

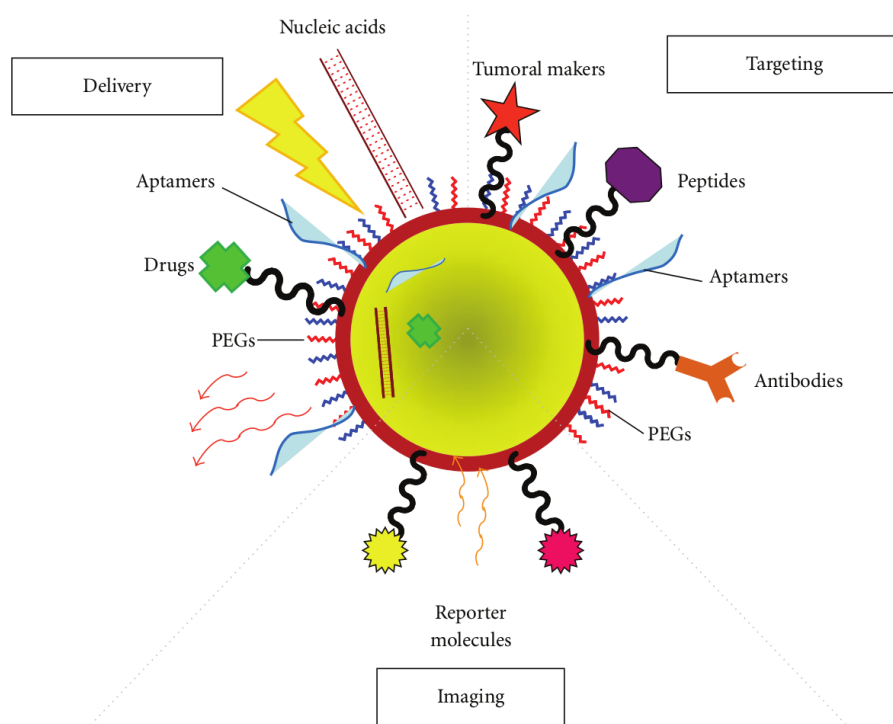


Figure 1.3: Schematic summary of potential characteristics and applications of NMNPs. Reprinted with permission from^[16] - Published by Hindawi Publishing Corporation.

Among different possible NMNPs, silver NPs (AgNPs) and gold NPs (AuNPs) present the highest potential to be used in biomedical applications. Lara et al.^[92] reviewed the recent advances in the understanding the biocidal mechanisms of action of AgNPs, and discussed the toxicity and the potential of AgNPs to be used as antibacterial, virucidal, and topical agents in mucosal human tissue, and topical agent on human cervical tissue. Indeed, one year earlier, Lara et al.^[93] reported the antiviral effect of AgNPs on HIV-1. The results showed that AgNPs have anti-HIV activity at an early stage of viral replication by inhibiting the interaction of glycoprotein GP120 and the target cell membrane receptors. However, it has been shown that AgNPs are generally considered toxic, with several studies showing that cell exposure to AgNPs induced significant cytotoxicity^[94-96]. More recently Xiu et al.^[97] provided new insights into the mechanisms by which AgNPs exert toxicity to bacteria and other organisms. Contrary to common belief, properties such as size, shape, surface coating and surface charge did not affect the toxicity directly, which led the authors to advocate that antimicrobial activity of AgNPs results uniquely from the Ag⁺ release, even at relatively low concentrations (few $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ of Ag⁺).

The applicability of AuNPs in current medical and biological research is extremely broad. Indeed, most therapeutic and imaging approaches based on noble metal NPs rely on AuNPs, mostly due to their low toxicity.^[16,47] AuNPs have been extensively investigated for diagnosis and tracking applications.^[18,98,99] In terms of cytotoxicity, AuNPs are considered to be benign, but at low diameters AuNP may present some cytotoxicity. In fact, Pan et al.^[100] performed a systematic investigation of the size-dependent cytotoxicity of AuNPs, showing that specimens with 1 to 2 nm, were highly toxic, whereas those with 15 nm were comparatively nontoxic against the tested cells. The surface of the AuNPs also plays an important role regarding cytotoxicity. Modified or functionalized AuNP surfaces may present a totally different behavior from the unmodified ones. Simpson et al.^[101] reported *in vivo* toxicity tests of glutathione-coated AuNPs. The authors suggested the replacement of polyethylene glycol (PEG), which reduces the potential of AuNPs^[102], by glutathione. The synthesized glutathione-coated AuNPs with diameter ranging from 0.9 to 1.2 nm, were capable of rapid passage into the kidneys and bladder, and mice injected with glutathione-coated AuNPs did not experience any clinical signs of illness, stress, or discomfort, nor did any expire over the course of the entire 6-week study. Bozich et al.^[103] investigated the toxicity effect of polyallylamine hydrochloride (PAH-AuNPs), citrate (Cit-AuNPs) and mercaptopropionic acid (MPA-AuNPs) functionalized AuNPs. Overall the NPs ranged from 4 to 5 nm and were tested against *Daphnia magna*^w. The results showed that negatively-charged AuNPs, Cit-AuNPs and MPA-AuNPs, were orders of magnitude less toxic than the positively-charged, PAH-AuNPs. However, chronic exposure showed that both types of AuNPs affect *Daphnia magna* reproduction capabilities. The authors

^wWater flea from the *Daphnia* genus widely used as a laboratory animal for testing ecotoxicity.

suggested that positively-charged AuNPs could have a high affinity towards the negative charged surfaces of the cellular membranes, causing higher toxicity.

Nonetheless, the mechanisms that govern AuNPs toxicity are still unclear. Properties such as surface charge^[104–106], particle size^[100,107,108], the type of coating and ligand density^[109,110] on the surface and aggregation over time^[111,112] have been advocated as the cause of toxicity.^[113] However, it is important to stress that nearly anything can be toxic at a high enough dose and at specific concentrations. When addressing toxicity assays, the main question is to know how toxic are AuNPs at the potentially usable concentrations (estimated to be 1 to 100 NPs per cell^[114]).^[115]

1.2.3 Functionalized AuNPs

AuNPs used as nanocarriers have dramatically grown in the pharmaceutical field for intracellular drug and gene delivery. Apart from being quite easily synthesized, with fine control of size and shape, they present a large interacting surface, low environmental background level, and unique optical properties, thus having many potential commercial applications. Furthermore, unlike other functionalized metal and metal oxide NPs, AuNPs are resistant to dissolution and do not exhibit significant changes in size or shape under typical environmental and biological conditions.^[103] This originated great interest on the functionalization of the AuNPs in an attempt to enhance their intrinsic properties from the combination with different materials.^[47,91] In spite of this topic has been slightly addressed previously when discussing toxicity effects (Sec. 1.2.2), the current section deals with the end-function of the functionalized AuNP.

Gibson et al.^[116] reported the example of 2 nm AuNPs covalently functionalized with chemotherapeutic drug, paclitaxel. The authors described the attachment of a flexible hexaethylene glycol linker to phenol-terminated AuNPs. The final product was a drug/AuNP conjugate which is soluble in organic solvents and able to retain its average size, shape, and high crystallinity after multiple synthetic steps and purifications. The results proved the concept that it is possible to covalently attach organic molecules to AuNPs in a controlled fashion. This opened a new door to the development of novel hybrid particles with a well-defined amount of drugs, offering new alternatives for the design of new nanosized drug-delivery systems. At the same time Saha et al.^[117] and Grace et al.^[118] functionalized a total of six drugs over the surface of AuNPs. All drug/AuNP conjugates presented high stability, some of them showed higher activity against the tested bacteria, and only two conjugates showed significant decrease in the activity when compared to the free drug.

Years later Serizawa et al.^[119] have reported a novel synthetic route to produce peptide-capped AuNPs. The obtained conjugates presented approximately 10 nm diameter and narrow size distributions. This was achieved by combining cysteine terminated peptides with 2-[4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazinyl]ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) and tetrachloroau-

rate ions. The AuNP growth was found to be slow, and was attributed to the affinity between the gold and the thiol groups (in cysteine), which was preferentially captured during the AuNP growth instead of the HEPES molecules.

Rai et al.^[120] have reported a method to synthesize AuNPs from cefaclor, a β -lactam second-generation antibiotic, that allowed to obtain NPs ranging from ca. 22 to 52 nm. The authors showed that the amine group present in cefaclor acts both as a reducing agent, responsible for the AuNP growth, and a capping agent. The latter attribute allowed cefaclor to keep its activity, which was proved later by the potent antimicrobial activity of the conjugate on both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. More recently, Kumar et al.^[121] have reported the development of peptide functionalized AuNPs to be used in cancer treatment. The authors described the synthesis of 2 nm AuNPs functionalized with the therapeutic peptide PMI (p12) and a targeted peptide, CRGDK, for cancer treatment. The selected peptides aimed at inhibit MDM2, MDMX and neuropilin-1 (Nrp-1) complexes which are related to tumor development. The nanocarrier, named Au@p12 + CRGDK, was successfully synthesized and characterized. The uptake of p12 was significantly facilitated by cancer cells due to Nrp-1 mediated and the complex exhibited stronger *in vitro* anti-cancer activity than other conjugates.

NPs functionalized with AMPs have recently been proposed for the treatment of infectious diseases, such as hantavirus cardiopulmonary syndrome and meningitis. It has been shown that NPs increase the stability of AMPs in biological environments, enhancing their antimicrobial properties, presumably due to an increase in the local density of positive charges and peptide mass. This also allows the combination of other functionalities (such as targeting) in the same formulation.^[28,29] Since the early 2000s several publications regarding these kind of materials have emerged. In 2003 Gu et al.^[27] developed AuNPs functionalized with vancomycin, a glycopeptide antibiotic, and its *in vitro* antibacterial activity. This was achieved by previously functionalize AuNPs surface with Au-S bonds which then reacted with the peptide. During their investigation, the authors were able to demonstrate that a low aggregation of the complexes was achieved. Finally, it was shown from *in vitro* assays that the the peptide kept its activity after bonded to the AuNP.

In this context, Rai et al.^[1] and Comune et al.^[2] have investigated the functionalization of AuNPs with CM and LL37, respectively. Rai et al.^[1] have reported a one-step synthesis of CM/AuNP conjugates with high AMP concentration, low polydispersity and controlled size. The reasoning behind this characteristics was mainly attributed to the presence of a thiol group located at the C-terminal of the AMP. The authors have advocated that this functional group controls the reduction rate of the Au ions, leading to the the observed enhanced properties of the conjugate when compared to the soluble AMP, namely higher stability and activity, without compromising the low cytotoxicity against human cells.

Similarly, Comune et al.^[2] have reported that LL37/AuNP conjugates presents higher *in vivo* and *in vitro* bioactivity when compared to the soluble LL37. Additionally, the authors demonstrated that the conjugate exhibit regenerative properties mediated by an increased IL6^x production. This is a particularly relevant attribute since many chronic wounds get infected during healing process.

More recently, Zong et al.^[122] have reviewed the topic of peptide-functionalized gold nanoparticles. They addressed subjects such as the synthesis, properties and applications of these materials. The process was differentiated in three groups, viz. ligand exchange (displacement of one ligand for another), chemical reduction (reduction promoted by the peptide residues) and chemical conjugation (chemical binding between peptide sites and AuNP). They also have explored the application of these materials in terms of sensitive biosensors, drug carriers, anti-cancer therapeutics and gene delivery vectors. Despite the remarkable potential of these materials, the authors identified some issues that still need to be solved, such as the “elucidation of mechanisms of molecular recognition on the surface of GNPs”, as well as the “mechanism of internalization of peptide-GNPs into cells”^[122].

1.2.4 Cellular uptake of nanoparticles

The penetration of NPs into cell membranes is a phenomena that has been extensively investigated during the past decades. In fact, the process on how NPs interact with a membrane presents great interest within the scientific community^[123], characterized by the large amount of publications in the field. Since the ultimate objective is to use the materials under study as therapeutic agents, and considering we are still characterizing and validating their applicability, most of the cellular uptake studies fall within the scope of toxicity assessment. Obviously, when talking about cellular uptake, one should notice that the conclusions drawn from a specific system (NP-cell combination) can dramatically change by a small shift in the system conditions.

Albanese et al.^[110] reported an holistic approach of the subject, by rationalizing multiple studies on “The Effect of Nanoparticle Size, Shape, and Surface Chemistry on Biological Systems”. The premise is that by identifying how size, shape and chemistry of NPs influence the delivery, one should be able to maximize their effect. In the review, the authors identify three generations of NP when addressing the Nanoparticle design subject. The first generation was the proof of concept of these materials. It was demonstrated the potential applications, established synthesis processes and assessed their biocompatibility. The modification and optimization of the surface chemistry was addressed during the second generation. It mostly focused on the use nanoparticles to diagnose and treat cancer with two different approaches, stealth and active targeting. The stealth concept

^xInterleukin, expressed by with blood cells, with a role during inflammation and immune response.

aimed at maximizing the blood circulation life to ensure the continuous delivery of the material to the targeted location was also developed at this stage. This was achieved by adding PEG^[124] and lipids^[125] to the NP surface. Unfortunately, active targeting did not achieve drastic increase in tumor targeting during this generation. To address this outcome, researchers developed a new generation (third) of nanomaterials. This generation was characterized by having materials with environment-responsive properties. These NPs use biological, physical or chemical cues in their target environment to trigger modifications of their properties. One example, is the use of PEG that acts as pH-triggered shield described by Poon et al.^[126]. This shield is used to reveal, while within a given range of pH, a positively charged surface that causes nonspecific uptake of drug-filled nanoparticles. A analogous model can be found in Fig. 1.4, where the triggering cue is the temperature. Albanese et al.^[110] state that, despite the already demonstrated great value to the fields of optics and electronics, it will be important to characterize the effect of nanomaterials on biological systems.

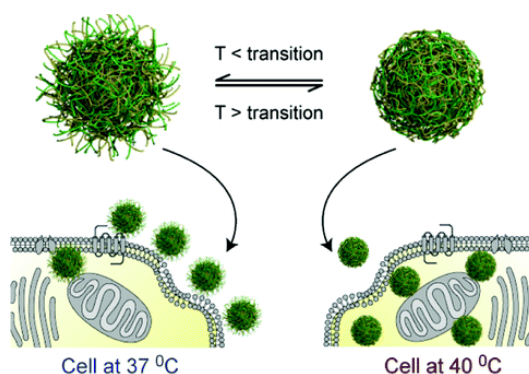


Figure 1.4: Schematic representation of the formulation of a thermoresponsive NP. Below the thermal transition temperature the NP outer shell is hydrophilic (left-hand side) and less prone to enter the cell. When the temperature goes above the thermal transition temperature, the NP surface becomes hydrophobic (right-hand side) and the nanomaterial enter the cell easily. Reprinted with permission from^[127] - Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry.

One of the first questions that arise when investigating cellular uptake is how the diameter will affect the uptake dynamics. Shang et al.^[128] published a review with the outcome of multiple publications concerning nanoparticles interacting with cells, with special attention to the size property. The authors were able confirm that NP size may affect the uptake efficiency and kinetics, the internalization mechanism (Fig. 1.5), and also the subcellular distribution. Moreover, size-dependent interaction of NPs with the cell membrane is likely related to the membrane-wrapping process that initiates endocytosis. While small NPs have less ligand-to-receptor interactions than the larger ones, multiple small NPs are required to simultaneously interact with the receptors in order to trigger membrane wrapping. On the other hand, large NPs can induce uptake by cross-linking

the receptors. It should be noticed that if a protein corona is present, the cellular response towards the NP might differ. In the end, the authors conclude that: “i) There is an optimal size for efficient endocytosis of NPs independent of the particle composition; ii) This critical size can vary with cell type and surface properties of the NPs; iii) Small NPs have a higher probability to be internalized by passive uptake than large ones; iv) Under otherwise identical conditions, small NPs are more likely to cause toxic cellular responses”. More recently Moser et al.^[129] shared their results for a system with AuNPs. The author stated that AuNPs have diameter-dependent cellular uptake and retention. From spectral position determination microscopy the authors were able to observe that on average, the uptake by incubation after 2 h was approximately double for 10 nm AuNPs when compared to 25 nm AuNPs.

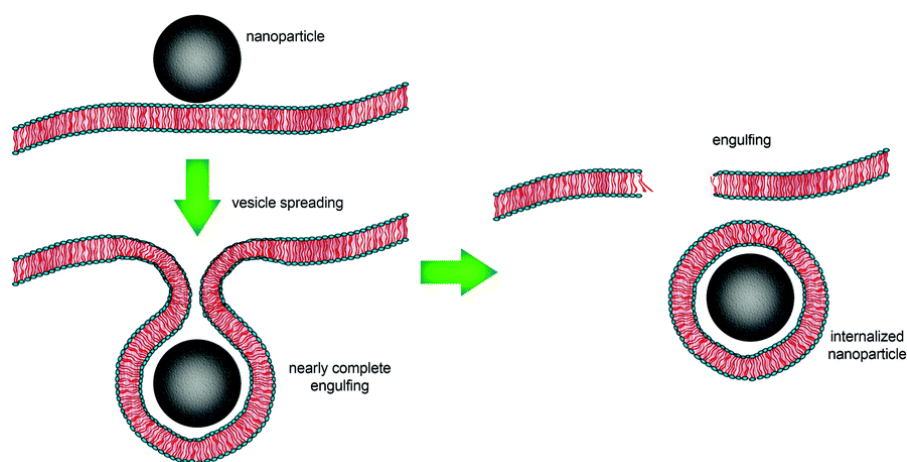


Figure 1.5: Schematic illustration on how the internalization of a NP occurs into a liposome through active process. Reprinted with permission from^[130] - Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry.

This topic was further explored by Fratoddi et al.^[131]. The authors summarized the current state-of-the-art about the toxicity of AuNPs and provided an overview of the most recent experimental results. Fratoddi et al.^[131] mentioned the importance of surface functionalization of the AuNPs because they influence cellular uptake more strongly than hydrophobic or van der Waals interactions. By changing the surface charge, the AuNPs become prone to be internalized within a cell by endocytotic pathways.^[132] The authors cited some publications that demonstrate that, despite having a positive effective surface charge after being synthesized, the AuNP were no longer cationic within the cellular media. This should be consequence of the adsorption of plasma protein to their surface, adopting the physico-chemical properties of the adsorbed material.^[132–134] This shell is called protein corona and is known to strongly influence cellular uptake.^[134] Regarding the effect of the AuNP diameter on the cellular uptake, it is mentioned that smaller size AuNPs plays a major role in the cellular uptake. A study conducted by Chithrani et al.^[135] showed that maximum cellular uptake occurred at a AuNP size of 50 nm for 6 h in

Dulbecco minimum essential media^y plus 10% serum. A similar study was conducted by Connor et al.^[114] and Murphy et al.^[115] on human leukemia cells. The results suggested that none of the AuNPs (4, 12, and 18 nm in diameter) used were toxic. However, due to the number of fundamental issues that remain to be addressed, Fratoddi et al.^[131] end their paper by questioning the *status quo* that AuNPs are non-toxic. The authors argue that a collaboration between different research groups should be established the properly correlate physico-chemical properties of AuNPs and their effects on biological structures.

1.2.5 Computational-based studies

The use of computational techniques to investigate the interaction of proteins or peptides with gold surfaces started to emerge during the late 2000s-early 2010s. Most authors justify the use of these techniques as a way to understand the underlying adsorption mechanism of proteins on surfaces, which is yet not well understood, due to the difficulty to analyze them experimentally. In 2012 Bellucci et al.^[33] issued a book chapter which describes the principles, assumptions and limitations of *ab initio*, classical atomistic MD, and other methods applied to computationally investigate the interaction of proteins with gold surfaces. The publication is mainly focused on the work developed by their group, which is both experimental and computational. The authors start by stating that “[w]hile various experimental methods have been used to explore protein-surface interfaces these are by no means routine experiments. In this context, computational simulations can provide an important contribution to the understanding of protein surface interaction.”. This quote highlights quite well the potential of computational techniques to study these type of interactions, anticipated above. After the initial considerations, the authors present several systems investigated by different computational methods. The first section reports the use of *ab initio* methods, time independent and time dependent. With these methods, the authors have investigated the interaction of small amino acids, such as cysteine and histidine, with a gold surface^[136,137], and data such as adsorption energies, electronic density of states and bonding and antibonding orbitals have been reported. Regarding time dependent methods, more specifically Car-Parrinello MD, it is presented a short excerpt with results from the interaction of polyserine with a {111} gold surface. It should be stressed that, because of the system size (ca. 600 atoms), these simulations required a supercomputer to be performed. Löwdin net atomic charges during the simulation for the gold atoms, for oxygen atoms of water and oxygen of serine side chains have been reported. With these data it was found that there is an electron donation from the serine hydroxyl groups and water molecules to the gold surface leading to a net electron accumulation on the outer gold layers. It was also found that the hydration layer plays an important role on the adsorption process, since it acts as the last layer between the

^ySynthetic media formulated to cell media culture.

peptide and the gold. The authors have also reported some results from systems simulated with classical MD methods, such as residue-surface distances, adsorption energies and trajectory analysis.

Hoefling et al.^[138] investigated the interaction of polypeptides with β -sheet folds with {111} gold surfaces. The authors observed that the amino acid arginine facilitated the initial contact between the protein and the surface. The adsorption was very strong and fast. However, the polypeptides did not unfold on the gold surface within the simulation time despite the domain of orientation changes. Similarly, Yu et al.^[31,32] investigated the interaction of a small peptide with gold surfaces. In this case, besides the gold slab, it was also investigated the interaction with gold nanoparticles. The tested peptide was the A3 (AYSSGAPPMPPF). This study led the authors have discriminated the following regimes in the binding process: i) diffusion regime, characterized by diffusion of the peptide through water while approaching to the gold surface; ii) anchoring regime, occurring when the first residue of the peptide touches the surface; iii) crawling regime, confined between the first anchor and the formation of the first stable bond of the peptide on the Au surface; iv) binding regime, between the first stable bond and the full stabilization of the peptide on the surface. The authors were also able to establish that tyrosine, methionine, and phenylalanine are strong binding residues, and serine serves as an effective anchoring residue. When comparing the adsorption energies of the peptide to gold nanoparticles different sizes (2.3 nm, 3.2 nm, 4.6 nm and 6.0 nm) the authors found that the size effect plays an important role in the stabilities. It was found a critical size threshold near 5 nm, beyond which the strong binding of peptides limits or slows the AuNP from further growth.

The adsorption mechanism of peptide/surface systems was further explored by Penna et al.^[39]. The authors performed 240+ molecular dynamics simulations for periods ranging from 20 ns to 100 ns on two systems, viz. SD152 (CPTSTGQAC) peptide with a platinum surface and a A3 peptide with a gold surface. They advocated that by simulating two completely distinct systems a generalized peptide adsorption mechanism at a molecular level could be obtained. Overall, Penna et al. were able to identify three different phases in the adsorption mechanics: i) biased diffusion; ii) anchoring; iii) lockdown. The first phase was the one which introduced new insights in the field. Until then, it was unknown what was the trigger that promoted the diffusion of the peptides towards the surface. The authors also reported that the existence of water layers adjacent to the solid, and orientational ordering therein, project the surface potential around 0.8 to 1.0 nm into the water. They claimed this long-range force as the source that induces the start of the biased diffusion phase. The subsequent phases, i.e. anchoring and lockdown, also described in the study of by Penna et al. are in line with what was reported previously by Yu et al.^[31,32] earlier.

More recently, Shao et al.^[139] investigated the influence of the AuNP diameter on the

adsorption process of 19 natural amino acids. The authors applied well-tempered metadynamics simulations (see Chap. 2) to compute the potentials of mean force between the entities. This approach permitted to understand the dependence of the binding preferences of each amino acid upon different AuNP sizes (1, 2 and 4 nm of diameter), as well the role of the respective backbone and side chain in that preferences. The simulations showed that AuNPs with higher diameters had water solvation shells denser than those with lower sizes. The solvation shell differences were preponderant in establishing the specific amino acid interacting with the AuNP. Those whose binding free energy depended mainly on their ability to reorient water molecules (Asp, Glu, Met, Phe, Thr, Trp, and Tyr) preferred a smaller, 2 nm, AuNPs. The remaining amino acids (Ala, Arg, Asn, Gln, Gly, His, Ile, Leu, Lys, Pro, Ser, and Val) preferred the larger AuNP, 4 nm, a consequence of their binding free energy be mainly depend on the replacement of water molecules.

Within the realm of metallic nanoparticles it is important to highlight the work developed by Heinz et al.^[140,141]. Since the early 2000s, the Heinz's group have been developing and validating the force field parameterization of several inorganic nanostructures to be used in classical MD calculations. Since all the classical MD codes were firstly developed for organic systems, most of the inorganic entities are still lacking of a proper parameterization or a parameterization at all. This issue requires the combination of a wide set of experimental and computational tests, as well an extensive know-how of the details underlying the force field structure. From all the work developed, the most relevant in this context are those for metallic entities and biomolecular adsorption^[30,142], in which the molecular interactions of short peptides with surfaces of Au, Pd, and Pd-Au bimetal were thoroughly investigated. A quantitative analysis of changes in energy and conformation upon adsorption on different types of surfaces, viz. {111} and {100} (Fig. 1.6), was also assessed.

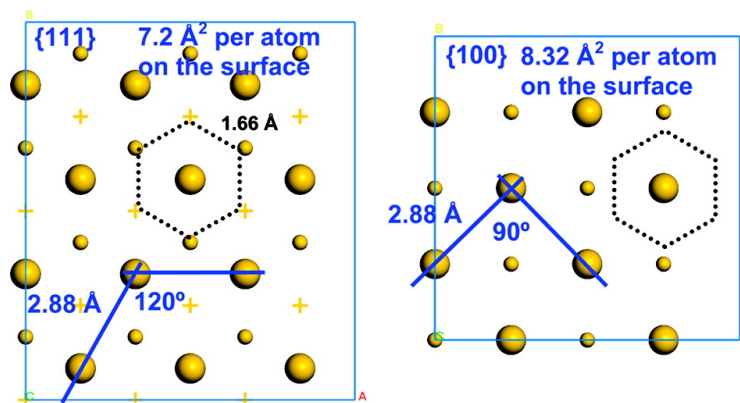


Figure 1.6: Comparison of the geometry of the {111} (left) surface with {100} (right). Reprinted with permission from^[30]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

The authors were able to observe changes in the chain conformation from the solution to the adsorbed state and conclude that the peptides interact preferably with vacant sites on the face-centered cubic (fcc) lattice above the metal surface. It was also observed that the residues that contribute to the binding process are in direct contact with the surface whereas the other residues are found with one or two layers of water between them and the metallic surface. The spacing available between lattice sites on the surface {111} was found to be beneficial to the adsorption of aromatic side groups as well various other residues. On the other hand, the quadratic spacing between available lattice sites on the {100} surface presented much lower affinity with the peptides. More recently, Feng et al.^[143] and Heinz investigated the adsorption mechanism of single amino acid and surfactant molecules to Au {111}. The authors found that the adsorption energy is related with molecular size and geometry rather than the specific molecule chemistry. Large molecules with planar sp^2 hybridized groups adsorb more strongly, followed by molecules with polar sp^3 hybridized groups, and short molecules with sp^3 hybridized alkyl groups exhibit less attraction. Ultimately, the authors were able to show that the computational results are consistent with combinatorial binding experiments, observations in the growth and stabilization of metal nanoparticles, and *ab initio* data.

Cysteine is one amino acid with very interesting characteristics, mainly ascribed to the presence of a thiol group. Besides participating in enzymatic reactions, it is very susceptible to oxidation. This property has been exploited to bind peptides or proteins to metal surfaces, such as gold. In order to determine the nature itself of the anchor atoms, Gronbeck et al.^[144] and Andreoni et al.^[145] investigated how thiols and disulfides bind to gold surface. Since these type of interactions imply the variation of states of oxidation, the use of *ab initio* or DFT techniques is crucial. The authors were able to obtain a complete characterization of the complexes, binding energies, and the type of bond formed. The authors found that the binding energy of the thiol to the surface only differs 3 kcal mol^{-1} depending on dissociation of the S–H bond. This means that thiolates resulting from S–H bond cleavage in thiols can coexist with the adsorbed “intact” species. Later, Kruger et al.^[136] investigated gold-sulfur bonding using a variety of electronic structure methods. The authors found that, structurally, the thiolate sulfur-gold bond has a distinctive directional (covalent) character which results in a clear preference for Au-S-C bond angles in the range of 103.5° and 108.7° . Based on *ab initio* simulated annealing, the authors were able to show that the thiolate-gold interaction can lead to the rearrangement of the gold atoms of the structure. However, the authors have stated that “the effects of chain length on sulfur-gold bonding have to be assessed in order to devise meaningful models”.

In order to understand the complexity underlying the preparation of biochips, Piana et al.^[146] investigated how the biochemical properties of the immobilized molecules can be influenced by the inorganic surface, more specifically DNA with the gold surface. To

achieve this, the authors simulated the interaction of adenine, thymine, cytosine, and guanine (four nucleobases) with a gold surface by performing DFT, post-Hartree-Fock and classical MD calculations. From the DFT calculations, the authors were able to observe that the nucleobases are preferably oriented parallel to the gold surface. Despite the substantial charge polarization of the surfaces, the authors conclude that the interactions between the gold surfaces and the nucleobases, except for adenine, should be described as a physisorption. With the post-Hartree-Fock calculations, more specifically Møller-Plesset second-order perturbation theory (MP2), the Lennard-Jones parameters to describe the nucleobase-surface interaction were derived. These parameters were tested by performing classical MD simulations of monolayers of methane, ethylene, benzene, and pyridine adsorbed on the gold surface. After validated, the parameters were used to obtain the binding energy of nucleobases with the gold surface at different levels of coverage. These computed values were then compared with their experimental counterparts. A remarkable agreement was found, with the exception of the value for cytosine. This is a clear indication that Lennard-Jones parametrization derived from the MP2 is good enough to properly characterize these entities.

Despite the numerous experimental studies performed in the past few years to probe NMNP-cell interactions, the cell uptake mechanism of NMNP is still poorly understood. While cytotoxicity measurements give astounding results of NMs with different physical and chemical characters, the principles underlying NMs cytotoxicity are not yet established. In fact, the lack of atomic-level details on NMNP-cell interactions continues to be a drawback to consistently new developments in the field. Some authors^[147] have already performed MD simulations of the interaction of AMP-NMNP complexes with biomembranes. Nevertheless, coarse-grained models (end Sec. 2.1.1) and approximations thereof were used, thus missing atomistic detail.^[147,148]

As mentioned in Sec. 1.2.4, cellular uptake is a very complex and difficult subject to address. The simulation of systems characterized large spacial and time scales often require simplifications in the mathematical model. Within this context, the work of Lin et al.^[147] should be highlighted. The authors applied classical MD to investigate the penetration of lipid membranes by AuNPs. However, a coarse-grain model of the system was used. Despite losing some resolution, by oversimplifying the system, the coarse-grain approach enables the simulation of larger systems for longer time, the simulation of phenomena such as membrane penetration being a notable example. By functionalizing ligands to the AuNPs with different charges and surface densities it resulted in either repulse of, adhesion to, or penetration into the lipid bilayers. It was also found that the interaction between the AuNPs and bilayers was governed by electrostatic interactions of the ligand terminals on the AuNPs with the bilayer head groups. Upon penetration of the AuNP, a pore is formed which transports water between the layers. Ultimately,

the findings from the Lin et al.^[147] investigation suggest that it is possible to control the AuNPs cellular uptake by tuning its surface charge density. Gkeka et al.^[149] also have used similar models (coarse-grain) to investigate the permeation of nanoparticles through lipid membranes. This simplification permitted to understand if the organization of the corona, homogeneous or heterogeneous, affects the passive translocation of the NP through the bilayer. In the end, the authors have postulated that, if preserved, homogeneous patterns facilitate permeation of NP through lipid membranes by preventing lipid aggregation on its surface.

In short, AMP-NMNP complexes present a great potential in the treatment of wide range of diseases. Nonetheless, the lack of experimental tools that enable the motorization in real time and at the nanoscale, precludes a complete understanding of important phenomena, such as diffusion, binding and cell membrane permeation, on which data are either scarce or non-existent. The use of advanced molecular modelling and simulation techniques may consistently provide fundamental insights into research and development of AMP-NMNP systems.

2. Methods and computational details

2.1 Molecular dynamics

Currently, the (possibly) only way to study the dynamic behavior of the described NP based systems at an atomistic level relies on molecular modelling and simulation tools. Molecular dynamics (MD) methods, classic or *ab initio*, present a huge potential in a such kind of investigations (Fig. 2.1).

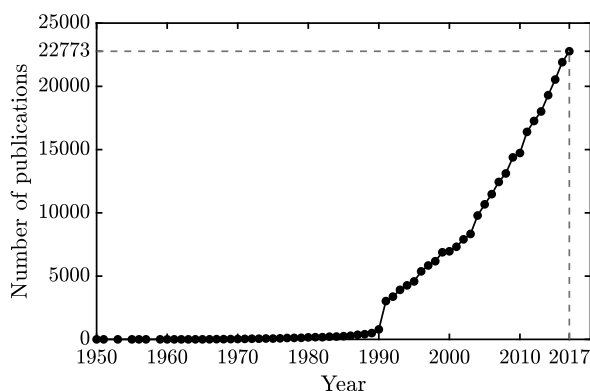


Figure 2.1: Number of publications indexed by Web of Science with the topic “molecular dynamics”.

Computation quantum chemistry (CQC) resorts to a high level of theory, i.e. *ab initio* and density functional theory (DFT) based methods, in order to describe molecular systems with electronic detail, typically without including the time component. On the other hand, classical MD adds the time variable to the simulations, thus enabling the assessment of dynamic behavior, although from a classical molecular mechanics (MM) approach (the generic mathematical formalism of MD will be addressed in Sec. 2.1.1). Depending on the size of the molecular system and the available computational resources, MD can also be performed within a so-called *ab initio* MD (AIMD) framework. The most common AIMD method is based on DFT, thus incorporating the electronic effects in the the dynamic simulations. It should be stressed out that these type of computational simulations require a huge processing workload. AIMD-based calculations are out of the scope of the current work.

The articulation of the available techniques allows to target a wide range of length (Å to nm) and time (fs to ns) scales.^[37,38,150] The use of central processing units (CPUs) based clusters has been the way *par excellence* to overcome this issue. Still, very recent and noticeable increase in the performance of graphics processing units (GPUs) boosted computing power one step beyond, enabling faster simulations of larger systems.^[151,152] In fact, the advent of the GPU computing, during the early 2000s, lead to a paradigm

shift in computing science. Nowadays, a modern GPU is not only a powerful graphics engine, but is also highly parallelizable programmable processor that features peak arithmetic and memory bandwidth substantially superior to its CPU counterpart.^[153,154] If we narrow down to computational chemistry field, common MD, CQC, visualization, and docking applications more than 5 times faster when compared to CPUs.^[155] Some authors, such as Kutzner et al.^[156] and Pall et al.^[157], performed a thorough analysis to assess which hardware is most economical using GROMACS (performance vs. price). In both cases, the authors found out that by adding a GPU to a computer node, the simulation performance is significantly boosted (see Fig. 2.2 for performance gains of adding GPUs to the calculations). The performance/price ratio is even higher when we consider consumer-class GPUs.^[156]

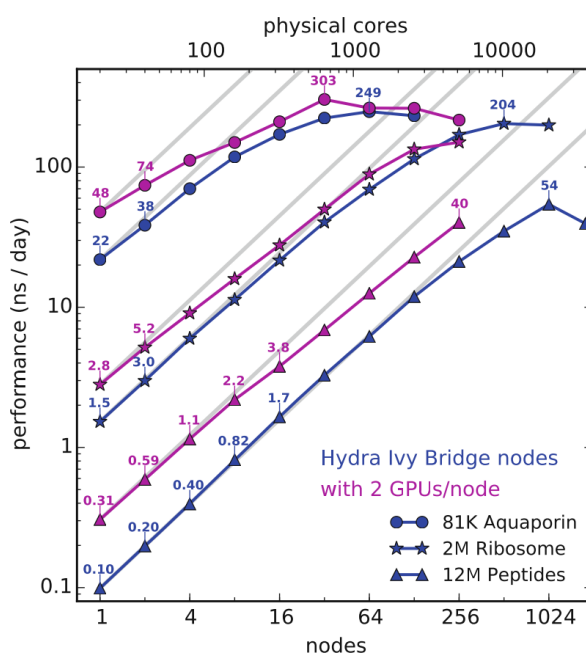


Figure 2.2: Scaling of GROMACS 4.6 on the HYDRA heterogeneous GPU-equipped machine in Garching, Germany. Gray lines indicate linear scaling. Note that the scale is logarithmic. Reprinted with permission from^[157] - Published by Springer International.

Biomolecular simulations became one of the go-to tools to capture the behavior of biological macromolecules in full atomic detail. This technique enables the replication, computationally, of key biochemical processes such as protein folding, drug binding, membrane transport, and the other conformational changes critical to protein function.^[35] In fact, one can find several studies addressing adsorption process of peptides onto gold surfaces.^[3,30,32,39] However, in some cases, these algorithms fall short. Biological systems are characterized by rough energy landscapes, with many local minima separated by high-energy barriers (Fig. 2.3).^[40–44] With the increase of computational power, it is now possible to probe the free-energy variation of a specific protein taking in account its conformation. This enables the production of data with statistical significance, which, until recently,

was only achievable by performing several independent simulations. Due to the significant development of MD codes and computing power availability, it became possible to model and simulate larger systems for tens to hundreds nanoseconds. Nonetheless, the production of a single trajectory is most likely not going to probe all relevant conformations. Approaches such as replica exchange^[158] and metadynamics^[159] (see Sec. 2.1.1) are some of the most used methods to address the sampling issue. Conceptually these methods work similarly, in a way that causes a perturbation in the system by adding a biased potential. The nature of this bias potential is what differentiates the methods. This approach facilitates the characterization of the free-energy landscape while producing data with improved statistical significance.

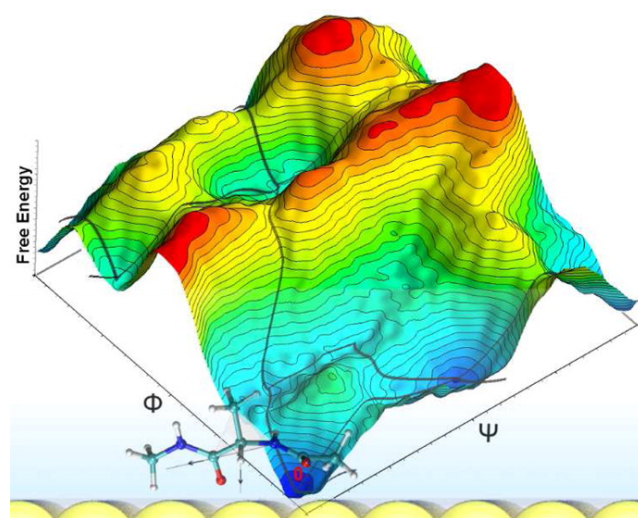


Figure 2.3: Adsorption free energy profile between Au111 and dipeptide. Reprinted with permission from^[34]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

2.1.1 Mathematical background

Standard MD simulation consists essentially in finding the numerical solution of the classical equations of motion. The Hamiltonian of the system can be used, considering all energy contributions in which the degrees of freedom take part. The formulation is defined for a system of N particles with masses $\{m_1 \dots m_N\}$, velocities $\{v_1 \dots v_N\}$ and cartesian coordinates $\{r_1 \dots r_N\}$. The variables r and v are time, t , dependent. The Hamiltonian that describes a system by its coordinates, is formed by two terms, representing the kinetic, K , and potential, V , energy^[160,161]:

$$H(p, r; m, s) = K(p, m) + V(r, s), \quad (2.1)$$

where H is the Hamiltonian, p the momenta, r the particle coordinates, m the mass and s the force-field parameters.

The calculation of the kinetic energy is quite simple. It corresponds to the sum of the kinetic energy of all the particles of the system:

$$K(p, m) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m_i} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2. \quad (2.2)$$

The potential energy term (Eq. 2.5) describes the energy of the interaction between the atoms in terms of their coordinates, r , and the force-field parameters, s . The force-field parametrization is based on experimental data and/or *ab initio* calculations. However, to perform a MD simulation, one needs to calculate forces on atoms, F_i , apart from the potential energies. To compute the forces, MD simulations solve Newton's equations of motion for a system of N interacting atoms, in short time iterations (fs):

$$m_i \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial t^2} = F_i, \quad (2.3)$$

where the forces are the negative derivatives of a potential function, V :

$$F_i = - \frac{\partial V(r, s)}{\partial r_i}. \quad (2.4)$$

The force-field parametrization consists on several contributions, which are divided in two major types: bonded and nonbonded. Interactions such as bond stretch, angular vibration and torsions are considered bonded interactions, whereas van de Waals and electrostatic interactions are included in the nonbonded interactions (Fig. 2.4).

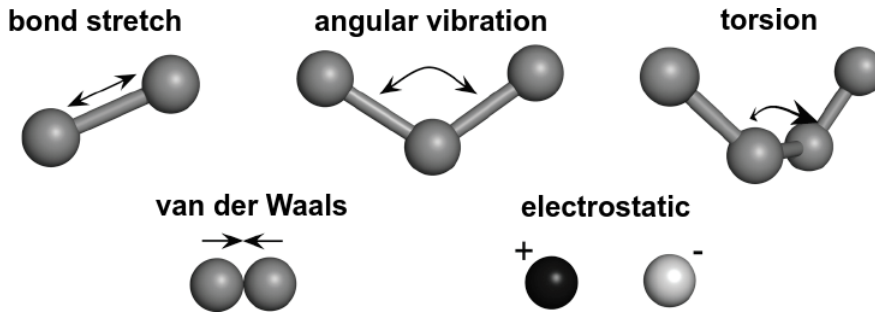


Figure 2.4: Molecular interactions (adapted from^[162]).

The combination of all contributions the potential function is then expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} V(r, s) = & \sum_{\text{bonds}} \frac{k_b}{2} (r_{ij} - r_{ij,0})^2 + \sum_{\text{angles}} \frac{k_\theta}{2} (\theta_{ij} - \theta_{ij,0})^2 \\ & + \sum_{\text{torsions}} \frac{k_\phi}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi_{ijkl} - \gamma)] + \sum_{\text{improper}} \frac{k_\xi}{2} (\xi_{ijkl} - \xi_{ijkl,0})^2 \\ & + \sum_{i,j} 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right] + \sum_{i,j} \frac{q_i q_j}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_{ij}}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

The first four and the last two terms in equation 2.5 are the mathematical representation of, respectively, bonded and nonbonded interactions. The first term treats the variations of the bond length, r , between atoms i and j . The second term gives the angular

variation, θ , formed by two adjacent bonds. The third term corresponds to the torsion, ϕ , defined from three atomic bonds, and the periodicity of the molecule is characterized by the n and γ parameters. This description is useful to distinguish between *cis* and *trans* conformations. The fourth term treats the improper dihedral, defined as the angle formed by two atomic planes, which is very useful for aromatic molecules and enantiomers (Fig. 2.5).

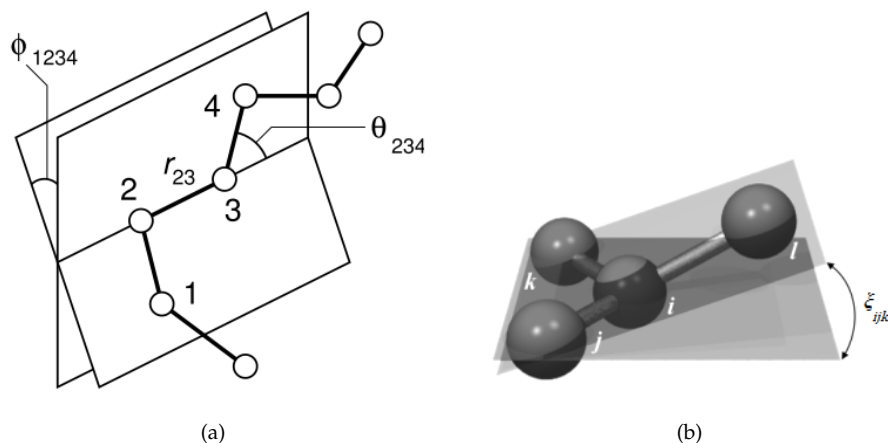


Figure 2.5: (a) - Geometrical illustration of an atomic bond r_{23} , angle θ_{234} , and torsion ϕ_{1234} of a hypothetical molecule^[163]. (b) - Schematic representation of a molecular dihedral^[164].

The van der Waals interactions (fifth term) are described using the Lennard-Jones potential, in which σ is the collision diameter and ϵ the depth of the potential well. Finally, the last term refers to the electrostatic interactions based on the Coulomb's law, in which q is the partial charge.

All these parameters are referred as force field (FF). This involves hundreds, if not thousands, of parameters that need to be selected in a way that ensures an accurate representation of the Hamiltonian of the system. Currently, there are four popular force fields: GROMOS^[160,165–168], AMBER^[169,170], CHARMM^[171,172] and OPLS^[173,174]. The latter is more oriented to model lipid based systems. In contrast, GROMOS, AMBER and CHARMM force fields are more specific for proteins, amino acids and nucleic acids. This partially reflects different parametrization philosophies.

Some force fields allow to create more simplistic molecular models, and three major types of molecular description can be identified: all-atoms, when all atoms are described; united-atoms, when each aliphatic methylene group is treated as a single particle; coarse-grain, when functional groups are agglutinated in a single particle. Figure 2.6 illustrates such representations for the lipid 1,2-dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC).

The simplest way to develop a force field for a new molecule, based on one of the major biomolecular force fields, is by analogy with molecules that have equal or similar functional groups that are already described. Still, this “[p]rocess is tedious, time-consuming, and error-prone”^[175] for larger molecules such as polymers. Moreover, to create a proper

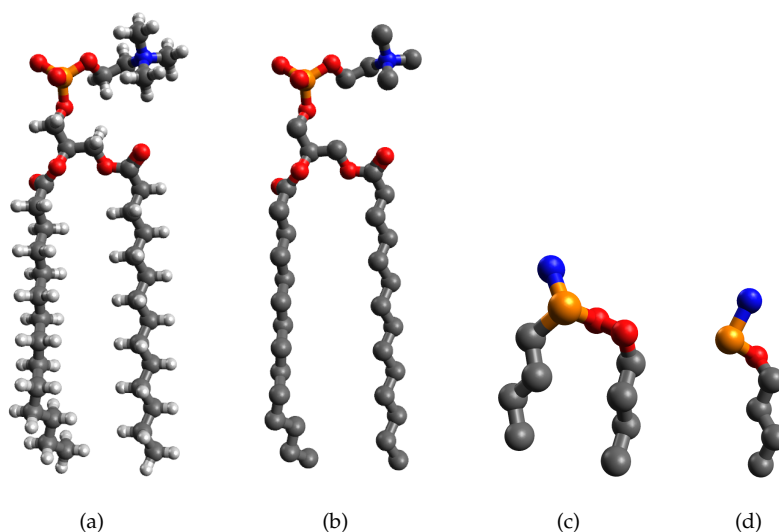


Figure 2.6: Representation of a DMPC lipid: (a) - All-atoms; (b) - United-atoms; (c) - Coarse grain; (d) - More simplistic coarse-grain model.

parameterization for a new molecule, a deep knowledge of the force field background is required, since some parameterizations are tuned with some empiricism. To overcome these problems, several research groups have been developing tools to generate the parameterization of new molecules requiring only as input the atoms coordinates. Some of the most popular tools to generate new parameterizations are the PRODRG server^[176], the Automated Topology Builder (ATB)^[175], and SwissParam^[177].

2.1.2 Advanced sampling methods

Mathematically, advanced sampling methods work out as an external layer to the classical MD, either running multiple analogous systems parallel that share information between them or by adding a bias potential to the system. This way, classical MD is able to overcome local minima and explore a larger section of the energy landscape. Fig. 2.7 highlights a free energy surface with multiple local minima.

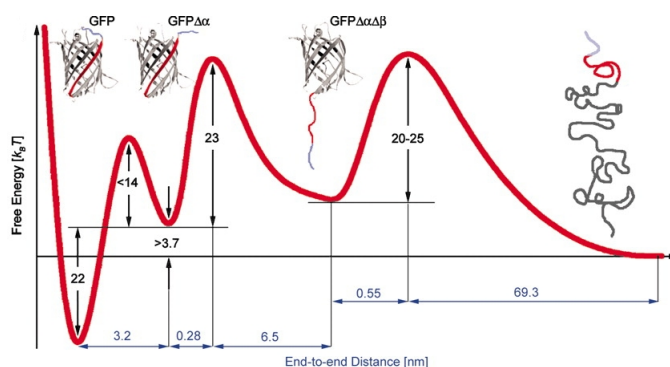


Figure 2.7: Projection of the energy landscape along the unfolding pathway onto one reaction coordinate. Reprinted with permission from^[178] - Published by the National Academy of Sciences.

Replica exchange

Replica exchange (also known as Parallel Tempering) method is based on the premise that systems at higher temperatures can overcome energy barriers easier. A first version of this method was introduced by Swendsen et al.^[179] as a variant of Monte Carlo. However, it has become quite popular since it was modified by Sugita et al.^[180] to be used in the MD framework.

Replica exchange molecular dynamics (REMD) starts by choosing a temperature range. For a small protein, the selected temperature range is usually characterized by 15 to 50 temperature points, with values in the lower range of 270–300 K to 400–500 K at the highest range. This range should cover biologically relevant temperatures as well as those where sampling is significantly enhanced (viz. higher temperatures). After the multiple simulations (replicas) start running in parallel, the energy of neighbor replicas is compared occasionally. When the potential energy of the replica at higher temperature is lower, the coordinates of the replicas exchange. In this case, the replica at lower temperature continues at higher temperature and *vice versa*. A schematic view of this workflow can be seen in Fig. 2.8.

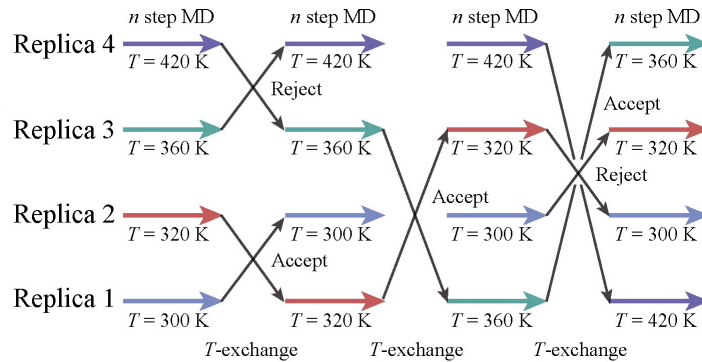


Figure 2.8: Generic scheme of a REMD workflow. Reprinted with permission from^[181] - Published by Elsevier B.V.

In any other situation, a shift in the coordinates of the replicas exchanged is given by exchange probability. This probability is calculated from the potential energy difference as:

$$P = e^{(E_i - E_j) \left(\frac{1}{kT_i} - \frac{1}{kT_j} \right)}, \quad (2.6)$$

where E_i and E_j and T_i and T_j are energies and temperatures of the i th and j th replica, respectively, and k is the Boltzmann constant.^[42] This probability is then compared with a random number generated by the computer. If P is higher, then the exchange occurs.

Metadynamics

Another way to improve sampling capabilities of standard MD is by applying metadynamics, which is a powerful technique, initially described by Parrinello et al.^[159,182], for enhancing sampling simulations and reconstructing the free-energy surface (FES) as a function of few selected degrees of freedom, often referred to as collective variables (CVs). The algorithm discourages previously visited states being resampled, allowing to allocate computational resources to explore a broader section of the FES (Fig 2.9).

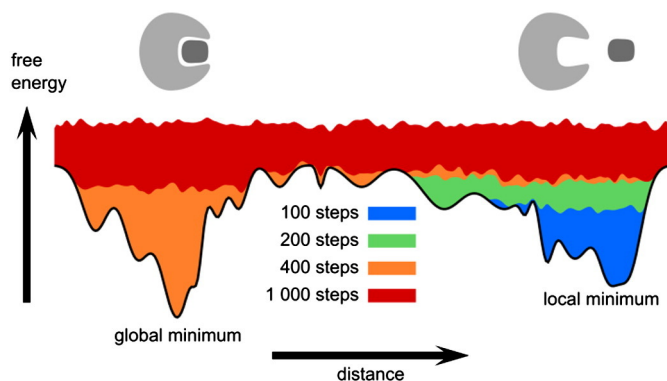


Figure 2.9: Schematic representation of metadynamics flooding on a model energy surface of a protein-ligand interaction. Reprinted with permission from^[42] - Published by Elsevier Inc..

The process starts with the selection of CVs, usually 2 or 3. This is a crucial step as pointed out by Parrinello et al.^[159] by stating that “[i]dentifying a set of CVs appropriate for describing complex processes is far from trivial”. The simulation itself starts as an usual classical MD, the only difference being the addition of a bias potential hill to the system at regular intervals. At time t , the metadynamics bias potential can be written as:

$$V_G(S, t) = \int_0^t \omega \exp \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{[S_i(R) - S_i(R(t'))]^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right\} dt', \quad (2.7)$$

where ω is an energy rate, σ_i is the width of the Gaussian for the i th CV, and S is a set of d functions of the microscopic coordinates R of the system:

$$S(R) = (S_1(R), \dots, S_d(R)). \quad (2.8)$$

The energy rate constant (ω) is usually expressed in terms of the Gaussian height W and decomposition stride τ_G :

$$\omega = \frac{W}{\tau_G}. \quad (2.9)$$

In the end, this technique presents several advantages: i) it accelerates the sampling of rare events by pushing the system away from local free-energy minima; ii) it allows exploring new reaction pathways as the system tends to escape the minima passing through the lowest free-energy saddle point; iii) no *a priori* knowledge of the landscape is needed,

since it inherently explores the low free-energy regions first; and iv) the bias potential V_G provides an unbiased estimate of the underlying free energy.^[159]

Within the scope of metadynamics, a new algorithm, named well-tempered metadynamics, was proposed by Barducci et al.^[183]. Well-tempered metadynamics was designed to be able to overcome some of the metadynamics limitations, such as the inability of the free energy to converge to a definite value, fluctuating around the correct result, and avoid pushing the system to regions not physically relevant. This is achieved by smoothly reducing the initial Gaussian height (W_0) based on user defined ΔT and the simulation time:

$$W = W_0 \exp(-V_G(S, t)/\Delta T) \tau_G. \quad (2.10)$$

Since the intrinsic nature of the metadynamics is to add bias potentials to the system, one must invariably reweight the FES after producing the simulation runs.^[184] The reweight consists in the neutralization of the potential added to system in order to determine the full unbiased distribution. All the analysis performed should be based on the reweighted FE values.

Ultimately, well-tempered metadynamics was the algorithm selected to enhance the sampling the targeted systems. The reasoning behind this selection is that it allows to select which CVs to probe and only requires a single simulation run to sample and characterize the system FES.

2.2 Computing details

This section gives an overview of computer codes used in this work to model, simulate and to process data, as well as a short description of the hardware used to perform those tasks. It also includes a set of technically relevant details shared by all performed calculations. Further modelling and simulation details that are specific of each target system will be provided in Chaps. 3 and 4.

2.2.1 Software and hardware

GROMACS^[157,185–189] was the selected MD software package. It is a well-known and widely used classical MD code, with major applications in biochemical systems. Due to its excellent performance in calculating nonbonded interactions, it has been used also in the simulation of non-biochemical systems. One of the main benefits of GROMACS is its bottom-up performance-oriented design towards highly efficient use of the underlying hardware. GROMACS is written in C and it is well suited for parallelization on processor clusters. The careful optimization of neighbor searching and inner loop performance placed GROMACS on the forefront of fastest MD simulation packages. The

code encompasses a minimal-communication domain decomposition algorithm, full dynamic load balancing, a state-of-the-art parallel constraint solver, and efficient virtual site algorithms that allow removal of hydrogen atom degrees of freedom to enable integration time steps up to 5 fs for atomistic simulations also in parallel. GROMACS is free, available under the GNU General Public License, and can be run in parallel, using standard MPI communication.

PLUMED2^[190] plug-in was used in conjunction with GROMACS to perform metadynamics simulations. PLUMED is an open source library for free energy calculations in molecular systems which works together with some of the most popular MD engines. Free energy calculations can be performed as a function of many order parameters with a particular focus on biological problems, using state of the art methods such as metadynamics, umbrella sampling and Jarzynski-equation based steered MD. The software, written in C++, can be easily interfaced with both fortran and C/C++ codes.^[191]

Data treatment was mostly performed resorting to the toolboxes provided by the GROMACS suite. Apart from being very fast, it provides a large selection of flexible tools for trajectory analysis. Fig. 2.10 depicts a generic flowchart of the a typical preparation and simulation of a system for a GROMACS run. Overall, the simulation can be divided into three sections. The first is dedicated to the preparation of the system, in which all molecules are modelled with the respective FF, and the simulation box is prepared to mimic the system under study. The second section corresponds to the simulation itself, which consists in solving the system step by step using the formalism summarized in Sec. 2.1.1. The last section is dedicated to data treatment and visualization. At this stage, the outputs from the simulation can be either treated using the included toolboxes or simply visualized by means of external software. The workflow is similar when running metadynamics, the only difference being the existence of a parallel code to **mdrun** (PLUMED) that updates the system forces with the selected bias potentials. A schematic diagram of the process can be seen in Fig. 2.11. A more in depth overview of the preparation and simulation processes, as well the a short description of the type files and their content, is presented in appendix A.

The analysis of bilayer properties such as area per lipid (A_{lip}) and bilayer thickness (D_{HH}), was performed using the APL@Voro tool^[192]. This tool uses the triangulation between key atoms of the lipids, thus ensuring high accuracy of the computed metrics.

The trajectory outputs from MD calculations were analyzed through the VMD^[193] package. Apart from being rather versatile, with most parameters being highly customizable, it allows to export high resolution and quality snapshots and movies from the loaded trajectory.

Most of the referred codes require some level of data processing before and/or after the MD run. To achieve this, MATLABTM^[194] is a quite good choice due to its versatility

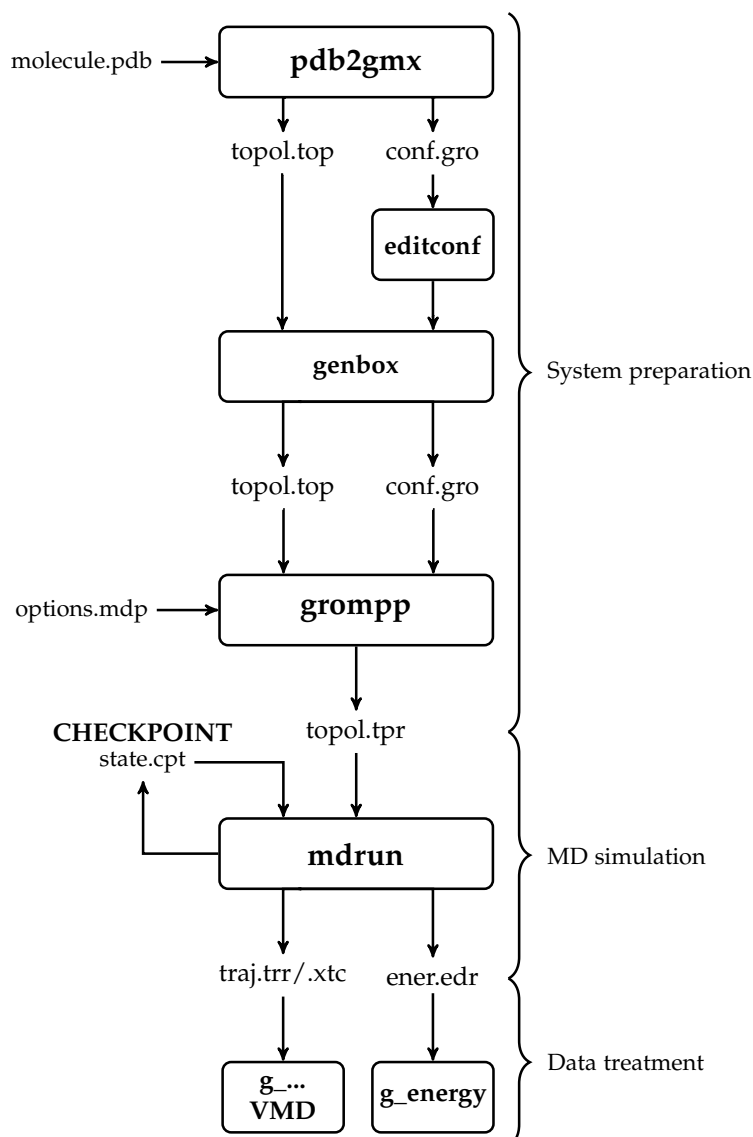


Figure 2.10: Generic flowchart of the modelling and simulation processes with the GROMACS package.

and robustness to manage, treat and represent large amounts of data.

Regarding the hardware available for carrying out this work, it includes a computer cluster with ten computing nodes, each equipped with two 3.06 GHz Intel™ Xeon™ Gulftown EM64T architecture with Hyper-Threading technology. The computing nodes are connected by gigabyte ethernet, used for NFS and for the Apache HTTP Server, and Infiniband™, which provides high throughput and low latencies, which are critical attributes in HPC clusters. Rocks 6.1 (64-bit version) is an open-source Linux cluster Red Hat based distribution that was used since it enabled to easily build computational clusters. As MPI protocol, the MVAPICH2 version 1.7 is used. Added advantage was also taken from the capabilities of general-purpose computing on graphics processing units (GPGPU). In doing so, a Ubuntu 14.04 64 bit workstation based on Intel™ Xeon™ CPU

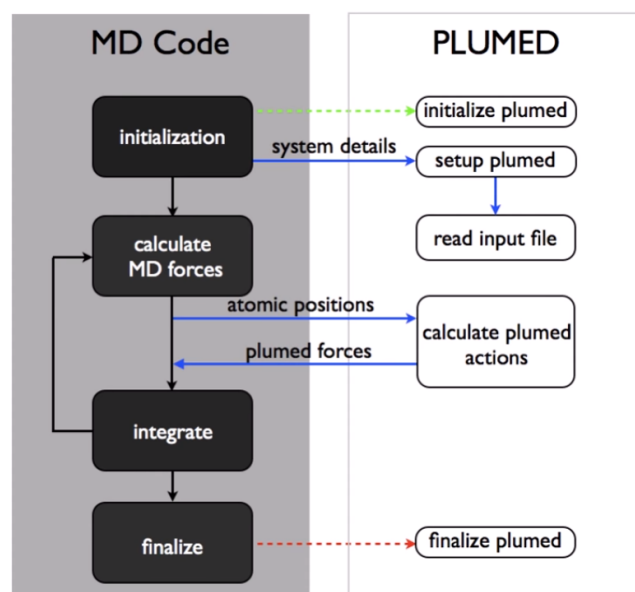


Figure 2.11: Interface between regular MD and PLUMED when running metadynamics simulations. The gray section, described as MD code, corresponds to the `mdrun` block of Fig. 2.10. Reprinted with permission from^[190] - Published by Elsevier B.V..

E5-2620 processors and four Kepler based Nvidia™ Geforce™ GTX 780 were used. Each GTX 780 was equipped with 2304 CUDA cores which can be used to accelerate the computations. At the moment GROMACS is among a short group of MD packages that support CUDA accelerated calculations.

2.2.2 Modelling and simulation technicalities

The MD simulations which are reported in Chaps. 3 and 4 were performed with GROMACS v4.5.4^[157,185–189] for the conventional approach, and GROMACS v2016.1^[157,185–189] with the PLUMED2^[190] plug-in for the metadynamics studies.

The Au structures were modelled using force field parameters developed by Heinz et al.^[140]. The Au slab model considered was formed by 6 Au layers (24 by 32 atoms per layer) in a {111} geometry^[31]. For AuNP, 4.2 nm and 6 nm diameter models formed by 1985 and 6531 Au atoms, respectively, were used, with face-centered-cubic lattice, dominated by {111} and {100} facets.

The ff99SB force field^[148] and TIP3P^[195] were to describe, respectively, the peptides and water molecules. For the simulations with the biomembrane, the SLipids^[196,197] force field was used to model both the lipids and cholesterol.

The bilayer formulation was based on the Keratinocyte cells^[198], and was sized in order to accommodate at least an additional LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate in each direction. This scheme prevents the conjugate from interacting with its own image, causing artifacts. Overall, the bilayer was formed by 1440 lipids (cholesterol included) with a molecular

POPC:POPE:POPS:CHOL ratio of 4:2:1:3, and 124971 water molecules.

The peptides were firstly relaxed in aqueous solution at 298.15 K, with the resulting conformations used as the initial structures for the subsequent simulations. All systems were pre-equilibrated using energy minimization runs. The box volume was relaxed for 100 ps in NPT ensemble under periodic boundary conditions (PBC). The simulation time varied from simulation to simulation (see each corresponding system in Chaps. 3 and 4), and were performed with a 2 fs time step, in NVT ensemble under PBC. The temperature was fixed at 298.15 K using the Nose-Hoover thermostat^[199]. The electrostatic interactions were treated with the particle mesh Ewald (PME) method^[200,201] with a real space cut-off of 1.0 nm. A cutoff of 1.2 nm was applied to Lennard-Jones interactions. Hydrogen bonds were constrained with the LINCS algorithm^[202,203]. A neutral pH was used in all simulations.

3. Cecropin melittin hybrid based AMP

Cecropin-melittin (CM) is a peptide with a broad antimicrobial activity and great potential to inhibit fungal plant pathogens which displaying low hemolytic properties^[76,204]. Very recently it was reported a study on new AMP-conjugated NPs, based on AuNPs and CM as the AMP, in which a cysteine amino acid was added to the C-terminus of the peptide (CM-SH)^[1]. The CYS residue was added aiming at favoring the orientation of the peptide on the Au surface and to enhance the peptide activity. This approach was proved to improve the AMP effectiveness and achieve high antimicrobial activity after *in vivo* administration of the complex while keeping low cytotoxicity against human cells. Nonetheless, and despite most of CM peptide properties and antimicrobial capabilities being already described like most of other AMPs, a detailed description on how CM based peptides interact with noble metal surfaces is still lacking.

In this context, a systematic computational investigation of the interaction of a cecropin-melittin hybrid (CM-SH) with a Au surface was carried out. The peptides were simulated in presence of water and then in the a presence of a gold slab. The outcome of these simulations allowed to establish a baseline of the systems to be used onwards as reference, and to clarify how to outline the required simulations (viz. simulation time, number of molecules in the system, distance between entities, etc.). To accomplish this, two distinct approaches were used. The first one, classical approach, consisted in the simulations of multiple analogous independent systems. Additionally, advanced sampling methods, that force the system to probe the complete structural landscape, were used as the second approach to probe the systems.

Forty independent all-atom MD simulations with 100 ns length of the interaction of the CM (20 simulations) and CM-SH (20 simulations) peptides with a {111} Au surface were performed was part of the classical approach. This approach was selected based on the nature of the system in order to ensure that statistical significance is achieved, and to provide new data, such as diffusion trends and residue (or even moieties) preferences during the adsorption process. The investigation was mainly focused on the CYS immobilized peptide (CM-SH) in an attempt to bridge our computational results with the experimental counterpart recently reported^[1]. Our MD-based study also looked toward validating this concept (CYS immobilization) and toward understanding how does the adsorption process takes place by carefully investigating each regime – biased diffusion, anchoring and lockdown – recently postulated by other authors^[32,39]. Despite the special focus on the CM-SH peptide, both CM and CM-SH specimens and their residues were individually analyzed in order to discriminate their role in a specific stage of the adsorption process.

The dynamic behavior of the AMPs interacting with AuNP was also assessed by MD.

With the introduction of the AuNP in the system, it was possible to evaluate the influence of the surface geometry, and, at the same time, narrow the difference between the systems being simulated and the experimental data. A 6 nm AuNP composed by {111} and {100} facets was used to interact with the AMPs. The approach used to prepare the systems was slightly different. Instead of preparing five independent systems with each peptide (CM and CM-SH), two systems with one AuNP and five APs of each kind was built. Using this approach it was possible to reduce the number of simulations perform (each peptide in the system can be analyzed independently) and assess the effect of AMP concentration into the adsorption mechanisms which govern the process.

Advanced sampling methods, namely well-tempered metadynamics, were used to the study of the adsorption process of the CM and CM-SH into the gold slab. This approach allowed to characterize the system free energy based on the select set of collective variables. This is extremely valuable since it allows, as an example, to have the system free energy as function of the distance between the AMP and the Au Slab. Moreover, unlike the classical approach, metadynamics only requires the simulation of one system of each kind (CM-SH with Au slab and CM with Au slab) to ensure statistical significance. Additionally, the outcome of these simulations will be compared with the data obtained using the classical approach.

By adopting this approach it was possible to understand the effect of different surface topologies, simulation methodologies and system conditions in the adsorption process. Ultimately, this investigation contributed in shedding new light on all stages regarding the adsorption mechanism at an atomistic scale, as well as in contributing to explain some experimental issues related to the CM-SH/Au conjugates, namely the polydispersity.

System characterization. The investigation started toward unveiling the structural properties of the AMPs alone. To do so, the peptides were properly neutralized in aqueous solutions and stabilized by performing an initial energy minimization followed by 30 ns of molecular dynamics. Properties such as radius of gyration and secondary structure (Fig. 3.1) were extracted from the trajectories.

This analysis allowed to conclude that none AMP presented a defined structure, with most part of the chain being either random coil or bend. This conclusion was consolidated by the evolution of the R_g with its standard deviation being more than 10 % higher than the average value (15 % for CM-SH and 12 % for CM). The R_g of a protein or a peptide, as in this case, is a measure of its compactness. If a macromolecule is stably folded, it will likely maintain a relatively steady value of R_g [205].

In addition, two simulations of 50 ns were performed, each with five peptides of each type. The objective was to understand if the peptides tend to aggregate in water and, therefore, to adsorb to the gold surface as clusters. The distance distance between pairs

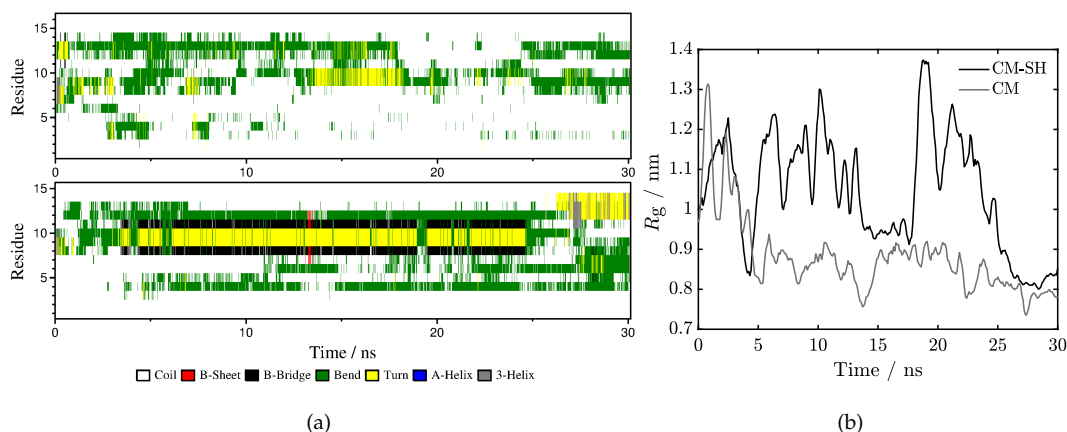


Figure 3.1: Evolution of the (a) secondary structure (CM-SH top and CM bottom) and (b) radius of gyration (R_g).

of AMPs was the metric used to assess if clusters were being formed (Fig. 3.2). CM-SH was the only AMP that presented some peptide interaction. This behavior is characterized by the drop of the minimum distance at the 30 ns and 40 ns timestamps (Fig. 3.2(a)). The decrease of the distance can be explained by the formation of hydrogen bonds between the AMPs (Fig. 3.2(b)), which occurs only for CM-SH. Despite these sporadic interaction, the hydrogen bonds split frequently and CM-SH AMPs were found free most of the simulation time. Therefore, one can assume that these peptides do not interact strongly with each other.

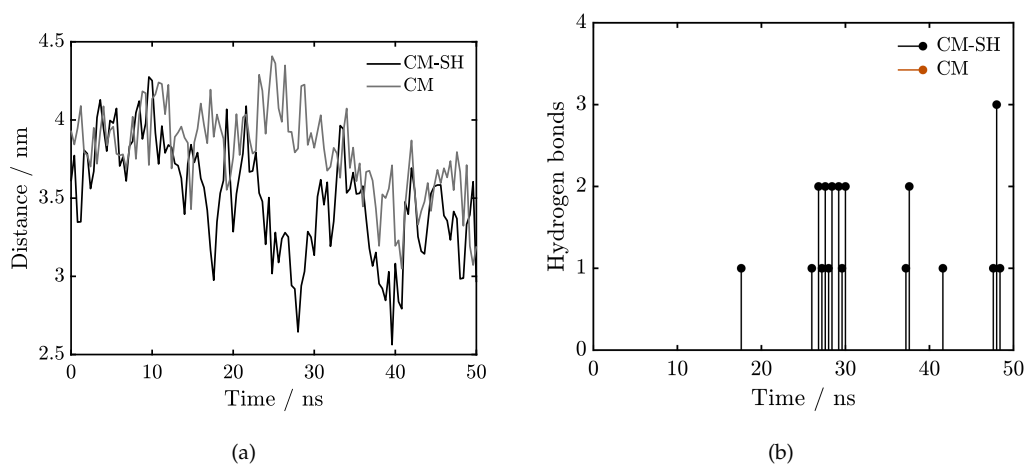


Figure 3.2: Evolution of the (a) minimum distance between all peptides pairs. Each curve was obtained of the averaging the minimum distance between all the AMP pairs for each step; (b) total number of hydrogen bonds in the system between AMPs.

In an attempt to understand how much simulation time is required to probe the complete adsorption process, both peptides were simulated in the presence of a gold surface. At this stage, only one AMP was added to the system. This was crucial to establish

a baseline on how the AMPs interact with the gold without the influence of additional molecules. Sets of simulations of 50, 70 and 100 ns, values selected based in our previous experience with biological systems, were performed as initial tests. These data provided substantial information regarding these systems. It was possible to observe that the final conformation of the peptide (after the adsorption to the Au surface) was different in all simulations (Fig. 3.3(a)). This was a clear indication that some kind of sampling was required in order to properly probe all possible conformation. It was also found that 50 ns might be not enough to grasp the complete adsorption process (test for 70 ns, Fig. 3.3(b), indicated that the peptides promptly adsorbed to the surface). While in some cases the peptides migrate almost immediately to the surface (under 10 ns), in other simulations much rather time was necessary. However, it should be stressed that the adsorption rate is strongly related to the distance at which the peptide is located from the surface (in these evaluations less than 3 nm). Since in the subsequent studies the peptide was planned to be located at a distance of, at least, 3 to 3.5 nm to the surface a higher simulation time would be required. Ultimately, it was found out that 100 ns of simulation was a good compromise between towards a reliable study of the adsorption by an acceptable computational load. These preliminary considerations were very important since they shaped the way that these systems were addressed henceforward.

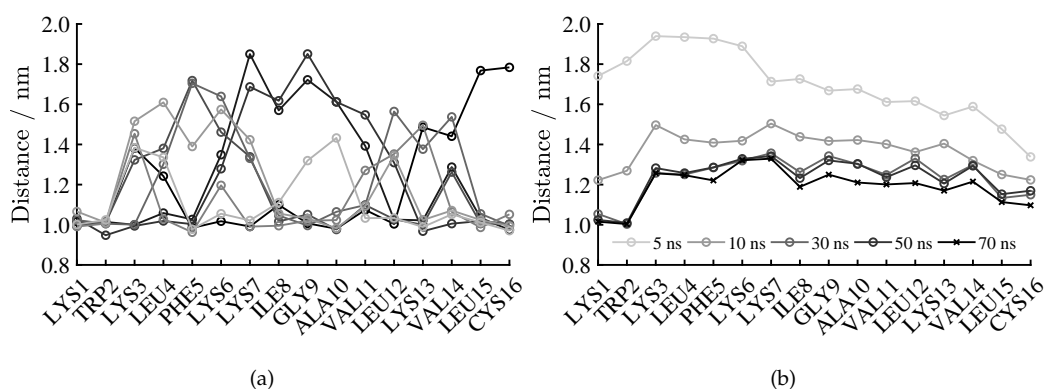


Figure 3.3: Assessment of the dynamic behavior of the CM-SH system. (a) - Distance of each residue (center of mass) to the Au slab at the end of a 70 ns simulation (each gray tone curve correspond to a different simulation); (b) - Evolution of the distance of each residue to the Au slab for multiple simulation timestamps (each curve corresponds to an average over all simulations).

3.1 Interaction with a Au slab

Modelling details. The peptides CM-SH (KWKLFKKIGAVLKVLC) and CM (KWKLFK-KIGAVLKVL) were firstly relaxed for 20 ns in aqueous solution at 298.15 K. For each one, the resulting conformation was then used as the initial structure for the subsequent simulation. Twenty independent systems for each peptide were prepared and simulated for

statistical relevance. Each initial peptide position relative to the Au surface was prepared by rotating the peptide backbone relative to zz and yy axes, and by locating its center of mass at a distance of ca. 3.0 nm normal to Au (hereinafter, all distances to Au surface should be considered perpendicular to the surface). This condition ensured that, at the beginning of the simulation, the peptide was outside the range of influence of Au (see discussion below). With the systems prepared, the simulations were carried out for 100 ns. All the uncertainties here reported are referred to a confidence interval of 95%.

Results and discussion. Before looking into the peptide-surface interaction in detail, mention should be made to the exact location of the nearest water layer to the surface in order to establish the boundaries of adsorption regimes. This characterization is crucial in order to understand the first stages of the interaction between peptides and Au surface (hereinafter mostly referred to as surface). In this regard, our results show that the first and the second water layers (WL1 and WL2) are located at a distance of ca. 0.29 nm and ca. 0.56 nm, respectively (see Fig. 3.4). The location of WL1 is particularly important because it establishes the cut-off which defines if a specific residue is in direct contact with the surface, i.e. the condition for the occurrence of strong adsorption^[30]. In line with recent results reported by Penna et al.^[39], our study reveals that the surface projects an attraction field into the solvent by ca. 0.8 nm to 1.0 nm (Fig. 3.4(b)).

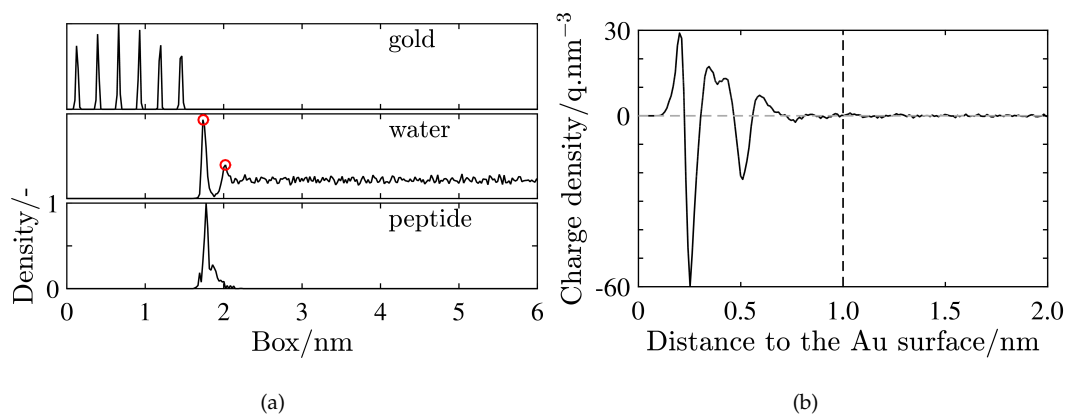


Figure 3.4: Representative (a) density profile normal to the surface (taken for the last 1 ns of simulation), in which the location of the WL are highlighted by circles; (b) charge density variation normal to the surface (calculated from the GROMACS `gmx potential` command). Dashed vertical black line at 1 nm pinpoints the end of the attraction field.

Structural features of the peptides interacting with the Au surface were firstly assessed based on the root mean square deviation (RMSD). The structures obtained from the NPT ensemble (see Sec. 2.2) were used as reference for the RMSD calculations. The time evolution values for each peptide were averaged from all the simulations (Fig. 3.5) reveal two distinct patterns over the simulation time, viz. before and after the structural lockdown

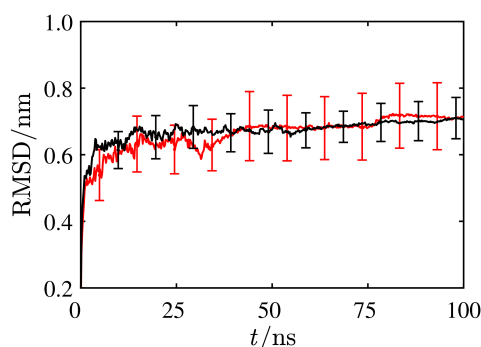


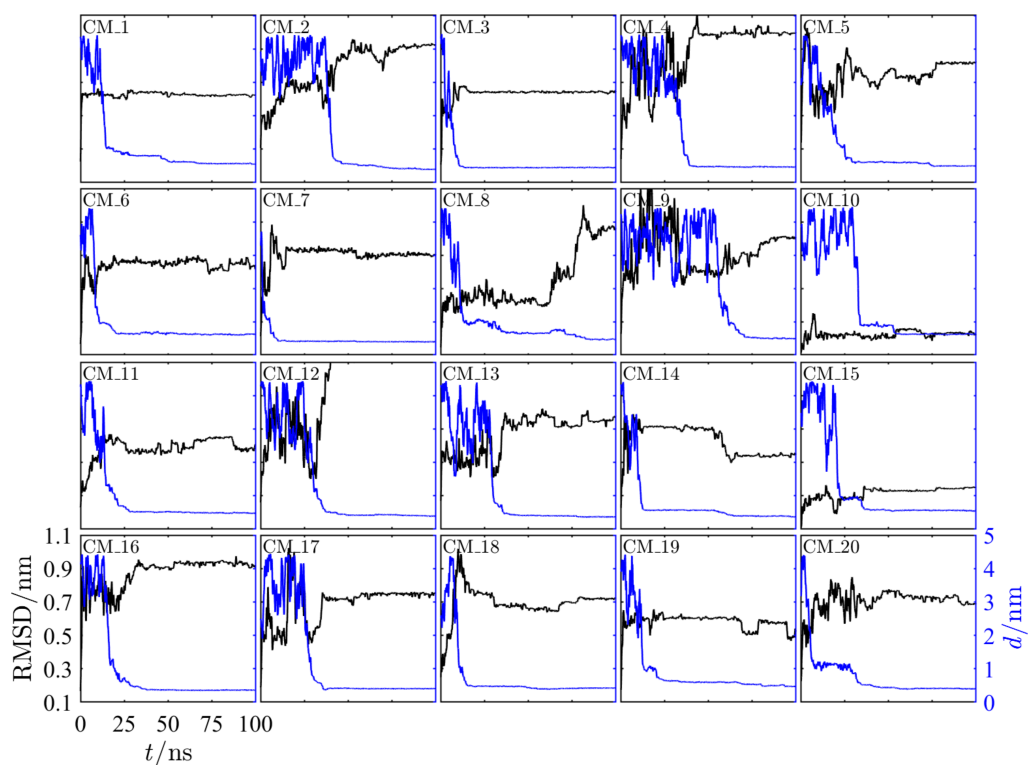
Figure 3.5: Evolution of RMSD for each peptide backbone (CM-SH black and CM red). Each curve was obtained by averaging the RMSD values from all simulations for each peptide.

of the peptide to the surface. Data for each individual simulation can be found in Fig. B.1 in Appendix B. This result also provides relevant information regarding the convergence of the system. The fact that the RMSD value tends to plateau during the later stages of simulation, is a clear sign that the simulations converged to a stabilization point.

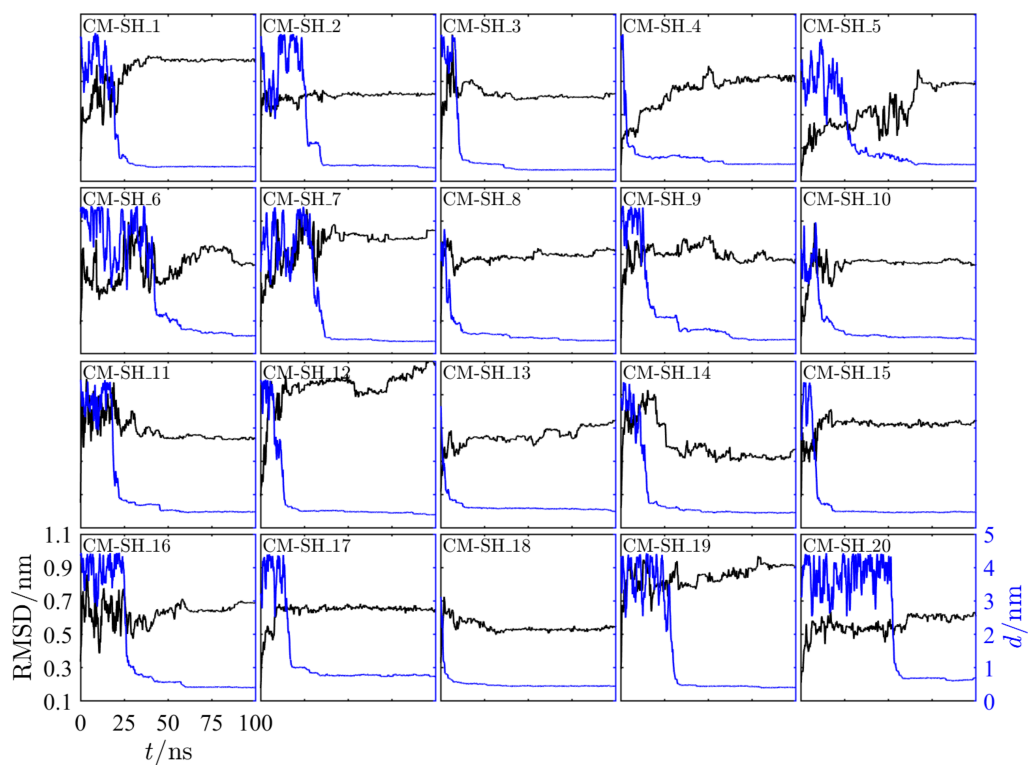
While peptides are out of the influence of the surface, some fluctuations in RMSD are observed as a consequence of a random diffusion in the bulk water. Fig. 3.5 also evidences that RMSD for the CM-SH peptide reaches a plateau much faster than its CM counterpart (a tendency which is substantiated by the narrower uncertainty range in the case of the CM-SH specimen). These results are a first sign that CM-SH peptide is prone to faster achieve a stable conformation after the adsorption when compared to CM. This distinct behavior should be ascribed to the CYS16 residue, being a first evidence of its role in the anchoring and/or lockdown process, possibly by enhancing the stability of the complex. Nonetheless, the large confidence intervals hint that, despite achieving adsorption, the peptide locked structure is not necessarily the same for all the simulations.

For most biological systems the stabilization of the RMSD value is usually a good indicator that the systems converged, but it is also true that such a stabilization might not be a sufficient condition to ensure convergence. In fact, the concept of convergence in MD simulation is not consensual. By searching the bibliography^[206–208], no definitive criteria and/or method exists. In our study, the adsorption process between interacting entities was investigated. The evaluation of distances between them provides important information regarding the stabilization of the system, specially during the latter stages of the adsorption process. Fig. 3.6 combines the information provided by the distance of the peptide to the surface and RMSD. Clearly, both metrics tend to plateau during half/three-quarters of the simulation. This is a clear sign that the simulations converged to a stabilization point.

Despite these evidences, the convergence was further investigated from a recently reported approach^[209]. The method statistically investigates the RMSD matrix (a different



(a) CM peptide.



(b) CM-SH peptide.

Figure 3.6: RMSD versus the distance of the center of mass. Data from all simulations.

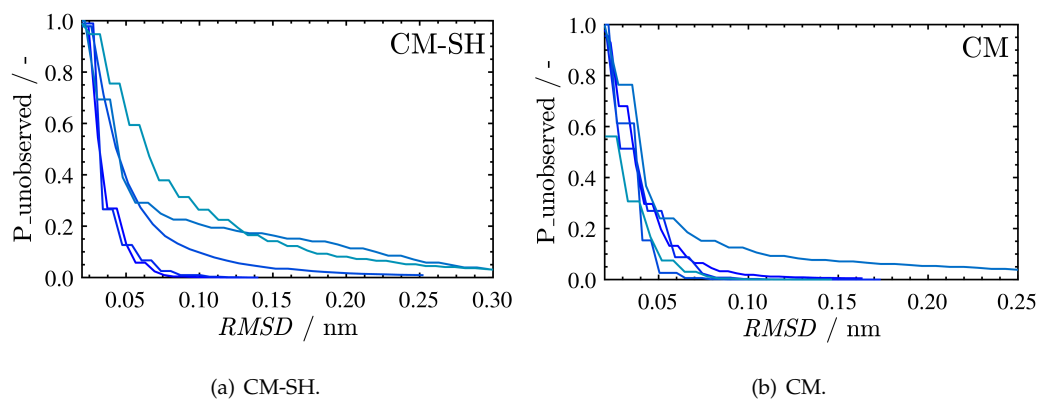


Figure 3.7: Probability of finding a new conformation if the simulation is extended. Each curve corresponds to one independent simulation.

metric compared to the RMSD *versus* time previously discussed) and tests what is the probability that structures with RMSDs higher than a given threshold have not yet been observed in the simulation. This provides an extra layer of confidence regarding our results, ensuring that a given conformation was observed during the simulation. Since this method requires high computational power, ten randomly selected systems (five for each CM and CM-SH specimen) were tested. The results, resumed in Fig. 3.7, indicate that the probability of finding a new conformation if the simulation would be extended (beyond 100 ns), ranges from 0 to 0.05. These results, combined with the data regarding distances and RMSD fluctuation, clearly indicate that 100 ns of simulation is enough to ensure that the simulation ensemble has converged.

To support these results even more, some of the simulations were extended for 50 ns (totaling 150 ns of simulation) to verify if there were major differences in the trajectories. Fig. B.3 in Appendix B summarizes two of the systems that were extended. Again, it was not found any significant alterations in the system metrics.

The analysis of the distance of the center of mass of the peptide (CM and CM-SH) to the surface provides an overview of the evolution of the adsorption process. Fig. 3.8 gathers the outcomes of the 20 simulations for the CM-SH peptide (comparable trajectories were obtained for the CM peptide; see Fig. B.1).

Our approach was somehow more conservative with regard to the initial condition of the simulations when compared to other works^[32,39]. In order to provide a stochastic element to the simulations from the very beginning, the peptides (CM-SH or CM) were located ca. 3.5 nm away from the surface, i.e. clearly out of the surface field projected into the solvent (see Fig. 3.4(b)), as well out of the specified cutoff Coulomb (1.0 nm) and Lennard-Jones (1.2 nm) interactions (see Methods and computational details). As a consequence, the peptide typically starts to randomly drift for 10 to 20 ns in the bulk solvent (which also explains the fluctuation of the RMSD at the first stages of the simulation discussed earlier;

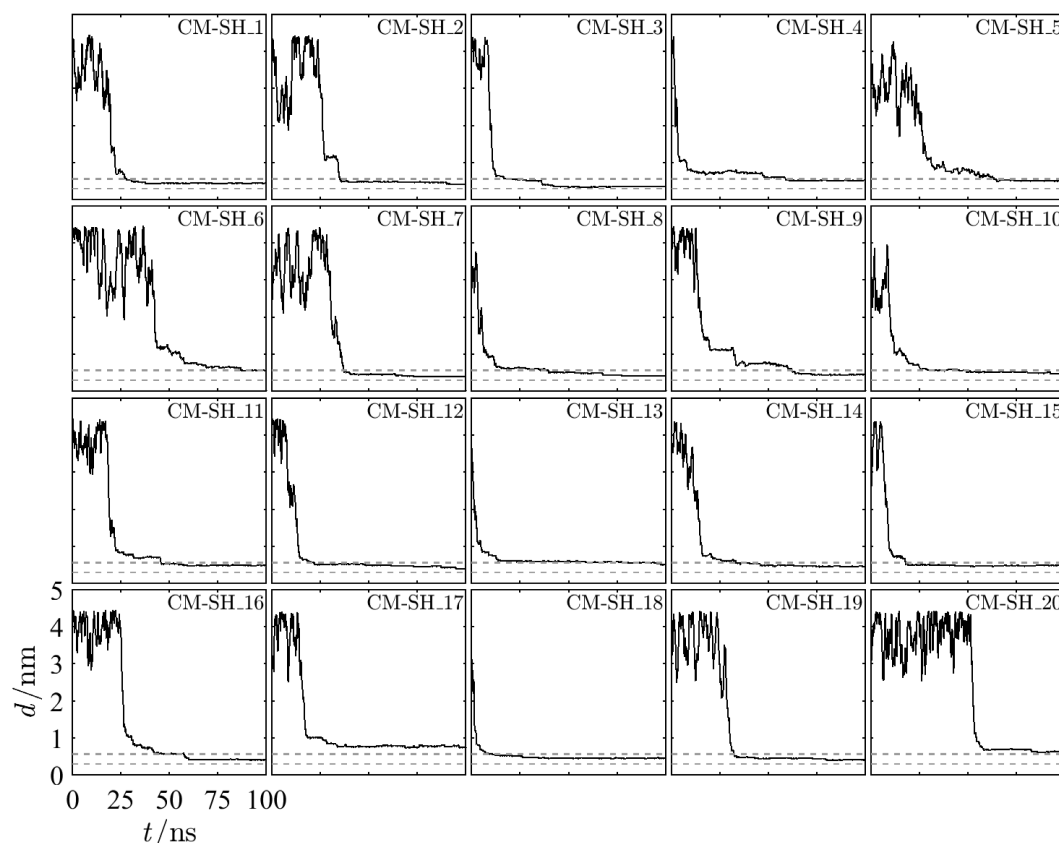


Figure 3.8: Distance of the center of mass of the CM-SH peptide to the Au surface (see Fig. B.2 for some representative snapshots of the MD runs). Each plot represents one simulation and its unique identifier is located on the top right. Gray dashed lines indicate the location of the water layers

see Fig. 3.5). Then, as the peptide gets closer to the surface, it falls within the surface attraction field and biased diffusion starts. These simulation conditions allow unambiguous definition of the starting point of the biased diffusion, for each individual simulation. In this way, it was considered that the biased diffusion follows two (necessary but not sufficient) conditions: i) it starts once the peptide approaching to the surface reaches a point of no return, i.e. a moment from which its distance to the surface is always decreasing; and ii) when at least one of its residues (center of mass) is at a distance of 1.0 nm or less to the surface (distance based on the surface attraction field; see Fig. 3.4(b)). Fig. 3.9 shows the distance of each residue to the surface for the a CM-SH system (see Fig. 3.8) as typical result (a representative system of the CM peptide can be found in Fig. B.4).

Taking the analysis of data from Fig. 3.9 as an example (of the analysis performed on the full set of results), it is observed that the biased diffusion is triggered by the LYS1 residue (first residue to be at a distance of 1.0 nm to the surface). (This instance is highlighted in the snapshot inserted in Fig. 3.9). When this happens, the residue pulls the remaining chain towards the surface, culminating in the anchoring of the peptide to the WL2. It is worth mention that this a necessary but not sufficient condition for biased

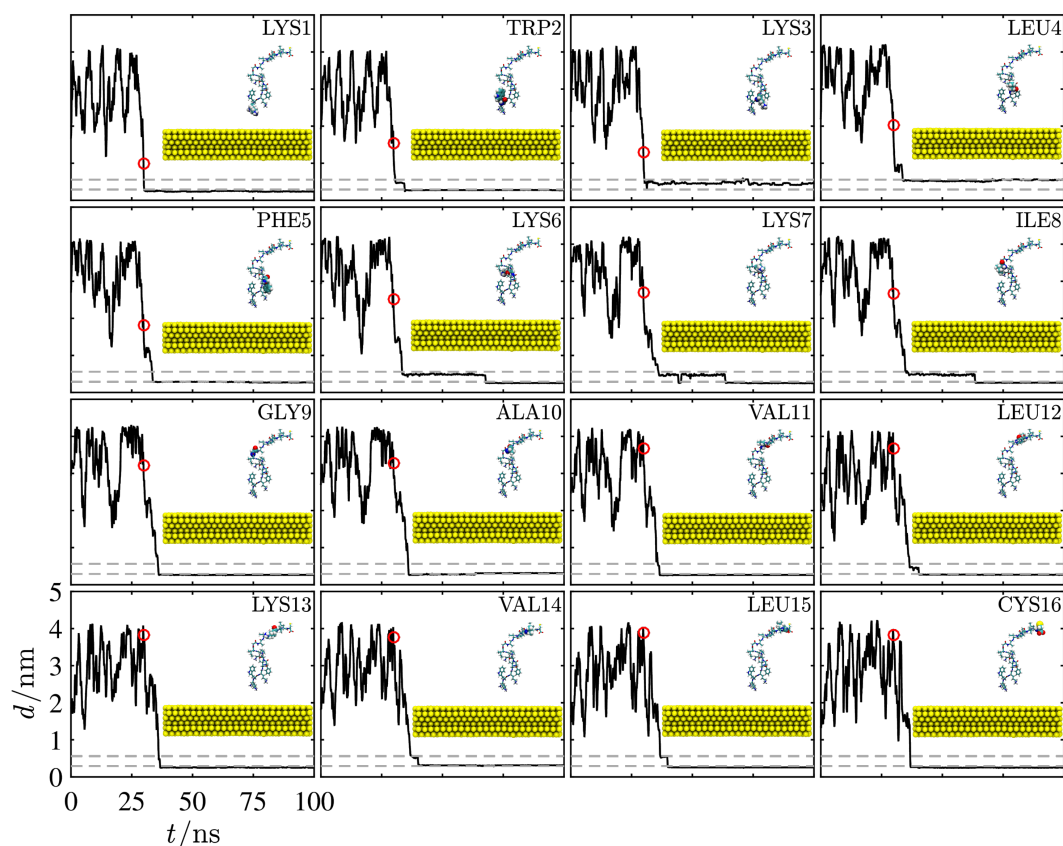


Figure 3.9: Normal distance between the closest atom of each residue to the surface for the system CM-SH_7 (representative simulation). The red circle represents the time at which the biased diffusion regime starts. Gray dashed lines indicate the location of the water layers.

diffusion and anchoring. The fact that a residue is at a distance to the surface less than ca.1 nm does not necessarily mean that the peptide will start biased diffusion. This can be checked in Fig. B.4, for instance in the case of residue LYS6 (also LYS1, PHE5, LEU12 and LEU15), which reaches a distance of ca. 1 nm to the surface, at the 20 ns mark, and does not irreversibly trigger the biased diffusion. This behavior was observed in several simulations (in both peptides) by analyzing the distances of each residue to the surface. During the anchoring process, some residues detached from the WL2 (viz. LYS1 and TRP2 at ca. 34 ns in Fig. B.4) and moved back to the bulk of the solvent. This result shows that the anchoring process is reversible and that residues can occasionally detach back to the bulk solvent, as also reported by Penna et al.^[39].

A thorough analysis of the peptide-surface distance profiles (Fig. 3.8 and Fig. B.5 in Appendix B) suggested that the trajectory profile from the start of the biased diffusion regime fits the behavior of an exponential decay. Thus, having evaluated the starting point of the biased diffusion for each simulation, the selected data were fitted by an exponential decay model as an approach to assess the apparent kinetics of the biased diffusion (for comparative purposes). An example of this fitting can be found in Fig. B.5.

The obtained decay constant was $(0.50 \pm 0.04) \text{ ns}^{-1}$ for CM-SH and $(0.48 \pm 0.04) \text{ ns}^{-1}$ for CM. The difference indicates that CYS essentially does not affect the rate of the biased diffusion, a result that makes sense considering the dimension of the CYS16 relative to the remaining peptide chain. This approach (exponential decay model) also permits the isolation of the time interval (within the overall 100 ns simulation time) in which the biased diffusion, anchoring and lockdown regimes take place. The starting point of the biased diffusion was already described above (it occurs when at least one of the peptide residues is at a distance of 1.0 nm or less to the surface). The end of the lockdown regime is characterized by the lock of the peptide structure at the end of the adsorption process. This translates in to a low variation of the distance of the center of mass of the peptide to the surface, and the corresponding instant was chosen by considering the point in the trajectory from which such a variation was less than 0.01 %. With this threshold, no noticeable residue adjustments are found, only some minor variations of the peptide side chain are visible, as illustrated in Fig. 3.10.

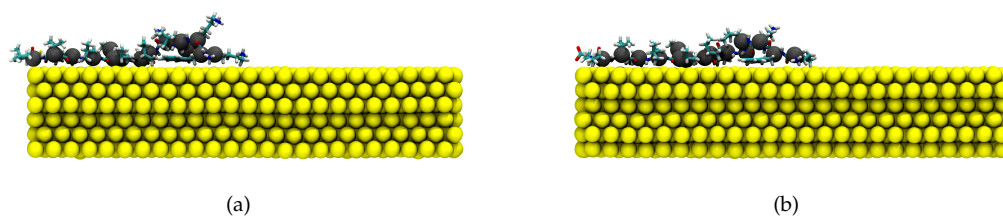


Figure 3.10: Location of the α -carbon of each residue (highlighted in gray by a van der Waal's-based representation) for the system CM-SH_7 (a) at the end of the lockdown regime (variation of the distance is less than 0.01 %) and (b) at the end of the simulation.

According to this criteria, the time for the adsorption process (biased diffusion, anchoring and lockdown) was $(40.61 \pm 11.33) \text{ ns}$ for CM-SH and $(42.03 \pm 12.40) \text{ ns}$ for CM. The CM-SH peptide seems to go through the adsorption process marginally faster (ca. 3.4 %) than CM, but the uncertainty intervals do not allow definitive conclusions to be drawn. The diffusion coefficients for both peptides were calculated (from the GROMACS command `gmx msd`) for all the simulations. The calculations were limited to the biased diffusion regime. Thus, the interval of simulation selected to perform the fitting was from the start of the biased diffusion to the occurrence of the first anchoring point. The obtained coefficients, $(5.28 \pm 0.76) \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for CM-SH and $(4.24 \pm 1.08) \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for CM, also suggest that the CM-SH diffuses slightly faster. However, considering again the uncertainty intervals, definitive conclusions cannot be drawn. This indicates that the CYS residue has marginally no effect in the diffusion process.

Downscaling the trajectory analysis toward an atomistic detail aiming at understanding the effect of each residue during the adsorption process with higher resolution, the

distance of the closest atom within each residue to the surface was analyzed. With this purpose, a residue was considered adsorbed to the surface if it had an atom at a distance to the surface equal or less than 0.29 nm (location of WL1). Fig. 3.11 summarizes the adsorption map for all the simulations for the CM-SH peptide (data for CM can be found in Fig. B.6).

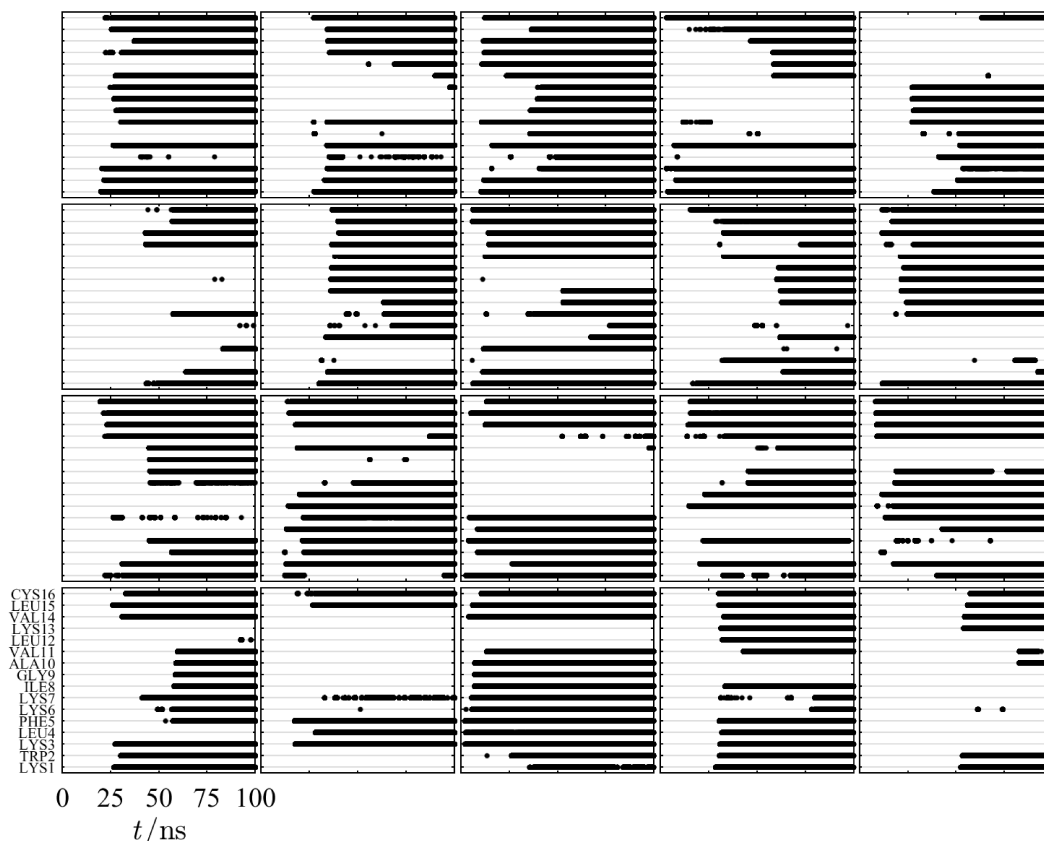


Figure 3.11: Residue adsorption map for the 20 simulations on CM-SH/Au interaction. Thick black line indicates that the residue is adsorbed. (Each plot corresponds to one simulation.)

A first glance, Fig. 3.11 reveals the variability in the set of simulations. Clearly, the peptide approaches to the surface in different ways depending on its conformational history. Then, due the strong metal-peptide interaction, it anchors and locks to its final conformation within a relatively short time interval. The way the peptide approaches the surface will determine its final conformation, and, despite the already mentioned variability in this event, a large portion of the peptide is adsorbed to the surface by the end of the simulation [(74.00 ± 7.90)% of the chain for CM and (70.31 ± 7.40)% for CM-SH].

Several trends in the peptide residues, as well as in their moieties, are identifiable during the adsorption process. With few exceptions, the N-terminus exhibits a tendency for being adsorbed in most of the simulations (see Fig. 3.11 for CM-SH and Fig. B.6 for CM). On the other hand, the larger time interval required for the adsorption of the C-terminus reported by some authors^[32,39], appears here to be attenuated by the presence

of cysteine. Comparing the averaged distances of VAL14 and LEU15, these residues take about 70 ns to achieve a stable conformation in CM against only ca. 55 ns in CM-SH (see Fig. 3.12).

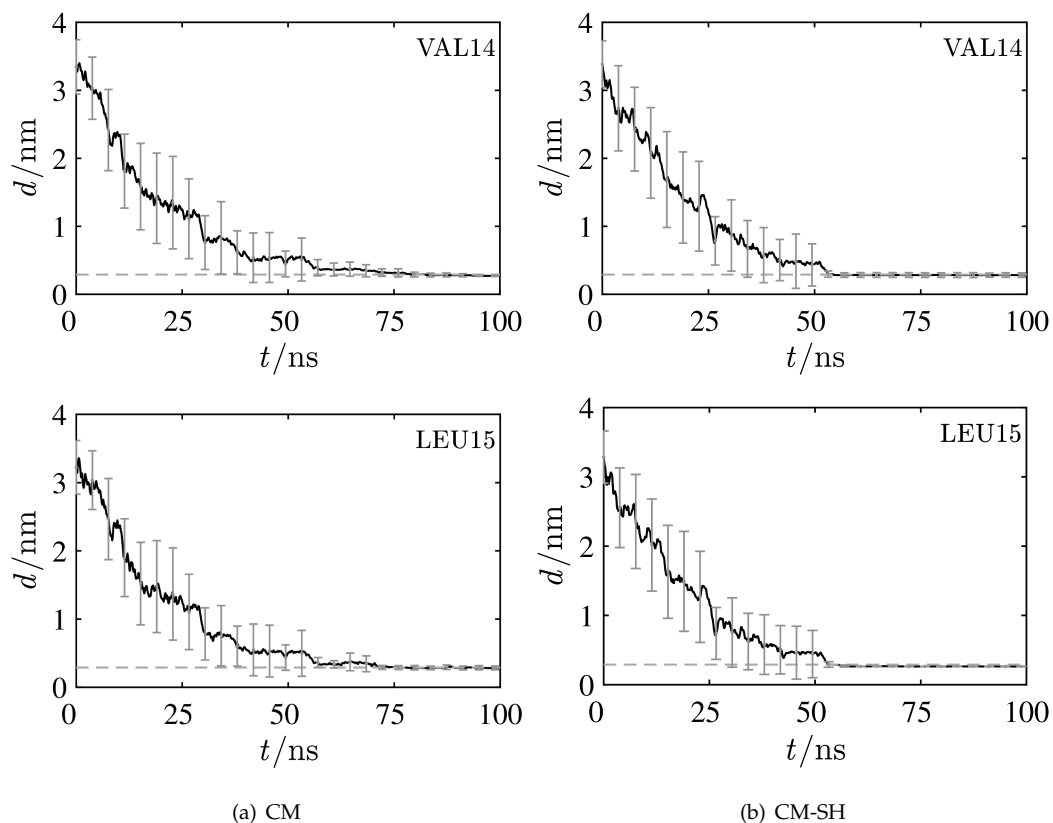


Figure 3.12: Averaged time evolution of distance of the closest atom of the residue to the surface (dashed gray line corresponds to the location WL1).

Our MD simulations also predict a clear trend of CYS16 (the terminal residue of CM-SH peptide) to remain very close to the surface. This behavior agrees with quantum chemistry (DFT) studies^[144] reporting the tendency of thiols to bind covalently to Au metal surfaces. Indeed, the presence of CYS appears to be a key factor in the adsorption process, also contributing to strengthen the adsorption of the terminal residues. This analysis allows us to postulate that the CM-SH peptide is much more readily stabilized over Au when compared to the CM specimen.

In both CM-SH and CM cases the residues LYS1, TRP2 and LYS3 at the N-terminus appear less susceptible to be adsorbed to the surface (Fig. B.7). This is a very interesting feature considering that these first residues are determinant in the antimicrobial activity of the peptides^[76], being in line with experimental data showing that CM-SH/AuNPs conjugates retain the antimicrobial activity^[1]. Also, the residues of the central segment of the peptide (LEU4 to LEU12) are frequently found not adsorbed, indicating that the adsorption occurs preferentially through the N-terminal and C-terminal.

As a complement to the previously discussed trajectory analysis, the percentage of occurrences of atoms at an adsorption distance (≤ 0.29 nm) to the surface during all the simulations for the CM-SH peptide was calculated. The results for the CM-SH peptide are summarized in Fig. 3.13 (results similar to CM Fig. B.8). This analysis shows that most of the occurrences are related to the proton bound to the α -carbon. This applies to almost all residues, the LYS, LEU4 (proton of the carbon where isobutyl branches) and PHE5 (methylene proton adjacent to the aromatic ring) being the exceptions. For LYS the adsorption location is consistently the proton of the methylene (ϵ -carbon) adjacent to the NH_3^+ in the side chain (which is adjacent to an alkyl chain). The adsorption points in the three mentioned exceptions are characterized by a region of hydrophobicity. Since there is a location without water molecules between the Au surface and the WL1 due to the layering of water molecules (Fig. 3.4(a)), this region favours the accommodation hydrophobic moieties of the peptide. The high number of contact occurrences for the CYS16 residue when compared to the remaining chain corroborates the previously discussed data, consistently demonstrating that the CYS16 plays an crucial role in the adsorption process, and with all probability, in the conjugate formation. It should be stressed here that it was not found any particular kind of order or orientation of the water molecules forming the water layers after the adsorption process

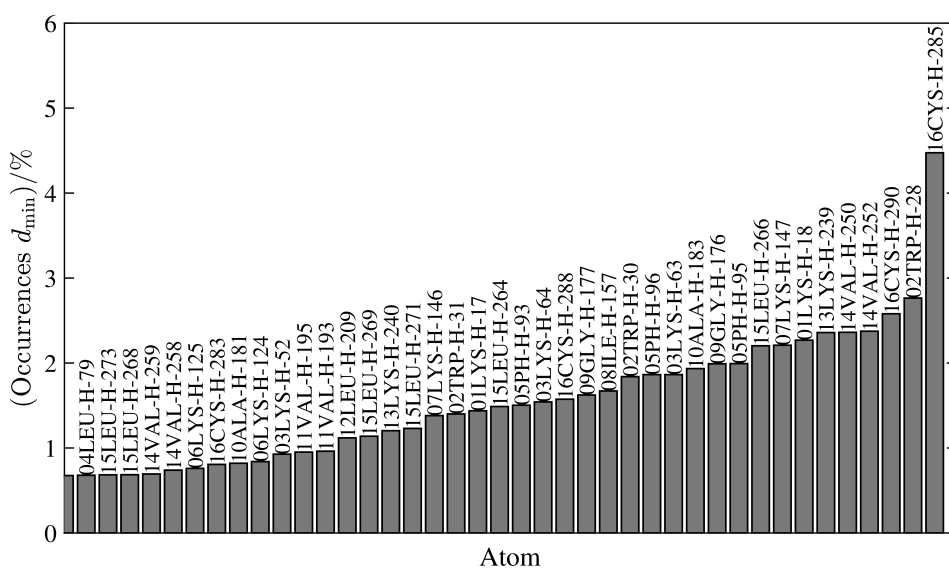


Figure 3.13: Percentage of occurrences of atom at an adsorption distance (≤ 0.29 nm) to the surface during all the simulation for the CM-SH peptide. (The less populated cases are omitted for simplicity. Atom numbering can be found in the list B.1 in Appendix B.)

It is worth mentioning that our MD results help in rationalizing experimental evidence for the contribution of CM-SH in the formation of AuNPs with low size and polydispersity in remarkable contrast with AuNPs under the influence of the CM peptide^[1]. The computed results confirm that CYS plays an important role during the later stages of the

adsorption process characterized by its systematic strong interaction (possibility by chemical bounding) with the surface. Such a bridge between experimental and calculated data is in line with the statement that “lower stabilities are less likely to slow particle growth in real time, resulting in aggregation of AuNPs”, whereas “strong binding of peptides limits or slows the Au NP from further growth”^[31]. Moreover, the experimental results demonstrate that the peptide activity is retained after being supported in the AuNP. This was also suggested by the MD results, according to which the key residues with antimicrobial activity are less prone to adsorption.

3.2 Interaction with a AuNP

Modelling details. The effect of AMP concentration into the adsorption mechanism was assessed by considering a set of systems prepared with more than one AMP. Overall, a total of two systems formed by one AuNP and five APMs of each kind was built. The peptides were inserted randomly in the system resorting to the **gmx insert** command, ensuring however that they were at a distance of around 2.5 nm of the AuNP. To understand how many peptides can adsorb to the 6 nm AuNP, 200 ns simulation of a system with 70 peptides and AuNP was performed. The number of peptides bound onto the surface of AuNP was estimated at the end of the simulation.

Results and discussion. We started by performing some quick tests with AuNP of 2, 4 and 6 nm of diameter. The diffusion profiles were found to be very similar regardless of the NP diameter (results can be found in Fig B.9 in Appendix B). It should be mentioned that this outcome contrasts with what was found by Yu et al.^[31,32] (the AuNP diameter affected the conjugate stability). The difference can be attributed to the distinct AMP dimension (CM-SH is ca. 33% larger than A3) and to the presence of CYS in our AMP. Therefore, we ended up using the 6 nm AuNP since it was closest to the diameter of the AuNP reported in the experimental work^[1]. An initial set of 10 simulations were performed for the interaction of the CM-SH peptide with a 6 nm AuNP. The evolution of the distance of the peptides to the AuNP can be found in Fig. 3.14.

The trajectories summarized in Fig. 3.14(a) indicate that the terminal cationic residues of CM-SH (LYS1 and LYS3 at the N-terminus), an important component in antimicrobial activity of the peptide, appeared to be less prone to adsorption to the surface. Our simulation results also showed that PHE5 is important for the peptide anchoring process. This attribute has been reported previously^[30-32], and is explained by the fact that the aromatic ring fits the fcc lattice structure of the Au surface. MD simulation predicted a clear tendency of CYS16 (the terminal residue of CM-SH peptide) to remain very close to the Au surface (below 0.3 nm), and this configuration is thus a key factor in the binding process (Fig. 3.14(b)).

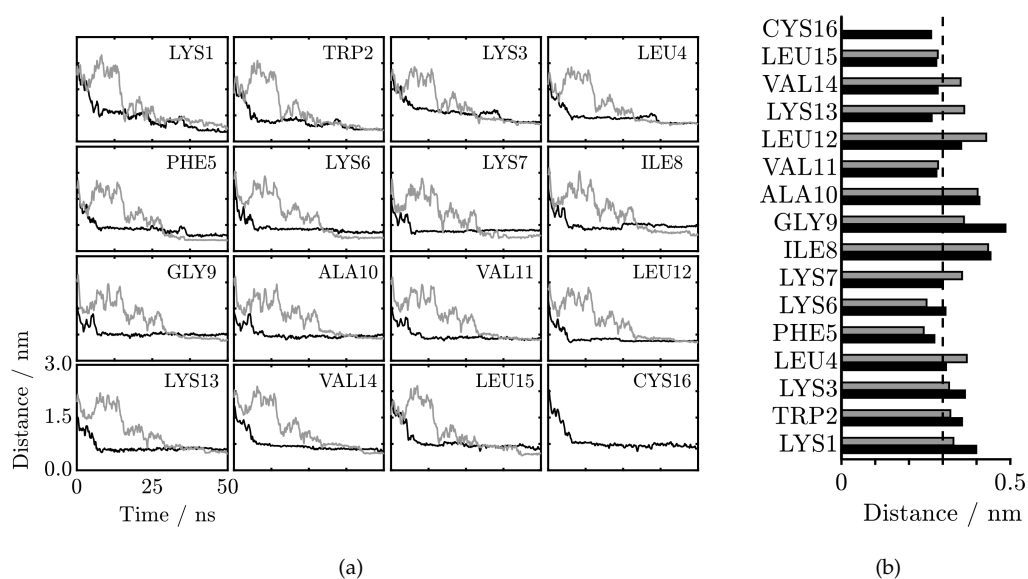


Figure 3.14: (a) Averaged MD trajectories for the interaction of five CM-SH (black) and five CM peptides (gray) with an AuNP. (b) Distance of the residues to the Au surface at the end of the simulation. The line at 0.3 nm represents the cut-off used to define direct contact between the atoms of the amino acids and the Au surface.

With regard to the RMSD of the peptides, it was found that the CM-SH peptide hits a plateau at around 35 ns of simulation while CM still presents some variation, results are summarized in Fig. 3.15. In fact, when comparing the RMSD and residue distance to the Au surface profiles to those obtained for the Au Slab (Fig. 3.6), clear similarities are found. This indicates that no substantial differences are found between the surface topologies (NP vs. Slab), at least at the diffusion level. The same can be said for the AMP concentration. This was, however, somewhat expected due to lack of strong interaction between the AMPs. With that said, this can change in the case of AMP supersaturation, in which different phenomena may govern the adsorption process.

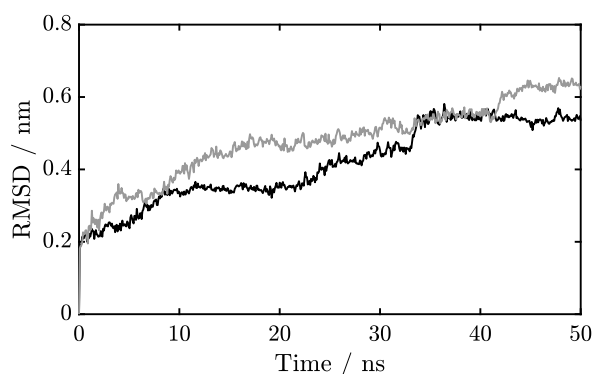


Figure 3.15: Averaged RMSD for the cecropin peptides (CM-SH in black, CM in gray). Starting conformation used as reference.

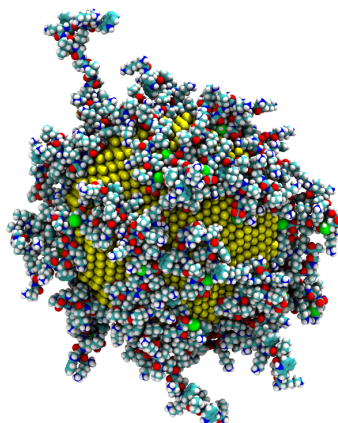


Figure 3.16: Formed CM-SH/AuNP conjugate at the end of 200 ns MD simulation.

Next, a system with 70 CM-SH peptides and one AuNP was simulated. With the data of this simulation it was intended to estimate how many peptides the AuNP could accommodate (in optimal conditions). From the 70 initial peptides, 42 ended up binding to the surface (snapshot of the CM-SH/AuNP conjugate Fig. 3.16).

With the data obtained from this simulation, we were able to estimate that a 14 nm AuNP (similar to the ones used by Rai et al.^[1]) would be able to capture ~230 CM-SH peptides. In fact, this result is quite similar to the one obtained by the authors, ~237 CM-SH per AuNP. This indicates that the CM-SH/AuNP conjugate obtained by Rai et al. is near, or already, saturated by peptides.

3.3 Metadynamics approach

Modelling details. The AMPs were inserted in the simulation box with its center of mass at a distance of ca. 6.0 nm normal to Au. Next, two well-tempered metadynamics^[183] runs under aqueous conditions were performed in the presence of the Au surface – with CM-SH and CM – for 500 ns. The peptide radius of gyration (R_g) and distance of the center of mass (COM) of the peptide to the COM of the AuNP (d_{COM}) were chosen as collective variables (CVs). For the system without AuNP, the R_g was the only CV used. The widths of the Gaussian function were set to 0.1 nm for the R_g , and 0.2 nm for d_{COM} . The height of the Gaussian functions was set to 1 kJ mol^{-1} , and the bias potential was updated every 5 ps throughout the simulation. The temperature was set to 298.15 K with a bias factor of 10 K.

Results and discussion. The use of well-tempered metadynamics allows to efficiently probe the free energy (FE) of the system during the adsorption process. Since we are investigating an adsorption process, the variation of the FE with the d_{COM} allow us to understand if the peptide is preferable free or adsorbed, while the R_g allow us to infer

how the peptide is folded or elongated. This is the rationale underlying the choice of d_{COM} and R_g as CVs.

Looking at the FES of both peptides (Fig. 3.17), some fundamental differences are noticed. The most obvious is the fact that the region with the lowest FE is smaller, and narrower for d_{COM} in the case of CM-SH. The region with the lowest FE for CM occurs between 3 nm and 1 nm for the d_{COM} , while for CM-SH it is between 2 nm and 1 nm. This indicates that the CM-SH peptide tends to be closer to the gold slab. Putting these results side by side with those obtained through the approach using to multiple simulations (Section 3.2), it can be concluded methods produced a similar outcome.

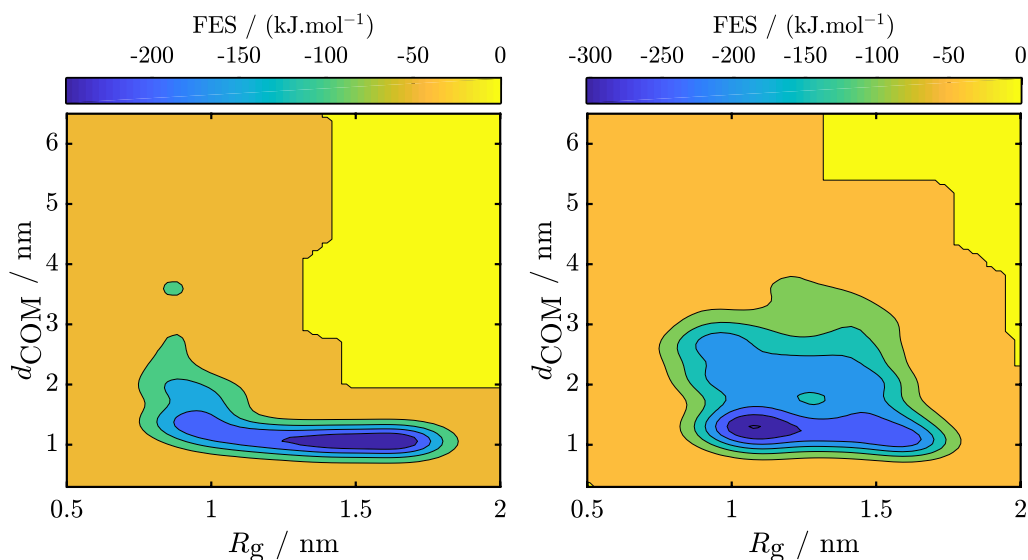


Figure 3.17: FES of the system taking in account both CVs for CM-SH (left) and CM (right).

For the R_g CV, the difference between the peptides is also clear. The CM-SH presents a higher R_g value for the global minima, which indicates that this peptide tends to be more elongated. The calculated values for the FES global minima are $251.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (R_g 1.59 nm and d_{COM} 1.07 nm) for CM-SH and $304.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for (R_g 1.07 nm and d_{COM} 1.28 nm) CM.

3.4 Conclusions

The preliminary simulations with a Au slab permitted rationalize the computational strategy. The data from these simulations clarified that none of the peptides have a clear secondary structure at pH 7. Additionally, it was found that the AMPs migrate quickly to the Au surface. However, no clear pattern of adsorption was found, with the AMPs having different conformations at the end.

Thorough analysis of data obtained from 40 independent simulations here reported provided new information that helps to rationalize the adsorption process of both CM-SH and CM peptides onto a gold surface. Due to the nature of the system (strong pep-

tion/metal interaction), the way the peptides (CM and CM-SH) approach the surface determines how the adsorption process occurs. The dynamic behavior of the adsorption process of CM-SH and CM is consistent with the generic adsorption mechanism described by other authors. Our study was extended to a random diffusion in the bulk water, unbiased diffusion, that precedes biased diffusion, showing that the transition from the random to the biased diffusion is triggered by the projected attraction field into the solvent by the gold surface. It was shown that the presence of CYS has essentially no effect during the biased diffusion regime, characterized by similar diffusion coefficients in both the peptides. Regarding the later stages of the adsorption mechanism it was found that protons bound to α -carbons present the highest number of contacts to the gold surface (≤ 0.29 nm) during the simulations. This indicates that, whenever possible, the adsorption occurs by means of the α -carbon moiety. Our results also clearly suggest that the antimicrobial activity is retained after the adsorption process because the residues with antimicrobial activity are less prone to be adsorbed.

It was demonstrated that the presence of cysteine at the C-terminus plays a stabilization role on the later stages of the adsorption process. The CYS residue promotes a quicker stabilization of the CM-SH peptide than its CM counterpart without significantly affecting the diffusion regime. Unlike the other residues, CYS was found consistently interacting closely with the surface, displaying negligible occurrences of detachment back to the solvent. It was also possible to observe a stabilization of the residues near the C-terminus (VAL14 and LEU15) for the CM-SH when compared to the same residues for the CM peptide. This strong CYS/Au interaction can be postulated as the reason underlying the formation of low size and polydispersity resulting from the preparation of AuNPs with CM-SH compared to the corresponding conjugate based on CM.

Negligible differences were identified for the three AuNP diameters tested (2 nm, 4 nm and 6 nm). Therefore, the AuNP with the dimension closest to the materials characterized experimentally by Rai et al.^[1], in this case 6 nm, was the selected one. The different surface topologies tested, slab vs. NP, seem not to substantially affect the adsorption process or the final structure of the AMPs. Nonetheless, some differences were found.

The lower distance between the entities (AMP and Au surface) at the beginning of the simulation (2.5 nm for the AuNP vs. 3.5 nm for the Slab) led to the absence of the unbiased diffusion step for the systems with the AuNP. The remaining diffusion steps presented a similar profile for both topologies, in which, the obtained conjugates were characterized by a C-terminal section mostly in direct contact with the surface, with the CYS16 residue consistently in direct contact in all simulations (NP or Slab). The only difference worth notice is the PHE5 residue presented higher affinity to AuNP. Due to the AuNP curvature, its surface is rougher than the slab, this can lead to the formation of preferential spots of adsorption for the PHE5.

Finally, the results obtained with the metadynamics simulations were consistent with the data gathered using the other approaches – independent and concentrated system –. By using the R_g and d_{COM} as CVs, it was possible to map the FES for each peptide and understand how they impact the system. With the FES it was possible to identify that both global minima can be found for a low d_{COM} , with the CM-SH FES showing a clear profile of low FE near the surface while for the CM the low FE region spreads slightly for higher d_{COM} values. For the R_g the results were substantially different, 0.52 nm higher for CM-SH, meaning that CM-SH is preferably unfolded after the adsorption. These observations are consistent with the results obtained using different simulation techniques, indicating that data obtained using the classical approach is, in fact, statistically significant. Nonetheless, metadynamics presents a more sophisticated platform to perform these types of simulations, with the advantage of the characterization of the FES of the system in function of the selected CV.

4. Cathelicidin-derived LL37 AMP

LL37 is the only cathelicidin-derived antimicrobial peptide found in humans. It is formed by 37 residues, has amphiphilic behavior, in some cases displays α -helical structure, and, most importantly, has been shown to exhibit a broad spectrum of antimicrobial activity^[79,80]. LL37 acts as first line of defense against bacteria, virus and fungi^[81]. The wound healing potential of free and immobilized (LL37/AuNP) LL37 has been investigated recently^[2,210]. The results showed that LL37/AuNP conjugate have enhanced pro-regenerative properties when compared to the soluble LL37. The dynamics behind the formation and stability of this conjugate, however, is yet to be further explored. Details on how the peptide is adsorbed onto the surface and if the final structure is stable are issues not well-known. Large peptides and, *a fortiori*, proteins, are characterized by multiple local minima which are separated by high-energy barriers which results in a coarse energy landscape^[40–43]. Advanced sampling methods, such as metadynamics^[159], are required to properly address the conformation variability inherent to these molecular systems.

Considering the potential of the LL37/AuNP conjugate, we hereby present a computational study on the interaction of a LL37 AMP with a AuNP, in which the investigated AMP is modified with cysteine (CYS) at the C-terminal to favor its interaction with the Au surface. Similar to what was done for the CM AMP (Chap. 3), initial assessments of the AMPs alone in water and with a AuNP were performed. Furthermore, the possibility of inter and intra molecular interactions were assessed by including several AMPs in the physical model. These initial tests were undertaken using the conventional MD approach. The outcome of this study provided crucial data regarding the LL37 structure and dynamic behavior with the AuNP.

In looking towards a complete picture of the dynamics of the target AMP, four scenarios were tested: the interaction of i) plain (LL37) and ii) CYS-modified (LL37-SH) AMPs with a 4.2 nm face-centered-cubic (fcc) lattice AuNP; and reference systems consisting in iii) LL37-SH and iv) LL37, both alone in water. A set of all-atom well-tempered metadynamics simulations were performed for the four independent systems in order to sample the free energy barriers associated with the adsorption process of the LL37-SH onto the AuNP. This study also provides original quantitative information in terms of free-energy on the immobilization of the AMP (LL37-SH) onto a AuNP. These computational results contributed to rationalize some of the experimental findings reported recently^[2].

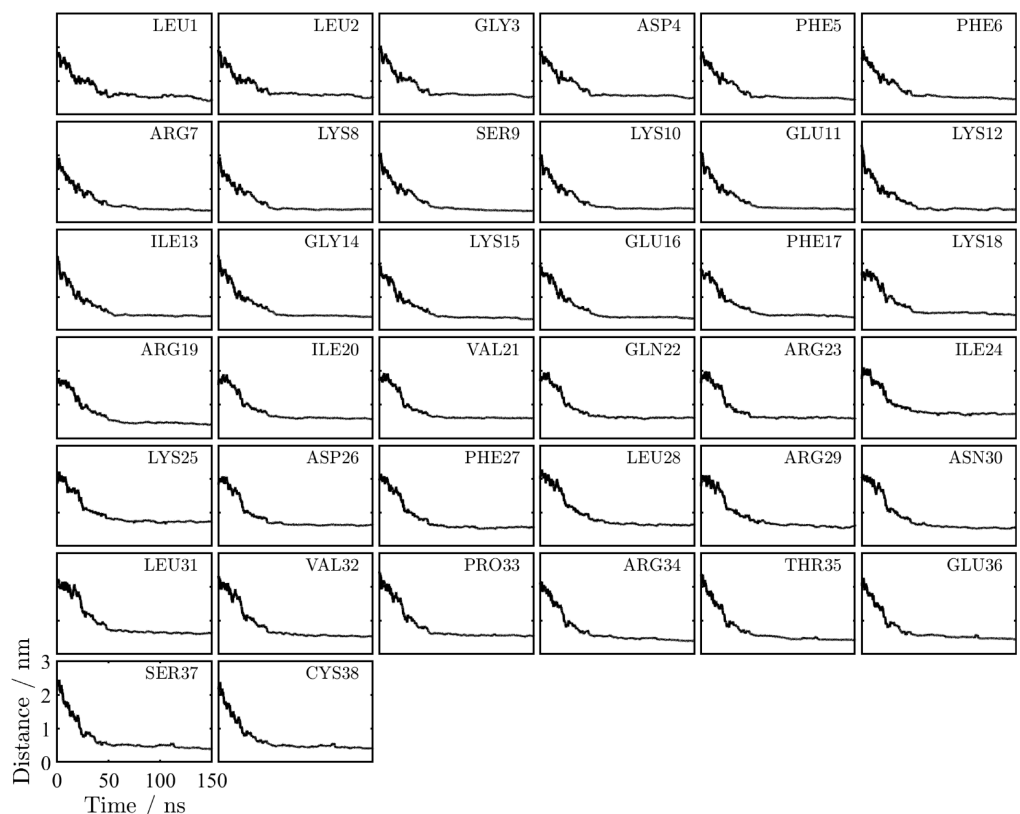
Finally, the effect of these materials – i.e. both AMPs and AuNP alone, and their conjugates – with a bilayer composed by phospholipid analogous to a keratinocyte cell was investigated. It should be stressed that considering the dimension and complexity of the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate, the simulation of its interaction with a bilayer is a daunting

task. The main challenge is the dimension of the system, formed by more than 500000 particles, and the simulation time required to replicate the dynamics of this type of phenomena, multiple hundreds of nanoseconds. This challenge was tackled by preparing a framework of simulations that allowed a first understanding of each material in connection to the bilayer. The simulated systems were the following: i) water + bilayer; ii) water + bilayer + LL37-SH; iii) water + bilayer + AuNP; iv) water + bilayer + LL37-SH/AuNP.

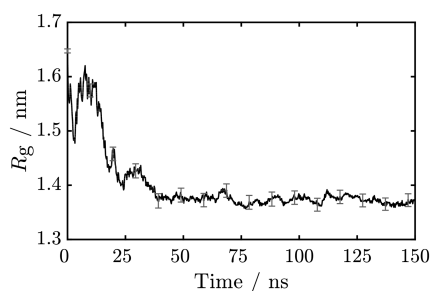
System characterization. The LL37-SH peptide was firstly relaxed in aqueous solution 50 ns at 323.15 K, and then at 298.15 K for more 50 ns. The resulting conformation was then used as the initial structure for the subsequent simulations. A total of 20 peptide positions relative to the AuNP, located at a distance of 2 nm to the surface, were prepared by rotating the backbone and then simulated for 150 ns. The obtained results are summarized in Fig. 4.1.

The simulations show that most of the residues take ca. 50 ns to be in direct contact with the surface (Fig. 4.1(a)). However, the C-terminal and their adjacent residues exhibit a faster diffusing process, ranging from 25 to 30 ns. These residues rapidly adopt a stationary, possibly strong, adsorption to Au surface, as indicated by the constant distance to the AuNP surface until the end of the simulation (Fig. C.1). The radius of gyration (R_g) profile^[205] also suggests that the peptide conformation changes during initial stages and ends up adopting a more compact structure after adsorption (see Fig. 4.1(b)). The observed initial fluctuation of both parameters (R_g and distance) up to 45 ns corresponds to the diffusing process, followed by the initial stages of the anchoring of the peptide to the AuNP. Afterwards, a sharp decrease on the fluctuation of those variables, around 50 ns, and a stationary regime, which characterizes the adsorption stage, is reached. These results clearly suggest that a stable complex is formed, thus hampering the detachment of the peptide from the surface. The possible formation of a secondary structure of the immobilized peptide was also investigated (Fig. 4.1(c)). Despite some few sections indicating the presence of alpha-helix along the simulation time, no clear clues on the formation of secondary structure after the adsorption to the surface are found (Fig. 4.1(c)).

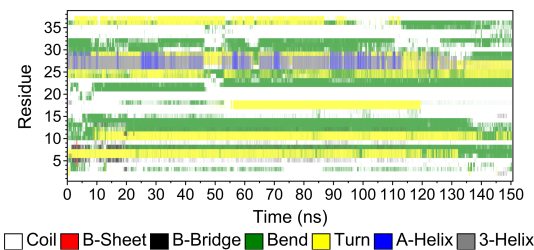
With this initial assessment no substantial differences were found in terms of adsorption profile when compared with the CM-SH peptide. Nonetheless, one can anticipate that the FES profile for the LL37-SH might be more complex when compared with CM-SH. This prediction is based on the difference in size between the AMPs (LL37-SH 675 atoms vs. CM-SH 293 atoms), which translates in more points of contact between LL37-SH and the AuNP. Consequently, the simulation time was increased to 150 ns to fully probe the adsorption process. Furthermore, for these reasons (1. potential rough FES landscape and 2. higher simulation times required), metadynamics was used to study this system in deeper detail.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 4.1: Time evolution of (a) averaged distances between each residue and AuNP; (b) R_g of the peptide backbone; (c) secondary structure.

4.1 Interaction with a AuNP

Modelling details. Four well-tempered metadynamics^[183] runs under aqueous conditions were performed for both LL37-SH (LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLVPRTEESC) and LL37 (LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLVPRTES) specimens: two in presence of the AuNP and two in absence of the AuNP, the latter to be used as reference. The AMPs were firstly relaxed in aqueous solution for 50 ns at 323.15 K, and then at 298.15 K for further 50 ns. The resulting conformations were afterwards used as the initial structures for the subsequent simulations. All systems were pre-equilibrated using energy

minimization simulations. The box volume was relaxed for 100 ps in NpT ensemble under periodic boundary conditions. A box of 1500 nm³ (10 nm in xy and 15 nm in z) was prepared with the LL37-SH and a 4.2 nm diameter AuNP. For each system, well-tempered metadynamics was performed for 500 ns. Peptide radius of gyration (R_g) and peptide center of mass (COM) distance to the AuNP COM (d_{COM}) were chosen as collective variables (CVs), whereas for system without AuNP the R_g was the only CV used. The widths of the Gaussian function were set to 0.1 nm for the (R_g) and 0.2 nm for d_{COM} . The height of the Gaussian functions was set to 1 kJ mol⁻¹ and the bias potential was updated every 5 ps throughout the simulation. The temperature was set to 298.15 K with a bias factor of 10 K.

For the trajectory analysis the following GROMACS and PLUMED tools were used: **gmx covar** and **gmx ana eig** for conformational entropy calculations; **gmx sasa** for solvent accessible surface area calculations; **sum_hills** to sum the Gaussians deposited during the simulation in the HILLS file; **REWEIGHT_BIAS**, **HISTOGRAM** and **CONVERT_TO_FES** algorithms^[184] were used to reweight the FE energy profiles (similar approach is detailed by Klug et al.^[211]).

Results and discussion. The LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate is a system whose therapeutic activity for the enhanced wound healing was recently reported by Comune et al.^[2]. The authors demonstrated the improved activity of LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate compared to that of the soluble LL37-SH peptide, in consequence of a prolonged activation of EGFR in keratinocytes. An increase of the skin wound healing activity in an acute wound model was also reported for the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate. For these reasons, the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate is the main focus of the current discussion. Nevertheless, from a fundamental point of view, a complete analysis should also include the relevant parts of the system. Thus, results of the LL37/AuNP conjugate and LL37-SH and LL37 alone, will also be mentioned and discussed when appropriate. The analysis is based on four selected metrics: minimum distance between the centers of mass of peptides and AuNP, d_{COM} ; radius of gyration R_g ; end-to-end distance, $d_{\text{End-End}}$; and RMSD of the peptide backbones (the initial structure was used as reference). The discussion is organized as follows: 1) structural-related analysis; 2) free energy and entropy analysis; 3) LL37-SH bioactivity assessment.

Structural analysis

The profiles in Figure 4.2(a) show that both LL37-SH and LL37 peptides migrate to the gold surface within the first 20 ns. Overall, the peptides exhibit a typical three-stage behavior already reported in other studies^[3,32,39]. In the case of LL37-SH, the first stage, corresponding to the diffusion of the peptide, is characterized by the approximation of

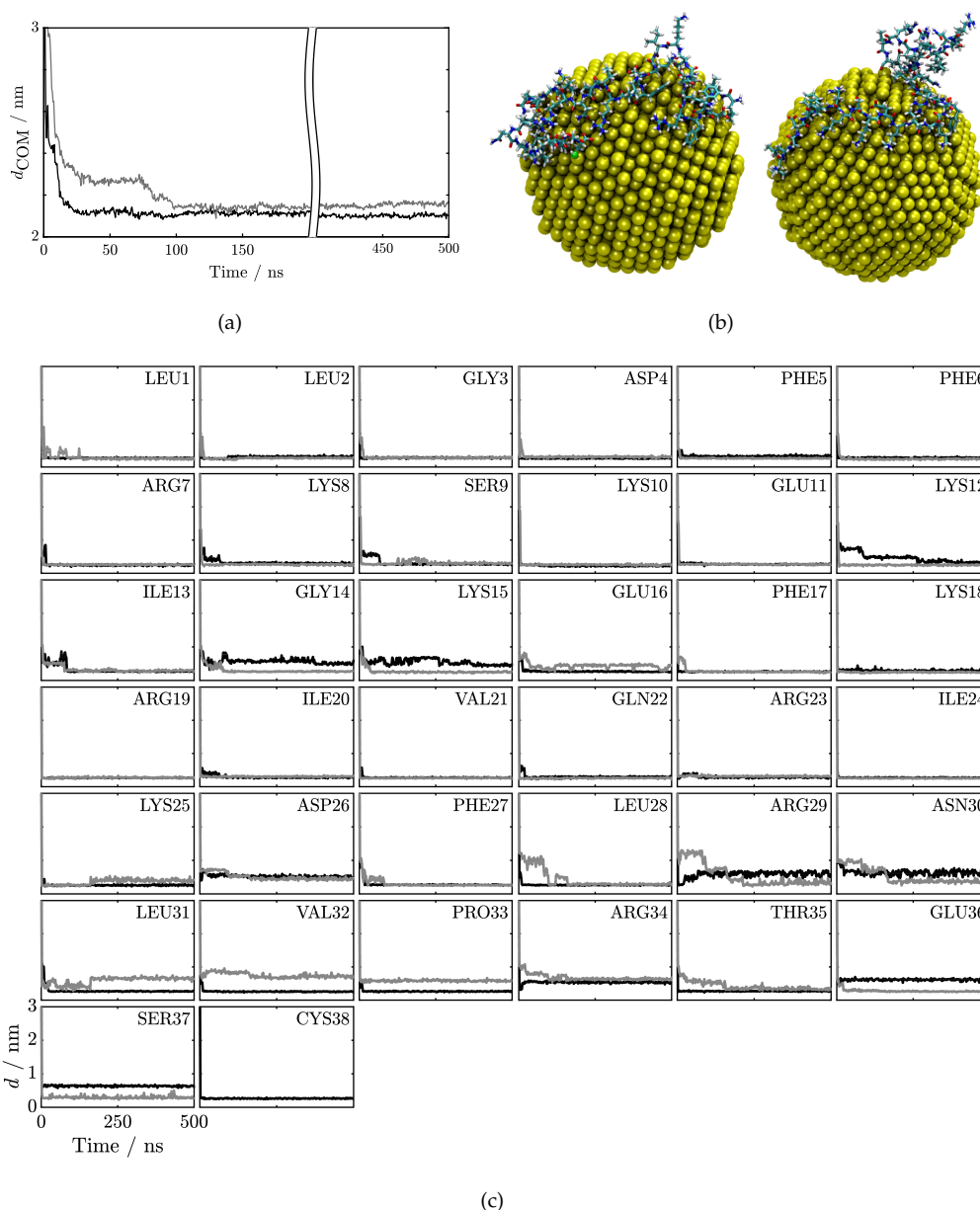


Figure 4.2: Time evolution of (a) distance between the centers of mass of peptides and AuNP (d_{COM}); (b) snapshot of the conjugates (LL37-SH left and LL37 right) for 50 ns of simulation; (c) distance of each residue to the AuNP for each peptide. (black - LL37-SH, gray - LL37)

the the peptide to the surface within the first 5 ns, after which the anchoring and step-wise lock-down to the surface occur (along the 5 ns to 100 ns interval). At the end of these two stages, the peptide is considered fully adsorbed to the surface, with limited rearrangement. Notably, the step-wise lock-down for LL37 takes longer times when compared to the LL37-SH (see Figure 4.2(a) and 4.2(c)). The time evolution of the distance of each residue to the surface is shown in Figure 4.2(c). Globally, both peptides display a similar behavior, with all the residues fastly moving towards the AuNP within the first few nanoseconds of the simulation. However, there are some distinct features near the

C-terminal. These differences are most likely caused by the presence of the CYS residue, whose strong interaction with the Au surface ends up conditioning the adjacent residues, and, consequently, their adsorption profiles (compared to those of LL37). In fact, the CYS residue itself adsorbs and locks to the AuNP at the very beginning of simulation time.

The information provided by $d_{\text{End-End}}$, RMSD and R_g (Figure 4.3) data, which not only give a clearer picture on the peptide evolution throughout the adsorption process, but also provide additional information regarding the conformational trend and arrangement of the LL37-SH, i.e. whether it remains elongated or folded. Again, the plateauing effect is observed in all metrics plotted in Figure 4.3, which demonstrates the convergence of the system to a stationary state. On the other hand, while the $d_{\text{End-End}}$ converges to ca. 3.40 nm in the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate, it arrives at ca. 1.84 nm in the case of the LL37-SH/AuNP. This is a clear indication that the adsorption of the peptide on the AuNP surface promotes its elongation, an effect which, however, is quite more pronounced for the LL37-SH when compared to LL37.

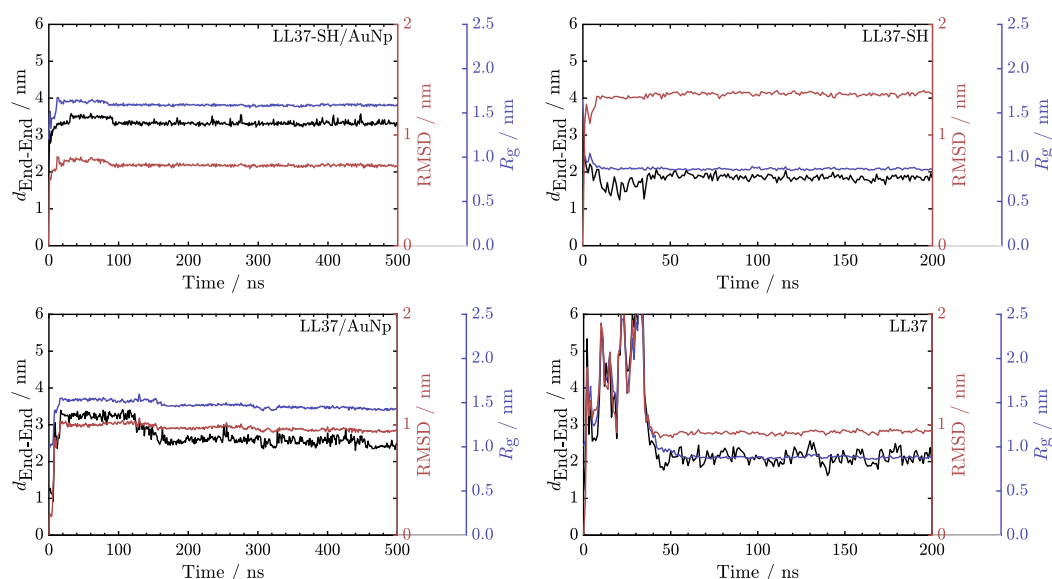


Figure 4.3: Time evolution of end-to-end distance ($d_{\text{End-End}}$), RMSD and R_g with the simulation time for LL37-SH/AuNP and LL37/AuNP conjugates (top and bottom left), LL37-SH and LL37 peptides (top and bottom right).

Free energy and entropy analysis

To check if the FES of the system was properly scanned, its value was determined as a function of the simulation time in terms of the selected CVs. At convergence, the reconstructed profiles should be similar. The outcome of this analysis is shown in Figure 4.4, where the profiles start to overlap from a simulation time of 400 ns, hence demonstrating that the system was properly sampled for the selected conditions. This, alongside the results previously described (Figs. 4.2 and 4.3), confirms that the simulation most likely

converged.

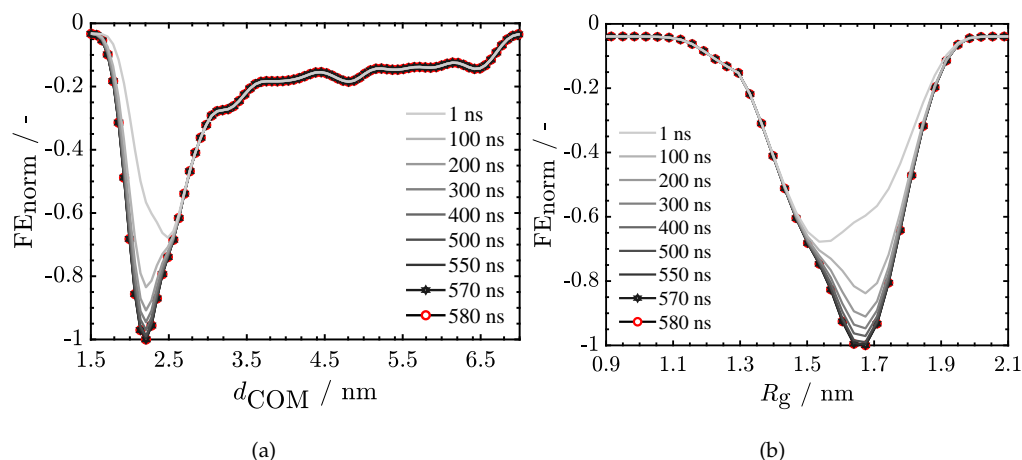


Figure 4.4: Normalized FE at different timestamps for the evaluated CVs and for the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate: (a) d_{COM} ; (b) R_g .

Figure 4.5(a) offers an overview of the reweighted FES (the raw FES, i.e., that was obtained before the reweight process, can be found in Fig. C.3 in Appendix C) as function of both CV, while Figs. 4.5(b) and 4.5(c) show the normalized Free Energy (FE_{norm}) as a function each each CV. A global minimum of $-31.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ occurs at $R_g = 1.62 \text{ nm}$ and $d_{COM} = 2.11 \text{ nm}$ in the case of LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate ($-31.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ at $1.55 \text{ nm } R_g$ and $2.16 \text{ nm } d_{COM}$ for LL37/AuNP). Figure 4.5(a) highlights the relation between R_g and d_{COM} (red curve). When LL37-SH is free the R_g value fluctuates between 1.3 to 1.5 nm. However, as it gets closer to the AuNP, this value increases, hitting the lowest free energy at 1.62 nm. The LL37 exhibits a much steadier value when free, around 1.16 nm, eventually hitting 1.55 nm near the surface. The tables with the FE values of both systems can be found in Appendix C.

The energy profiles for both CVs (Figure 4.5(b) and 4.5(c)) are mainly characterized by a single basin, meaning that the FES profile is not complex, and that the metadynamics approach was able to easily reach global minimum and properly describe the complete FES. Bellucci et al.^[34] used a similar methodology (metadynamics) to investigate the interaction of alanine dipeptide with a gold surface. Some shoulders in the FES profile for d_{COM} were reported, and the ascribed such a trend to the first contact of the peptide with the gold surface. In fact, for LL37 (Figure 4.5(b) gray curve), d_{COM} starts decreasing steadily from 4.5 nm onwards to the global minimum, but a small shoulder at ca. 2.8 nm is observed. This feature can be related with the first contact of the peptide with the surface and indicate that a metastable conjugate might occur during the adsorption process of the LL37 to the AuNP (two basins visible in Figure 4.5(a)). On the other hand, in the case of LL37-SH (Figure 4.5(b) black curve), d_{COM} decreases steadily up to 3.5 nm before a steeper descent to the global minimum. These FE profiles indicate that the LL37 peptide

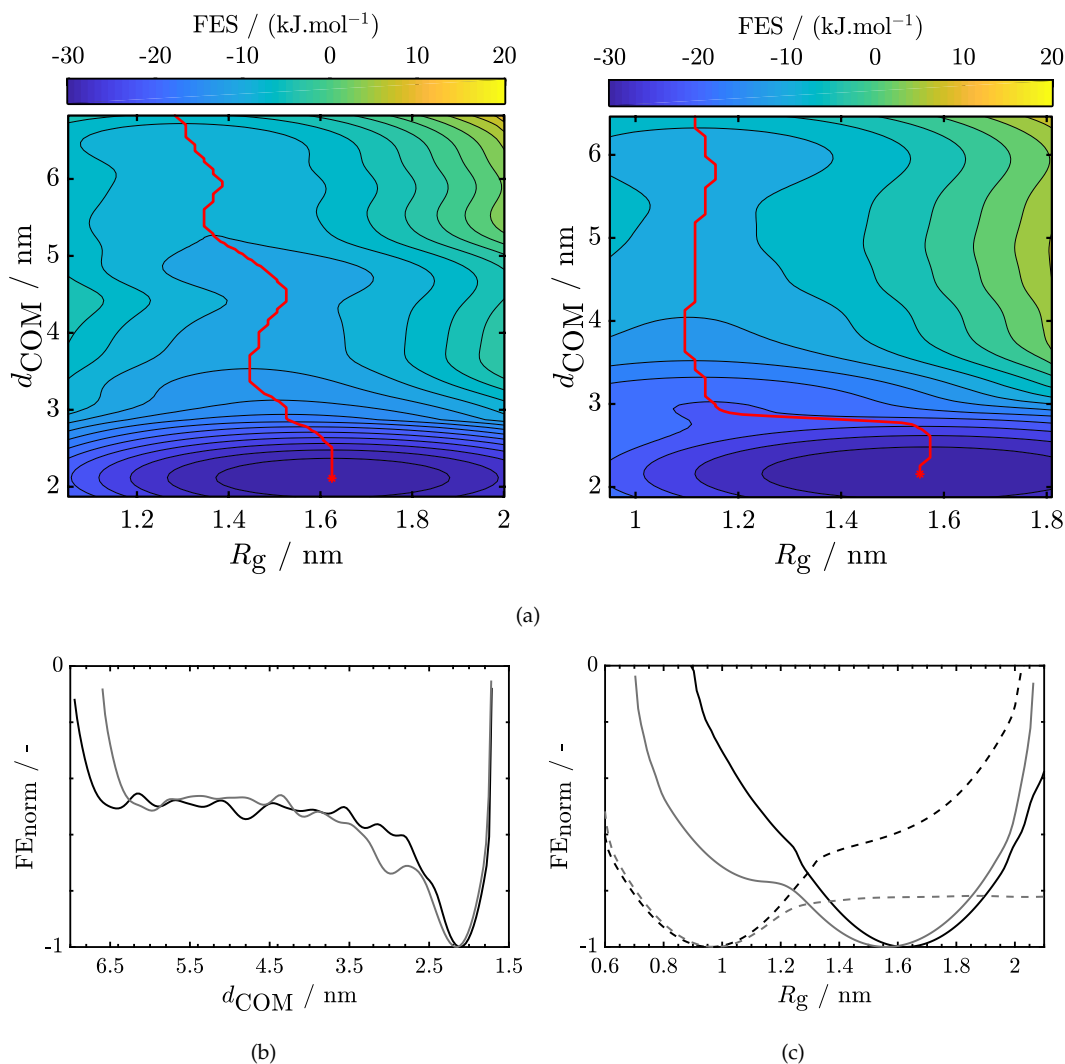


Figure 4.5: (a) Reweighted FES of the system taking into account both CVs for LL37-SH (left) and LL37 (right). Red curve indicate the path of lowest FES for each unique d_{COM} value. Normalized relative FE (reweighted) of the evaluated CVs: (b) (d_{COM}); (c) (R_g). (black - LL37-SH, gray - LL37)

can take a longer adsorption process, which is in consistent with the precedent analysis. Being CYS the only differentiating element between the peptides, its presence seems to have a noticeable effect in the formation of the conjugate, and the unveiled smoother FES shows that LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate is more easily achieved. A similar behavior, i.e. enhancement of the interaction of a AMP with a gold surface due to the presence of a CYS residue, was reported by Rai et al.^[1]

When comparing the R_g for both peptides, remarkable differences are found depending whether AMPs are in the presence of the AuNP or alone in water (Figure 4.5(c)). As the FE reaches the minimum, R_g tends to ca. 1.6 nm for both LL37-SH/AuNP and LL37/AuNP conjugates, whereas for the peptides alone that characteristic value decreases to ca. 1.0 nm. Hence, the AMPs in the presence of the AuNP are preferably elongated instead of folded, i.e. the AuNP has a great impact over the AMP structure, somehow com-

pensating the preferable energy state (characterized by lower R_g) of the LL37-SH or LL37 specimens alone. This result, combined with the data shown in Figure 4.3, demonstrate that LL37-SH tends to be elongated in the AuNP surface. In the light of these results, we postulate that the elongation of the peptide might lead to an increased availability of the more active functional groups compared to the free peptide, thus enhancing its activity. This inference is consistent with, and support, experimental evidences on these systems recently reported^[2].

With FES properly described for both conjugates, the conformational entropy of each peptide was determined. This metric is commonly used to assess a protein stability.^[212] It can be easily determined by evaluating the covariance matrix of Cartesian positional coordinates obtainable by computer simulation, namely from the Schlitter's equation (Eq. 4.1), which uses to the quasi-harmonic quantum mechanical formulation (S'):^[213]

$$S' = \frac{1}{2}k_B \ln \left(1 + \frac{k_B T e^2}{\hbar^2} m \langle x^2 \rangle_c \right). \quad (4.1)$$

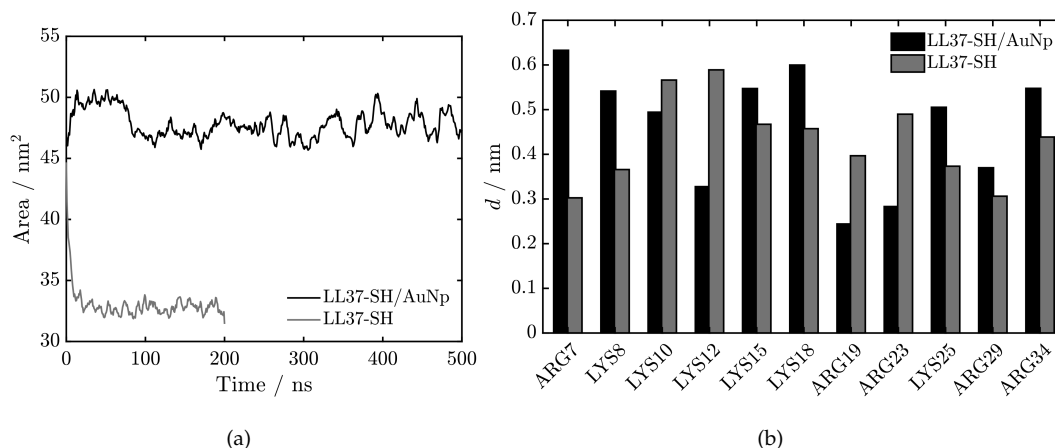
where k_B is Boltzmann's constant, T is the temperature, e is Euler's Number, $\hbar = h/2\pi$ (here h is Planck's constant), m is the mass and $\langle x^2 \rangle_c$ classical variance. By using the covariance matrix Cartesian positional coordinates, the method circumvents the need to express the entropy in internal coordinates, although at expenses of a somewhat lower accuracy^[214]. We believe that the fact of being a quite approximative approach is not a critical issue when used for comparative purposes, as the case. In fact, this approach has being extensively used on peptides^[215–219]. The conformational entropies (S_{conf}) for both peptides free ($S_{\text{conf}}^{\text{Free}}$) and interacting (adsorbed) with the AuNP ($S_{\text{conf}}^{\text{Ads}}$) were computed for the last 5 ns. The results are summarized in Table 4.1. The values for the free peptides reveal a significant loss in entropy. Being the incorporation of CYS (i.e., on going from LL37 to LL37-SH) the only difference between the peptides, this loss is probably consequence of an additional intramolecular stabilization potentiated by that residue. The loss in S_{conf} observed after the adsorption (both peptides) is explained by the decrease of flexibility, i.e. internal degrees of freedom, caused by the structural lock of the peptides into the AuNP. When confronting the two entries of Table 4.1, it appears that the adsorption process has a higher impact in the LL37-SH conformation flexibility, probably due to the strong interaction between cysteine and the AuNP. A detailed analysis of this interaction, however, requires to consider not only entropic effects but also enthalpic issues, notably a presumed covalent binding involving the CYS and the metal surface. The later topic can not be afforded by classical molecular dynamics and therefore is out of the scope of this study.

Table 4.1: Conformational entropy of the peptide backbone using Schlitter's quasi-harmonic approximation.

	$S_{\text{conf}}^{\text{Free}}$ ($\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)	$S_{\text{conf}}^{\text{Ads}}$ ($\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)
LL37-SH	6275.48	5154.60
LL37	6616.61	5592.82

LL37-SH bioactivity assessment

Aiming at understanding the reasoning behind the higher antimicrobial activity of the LL37-SH adsorbed to the AuNP than its free counterpart recently reported^[2], the solvent accessible surface area (SASA) and the distance of the positively charged functional groups to the peptide backbone was computed. The SASA values refer the total solvent accessible

**Figure 4.6:** (a) Solvent accessible surface area; and (b) distance of the positively charged functional groups to the peptide backbone for the LL37-SH with the AuNP and alone.

surface area if a molecule was in a bulk solvent alone. This means that this value is not affected when LL37-SH adsorbs to the AuNP surface. Therefore, a decrease of the SASA would represent a compaction of the peptide structure with a decreasing in its surface area, rather than a contact between the peptide and surface with the subsequent exclusion of water^[220,221]. However, as it can be seen in Figure 4.6(a), the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate has a substantially higher SASA, which indicates that the LL37-SH peptide alone tends to fold. Thus, the AuNP induces the LL37-SH to adopt a more elongated conformation, which is expected to promote an increased availability of the functional groups to interact with cells. This was further explored by assessing the location of the positively charged functional groups relatively to the peptide backbone. In fact, considering that positively charged residues play an important role in the AMP activity^[222,223], the understanding of its location is crucial. The LL37-SH AMP, among other residues, has multiple arginine and a single lysine. These two residues are characterized by being positively charged. At the

atomistic level, the functional groups responsible for this charge are guanidino group of arginine, and a protonated amine in lysine. Thus, the distance between these groups, 11 in total, to the peptide backbone was computed for the last 10 ns of simulation. The average values for each system are resumed in Figure 4.6(b) (error bars are not shown do to their low values, around 0.01% for the highest value). Overall, for LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate 7 of the 11 functional groups are further away from the AMP backbone when compared to LL37-SH alone. This clearly suggests that the LL37-SH adsorbed to the AuNP tends to have the positive side chains more available to interact with biological systems. Thus, these two factors – i) the tendency to be elongated and; ii) having the positively charged side chains more available – form a quite plausible explanation for the enhanced activity of LL37-SH when adsorbed on a AuNPs.

4.2 Conjugate and biomembrane

Modelling details. Two 200 ns simulations of a system with 20 peptides and AuNP were performed at first. The purpose of these simulations was twofold: i) to estimate how many peptides can adsorb to the surface a 4.3 nm AuNP; ii) to prepare a LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate to be added to the bilayer as an input for the system **BL+AMP/NP** (see below).

Four distinct systems were simulated for analysis purposes. The first (**BL**, the control system to be used as baseline) consists in the bilayer itself neutralized in water, and the second in a stabilized bilayer to study the interaction of a bare AuNP with it (**BL+NP**). The remaining two systems are both formed by the bilayer and 12 LL37-SH peptides. In one case the peptides are dispersed in the simulation box (no AuNP in the system, **BL+AMP**), while in the other case the 12 peptides are adsorberd in the AuNP (**BL+AMP/NP**). This approach potentiate the assessment of the effect of the each component on the bilayer, apart from the conjugate itself. Due the system dimensions, particularly large in some of the cases, the simulation times were adjusted individually in order to produce runs with the duration strictly needed to probe the intended dynamics. Therefore, the he simulations were carried out for 200 ns for **BL**, 600 ns for **BL+NP**, 400 ns for **BL+AMP**, and 1500 ns for **BL+AMP/NP**.

Results and discussion. Starting with the preparation of the LL37-SH/AuNP, it was found that 12 of the 20 peptides inserted in the system adsorbed to the AuNP after 200 ns of simulation (this result was identical in two performed simulations). Snapshots of the final LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate are shown in Fig. 4.7.

The obtained LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate had a concentration of 0.19 LL37-SH per nm² of AuNP surface (141 g of LL37-SH per mg of AuNP). Assuming that the number of peptides adsorbed into a AuNP scales linearly with its surface area, one could anticipate that a 21 nm AuNP, i.e. as those reported recently by Comune et al.^[2], would be able to accom-

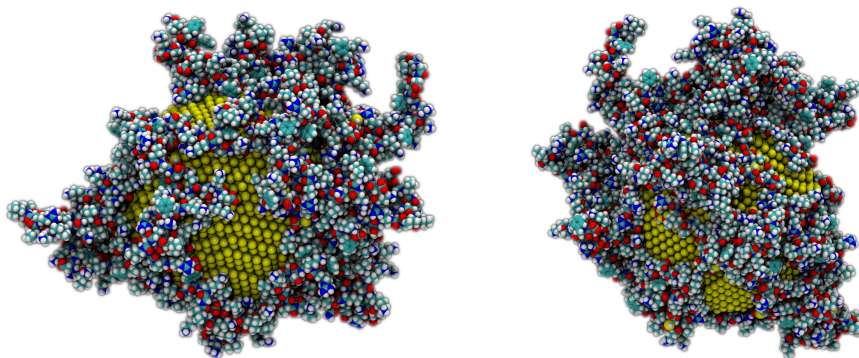


Figure 4.7: Schematic overview of the obtained LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate.

modate ca. 260 peptides. This theoretical value differs considerably from that reported experimentally on the basis of spectroscopic data, viz. 154 peptides per AuNP. This can be explained by some limitations in both the experimental and theoretical approaches in assessing that concentration. Regarding the model, it corresponds to an ideal scenario, in which, strictly speaking, neither the assumed linear scale mentioned above nor the simulated LL37-SH peptides inserted near to the AuNP to promote the adsorption process have an experimental counterpart. Nevertheless, we assume here a somehow ideal condition in which a 21 nm should be able to capture 260 LL37-SH peptides.

The area per lipid (A_{lip}) is a basic metric used when investigating systems with bilayers. It describes the bilayer microstructure with regard to lipids packing, because of its high sensitivity to hydrophilic attraction between head groups and hydrophobic repulsion between non-polar hydrocarbon tails.^[224] The A_{lip} is influenced by the selected lipid formulation and by external stimuli (e.g. temperature fluctuation or interaction with external molecules such as proteins). Additionally, the bilayer thickness (D_{HH}) combined with A_{lip} helps in the identification of bilayer microstructure alterations. Phosphorus and oxygen atoms (atoms in the water-bilayer interface region) from the lipidic and cholesterol compositions, respectively, are used as reference in the APL@Voro tool to compute A_{lip} and D_{HH} (Fig. 4.8).

Starting with the baseline system (**BL**) we can observe that both (0.5nm^2) A_{lip} and (4.0nm) D_{HH} profiles are fairly stable. The fact that these profiles do not present any major swift indicates that the bilayer is stabilized. The introduction of the 12 LL37-SH into the **BL+AMP** system leads to a slight increase in A_{lip} after 180-200 ns of simulation, although without change in D_{HH} . This can be explained by the migration of the AMPs to the bilayer surface, thus occupying free spaces and, consequently, pushing the lipids and increasing the A_{lip} . However, a different behavior is identified for the systems with a AuNP (**BL+NP** and **BL+AMP/NP**).

The **BL+NP** system exhibits a steep decrease in A_{lip} almost immediately after the start of the simulation. The magnitude of this variation suggests that some kind of substantial

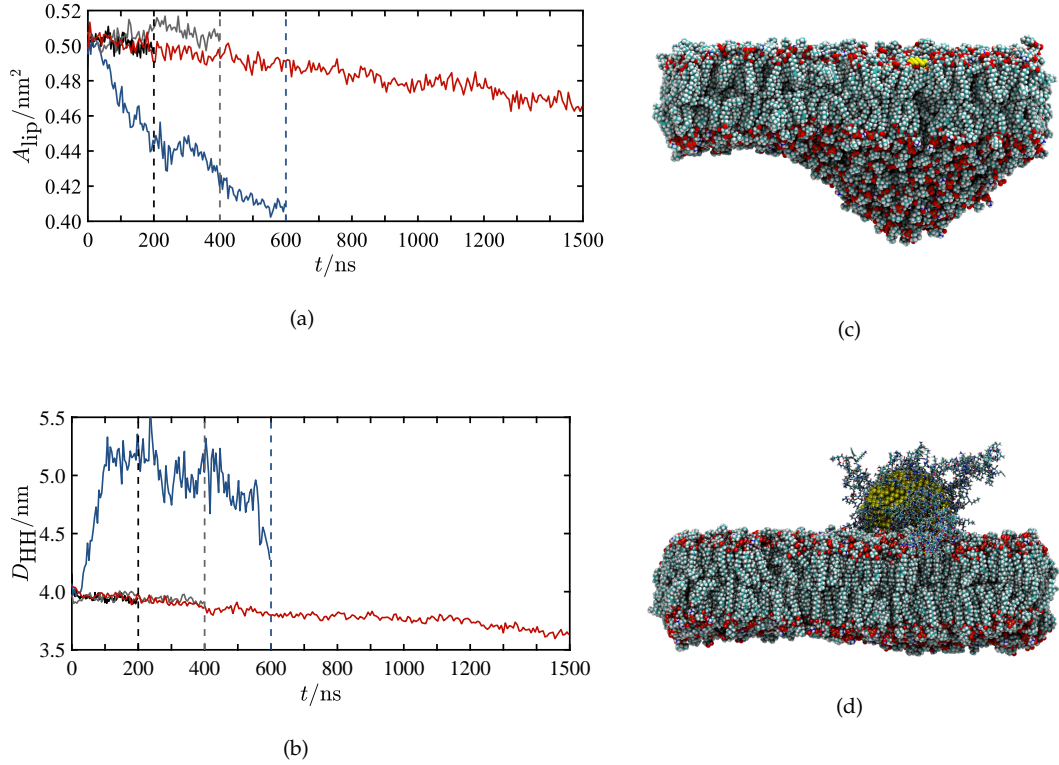


Figure 4.8: Evolution of the bilayer properties: (a) A_{lip} averaged between the bilayer leaflets and (b) D_{HH} using phosphorus and oxygen atoms as reference. Snapshots of the end conformations of the (c) **BL+NP** and (d) **BL+AMP/NP** systems. (— **BL**, — **BL+AMP**, — **BL+NP**, — **BL+AMP/NP**)

alteration of the bilayer structure takes place. After evaluating the trajectories, it is possible to observe that the AuNP interacts with the bilayer causing major deformations in its surface by permeating partially (Fig. 4.8(c)). This is corroborated by the increase in D_{HH} , which indicates that the AuNP permeates the bilayer and pushes the leaflets away from each other. A similar behavior was reported by Chen et al.^[225] and Mhashal et al.^[226] for neutral NPs. Therefore, we postulate that the deformation is caused by the adhesion of the lipids to the AuNP (similarly to the adsorption of the AMPs). Since organic nature of the lipids forming the bilayer makes them prone to adsorb strongly to the surface. In fact, when evaluating the number of solvent molecules near the AuNP surface at the start and at the end of the simulation (Fig. 4.9) a substantial decrease is encountered. This means that the lipids are displacing the water molecules near the AuNP to adsorb to its surface. This suggests that the adsorption mechanic might have some similarities to that of the AMPs.

The simulation results for the system **BL+AMP/NP** shows a less pronounced effect in the bilayer. The conjugate does not permeate the bilayer, remaining over its surface along a physical simulation time of 1500 ns (Fig. 4.8(d)). This could be expected considering that the conjugate has a larger surface area and volume than the bare AuNP, thus requiring more time to displace the bilayer lipids^[123]. Nevertheless, a constant decrease of the A_{lip}

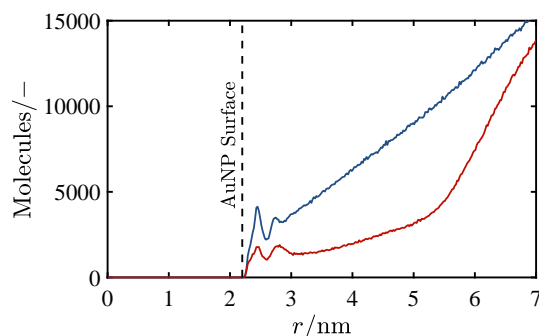


Figure 4.9: Distribution of the solvent molecules as a function of the distance to the AuNP center of mass radius. (— First and — last 1 ns of simulation.)

and D_{HH} can be easily identified (Fig. 4.8). The less pronounced effect that the conjugate has in bilayer properties, when compared to the bare AuNP, can only be attributed to the presence of LL37-SH on its surface. As a matter of fact, we postulate that this behavior is related to the AuNP surface being already saturated with LL37-SH and, therefore, not able to displace the lipids by adsorption (as observed in the **BL+NP** system). This hypothesis is further supported by the constant decrease of the D_{HH} metric, indicating that the conjugate is pulling the bilayer leaflets closer instead of displacing the lipids.

The density profiles of the systems were calculated for the last 2 ns of simulation. With the density profiles, one can pinpoint the the exact location of a given component (group of molecules, molecule or atom) in the simulation box. This is particularly useful for systems with structured materials, such as bilayers and nanoparticles, because it allows to understand their position with fine detail. The density profiles are compiled in the Fig. 4.10. Starting with the density profile of the **BL** system (Fig. 4.10(a)), the obtained profiles are in line with what expected for a bilayer. Bilayer systems are characterized by two symmetric density peaks (red curve) due to the polar groups (phosphorus and oxygen atoms of lipid and cholesterol, respectively) of each leaflet that are located in the interface with water. Between these peaks is located the lipids hydrophobic zone, characterized by the absence of water (blue curve) in this region. Using this profile as baseline, it is clear that the addition of the AuNP to the system, **BL+NP** system (Fig. 4.10(b)), severely affects the bilayer microstructure. The AuNP (yellow curve) is partially inside the bilayer and, consequently, the bilayer polar groups are pushed to the center of the bilayer, leading to the appearance of water molecules in the hydrophobic region of the bilayer. Nonetheless, if we evaluate the coordinates of the center of mass of the AuNP for the last 100 ns of simulation (Fig. 4.11) we can see that the nanoparticle is barely moving, indicating that the system converged to a stable complex.

The density profiles for the **BL+AMP** and **BL+AMP/NP** systems have two additional curves. The black curve describes the LL37-SH peptide residues with hydrophobic side-chains (ILE, LEU, PHE and VAL), and the gray curve is referred to the remaining LL37-SH

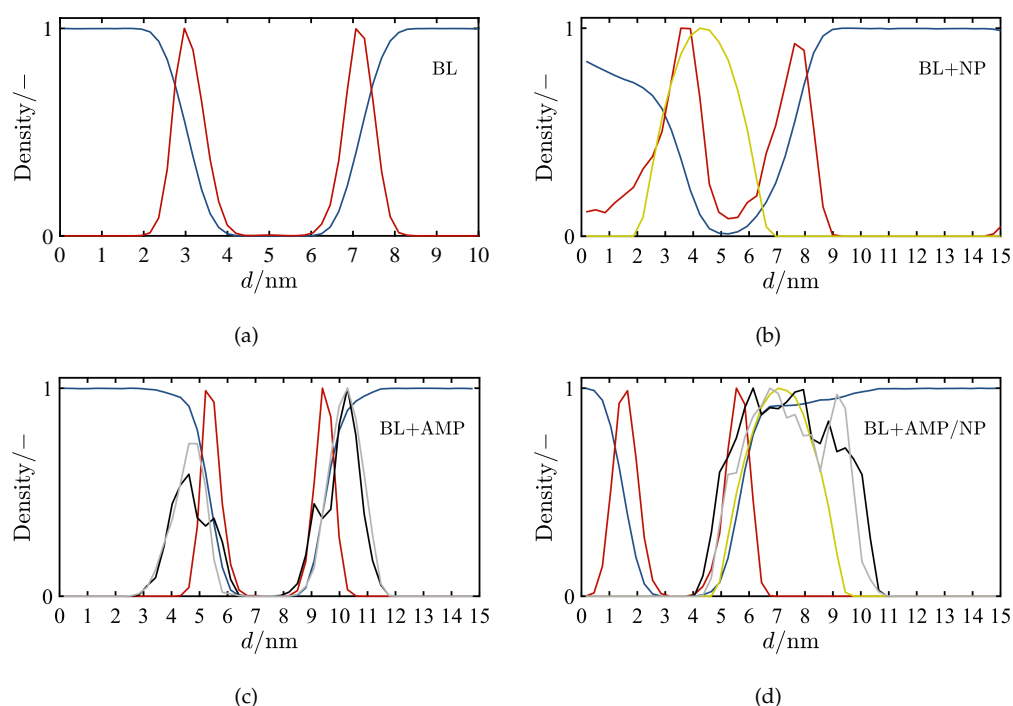


Figure 4.10: Normalized density profiles, over the zz axes, for simulated systems: (a) **BL**; (b) **BL+NP**; (c) **BL+AMP**; (d) **BL+AMP/NP**. (— Water, — Bilayer head zone, — AuNP, — LL37-SH residues with hydrophobic side-chain, — LL37-SH residues with hydrophilic side-chain)

residues. Analyzing the results for the **BL+AMP** system (Fig. 4.10(c)), we can see that all AMPs migrated to the bilayer surface. Comparing the residue types, it is clear that the hydrophobic residues tend to be closer to the center of the bilayer. Expectedly, the residues with hydrophobic side-chain orient themselves to the center of the bilayer (also hydrophobic) acting as an anchor for the remaining peptide. Since only 13 out of the 38 residues have hydrophobic character, the AMP remains in the interface and does not fully permeate the bilayer. By remaining in the interface, the AMPs are capable to move freely in the bilayer surface without detaching (Figs. 4.11(c) and 4.11(d)). A similar behavior is identified for the **BL+AMP/NP** system which, unlike the bare AuNP, moves freely over the bilayer surface. This capability can be associated to the AMPs adsorbed in its surface which: i) occupy the gold surface precluding a direct interaction with the lipids; ii) the AMP hydrophobic side-chains are oriented to the bilayer center (Fig. 4.10(d)), anchoring the conjugate to the bilayer surface.

Finally, the lipid alkyl tails order parameter (S_{CD}) and the simulation box charge density of non-Water components were determined. The S_{CD} provide information regarding the flexibility of the lipid alkyl tails. Only the results for the SN1 tail are displayed because the tendencies are similar to the SN2. High S_{CD} values indicate that the lipids are more stiff and, therefore, the bilayer is less fluid. The charge density allows to map the distribution of charges throughout the simulation, in this case, with emphasis in the bi-

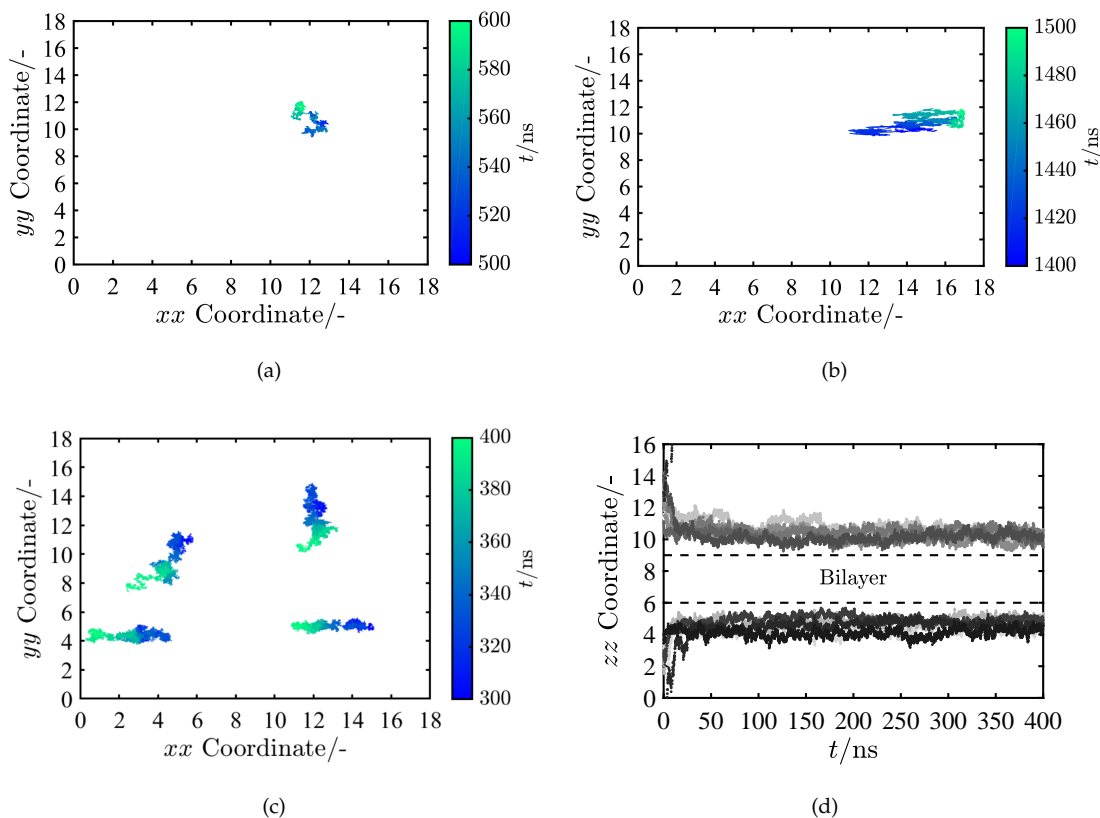


Figure 4.11: Coordinates of the AuNP center of mass: (a) **BL+NP**; (b) **BL+AMP/NP**; and of the center of mass of 4 representative LL37-SH (c) **BL+AMP** for the last 100 ns of simulation. (d) zz coordinate for the LL37-SH peptides (each color curve is one peptide) during the simulation. The coordinate scales are concordant with the simulation box dimension.

layer. The analysis output is summarized in Fig. 4.12. Comparing the order parameter (Fig. 4.12(a)) between systems, it is clear that only the **BL+NP** system presents a substantial difference from the baseline. This difference is characterized by a decreasing in S_{CD}

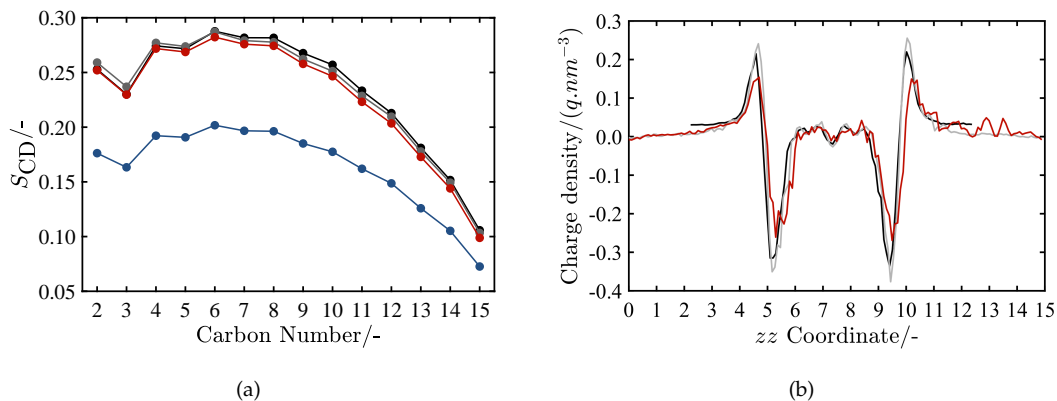


Figure 4.12: (a) S_{CD} per atom for SN1 carbon tail. (b) System, water not included, charge density. Metrics computed for the last 5 ns of simulation. (— **BL**, — **BL+AMP**, — **BL+NP**, — **BL+AMP/NP**)

for all the carbons in SN1 tail, indicating that the bilayer is less structured. This outcome is a consequence of the deformation caused by the AuNP in the bilayer. The remaining systems exhibit nothing but a slight decrease in the S_{CD} , which can be clearly identified for the **BL+AMP/NP** system. Again, this less pronounced reduction can be ascribed to the LL37-SH corona which prevents direct contact between the gold and the bilayer. As far the charge density is concerned (Fig. 4.12(b)), distinct behaviors for **BL+AMP** and **BL+AMP/NP** system can be identified when using the **BL+NP** system profile as baseline. The profile is characterized by a positive peak, at around 4.5 nm and 10 nm, induced by the N^+ atom in the choline group and a negative peak, at ca. 5 nm and 9.5 nm, promoted by the O^- atom in the phosphate group. These peaks become more pronounced with the addition of free LL37-SH to the system (**BL+AMP**). This suggests that, by remaining in the bilayer-water interface, the AMPs are affecting the structure of the bilayer head region. The opposite effect is verified for the **BL+AMP/NP** system, with the peaks being less pronounced. This lead us to believe that, despite the LL37-SH corona, the conjugate disturbs the bilayer head region.

When comparing the computed results with data obtained experimentally, noticeable differences are found in the behavior of LL37-SH/AuNP when interacting with the keratinocytes. Comune et al.^[2] have demonstrate that the conjugates are internalized by the keratinocytes, a feature not identified by the simulation approach. The discrepancy can be explained by the somehow departure of the model from the actual scenario. On the one hand, strictly speaking the bilayer does not mimic the real biomembrane (which also includes elements such as proteins and carbohydrates, among others). On the other hand, the conjugate described experimentally is said to have a lower concentration of AMPs compared to that used in the model (0.11 vs. 0.19 LL37-SH per nm^2 of AuNP surface). We speculate that the experimental conjugate might have more free gold surface exposed to a direct contact with the biomembrane, and as it was discussed above the direct contact between the bilayer and the AuNP promotes severe lipid displacement leading to its internalization. Further studies are still needed in any case.

4.3 Conclusion

The assessment of the adsorption process of the LL37-SH into a AuNP allowed to rationalize the computational approach used thereafter. By comparing the diffusion profiles it was found that the adsorption process is rather similar in both CM-SH and LL37-SH AMPs. However, since the latter has a longer chain, the simulation time required to the peptide adopt a fully stabilized state is higher. The peptide C-terminal tends to adsorb faster to the AuNP, a consequence of the presence the CYS residue. No distinct secondary structure was identified for LL37-SH at the simulated conditions, i.e. water solvent at

pH 7.

The interaction of a cathelicidin-derived antimicrobial peptide with a AuNP and the activity of the subsequently formed conjugate was investigated from atomistic-scale simulations by using well-tempered metadynamics. The temporal analysis of d_{COM} , $d_{\text{End-End}}$, RMSD and R_g data showed that the cathelicidin with CYS (LL37-SH) tends to adsorb and stabilize onto the AuNP faster than LL37. The S_{conf} analysis showed that the AuNP has a substantial effect on the conformational entropy of both peptides, whose values decrease when adsorbed. Some differences between LL37-SH and LL37 were also found, with the CYS residue reducing the S_{conf} of the peptide both free and adsorbed. The FES in terms of d_{COM} and R_g as CVs evidenced a comparable landscape for both peptides, although a secondary low energy site has been identified in the case of LL37, indicating a possible occurrence of metastable LL37/AuNP. Again, the incorporation of CYS in the base peptide appeared to have a noticeable effect in the formation of the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate, as suggested by a smoother FES.

The comparative simulation of the LL37-SH free in water helped in unveiling the effect of the AuNP on this peptide. The results showed a dramatic decreasing in R_g (ca. 50 %) in the absence of the AuNP, meaning that the peptide is preferably elongated after being adsorbed to the AuNP. This was confirmed by the comparative analysis based on the solvent accessible surface area for the free LL37-SH and in the presence of the AuNP. Together, the revealed elongation and the identified readiness of antimicrobial functional groups in the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate explain the reported enhanced activity of the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate when compared to the LL37-SH peptide *per se*.

The assessment of the interaction of the LL37-SH/AuNP, and its components, with a keratinocyte bilayer was probed, totalizing almost 3 μs of simulation time. The bilayer modelled to match the lipid-cholesterol composition of a keratinocyte cell, **BL** system, presented typical A_{lip} , D_{HH} and density profiles. The addition of the AuNP to the system (**BL+NP**) caused major deformations in the bilayer. Almost instantly the AuNP migrates to the bilayer surface and starts displacing the lipids. This displacement leads to a decrease of A_{lip} and an increase of D_{HH} , and the AuNP eventually migrates partially to the bilayer interior. Considering this behavior, and the fact that the lipids are adsorbing to the AuNP by displacing the water in its surface, an adsorption mechanism similar to that for AMPs is anticipated.

When comparing the system with the AuNP with the system with the conjugate (**BL+AMP/NP**), a substantial less dramatic effect on the bilayer in the latter case is found. The nanoparticle corona formed by the LL37-SH shields the AuNP from the lipids. Due to this shielding effect the conjugate does not permeate the bilayer but remains in its surface. As a consequence the charge distribution in the bilayer-water interface is disturbed by the conjugate. On the other hand, the free LL37-SH (**BL+AMP**) intensifies the charge distri-

bution peaks in the bilayer-water interface. This intensification occurs because LL37-SH remains consistently in the bilayer surface. The density profiles show that the residues with hydrophobic side-chain are oriented to the bilayer interior. Hence, when the peptide migrates to the bilayer surface, these residues act as an anchor hampering its release back to the solvent.

5. Conclusion

Despite modern medicine advances, infections are still the second leading cause of death worldwide, namely as a consequence of an extensive use of drugs, such as antibiotics, which, in turn, has led to the emergence of multidrug resistant of common pathogens. Thus, besides developing new drugs, it is also mandatory to optimize existing ones in order to yield high effectiveness with lower dosage. Among other possibilities, AMPs present a great potential in this framework. Nonetheless, AMPs lack stability and targeting capabilities, which has motivated the use of nanocarriers to improve their characteristics. In this context, AuNPs were found to be great nanocarriers for AMPs.

The computational investigation of the cysteine-terminated AMPs here reported was divided in three vectors: i) study of the adsorption process *per se*; ii) free energy investigation using advanced sampling methods; iii) interaction of AMP/AuNP conjugates with a biomembrane mimetic model. Each topic was tackled from different methodologies in order to address the systems specificities. The chosen metrics extracted from the selected molecular modelling and simulation scenarios allowed to unveil new details on the target systems as summarized below.

Study of the adsorption process *per se*. The adsorption process presents a similar dynamic behavior for both AMPs investigated, with the approaching distance to the gold surface resembling an exponential decay. The overall process is segmented in four regimes: i) unbiased diffusion – free diffusion of the AMP in the solvent –; ii) biased diffusion – diffusion of the AMP influenced by the gold surface attraction field –; iii) anchoring – partial attachment of the AMP to the gold surface –; and iv) lockdown – structural lockdown of the AMP in the gold surface, i.e. formation of AMP/gold conjugate –. The results show that the way the peptides approach the surface dictates the final conformation and the time required to achieve it. Nonetheless, a higher affinity between the AMPs and the gold surface was found for the protons bound to α -carbons, characterized by a higher frequency of contacts to the gold surface during the simulations.

Globally, the simulation time required to assess the adsorption process was higher for the LL37 than for the CM. This is consequence of the higher number of residues in the LL37 AMP, leading to a slower diffusion and lockdown regimes. Comparing both surface topologies tested, slab vs. NP, the dynamic behavior of the system was found to be similar. Nonetheless, some residues, such as PHE, present a higher affinity to the NP. Similarly, no changes in the dynamic behavior were identified for different NP diameters (2, 4, and 6 nm).

Ultimately, it was demonstrated that the presence of cysteine (CYS) at the C-terminus

plays a stabilization role on the later stages of the adsorption process. The CYS residue promotes a faster stabilization of the CM-SH peptide, when compared to its CM counterpart, without significantly affecting the diffusion regime. Unlike the other residues, CYS was found consistently binded to the surface with negligible occurrences of detachment back to the solvent. In fact, in the multiplicity of the performed simulations the CYS residue adsorbed and locked to the gold surface at the very beginning of the simulation.

Free energy investigation using advanced sampling methods. The free energy characterization allowed to identify the local and global minima of the various studied systems, thus consolidating the results obtained using the standard approach. The selected CVs – R_g and d_{COM} – were crucial to understand how the FE varies with the distance between the entities (AMP and AuNP) and if the AMP is preferably folded or elongated. The obtained FES landscape showed that all the AMPs have, invariably, a lower FE for lower d_{COM} . This result substantiates the data obtained by standard MD, quantitatively demonstrating that the AMPs are preferably adsorbed to the surface. While the results for the d_{COM} were similar for all the AMPs, a different outcome was observed for the R_g .

In the present of a AuNP, it was found that the AMPs are preferably elongated instead of folded. The conjugate formed by the AMPs and AuNP exhibits a lower FE for higher R_g , than their free counterparts. We postulate that this elongation is promoted by the strong attraction of the AuNP, overriding any structural conformation previously established by the AMP. Additionally, the FES also demonstrates that the CYS terminated AMPs (CM-SH and LL37-SH) have a even higher R_g value than their counterparts (CM and LL37). This result is specially relevant when assessing the AMP bioactivity, since elongated AMPs are expected to have a higher availability of the functional groups to interact with cells.

Undoubtedly, the use of the metadynamics algorithm presents multiple advantages over the standard approach. However, possibly as a consequence of the small residue chains studied, the FE of R_g and d_{COM} are rather smooth and have distinct global minima. This indicates that a long enough classical MD run should be able to probe the complete energy spectrum, thus avoiding the bias potentials that characterizes the metadynamics. Therefore, one can assume that both metadynamics and standard MD approaches are both plausible frameworks to study the interaction of small peptides with gold surfaces, which is a technical detail that should not be underestimated.

Interaction of AMP/AuNP conjugates with a biomembrane. The affinity of the LL37-SH/AuNP conjugate with the bilayer was investigated by simulating the interaction of a keratinocyte bilayer with the conjugate and their components (this investigation was critically demanding due to both the system dimensions and intrinsic dynamics, and, consequently, the simulation time required to probe the phenomena). The results show that the keratinocyte model presents the typical behavior of a bilayer. The addition of the

bare AuNP to the system lead to major deformations to the bilayer, most likely caused by the adsorption of the lipids to the NP surface (similar to that observed in the case of AMPs). On the other hand, the systems with AMP appear to have a much less harsh effect in the bilayer properties. The corona formed by the LL37-SH shields the lipids from the AuNP, thus preventing the bilayer deformation. As consequence, only a slight disturbance in the bilayer surface charges was identified. In contrast, the migration of the free LL37-SH to the bilayer surface leads to an intensification of the charge distribution peaks in the bilayer-water interface. This behavior indicates that the free AMP might have a stabilizing effect in bilayer.

Prospective challenges Considering the conclusions outlined above and the evolution of the simulation algorithms and hardware during the last years, one can envisage the following tasks as future work.

1. **Resort to QM/MM to assess thiol-gold interaction.** Cysteine residues are known to interact strongly with the gold, forming chemical bonds by means of the thiol functional group. The used approaches, classical MD and metadynamics, present a good solution to understand the system at an atomistic level while providing insights about overall tendencies at a higher scale. However, these approaches fall short when trying to simulate chemical reactivity. *Ab initio* MD is not, and will not be in the near future, a feasible alternative in virtue of the prohibitive computational load, which precludes the simulation of systems as large as those tackled in this thesis. In this situation, hybrid QM/MM methods^[227,228] can be used to investigate strategic sections of the systems at a quantum mechanics (QM) level of theory. By combining QM with molecular mechanics (MM), these hybrid methods allow to simulate electronic effects (including bond breaking/formation) for the portion described by QM while the remaining system is described by MM. An alternative would be to build a model of the AMP/AuNP conjugate with the AMP already chemically bonded to the AuNP by means of the thiol group.
2. **Enhance conjugates FES by testing more CVs.** The selected CVs – R_g and d_{COM} – are a solid choice when investigating adsorption processes. The d_{COM} CV allows to understand the variation of the FE with distance between the entities involved in the adsorption process, while R_g provides information about the structural organization of the AMPs. However, these results might be substantially enriched with the assessment of more CVs, although at expenses of more and more computational load. The description of CV such as **CONTACTMAP** (map the number of contacts between entities), **CS2BACKBONE** (AMP backbone chemical shifts), **TORSION** (torsional angles between residues) and **DHENERGY** (Debye-Huckel interaction energy between user defined groups) should wide the knowledge on the investigated systems.

Additionally, data such as AMP backbone chemical shifts could potentially help to rationalize corresponding experimental data.

- 3. Leverage coarse-grain models to further explore bilayer systems.** In order to mimic the interaction of nanostructured materials, such as NPs and bilayers, it is required to: i) have a system large enough to house all the components (volume in the region of multiple dozens of nm^3); ii) produce long enough runs to capture the complete phenomena taking place (probably tens of μs). This implies the availability of a powerful computer cluster allocated for several months. In fact, this is a challenge faced when simulating bilayer systems, which requires, in some cases (as in the current study), multiple months of computational time. One way to work around this issue is to resort to coarse-grain models, with the MARTINI force-field^[229,230] presenting the greatest potential. Nowadays, most common molecules (lipids, polymers, amino acids, DNA, RNA, etc.) have already a coarse-grain force-field described. By approaching molecular functional groups or sections of molecules to a single particle, coarse-grain models allow to dramatically decrease the number of particles in the system. This translates into a substantial reduction of computational load, allowing the production of large simulation runs in a fraction of computation time. However, it should be stressed that this simplification of the molecular model entails the loss of atomistic level detail.

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Appendix

A. MD generic workflow

A deeper overview of the modelling and simulation processed will be presented in this section. Although GROMACS code was the selected code for the demonstration, the overall process comparable to other MD codes. The workflow presented in figure 2.10 should be used as support for the following description.

Usually the modelling process starts with the *pdb2gmx* command. With this script GROMACS reads an external *.pdb* file (extracted for databases such as *Protein DataBank*), which contains the information about the molecule (atoms types and their coordinates), and generates a *.gro* and *.top* file. The *.gro* is just a structural rearrangement of the information in the *.pdb* file in order to GROMACS to be able to read them. Taking arginine as an example, a section of the *.pdb* and *.gro* files are presented in the listings A.1 and A.2 respectively. Despite the structural modifications, both files contain the molecule name, atom types and their coordinates (the coordinates do not match because GROMACS uses the pre-optimized structure from its database).

Listing A.1: *.pdb* file of arginine.

```

ATOM  1  N  ARG  1  14.090  20.800  11.010
ATOM  2  H1 ARG  1  14.760  20.060  11.030
ATOM  3  H2 ARG  1  14.520  21.650  11.300
ATOM  4  CA ARG  1  13.590  20.950   9.680
...
```

Listing A.2: *.gro* file of arginine.

```

1ARG  N  1  0.214  -0.074  0.111
1ARG  H1 2  0.313  -0.070  0.104
1ARG  H2 3  0.184  -0.034  0.197
1ARG  CA 4  0.154   0.000  0.000
...
```

The *.gro* file contains information regarding the atomic coordinates, whereas the topology file (*.top*) contains all the structural and electronic information of the molecule (arginine example on listing A.3). This file is generated based on the selected force-field and includes information such as atomic mass and charge, bond length, angles, dihedrals and positional restrains if needed. In the case of investigating a system formed by more than two molecule types, solvent not included, it can be also generated a *.itp* file. This file contains the same type of information available on the *.top* file. However, since there are more than one type of molecule, it is generated a *.itp* file for each type of molecule which are then called in a main *.top* file. This simplifies a lot the process since the user can tune molecule-by- molecule instead of editing a much longer file with all the molecules.

Listing A.3: Topology file (*.top*) file of arginine.

```

[ atoms ]
; nr      type  resnr  residue  atom  cgnr      charge      mass
  1         NL    1     ARG     N     1        -0.66      14.0067
  2         H     1     ARG     H1    1         0.44       1.008
...
[ bonds ]
; ai  aj  funct  c0      c1
  1   2   2      0.1000  1.8700e+07
  1   3   2      0.1000  1.8700e+07
...
[ angles ]
; ai  aj  ak  funct  c0      c1
  2   1   3   2      109.50  380.00
  2   1   4   2      109.50  425.00
...
[ dihedrals ]
; ai  aj  ak  an  funct  c0      c1      c2
  2   1   4   17  1      0.000   3.77    3
  1   4   5   6   1      0.000   5.92    3
...
[ dihedrals ]
; ai  aj  ak  an  funct  c0      c1
  4   1  17   5   2      35.26439  334.84617
  8   7  10   9   2      0.000000  167.42309
...

```

The *editconf* script only modifies the coordinate file. With this script it is possible to modify the simulation box type (cubic, rhombic dodecahedron and truncated octahedron) as well its dimension. This process should be taken very carefully since oversized boxes will lead to heavy computational load. On the other hand, small boxes can lead to artifacts created by the interaction of molecules with their mirror image. Next, there is the *genbox* command. It can be used to add solvent or to insert a number of extra molecules at random positions. Since it changes the amount and the type of molecules in the system, it needs to update both the *.top* and *.gro* files with the new data.

Before starting the simulation itself a file preprocessing is still required, and to do so the *grompp* command is used. It reads the topology (*.top*) and coordinates (*.gro*) files and check if they are consistent (i.e. check if the number and atom type match). Since the next step is the simulation, a file with the simulation options (*.mdp*) is also added as input. The *.mdp* file gathers information such as the type of calculation, energy minimization or molecular dynamics, the cut-off radius and the temperature and pressure and the algorithms used for coupling. A section of a *.mdp* file is presented in listing A.4. As output *grompp* generates a *.tpr* file which is a binary file that compiles all the information from the *.gro*, *.top* and *.mdp*.

Listing A.4: GROMACS settings file of the simulation.

```

; ELECTROSTATIC AND VDW
coulombtype      = pme
rcoulomb         = 1.0

```

```
vdwtype          = cut-off
rvdw             = 1.2

; TEMPERATURE COUPLING
tcoupl          = berendsen
tc_grps         = System
tau_t           = 0.1
ref_t           = 314

; PRESSURE COUPLING
pcoupl          = berendsen
pcoupltype      = semiisotropic
tau_p           = 2
compressibility = 4.5e-5 4.5e-5
ref_p           = 1.0 1.0

; BONDS
constraints      = h-bonds
constraint_algorithm = lines
```

In some specific cases the *.tpr* can also be used as an input to *genion* command which replaces a molecule from the created system with an ion specified by the user. If ions are added to the system, the files should be updated and *grompp* should be run again. Nonetheless, *.tpr* file is used mostly as an input for the *mdrun*.

The *mdrun* program is the main computational chemistry engine within GROMACS. It is mainly used to perform molecular dynamics simulations, but it can also perform stochastic dynamics and energy minimization. Again, the *.tpr* file with the information of the system and calculation options is provided as input and at least five output files are generated. The first one is a log file (*.log*) where information such as the current time step, the calculation time and performance is provided. A large binary file (*.trr*) with the coordinates and velocities of all the particles at each time step is also generated. If the simulated system is formed by hundreds of thousands of particles, this *.trr* file can easily grow to the order hundreds of Gb of memory per simulation. This is also one of the most relevant result from the calculation since most of the information is extracted from this file. Other important file is the *.edr* file which contains all the energy terms. The listing A.5 presents some of the data that can be extracted from the *.edr* file with the *g_energy* command (note that the options may change depending on the type of calculation). Finally, a *.gro* file with the state of the system at the end of the simulation and a checkpoint file (*.cpt*) is also generated. The checkpoint file is updated in regular intervals and can be used to resume the simulation in case of a power outage or full hard drives.

Listing A.5: Generic data that can be extracted from the *.edr* file.

Select the terms you want from the following list by selecting either (part of) the name or the number or a combination. End your selection with an empty line or a zero.

Appendix A. MD generic workflow

1	G96Bond	2	G96Angle	3	Proper-Dih.	4	Improper-Dih.
5	LJ-14	6	Coulomb-14	7	LJ-(SR)	8	LJ-(LR)
9	Coulomb-(SR)	10	Coul.-recip.	11	Potential	12	Kinetic-En.
13	Total-Energy	14	Temperature	15	Pressure	16	Constr.-rmsd
17	Box-X	18	Box-Y	19	Box-Z	20	Volume
21	Density	22	pV	23	Enthalpy	24	Vir-XX
25	Vir-XY	26	Vir-XZ	27	Vir-YX	28	Vir-YY
29	Vir-YZ	30	Vir-ZX	31	Vir-ZY	32	Vir-ZZ
33	Pres-XX	34	Pres-XY	35	Pres-XZ	36	Pres-YX
37	Pres-YY	38	Pres-YZ	39	Pres-ZX	40	Pres-ZY
41	Pres-ZZ	42	#Surf*SurfTen	43	Mu-X	44	Mu-Y
45	Mu-Z	46	T-System	47	Lamb-System		

B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

In this appendix is added additional information regarding the interaction of CM and CM-SH with the gold slab and AuNP.

Interaction with the Au Slab

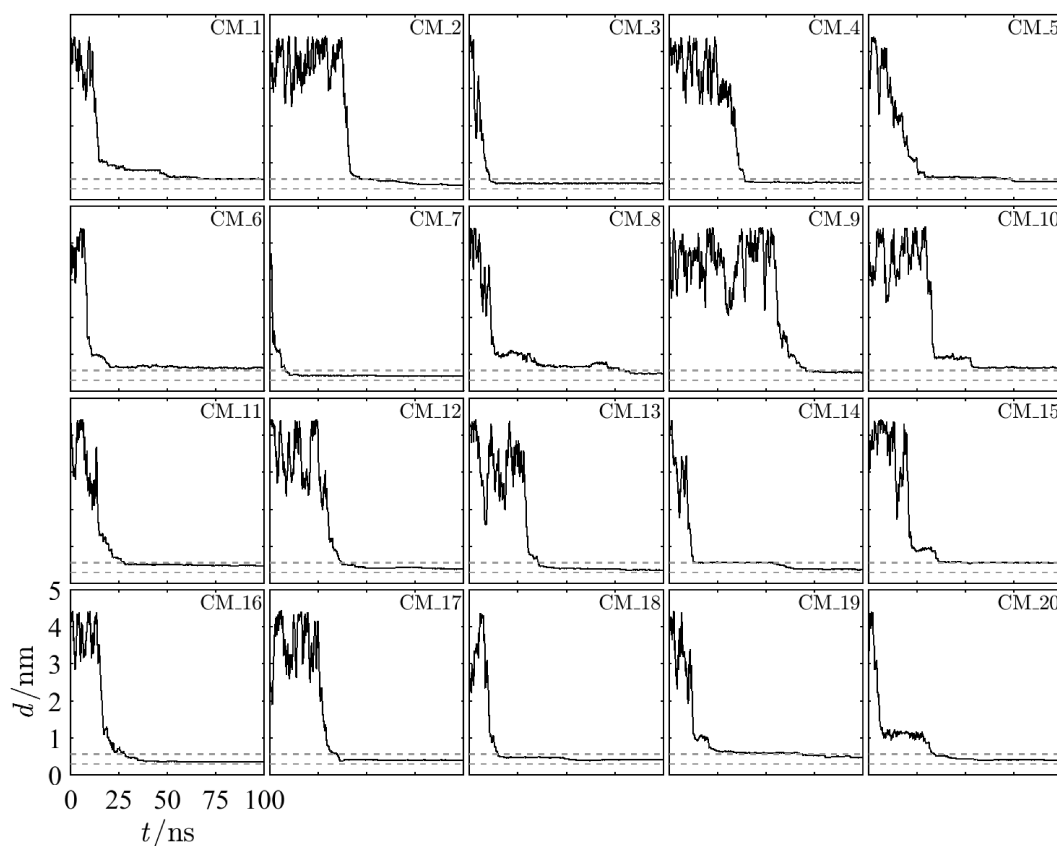


Figure B.1: Distance of the center of mass of the CM peptide to the surface. Each plot represents one simulation and its unique identifier is located on the top right. Gray dashed lines indicate the location of the water layer.

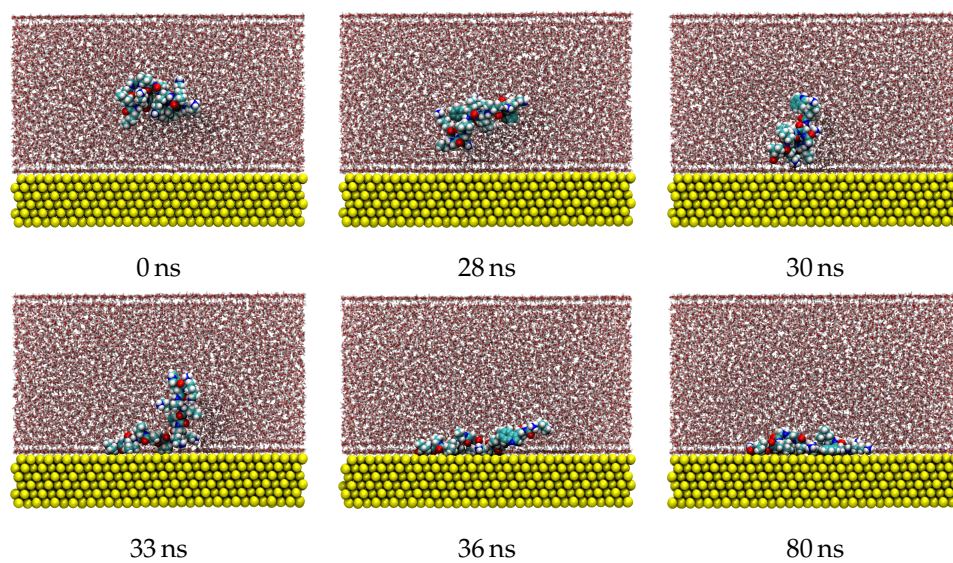


Figure B.2: Typical snapshots of MD trajectories for the interaction of CM with the the Au surface (system CM_13).

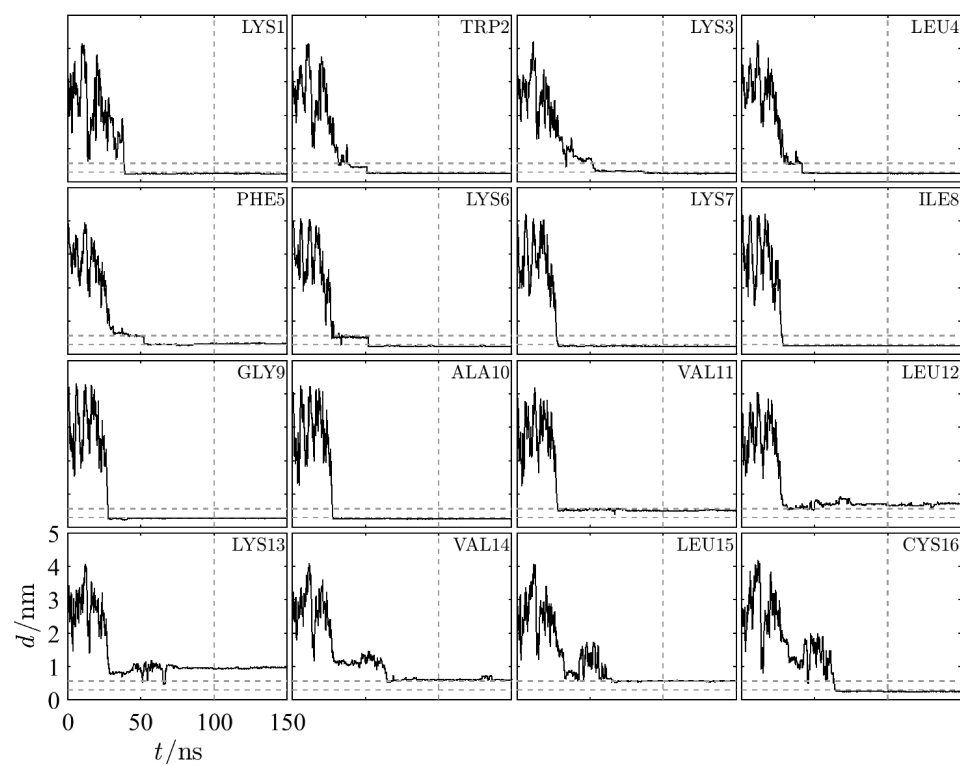
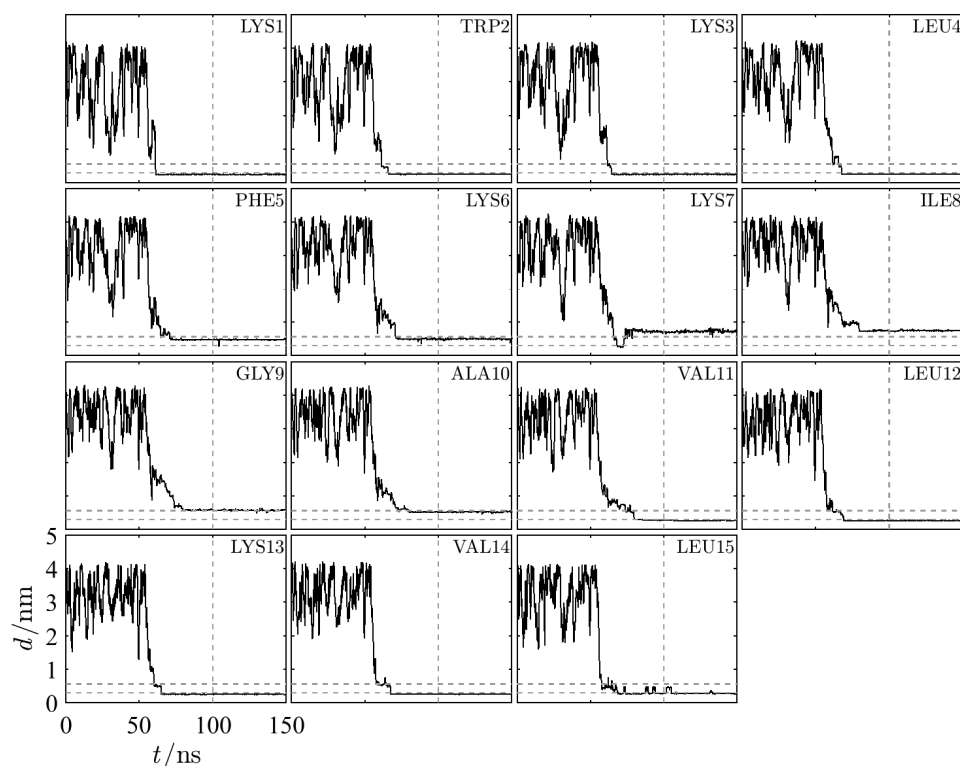


Figure B.3: Example of two simulations extended by 50 ns (150 ns total).

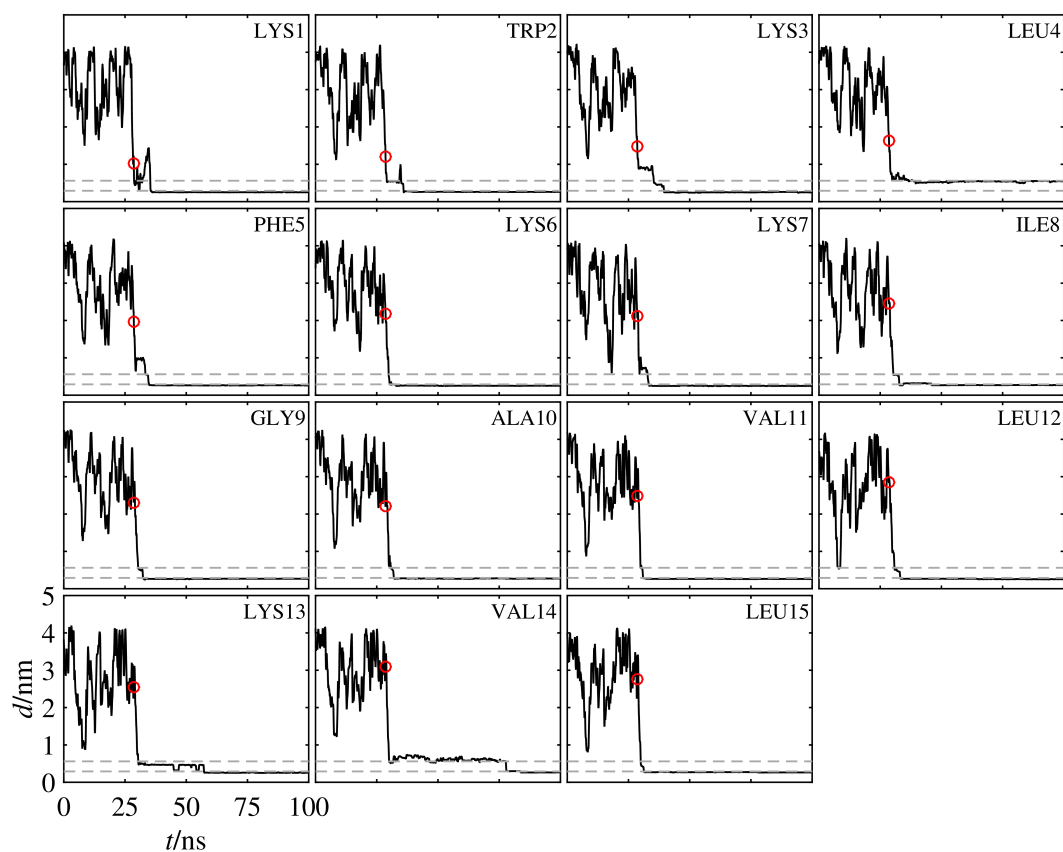


Figure B.4: Normal distance between the closest atom of each residue to the surface for the system CM_13. The red circle represents the time at which the biased diffusion regime starts. Gray dashed lines indicate the location of the water layers.

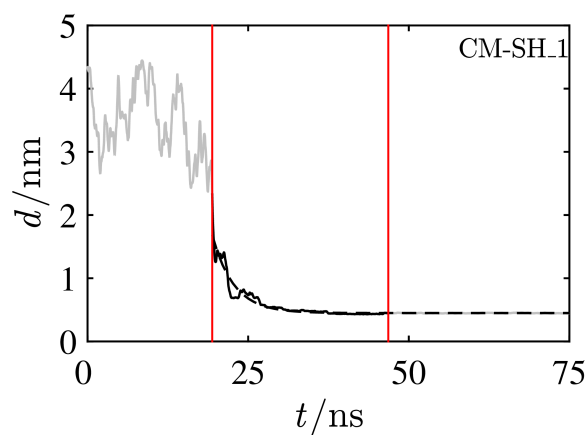


Figure B.5: Typical fitted data (normal distance between the closest atom of each residue to the surface) to the exponential decay model. Black dashed lines are the fitted values, the first red line indicates the beginning of the biased diffusion and the last one concerns the end of the lockdown regime.

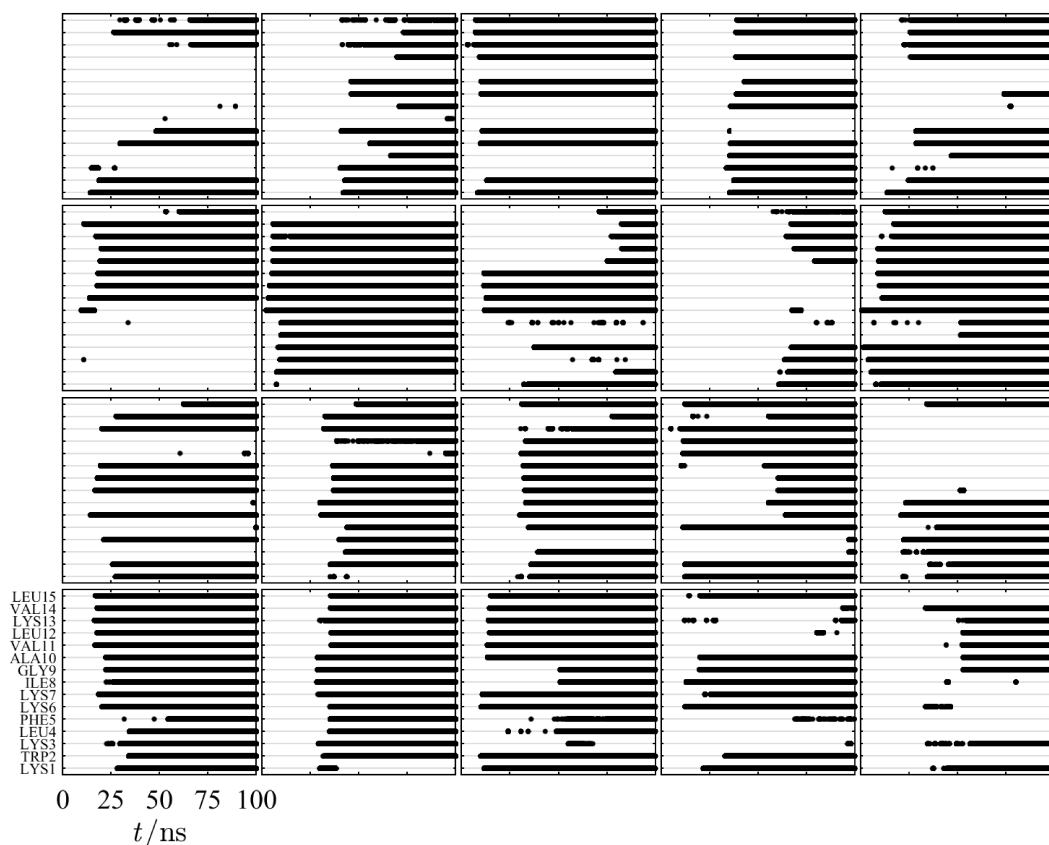


Figure B.6: Residue adsorption map for the 20 simulations on CM/Au interaction. Thick black line indicates that the residue is adsorbed. (Each plot corresponds to one simulation.)

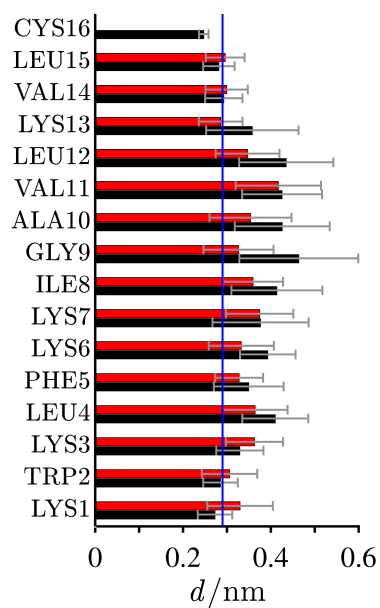


Figure B.7: Averaged distances, at the end of the simulation, of the residues to surface (CM-SH in black and CM in red).

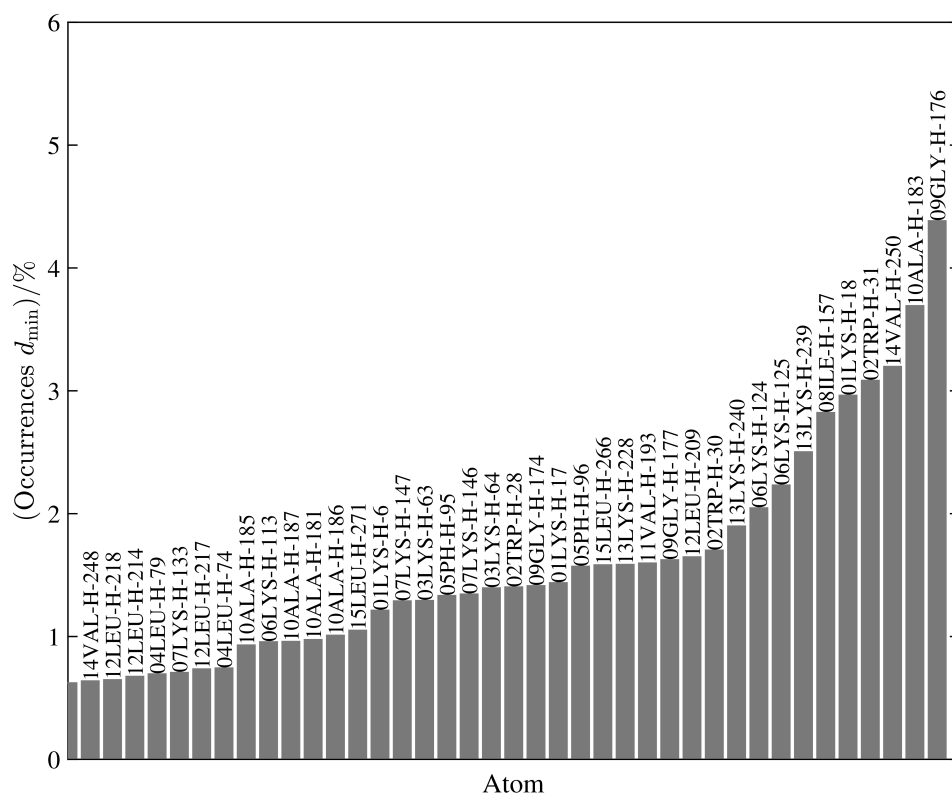


Figure B.8: Percentage of occurrences of atom at a adsorption distance (≤ 0.29 nm) to the surface during all the simulation for the CM peptide. (The less populated cases are omitted for simplicity. Atom numbering can be found in the list B.2 in Appendix B.)

Listing B.1: CM-SH AMP .pdb file.

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REMARK      GENERATED BY TRJCONV
TITLE       CM-SH & Gold in Water t=  0.00000
REMARK      THIS IS A SIMULATION BOX
CRYST1     77.885   89.990   103.448   90.00   90.00   90.00 P 1           1
MODEL      1
ATOM       1  N   LYS      2      4.180   33.780  100.590   1.00   0.00           N
ATOM       2  H1  LYS      2      3.740   33.630   99.690   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM       3  H2  LYS      2      4.440   34.750  100.710   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM       4  H3  LYS      2      5.060   33.290  100.560   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM       5  CA  LYS      2      3.300   33.240  101.700   1.00   0.00           C
ATOM       6  HA  LYS      2      3.910   33.300  102.600   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM       7  CB  LYS      2      2.020   34.090  101.950   1.00   0.00           C
ATOM       8  HB1 LYS      2      1.500   33.810  102.870   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM       9  HB2 LYS      2      1.330   33.810  101.150   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      10  CG  LYS      2      2.160   35.590  102.060   1.00   0.00           C
ATOM      11  HG1 LYS      2      2.690   35.820  101.140   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      12  HG2 LYS      2      2.810   35.840  102.900   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      13  CD  LYS      2      0.800   36.240  102.130   1.00   0.00           C
ATOM      14  HD1 LYS      2      0.240   35.900  102.990   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      15  HD2 LYS      2      0.180   35.880  101.300   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      16  CE  LYS      2      0.820   37.760  102.070   1.00   0.00           C
ATOM      17  HE1 LYS      2      1.280   38.260  102.920   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      18  HE2 LYS      2     -0.210   38.110  102.190   1.00   0.00           H
ATOM      19  NZ  LYS      2      1.340   38.360  100.800   1.00   0.00           N

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Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	20	HZ1	LYS	2	0.720	38.150	100.040	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	21	HZ2	LYS	2	1.450	39.370	100.850	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	22	HZ3	LYS	2	2.250	38.000	100.570	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	23	C	LYS	2	3.060	31.740	101.520	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	24	O	LYS	2	3.870	30.970	101.930	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	25	N	TRP	3	1.870	31.410	101.010	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	26	H	TRP	3	1.310	32.090	100.520	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	27	CA	TRP	3	1.380	30.020	100.760	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	28	HA	TRP	3	2.240	29.390	100.520	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	29	CB	TRP	3	0.910	29.430	102.080	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	30	HB1	TRP	3	-0.070	29.780	102.430	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	31	HB2	TRP	3	1.640	29.700	102.850	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	32	CG	TRP	3	0.970	27.950	102.060	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	33	CD1	TRP	3	-0.050	27.080	102.240	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	34	HD1	TRP	3	-1.100	27.310	102.310	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	35	NE1	TRP	3	0.420	25.770	102.260	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	36	HE1	TRP	3	-0.260	25.020	102.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	37	CE2	TRP	3	1.770	25.730	102.090	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	38	CZ2	TRP	3	2.730	24.690	102.060	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	39	HZ2	TRP	3	2.400	23.670	102.170	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	40	CH2	TRP	3	4.110	25.020	102.040	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	41	HH2	TRP	3	4.900	24.280	102.120	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	42	CZ3	TRP	3	4.440	26.370	101.890	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	43	HZ3	TRP	3	5.460	26.730	101.800	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	44	CE3	TRP	3	3.480	27.360	101.730	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	45	HE3	TRP	3	3.820	28.390	101.690	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	46	CD2	TRP	3	2.100	27.100	101.850	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	47	C	TRP	3	0.380	29.940	99.630	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	48	O	TRP	3	-0.040	30.920	99.040	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	49	N	LYS	4	-0.170	28.710	99.420	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	50	H	LYS	4	0.140	28.000	100.070	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	51	CA	LYS	4	-1.040	28.270	98.380	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	52	HA	LYS	4	-0.780	28.870	97.500	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	53	CB	LYS	4	-0.620	26.840	97.970	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	54	HB1	LYS	4	-0.560	26.320	98.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	55	HB2	LYS	4	0.350	26.900	97.480	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	56	CG	LYS	4	-1.530	26.120	97.000	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	57	HG1	LYS	4	-2.450	25.760	97.460	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	58	HG2	LYS	4	-1.050	25.220	96.610	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	59	CD	LYS	4	-1.930	27.000	95.810	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	60	HD1	LYS	4	-1.070	27.630	95.580	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	61	HD2	LYS	4	-2.780	27.630	96.100	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	62	CE	LYS	4	-2.430	26.240	94.600	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	63	HE1	LYS	4	-3.400	25.830	94.860	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	64	HE2	LYS	4	-1.680	25.510	94.300	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	65	NZ	LYS	4	-2.480	27.100	93.450	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	66	HZ1	LYS	4	-1.570	27.210	93.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	67	HZ2	LYS	4	-2.970	26.710	92.660	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	68	HZ3	LYS	4	-2.880	28.020	93.580	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	69	C	LYS	4	-2.520	28.530	98.720	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	70	O	LYS	4	-3.330	27.590	98.790	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	71	N	LEU	5	-2.870	29.770	99.010	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	72	H	LEU	5	-2.180	30.490	98.880	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	73	CA	LEU	5	-4.140	30.340	99.580	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	74	HA	LEU	5	-4.650	29.560	100.160	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	75	CB	LEU	5	-3.710	31.420	100.570	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	76	HB1	LEU	5	-3.310	32.260	100.020	1.00	0.00	H

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	77	HB2	LEU	5	-2.950	31.020	101.240	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	78	CG	LEU	5	-4.910	31.950	101.350	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	79	HG	LEU	5	-5.550	32.390	100.590	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	80	CD1	LEU	5	-5.590	30.820	102.180	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	81	1HD1	LEU	5	-6.390	31.100	102.870	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	82	2HD1	LEU	5	-6.120	30.150	101.500	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	83	3HD1	LEU	5	-4.840	30.220	102.690	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	84	CD2	LEU	5	-4.480	33.000	102.360	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	85	1HD2	LEU	5	-3.660	32.560	102.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	86	2HD2	LEU	5	-4.170	33.820	101.720	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	87	3HD2	LEU	5	-5.290	33.350	103.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	88	C	LEU	5	-5.170	30.780	98.490	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	89	O	LEU	5	-4.890	31.800	97.940	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	90	N	PHE	6	-6.370	30.250	98.440	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	91	H	PHE	6	-6.550	29.420	98.990	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	92	CA	PHE	6	-7.550	30.690	97.640	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	93	HA	PHE	6	-7.520	31.740	97.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	94	CB	PHE	6	-7.570	30.020	96.210	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	95	HB1	PHE	6	-6.730	30.400	95.640	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	96	HB2	PHE	6	-8.420	30.440	95.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	97	CG	PHE	6	-7.700	28.510	96.270	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	98	CD1	PHE	6	-8.970	27.950	96.090	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	99	HD1	PHE	6	-9.810	28.630	96.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	100	CE1	PHE	6	-9.100	26.520	95.970	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	101	HE1	PHE	6	-9.990	26.000	95.660	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	102	CZ	PHE	6	-8.060	25.680	96.210	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	103	HZ	PHE	6	-8.130	24.610	96.130	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	104	CE2	PHE	6	-6.790	26.280	96.350	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	105	HE2	PHE	6	-5.870	25.710	96.360	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	106	CD2	PHE	6	-6.550	27.690	96.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	107	HD2	PHE	6	-5.570	28.130	96.410	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	108	C	PHE	6	-8.890	30.470	98.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	109	O	PHE	6	-9.060	29.450	99.090	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	110	N	LYS	7	-9.920	31.260	98.160	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	111	H	LYS	7	-9.900	31.910	97.390	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	112	CA	LYS	7	-11.200	30.950	98.830	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	113	HA	LYS	7	-11.030	30.920	99.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	114	CB	LYS	7	-12.140	32.170	98.490	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	115	HB1	LYS	7	-12.360	32.120	97.420	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	116	HB2	LYS	7	-11.630	33.130	98.580	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	117	CG	LYS	7	-13.430	32.330	99.280	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	118	HG1	LYS	7	-13.270	32.520	100.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	119	HG2	LYS	7	-14.060	31.440	99.290	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	120	CD	LYS	7	-14.280	33.450	98.700	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	121	HD1	LYS	7	-14.380	33.270	97.630	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	122	HD2	LYS	7	-13.780	34.410	98.830	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	123	CE	LYS	7	-15.640	33.520	99.450	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	124	HE1	LYS	7	-15.430	33.580	100.520	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	125	HE2	LYS	7	-16.180	32.580	99.330	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	126	NZ	LYS	7	-16.450	34.680	99.000	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	127	HZ1	LYS	7	-15.830	35.470	99.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	128	HZ2	LYS	7	-16.840	34.490	98.090	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	129	HZ3	LYS	7	-17.160	35.000	99.650	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	130	C	LYS	7	-11.860	29.610	98.370	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	131	O	LYS	7	-11.970	29.400	97.120	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	132	N	LYS	8	-12.190	28.710	99.340	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	133	H	LYS	8	-11.750	28.940	100.220	1.00	0.00	H

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	134	CA	LYS	8	-12.730	27.330	99.190	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	135	HA	LYS	8	-11.890	26.740	98.830	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	136	CB	LYS	8	-13.130	26.720	100.530	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	137	HB1	LYS	8	-13.620	25.750	100.420	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	138	HB2	LYS	8	-13.920	27.330	100.960	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	139	CG	LYS	8	-12.120	26.600	101.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	140	HG1	LYS	8	-12.730	26.400	102.530	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	141	HG2	LYS	8	-11.500	27.490	101.770	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	142	CD	LYS	8	-11.240	25.350	101.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	143	HD1	LYS	8	-11.140	25.290	100.300	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	144	HD2	LYS	8	-11.770	24.480	101.790	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	145	CE	LYS	8	-9.900	25.590	102.110	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	146	HE1	LYS	8	-9.990	25.210	103.120	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	147	HE2	LYS	8	-9.650	26.640	102.190	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	148	NZ	LYS	8	-8.900	24.910	101.300	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	149	HZ1	LYS	8	-8.910	25.280	100.360	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	150	HZ2	LYS	8	-7.960	24.940	101.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	151	HZ3	LYS	8	-9.250	23.970	101.250	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	152	C	LYS	8	-13.920	27.200	98.220	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	153	O	LYS	8	-14.740	28.090	98.070	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	154	N	ILE	9	-13.870	26.080	97.520	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	155	H	ILE	9	-13.120	25.410	97.600	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	156	CA	ILE	9	-14.830	25.760	96.380	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	157	HA	ILE	9	-15.770	26.260	96.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	158	CB	ILE	9	-14.260	26.380	95.070	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	159	HB	ILE	9	-14.900	25.980	94.280	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	160	CG2	ILE	9	-14.470	27.900	94.920	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	161	1HG2	ILE	9	-14.140	28.230	93.930	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	162	2HG2	ILE	9	-15.500	28.170	95.150	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	163	3HG2	ILE	9	-13.740	28.310	95.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	164	CG1	ILE	9	-12.770	26.090	94.860	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	165	1HG1	ILE	9	-12.670	25.010	94.910	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	166	2HG1	ILE	9	-12.120	26.520	95.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	167	CD	ILE	9	-12.260	26.500	93.470	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	168	HD1	ILE	9	-12.230	27.580	93.410	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	169	HD2	ILE	9	-11.260	26.090	93.420	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	170	HD3	ILE	9	-12.940	26.040	92.740	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	171	C	ILE	9	-15.200	24.300	96.190	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	172	O	ILE	9	-16.190	23.960	95.550	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	173	N	GLY	10	-14.470	23.450	96.880	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	174	H	GLY	10	-13.630	23.770	97.330	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	175	CA	GLY	10	-14.710	21.970	96.890	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	176	HA1	GLY	10	-15.010	21.600	95.910	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	177	HA2	GLY	10	-15.510	21.820	97.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	178	C	GLY	10	-13.400	21.280	97.360	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	179	O	GLY	10	-12.400	21.940	97.570	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	180	N	ALA	11	-13.450	19.970	97.550	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	181	H	ALA	11	-14.330	19.570	97.260	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	182	CA	ALA	11	-12.440	19.110	98.200	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	183	HA	ALA	11	-12.150	19.650	99.100	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	184	CB	ALA	11	-13.120	17.740	98.480	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	185	HB1	ALA	11	-12.460	17.230	99.190	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	186	HB2	ALA	11	-14.110	17.860	98.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	187	HB3	ALA	11	-13.190	17.090	97.610	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	188	C	ALA	11	-11.160	19.010	97.400	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	189	O	ALA	11	-10.470	18.030	97.590	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	190	N	VAL	12	-10.770	20.010	96.530	1.00	0.00	N

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	191	H	VAL	12	-11.200	20.920	96.590	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	192	CA	VAL	12	-9.580	20.030	95.620	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	193	HA	VAL	12	-9.370	18.990	95.370	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	194	CB	VAL	12	-9.750	20.910	94.340	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	195	HB	VAL	12	-10.560	20.460	93.760	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	196	CG1	VAL	12	-10.120	22.300	94.720	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	197	1HG1	VAL	12	-9.330	22.870	95.200	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	198	2HG1	VAL	12	-10.570	22.870	93.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	199	3HG1	VAL	12	-10.930	22.310	95.440	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	200	CG2	VAL	12	-8.530	21.100	93.410	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	201	1HG2	VAL	12	-8.190	20.110	93.110	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	202	2HG2	VAL	12	-8.830	21.830	92.650	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	203	3HG2	VAL	12	-7.690	21.550	93.940	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	204	C	VAL	12	-8.390	20.550	96.410	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	205	O	VAL	12	-8.450	21.480	97.240	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	206	N	LEU	13	-7.260	19.890	96.230	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	207	H	LEU	13	-7.300	19.140	95.560	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	208	CA	LEU	13	-5.970	20.150	96.950	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	209	HA	LEU	13	-5.330	19.280	96.820	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	210	CB	LEU	13	-5.180	21.320	96.250	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	211	HB1	LEU	13	-5.650	22.290	96.410	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	212	HB2	LEU	13	-5.210	21.160	95.170	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	213	CG	LEU	13	-3.700	21.490	96.710	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	214	HG	LEU	13	-3.720	21.910	97.720	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	215	CD1	LEU	13	-2.830	20.200	96.670	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	216	1HD1	LEU	13	-1.860	20.490	97.080	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	217	2HD1	LEU	13	-3.280	19.390	97.240	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	218	3HD1	LEU	13	-2.770	20.010	95.600	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	219	CD2	LEU	13	-2.870	22.500	95.920	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	220	1HD2	LEU	13	-1.920	22.670	96.430	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	221	2HD2	LEU	13	-2.780	22.200	94.880	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	222	3HD2	LEU	13	-3.400	23.450	96.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	223	C	LEU	13	-6.090	20.270	98.490	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	224	O	LEU	13	-5.380	21.010	99.140	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	225	N	LYS	14	-7.080	19.530	99.110	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	226	H	LYS	14	-7.700	19.010	98.510	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	227	CA	LYS	14	-7.520	19.780	100.470	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	228	HA	LYS	14	-7.820	20.830	100.480	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	229	CB	LYS	14	-8.770	19.010	100.800	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	230	HB1	LYS	14	-9.370	19.130	99.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	231	HB2	LYS	14	-9.230	19.560	101.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	232	CG	LYS	14	-8.650	17.550	101.280	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	233	HG1	LYS	14	-8.160	17.480	102.250	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	234	HG2	LYS	14	-8.030	17.000	100.570	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	235	CD	LYS	14	-10.090	16.940	101.240	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	236	HD1	LYS	14	-10.350	16.870	100.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	237	HD2	LYS	14	-10.750	17.610	101.780	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	238	CE	LYS	14	-10.120	15.570	101.930	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	239	HE1	LYS	14	-10.050	15.670	103.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	240	HE2	LYS	14	-9.280	14.930	101.650	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	241	NZ	LYS	14	-11.280	14.740	101.560	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	242	HZ1	LYS	14	-11.200	13.880	102.070	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	243	HZ2	LYS	14	-12.130	15.270	101.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	244	HZ3	LYS	14	-11.260	14.460	100.590	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	245	C	LYS	14	-6.400	19.480	101.450	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	246	O	LYS	14	-6.580	19.890	102.570	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	247	N	VAL	15	-5.370	18.800	100.990	1.00	0.00	N

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	248	H	VAL	15	-5.380	18.530	100.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	249	CA	VAL	15	-4.210	18.310	101.820	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	250	HA	VAL	15	-4.590	18.320	102.840	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	251	CB	VAL	15	-3.890	16.850	101.580	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	252	HB	VAL	15	-3.230	16.520	102.380	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	253	CG1	VAL	15	-5.110	15.980	101.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	254	1HG1	VAL	15	-5.770	16.230	102.480	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	255	2HG1	VAL	15	-5.820	16.010	100.820	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	256	3HG1	VAL	15	-4.890	14.910	101.680	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	257	CG2	VAL	15	-3.040	16.590	100.300	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	258	1HG2	VAL	15	-3.010	15.510	100.210	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	259	2HG2	VAL	15	-3.520	17.160	99.510	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	260	3HG2	VAL	15	-2.040	16.950	100.570	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	261	C	VAL	15	-2.950	19.150	101.910	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	262	O	VAL	15	-1.920	18.710	102.320	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	263	N	LEU	16	-2.970	20.350	101.410	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	264	H	LEU	16	-3.830	20.670	100.980	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	265	CA	LEU	16	-1.850	21.300	101.450	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	266	HA	LEU	16	-1.050	21.050	102.150	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	267	CB	LEU	16	-1.210	21.160	100.050	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	268	HB1	LEU	16	-1.950	21.350	99.270	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	269	HB2	LEU	16	-0.900	20.110	100.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	270	CG	LEU	16	-0.020	22.000	99.740	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	271	HG	LEU	16	-0.180	23.070	99.800	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	272	CD1	LEU	16	1.140	21.580	100.710	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	273	1HD1	LEU	16	1.400	20.530	100.630	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	274	2HD1	LEU	16	2.020	22.180	100.470	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	275	3HD1	LEU	16	0.910	21.840	101.740	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	276	CD2	LEU	16	0.500	21.730	98.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	277	1HD2	LEU	16	1.300	22.420	98.130	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	278	2HD2	LEU	16	0.800	20.680	98.470	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	279	3HD2	LEU	16	-0.320	21.830	97.680	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	280	C	LEU	16	-2.220	22.750	101.790	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	281	O	LEU	16	-1.400	23.570	102.310	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	282	N	CYS	17	-3.540	23.130	101.550	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	283	H	CYS	17	-4.230	22.480	101.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	284	CA	CYS	17	-4.090	24.450	101.980	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	285	HA	CYS	17	-3.750	24.620	103.000	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	286	CB	CYS	17	-3.470	25.560	101.150	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	287	HB1	CYS	17	-3.910	25.570	100.140	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	288	HB2	CYS	17	-2.420	25.350	100.980	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	289	SG	CYS	17	-3.640	27.130	102.090	1.00	0.00	S
ATOM	290	HG	CYS	17	-4.920	27.240	102.460	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	291	C	CYS	17	-5.600	24.350	101.840	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	292	OC1	CYS	17	-6.120	23.410	101.180	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	293	OC2	CYS	17	-6.340	25.270	102.260	1.00	0.00	O
TER										
ENDMDL										

Listing B.2: CM AMP .pdb file.

REMARK	GENERATED BY TRJCONV									
TITLE	CM & Gold in Water t= 0.00000									
REMARK	THIS IS A SIMULATION BOX									
CRYST1	77.885	89.990	103.538	90.00	90.00	90.00	P 1		1	
MODEL	1									
ATOM	1	N	LYS	2	73.810	53.770	18.630	1.00	0.00	N

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATCM	2	H1	LYS	2	74.200	54.000	19.540	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	3	H2	LYS	2	73.350	54.610	18.300	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	4	H3	LYS	2	73.110	53.060	18.770	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	5	CA	LYS	2	74.770	53.370	17.580	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	6	HA	LYS	2	74.410	53.750	16.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	7	CB	LYS	2	76.130	54.040	17.750	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	8	HB1	LYS	2	76.770	53.810	16.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	9	HB2	LYS	2	76.650	53.760	18.660	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	10	CG	LYS	2	76.190	55.570	17.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	11	HG1	LYS	2	75.540	56.030	18.390	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	12	HG2	LYS	2	75.960	55.870	16.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	13	CD	LYS	2	77.630	56.070	17.980	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	14	HD1	LYS	2	78.390	55.610	17.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	15	HD2	LYS	2	77.760	55.710	19.000	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	16	CE	LYS	2	77.650	57.560	17.830	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	17	HE1	LYS	2	76.800	58.110	18.240	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	18	HE2	LYS	2	77.800	57.740	16.760	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	19	NZ	LYS	2	78.920	58.130	18.380	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	20	HZ1	LYS	2	79.730	57.550	18.220	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	21	HZ2	LYS	2	79.060	59.060	18.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	22	HZ3	LYS	2	78.920	58.250	19.390	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	23	C	LYS	2	74.900	51.810	17.620	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	24	O	LYS	2	73.900	51.140	17.250	1.00	0.00	O
ATCM	25	N	TRP	3	76.080	51.240	17.860	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	26	H	TRP	3	76.900	51.790	18.070	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	27	CA	TRP	3	76.300	49.800	17.850	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	28	HA	TRP	3	76.090	49.460	16.840	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	29	CB	TRP	3	77.790	49.520	18.140	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	30	HB1	TRP	3	77.950	49.800	19.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	31	HB2	TRP	3	78.240	50.110	17.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	32	CG	TRP	3	78.370	48.160	17.910	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	33	CD1	TRP	3	77.690	46.990	17.870	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	34	HD1	TRP	3	76.620	46.880	17.990	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	35	NE1	TRP	3	78.460	45.980	17.580	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	36	HE1	TRP	3	78.170	45.020	17.460	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	37	CE2	TRP	3	79.780	46.380	17.590	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	38	CZ2	TRP	3	81.000	45.630	17.490	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	39	HZ2	TRP	3	80.920	44.560	17.390	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	40	CH2	TRP	3	82.210	46.270	17.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	41	HH2	TRP	3	83.160	45.790	17.510	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	42	CZ3	TRP	3	82.190	47.670	17.690	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	43	HZ3	TRP	3	83.130	48.180	17.600	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	44	CE3	TRP	3	81.040	48.410	17.840	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	45	HE3	TRP	3	81.060	49.470	18.040	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	46	CD2	TRP	3	79.760	47.790	17.810	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	47	C	TRP	3	75.260	48.990	18.810	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	48	O	TRP	3	75.120	49.360	20.030	1.00	0.00	O
ATCM	49	N	LYS	4	74.520	48.030	18.290	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	50	H	LYS	4	74.550	47.950	17.290	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	51	CA	LYS	4	73.630	47.170	19.070	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	52	HA	LYS	4	74.020	47.060	20.080	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	53	CB	LYS	4	72.180	47.730	19.040	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	54	HB1	LYS	4	72.040	48.600	19.690	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	55	HB2	LYS	4	71.470	47.010	19.450	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	56	CG	LYS	4	71.500	48.090	17.710	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	57	HG1	LYS	4	71.170	47.170	17.220	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	58	HG2	LYS	4	72.280	48.580	17.120	1.00	0.00	H

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	59	CD	LYS	4	70.270	48.950	17.850	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	60	HD1	LYS	4	69.670	48.710	18.720	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	61	HD2	LYS	4	69.700	48.850	16.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	62	CE	LYS	4	70.670	50.400	17.910	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	63	HE1	LYS	4	70.780	50.800	16.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	64	HE2	LYS	4	71.580	50.510	18.480	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	65	NZ	LYS	4	69.600	51.240	18.500	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	66	HZ1	LYS	4	68.660	50.950	18.280	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	67	HZ2	LYS	4	69.610	51.170	19.510	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	68	HZ3	LYS	4	69.730	52.150	18.080	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	69	C	LYS	4	73.590	45.730	18.460	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	70	O	LYS	4	74.370	45.450	17.500	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	71	N	LEU	5	72.720	44.800	18.910	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	72	H	LEU	5	72.210	45.030	19.750	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	73	CA	LEU	5	72.740	43.390	18.440	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	74	HA	LEU	5	73.110	43.400	17.420	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	75	CB	LEU	5	73.490	42.510	19.470	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	76	HB1	LEU	5	72.910	42.510	20.400	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	77	HB2	LEU	5	74.510	42.890	19.530	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	78	CG	LEU	5	73.670	41.060	18.980	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	79	HG	LEU	5	72.790	40.590	18.540	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	80	CD1	LEU	5	74.850	40.940	17.930	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	81	1HD1	LEU	5	74.840	39.880	17.640	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	82	2HD1	LEU	5	74.730	41.590	17.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	83	3HD1	LEU	5	75.820	41.230	18.340	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	84	CD2	LEU	5	74.420	40.170	20.090	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	85	1HD2	LEU	5	73.930	40.290	21.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	86	2HD2	LEU	5	74.340	39.110	19.850	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	87	3HD2	LEU	5	75.490	40.410	20.140	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	88	C	LEU	5	71.270	42.880	18.200	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	89	O	LEU	5	71.040	42.000	17.340	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	90	N	PHE	6	70.300	43.440	18.970	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	91	H	PHE	6	70.680	44.030	19.680	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	92	CA	PHE	6	68.860	43.600	18.750	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	93	HA	PHE	6	68.460	43.790	19.750	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	94	CB	PHE	6	68.610	44.970	17.970	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	95	HB1	PHE	6	68.830	44.770	16.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	96	HB2	PHE	6	69.280	45.720	18.410	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	97	CG	PHE	6	67.350	45.620	18.230	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	98	CD1	PHE	6	67.270	46.440	19.380	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	99	HD1	PHE	6	68.120	46.660	20.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	100	CE1	PHE	6	66.070	47.010	19.780	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	101	HE1	PHE	6	66.130	47.680	20.630	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	102	CZ	PHE	6	64.890	46.960	18.980	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	103	HZ	PHE	6	64.130	47.680	19.210	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	104	CE2	PHE	6	65.020	46.180	17.760	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	105	HE2	PHE	6	64.160	46.150	17.110	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	106	CD2	PHE	6	66.230	45.490	17.460	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	107	HD2	PHE	6	66.280	44.810	16.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	108	C	PHE	6	68.090	42.480	18.030	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	109	O	PHE	6	67.150	42.680	17.270	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	110	N	LYS	7	68.550	41.290	18.270	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	111	H	LYS	7	69.400	41.250	18.820	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	112	CA	LYS	7	68.040	40.010	17.860	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	113	HA	LYS	7	67.900	40.030	16.780	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	114	CB	LYS	7	68.890	38.880	18.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	115	HB1	LYS	7	68.370	37.950	18.190	1.00	0.00	H

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATCM	116	HB2	LYS	7	68.910	38.930	19.480	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	117	CG	LYS	7	70.310	38.870	17.830	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	118	HG1	LYS	7	70.980	39.640	18.240	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	119	HG2	LYS	7	70.190	39.010	16.750	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	120	CD	LYS	7	71.100	37.600	18.120	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	121	HD1	LYS	7	70.440	36.800	17.790	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	122	HD2	LYS	7	71.290	37.470	19.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	123	CE	LYS	7	72.440	37.520	17.420	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	124	HE1	LYS	7	72.800	38.550	17.450	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	125	HE2	LYS	7	72.310	37.190	16.390	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	126	NZ	LYS	7	73.370	36.570	18.060	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	127	HZ1	LYS	7	73.000	35.660	17.810	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	128	HZ2	LYS	7	74.310	36.530	17.690	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	129	HZ3	LYS	7	73.390	36.680	19.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	130	C	LYS	7	66.620	39.740	18.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	131	O	LYS	7	66.270	40.340	19.440	1.00	0.00	O
ATCM	132	N	LYS	8	65.890	38.910	17.680	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	133	H	LYS	8	66.270	38.460	16.870	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	134	CA	LYS	8	64.460	38.620	18.090	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	135	HA	LYS	8	64.390	38.590	19.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	136	CB	LYS	8	63.380	39.640	17.670	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	137	HB1	LYS	8	62.490	39.370	18.250	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	138	HB2	LYS	8	63.030	39.530	16.640	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	139	CG	LYS	8	63.780	41.090	17.960	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	140	HG1	LYS	8	64.580	41.290	17.250	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	141	HG2	LYS	8	64.140	41.220	18.990	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	142	CD	LYS	8	62.520	42.090	17.820	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	143	HD1	LYS	8	61.980	41.890	18.750	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	144	HD2	LYS	8	61.900	41.730	17.000	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	145	CE	LYS	8	62.860	43.490	17.730	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	146	HE1	LYS	8	63.250	43.600	16.710	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	147	HE2	LYS	8	63.750	43.600	18.350	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	148	NZ	LYS	8	61.770	44.400	18.180	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	149	HZ1	LYS	8	61.660	44.310	19.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	150	HZ2	LYS	8	61.870	45.350	17.840	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	151	HZ3	LYS	8	60.830	44.090	17.970	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	152	C	LYS	8	64.030	37.210	17.690	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	153	O	LYS	8	64.820	36.440	17.140	1.00	0.00	O
ATCM	154	N	ILE	9	62.830	36.760	18.070	1.00	0.00	N
ATCM	155	H	ILE	9	62.200	37.400	18.540	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	156	CA	ILE	9	62.410	35.360	18.020	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	157	HA	ILE	9	62.840	34.880	17.130	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	158	CB	ILE	9	62.900	34.690	19.340	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	159	HB	ILE	9	63.960	34.960	19.400	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	160	CG2	ILE	9	62.220	35.210	20.620	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	161	1HG2	ILE	9	62.690	34.700	21.460	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	162	2HG2	ILE	9	62.370	36.280	20.800	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	163	3HG2	ILE	9	61.150	35.050	20.560	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	164	CG1	ILE	9	62.820	33.140	19.390	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	165	1HG1	ILE	9	61.780	32.870	19.580	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	166	2HG1	ILE	9	63.340	32.800	20.280	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	167	CD	ILE	9	63.360	32.430	18.110	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	168	HD1	ILE	9	64.240	32.940	17.720	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	169	HD2	ILE	9	63.480	31.350	18.220	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	170	HD3	ILE	9	62.720	32.500	17.230	1.00	0.00	H
ATCM	171	C	ILE	9	60.870	35.180	17.780	1.00	0.00	C
ATCM	172	O	ILE	9	60.210	36.230	17.620	1.00	0.00	O

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	173	N	GLY	10	60.400	33.900	17.730	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	174	H	GLY	10	61.090	33.180	17.890	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	175	CA	GLY	10	59.020	33.470	17.800	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	176	HA1	GLY	10	58.470	33.980	17.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	177	HA2	GLY	10	58.740	33.740	18.820	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	178	C	GLY	10	58.810	31.950	17.560	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	179	O	GLY	10	59.760	31.280	17.250	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	180	N	ALA	11	57.590	31.480	17.900	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	181	H	ALA	11	56.950	32.170	18.270	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	182	CA	ALA	11	57.230	30.020	17.900	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	183	HA	ALA	11	57.850	29.500	17.180	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	184	CB	ALA	11	57.610	29.540	19.290	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	185	HB1	ALA	11	58.620	29.850	19.550	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	186	HB2	ALA	11	56.960	30.020	20.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	187	HB3	ALA	11	57.340	28.500	19.510	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	188	C	ALA	11	55.730	29.790	17.570	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	189	O	ALA	11	55.270	28.650	17.430	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	190	N	VAL	12	54.880	30.870	17.610	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	191	H	VAL	12	55.210	31.820	17.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	192	CA	VAL	12	53.420	30.750	18.090	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	193	HA	VAL	12	52.980	29.870	17.620	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	194	CB	VAL	12	53.310	30.520	19.630	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	195	HB	VAL	12	52.260	30.580	19.930	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	196	CG1	VAL	12	53.810	29.240	20.230	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	197	1HG1	VAL	12	54.890	29.210	20.150	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	198	2HG1	VAL	12	53.470	29.100	21.260	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	199	3HG1	VAL	12	53.390	28.440	19.610	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	200	CG2	VAL	12	53.920	31.690	20.380	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	201	1HG2	VAL	12	53.870	31.700	21.470	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	202	2HG2	VAL	12	54.960	31.820	20.080	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	203	3HG2	VAL	12	53.470	32.610	19.990	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	204	C	VAL	12	52.540	31.920	17.760	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	205	O	VAL	12	53.100	32.990	17.550	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	206	N	LEU	13	51.210	31.770	17.680	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	207	H	LEU	13	50.790	30.850	17.750	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	208	CA	LEU	13	50.330	32.930	17.730	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	209	HA	LEU	13	50.300	33.440	16.760	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	210	CB	LEU	13	48.930	32.430	17.950	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	211	HB1	LEU	13	48.910	31.960	18.940	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	212	HB2	LEU	13	48.790	31.550	17.320	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	213	CG	LEU	13	47.780	33.420	17.790	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	214	HG	LEU	13	47.720	34.050	16.900	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	215	CD1	LEU	13	46.500	32.590	17.810	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	216	1HD1	LEU	13	46.260	32.150	18.780	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	217	2HD1	LEU	13	45.620	33.130	17.440	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	218	3HD1	LEU	13	46.620	31.810	17.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	219	CD2	LEU	13	47.570	34.360	18.920	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	220	1HD2	LEU	13	46.690	34.960	18.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	221	2HD2	LEU	13	47.550	33.830	19.870	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	222	3HD2	LEU	13	48.370	35.100	19.010	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	223	C	LEU	13	50.790	34.000	18.740	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	224	O	LEU	13	50.980	33.710	19.910	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	225	N	LYS	14	50.900	35.210	18.270	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	226	H	LYS	14	50.560	35.340	17.330	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	227	CA	LYS	14	51.170	36.470	19.020	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	228	HA	LYS	14	50.830	36.360	20.050	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	229	CB	LYS	14	52.690	36.720	19.080	1.00	0.00	C

Appendix B. Cecropin melittin hybrid AMP

ATOM	230	HB1	LYS	14	53.270	36.010	19.670	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	231	HB2	LYS	14	52.890	37.690	19.540	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	232	CG	LYS	14	53.270	36.870	17.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	233	HG1	LYS	14	52.780	37.520	16.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	234	HG2	LYS	14	53.120	35.880	17.210	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	235	CD	LYS	14	54.800	37.110	17.660	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	236	HD1	LYS	14	55.170	36.750	16.700	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	237	HD2	LYS	14	55.170	36.590	18.540	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	238	CE	LYS	14	55.140	38.610	17.710	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	239	HE1	LYS	14	54.640	39.120	16.890	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	240	HE2	LYS	14	56.210	38.750	17.570	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	241	NZ	LYS	14	54.710	39.330	18.930	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	242	HZ1	LYS	14	55.090	40.270	18.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	243	HZ2	LYS	14	53.710	39.420	19.060	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	244	HZ3	LYS	14	55.150	38.990	19.770	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	245	C	LYS	14	50.380	37.560	18.270	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	246	O	LYS	14	49.830	37.180	17.200	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	247	N	VAL	15	50.500	38.800	18.640	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	248	H	VAL	15	51.110	39.040	19.400	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	249	CA	VAL	15	50.240	39.990	17.800	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	250	HA	VAL	15	49.970	39.710	16.780	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	251	CB	VAL	15	49.080	40.780	18.440	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	252	HB	VAL	15	48.220	40.130	18.610	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	253	CG1	VAL	15	49.430	41.240	19.890	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	254	1HG1	VAL	15	50.260	41.960	19.920	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	255	2HG1	VAL	15	48.600	41.720	20.400	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	256	3HG1	VAL	15	49.700	40.380	20.490	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	257	CG2	VAL	15	48.550	42.020	17.650	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	258	1HG2	VAL	15	47.470	42.020	17.780	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	259	2HG2	VAL	15	48.910	42.870	18.230	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	260	3HG2	VAL	15	48.960	42.040	16.640	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	261	C	VAL	15	51.570	40.810	17.430	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	262	O	VAL	15	52.590	40.150	17.200	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	263	N	LEU	16	51.550	42.140	17.560	1.00	0.00	N
ATOM	264	H	LEU	16	50.660	42.580	17.770	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	265	CA	LEU	16	52.730	43.000	17.840	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	266	HA	LEU	16	53.420	42.820	17.020	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	267	CB	LEU	16	52.230	44.500	17.940	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	268	HB1	LEU	16	51.780	44.700	18.910	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	269	HB2	LEU	16	51.440	44.710	17.220	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	270	CG	LEU	16	53.340	45.560	17.790	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	271	HG	LEU	16	53.870	45.450	16.840	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	272	CD1	LEU	16	52.690	46.920	17.840	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	273	1HD1	LEU	16	53.340	47.710	17.460	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	274	2HD1	LEU	16	51.770	46.990	17.260	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	275	3HD1	LEU	16	52.450	47.130	18.880	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	276	CD2	LEU	16	54.360	45.550	18.930	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	277	1HD2	LEU	16	55.070	44.730	18.840	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	278	2HD2	LEU	16	54.790	46.540	18.760	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	279	3HD2	LEU	16	53.820	45.650	19.870	1.00	0.00	H
ATOM	280	C	LEU	16	53.570	42.480	18.980	1.00	0.00	C
ATOM	281	OC1	LEU	16	53.200	42.380	20.130	1.00	0.00	O
ATOM	282	OC2	LEU	16	54.720	42.060	18.720	1.00	0.00	O

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ENDMDL

Interaction with the AuNP

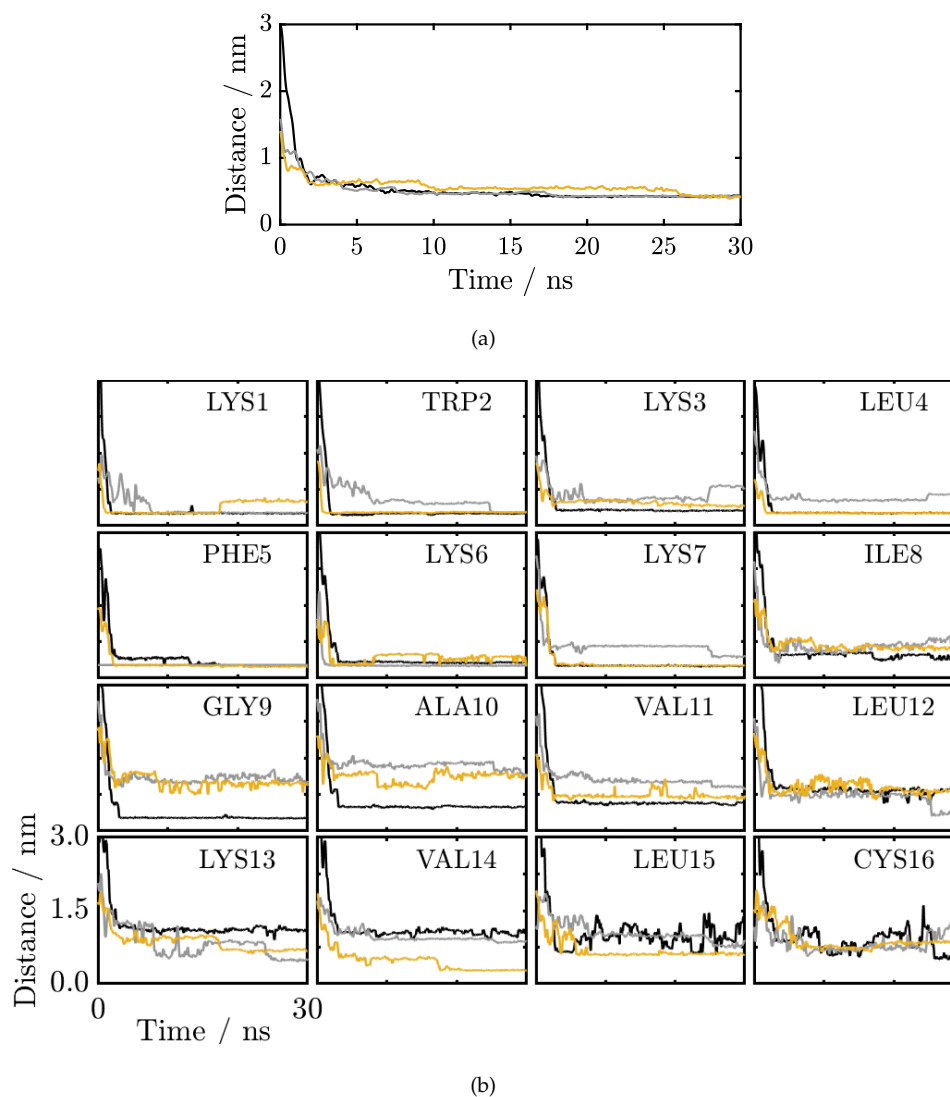


Figure B.9: Distance of the CM-SH peptide to a AuNP surface. (a) averaged for all residues; and (b) by residue. Each color corresponds to a different AuNP diameter (— 2 nm, — 4 nm and — 6 nm).

C. Cathelicidin-derived AMP

In this appendix is added additional information regarding the interaction of LL37 and LL37-SH with a AuNP.

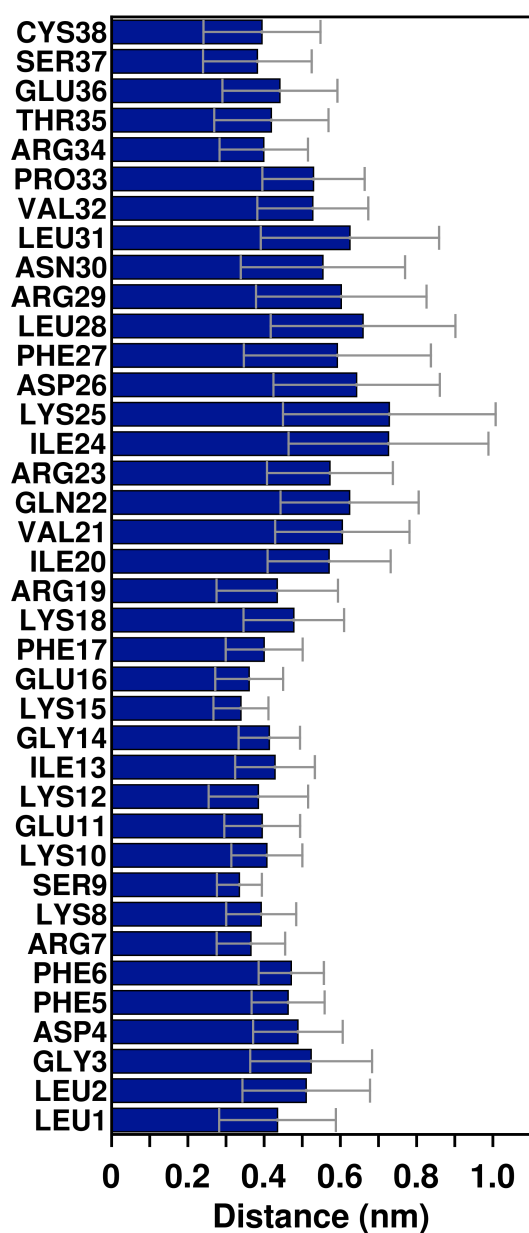
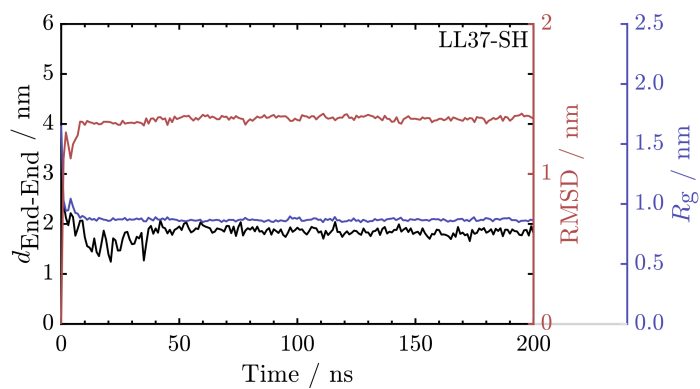
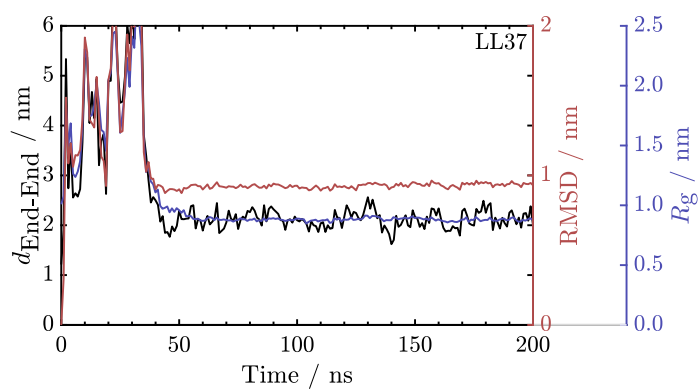


Figure C.1: Position distance of the LL37-SH residues to the AuNP surface at the end of the simulation.



(a)



(b)

Figure C.2: Evolution of $d_{\text{End-End}}$, RMSD and R_g with the simulation time for the systems without AuNP. Plot (a) for LL37-SH and (b) for the LL37.

FE of the selected CVs was reweighted taking into account the energy penalties added by the algorithm. To achieve this, the CVs histograms were computed using the **REWEIGHT_BIAS** and **HISTOGRAM** algorithms included in PLUMED 2^[190] suite. The obtained histograms were then processed with the **CONVERT_TO_FES** utility to obtain the reweighed FE for each CV. A similar approach is detailed by Klug et al.^[211].

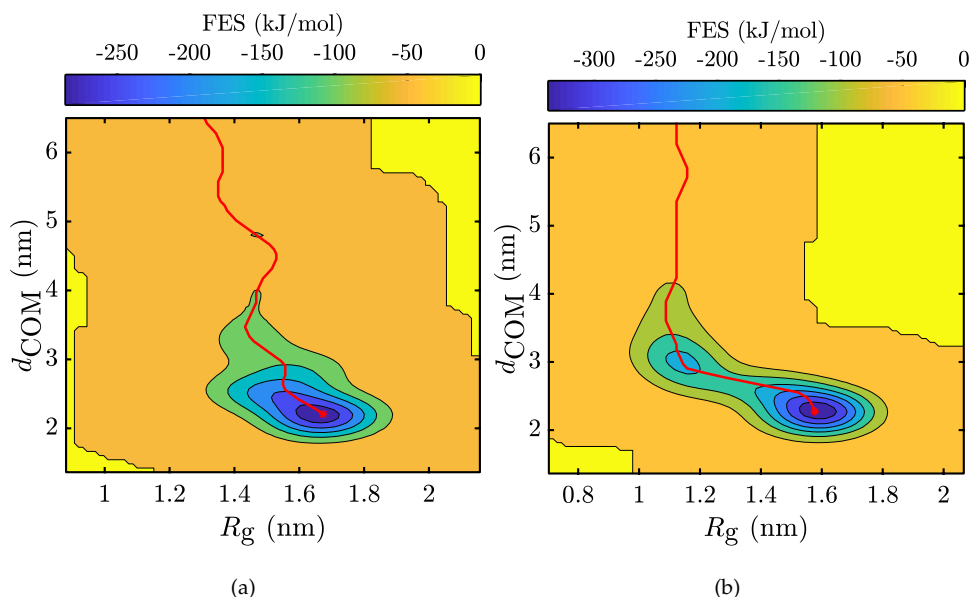


Figure C.3: Free energy surface before the bias reweight process. Plot (a) for LL37-SH and (b) for the LL37.

Table C.1: Lowest free energy value per unique d_{COMs} for the LL37-SH peptide. Lowest value highlighted in gray.

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.2866	6.8239	-5.7487
1.2866	6.8039	-6.0922
1.2866	6.784	-6.4166
1.2866	6.764	-6.7204
1.3065	6.744	-7.0053
1.3065	6.7241	-7.2718
1.3065	6.7041	-7.5196
1.3065	6.6841	-7.7484
1.3065	6.6641	-7.959
1.3065	6.6442	-8.1516
1.3065	6.6242	-8.3262
1.3065	6.6042	-8.4832

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Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.3065	6.5842	-8.623
1.3065	6.5643	-8.7458
1.3065	6.5443	-8.8516
1.3065	6.5243	-8.9409
1.3065	6.5044	-9.0145
1.3264	6.4844	-9.0739
1.3264	6.4644	-9.1191
1.3264	6.4444	-9.1498
1.3264	6.4245	-9.167
1.3264	6.4045	-9.1713
1.3264	6.3845	-9.1637
1.3264	6.3646	-9.1453
1.3264	6.3446	-9.1174
1.3264	6.3246	-9.0815
1.3463	6.3046	-9.0414
1.3463	6.2847	-8.9983
1.3463	6.2647	-8.9532
1.3463	6.2447	-8.9077
1.3463	6.2248	-8.8638
1.3463	6.2048	-8.8239
1.3463	6.1848	-8.7898
1.3662	6.1648	-8.7659
1.3662	6.1449	-8.7508
1.3662	6.1249	-8.744
1.3662	6.1049	-8.7457
1.3662	6.0849	-8.7556
1.3662	6.065	-8.7724
1.3662	6.045	-8.7952
1.3662	6.025	-8.8227
1.3861	6.0051	-8.8537
1.3861	5.9851	-8.8859
1.3861	5.9651	-8.9175
1.3861	5.9451	-8.9469
1.3861	5.9252	-8.9734
1.3861	5.9052	-8.996

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Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.3861	5.8852	-9.0144
1.3861	5.8653	-9.028
1.3662	5.8453	-9.0388
1.3662	5.8253	-9.0463
1.3662	5.8053	-9.0505
1.3662	5.7854	-9.0519
1.3662	5.7654	-9.0517
1.3662	5.7454	-9.0506
1.3662	5.7255	-9.0495
1.3662	5.7055	-9.0496
1.3662	5.6855	-9.0509
1.3662	5.6655	-9.0544
1.3463	5.6456	-9.0628
1.3463	5.6256	-9.0749
1.3463	5.6056	-9.0893
1.3463	5.5857	-9.1064
1.3463	5.5657	-9.1255
1.3463	5.5457	-9.1466
1.3463	5.5257	-9.1692
1.3463	5.5058	-9.1918
1.3463	5.4858	-9.2137
1.3463	5.4658	-9.2343
1.3463	5.4458	-9.2531
1.3463	5.4259	-9.2695
1.3463	5.4059	-9.2832
1.3463	5.3859	-9.2941
1.3463	5.366	-9.3024
1.3463	5.346	-9.3082
1.3662	5.326	-9.3125
1.3662	5.306	-9.3182
1.3662	5.2861	-9.3236
1.3662	5.2661	-9.3301
1.3662	5.2461	-9.3386
1.3662	5.2262	-9.3507
1.3861	5.2062	-9.3688

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Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.3861	5.1862	-9.3966
1.3861	5.1662	-9.4316
1.3861	5.1463	-9.4739
1.4061	5.1263	-9.5266
1.4061	5.1063	-9.5908
1.4061	5.0864	-9.662
1.426	5.0664	-9.7391
1.426	5.0464	-9.8267
1.426	5.0264	-9.9168
1.426	5.0065	-10.007
1.4459	4.9865	-10.1
1.4459	4.9665	-10.191
1.4459	4.9465	-10.277
1.4459	4.9266	-10.355
1.4658	4.9066	-10.428
1.4658	4.8866	-10.493
1.4658	4.8667	-10.548
1.4658	4.8467	-10.59
1.4857	4.8267	-10.621
1.4857	4.8067	-10.643
1.4857	4.7868	-10.653
1.4857	4.7668	-10.65
1.4857	4.7468	-10.635
1.5056	4.7269	-10.608
1.5056	4.7069	-10.574
1.5056	4.6869	-10.531
1.5056	4.6669	-10.478
1.5056	4.647	-10.419
1.5056	4.627	-10.353
1.5256	4.607	-10.286
1.5256	4.5871	-10.217
1.5256	4.5671	-10.147
1.5256	4.5471	-10.079
1.5256	4.5271	-10.014
1.5256	4.5072	-9.9541

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Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.5256	4.4872	-9.9013
1.5256	4.4672	-9.8568
1.5256	4.4472	-9.8208
1.5256	4.4273	-9.7942
1.5256	4.4073	-9.7774
1.5256	4.3873	-9.7697
1.5256	4.3674	-9.7709
1.5056	4.3474	-9.7816
1.5056	4.3274	-9.8009
1.5056	4.3074	-9.8257
1.5056	4.2875	-9.8548
1.5056	4.2675	-9.8867
1.5056	4.2475	-9.9203
1.5056	4.2276	-9.9548
1.4857	4.2076	-9.992
1.4857	4.1876	-10.029
1.4857	4.1676	-10.064
1.4857	4.1477	-10.097
1.4857	4.1277	-10.129
1.4857	4.1077	-10.158
1.4857	4.0878	-10.185
1.4857	4.0678	-10.211
1.4658	4.0478	-10.235
1.4658	4.0278	-10.26
1.4658	4.0079	-10.283
1.4658	3.9879	-10.306
1.4658	3.9679	-10.326
1.4658	3.948	-10.346
1.4658	3.928	-10.364
1.4658	3.908	-10.381
1.4658	3.888	-10.397
1.4658	3.8681	-10.413
1.4658	3.8481	-10.429
1.4658	3.8281	-10.446
1.4658	3.8081	-10.464
Continued on next page		

Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.4658	3.7882	-10.484
1.4658	3.7682	-10.507
1.4459	3.7482	-10.534
1.4459	3.7283	-10.568
1.4459	3.7083	-10.609
1.4459	3.6883	-10.658
1.4459	3.6683	-10.716
1.4459	3.6484	-10.782
1.4459	3.6284	-10.859
1.4459	3.6084	-10.945
1.4459	3.5885	-11.04
1.4459	3.5685	-11.143
1.4459	3.5485	-11.253
1.4459	3.5285	-11.367
1.4459	3.5086	-11.484
1.4459	3.4886	-11.604
1.4459	3.4686	-11.723
1.4459	3.4487	-11.839
1.4459	3.4287	-11.953
1.4459	3.4087	-12.062
1.4459	3.3887	-12.165
1.4459	3.3688	-12.262
1.4459	3.3488	-12.353
1.4459	3.3288	-12.438
1.4658	3.3088	-12.52
1.4658	3.2889	-12.599
1.4658	3.2689	-12.676
1.4658	3.2489	-12.752
1.4658	3.229	-12.824
1.4857	3.209	-12.9
1.4857	3.189	-12.982
1.4857	3.169	-13.073
1.5056	3.1491	-13.181
1.5056	3.1291	-13.314
1.5056	3.1091	-13.447

Continued on next page

Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.5056	3.0892	-13.592
1.5256	3.0692	-13.768
1.5256	3.0492	-13.96
1.5256	3.0292	-14.167
1.5256	3.0093	-14.395
1.5256	2.9893	-14.645
1.5256	2.9693	-14.914
1.5256	2.9494	-15.2
1.5256	2.9294	-15.503
1.5256	2.9094	-15.821
1.5256	2.8894	-16.149
1.5256	2.8695	-16.489
1.5256	2.8495	-16.858
1.5455	2.8295	-17.705
1.5654	2.8096	-18.548
1.5654	2.7896	-19.095
1.5654	2.7696	-19.641
1.5853	2.7496	-20.198
1.5853	2.7297	-20.765
1.5853	2.7097	-21.335
1.5853	2.6897	-21.904
1.6052	2.6697	-22.473
1.6052	2.6498	-23.039
1.6052	2.6298	-23.596
1.6052	2.6098	-24.142
1.6052	2.5899	-24.676
1.6052	2.5699	-25.195
1.6251	2.5499	-25.7
1.6251	2.5299	-26.189
1.6251	2.51	-26.659
1.6251	2.49	-27.11
1.6251	2.47	-27.541
1.6251	2.4501	-27.951
1.6251	2.4301	-28.339
1.6251	2.4101	-28.706
Continued on next page		

Table C.1 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.6251	2.3901	-29.05
1.6251	2.3702	-29.372
1.6251	2.3502	-29.671
1.6251	2.3302	-29.946
1.6251	2.3103	-30.198
1.6251	2.2903	-30.426
1.6251	2.2703	-30.63
1.6251	2.2503	-30.81
1.6251	2.2304	-30.966
1.6251	2.2104	-31.098
1.6251	2.1904	-31.205
1.6251	2.1704	-31.288
1.6251	2.1505	-31.347
1.6251	2.1305	-31.381
1.6251	2.1105	-31.391

Table C.2: Lowest free energy value per unique d_{COMs} for the LL37 peptide. Lowest value highlighted in gray.

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.1158	6.4611	-5.7546
1.1158	6.4411	-6.0943
1.1158	6.4212	-6.4153
1.1158	6.4013	-6.7178
1.1158	6.3813	-7.0023
1.1158	6.3614	-7.2703
1.1158	6.3415	-7.5199
1.1158	6.3215	-7.7526
1.1158	6.3016	-7.9689
1.1158	6.2817	-8.1694
1.1357	6.2618	-8.355
1.1357	6.2418	-8.5262
1.1357	6.2219	-8.6829
1.1357	6.202	-8.8251

Continued on next page

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.1357	6.182	-8.9533
1.1357	6.1621	-9.0678
1.1357	6.1422	-9.1687
1.1357	6.1222	-9.2563
1.1357	6.1023	-9.3308
1.1357	6.0824	-9.3927
1.1357	6.0624	-9.4421
1.1357	6.0425	-9.4791
1.1357	6.0226	-9.5041
1.1357	6.0026	-9.5174
1.1357	5.9827	-9.5194
1.1357	5.9628	-9.5105
1.1357	5.9428	-9.4911
1.1556	5.9229	-9.4621
1.1556	5.903	-9.4248
1.1556	5.883	-9.3789
1.1556	5.8631	-9.3256
1.1556	5.8432	-9.2657
1.1556	5.8233	-9.1999
1.1556	5.8033	-9.1295
1.1556	5.7834	-9.0558
1.1556	5.7635	-8.9795
1.1556	5.7435	-8.9022
1.1556	5.7236	-8.8245
1.1556	5.7037	-8.7478
1.1556	5.6837	-8.6728
1.1556	5.6638	-8.6006
1.1357	5.6439	-8.5326
1.1357	5.6239	-8.4684
1.1357	5.604	-8.4086
1.1357	5.5841	-8.3532
1.1357	5.5641	-8.3028
1.1357	5.5442	-8.2573
1.1357	5.5243	-8.2167
1.1357	5.5043	-8.1809
Continued on next page		

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.1357	5.4844	-8.1499
1.1357	5.4645	-8.1244
1.1357	5.4445	-8.1037
1.1357	5.4246	-8.0873
1.1357	5.4047	-8.0751
1.1357	5.3848	-8.0669
1.1357	5.3648	-8.0621
1.1357	5.3449	-8.0601
1.1357	5.325	-8.0605
1.1357	5.305	-8.0645
1.1357	5.2851	-8.07
1.1357	5.2652	-8.0779
1.1357	5.2452	-8.0855
1.1158	5.2253	-8.0945
1.1158	5.2054	-8.1033
1.1158	5.1854	-8.1134
1.1158	5.1655	-8.1235
1.1158	5.1456	-8.1328
1.1158	5.1256	-8.1417
1.1158	5.1057	-8.1502
1.1158	5.0858	-8.1583
1.1158	5.0658	-8.1663
1.1158	5.0459	-8.1747
1.1158	5.026	-8.1836
1.1158	5.006	-8.1935
1.1158	4.9861	-8.2049
1.1158	4.9662	-8.2181
1.1158	4.9463	-8.2334
1.1158	4.9263	-8.2509
1.1158	4.9064	-8.2713
1.1158	4.8865	-8.2945
1.1158	4.8665	-8.3204
1.1158	4.8466	-8.3485
1.1158	4.8267	-8.3792
1.1158	4.8067	-8.4119

Continued on next page

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.1158	4.7868	-8.4464
1.1158	4.7669	-8.4812
1.1158	4.7469	-8.5162
1.1158	4.727	-8.5496
1.1158	4.7071	-8.5815
1.1158	4.6871	-8.6116
1.1158	4.6672	-8.6395
1.1158	4.6473	-8.6651
1.1158	4.6273	-8.6878
1.1158	4.6074	-8.7082
1.1158	4.5875	-8.7269
1.1158	4.5675	-8.7449
1.1158	4.5476	-8.7634
1.1158	4.5277	-8.7835
1.1158	4.5078	-8.8061
1.1158	4.4878	-8.8329
1.1158	4.4679	-8.8662
1.1158	4.448	-8.9067
1.1158	4.428	-8.956
1.1158	4.4081	-9.0149
1.1158	4.3882	-9.0837
1.1158	4.3682	-9.1623
1.1158	4.3483	-9.2504
1.1158	4.3284	-9.3461
1.1158	4.3084	-9.4487
1.1158	4.2885	-9.556
1.1158	4.2686	-9.666
1.1158	4.2486	-9.7767
1.1158	4.2287	-9.8862
1.1158	4.2088	-9.9933
1.1158	4.1888	-10.096
1.0959	4.1689	-10.194
1.0959	4.149	-10.286
1.0959	4.129	-10.372
1.0959	4.1091	-10.451

Continued on next page

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.0959	4.0892	-10.524
1.0959	4.0693	-10.591
1.0959	4.0493	-10.652
1.0959	4.0294	-10.709
1.0959	4.0095	-10.763
1.0959	3.9895	-10.814
1.0959	3.9696	-10.864
1.0959	3.9497	-10.914
1.0959	3.9297	-10.965
1.0959	3.9098	-11.018
1.0959	3.8899	-11.074
1.0959	3.8699	-11.135
1.0959	3.85	-11.2
1.0959	3.8301	-11.27
1.0959	3.8101	-11.345
1.0959	3.7902	-11.427
1.0959	3.7703	-11.518
1.0959	3.7503	-11.619
1.0959	3.7304	-11.727
1.0959	3.7105	-11.845
1.0959	3.6905	-11.978
1.0959	3.6706	-12.128
1.0959	3.6507	-12.282
1.0959	3.6308	-12.444
1.0959	3.6108	-12.619
1.0959	3.5909	-12.808
1.1158	3.571	-13.015
1.1158	3.551	-13.237
1.1158	3.5311	-13.475
1.1158	3.5112	-13.728
1.1158	3.4912	-13.996
1.1158	3.4713	-14.276
1.1158	3.4514	-14.567
1.1158	3.4314	-14.866
1.1158	3.4115	-15.172

Continued on next page

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.1158	3.3916	-15.481
1.1158	3.3716	-15.79
1.1357	3.3517	-16.099
1.1357	3.3318	-16.404
1.1357	3.3118	-16.702
1.1357	3.2919	-16.991
1.1357	3.272	-17.271
1.1357	3.252	-17.539
1.1357	3.2321	-17.793
1.1357	3.2122	-18.034
1.1357	3.1923	-18.26
1.1357	3.1723	-18.471
1.1357	3.1524	-18.665
1.1357	3.1325	-18.842
1.1357	3.1125	-19.003
1.1357	3.0926	-19.146
1.1357	3.0727	-19.272
1.1357	3.0527	-19.381
1.1556	3.0328	-19.475
1.1556	3.0129	-19.553
1.1556	2.9929	-19.615
1.1556	2.973	-19.662
1.1556	2.9531	-19.695
1.1556	2.9331	-19.713
1.1755	2.9132	-19.721
1.1755	2.8933	-19.728
1.1954	2.8733	-19.746
1.2153	2.8534	-19.802
1.2749	2.8335	-19.888
1.4539	2.8135	-20.189
1.5136	2.7936	-20.691
1.5335	2.7737	-21.233
1.5335	2.7538	-21.789
1.5534	2.7338	-22.348
1.5534	2.7139	-22.903
Continued on next page		

Table C.2 – continued from previous page

R_g (nm)	d_{COMs} (nm)	Free Energy (kJ/mol)
1.5534	2.694	-23.449
1.5534	2.674	-23.983
1.5732	2.6541	-24.507
1.5732	2.6342	-25.017
1.5732	2.6142	-25.51
1.5732	2.5943	-25.987
1.5732	2.5744	-26.447
1.5732	2.5544	-26.888
1.5732	2.5345	-27.31
1.5732	2.5146	-27.712
1.5732	2.4946	-28.095
1.5732	2.4747	-28.457
1.5732	2.4548	-28.798
1.5732	2.4348	-29.119
1.5732	2.4149	-29.417
1.5732	2.395	-29.695
1.5732	2.375	-29.95
1.5732	2.3551	-30.183
1.5732	2.3352	-30.394
1.5732	2.3153	-30.582
1.5534	2.2953	-30.749
1.5534	2.2754	-30.892
1.5534	2.2555	-31.013
1.5534	2.2355	-31.11
1.5534	2.2156	-31.184
1.5534	2.1957	-31.235
1.5534	2.1757	-31.263
1.5534	2.1558	-31.267