

SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS OF CELL- PENETRATING γ -PEPTIDE/ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDE CONJUGATES AND OF CYCLIC LIPODEPSIPEPTIDES DERIVED FROM FENGYCINS

Cristina Rosés Subirós

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DOCTORAL THESIS

**Solid-phase synthesis of cell-penetrating
 γ -peptide/antimicrobial peptide conjugates
and of cyclic lipodepsipeptides derived from fengycins**

CRISTINA ROSÉS SUBIRÓS

2015

Doctoral Programme in Experimental Sciences and Sustainability

Supervised by: Dr. Lidia Feliu Soley
Dr. Marta Planas Grabuleda

This manuscript has been presented to opt for the **Doctoral Degree** from the
University of Girona



Dr. Lidia Feliu Soley and Dr. Marta Planas Grabuleda, of the University of Girona,

WE DECLARE:

That the thesis entitled “Solid-phase synthesis of cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial peptide conjugates and of cyclic lipodepsipeptides derived from fengycins”, presented by Cristina Rosés Subirós to obtain a doctoral degree, has been completed under our supervision and meets the requirements to opt for an International Doctorate.

For all intents and purposes, we hereby sign this document.

Dr. Lidia Feliu Soley

Dr. Marta Planas Grabuleda

Girona, September 16th 2015

A la meva família,

Full list of publications:

Publications derived from this thesis:

- **Chapter 3:** Rosés, C.; Carbajo, D.; Sanclimens, G.; Farrera-Sinfreu, J.; Blancafort, A.; Oliveras, G.; Cirac, A.D.; Bardají, E.; Puig, T.; Planas, M.; Feliu, L.; Albericio, F.; Royo, M. Cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial undecapeptide conjugates with anticancer activity. *Tetrahedron* **2012**, *68*, 4406-4412.

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List of abbreviations

AMP	Antimicrobial peptide
Aa	Amino acid
Ac	Acetyl
AHDMHA	(2 <i>R</i> ,3 <i>R</i> ,4 <i>R</i>)-2-Amino-3-hydroxy-4,5-dimethylhexanoic acid
All	Allyl
Alloc	Allyloxycarbonyl
Aq	Aqueous
Bn	Benzyl
Boc	<i>tert</i> -Butyloxycarbonyl
^t Bu	<i>tert</i> -Butyl
Bz	Benzoyl
Cat	Catalytic
COMU	1-[(1-Cyano-2-ethoxy-2-oxoethylideneaminoxy)-dimethylamino-morpholinomethylene]methanaminium hexafluorophosphate
CPP	Cell penetrating peptide
DCC	<i>N,N'</i> -Dicyclohexylcarbodiimide
DEPBT	3-(Diethoxyphosphoryloxy)-1,2,3-benzotriazin-4(3 <i>H</i>)-one
DHB	2,5-Dihydroxybenzoic acid
DIAD	Diisopropylazodicarboxylate
DIEA	<i>N,N'</i> -Diisopropylethylamine
DIPCDI	<i>N,N'</i> -Diisopropylcarbodiimide
DMAP	<i>N,N'</i> -Dimethylaminopyridine
DMEM	Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium
DMF	<i>N,N'</i> -Dimethylformamide
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DOE	Design of experiments
Equiv	Equivalent
ESI-MS	Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry
Et	Ethyl
FBS	Fetal bovine serum
Fmoc	9-Fluorenylmethyloxycarbonyl
HATU	<i>N</i> -[(Dimethylamino)-1 <i>H</i> -1,2,3-triazolo-[4,5- <i>b</i>]pyridin-1-yl-methylene]- <i>N</i> -methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate <i>N</i> -oxide
HBTU	<i>N</i> -[(1 <i>H</i> -Benzotriazol-1-yl)-(dimethylamino)methylene]- <i>N</i> -methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate <i>N</i> -oxide

HMPA	4-Hydroxymethylphenoxyacetic acid
HOBt	1-Hydroxybenzotriazole
HPLC	High Pressure Liquid Chromatography
IC ₅₀	Concentration that causes 50% growth inhibition
MALDI-TOF	Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization with Time-Of-Flight
MBHA	4-Methylbenzhydrylamine resin
MIC	Minimum inhibitory concentration
MTT	3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide
NMM	<i>N</i> -Methylmorpholine
NMP	<i>N</i> -Methylpyrrolidinone
OD	Optical density
Oxyma	Ethyl 2-cyano-2-(hydroxyimino)acetate
PBS	Phosphate Saline Buffer
PEG	Polyethyleneglycol or 8-amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid
<i>p</i> NZ	<i>p</i> -Nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl
PyBOP	Benzotriazol-1-yl- <i>N</i> -oxy-tris(pyrrolidino)phosphonium hexafluorophosphate
PyBrOP	Bromo-tris(pyrrolidino)phosphonium hexafluorophosphate
PyOxim	[Ethyl cyano(hydroxyimino)acetato- <i>O</i> ²]tri-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-phosphonium hexafluorophosphate
Rink amide	4-(2',4'-Dimethoxyphenylaminomethyl) phenoxyacetic acid
RP-HPLC	Reverse Phase High Pressure Liquid Chromatography
SPPS	Solid-phase peptide synthesis
TFA	Trifluoroacetic acid
TFE	Trifluoroethanol
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
TIS	Triisopropylsilane
TLC	Thin Layer Chromatography
TMBE	<i>tert</i> -Butyl methyl ether
TMSOTf	Trimethylsilyl trifluoromethanesulfonate
Tr	Trityl
<i>t</i> _R	Retention time
<i>p</i> -Ts	<i>p</i> -Toluenesulfonyl

Amino acids

Name	Three letter code	One letter code
Alanine	Ala	A
Arginine	Arg	R
Asparagine	Asn	N
Aspartic Acid	Asp	D
Cysteine	Cys	C
Glutamic Acid	Glu	E
Glutamine	Gln	Q
Glycine	Gly	G
Histidine	His	H
Isoleucine	Ile	I
Leucine	Leu	L
Lysine	Lys	K
Methionine	Met	M
Ornithine	Orn	O
Phenylalanine	Phe	F
Proline	Pro	P
Sarcosine	Sar	-
Serine	Ser	S
Threonine	Thr	T
Tryptophan	Trp	W
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y
Valine	Val	V

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Supplementary Digital Information

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General Abstract

Bioactive peptides have become an important reference in the drug discovery process in recent years. They can be found in a wide range of organisms, from vertebrate to bacteria, playing a key role in countless biological processes. Among them, antimicrobial peptides are one of the most studied. Their activity is not only restricted to bacteria, but are active against many other different pathogens, such as fungi, viruses or even cancer cells. Their mechanism of action mainly involves the interaction with negatively charged membranes which decreases the probability that microorganisms develop resistance to them. These features have prompted antimicrobial peptides to be considered as a resourceful strategy for the discovery of new therapeutic drugs. However, there are hurdles which must be overcome before their *in vivo* use can be implemented, such as their poor bioavailability or their high susceptibility to enzymatic degradation. Chemical modification of the peptide backbone, cyclization or introduction of non-natural amino acids can prevent protease recognition resulting in an enhancement of the peptide stability. These structural modifications require new versatile strategies suitable for the preparation of a large range of analogues. Towards this aim, this PhD thesis is focused on the development of new synthetic approaches to obtain new bioactive peptides.

In the first part of this thesis (Chapter 3) peptide conjugates incorporating an antimicrobial peptide and a cell-penetrating peptide (CPP) were synthesized and evaluated for their antitumoral activity. In particular, in collaboration with the *Combinatorial Chemistry Unit* of the *Institute for Research in Biomedicine* from Barcelona, selected peptides from the CECMEL11 library of antimicrobial peptides were conjugated to the cell-penetrating γ -peptide **PEG-1**. This CPP prompted the cellular uptake of the antimicrobial peptides improving their activity against cancer cells. The best conjugate produced a high growth inhibition percentage of MDA-MB-231 cells and it was low toxic against non-malignant fibroblasts.

In the second part of this thesis (Chapter 4 and 5) a feasible strategy for the synthesis of bioactive cyclic lipodepsipeptides produced by *Bacillus* strains, useful for plant protection, was envisaged. In Chapter 4 an efficient solid-phase methodology for the preparation of the macrolactone of eight amino acids present in fengycins was developed. In this regard, two synthetic routes were designed and evaluated. The key

steps of these strategies were the formation of the ester bond and the on-resin cyclization. The best approach allowed the preparation of cyclic octadepsipeptides derived from fengycins A, B and S. In Chapter 5, this methodology was extended to the preparation of dehydroxy fengycin analogues which differ on the amino acid composition. This study represents, to the best of our knowledge, the first approach towards the solid-phase synthesis of this family of cyclic lipodepsipeptides and it can be easily adapted to the preparation of a wide variety of analogues.

Resum General

En els últims anys, els pèptids bioactius s'han convertit en una referència important en el procés de desenvolupament de nous fàrmacs. Aquests compostos es poden trobar en una gran varietat d'organismes, des de vertebrats fins a bacteries, i tenen un paper important en nombrosos processos biològics. Entre ells, els pèptids antimicrobians són uns dels més estudiats. La seva activitat no es limita únicament a les bacteries, sinó que també són actius en front molts altres patògens com fongs, virus o inclús cèl·lules cancerígenes. A més, el seu mecanisme d'acció es basa principalment en la interacció amb les membranes carregades negativament, cosa que redueix la probabilitat que el microorganisme desenvolupi mecanismes de resistència. Aquestes característiques han convertit als pèptids antimicrobians en una estratègia prometedora per al descobriment de nous agents terapèutics. No obstant això, hi ha certs obstacles que s'han de solucionar abans de poder implementar el seu ús *in vivo*, com per exemple la seva biodisponibilitat baixa o la seva susceptibilitat elevada a la degradació enzimàtica. La modificació química de l'esquelet peptídic, la ciclació o la introducció d'aminoàcids no naturals són estratègies que eviten el reconeixement per proteases augmentant la estabilitat del pèptid. Aquestes modificacions estructurals requereixen de noves tècniques sintètiques més versàtils i que permetin la preparació d'una gran varietat d'anàlegs. En aquest sentit, aquesta tesi doctoral s'ha centrat en el desenvolupament de noves estratègies sintètiques per a l'obtenció de nous pèptids bioactius.

En la primera part d'aquesta tesi (Capítol 3) s'han sintetitzat nous pèptids conjugats incorporant un pèptid antimicrobià i un pèptid amb capacitat de penetrar la membrana cel·lular (CPP), i s'ha avaluat la seva activitat antitumoral. Concretament, en col·laboració amb la *Unitat de Química Combinatòria* de l'*Institut d'Investigació Biomèdica* de Barcelona, seqüències seleccionades de la quimioteca de pèptids antimicrobians CECMEL11 s'han unit al CPP **PEG-1**. Aquest CPP ha facilitat la internalització cel·lular dels pèptids antimicrobians augmentant la seva activitat antitumoral. El pèptid conjugat amb un millor perfil biològic ha mostrat un percentatge elevat d'inhibició del creixement de les cèl·lules cancerígenes MDA-MB-231 i una toxicitat baixa enfront fibroblasts no malignes.

En la segona part d'aquesta tesi (Capítols 4 i 5) s'ha desenvolupat una estratègia útil per a la preparació de lipodepsipèptids cíclics produïts per soques de *Bacillus*, utilitzats en la protecció de plantes. En el Capítol 4 s'ha establert una metodologia en fase sòlida eficaç per a la preparació de la macrolactona de vuit aminoàcids present en la estructura de les fengicines. Amb aquesta finalitat, s'han dissenyat i avaluat dues rutes sintètiques. Les etapes clau d'aquestes estratègies han estat la formació de l'enllaç èster i la ciclació en fase sòlida. La ruta millor ha permès la preparació d'octadepsipèptids cíclics derivats de les fengicines A, B i S. En el Capítol 5, aquesta metodologia ha estat estesa a la preparació de dehidroxi anàlegs de fengicina que difereixen en la seqüència d'aminoàcids que presenten. Aquest estudi representa la primera estratègia sintètica dissenyada per a la preparació en fase sòlida d'aquesta família de lipodepsipèptids cíclics i pot ser fàcilment adaptada per a l'obtenció d'una gran varietat d'anàlegs.

Resumen General

En los últimos años, los péptidos bioactivos se han convertido en una referencia importante en el proceso de desarrollo de nuevos fármacos. Estos compuestos se pueden encontrar en una gran variedad de organismos, desde vertebrados hasta bacterias, y poseen un papel importante en numerosos procesos biológicos. Entre ellos, los péptidos antimicrobianos son unos de los más estudiados. Su actividad no se limita sólo a bacterias, sino que también son activos frente a muchos otros patógenos, como hongos, virus o incluso células cancerígenas. Además, su mecanismo de acción se basa principalmente en la interacción con las membranas cargadas negativamente, lo que reduce la probabilidad que el microorganismo desarrolle mecanismos de resistencia. Estas características han convertido a los péptidos antimicrobianos en una estrategia prometedora para el descubrimiento de nuevos agentes terapéuticos. Sin embargo, hay algunos obstáculos que deben ser superados antes de poder implementar su uso *in vivo*, como por ejemplo su biodisponibilidad baja o su susceptibilidad elevada a la degradación enzimática. La modificación química del esqueleto peptídico, la ciclación o la introducción de aminoácidos no naturales son estrategias que evitan el reconocimiento por proteasas aumentando la estabilidad del péptido. Estas modificaciones estructurales requieren nuevas técnicas sintéticas más versátiles y que permitan la preparación de una amplia variedad de análogos. En este sentido, esta tesis doctoral se ha centrado en el desarrollo de nuevas estrategias sintéticas para la obtención de nuevos péptidos bioactivos.

En la primera parte de esta tesis (Capítulo 3) se han sintetizado nuevos péptidos conjugados incorporando un péptido antimicrobiano y un péptido con capacidad de penetrar la membrana celular (CPP), y se ha evaluado su actividad antitumoral. Concretamente, en colaboración con la *Unidad de Química Combinatoria del Instituto de Investigación Biomédica* de Barcelona, secuencias seleccionadas de la quimioteca de péptidos antimicrobianos CECMEL11 se han unido al CPP **PEG-1**. Este CPP ha facilitado la internalización celular de los péptidos antimicrobianos aumentando su actividad antitumoral. El péptido conjugado con un mejor perfil biológico ha mostrado un porcentaje elevado de inhibición del crecimiento de las células cancerígenas MDA-MB-231 y una toxicidad baja frente a fibroblastos no malignos.

En la segunda parte de esta tesis (Capítulos 4 y 5) se ha desarrollado una estrategia útil para la preparación de lipodepsipéptidos cíclicos bioactivos producidos por cepas de *Bacillus*, utilizados en la protección de plantas. En el Capítulo 4 se ha establecido una metodología en fase sólida eficaz para la preparación de la macrolactona de ocho aminoácidos presente en la estructura de las fengicinas. Con esta finalidad, se han diseñado y evaluado dos rutas sintéticas. Las etapas clave de estas estrategias han sido la formación del enlace éster y la ciclación en fase sólida. La ruta mejor ha permitido la preparación de octadepsipéptidos cíclicos derivados de las fengicinas A, B y S. En el Capítulo 5, esta metodología ha sido extendida a la preparación de dehidroxi análogos de fengicina que difieren en la secuencia de aminoácidos que presentan. Este estudio representa la primera estrategia sintética diseñada para la preparación en fase sólida de esta familia de lipodepsipéptidos cíclicos y puede ser fácilmente adaptada para la obtención de una gran variedad de análogos.

CHAPTER 1.

General Introduction

1.1 ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDES

Natural products have been considered as an interesting reference in the drug discovery process. It is no wonder that they play a crucial role in the discovery of leads and most of the pharmaceutical companies' efforts have been focused not only on their discovery, but also on the design of analogues to improve their biological profile (Newman and Cragg, 2012; Butler et al., 2013). Among them, antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have been the focus of numerous research projects, because of their key role in biological processes as well as for their high efficacy and low toxicity.

Antimicrobial peptides are an assorted group of molecules produced by virtually all forms of life. They can be found in organisms ranging from bacteria to plants as well as mammals (Zasloff, 2002; Jenssen et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2015). Moreover, they are involved in the nonspecific innate immune system of these organisms and show a broad spectrum of activities towards a wide range of pathogens, such as bacteria, fungi, virus and even cancer cells (Hancock, 2001; Jenssen et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Pasupuleti et al., 2012). Regarding their structure, antimicrobial peptides are typically polypeptides of low molecular weight, composed of less than 100 amino acids. Although the length and composition are both variable, their sequence contains cationic and hydrophobic residues, having an amphiphilic structure.

1.1.1 Classification of antimicrobial peptides

The increasing interest in antimicrobial peptides has not only prompted the isolation and characterization of many natural peptides, but also the *de novo* design and synthesis of analogues. Up to now, more than 2000 different antimicrobial peptides have been reported (APD database: Wang et al., 2009 <http://aps.unmc.edu/AP/main.php>; CAMP database: Waghue et al., 2014 <http://www.camp.bicnirrh.res.in/index.php>; peptaibol database: Whitmore and Wallace, 2004 <http://www.cryst.bbk.ac.uk/peptaibol>). Due to their structural diversity, their classification is difficult. Several criteria have been proposed in order to sort out this wide variety of compounds, some of which are detailed below.

1.1.1.1 Classification of antimicrobial peptides according to their secondary structure

Although antimicrobial peptides are typically unstructured in solution, most of them can adopt a defined conformation in presence of lipid membranes. According to their secondary structure, antimicrobial peptides can be classified into four major groups: α -helical, β -sheet, loop and extended peptides, with the first two classes being the most common in nature (*Figure 1.1*) (Hancock, 2001; Powers and Hancock, 2003; Jenssen et al., 2006; Giuliani et al., 2007; Peters et al., 2010; Baltzer and Brown, 2011).

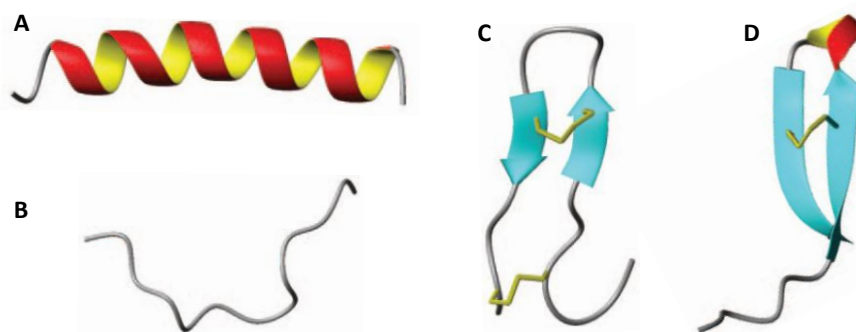


Figure 1.1. Secondary structure of antimicrobial peptides: (A) α -helical; (B) extended; (C) β -sheet; and (D) looped. Disulfide bonds are represented in green (adapted from Powers and Hancock, 2003).

α -Helical peptides are one of the most widely distributed and studied families (Tossi et al., 2000). These peptides are usually unstructured in an aqueous environment. Nevertheless, it has been shown that they are able to adopt a secondary helical conformation upon encountering lipid membranes (Tossi et al., 2000; Zasloff, 2002; Pasupuleti et al., 2012). Moreover, many of these peptides also display distinct amphiphilic characteristics that enable their insertion into the lipid membrane. Some examples of α -helical peptides are cecropins, melittin and magainins (*Table 1.1*). Cecropins are a well-known family of cationic linear peptides isolated from the giant silk moth *Hyalophora cecropia* (Steiner et al., 1981; Andreu et al., 1983). They are mainly active against Gram-negative bacteria, but they also show activity towards some Gram-positive bacteria and fungi. These peptides are 35-40 residues long and their structure contains a basic *N*-terminal amphipathic α -helical domain connected to a hydrophobic *C*-terminal α -helical stretch by a flexible hinge (Tossi et al., 2000; Li et al., 2012). Melittin is another family of well-known α -helical peptides. This 26-residue peptide, which was found in the venom of the European honey bee *Apis mellifera*, contains in its structure two well-defined α -helical regions with different polarities (Terwilliger and Eisenberg, 1982a, 1982b; Terwilliger et al., 1982). The *N*-terminal region, predominantly hydrophobic, contains nonpolar, hydrophobic and neutral amino acids; whereas the *C*-terminal region is mainly rich in hydrophilic and basic residues. Melittin induces membrane permeabilization and lyses prokaryotic as well as eukaryotic cells in a non-selective manner, which is responsible for its antibacterial and its highly hemolytic activity (Terwilliger et al., 1982; Tossi et al., 2000; Raghuraman and Chattopadhyay, 2007; Lee et al., 2013). Finally, other examples of well-known cationic α -helical peptides are magainins. These 20-25-residue peptides have been isolated from the skin and stomach of the frog *Xenopus laevis*, and are able to adopt a single rod-like helix structure in presence of lipid bilayers (Zasloff, 1987; Tossi et al., 2000). Magainins also exhibit activity towards a broad-spectrum of pathogens, such as bacteria, fungi, protozoa, cancer cells and even viruses.

In contrast to α -helical peptides, β -sheet sequences are in general cyclic structures constrained by intramolecular bridges, usually disulfide bonds. Some of the best studied peptides in this group are defensins and protegrins (*Table 1.1*). The first family includes cysteine-rich peptides of 18-45 amino acids which contain several disulfide bonds in their structure (Nissen-Meyer and Nes, 1997; Ganz, 2003; Li et al.,

2012; Pasupuleti et al., 2012). Defensins have been isolated mainly from mammals, although they have also been found in insects and plants, and they show a broad spectrum of activity towards bacteria and fungi. On the other hand, protegrins are a family of arginine-rich peptides with 16-18 amino acids isolated from porcine leukocytes. They contain two intramolecular cysteine disulfide bonds which provide them with a defined anti-parallel β -hairpin secondary structure (Kokryakov et al., 1993; Pasupuleti et al., 2012).

Table 1.1. Examples of natural antimicrobial peptides categorized according to their secondary structure.

Secondary structure	Peptide	Sequence	References
α -Helical peptides	Cecropin A	KWKLFKKIEKVGQNIRDGIIKAGPAVAVVGQATQIAK-NH ₂	Steiner et al., 1981
	Melittin	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ-NH ₂	Terwilliger and Eisenberg 1982b
	Magainin 1	GIGKFLHSAGKFGKAFVGEIMKS-OH	Zasloff, 1987
	Magainin 2	GIGKFLHSAKKFGKAFVGEIMNS-OH	Zasloff, 1987
β -Sheet peptides	α-Defensin (HNP-3)	C ₁ YC ₂ RIPAC ₃ IAGERRYGTC ₃ IYQGRLWAF ₂ C ₁ -OH ^a	Ganz, 2003
	β-Defensin (HBD-2)	GGIGDPVTC ₁ LKSGAIC ₂ HPVFC ₃ PRRYK-QIGTC ₃ GLPGTKC ₁ C ₂ KKP-OH ^a	Ganz, 2003
	Protegrin-1	RGGR ₁ YC ₂ RRRFC ₂ VC ₁ VGR-NH ₂ ^a	Kokryakov et al., 1993

^a Subscript numbers represent amino acids joined by a disulfide bridge.

1.1.1.2 Classification of antimicrobial peptides according to their biosynthetic pathway

Regardless their structure, natural antimicrobial peptides can also be classified into two major groups according to their biosynthetic pathway as ribosomal and non-ribosomal peptides.

Ribosomal peptides are widely distributed in nature, being produced by mammals, insects, plants and microorganisms (Nissen-Meyer and Nes, 1997). These gene-encoded peptides are synthesized in the ribosome through a transcription and translation pathway. Therefore, ribosomal peptides only contain the 20 proteinogenic amino acids in their sequence. Nevertheless, it has been demonstrated that most of them are post-translationally modified leading to products with a more complex structure (McIntosh et al., 2009). Most of the isolated antimicrobial peptides are ribosomally synthesized and some examples are the aforementioned cecropins and defensins (*Table 1.1*).

On the other hand, non-ribosomal peptides comprise β -lactams, glycopeptides, lipopeptides and peptaibols (Baltz, 2006; Leitgeb et al., 2007; Duclohier, 2007; Zakeri and Lu, 2013). These peptides are produced in a nucleic acid-independent way through large multienzyme complexes, so-called non-ribosomal peptide synthetases, which are able to catalyze stepwise peptide condensations. Unlike ribosomal synthesis, the substrates of these multienzymes are not restricted to the 20 natural amino acids but also include non-proteinogenic ones, such as D-isomers or *N*-methylated residues, and even heterocyclic rings and fatty acids (Mankelov and Neilan, 2000; Sieber and Marahiel, 2003; McIntosh et al., 2009). Another common feature of many non-ribosomal peptides is their constrained structure, usually resulting from cyclization or oxidative cross-linking (Sieber and Marahiel, 2003). As a result, they show a more diverse chemical space than ribosomal peptides. One example of these peptides is the antibiotic daptomycin (*Figure 1.2*). This lipopeptide contains a cyclic peptide linked to a fatty chain. It shows interesting bactericidal activity against Gram-positive bacteria and is used to treat skin infections as well as other infections caused by multi-drug resistant microorganisms (Micklefield, 2004; Zakeri and Lu, 2013).

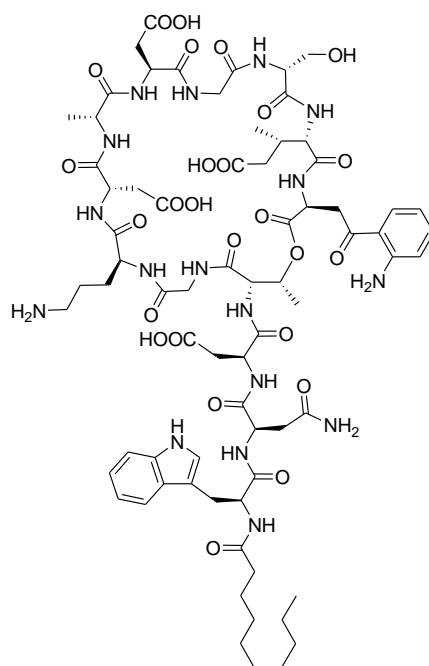


Figure 1.2. Structure of the non-ribosomal peptide daptomycin.

1.1.2 Mechanism of action of antimicrobial peptides

The main mode of action of antibiotics involves their interaction with specific cellular targets. In contrast, most antimicrobial peptides act through a nonreceptor-mediated mechanism, being the cell membrane their main target (Shai, 2002; Pasupuleti et al., 2012; Galdiero et al., 2013; Henderson and Lee, 2013; Costa et al., 2015). The negative nature of the cell membrane enables the electrostatic interaction with antimicrobial peptides, which are mainly cationic (Tossi et al., 2000; Hancock, 2001; Shai, 2002; Zasloff, 2002; Powers and Hancock, 2003; Brogden, 2005; Huang, 2006; Jenssen et al., 2006; Baltzer and Brown, 2011). Depending on both the peptide and bilayer composition, different permeabilization models have been proposed, such as the barrel stave, the carpet, the toroidal pore and the disordered toroidal pore models (*Figure 1.3*) (Brogden, 2005; Melo et al., 2009). In the barrel-stave model, peptides aggregate and insert perpendicularly into the bilayer forming a pore. The hydrophobic peptide region aligns with the lipid core of the bilayer while the hydrophilic region forms the lumen of the pore. This peptide orientation allows the phospholipid chains of

the pore to remain perpendicular to the bilayer plane. In the toroidal-pore model, peptides also aggregate and insert perpendicularly into the bilayer, but unlike the barrel-stave model, they induce a membrane curvature. This model suggests that the two lipid monolayers, the inner and the outer one, continuously bend through the pore. Thus, the hydrophilic pore is formed by both peptides and phospholipid head groups. A modification of this model has been reported, called the disordered toroidal pore model. The latter proposes the same mechanism as the toroidal pore one, but it involves pore formation through peptides in a more disordered orientation. The carpet-like model describes a different mechanism. In this case, peptides accumulate parallel to the bilayer until they reach a high surface coverage. At this point, they start to disrupt the membrane in a detergent-like manner, even causing the formation of micelles.

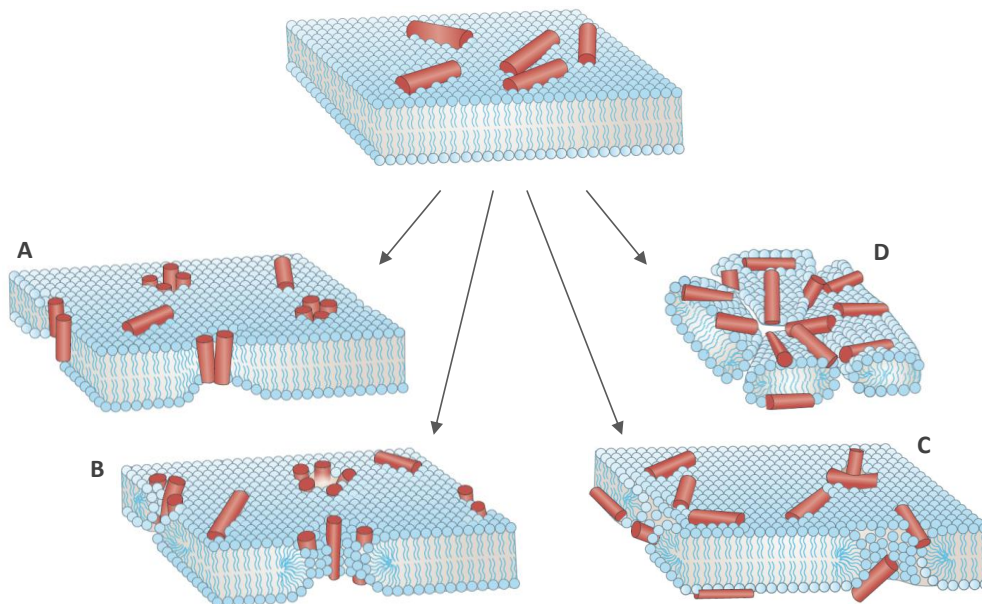


Figure 1.3. Mechanisms of membrane cell disruption mediated by antimicrobial peptides: **A)** barrel-stave; **B)** toroidal-pore; **C)** disordered toroidal-pore; and **D)** carpet-like models (adapted from Melo et al., 2009).

Besides their ability to interact with membranes, it has been described that antimicrobial peptides may also interact with intracellular targets (Shai, 2002; Powers and Hancock, 2003; Giuliani et al., 2007; Costa et al., 2015). There is increasing evidence that antimicrobial peptides are able to translocate the membrane, block essential cellular processes and kill the bacteria without extensively damaging the

membrane (*Figure 1.4*). For instance, translocated peptides can inhibit the cell-wall synthesis (I), the nucleic acid synthesis (E), the protein synthesis (F), and even the enzymatic activity of the cell (G-H) (Brogden, 2005; Jenssen et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Pasupuleti et al., 2012). These mechanisms of action may occur independently or synergistically with membrane permeabilization (Giuliani et al., 2007). However, the interaction with the bacterial membrane appears to be the main mechanism of action for the vast majority of antimicrobial peptides (Shai, 2002; Powers and Hancock, 2003; Brogden, 2005; Jenssen et al., 2006; Pasupuleti et al., 2012).

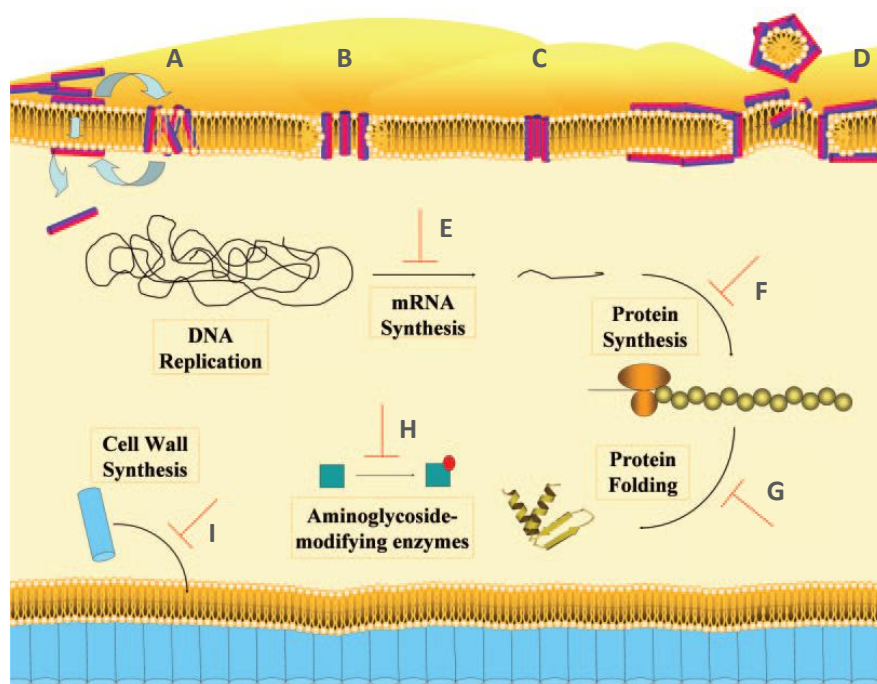


Figure 1.4. Mode of action of antimicrobial peptides. The bacterial membrane is represented as a yellow lipid bilayer. The cylinders are peptides, where the hydrophilic regions are colored red and the hydrophobic regions are in blue. Mechanisms of membrane permeabilization are indicated in panels A to D, while mechanisms of action of peptides which do not act by permeabilizing the bacterial membrane are indicated by panels E to I (adapted from Jenssen et al., 2006).

1.1.3 Selectivity of antimicrobial peptides

One of the most important characteristics of antimicrobial peptides is their ability to selectively interact with microbial membranes over that of host cells (Matsuzaki, 1999; Henderson and Lee, 2013). Although the negative nature of the microbial membrane seems to be the main factor for the selectivity of antimicrobial peptides, other elements are also involved. Membrane fluidity, lipid head groups identity and lipid acyl chain length may further explain how the behaviour of antimicrobial peptides is tuned to selectively disrupt bacterial membranes over those of mammals (Pasupuleti et al., 2012; Henderson and Lee, 2013).

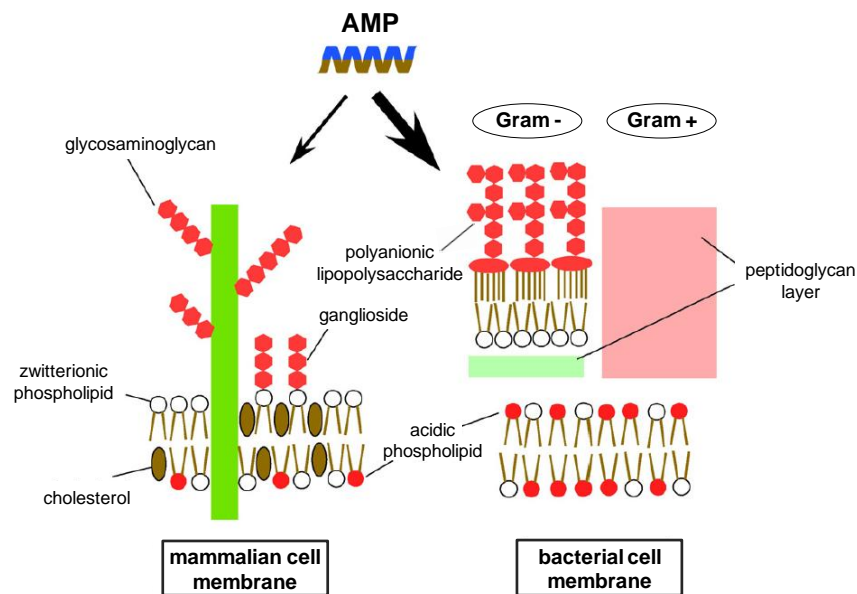


Figure 1.5. Molecular basis for membrane selectivity by antimicrobial peptides (extracted from Matsuzaki, 2009).

Lipid composition of prokaryotic and eukaryotic cell membranes is significantly different and seems to be the cause for the preferential binding of antimicrobial peptides to the former cell membranes (*Figure 1.5*) (Matsuzaki, 1999; Zasloff, 2002). Bacteria outer membranes contain large amounts of negatively charged phospholipids, such as phosphatidylglycerol and cardiolipin (Brogden, 2005; Giuliani et al., 2007; Matsuzaki, 2009; Pasupuleti et al., 2012; Galdiero et al., 2013). In addition, the outer membrane of

Gram-negative bacteria is covered with a layer of polyanionic lipopolysaccharides that raise its negative character. In the same way, Gram-positive bacteria contains some acidic polysaccharides on their outer surface, such as teichoic acids, that also increase the negative charge of the membrane (Tossi et al., 2000; Shai, 2002; Brogden, 2005; Matsuzaki, 2009; Galdiero et al., 2013). All these anionic components provide a high negative charge on the outer leaflet of the bacteria enabling their interaction with antimicrobial peptides.

In contrast, mammalian membranes are rich in zwitterionic phospholipids, including phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine and sphingomyelin, which are neutrally charged at physiological pH (Giuliani et al., 2007; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Matsuzaki, 2009; Pasupuleti et al., 2012; Galdiero et al., 2013; Henderson and Lee, 2013). Another important difference between bacterial and mammalian cell membranes is the presence of cholesterol. While it is absent in bacterial membranes, cholesterol is an important constituent of mammalian cell membranes, influencing the selectivity of antimicrobial peptides (Matsuzaki, 1999; Zasloff, 2002; Galdiero et al., 2013). Cholesterol reduces the membrane fluidicity difficulting the insertion of antimicrobial peptides and the subsequent membrane deformation (Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Henderson and Lee, 2013).

It is also interesting to note that tumor cells are more susceptible to antimicrobial peptides than non-malignant eukaryotic cells. The membrane of tumor cells is rich in anionic molecules such as phosphatidylserine, *O*-glycosylated mucins, sialylated gangliosides and heparin sulphates (Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Schweizer, 2009). This composition is responsible for the partial loss of lipid symmetry and architecture, which in turn leads to an increase of negative membrane potential that enables the binding of antimicrobial peptides to these membranes (Pasupuleti et al., 2012). Apart from the differences in cell membrane composition, other factors that have also been proposed for the antitumor activity of antimicrobial peptides are fluidicity and the glycosylation pattern of membrane-associated proteins (Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008).

1.2 ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDES AS ANTICANCER AGENTS

It is well-known that antimicrobial peptides are cytotoxic not only against bacteria, but also towards different types of human cancer cells, such as breast, bladder, ovarian and lung cells (Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Li et al., 2012; Gaspar et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014). Due to their physicochemical properties and their mode of action, antimicrobial peptides are expected to display higher selectivity and lower toxicity than conventional chemotherapy treatments.

1.2.1 The disease of cancer

Cancer remains a major cause of death affecting millions of people around the world. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) estimates that 14.1 millions of new cancer cases and 8.2 millions of cancer deaths occurred worldwide during 2012 (Globocan2012. IARC http://globocan.iarc.fr/Pages/fact_sheets_population.aspx). The international statistics also reveals that among the male population the five more frequently detected cancers are lung, prostate, colorectum, stomach and liver (*Figure 1.6a*); whereas breast, colorectum, lung, cervix uteri and stomach ones are the most common among women (*Figure 1.6b*).

Although there are more than 100 distinct types of cancer that can affect different organs and tissues, all of them are characterized by the growth and spreading of abnormal cells in an uncontrolled manner (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2000). This disease is initiated by a series of accumulative genetic and epigenetic changes that occur in normal cells (Harris et al., 2013). As a result, cancer cells acquire unique traits that alter their physiology, such as the creation of their own growth signals; the capacity to ignore antiproliferative signals; the resistance to programmed cell death (apoptosis); the ability to replicate without limits; the development of new blood vessels allowing the tumor growth; and the ability to invade tissues, at first locally and later through metastasis (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2000). Recently, other hallmarks have been added

to this list, such as the ability to reconfigure the energy metabolism of cells as well as to evade the immune system of the organism (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011).

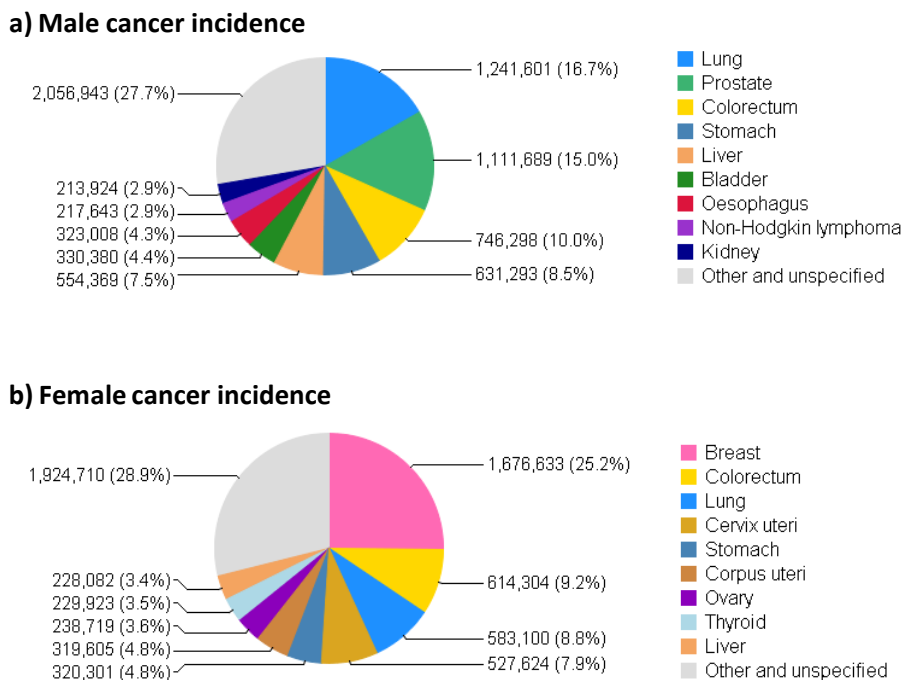


Figure 1.6. Graphic of estimate incidence of cancer disease in males (a) and in females (b) during 2012 (Globocan2012, IARC).

The conventional cytotoxic treatments for cancer management mainly involve radiotherapy and chemotherapy (Bhutia and Maiti, 2008; Nussbaumer et al., 2011; Riedl et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2013). Both treatments are used against a broad array of cancer diseases. Radiotherapy is a relatively precise treatment and is used to achieve a local control; whereas chemotherapy exerts a more systemic effect on the organism. Chemotherapy involves the use of low-molecular-weight drugs that can be classified according to their mechanism of action (Nussbaumer et al., 2011). Some examples are detailed below:

(i) **Antimetabolites.** The mechanism of these anticancer drugs is based on their interaction with essential biosynthetic pathways. Some examples are 5-fluorouracil and mercaptopurine (Figure 1.7). They are structural analogues of pyrimidine and purine, respectively, and are able to disrupt the nucleic acid synthesis. 5-Fluorouracil is widely

used for the treatment of breast tumor, gastrointestinal tract cancers, including colorectal one, and certain skin cancers. Mercaptopurine is mainly used as maintenance therapy for acute leukemia. Another example of antimetabolite is methotrexate (*Figure 1.7*). It is able to interfere enzymatic processes of the cell metabolism and is used as maintenance therapy for acute lymphoblastic leukemia, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and several solid tumors.

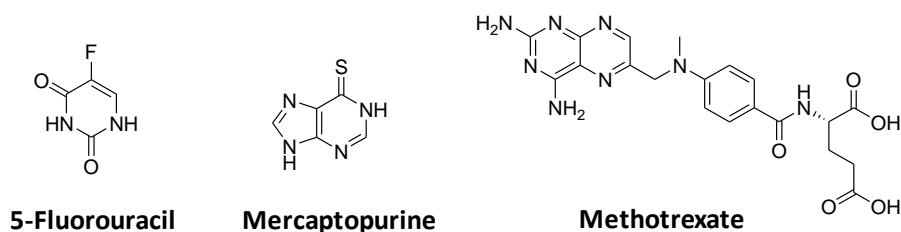


Figure 1.7. Examples of antimetabolites.

(ii) **DNA-interactive agents.** They constitute one of the largest and most important anticancer drug families which includes alkylating, cross-linking and intercalating agents as well as topoisomerase inhibitors and DNA-cleaving agents. Some examples are doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide and cisplatin (*Figure 1.8*). Doxorubicin is a natural product extracted from *Streptomyces peucetius* or *S. galilaeus*. This intercalating agent is widely used to treat leukemia, lymphomas and a variety of solid tumors. Cyclophosphamide is a member of the nitrogen mustard family which displays a broad spectrum of activity in solid tumors, lymphocytic leukemia and lymphomas. Cisplatin was the first platinum complex used for anticancer treatment and shows a pronounced activity against testicular and ovarian cancers.

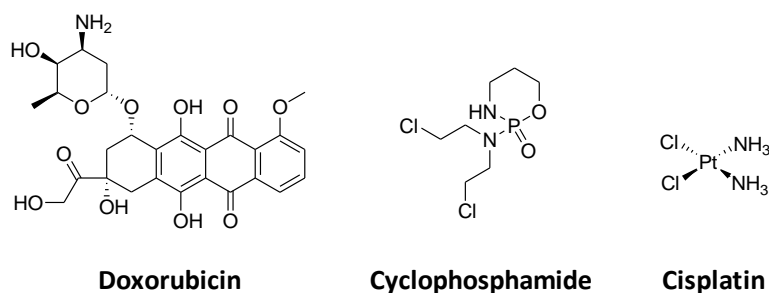


Figure 1.8. Examples of DNA-interactive drugs.

(iii) **Antitubulin agents.** These compounds are characterized to interfere the division of the nucleus leading to cell death. The main members of this family are taxanes and the vinca alkaloids, such as paclitaxel and vincristine, respectively (*Figure 1.9*). Paclitaxel is a compound isolated from the Pacific yew tree *Taxus brevifolia* and is used for advanced or metastatic lung and breast cancers. In combination with cisplatin, paclitaxel is also used for the treatment of ovarian cancer. Vincristine is a natural alkaloid isolated from the Madagascar periwinkle *Vinca rosea*. It is used to treat solid tumors, mainly of lung and breast, as well as lymphomas and acute leukemia.

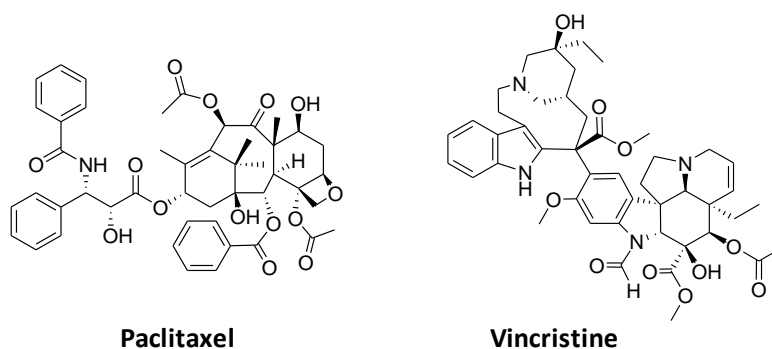


Figure 1.9. Examples of antitubulin agents.

Although these treatments are extensively used, they suffer from low therapeutic indices and a broad spectrum of side effects, which are mainly due to the low or no selectivity of drugs for cancer cells over healthy ones (Mader et al., 2005; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Riedl et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2013). In addition, there are malignant cells that are inactive or have a slow proliferating rate and, therefore, they respond poorly to these chemotherapeutic agents (Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008). It has also been observed that cancer cells can develop multiple drug resistance to anticancer drugs, which makes them not only resistant to the drug being used in the treatment, but also to a variety of other unrelated compounds, reducing their therapeutic usefulness (Pérez-Tomás, 2006; Harris et al., 2013).

Based on the above considerations, there is a clear urgent need to develop new therapies that overcome chemoresistance and that have a higher selectivity for malignant cells than drugs currently used, being less harmful for patients. In this context, antimicrobial peptides are considered as a promising alternative to the conventional chemotherapies.

1.2.2 Antimicrobial peptides with anticancer activity

Antimicrobial peptides are potential candidates for cancer therapy due to the advantages that they offer over the traditional chemotherapeutic drugs. The so-called anticancer peptides show a broad spectrum of activity and are able to kill cancer cells rapidly, destroy primary tumors, prevent metastasis and do not harm vital organs (Leuschner and Hansel, 2004; Papo and Shai, 2005; Wu et al., 2014). Moreover, they are unlikely to cause rapid emergence of resistance and can have the ability to synergize with current anticancer treatments (Leuschner and Hansel, 2004; Papo and Shai, 2005; Schweizer, 2009; Feliu et al., 2010).

Based on their spectrum of activity, anticancer peptides can be sorted out into two categories (Papo and Shai, 2005; Harris et al., 2013). The first one includes peptides that are active against both bacteria and cancer cells, but not against normal mammalian cells, such as cecropin B1, magainin 2, lactoferricin, *Bacillus* lipopeptides or synthetic peptides (e.g. P18, **BPC96**). Their structures and activities are summarized in *Table 1.2*. As an example, the antimicrobial peptide cecropin B1, an analogue of the natural peptide cecropin B, not only shows an interesting antimicrobial activity against different bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, but it also displays cytotoxicity against different leukemia cancer cell lines (IC_{50} from 2.4 to 10.2 μM), whereas it is not cytotoxic against fibroblast cells (Chen et al., 1997). Other examples are the lipopeptides surfactin and fengycin produced by the marine microorganism *Bacillus circulans*. These natural lipopeptides display a selective antiproliferative activity towards two human colon cancer cell lines (IC_{50} from 80 to 120 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), and show a low cytotoxicity against non-malignant ones (Sivapathasekaran et al., 2010). One example of synthetic peptide is P18, a derivative of the hybrid peptide cecropin A(1-8)-magainin 2(1-12). This peptide not only shows good antimicrobial activity, but also displays anticancer activity against human tumor cells exhibiting low cytolytic effect against non-malignant fibroblasts (Shin et al., 2001). Another example of synthetic peptide is the *de novo* designed cyclic peptide **BPC96**, previously described in the LIPPSO group as antimicrobial agent (see *section 1.3.2*). Along with other cyclic peptides, the anticancer activity of **BPC96** was tested against a panel of cancer cell lines, being the candidate with the best biological activity profile. **BPC96** shows an interesting inhibitory activity against HeLa cervix carcinoma cells,

and it is low hemolytic and low cytotoxic against non-malignant fibroblasts. Further studies also demonstrated that, at low doses, **BPC96** is able to synergize with the cytotoxic anticancer drug cisplatin, improving its activity (Feliu et al., 2010).

The second group of anticancer peptides contains peptides that are cytotoxic against the three types of cells, bacteria, cancer and non-malignant mammalian cells. Members of this class are melittin, tachyplesin, the human neutrophil defensin HNP-1 and the human peptide LL-37. In *Table 1.2*, there is a summary of their structures and anticancer activities. Melittin shows a broad spectrum of activity against different cell lines, such as leukemia, lung or ovarian carcinoma cells. However, this peptide also shows an important lytic activity against normal cells which decreases its therapeutic potential as a new anticancer agent (Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Gajski and Garaj-Vrhovac, 2013). LL-37 is a member of the cathelicidin family and it is involved in the tumor growth modulation of various types of cancer. It can enhance the proliferation and the metastatic capacity of ovarian, breast and lung cancers, and it has been demonstrated that LL-37 can inhibit the cell proliferation in gastric cancer. Moreover, LL-37 has also been used as immunostimulant to promote the elimination of cancer cells by the host immune system (Wu et al., 2010).

Table 1.2. Examples of antimicrobial peptides with anticancer activity.

Peptide	Sequence	Cancer cells	Selectivity	References
Cecropin B1	KWKVFKKIEKMGRNIRNGIVKAGPKWKVFKKIEK-NH ₂	Leukemia cells	Yes	Chen et al., 1997
Magainin 2	GIGKFLHSAKKFGKAFVGEIMNS-OH	Bladder, lung and breast cancer cells, human melanomas and leukemia	Yes	Lehmann et al., 2006; Mader and Hoskin, 2006
Bovine lactoferricin	FKCRRWQWRMKKLGAPSITCVRRAF-OH	Leukemia, breast, colon and ovarian carcinoma cells	Yes	Mader et al., 2005; Mader and Hoskin, 2006
Surfactin	Fatty acid(&)-ELLVDLL(& ^a)	Colon cancer cells	Yes	Sivapathasekaran et al., 2010
Fengycin	Fatty acid-EOY(&)TEAPQYI(& ^b)	Colon cancer cells	Yes	Sivapathasekaran et al., 2010
P18	KWKLFKKIPKFLHLAKKF-NH ₂	Human myelogenous leukemia, T-cell leukemia and breast adenocarcinoma cells	Yes	Shin et al., 2001
BPC96	c(LKLLKFKKLQ)	Human cervical carcinoma cells	Yes	Feliu et al., 2010
Melittin	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ-NH ₂	Leukemia, ovarian carcinoma, osteosarcoma, lung, prostate and renal cancer cells	No	Gajski and Garaj-Vrhovac, 2013
Tachyplesin	KWC ₁ FRVC ₂ YRGIC ₂ YRRC ₁ R-NH ₂ ^c	Human gastric carcinoma, hepatocarcinoma and prostate carcinoma cells	No	Nakamura et al., 1988; Li et al., 2000; Ouyang et al., 2002; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008
α-Defensin HNP-1	AC ₁ YC ₂ RIPAC ₃ IAGERRYGTC ₂ IYQGRLWAFC ₃ C ₁ -OH ^c	Human oral squamous carcinoma, renal and prostate carcinoma cells	No	McKeown et al., 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Gaspar et al., 2015
LL-37	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLPRTES-OH	Gastric carcinoma cells. Also used in cancer immunotherapy	No	Wu et al., 2010

^aThe β -carboxyl group of the fatty acid chain forms an ester bond (&) with the carboxylic group of a Leu. ^bEster bond (&) between the phenol group of Tyr and the α -carboxylic group of Ile.

^cSubscript numbers represent amino acids joined by a disulfide bridge.

The mechanism of action by which anticancer peptides kill cancer cells is still controversial. However, it has been suggested that they target the cell membrane and cause the cell death through similar membrane permeabilization/disruption models described for antimicrobial peptides (see *section 1.1.2*). Anticancer peptides are able to preferentially interact with the membrane of malignant cells and insert into it due to its higher fluidicity and net negative charge compared to those of normal cells (Leuschner and Hansel, 2004; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Riedl et al., 2011; Gaspar et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2013; Gaspar et al., 2015). Once peptides are inside the cells, they can also perturb the integrity of the negatively charged mitochondrial membrane, resulting in the release of the cytochrome *c* and the consequent activation of the apoptosis mechanism (Papo and Shai, 2005; Bhutia and Maiti, 2008). The disruption of the plasma or mitochondrial membrane is not the only mode of action of anticancer peptides. Other mechanisms involving mediated immunity, hormonal receptors, DNA synthesis inhibition or anti-angiogenic effects have also been described (Papo and Shai, 2005; Schweizer, 2009; Gaspar et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Gaspar et al., 2015).

One potential method to increase peptide activity is its conjugation to a drug delivery system able to enhance its internalization (Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009). The use of cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) is a promising strategy to promote the cellular uptake of numerous types of drugs, including small molecules, imaging agents, oligonucleotides, proteins and other peptides (Mäe and Langel, 2006; Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009; Koren and Torchilin, 2012; Zhang et al., 2012). They are usually short cationic sequences that may derive from natural peptides or proteins, e.g. TAT peptide (RKKRRQRRR) or penetratin (RQIKIWFQNRRMKWKK), or be *de novo* designed peptides, as trasportant (GWTLNSAGYLLGKINLKALAALAKKIL) or polyarginines (e.g. R₉ (RRRRRRRRR))(Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009; Milletti, 2012). The use of CPPs for the intracellular delivery represents an interesting strategy to enhance the bioactivity of the anticancer peptides and several examples have been reported (Mäe and Langel, 2006; Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009). This strategy is particularly straightforward because the drug and carrier share a similar structure and their total synthesis can be performed completely via solid-phase peptide synthesis (Stewart et al., 2008).

An example of this strategy is the cytotoxic peptide r7-kla which was obtained by conjugating the linear antimicrobial peptide kla to the cell-penetrating domain r7 (Figure 1.10) (Law et al., 2006). Whereas the antimicrobial peptide is not active, the peptide conjugate r7-kla shows low IC₅₀ values against different tumor cell lines, being more cytotoxic than other clinically used anticancer agents such as doxorubicin, paclitaxel or methotrexate. It has been observed that once the antimicrobial peptide is internalized it can disrupt the mitochondrial membrane inducing apoptosis. Moreover, r7-kla shows a rapid kinetic of cell killing and also induces apoptosis *in vivo* (Law et al., 2006).

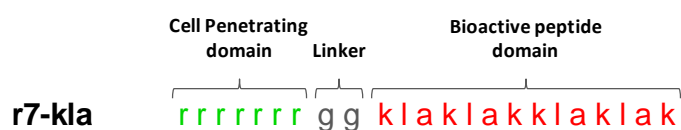


Figure 1.10. Peptide sequence of r7-kla.

Another example of this strategy is the conjugation of peptides C9h and C9 to the CPP DPT-sh1. C9h and C9 are involved in the modulation of the caspase-9/PP2A interaction and, consequently, in the cell death regulation process (Table 1.3) (Arrouss et al., 2013). Whereas DPT-sh1, C9 and C9h do not induce apoptotic effects in any cell line, the peptide conjugates DPT-C9h and DPT-C9 show apoptotic effects in several human and mouse cancer cell lines. These conjugates specifically target caspase-9/PP2A interaction, leading to mitochondrial membrane permeabilization, cytochrome *c* release and induction of the cell death mechanism. They also inhibit tumor growth both in mouse and in primary human breast cancer models. In addition, DPT-C9h and DPT-C9 do not affect healthy cells (Arrouss et al., 2013).

Table 1.3. Sequences of DPT-sh1, C9, C9h and of the peptide conjugates DPT-C9 and DPT-C9h.

Peptide	Sequence
DPT-sh1	VKKKKIKREIKI
C9	YIETLDGILEQWARSEDL
C9h	YVETLDDIFEQWAHSEDL
DPT-C9	VKKKKIKREIKI-YIETLDGILEQWARSEDL
DPT-C9h	VKKKKIKREIKI-YVETLDDIFEQWAHSEDL

1.3 ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDES FOR PLANT PROTECTION

One of the current biggest challenges in agrosience is the development of environmentally friendly alternatives to the extensive use of chemical pesticides for combating crop diseases (Montesinos, 2007; Ongena and Jacques, 2008). Phytopathogenic bacteria are responsible for great losses in economically important crops, such as vegetables and fruits, but their control mainly relies on chemical pesticides. The most common pesticides are copper derivatives and antibiotics. Although these compounds are effective, they are regarded as environmental contaminants. In addition, an inappropriate use of antibiotics induces the emergence of multidrug resistant microorganisms. Due to these limitations, antibiotics are not authorized in some countries of the European Union prompting the necessity to develop new agents to control plant diseases.

In particular, the LIPPSO group, in collaboration with the Plant Pathology group of the University of Girona, is currently studying the development of antimicrobial peptides active against the phytopathogenic bacteria *Erwinia amylovora*, *Xanthomonas vesicatoria* and *Pseudomonas syringae*, and the fungi *Fusarium oxysporum* and *Penicillium expansum*, which are responsible for plant diseases of economic importance (Ferre et al., 2006; Monroc et al., 2006a, 2006b; Badosa et al., 2007, 2009; Ng-Choi et al., 2014). The bacteria *E. amylovora* is the causal agent of fire blight in rosaceous plants, *X. vesicatoria* is responsible for the bacterial spot of tomato and pepper plants, and *P. syringae* causes several blight diseases. The fungus *F. oxysporum* is the causal agent of vascular wilt disease in a wide variety of economically important crops and *P. expansum* is the main causal agent of blue mould in stored apples.

The main objective of the LIPPSO group is to find peptides with high antimicrobial activity against these pathogens and, at the same time, with low toxicity against eukaryotic cells and high stability towards protease degradation. Two families of peptides, including linear undecapeptides and cyclic decapeptides, have been studied.

1.3.1 Cecropin A-melittin hybrid linear undecapeptides

Although natural antimicrobial peptides, such as cecropins and melittin, display an interesting activity against plant pathogens, their use in plant protection is not suitable because of the high production cost of their long sequences and their susceptibility to protease degradation. For this reason, several studies have been focused on the development of shorter and more stable synthetic analogues which retain the antimicrobial activity of the parent peptides. One example is **Pep3**, derived from the well-known hybrid cecropin A(1-7)-melittin(2-9) (Andreu et al., 1992; Giacometti et al., 2004). **Pep3** is an 11-residue sequence which shows a good biological activity profile against phytopathogenic bacteria and fungi (*Table 1.4*) (Cavallarin et al., 1998; Ali and Reddy, 2000).

Table 1.4. Sequence of cecropin A, melittin and two synthetic analogues.

Peptide	Sequence
Cecropin A	KWKLFFKKIEKVGQNIRDGIIKAGPAVAVVGQATQIAK-NH ₂
Melittin	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ-NH ₂
Cecropin A(1-7)-melittin(2-9)	KWKLFFKKIGAVLKVL-NH ₂
Pep3	WKLFFKKILKVL-NH ₂

Based on the structure of **Pep3**, the LIPPSO group designed and synthesized a library of 125 linear undecapeptides (CECMEL11) with general structure R-X¹-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-X¹⁰-Leu-NH₂ (R= H, Ac, Ts, Bz or Bn; X¹, X¹⁰= Leu, Lys, Phe, Trp, Tyr or Val) (*Figure 1.11*) (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). This library was tested against the bacteria *E. amylovora*, *X. vesicatoria* and *P. syringae*, and the fungus *P. expansum*. The hemolytic activity was also evaluated (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007, 2009).

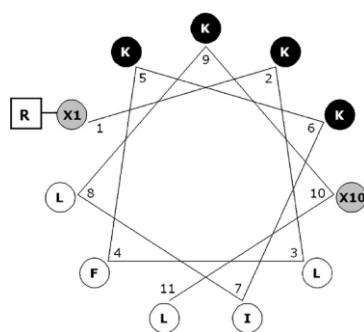


Figure 1.11. Edmunson wheel projection of the 125-member peptide library CECMEL11. Hydrophilic amino acids (Lys) are represented in black background while hydrophobic residues (Leu, Phe, Ile) are in white. X^1 and X^{10} are represented in grey (X^1 = Lys, Leu, Trp, Tyr or Phe; X^{10} = Lys, Val, Trp, Tyr or Phe). R represents the N-terminus derivatization (H, Ac, Ts, Bz or Bn) (Badosa et al., 2007).

The results obtained demonstrated the importance of the peptide charge on the activity. In general terms, the most active peptides are those with a net charge of +5 or +6, a basic N-terminus and an aromatic residue at X^{10} . Several sequences show a better biological profile than the parent peptide **Pep3**. In particular, peptides **BP15**, **BP33**, **BP76**, **BP77**, **BP100**, **BP125** and **BP126** display an optimal balance between antimicrobial and hemolytic activities (Table 1.5) (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). Moreover, **BP21** exhibits a high activity against *P. expansum* (Badosa et al., 2009). These peptides show a good stability towards protease degradation. Moreover, **BP100** exhibits preventive inhibition of *E. amylovora* infection in detached apple and pear flowers, being only less effective than streptomycin, antibiotic currently used for fire blight control (Badosa et al., 2007).

Table 1.5. Antibacterial and hemolytic activity of several peptides selected from the CECMEL11 library.

Peptide	Sequence	MIC (μM) ^a				H (%) ^c
		Ea ^b	Ps ^b	Xv ^b	Pe ^b	
BP15	H-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Val-Leu-NH ₂	5.0-7.5	2.5-5.0	>7.5	12.5-25.0	16±2.9
BP33	H-Leu-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Val-Leu-NH ₂	5.0-7.5	5.0-7.5	>7.5	>25.0	37±2.7
BP21	Ac-Phe-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Val-Leu-NH ₂	>7.5	>7.5	2.5-5.0	<6.2	85±1.4
BP76	H-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Phe-Leu-NH ₂	2.5-5.0	2.5-5.0	2.5-5.0	>25.0	34±2.1
BP77	Ac-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Phe-Leu-NH ₂	5.0-7.5	5.0-7.5	<2.5	6.2-12.5	40±3.8
BP100	H-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Tyr-Leu-NH ₂	2.5-5.0	2.5-5.0	5.0-7.5	>25.0	22±2.8
BP125	Ts-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Lys-Leu-NH ₂	>7.5	2.5-5.0	2.5-5.0	>25.0	8±1.6
BP126	Bz-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Lys-Leu-NH ₂	5.0-7.5	2.5-5.0	2.5-5.0	>25.0	14±2.9

^a Minimum inhibitory concentration. ^b Ea stands for *E. amylovora*; Ps for *P. syringae*; Xv for *X. Vesicatoria*; Pe for *P. expansum*. ^c Percent hemolysis at 150 μM plus confidence interval ($\alpha = 0.05$).

1.3.2 *De novo* designed cyclic decapeptides

Although linear peptides are the most explored antimicrobial peptides, their practical use has not been completely satisfactory. The conformational flexibility of their primary structure seems to be associated with a low target selectivity, poor bioavailability as well as low stability towards protease degradation. Backbone cyclization is an interesting method to introduce conformational constraints on peptide secondary structures which generally improves the metabolic stability and can also increase the activity as well as the selectivity towards specific targets (Gilon et al., 1991; Fung and Hruby, 2005; Monroc et al., 2006a; Werle and Bernkop-Schnürch, 2006; Ong et al., 2014).

The LIPPSO group focused its attention on the *de novo* design and synthesis of cyclic antimicrobial peptides. During the last years, *head-to-tail* amphipathic cyclic peptides ranging from 4 to 10 residues have been *de novo* designed and prepared (Monroc et al., 2006a, 2006b). These peptides consist of alternating hydrophilic (Lys) and hydrophobic (Leu and Phe) amino acids with the general formula c(X_n-Y-X_m-Gln) (X= Lys or Leu, Y= L- or D-Phe, m=n=1 or m=3 and n=0-5). The antimicrobial activity

of these peptides was evaluated against the economically important plant pathogenic bacteria *X. vesicatoria*, *P. syringae* and *E. amylovora*. Their hemolytic activity as well as their proteolytic susceptibility were also evaluated. Among them, the most active sequence was the cyclic decapeptide **BPC16**, which exhibits minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values ranging from 6.2 to 12.5 μM against *X. vesicatoria* and 12.5 to 25 μM against *P. syringae*. However, **BPC16** is not active against *E. amylovora* and shows a significant hemolytic activity (Monroc et al., 2006a).

In order to improve the biological profile of the lead peptide **BPC16**, a first library of 56 cyclic decapeptides based on its structure was synthesized (Library I). Analysis of the antimicrobial activity against the aforementioned bacteria suggested that the substructure Lys⁵PheLysLysLeuGln¹⁰ constitutes a structural requirement for the activity. In fact, peptides of Library I containing this moiety exhibit low MIC values against the three plant pathogenic bacteria. Therefore, a second library based on the structure c(X¹X²X³X⁴LysPheLysLysLeuGln) was prepared using a design of experiments (DOE) methodology (Library II). It comprised 16 cyclic decapeptides with all possible combinations of Leu and Lys at positions X¹ to X⁴. Evaluation of the antibacterial activity and hemolysis led to the identification of sequences with a better biological profile than the parent peptide **BPC16** (Table 1.6). In particular, **BPC96**, **BPC98**, **BPC194** and **BPC198** display a high antimicrobial activity against the three pathogenic bacteria (MIC values from 1.6 to 25 μM) while maintaining a low hemolysis. Moreover, DOE analysis showed that all of them fulfill the substitution rule X² \neq X³ and include Lys at position 4 (Monroc et al., 2006b).

Table 1.6. Antibacterial and hemolytic activity of selected cyclic decapeptides.

Peptide	Sequence	MIC (μM) ^a			H (%) ^c
		Ea ^b	Ps ^b	Xv ^b	
BPC16	c(Lys-Leu-Lys-Leu-Lys-Phe-Lys-Leu-Lys-Gln)	>100	12.5-25	6.2-12.5	84±6.9
BPC96	c(Leu-Lys-Leu-Lys-Lys-Phe-Lys-Lys-Leu-Gln)	12.5-25	6.2-12.5	3.1-6.2	32±7.2
BPC98	c(Leu-Leu-Lys-Lys-Lys-Phe-Lys-Lys-Leu-Gln)	12.5-25	6.2-12.5	1.6-3.1	36±3.7
BP194	c(Lys-Lys-Leu-Lys-Lys-Phe-Lys-Lys-Leu-Gln)	6.2-12.5	3.1-6.2	3.1-6.2	17±1.7
BP198	c(Lys-Leu-Lys-Lys-Lys-Phe-Lys-Lys-Leu-Gln)	12.5-25	3.1-6.2	3.1-6.2	14±1.4

^a Minimum inhibitory concentration. ^b Ea stands for *E. amylovora*; Ps for *P. syringae*; Xv for *X. vesicatoria*.

^c Percent hemolysis at 375 μM plus confidence interval ($\alpha = 0.05$).

1.4 BIOACTIVE LIPOPEPTIDES FROM *BACILLUS SUBTILIS* FOR PLANT PROTECTION

The use of microorganisms as biocontrol agents is considered as a rational and safe crop-management method against plant pathogens (Emmert and Handelsman, 1999; Touré et al., 2004; Ongena and Jacques, 2008). Members of *Bacillus* genus, and particularly *Bacillus subtilis* species, are among the most exploited and studied beneficial bacteria as biopesticides to control plant diseases (Emmert and Handelsman, 1999; Touré et al., 2004; Stein, 2005; Montesinos, 2007; Ongena et al., 2007; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Mora et al., 2015). *Bacillus* species are mostly isolated from the plant rhizosphere, although they can also be found in deep-sea sediments, fermented food or animal gastrointestinal tracts (Raaijmakers et al., 2010). These species are of particular interest since they are able to survive adverse conditions due to the development of spores, and to produce compounds that are beneficial for agronomical purposes (Emmert and Handelsman, 1999; Montesinos, 2007; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Pueyo et al., 2009). These compounds mainly include ribosomal and non-ribosomal peptides, as well as non-peptidic compounds, such as polyketides, aminosugars or phospholipids (Stein, 2005).

Non-ribosomal peptides comprise cyclic lipopeptides of the surfactin, iturin and fengycin families (Jacques et al., 1999; Stein, 2005; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010; Mora et al., 2015). They are amphiphilic structures composed of a hydrophilic peptide portion and a hydrophobic fatty acid part, which can be either a β -hydroxy or a β -amino fatty acid. They differ in the length and branching of the fatty acid chain as well as in the amino acid sequence (Akpa et al., 2001; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010; Inès and Dhouha, 2015). These cyclic lipopeptides have well-recognized application in biotechnology and biopharmaceutical fields, because of their surfactant and bio-active properties. Moreover, it has also been demonstrated that these cyclic lipopeptides are also able to stimulate plant defence responses against pathogens, a phenomenon termed induced systemic resistance (Ongena et al., 2007; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). For example, it has been reported that surfactins and fengycins can stimulate the defence responses of bean and tomato plants (Ongena et al., 2005, 2007).

1.4.1 Surfactins

Surfactins are cyclic lipodepsipeptides composed of seven α -amino acids and a β -hydroxy fatty acid. Apart from surfactins, this family encompasses esperin, lichenysin and pumilacidin derivatives, which are represented in *Figure 1.12* (Peypoux et al., 1999; Seydlová and Svobodová, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). They are powerful biosurfactants with exceptional emulsifying and foaming properties (Peypoux et al., 1999; Stein, 2005; Ongena and Jacques, 2008). Surfactins display a detergent-like action on biological membranes and are distinguished by their hemolytic, antiviral, antimycoplasmal and antibacterial activities (Peypoux et al., 1999; Stein, 2005; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Seydlová and Svobodová, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). Unlike other *Bacillus* lipopeptides, surfactins do not show a remarkable fungitoxicity. On the other hand, surfactins are a key factor in the formation of stable biofilms by *B. subtilis* strains. Moreover, these cyclic lipopeptides may inhibit the formation of biofilms by other bacteria, contributing to the protective action of *Bacillus* strains (Bais et al., 2004).

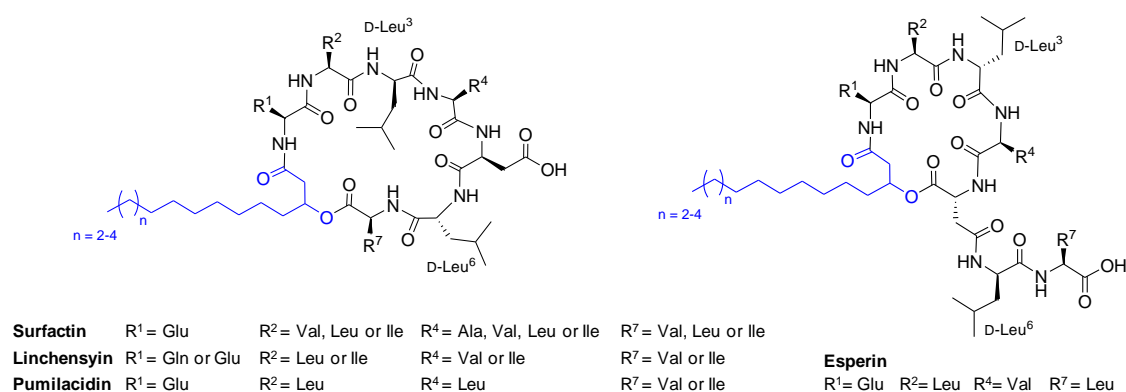


Figure 1.12. Structure of surfactins. The β -hydroxy fatty acid can contain iso or anteiso branches.

1.4.2 Iturins

Iturin A and C, bacillomycin D, F, L and LC, and mycosubtilin are the main peptide variants that encompass the iturin family (Besson et al., 1978; Besson and Michel, 1987; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). They are composed

of a heptapeptide cyclised by a β -amino acid (iturinic acid), which has a variety of chain lengths (C_{14} - C_{17}) (Figure 1.13). Unlike surfactins, iturins are mainly antifungal, showing a strong *in vitro* activity against a wide variety of yeast and fungi (Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). However, they display a high hemolytic activity against human erythrocytes (Aranda et al., 2005).

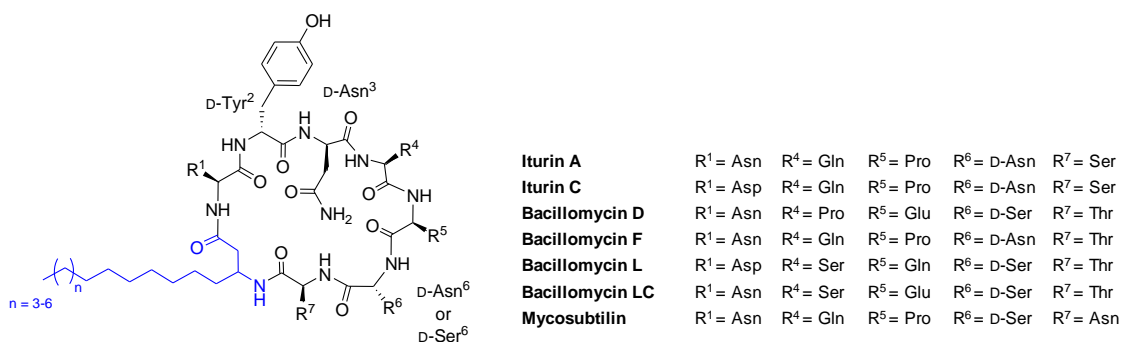


Figure 1.13. Structure of iturins. The β -hydroxy fatty acid can contain iso or anteiso branches.

1.4.3 Fengycins

The fengycin family, isolated from several *Bacillus* strains, comprises closely related lipopeptides which share a common cyclic structure with several exceptional features (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Wang et al., 2004; Stein, 2005; Chen et al., 2008; Deleu et al., 2008; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Bie et al., 2009; Pueyo et al., 2009; Pecci et al., 2010; Raaijmakers et al., 2010; Sang-Cheol et al., 2010; Pathak et al., 2012; Villegas-Escobar et al., 2013). They consist on a β -hydroxy fatty acid chain connected to the *N*-terminus of a decapeptide moiety. Eight of these amino acids form a macrocycle containing an ester bond between the phenol group of Tyr³ and the α -carboxylic group of Ile¹⁰ (Figure 1.14). According to their sequence, fengycins can be divided into two major groups, fengycin A and B. Fengycin A has a D-Ala at position 6, whereas fengycin B has a D-Val at this position. The length of the β -hydroxy fatty acid ranges from 14 to 18 carbons and it can be saturated or unsaturated, and it can contain iso or anteiso branches (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Wang et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2008;

Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Bie et al., 2009; Pueyo et al., 2009; Pecci et al., 2010; Faria et al., 2011; Pathak et al., 2012).

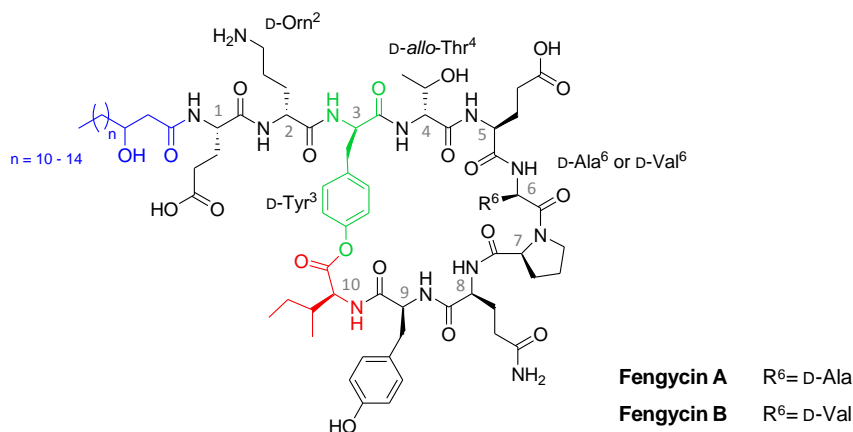


Figure 1.14. Structure of fengycin A and B.

Although fengycin A and B are the most common isoforms, other fengycin isoforms have also been isolated. For example, Sang-Cheol and collaborators isolated fengycin S from a *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* culture. The analysis of this compound demonstrated that it differed from fengycin B on the amino acid at position 4, containing a Ser instead of an *allo*-Thr (Figure 1.15) (Sang-Cheol et al., 2010).

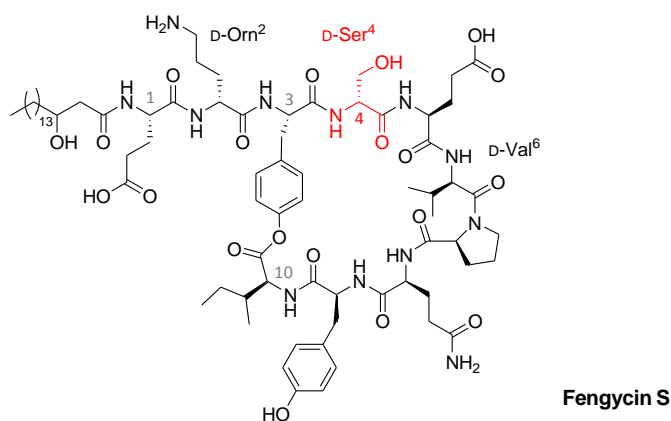


Figure 1.15. Structure of fengycin S according to Sang-Cheol et al., 2010.

Another recent example of a fengycin isoform is fengycin C described by Villegas-Escobar and co-workers (Villegas-Escobar et al., 2013). It was isolated from the supernatant culture of *Bacillus subtilis* EA-CB0015, along with some surfactin analogues. This lipopeptide contains an *allo*-Thr at position 9 instead of the Tyr usually present in the structure of fengycins (*Figure 1.16A*) (Villegas-Escobar et al., 2013). Nevertheless, it has to be pointed out that one year before Pathak and collaborators had described a new compound, also called fengycin C, isolated from a culture of *Bacillus subtilis* K1 (Pathak et al., 2012). Unlike the fengycin C described by Villegas-Escobar et al., this compound contains a Leu or an Ile at position 6 instead of the Ala or Val present in fengycin A and B, respectively (*Figure 1.16B*). In this study, other isoforms of fengycin A and B were also isolated. They differ on the length and the saturation of the β -hydroxy fatty acid tail as well as on the amino acid composition. They incorporate a Val at position 10 and a Glu at position 8 instead of an Ile and a Gln, respectively (Pathak et al., 2012).

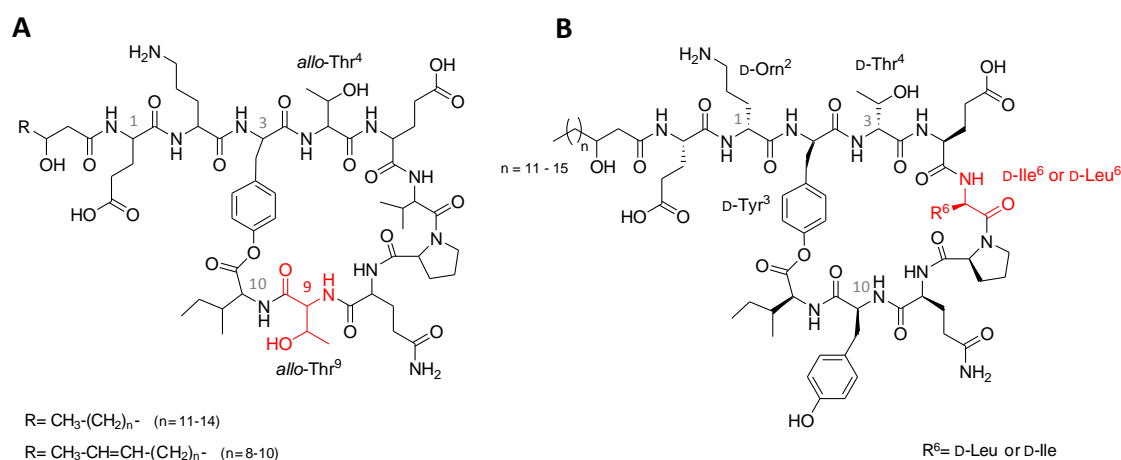


Figure 1.16. Two different structures of fengycin C described by Villegas-Escobar et al. (A) and Pathak et al. (B). The amino acid configuration was not described for compound A.

Plipastatins are other well-known analogues of the fengycin family. However, there has been certain confusion between the terms fengycin and plipastatin in the literature. Although sometimes they are considered as synonyms (Stein, 2005), most of the reports refer to plipastatins as diastereoisomers of fengycins differing in the L- and D- configurations of the Tyr at positions 3 and 9 (Ongena and Jacques, 2008;

Raaijmakers et al., 2010). Specifically, fengycins contain a D-Tyr³ and an L-Tyr⁹ while plipastatins have the reversed configuration, an L-Tyr³ and a D-Tyr⁹ (Figure 1.17) (Nishikiori et al., 1986a, 1986b; Schneider et al., 1999; Volpon et al., 2000). However, recent studies show that fengycins and plipastatins could have the same primary structure, being L-Tyr³ and D-Tyr⁹ the unique amino acid configuration (Honma et al., 2012; Nasir et al., 2013). According to these studies, plipastatins could be the potassium salt of the peptide whereas fengycins could be the trifluoroacetate salt (Honma et al., 2012).

Fengycin A	Fatty acid-L-Glu ¹ -D-Orn ² - D-Tyr³(&) -D- <i>allo</i> Thr ⁴ -L-Glu ⁵ -D-Ala ⁶ -L-Pro ⁷ -L-Gln ⁸ - L-Tyr⁹ -L-Ile ¹⁰ (&)
Plipaspatin A	Fatty acid-L-Glu ¹ -D-Orn ² - L-Tyr³(&) -D- <i>allo</i> Thr ⁴ -L-Glu ⁵ -D-Ala ⁶ -L-Pro ⁷ -L-Gln ⁸ - D-Tyr⁹ -L-Ile ¹⁰ (&)

Figure 1.17. Structural differences between fengycins and plipastatins. The “&” symbol indicates the ester bond between the phenol group of Tyr³ and the α -carboxylic group of Ile¹⁰.

Fengycin lipopeptides are known to be specifically active against filamentous fungi (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Deleu et al., 2008; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010). They are active against *Fusarium verticillioides*, also known as *F. moniliforme*, a toxigenic fungal strain in maize (Hu et al., 2007, 2009), against the blight disease caused by the fungus *Fusarium graminearum* (Wang et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2009), against fungal strains responsible for the grey mould disease of apples, such as *Botrytis cinerea* (Touré et al., 2004; Ongena et al., 2005), or against the powdery mildew of melon caused by *Podosphaera fusca* (Romero et al., 2007). In contrast to the other lipopeptides produced by *Bacillus* species, they are low hemolytic (a 40-fold less than surfactins) (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Deleu et al., 2008)

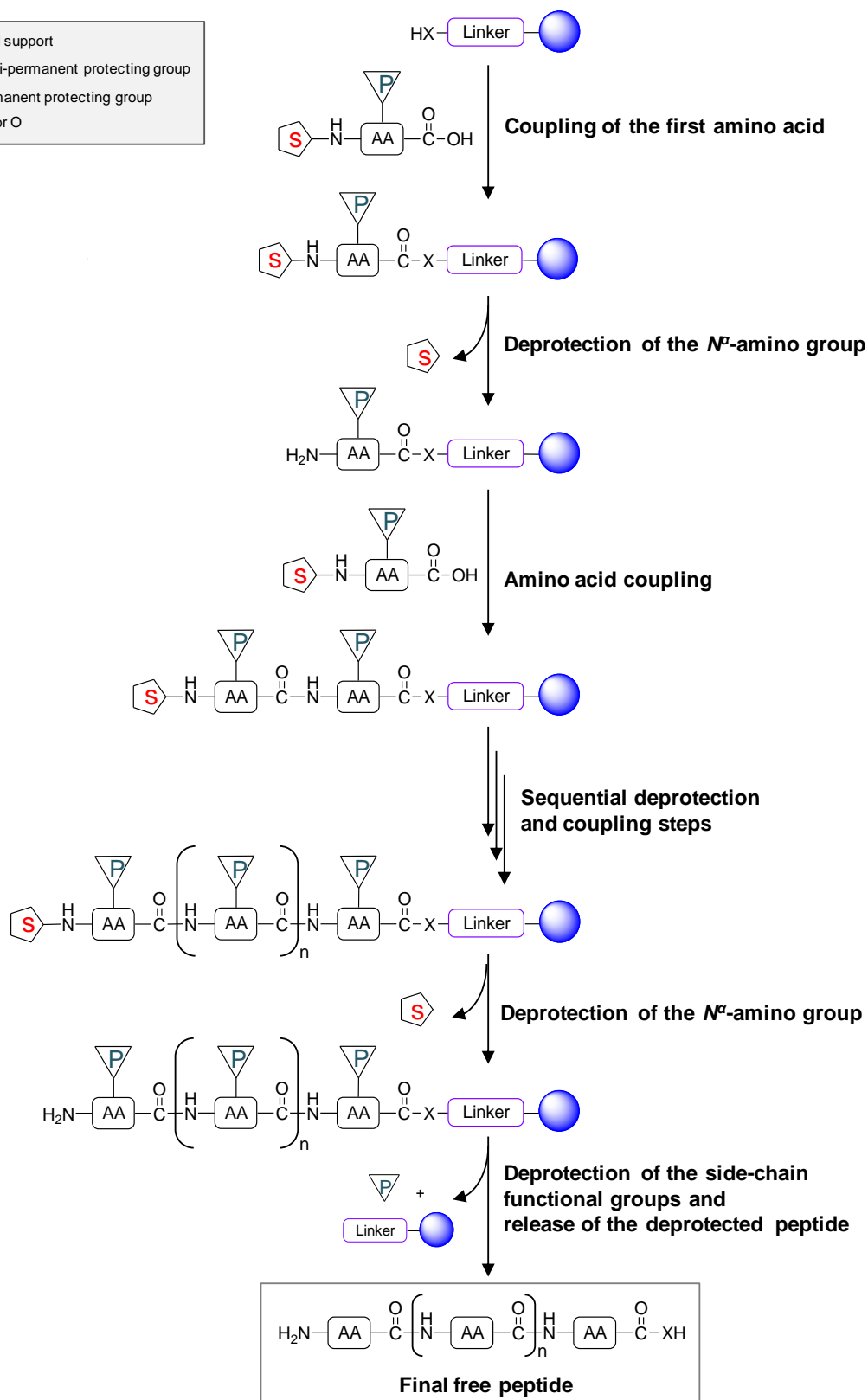
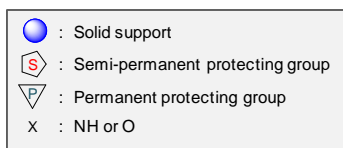
1.5 SYNTHESIS OF PEPTIDES

The amount of peptide that can be generally extracted from natural sources, such as plants, animals or microorganisms, is usually very low and complex purification and characterization methodologies are required. For this reason, several alternative methods for the obtention of these compounds have been developed. In particular, peptide synthesis is a widely spread methodology that can be carried out both in solution and on solid-phase (Costa et al., 2015). Nevertheless, in recent years, solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) has become one of the most used methodologies for the preparation of peptides (Kates and Albericio, 2000; Pires et al., 2014).

1.5.1 Solid-phase peptide synthesis

Solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) was introduced in 1963 by Robert Bruce Merrifield (Merrifield, 1963, 1986). It allows the preparation of different sequences through fast and feasible reactions. This method offers important advantages over the synthesis in solution, such as fewer by-products, easier and less time-consuming work-up procedures, and the possibility to be automated (Coin et al., 2007; Pires et al., 2014). For the discovery of this efficient methodology, R.B. Merrifield was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1984.

SPPS is based on the sequential incorporation of conveniently protected amino acids onto a solid support. As shown in *Scheme 1.1*, the main steps involved in SPPS are: (i) the attachment to the solid support of the first amino acid, conveniently protected, through its α -carboxylic acid group; the solid matrix usually incorporates a linker or spacer to facilitate both the anchoring of the amino acid and the cleavage of the final peptide; (ii) the selective removal of the N^α -amino protecting group of the amino acid previously incorporated; (iii) the coupling of the next amino acid through its α -carboxyl group; (iv) sequential cycles of removal and coupling steps until completion of the desired peptide sequence and (v) cleavage and simultaneous removal of the side-chain protecting groups to obtain the deprotected peptide (Kates and Albericio, 2000).



Scheme 1.1. General strategy for SPPS.

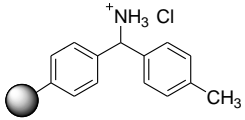
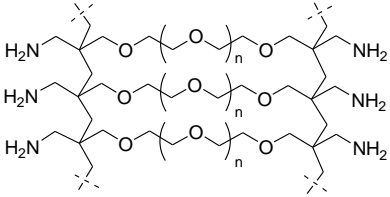
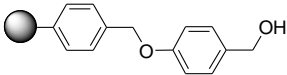
Due to its high efficiency and its feasibility to prepare a large variety of products, the use of solid-phase synthesis on combinatorial chemistry has been rising in recent years and, nowadays, its use is not only limited to peptide synthesis, but also to the preparation of nucleotides, oligosaccharides, oligonucleotides and a wide range of other organic and pharmaceutical compounds (Kates and Albericio, 2000).

1.5.1.1 Solid support

The term solid support refers to the insoluble matrix onto which the reactions are carried out when following solid-phase methodologies. An efficient solid support must contain functional groups that enable the attachment of the first compound, allowing the beginning of the synthesis. Moreover, there are other features that a solid support must fulfill to be considered suitable for SPPS. In particular, it must (i) be made of uniform particles with an appropriate size and shape to perform the reactions; (ii) allow the rapid filtration of the solvents; (iii) be stable to changes of the temperature; (iv) be inert and insoluble to all the reagents and chemical conditions used; (v) swell extensively in a broad range of solvents allowing the access of the reagents to all the reactive sites; and (vi) also have a good mechanical and physical stability (Martin and Albericio, 2008).

Nowadays, there are available a wide range of solid supports suitable for SPPS. However, the most typical ones are resin beads made of cross-linked polystyrene with 1% divinylbenzene, polyacrylamide, or polyethyleneglycol grafted onto cross-linked polystyrene. Some of them are represented in *Table 1.7* (Coin et al., 2007; Martin and Albericio, 2008).

Table 1.7. Examples of solid supports used in SPPS.

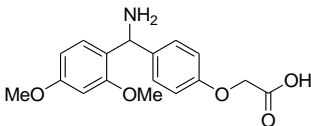
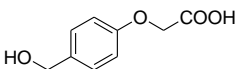
Structure	Name
	4-Methylbenzhydrylamine (MBHA) resin (Kates and Albericio, 2000)
	Aminomethyl ChemMatrix resin (García-Ramos et al., 2010)
	4-Benzyloxybenzyl alcohol resin (Wang resin) (Wang, 1973, Kates and Albericio, 2000)

1.5.1.2 Linker

A linker is a bifunctional spacer which, on the one hand, allows the binding of the peptide sequence to the solid support and, on the other hand, facilitates its cleavage. Therefore, a suitable linker must be irreversibly anchored to the solid support whereas its linkage with the peptide sequence must be stable along the synthesis, but labile to the cleavage conditions (Kates and Albericio, 2000).

Nowadays, a wide range of commercial linkers are available. They are commonly categorized according to their cleavage conditions and their C-terminus functionality. Some representative examples are shown in *Table 1.8*.

Table 1.8. Examples of commonly used linkers.

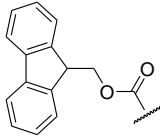
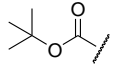

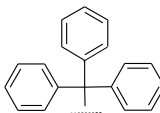

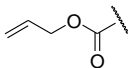
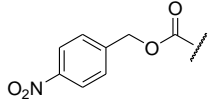
Structure	Linker	Cleavage conditions	C-terminus functionality
	4-(2',4'-Dimethoxyphenylaminomethyl)phenoxyacetic acid (Rink amide)	95% Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA)	Amide
	4-Hydroxymethylphenoxyacetic acid (HMPA)	95% TFA	Carboxylic acid

1.5.1.3 Protecting groups

The use of protecting groups is essential to avoid non-desired reactions along the peptide synthesis. The protecting groups used in SPPS are divided into two categories, permanent and semi-permanent. The former are employed to protect the side-chain groups of trifunctional amino acids while the latter are used to protect the N^α -amino group. Ideally, these two categories of groups should be orthogonal, hence they can be removed in any order and in the presence of the other category (Isidro-Llobet et al., 2009).

One of the most used SPPS protecting group strategies is the 9-fluorenylmethyloxycarbonyl (Fmoc)/ *tert*-butyl (t Bu) (Coin et al., 2007; Pires et al., 2014). In this strategy, the base-labile Fmoc group is employed as semi-permanent group to protect the N^α -amino group of amino acids. On the other hand, the t Bu or their derivatives, such as the *tert*-butyloxycarbonyl (Boc), which are acid-labile, are used as permanent protecting groups of the amino acid side-chains. Apart from this, other feasible orthogonal strategies have been described based on protecting groups that are removed under more specific conditions, such as metal-catalyzed reactions, reductions, hydrogenolysis or even photolysis (Isidro-Llobet et al., 2009). In fact, the synthesis of complex peptide sequences generally requires the combination of more than two orthogonal protecting groups. For example, cyclic peptides are commonly synthesized following the three-dimensional orthogonal strategy Fmoc/ t Bu/allyl. The most representative protecting groups used along this thesis are described in *Table 1.9*.

Table 1.9. Protecting groups used in this thesis.

Structure	Name	General removal conditions
	9-Fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc)	20% Piperidine- <i>N,N'</i> -dimethylformamide (DMF)
	<i>tert</i> -Butyloxycarbonyl (Boc)	25-50% TFA-CH ₂ Cl ₂ Scavenger: Triisopropylsilane (TIS)
	<i>tert</i> -Butyl (<i>t</i> Bu)	90% TFA-CH ₂ Cl ₂ Scavenger: TIS
	Trityl (Tr)	1% TFA-CH ₂ Cl ₂ Scavenger: TIS
	Allyl (All)	Pd(Ph ₃) ₄ (0.1 eq) Scavengers: H ₂ O/TIS
	Allyloxycarbonyl (Alloc)	Pd(Ph ₃) ₄ cat. Scavenger: PhSiH ₃ in CH ₂ Cl ₂
	<i>p</i> -Nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl (<i>p</i> NZ)	6 M SnCl ₂ , 1.6 mM HCl/dioxane in DMF

1.5.1.4 Coupling reagents

The formation of the peptide bond between the α -carboxylic group of one amino acid and the N^α -amino group of another amino acid is performed in presence of coupling reagents, which allow the *in situ* activation of the α -carboxylic group under mild conditions.

The most common coupling reagent families used in SPPS are carbodiimides, and aminium and phosphonium salts (*Figure 1.18*). The carbodiimide approach for the formation of the peptide bond has been used in combination with benzotriazoles, such as 1-hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBt), as additives to avoid racemisation (Kates and Albericio, 2000; Subirós-Funosas et al., 2009; Pires et al., 2014). Common carbodiimides are *N,N'*-diisopropylcarbodiimide (DIPCDI) and *N,N'*-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC).

Other coupling strategies involve the use of the aminium salts *N*-[(dimethylamino)-1*H*-1,2,3-triazolo-[4,5-*b*]pyridin-1-yl-methylene]-*N*-methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate *N*-oxide (HATU) or *N*-[(1*H*-benzotriazol-1-yl)-(dimethylamino)methylene]-*N*-methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate *N*-oxide (HBTU), and of the phosphonium salts benzotriazol-1-yl-*N*-oxytris(pyrrolidino)phosphonium hexafluorophosphate (PyBOP) or bromotris(pyrrolidino)phosphonium hexafluorophosphate (PyBrOP). The use of these reagents is also enhanced by the presence of benzotriazoles as additives.

Despite their efficiency, these strategies have some drawbacks. It has been observed that benzotriazole derivatives can be explosive and can induce chemical sensitive dermatitis and asthma (Wehrstedt et al., 2005). To overcome these problems, recently, a family of coupling reagents and additives based on ethyl 2-cyano-2-(hydroxyimino)acetate has been described as a safer alternative. These coupling reagents include 1-[(1-cyano-2-ethoxy-2-oxoethylideneaminoxy)-dimethylamino-morpholinomethylene]methanaminium hexafluorophosphate (COMU) or [ethyl cyano(hydroxyimino)acetato-*O*²]tri-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-phosphonium hexafluorophosphate (PyOxim), which are used in presence of ethyl 2-cyano-2-(hydroxyimino)acetate (Oxyma) as additive (Figure 1.18) (El-Faham et al., 2009; Subirós-Funosas et al., 2009; El-Faham and Albericio, 2010).

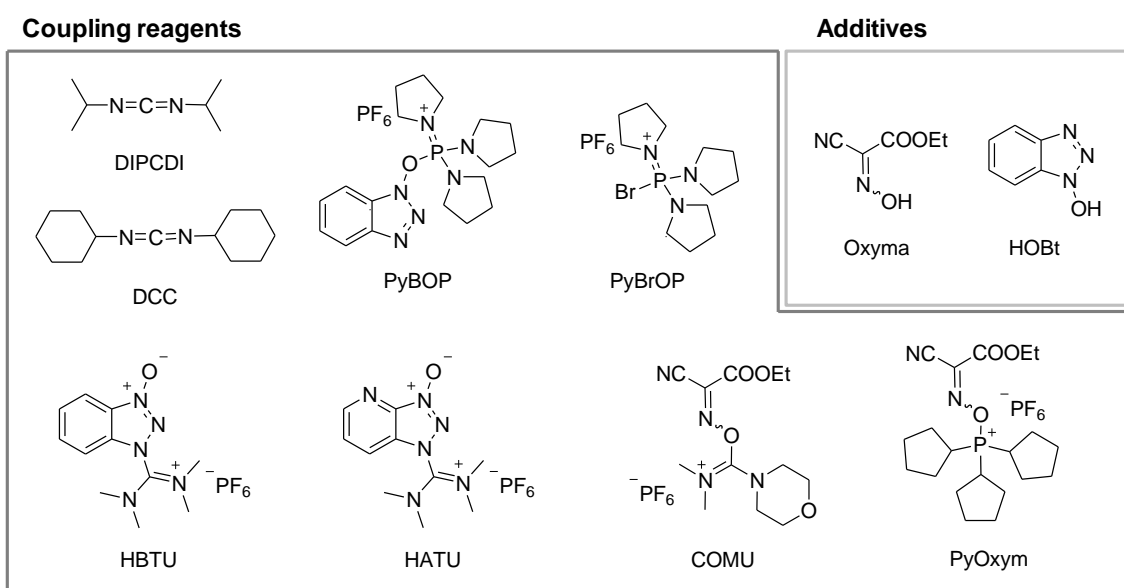
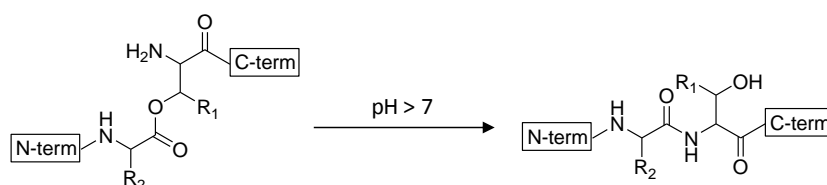


Figure 1.18. Structure of some representative coupling reagents and additives.

1.5.2 Solid phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides

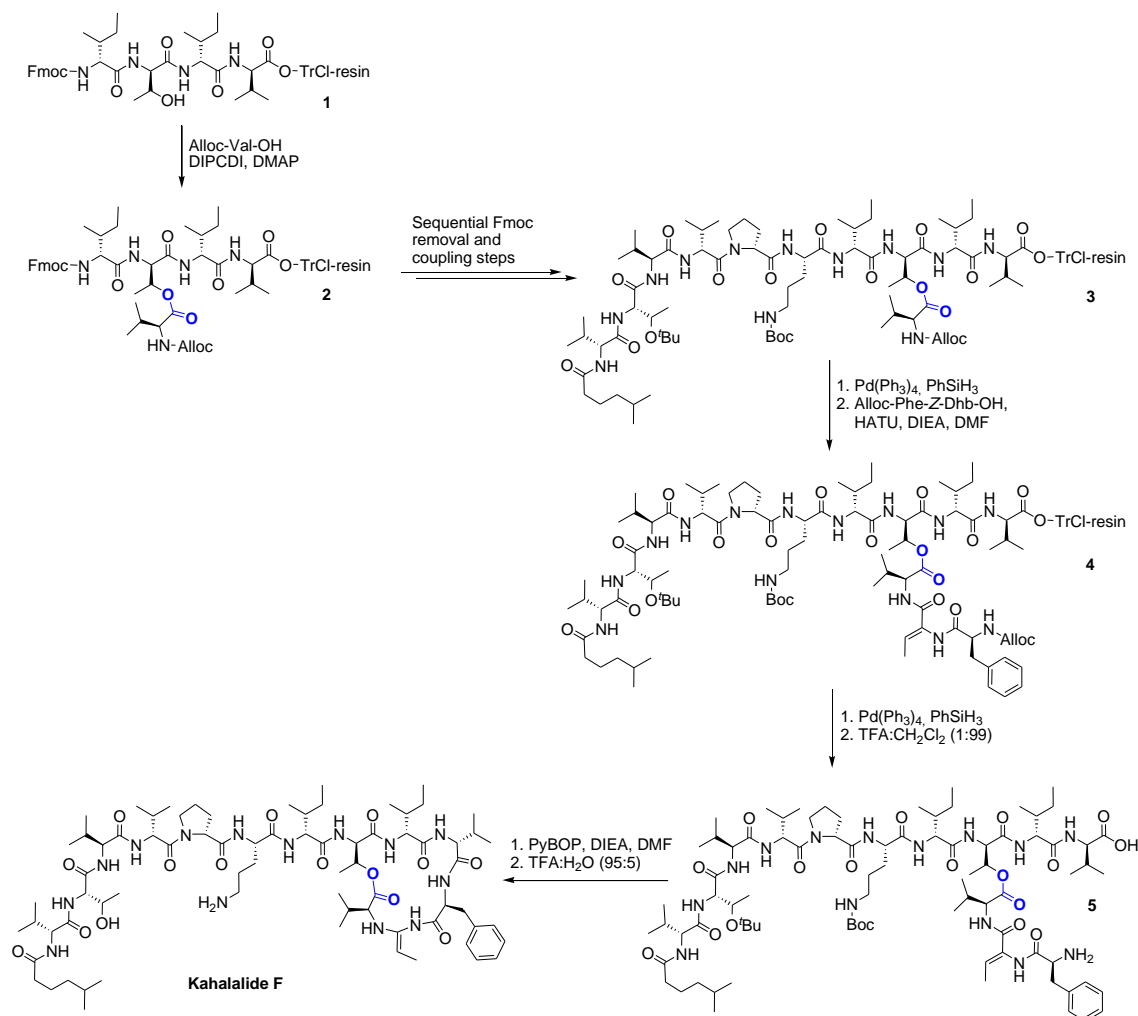
Although peptides mostly contain amide bonds, some natural cyclic peptides can incorporate other types of linkages in their structure. In particular, cyclic depsipeptides are characterized by the occurrence of at least one ester bond, which is in the backbone, or is formed between the hydroxyl group of an amino acid side-chain, usually a Ser or Thr residue, and the α -carboxyl group of another residue (Davies, 2003; Filip and Cavelier, 2004). The formation of the ester bond is always a synthetic challenge (Davies, 2003; Coin, 2010; Pelay-Gimeno et al., 2013). A well-known side reaction that may take place due to the presence of the ester bond, especially if basic conditions are used, is the intramolecular $O \rightarrow N$ acyl shift of β -aminoalcohols, such as Ser or Thr residues (*Scheme 1.2*) (Mouls et al., 2004; Stawikowski and Cudic, 2006; Seo and Lim, 2009; Coin, 2010). However, several examples of solid-phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides are found in the literature.



Scheme 1.2. Intramolecular $O \rightarrow N$ acyl shift in depsipeptides.

Traditionally, the preparation of cyclic peptides or depsipeptides involves the solid-phase synthesis of the protected linear precursor followed by its cyclization in solution under high dilution conditions (Stawikowski and Cudic, 2006). In the case of cyclic depsipeptides, the ester bond is usually formed in the linear precursor prior to the peptide cyclization through an amide bond (Davies, 2003). One example of this strategy is the synthesis of the antitumoral peptide Kahalalide F and its analogues (López-Macià et al., 2001; López et al., 2005; Gracia et al., 2006). Kahalalide F is a cyclic lipodepsipeptide isolated from *Elysia rufescens*, a Hawaiian herbivorous marine species of mollusk, and from the green alga *Bryopsis* sp. (López-Macià et al., 2001; Gracia et al., 2006). The synthesis of Kahalalide F involved the elongation of the peptide chain on the solid support, including the ester bond formation, followed by the cleavage, the

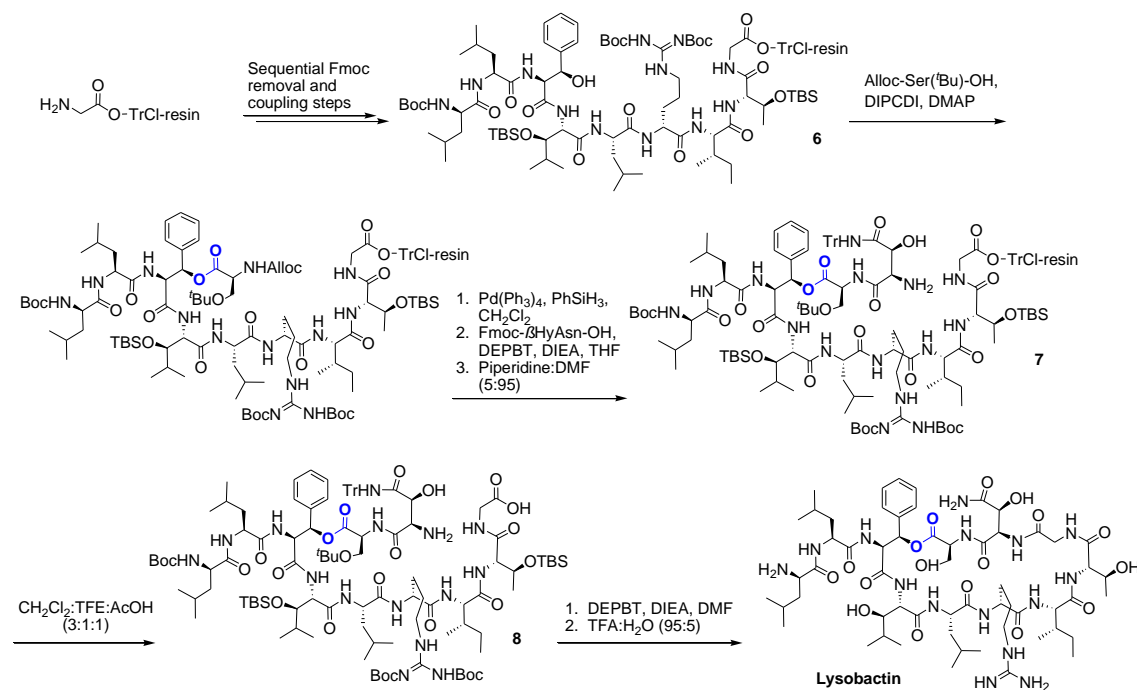
cyclization in solution and the final deprotection of the product (*Scheme 1.3*). The synthesis of Kahalalide F was performed on a 2-chlorotrityl chloride (TrCl) resin using the Fmoc/^tBu strategy (López-Macià et al., 2001; López et al., 2005) and started with the preparation of the tetrapeptidyl resin **1**, containing a D-*allo*-Thr with the side chain deprotected. Next, an ester bond between the hydroxyl group of the D-*allo*-Thr and the α -carboxyl group of Alloc-Val-OH was formed using DIPCDI (7 equiv) in presence of 4-(*N,N'*-dimethylamino)pyridine (DMAP) (0.7 equiv) (López-Macià et al., 2001). Then, the peptide sequence was elongated and the *N*-terminal amino acid was acylated with 5-methylhexanoic acid affording the peptidyl resin **3**. The Alloc group of **3** was removed and the dipeptide Alloc-Phe-Z-Dhb-OH (Z-Dhb: (*Z*)-didehydro- α -aminobutyric acid) was coupled leading to **4** (López-Macià et al., 2001; López et al., 2005). After Alloc group removal, the protected peptide was cleaved from the resin. The resulting sequence **5** was cyclized in solution through the formation of an amide bond using PyBOP and *N,N'*-diisopropylethylamine (DIEA) for 1h. Finally, the side-chain protecting groups were removed yielding Kahalalide F (López-Macià et al., 2001).



Scheme 1.3. Synthetic strategy for the synthesis of Kahalalide F (López-Macià et al., 2001; López et al., 2005).

Following a similar strategy, in 2012, Hall and co-workers prepared the cyclic depsipeptide lysobactin and an analogue (Scheme 1.4) (Hall et al., 2012). Lysobactin is an 11-amino acid cyclic lipopeptide which shows antibacterial activity against a wide range of Gram-positive bacteria. Using a 2-chlorotrityl resin and following conventional Fmoc chemistry, the linear peptidyl resin **6** was prepared using 3-(diethoxyphosphoryloxy)-1,2,3-benzotriazin-4(3*H*)-one (DEPBT) and DIEA as coupling reagents. Next, the hydroxyl group of the *threo*-phenylserine residue in **6** was esterified with Alloc-Ser(^tBu)-OH in presence of DIPCPI and DMAP. After Alloc removal, a Fmoc-β-HyAsn-OH residue was incorporated and the Fmoc group was cleaved providing the peptidyl resin **7**. The linear peptide **8** was released from the solid

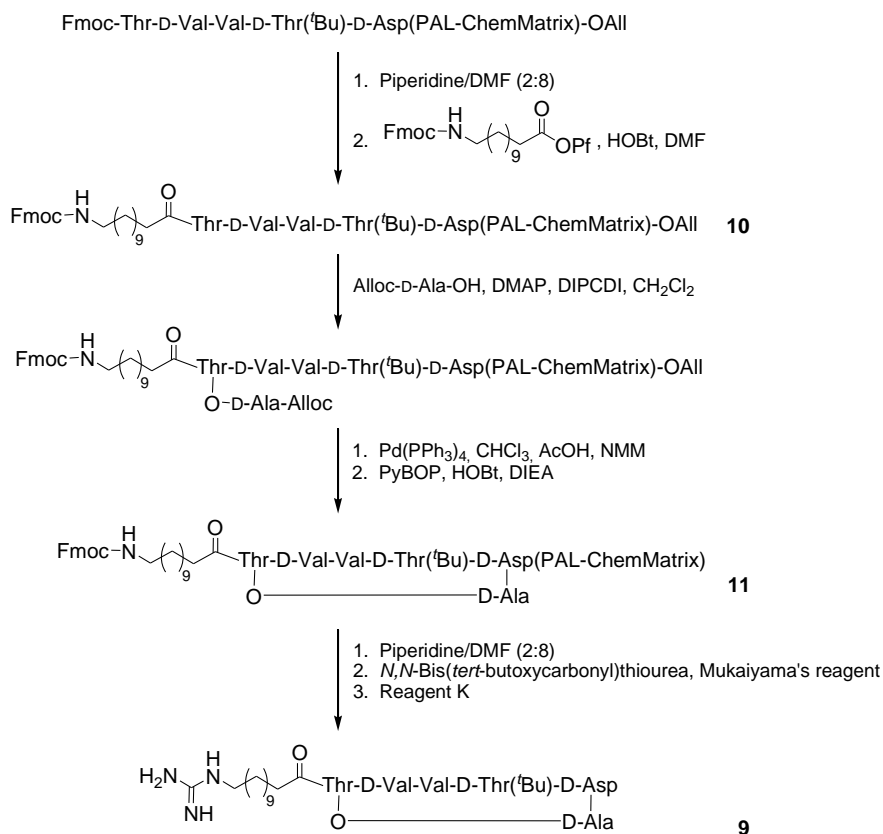
support and cyclised in solution using DEPBT and DIEA. Treatment with TFA/H₂O yielded lysobactin in 8% overall yield (Hall et al., 2012).



Scheme 1.4. Synthetic strategy for the synthesis of lysobactin proposed by Hall et al., 2012.

Unlike the previous examples, other cyclic depsipeptides have been prepared through cyclization on solid phase. Following this approach, in 2006, Stawikowski and Cudic synthesized the depsipeptide **9**, an analogue of the antimicrobial peptide fusaricidin A (*Scheme 1.5*) (Stawikowski and Cudic, 2006). The preparation of **9** included the side-chain anchoring of a conveniently protected Asp residue, the stepwise Fmoc solid-phase synthesis of the linear peptide precursor followed by attachment of Fmoc-protected 12-aminododecanoic acid as pentafluorophenyl ester. Next, the hydroxyl group of a Thr residue in the resulting linear lipopetidyl resin **10** was esterified with Alloc-D-Ala-OH using DIPCDI and DMAP. After the selective removal of Alloc and allyl, the linear peptidyl resin was cyclised in presence of PyBOP, HOBt and DIEA providing resin **11**. The Fmoc group of **11** was removed and the amino group was guanylated by treatment with *N,N'*-bis(*tert*-butoxycarbonyl)thiourea and the Mukaiyama's reagent. Final deprotection and cleavage from the solid support afforded

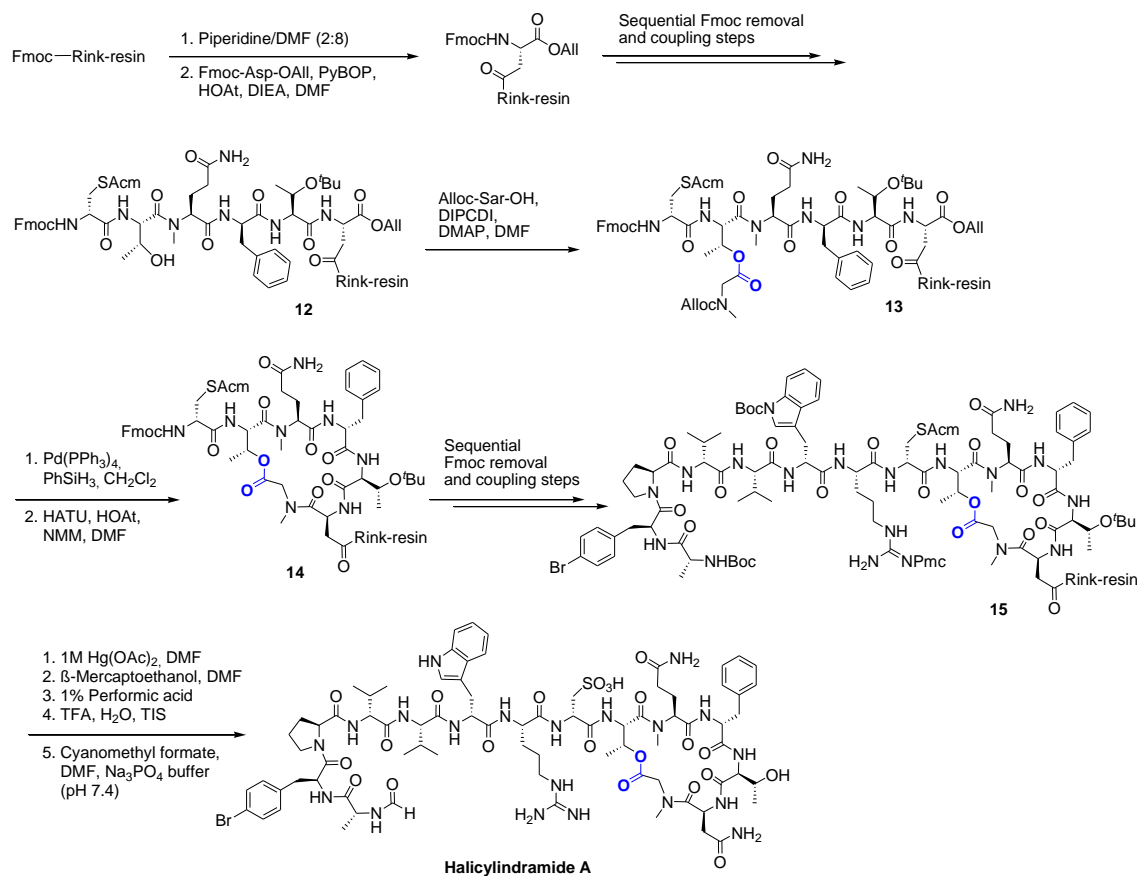
the desired cyclic lipodepsipeptide **9** in 60% yield based on the HPLC analysis of the crude (Stawikowski and Cudic, 2006).



Scheme 1.5. Total solid-phase synthesis of the cyclic lipodepsipeptide **9** (Stawikowski and Cudic, 2006).

Similarly, in 2009, Seo and Lim described the total synthesis of the cyclic depsipeptide halicyclindramide A, which contains an ester bond between the hydroxyl group of a Thr and the carboxyl group of a sarcosine residue (*Scheme 1.6*) (Seo and Lim, 2009). The strategy began with the attachment of Fmoc-Asp-OAll via its side chain to a Rink amide resin followed by stepwise solid-phase synthesis of the linear peptidyl resin **12** using standard Fmoc chemistry. Next, Alloc-Sar-OH was coupled to the hydroxyl group of a Thr through an ester bond using DIPCDI and DMAP. The Alloc and allyl protecting groups of the resulting peptidyl resin **13** were selectively removed and the deprotected peptide was on-resin cyclized yielding **14**. Afterwards, the remaining amino acids were stepwise coupled following the standard SPPS conditions providing resin **15**. The last steps included the oxidation of the Cys residue to cysteic

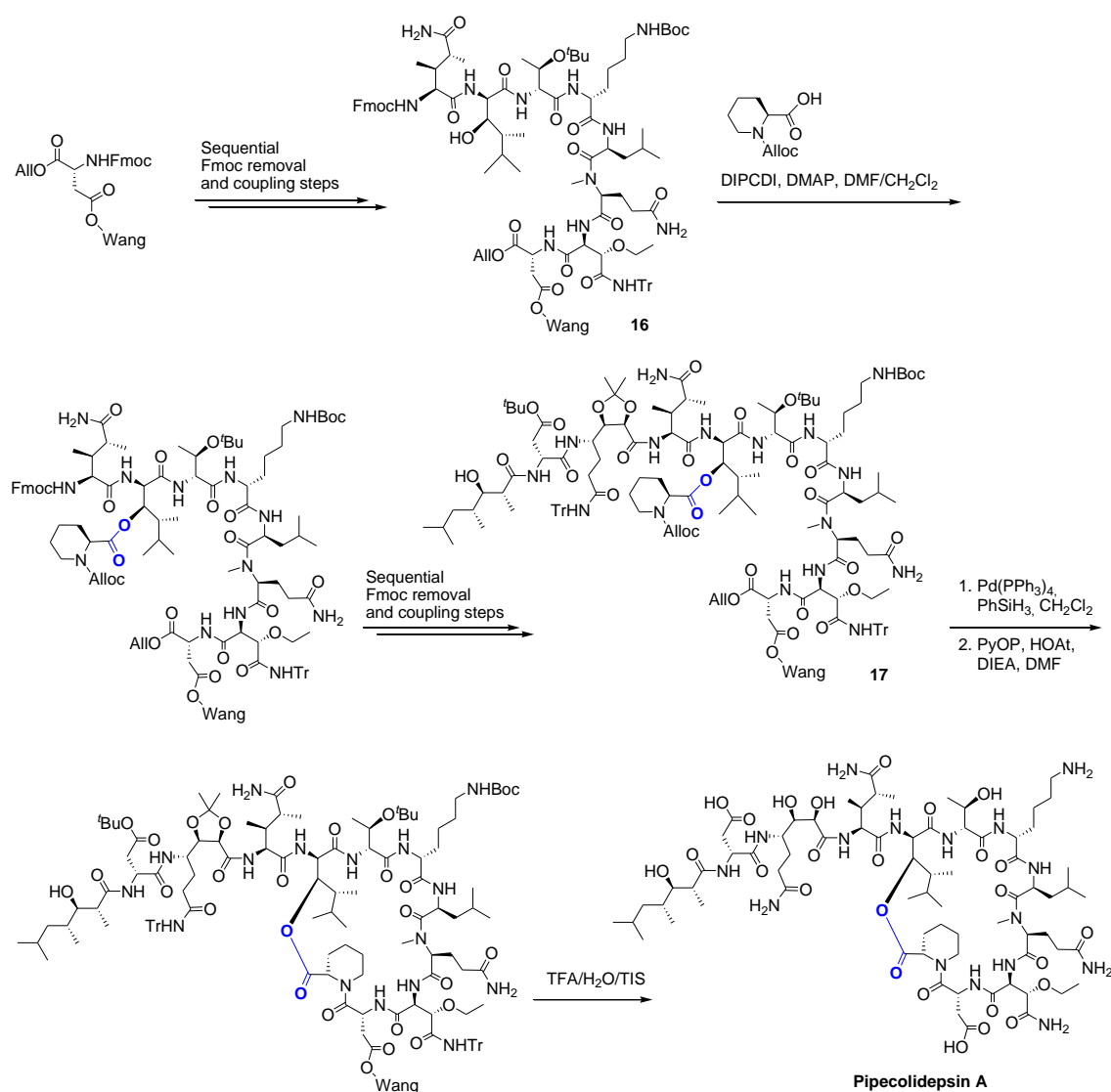
acid, the cleavage of the peptide from the support, and the formylation in solution of the *N*-terminal Ala affording halicyclindramide A (Seo and Lim, 2009).



Scheme 1.6. Synthesis of halicyclindramide A (Seo and Lim, 2009).

Another recent example is the total synthesis of the cyclic depsipeptide pipecolidepsin A described by Pelay-Gimeno and collaborators in 2013 (Scheme 1.7) (Pelay-Gimeno et al., 2013). Pipecolidepsin A shows anticancer activity against lung, colon and breast human tumor cells, and presents a complex structure with an ester linkage between the hydroxyl group of a *D*-allo-(2*R*,3*R*,4*R*)-2-amino-3-hydroxy-4,5-dimethylhexanoic acid (AHDMHA) and the carboxyl group of an *L*-pipecolic acid. This depsipeptide was prepared on solid phase following Fmoc chemistry and using a low-functionalized aminomethyl Wang resin derivatized with a 3-(4-hydroxymethylphenoxy)propionic acid linker. The synthesis of the linear precursor started by the side-chain anchoring of Fmoc-*D*-Asp-OAll followed by elongation of the peptide sequence to obtain the octapeptidyl resin **16**, which contains an Fmoc-diMeGln-

OH residue. Its introduction before ester bond formation was important to avoid the *O*-to-*N* transacylation that can occur during the Fmoc deprotection of the *D*-allo-AHDMHA residue. Next, the ester bond was constructed using Alloc-pipecolic-OH, DIPCDCI and DMAP for 2.3 h at 45°C. Stepwise incorporation of the last three residues, the two later as a pseudodipeptide, resulted on the linear peptidyl resin **17**. Allyl and Alloc groups were then simultaneously removed and peptide cyclization was carried out on solid phase providing pipecolidepsin A in >95% purity.



Scheme 1.7. Synthesis of pipecolidepsin A (Pelay-Gimeno et al., 2013).

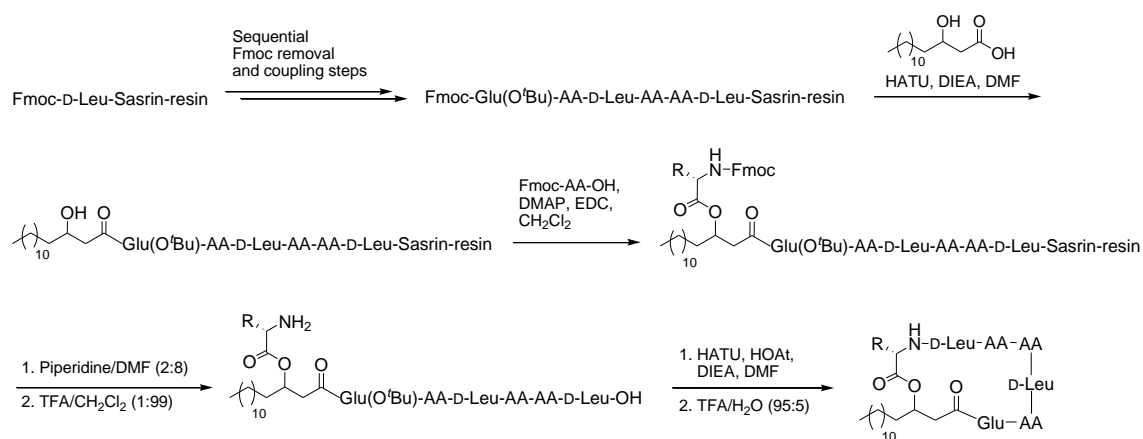
It is noteworthy to mention that all these examples describe the formation of an ester bond involving a primary or a secondary aliphatic hydroxyl group. However,

examples of ester bond formation involving an aromatic hydroxyl group, such as the phenol of a Tyr residue, are rare to find.

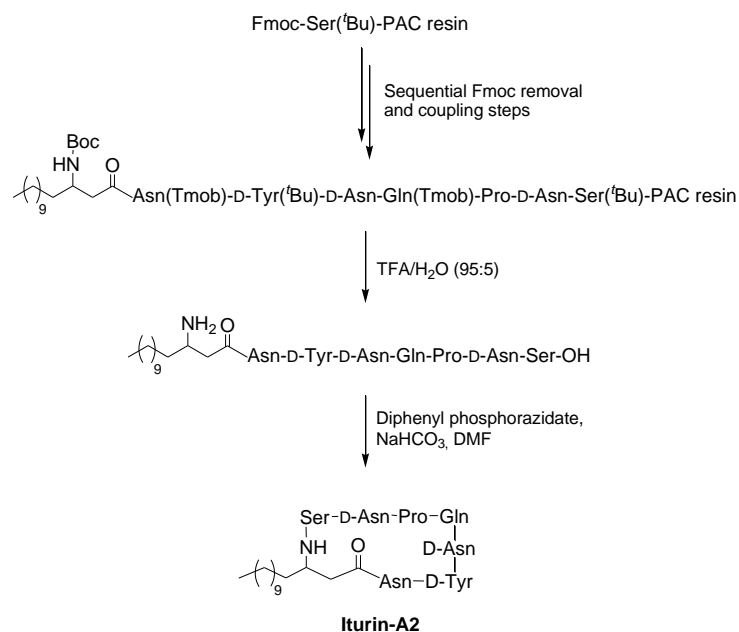
1.5.3 Obtention of *Bacillus* cyclic lipopeptides

Cyclic lipopeptides produced by *Bacillus spp.* are mainly obtained by fermentation followed by extraction (Jacques et al., 1999; Akpa et al., 2001; Inès and Dhouha, 2015). However, it has been observed that the *Bacillus* strain as well as the nutritional and culture conditions can influence the production of the different lipopeptide homologous (Akpa et al., 2001; Rangarajan et al., 2015).

Although fermentation is the most extended procedure, some cyclic lipopeptides have also been chemically synthesized. For instance, surfactin was first prepared in solution in 1996 (Nagai et al., 1996) and, few years later, Pagadoy and co-workers developed a more feasible methodology using solid-phase peptide synthesis (Pagadoy et al., 2005). Their methodology consisted on synthesizing the corresponding linear lipopeptide precursor on a Sasrin resin, using an Fmoc strategy, which was then cyclized in solution (*Scheme 1.8*). Following a similar methodology, the cyclic lipopeptide iturin-A2 was also chemically synthesized (*Scheme 1.9*) (Bland, 1996).

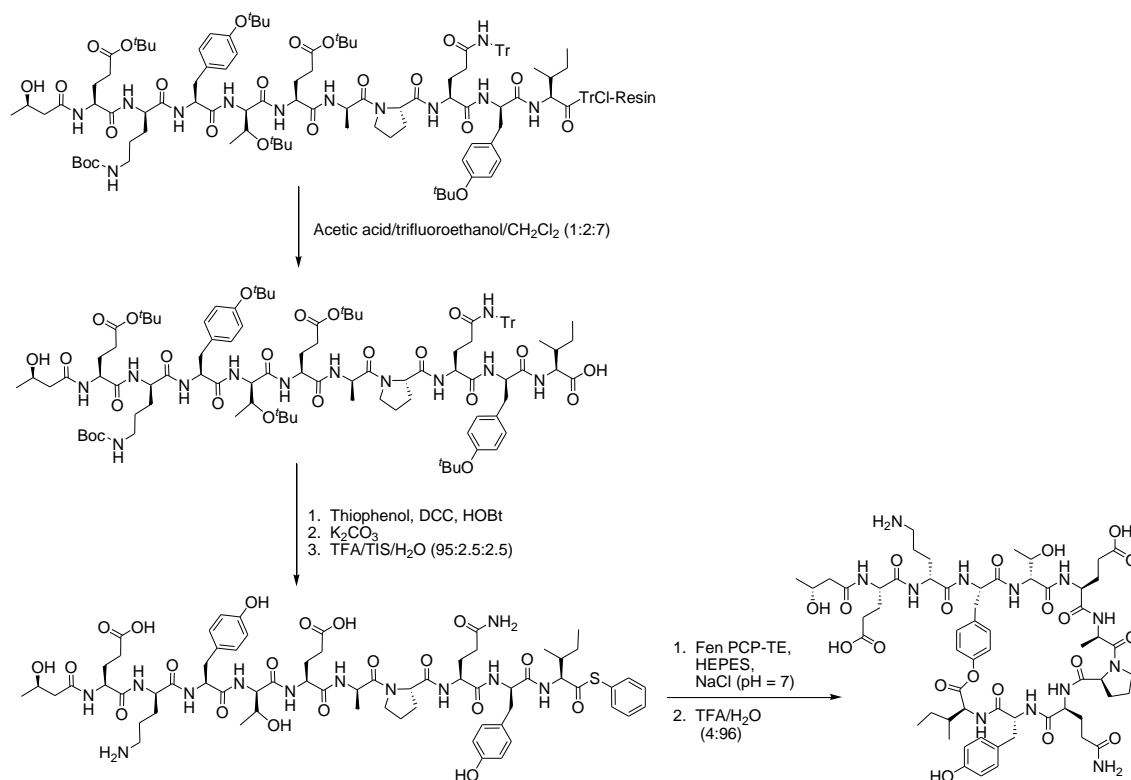


Scheme 1.8. Solid-phase synthesis of surfactin and analogues described by Pagadoy et al., 2005.



Scheme 1.9. Solid-phase synthesis of iturin-A2 (Bland, 1996).

In contrast, the total synthesis of fengycins has not yet been reported. However, it has been described the preparation of analogues through chemoenzymatic cyclization of the corresponding linear peptide (*Scheme 1.10*) (Sieber et al., 2003, 2004; Samel et al., 2006). These linear sequences were synthesized on solid phase using a 2-chlorotrityl resin derivatized with L-Leu. The synthesis was carried out following an Fmoc/^tBu strategy (Kohli et al., 2001). The linear peptides were cleaved from the solid support under mild acid conditions avoiding the removal of the side-chain protecting groups. In order to enable their insertion into the enzyme complex, the C-terminus of these linear sequences was derivatized with a thiophenol group using DCC and HOBT (Samel et al., 2006). Afterwards, all the side-chain protecting groups were removed and the resulting deprotected peptidyl thiophenols were purified and cyclized using the enzyme Fen PCP-TE. This enzyme consisted on a peptidyl carrier protein, onto which the linear peptide can be bound through a thioester linkage, and a thioesterase domain (TE), which catalyzes the cyclization and the consequent release of the final product. Using this methodology Samel and co-workers obtained the desired cyclic lipopeptide together with other by-products, such as the hydrolyzed peptide (Samel et al., 2006).



Scheme 1.10. Synthesis of a fengycin analogue through chemoenzymatic cyclization (Samel *et al.*, 2006).

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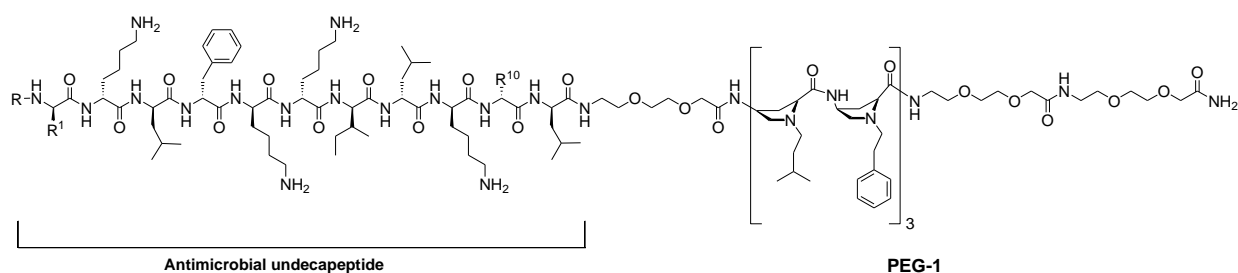
CHAPTER 2.

Main Objectives

The main objectives of this PhD thesis can be summarized as follows:

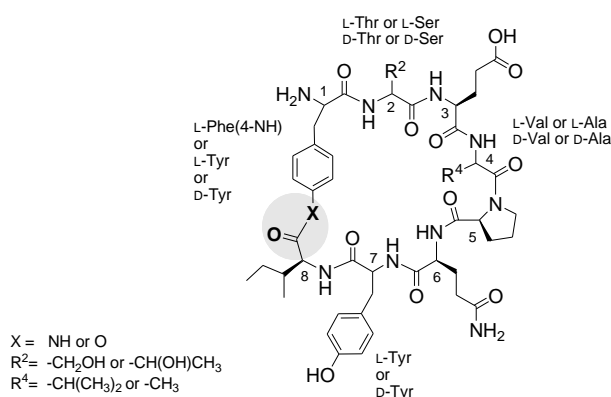
The first objective was the identification of sequences with anticancer activity from the CECMEL11 library of antimicrobial peptides and to study their conjugation to the cell-penetrating γ -peptide **PEG-1** in order to improve their activity. The achievement of this objective involves:

- Solid-phase synthesis and evaluation of the anticancer activity of the selected peptides from the CECMEL11 library.
- Solid-phase synthesis of antimicrobial undecapeptide/ γ -peptide **PEG-1** conjugates.
- Evaluation of the activity of the conjugates against cancer cells and non-malignant cells.

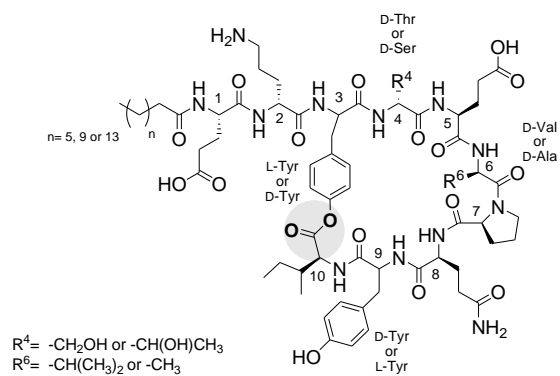


The second objective was the development of a suitable solid-phase strategy for the synthesis of fengycin derivatives. Towards this aim, we planned to study:

- A feasible approach to obtain analogues of the macrolactone of eight amino acids present in fengycins.



b) A methodology for the preparation of dehydroxy fengycin A, B and S derivatives.



CHAPTER 3.

Cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial
undecapeptide conjugates with anticancer
activity

This chapter corresponds to the following publication:

Cristina Rosés[†], Daniel Carbajo[†], Glòria Sanclimens, Josep Farrera-Sinfreu, Adriana Blancafort, Glòria Oliveras, Anna Díaz-Cirac, Eduard Bardají, Teresa Puig^{*}, Marta Planas, Lidia Feliu^{*}, Fernando Albericio and Miriam Royo^{*}. Cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial undecapeptide conjugates with anticancer activity. *Tetrahedron* **2012**, *68*, 4406-4412.

[†] Authors contributed equally to this work

For this publication C.R. contributed to the design of the peptide conjugates and synthesized all these compounds. Moreover, C.R. carried out the cytotoxic assays. C.R. was also involved in argumentations and discussions, and wrote the manuscript draft.

In this study, we combined a cell-penetrating γ -peptide, **PEG-1**, with antimicrobial undecapeptides in order to provide compounds with anticancer properties against MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cells. We demonstrated that the conjugates were more cytotoxic than **Ac-PEG-1** and the parent undecapeptides. We also evaluated the toxicity of the conjugates against non-malignant cells. The peptide conjugate with the best biological profile was **BP77-PEG-1**, which, at 10 μ M, showed a 71% growth inhibition in MDA-MB-231 cells and only a 17% inhibition in non-malignant cells. Therefore, this study suggests that **PEG-1** mediated the undecapeptide delivery into cancer cells and that these conjugates are the proof-of-concept of this strategy to generate improved anticancer drugs based on peptides.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In spite of great advances in cancer therapy, there is considerable current interest in developing anticancer agents with a new mode of action due to the development of resistance by cancer cells toward current anticancer drugs (Naumov et al., 2003; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Lage, 2009). A growing number of studies have shown that some

antimicrobial peptides, which are toxic to bacteria but not to normal mammalian cells, exhibit a broad spectrum of cytotoxic activity against cancer cells (Jenssen et al., 2006; Eckert, 2011; Mangoni, 2011; Yeung et al., 2011).

Although antimicrobial peptides display a wide structural diversity, many of them are short, cationically charged, and able to form amphipathic secondary structures (Leuschner and Hansel, 2004; Papo and Shai, 2005; Hancock and Sahl, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Baltzer and Brown, 2011; Brogden and Brogden, 2011; Mohd and Gupta, 2011). Their exact mode of action is not completely understood. However, there is a consensus that antimicrobial peptides act by disrupting negatively charged bacterial and cancer cell membranes to which they are electrostatically attracted, leading to cell lysis and death (Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008), unlike currently available conventional drugs, which typically interact with a specific target protein. Upon binding, they disrupt cell membranes, possibly by transient pore formation or disruption of lipid packing (Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008). Based on this mode of action, these peptides are unlikely to cause rapid emergence of resistance because it would require significant alteration of membrane composition, which is difficult to occur (Yeaman and Yount, 2003; Peschel and Sahl, 2006; Baltzer and Brown, 2011). In addition, there is increasing evidence that apart from membrane damage, other mechanisms may be involved including intracellular targets (Papo and Shai, 2005; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Yeung et al., 2011). Some of these AMPs showed remarkable selectivity to cancer cells versus untransformed proliferating cells (Leuschner and Hansel, 2004; Papo and Shai, 2005; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008).

Despite the excellent properties displayed by antimicrobial peptides, the development of peptide-based drugs is hampered by their limited access to the intracellular space. This obstacle has been tried to overcome by using diverse methods to promote the cellular uptake of exogenous molecules. Cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) have become one of the most efficient and explored transporters for achieving intracellular access (Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009). CPPs are usually short cationic sequences and may be derived from [i.e., TAT peptide (Vivès et al., 1997)] or be de novo designed peptides [polyarginine (Mitchell et al., 2000) or transportan (Pooga

et al., 1998)]. The conjugation of biologically active peptides to CPPs offers advantages, such as low toxicity and selective and controlled cell delivery compared with other administration vectors (Stewart et al., 2008; Fonseca et al., 2009), being considered a promising strategy for the design of anticancer agents. A drawback of this strategy is the low stability of these CPPs to proteases that it can prevent the drug to reach its target, forcing an increment of the doses to keep the activity and consequently generating an increase in the toxicity. Some alternatives with good protease stability have been described keeping internalizing properties, like diverse oligomers with foldamer properties, such as peptoids (Simon et al., 1992; Wender et al., 2000), arylamide oligomers (Iriando-Alberdi et al., 2010; Som et al., 2012), β - (Rueping et al., 2002; Umezawa et al., 2002; Potocky et al., 2003, 2005, 2007) and γ -peptides (Farrera-Sinfreu et al., 2004, 2005). Some of these foldamers have not only been explored as potential CPPs, but also as antimicrobial compounds with highly remarkable results (Hamuro et al., 1999; Porter et al., 2000, 2005; Tew et al., 2002, 2010; Liu et al., 2004; Schmitt et al., 2004; Chongsiriwatana et al., 2008; Claudon et al., 2010). Generally both applications derived in similar sequence pattern that combine hydrophobic/aromatic residues with cationic groups. In 2004, Farrera-Sinfreu and co-workers described a new family of γ -peptides hexamers based on the trifunctional amino acid *cis* 4-aminoproline that adopt a C9 ribbon in H₂O (Farrera-Sinfreu et al., 2004). This adopted secondary structure gives to these peptides a tridimensional pattern with high amphipaticity character that contribute to their internalization properties. Series of these γ -peptide diversely functionalized on the N ^{α} of *cis* 4-aminoproline were synthesized and have proven capacity for cellular uptake (Farrera-Sinfreu et al., 2005). These peptides also showed low cytotoxicity and high resistance to proteases, properties that convert them in a promising class of CPPs, specially peptide **1** that showed a 40% of internalization capacity compared to TAT peptide (*Figure 3.1*) considered a gold standard in the field.

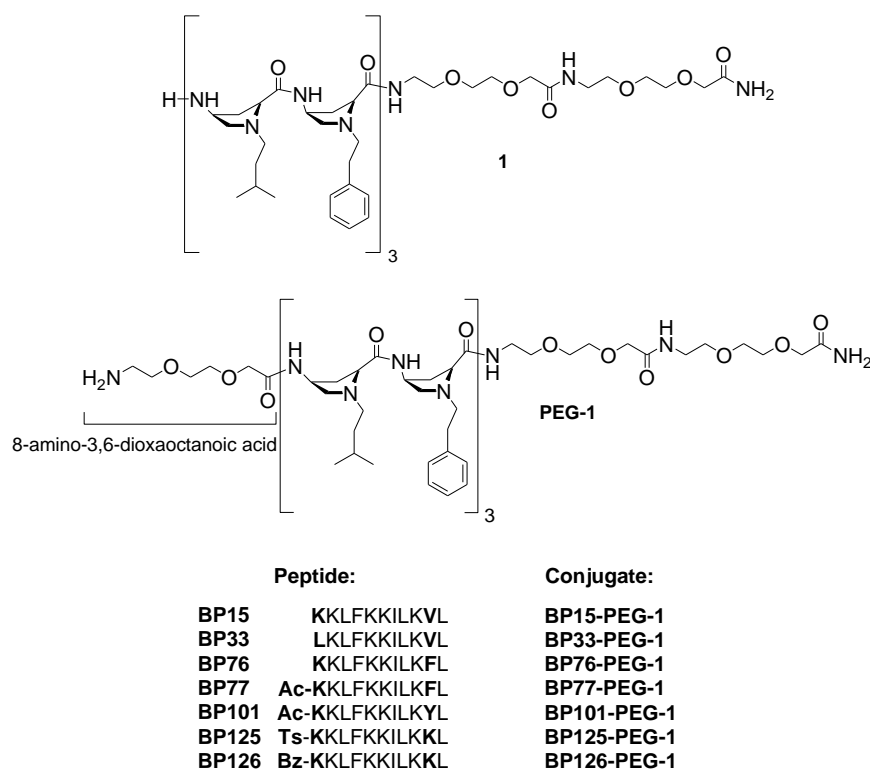


Figure 3.1. Structures of the peptide conjugates.

Recently, Badosa and co-workers designed linear undecapeptides (CECMEL11) to be used in plant protection (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). The general structure of this library was $R-X^1\text{KLFFKKILKX}^{10}\text{L-NH}_2$, where X^1 and X^{10} corresponded to amino acids with various degrees of hydrophobicity and hydrophilicity (Leu, Lys, Phe, Trp, Tyr, Val) and R included different N-terminal derivatizations (H, Ac, Ts, Bz, Bn). The antimicrobial evaluation of the CECMEL11 library led to the identification of peptides with high antibacterial activity ($\text{MIC} < 7.5 \mu\text{M}$) and with low hemolysis (2-6% at 50 μM and 8-40% at 150 μM). Based on these properties, these peptides can be considered as good candidates to explore its anticancer activity. Moreover, taking profit of the celluptake properties offered by γ -peptide **1** (see *Figure 3.1*), we decided to design new γ -peptide **1**/CECMEL11 undecapeptide conjugates. The conjugation of these antimicrobial peptides to **1** can promote its internalization, which can interact with intracellular targets increasing the cytotoxic effect, i.e., by disruption of mitochondrial membranes (Horton and Kelley, 2009).

As a linker between the CECMEL11 undecapeptides and γ -peptide **1**, it was decided to use a short monodisperse bifunctional polyethylene glycol (PEG) unit (8-

amino-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid), generating the peptide **PEG-1**. Polyethylene glycol has many properties that make it an ideal carrier for peptides, such as high water solubility, high mobility in solution and low immunogenicity. PEG is often attached to the N or C termini of peptides (Jain and Jain, 2008). Besides increasing overall size, this modification also protects peptides from exopeptidases and therefore increases their overall stability in vivo.

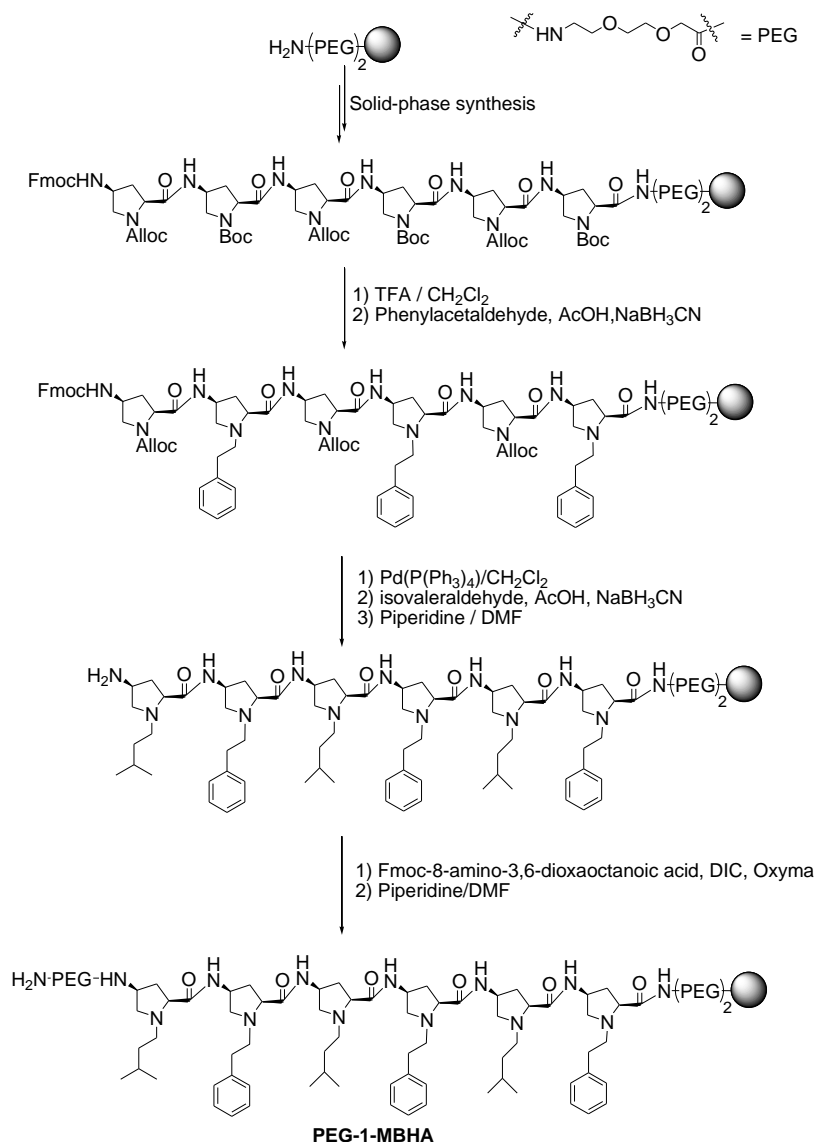
In this report, we describe the design and synthesis of **PEG-1**/ antimicrobial undecapeptide conjugates. The influence of the γ -peptide on the anticancer activity is also discussed.

3.2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.2.1. Design and synthesis

The undecapeptides were representative examples of the 125-member CECMEL11 library (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). The selected peptides showed a good balance between antimicrobial and hemolytic activities. Their sequences differ from the N-terminal derivatization (H, Ac, Ts or Bz) and the residues at positions 1 (Lys or Leu) and 10 (Val, Phe, Tyr or Lys). Peptide conjugates were designed by linking the corresponding antimicrobial undecapeptide to the cell-penetrating peptide **PEG-1** (*Figure 3.1*).

The parent CECMEL11 undecapeptides **BP15**, **BP33**, **BP76**, **BP77**, **BP101**, **BP125**, and **BP126** were prepared using a Fmoc-Rink-MBHA resin following a standard Fmoc/^tBu strategy (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). After the synthesis, peptides were cleaved from the resin by treatment with TFA/triisopropylsilane (TIS)/H₂O. HPLC and ESI-MS analysis of the crude reaction mixtures showed the formation of the expected peptides in good purities (>75%).



Scheme 3.1. Solid phase synthesis of **PEG-1-MBHA**.

The cell-penetrating peptide **PEG-1** was synthesized on a 4-methylbenzhydrylamine (MBHA) resin following an Fmoc/Alloc/Boc combined solid-phase strategy, a modified version of the previously described (*Scheme 3.1*) (Farrera-Sinfreu et al., 2004, 2005). Instead of the sequential introduction of the alkylation moiety after each monomer coupling, this new strategy allows the simultaneous introduction of the same type of alkylation moiety once the backbone synthesis is finished. This results in a protocol with fewer synthetic steps and cleaner final peptide crudes. The seven conjugates were obtained by stepwise coupling of the corresponding Fmoc-amino acids to the growing peptide chain on the **PEG-1-MBHA** resin (*Scheme 3.2*). The couplings were mediated by ethyl cyanoglyoxylate-2-oxime (Oxyma) and

N,N'-diisopropylcarbodiimide (DIPCDI) in *N*-methylpyrrolidinone (NMP) (Subirós-Funosas et al., 2009). Once the chain assembly was completed, the N-terminal Fmoc group was removed by exposure to piperidine-NMP. **BP15-PEG-1**, **BP33-PEG-1**, and **BP76-PEG-1** were cleaved from the resin by treatment with HF. In the case of N-terminal derivatized conjugates, after removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting peptidyl resins were treated with acetic anhydride (Ac₂O)-pyridine-CH₂Cl₂ (**BP77-PEG-1** and **BP101-PEG-1**), with *p*-toluenesulfonyl chloride (*p*-TsCl), and *N,N'*-diisopropylethylamine (DIEA) (**BP125-PEG-1**) or with benzoyl chloride (BzCl) and DIEA (**BP126-PEG-1**), and then cleaved with HF. The crude peptides were purified by preparative reversed-phase HPLC. The purified peptide conjugates were analyzed by HPLC ($\geq 95\%$ purity) and their structures were confirmed by MALDI-TOF (Table 3.1).

For comparison purposes, **Ac-PEG-1** was prepared by acetylation of the **PEG-1-MBHA** resin with Ac₂O-pyridine-CH₂Cl₂ followed by acidolytic cleavage. RP-HPLC purification afforded the pure compound.



Scheme 3.2. Solid-phase synthesis of peptide conjugates.

Table 3.1. Characterization of peptide conjugates.

Peptide conjugate	t_R^a (min)	Purity ^b (%)	ESI
BP15-PEG-1	5.35	93	747.95 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 996.51 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP33-PEG-1	7.43	95	744.11 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 991.84 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP76-PEG-1	7.05	96	759.92 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 1012.82 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP77-PEG-1	7.20	99	770.40 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 1026.96 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP101-PEG-1	7.62	95	774.29 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 1032.29 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP125-PEG-1	7.60	98	793.70 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 1057.99 [M+3H] ³⁺
BP126-PEG-1	7.73	98	781.22 [M+4H] ⁴⁺ 1041.24 [M+3H] ³⁺

^a RP-HPLC retention time. ^b Percentage determined by RP-HPLC at 210 nm of pure compounds.

3.2.2. Cytotoxicity

The anticancer activity of the CECMEL11 undecapeptides and that of the undecapeptides/**PEG-1** conjugates was screened in MDA-MB-231 human breast adenocarcinoma cells by determining the growth inhibition percentage at 10 and 30 μ M peptide concentration using the standard 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay (Liu et al., 1997; Celis, 1998). MTT is a fast, sensitive, and economical assay that allows to evaluate the antiproliferation properties of different compounds. Growth inhibition values are summarized in *Table 3.2*.

The CECMEL11 undecapeptides showed low activity against breast carcinoma cells at 10 μ M. They produced an inhibition percentage of cell growth between 5 and 39%, being the most active compounds **BP76** and the N-terminal derivatized peptides **BP77**, **BP125**, and **BP126** (24-39%). The inhibition percentage of these four peptides increased up to 51-81% at 30 μ M. The highest activity was observed for **BP77** (81%). These results pointed out that, in general, N-terminal derivatization seems to be important for the anticancer activity of these peptides.

The **PEG-1**/undecapeptide conjugates were much more effective in inhibiting the growth of MDA-MB-231 adenocarcinoma cells than the CECMEL11 peptides. At 30 μ M, the activity of the seven conjugates did not differ from that of **Ac-PEG-1** (>90% inhibition). In contrast, at 10 μ M, whereas **Ac-PEG-1** only caused 3% inhibition, peptide conjugates were 10-20 times more active, with inhibition percentages between 34 and 71%. This result indicates that the peptide moiety is responsible for the anticancer activity. The peptide conjugate with the highest cytotoxic activity was **BP77-PEG-1**. As compared with the CECMEL11 parent peptides at 10 μ M, conjugation to **PEG-1** increased the activity from 1.2 up to 10-fold. We speculate that the superior cytotoxicity of the peptide conjugates could be attributed to the cell-internalization efficiency of **PEG-1**, which enables the transport of the antimicrobial peptides over the cell membrane, enhancing their activity.

The activity on non-malignant human cells (fibroblasts N1) was also assessed for all the compounds at 10 and 30 μ M. CECMEL11 peptides were non toxic, and only **BP77** caused significant growth inhibition at 30 μ M (73%). These values correlate with the low hemolytic activity found for these peptides in previous studies (0-6% at 50 μ M; 8-40% at 150 μ M) (Ferre et al., 2006; Badosa et al., 2007). Modification of the peptides with **PEG-1** resulted in an increase of the cytotoxicity against N1 cells. The percentage of growth inhibition at 30 μ M was of 79% for **Ac-PEG-1** and of >90% for all peptide conjugates, pointing out that the toxicity could be mainly attributed to **PEG-1**. Interestingly, at 10 μ M the peptide conjugates were not significantly cytotoxic against non-malignant cells. A growth inhibition <10% was observed for four sequences and only two conjugates displayed an inhibition percentage >20%. Notably, **BP77-PEG-1** only produced a 17% of growth inhibition. This low toxicity together with the marked anticancer activity displayed by this peptide conjugate, suggest that **BP77-PEG-1** can be considered a proof-of-concept for future studies that will explore the use of these strategy to produce new anticancer conjugates that combine other anticancer peptides with peptide **1** or related γ -peptides with CPPs properties.

Table 3.2. Cytotoxicity against MDA-MB-231 cells and non-malignant fibroblast (N1).

Peptide	MDA-MB-231 growth inhibition ^a (%)		N1 growth inhibition ^a (%)		Peptide conjugate	MDA-MB-231 growth inhibition ^a (%)		N1 growth inhibition ^a (%)	
	10 μ M	30 μ M	10 μ M	30 μ M		10 μ M	30 μ M	10 μ M	30 μ M
					Ac-PEG-1	3 \pm 0.06	93 \pm 0.01	na ^c	79 \pm 0.08
BP15	5 \pm 0.04	12 \pm 0.03	na ^c	2 \pm 0.14	BP15-PEG-1	34 \pm 0.06	93 \pm 0.01	16 \pm 0.01	92 \pm 0.01
BP33	5 \pm 0.02	16 \pm 0.01	na ^c	na ^c	BP33-PEG-1	49 \pm 0.06	92 \pm 0.01	9 \pm 0.05	93 \pm 0.01
BP76	39 \pm 0.09	51 \pm 0.03	na ^c	na ^c	BP76-PEG-1	49 \pm 0.04	92 \pm 0.01	9 \pm 0.09	93 \pm 0.01
BP77	32 \pm 0.03	81 \pm 0.02	na ^c	73 \pm 0.07	BP77-PEG-1	71 \pm 0.02	92 \pm 0.01	17 \pm 0.14	93 \pm 0.01
BP101	- ^b	-	-	-	BP101-PEG-1	49 \pm 0.09	92 \pm 0.01	28 \pm 0.10	93 \pm 0.01
BP125	28 \pm 0.02	62 \pm 0.02	na ^c	5 \pm 0.16	BP125-PEG-1	59 \pm 0.06	92 \pm 0.01	25 \pm 0.07	93 \pm 0.01
BP126	24 \pm 0.05	61 \pm 0.05	na ^c	16 \pm 0.10	BP126-PEG-1	47 \pm 0.13	92 \pm 0.01	na ^c	93 \pm 0.01

^a Percentage of cell growth inhibition plus standard deviation. Values were obtained from duplicate experiments performed in triplicate. ^b Not determined. ^c na: non active.

3.3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have showed that by combining an antimicrobial peptide and a cell-penetrating γ -peptide effective anticancer agents are obtained. The efficacy of CECMEL11 undecapeptides toward breast cancers cells was several folds higher when conjugated to **PEG-1** as compared to treatment with antimicrobial peptides alone. This result suggests that the covalent linking to **PEG-1** was able to successfully deliver peptides into the cancer cells, enhancing their efficiency. Moreover, the most active peptide conjugate **BP77-PEG-1** also showed low toxicity against normal cells. These results constitute a proof of the usefulness of these γ -peptides as cellular transporters and open the possibility to conjugate them to other therapeutic peptides with the aim to improve their action.

3.4. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

3.4.1. General methods

Commercially available reagents were used throughout without purification. **PEG-1**, **Ac-PEG-1**, and peptide conjugates were analyzed under standard analytical RP-HPLC conditions with a Waters liquid chromatography instrument equipped with a UV/vis detector. Analysis was carried out with a Symmetry C₁₈ (150 mm×4.6 mm, 5 μ m) column using a 0-100% B linear gradient over 15 min at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. Solvent A was 0.1% aq TFA, and solvent B was 0.1% TFA in CH₃CN. Detection was performed at 210 nm.

Undecapeptides were analyzed under standard analytical HPLC conditions with a Dionex liquid chromatography instrument composed of a UV/vis Dionex UVD170U detector, a P680 Dionex bomb, an ASI-100 Dionex automatic injector, and CHROMELEON 6.60 software. Detection was performed at 220 nm. Analysis was carried out with a Kromasil 100 C₁₈ (40 mm×4.6 mm, 3.5 μ m) column with a 2-100% B linear gradient over 7 min at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. Solvent A was 0.1% aq TFA, and solvent B was 0.1% TFA in CH₃CN.

Undecapeptides ESI-MS analyses were performed with an Esquire 6000 ESI ion Trap LC/MS (Bruker Daltonics) instrument equipped with an electrospray ion source. The instrument was operated in the positive ESI(+) ion mode. Samples (5 μ l) were introduced into the mass spectrometer ion source directly through an HPLC autosampler. The mobile phase (80:20 CH₃CN/H₂O at a flow rate of 100 μ l/min) was delivered by a 1100 Series HPLC pump (Agilent). Nitrogen was employed as both the drying and nebulizing gas.

PEG-1 and the conjugates HPLC-ESI analyses were performed on Waters Alliance 2695 chromatography system equipped with Waters 995 photodiode array detector and ESI-MS Waters Micromass ZQ on a Symmetry column with linear gradients of B: CH₃CN (with 0.1% TFA) in A: H₂O (with 0.1% TFA) at a flow rate of 1ml/min.

Mass spectra were recorded on a MALDI Voyager DE RP time-of-flight (TOF) spectrometer (Applied Biosystems, Framingham). 2,5-Dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB) was used as a matrix and was purchased from Aldrich.

3.4.1.1. General method for solid-phase synthesis of CECMEL11 undecapeptides

Peptides were synthesized manually by the solid-phase method using standard Fmoc chemistry. Fmoc-Rink-MBHA resin (0.56 mmol/g) was used as solid support. Couplings of the corresponding amino acids Fmoc-Leu-OH, Fmoc-Phe-OH, Fmoc-Lys(Boc)-OH, Fmoc-Ile-OH, Fmoc-Val-OH, and Fmoc-Tyr(^tBu)-OH (4 equiv) were performed using ethyl cyanoglyoxylate-2-oxime (4 equiv), *N,N'*-diisopropylcarbodiimide (DIPCDI) (4 equiv) in DMF at room temperature for 1 h. The completion of the reactions was monitored by the Kaiser test (Kaiser et al., 1970). Fmoc group removal was achieved with piperidine/DMF (3:7, 1 \times 2 min+1 \times 10 min). After each coupling and deprotection step, the resin was washed with DMF (6 \times 1 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (3 \times 1 min) and air-dried. Once the peptide sequence was completed, the Fmoc group was removed and, when required, the resulting peptidyl resin was derivatized. Acidolytic cleavage was performed by treatment of the resin with

TFA/H₂O/triisopropylsilane (TIS) (95:2.5:2.5) for 2 h at room temperature. Following TFA evaporation and Et₂O extraction, the crude peptide was dissolved in H₂O/CH₃CN, lyophilized, analyzed by HPLC, and characterized by MS-ESI.

KKLFFKKILKVL-NH₂ (BP15). Starting from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP15** (24 mg, 89% purity). $t_R=4.39$ min. MS (ESI): $m/z=1356.83$ [M + H]⁺.

LKLFFKKILKVL-NH₂ (BP33). Starting from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP33** (26 mg, 92% purity). $t_R=4.46$ min. MS (ESI): $m/z=1341.81$ [M + H]⁺.

KKLFFKKILKFL-NH₂ (BP76). Starting from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP76** (20 mg, 82% purity). $t_R=4.20$ min. MS (ESI): $m/z=1404.87$ [M + H]⁺.

Ac-KKLFFKKILKFL-NH₂ (BP77). Synthesis started from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with acetic anhydride–pyridine–CH₂Cl₂ (1:1:1, 2×30 min) and then washed with CH₂Cl₂ (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP77** (19 mg, 75% purity). $t_R=4.72$ min. MS (ESI): $m/z=1446.91$ [M+H]⁺.

Ac-KKLFFKKILKYL-NH₂ (BP101). Synthesis started from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with acetic anhydride–pyridine–CH₂Cl₂ (1:1:1, 2×30 min) and then washed with CH₂Cl₂ (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP101** (22 mg, 82% purity). $t_R=4.56$ min. MS (ESI): $m/z=1462.91$ [M+H]⁺.

Ts-KKLFFKKILKKL-NH₂ (BP125). Synthesis started from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with *p*-

toluenesulphonyl chloride (40 equiv) and DIEA (80 equiv) in CH₂Cl₂-NMP (9:1) for 1h and then washed with CH₂Cl₂ (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP125** (18 mg, 76% purity). *t_R*=4.53 min. MS (ESI): *m/z*=1540.06 [M+H]⁺.

Bz-KKLFKKILKKL-NH₂ (BP126). Synthesis started from resin Fmoc-Rink-MBHA (50 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with benzoyl chloride (40 equiv) and DIEA (80 equiv) in CH₂Cl₂-NMP (9:1) for 1 h and then washed with CH₂Cl₂ (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP126** (19 mg, 77% purity). *t_R*=4.63 min. MS (ESI): *m/z*=1489.98 [M+H]⁺.

3.4.1.2. PEG-1-MBHA resin synthesis

PEG-1 peptidyl resin was synthesized manually by the solid-phase method using MBHA resin (500 mg, 0.63 mmol/g) as solid support following a combined Fmoc/Boc/Alloc strategy. Peptide synthesis was performed manually in a polypropylene syringe fitted with a polyethylene porous disc. Solvents and soluble reagents were removed by suction. Washings between deprotection, coupling, and subsequent deprotection steps were carried out with DMF (5×1 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (5×1 min) using 10 mL solvent/g resin for each wash.

Two units of Fmoc-8-amine-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid were coupled consecutively to the resin using standard DIPCDI/HOBt coupling system (3 equiv). Then, alternate incorporations of Fmoc-Amp(Boc)-OH (3 equiv) and Fmoc-Amp(Alloc)-OH (3 equiv) were carried out with DIPCDI (3 equiv) and ethyl cyanoglyoxyl-2-oxime (3 equiv) in DMF for 2 h. The resin was washed with DMF (5×1 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (5×1 min) after each coupling. Couplings were monitored by the Kaiser test (Kaiser et al., 1970). Once the alternate Boc/Alloc α -amino protected skeleton had been built, the *N^α*-Boc protecting group was removed, alkylation of the amino group was performed by on-resin reductive amination using phenylacetaldehyde (5 equiv for each amine) in 1% HOAc in DMF for 30 min and then treating the resin with NaBH₃CN (5 equiv for each

amine) in CH_3OH for 2 h. After that, the resin was washed with DMF (5 \times 1 min) and CH_2Cl_2 (5 \times 1 min). Alkylation was monitored by chloranil test (Christensen, 1979). Then, N^α -Alloc protecting group was removed with $\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_3/\text{PhSiH}$ (0.1:10) (2 \times 10min in CH_2Cl_2) and alkylation with isovaleraldehyde was performed as above. After removal of last Fmoc protecting group (which provided **1-MBHA**) an aliquot of **PEG-1-MBHA** was cleaved to check the peptidyl resin quality by acidolytic cleavage with HF and **PEG-1** was obtained, which was dissolved in $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$, lyophilized and analyzed by HPLC (88% purity). $t_{\text{R}}=6.28$ min. MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=1503.85$ $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$, 1525.85 $[\text{M}+\text{Na}]^+$. ESI found: 752.8; 502.3.

Finally, an additional unit of Fmoc-8-amine-3,6-dioxaoctanoic acid was added to the 1-MBHA resin as described above rendering **PEG-1-MBHA-resin**.

Part of the **PEG-1-MBHA** resin (100 mg) was treated with acetic anhydride-pyridine- CH_2Cl_2 (1:1:1, 2 \times 30 min) and then washed with CH_2Cl_2 (3 \times 2 min), NMP (3 \times 2 min), and CH_2Cl_2 (6 \times 1 min). Acidolytic cleavage of the resulting resin afforded **Ac-PEG-1**.

3.4.1.3. General method for solid-phase synthesis of peptide conjugates

PEG-1-MBHA resin was divided on seven parts and on each one was built one of the antimicrobial peptides selected following an Fmoc/ t Bu strategy on a standard solid-phase peptide synthesis. Couplings of the corresponding amino acids Fmoc-Leu-OH, Fmoc-Phe-OH, Fmoc-Lys(Boc)-OH, Fmoc-Ile-OH, Fmoc-Val-OH, and Fmoc-Tyr(t Bu)-OH (4 equiv) were performed using ethyl cyanoglyoxylate-2-oxime (4 equiv), DIPCDI (4 equiv) in NMP at room temperature for 3 h. The completion of the reactions was monitored by the Kaiser test (Kaiser et al., 1970). Fmoc group removal was achieved with piperidine/NMP (3:7, 1 \times 2+2 \times 10 min). After each coupling and deprotection step, the resin was washed with NMP (6 \times 1 min) and CH_2Cl_2 (3 \times 1 min) and air-dried. Once the peptide sequence was completed, the N-terminal Fmoc group was removed and, when required, the resulting peptidyl resin was derivatized.

Acidolytic cleavage was performed by treating the resin with HF in the presence of 10% anisole for 1 h at 0 °C. Peptides were precipitated with cold anhydrous TMBE, dissolved in HOAc, and then lyophilized. Crude peptides were purified by preparative HPLC using a linear gradient of CH₃CN (containing 1% of TFA) and H₂O (containing 1% of TFA). The purity of each fraction was verified by analytical HPLC, HPLC-MS, and MALDI-TOF.

KKLFFKKILKVL-PEG-1 (BP15-PEG-1). Starting from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP15-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (8 mg, 93% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=747.95 [M+4H]^{4+}$, $996.51 [M+3H]^{3+}$.

LKLFFKKILKVL-PEG-1 (BP33-PEG-1). Starting from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP33-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (16 mg, 95% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=744.11 [M+4H]^{4+}$, $991.84 [M+3H]^{3+}$.

KKLFFKKILKFL-PEG-1 (BP76-PEG-1). Starting from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg), sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, followed by acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP76-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (12 mg, 96% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=759.92 [M+4H]^{4+}$, $1012.82 [M+3H]^{3+}$.

Ac-KKLFFKKILKFL-PEG-1 (BP77-PEG-1). Synthesis started from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with acetic anhydride-pyridine-CH₂Cl₂ (1:1:1, 2×30 min) and then washed with CH₂Cl₂ (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH₂Cl₂ (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP77-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (18 mg, 99% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=770.40 [M+4H]^{4+}$, $1026.96 [M+3H]^{3+}$.

Ac-KKLFFKKILKYL-PEG-1 (BP101-PEG-1). Synthesis started from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated

with acetic anhydride-pyridine- CH_2Cl_2 (1:1:1, 2×30 min) and then washed with CH_2Cl_2 (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min) and CH_2Cl_2 (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP101-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (2 mg, 95% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=774.29$ $[\text{M}+4\text{H}]^{4+}$, 1032.29 $[\text{M}+3\text{H}]^{3+}$.

Ts-KKLFKKILKKL-PEG-1 (BP125-PEG-1). Synthesis started from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with *p*-toluenesulfonyl chloride (40 equiv) and DIEA (80 equiv) in CH_2Cl_2 -NMP (9:1) for 1 h and then washed with CH_2Cl_2 (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min), and CH_2Cl_2 (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP125-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (17 mg, 98% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=793.70$ $[\text{M}+4\text{H}]^{4+}$, 1057.99 $[\text{M}+3\text{H}]^{3+}$.

Bz-KKLFKKILKKL-PEG-1 (BP126-PEG-1). Synthesis started from resin **PEG-1-MBHA** (100 mg) and after sequential couplings of the corresponding Fmoc-protected amino acids and removal of the Fmoc group, the resulting resin was treated with benzoyl chloride (40 equiv) and DIEA (80 equiv) in CH_2Cl_2 -NMP (9:1) for 1 h and then washed with CH_2Cl_2 (3×2 min), NMP (3×2 min), and CH_2Cl_2 (6×1 min). Acidolytic cleavage afforded **BP126-PEG-1**, which was purified by preparative HPLC (18 mg, 98% purity). MS (MALDI-TOF): $m/z=781.22$ $[\text{M}+4\text{H}]^{4+}$, 1041.24 $[\text{M}+3\text{H}]^{3+}$.

3.4.2. Cell lines and cell culture

MDA-MB-231 human breast Caucasian adenocarcinoma cells were obtained from the ATCC (American Type Culture Collection Rockville, MD, USA). Cells were routinely grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco, Berlin, Germany) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Bio-Whittaker, Walkersville, MD, USA), 1% L-glutamine, 1% sodium pyruvate, 50 U/ml penicillin, and 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ streptomycin (Gibco). The cells remained free of *Mycoplasma* and were propagated in adherent culture according to established protocols. Cells were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO_2 .

3.4.3. Cell growth inhibition assay

Peptides were dissolved in sterile Phosphate Saline Buffer (PBS) to get a final stock solution of 3200 μM . Sensitivity was determined using a standard colorimetric MTT assay. Briefly, MDA-MB-231 cells were plated out at a density of 7×10^3 cells/100 μl /well in 96-well microtiter plates and allowed an overnight period for attachment. Then, the medium was removed and fresh medium along with the corresponding peptide concentration (10 or 30 μM) were added to the cultures. Agents were not renewed during the 48 h of cell exposure, and control cells without agents were cultured under the same conditions. Following treatment, cells were fed with drug-free medium (100 μl /well) and MTT solution (10 μl , 5 mg/ml in PBS), and incubation was prolonged for 3 h at 37 °C. After carefully removing the supernatants, the MTT-formazan crystals formed by metabolically viable cells were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, 100 μl /well) and the absorbance was measured at 570 nm in a multi-well plate reader (Model SPECTRAMax 340 PC (380) reader). Using control optical density (OD) values[®], test OD values (T), and time zero OD values (T_0), the growth inhibition (IC value) at every concentration was calculated from the equation, $100 \times [(T - T_0) / (C - T_0)] = \text{IC}$.

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CHAPTER 4.

Solid-phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides
containing a phenyl ester bond

This chapter corresponds to a manuscript in preparation:

Cristina Rosés, Cristina Camó, Marta Planas, Lidia Feliu. Solid-phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides containing a phenyl ester bond. *In preparation.*

For this work, C.R. designed the cyclic depsipeptides and performed the synthesis and characterization of all the compounds. Moreover, C.R. was also involved in argumentations and discussions of the results, and wrote the manuscript draft.

An efficient solid-phase strategy for the synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides containing a phenyl ester linkage in their structure is described. Two different routes were studied that differed on the site of resin attachment and on the bond involved in the cyclization step. The key steps of these approaches were the formation of the phenyl ester bond and the on-resin head-to-side-chain cyclization. It was observed that the amino acid composition as well as its configuration significantly influenced the formation and the stability of the cyclic depsipeptides. The presence of a L-Tyr¹ and of a D-Tyr⁷ led to the most stable sequences. This work constitutes the first report on the synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides containing a phenyl ester bond.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Fengycins are cyclic lipodepsipeptides isolated from several *Bacillus* spp. that were first described in 1986 (Vanittanakom et al., 1986). These cyclic compounds show interesting antifungal activity mainly against filamentous fungi and, unlike other lipopeptides produced by *Bacillus* spp., they are low hemolytic (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Deleu et al., 2008). Moreover, they have been described as elicitors of defence

responses in plants, being a promising alternative for the protection of crops against phytopathogens (Ongena et al., 2005, 2007).

The fengycin family includes related compounds that share a common cyclic structure with exceptional features (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Wang et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2008; Bie et al., 2009; Pueyo et al., 2009; Pecci et al., 2010; Pathak et al., 2012; Villegas-Escobar et al., 2013). They are decapeptides acylated at the *N*-terminus with a β -hydroxy fatty acid tail (*Figure 4.1*). Eight of the amino acids form a macrolactone in which the ester bond occurs between the phenol group of a tyrosine (Tyr) and the α -carboxylic group of an isoleucine (Ile). According to the amino acid sequences, fengycins A and B are the two major isoforms of this family. The former contains a D-alanine (D-Ala) at position 6 whereas the latter possess a D-valine (D-Val) at this position. Fengycin S is another isoform that was isolated by Sang-Cheol and co-workers from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (Sang-Cheol et al., 2010). This isoform is analogous to fengycin B, but it bears a D-serine (D-Ser) at position 4 instead of an D-*allo*-threonine (D-*allo*-Thr). Concerning the Tyr residues at positions 3 and 9, it has to be mentioned that there has been some confusion over their configuration. Initially, fengycins were reported to have a D-Tyr³/L-Tyr⁹ configuration (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Schneider et al., 1999), whereas a L-Tyr³/D-Tyr⁹ configuration was assigned to another family of related lipopeptides named plipastatins (Nishikiori et al., 1986a, 1986b; Volpon et al., 2000). Nevertheless, a recent study has shown that fengycins and plipastatins have the same primary structure, that is a L-Tyr³/D-Tyr⁹ configuration (Honma et al., 2012). Similarly to Nasir et al., we decided to name the peptides of this study as fengycins and to use the correct configuration, because this term is more widely employed than plipastatins (Nasir et al., 2013) (*Figure 4.1*).

CHAPTER 5.

Total solid-phase synthesis of dehydroxy
fengycin derivatives

This chapter corresponds to a manuscript in preparation:

Cristina Rosés, Nerea López, Àngel Oliveras, Lidia Feliu, Marta Planas. Total solid-phase synthesis of dehydroxy fengycin derivatives. *In preparation.*

For this work, C.R. designed the dehydroxy fengycin derivatives and performed the synthesis and characterization of all the compounds. Moreover, C.R. was also involved in argumentations and discussions of the results, and wrote the manuscript draft.

A rapid and efficient solid-phase strategy for the synthesis of dehydroxy fengycins derivatives is described. This synthetic approach involved the linkage of a Tyr to a Wang resin via a Mitsunobu reaction and the elongation of the peptide sequence followed by subsequent acylation of the N-terminus of the resulting linear peptidyl resin, esterification of the phenol group of a Tyr with an Ile, and final macrolactamization. The amino acid composition as well as the presence of the N-terminal acyl group significantly influenced the stability of the macrolactone. Cyclic lipodepsipeptides with a L-Tyr³/D-Tyr⁹ configuration were more stable than those containing the Tyr residues with an opposite configuration. This work constituted the first approach on the total solid-phase synthesis of dehydroxy fengycin derivatives.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Cyclic lipodepsipeptides are a structurally diverse group of nonribosomal metabolites typically produced by bacterial and fungal species, such as *Pseudomonas* or *Bacillus* strains (Stein, 2005; Ongena and Jacques, 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2010; Bionda and Cudic, 2011). This class of compounds have raised interest due to their

wide range of biological activities and to their structural complexity. The main structural feature of these cyclic peptides is the occurrence of an ester bond between the side-chain of an amino acid and the C-terminal end of the sequence. The fatty acid moiety is commonly attached to the N-terminus of this macrolactone. Moreover, the complexity of the structure of these lipodepsipeptides is increased by the combination of L- and D-amino acids as well as of other unnatural residues present in their sequence (Sieber and Marahiel, 2003; Sarabia et al., 2004).

Fengycins are a family of natural cyclic lipodepsipeptides isolated from *Bacillus* strains (Vanittanakom et al., 1986). They consist of an eight-residue macrocycle with a phenyl ester linkage between the phenol group of a tyrosine (Tyr) and the α -carboxylic group of an isoleucine (Ile) (*Figure 5.1*). This cyclic depsipeptide bears at its N-terminus a dipeptidyl tail acylated with a β -hydroxy fatty acid. Different fengycin isoforms have been described, being fengycins A and B the most common (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Chen et al., 2008; Bie et al., 2009; Pueyo et al., 2009; Pecci et al., 2010; Pathak et al., 2012; Villegas-Escobar et al., 2013). These two isoforms differ on the amino acid at position 6, which is a D-alanine (D-Ala) in fengycin A and a D-valine (D-Val) in the B isoform (*Figure 5.1*). Sang-Cheol et al. isolated from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* fengycin S (Sang-Cheol et al., 2010). Compared to fengycin B, this isoform bears a D-serine (D-Ser) at position 4 instead of a D-*allo*-threonine (D-*allo*-Thr). Concerning the configuration of Tyr residues at position 3 and 9, it was first reported to be D and L, respectively (Vanittanakom et al., 1986; Schneider et al., 1999). However, it has been recently confirmed that the configuration of these amino acids is L and D, respectively, and that this structure is the same than that of the previously isolated fengycin isoforms named as plipastatins (Nishikiori et al., 1986; Volpon et al., 2000; Honma et al., 2012). Since the term fengycins is most widely used than plipastatins, herein we employed the former term for the peptides of this study, but using the correct configuration.

CHAPTER 6.

General Discussion

Bioactive peptides have been an important focus of research over the last century due to their broad spectrum of activity (Jenssen et al., 2006; Bionda and Cudic, 2011; Henderson and Lee, 2013). Among them, antimicrobial peptides are considered as a promising alternative to traditional antibiotics. They can be found in numerous organisms, from vertebrate to bacteria, and are active towards a wide range of pathogens (Li et al., 2012; Pasupuleti et al., 2012). Their ability to interact with negatively charged membranes decreases the probability that microorganisms develop resistance mechanisms (Hancock, 2001; Baltzer and Brown, 2011). Although bacteria are the most studied targets, some of these peptides are also toxic against cancer cells, constituting interesting candidates as new anticancer agents (Papo and Shai, 2005; Mader and Hoskin, 2006; Hoskin and Ramamoorthy, 2008; Gaspar et al., 2013).

Despite the interest of antimicrobial peptides, several limitations must be overcome to be used *in vivo*, such as their high susceptibility to protease degradation. Several structural modifications have been described to prevent protease recognition, i.e. introduction of non-natural amino acids, modification of the peptide backbone or cyclization (Hancock and Sahl, 2006; Zakeri and Lu, 2013). Therefore, new synthetic strategies that allow the access to a wide range of analogues are required.

Solid-phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) has been established as the main methodology for the obtention of new peptide sequences (Coin et al., 2007; Pires et al., 2014). Through easy and low time-consuming sequential steps, SPPS allows the preparation of a large variety of analogues containing natural and non-natural amino acids as well as other moieties, such as fatty acids or nucleotides. This methodology can be applied to the preparation of short linear peptides as well as of large sequences with high structural complexity, such as cyclic or branched peptides.

This PhD thesis is focused on the development of new synthetic approaches to obtain bioactive peptides. With this objective in mind, the first part of this thesis deals with the synthesis of new anticancer agents by conjugating an antimicrobial undecapeptide with a cell-penetrating peptide (CPP) (Chapter 3). Next, our work was focused on devising a feasible strategy for the synthesis of bioactive cyclic lipodepsipeptides produced by *Bacillus* strains, useful for plant protection (Chapters 4 and 5).

CHAPTER 7.

General Conclusions

❖ Cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial undecapeptide conjugates

- Antimicrobial undecapeptides from the CECMELL11 library showed an interesting anticancer activity against breast carcinoma cells while being non toxic against non-malignant cells. In particular, **BP76** and the N-terminal derivatized peptides **BP77**, **BP125**, **BP126** were identified as the most active undecapeptides. In general, these results suggested that the N-terminal derivatization is an important feature for the anticancer activity of these compounds.
- Seven antimicrobial undecapeptide/cell-penetrating γ -peptide **1** conjugates with general structure R-Aa¹-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Aa¹⁰-Leu-PEG-**1** (R = H, Ac, Ts or Bz; Aa¹ = Leu or Lys, Aa¹⁰ = Val, Phe, Tyr or Lys) were satisfactorily synthesized and obtained in 93-99% HPLC purity.
- The conjugation of the undecapeptides to **PEG-1** led to an improvement of their anticancer activity from 1.2 up to 10-fold. Results denoted that the peptide moiety is mostly responsible for this activity. Interestingly, at 10 μ M the conjugates did not display significant cytotoxicity.
- **BP77-PEG-1** was the conjugate that displayed the best balance between toxicity and anticancer activity. **BP77-PEG-1** can be considered a proof of the usefulness of this strategy to design new anticancer drugs based on the conjugation between an antimicrobial peptide and a cell-penetrating γ -peptide.

❖ Cyclic lipodepsipeptides derived from fengycins

- Cyclic octapeptides analogous to the macrocycle of fengycins, with general structure H-Phe¹(4-NH-&)-Aa²-Glu-Aa⁴-Pro-Gln⁶-D-Tyr⁷-Ile-& (Aa² = D-Thr or D-Ser; Aa⁴ = D-Ala or D-Val), were synthesized. The route devised involved the use of Gln⁶ as site of resin attachment and the cyclization of the corresponding linear peptidyl resin Boc-Phe¹[4-NH-Ile-D-Tyr⁷(^tBu)-H]-Aa²-Glu(O^tBu)-Aa⁴-Pro-Glu⁶(Rink-MBHA)-OH through formation of an amide bond between Glu⁶ and Tyr⁷. Cyclic octapeptides **BPC862**, **BPC864**, **BPC866** and **BPC868** were obtained in >98% HPLC purity after purification. It was observed that when the

-
- sequence contained only L-amino acids, the cyclization step mainly led to a significant amount of a dimeric compound.
- The lability of the phenyl ester bond precluded the use of a similar route for the synthesis of cyclic octadepsipeptides. Aminolysis of the ester bond or the formation of diketopiperazines was observed.
 - Cyclic octadepsipeptides with general structure H-Tyr¹(&)-Aa²-Glu-Aa⁴-Pro-Gln-D-Tyr⁷-Ile-& (Aa² = D-Thr or D-Ser; Aa⁴ = D-Ala or D-Val) were synthesized. In this case, Tyr⁷ was linked to the support via a Mitsunobu reaction, the corresponding linear peptidyl resin Boc-Tyr¹-Aa²-Glu(O^tBu)-Aa⁴-Pro-Gln(Tr)-D-Tyr⁷(Wang)-OAll was prepared and esterified with Alloc-Ile-OH to yield Boc-Tyr¹(O-Ile-Alloc)-Aa²-Glu(O^tBu)-Aa⁴-Pro-Gln(Tr)-D-Tyr⁷(Wang)-OAll. Final allyl and Alloc group removal, and cyclization between Tyr⁷ and Ile⁸ provided the cyclic octadepsipeptides **BPC822**, **BPC824**, **BPC826** and **BPC828** from 88 to >99% HPLC purity after purification.
 - The synthesis of cyclic octadepsipeptides containing an opposite configuration at the Tyr residues (D-Tyr¹/L-Tyr⁷) was assayed following the above synthetic route. However, a high amount of a dimeric compound was formed together with a linear peptide resulting from the hydrolysis of the phenyl ester bond. These findings showed that the formation of this cyclic octadepsipeptides was more difficult than that of the ones bearing a L-Tyr¹/D-Tyr⁷ configuration.
 - A straightforward strategy for the solid-phase synthesis of dehydroxy fengycin derivatives with the general formula Fatty acid-Glu¹-D-Orn-Tyr³(&)-Aa⁴-Glu-Aa⁶-Pro-Gln-D-Tyr⁹-Ile¹⁰-& (Aa⁴ = D-Thr or D-Ser; Aa⁶ = D-Val or D-Ala) was developed. This strategy involved the anchoring of Tyr⁹ through its side-chain phenol group to the solid support, followed by synthesis of the corresponding linear peptidyl resin and acylation of the N-terminus. The resulting resin Fatty acid-Glu¹(O^tBu)-D-Orn(Boc)-Tyr³-Aa⁴-Glu(O^tBu)-Aa⁶-Pro-Gln(Tr)-D-Tyr⁹(Wang)-OH was then esterified at Tyr³ with Alloc-Ile-OH. Subsequent Alloc and allyl group removal, and final on-resin cyclization rendered the dehydroxy fengycin analogues **BPC838**, **BPC840**, **BPC842** and **BPC844**, bearing an octanoyl group, as major products. Derivatives **BPC854** and **BPC856**

containing a lauroyl or a palmitoyl group, respectively, were also prepared and obtained in 89 and 92% of purity after RP-HPLC analysis.

- The synthesis of dehydroxy fengycin derivatives **BPC846**, **BPC848**, **BPC850**, **BPC852**, **BPC858** and **BPC860** bearing an opposite configuration at the Tyr residues (D-Tyr³/L-Tyr⁹) afforded the expected compound together with a substantial amount of a linear byproduct resulting from the hydrolysis of the macrolactone.
- Taking together the results obtained in the synthesis of the cyclic octadepsipeptides and those of the cyclic lipodepsipeptides, we concluded that the presence of the fatty acid tail favoured the cyclization of the sequences containing a D-Tyr³/L-Tyr⁹ configuration. Moreover, cyclic octadepsipeptides and cyclic lipodepsipeptides bearing a L-Tyr³/D-Tyr⁹ configuration were more stable than those with the opposite configuration. These findings strengthen the recently hypothesis of a L-Tyr³/D-Tyr⁹ configuration for natural fengycins.

APPENDIX

SUPPORTING INFORMATION OF DOCTORAL THESIS:

**Solid-phase synthesis of cell-penetrating
 γ -peptide/antimicrobial peptide conjugates
and of cyclic lipodepsipeptides derived from fengycins**

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- **Supporting Information Chapter 4:** Solid-phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides containing a phenyl ester bond S9
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Supporting Information Chapter 3

Cell-penetrating γ -peptide/antimicrobial undecapeptide conjugates with anticancer activity

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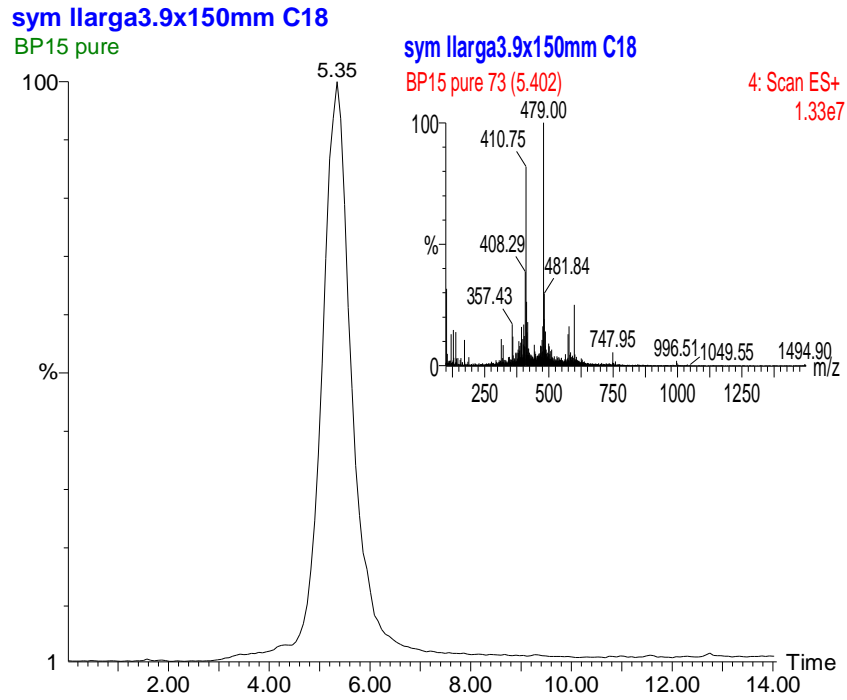
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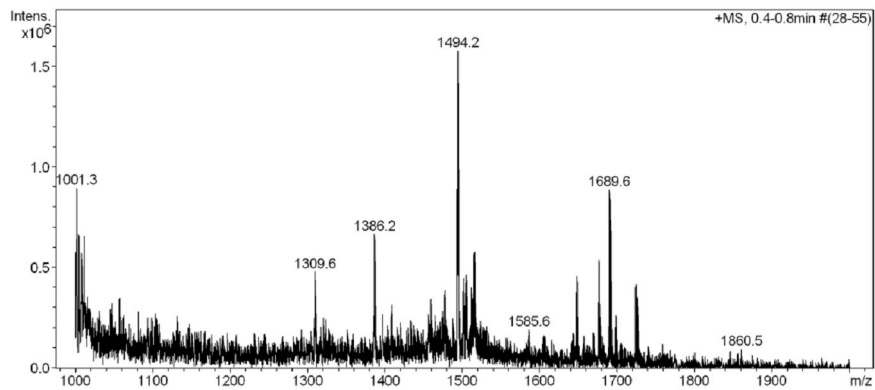
1. Synthesis of peptide conjugates

1.1. Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Val-Leu-PEG-1 (BP15-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)

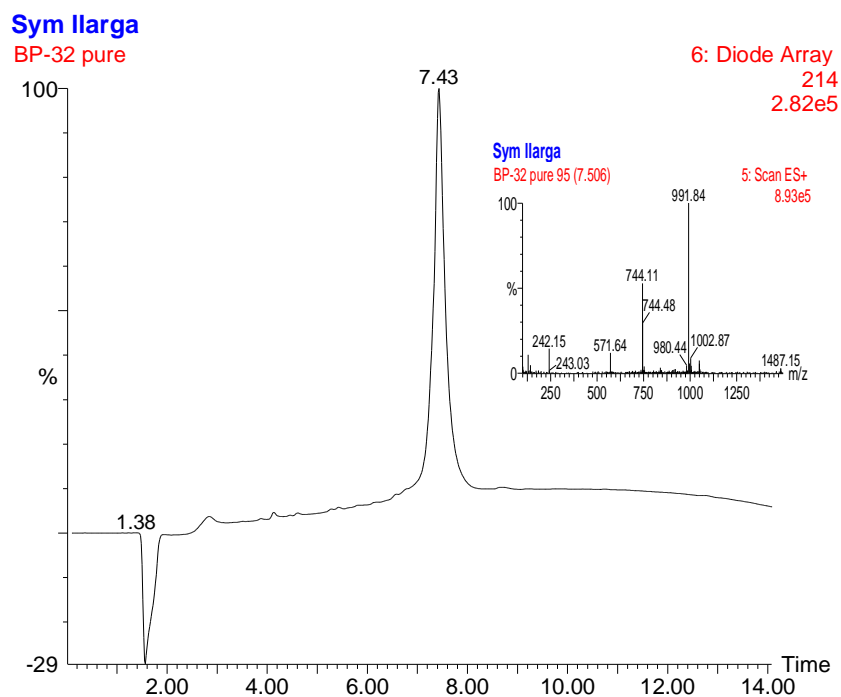


MS (ESI) m/z (+)



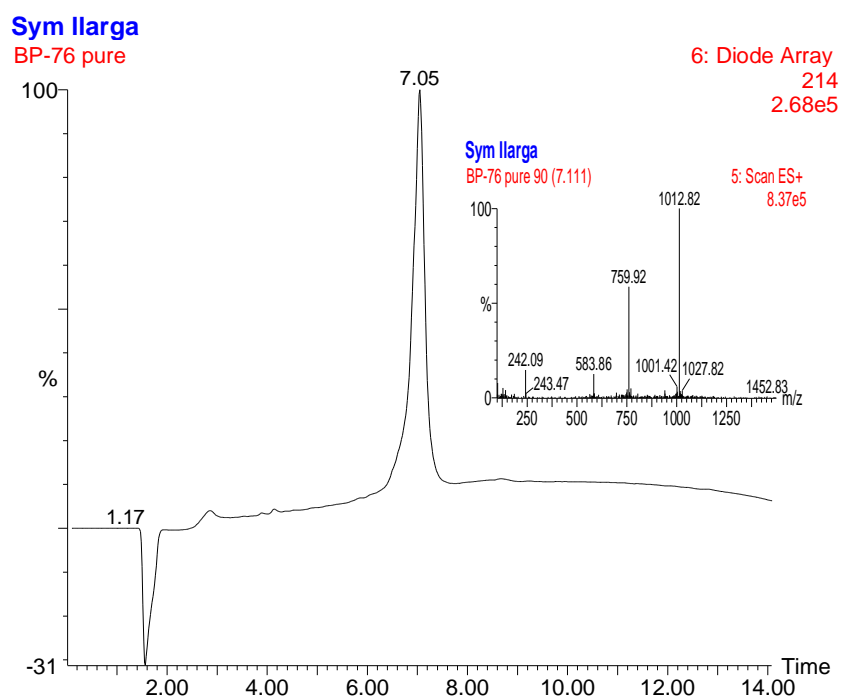
1.2. Leu-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Val-Leu-PEG-1 (BP33-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



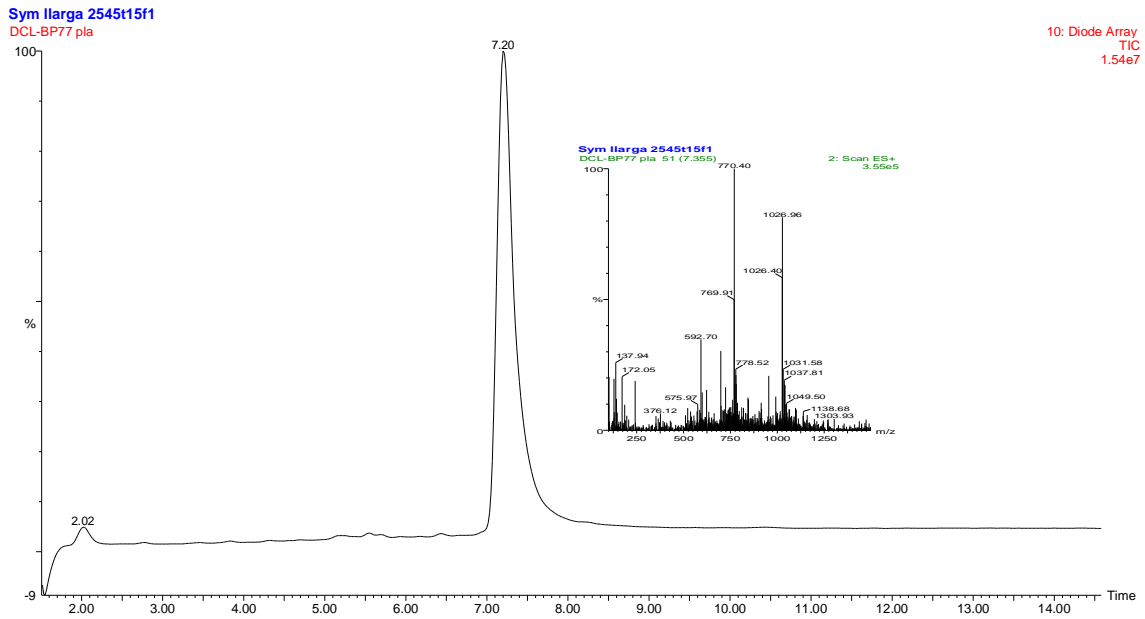
1.3. Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Phe-Leu-PEG-1 (BP76-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



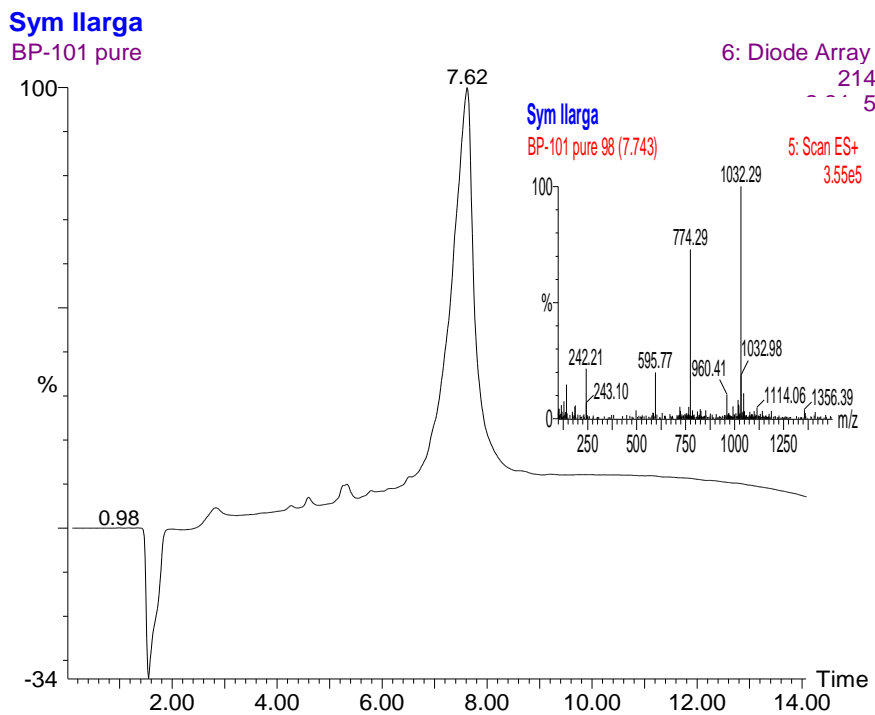
1.4. Ac-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Phe-Leu-PEG-1 (BP77-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



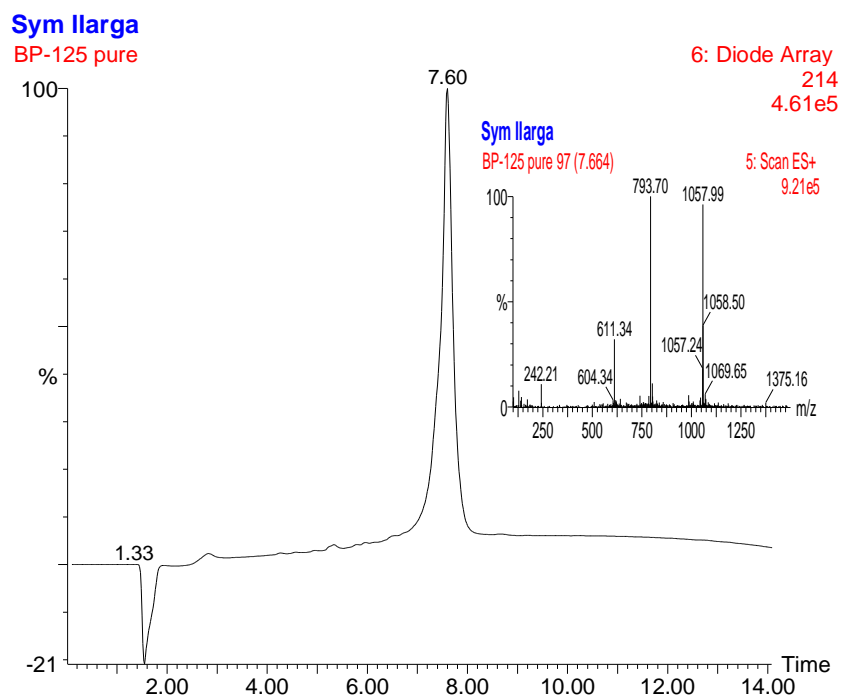
1.5. Ac-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Tyr-Leu-PEG-1 (BP101-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



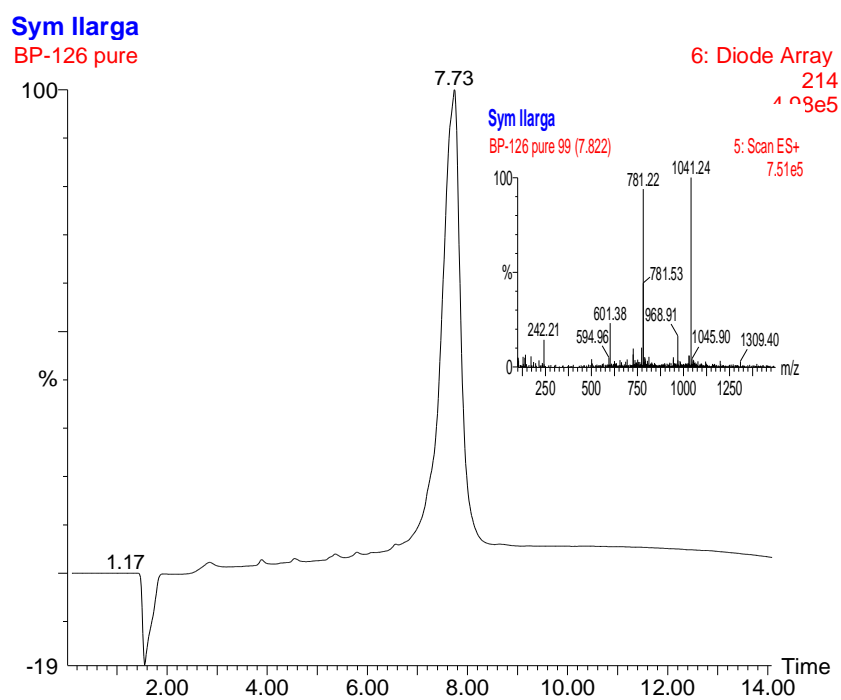
1.6. Ts-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Lys-Leu-PEG-1 (BP125-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



1.7. Bz-Lys-Lys-Leu-Phe-Lys-Lys-Ile-Leu-Lys-Lys-Leu-PEG-1 (BP126-PEG-1)

HPLC ($\lambda = 220 \text{ nm}$) / MS (MALDI-TOF)



Supporting Information Chapter 4

Solid-phase synthesis of cyclic depsipeptides containing a phenyl ester bond

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