

# RSC Advances



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This *Accepted Manuscript* will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1 **Tuning the mechanical and morphological properties of self-assembled peptide hydrogels via**  
2 **control over the gelation mechanism through regulation of ionic strength and the rate of pH**  
3 **change**

4 Rui Li<sup>a,c\*</sup>, Conor C. Horgan<sup>b\*</sup>, Benjamin Long<sup>a</sup>, Alexandra L. Rodriguez<sup>b</sup>, Lauren Mather<sup>a</sup>, Colin J.  
5 Barrow<sup>a</sup>, David R. Nisbet<sup>b\*</sup> and Richard J. Williams<sup>a\*</sup>

6 **Hydrogels formed by the self-assembly of peptides are promising biomaterials. The bioactive and**  
7 **biocompatible molecule Fmoc-FRGDF has been shown to be an efficient hydrogelator *via* a**  
8  **$\pi$ - $\beta$  self-assembly mechanism. Herein, we show that the mechanical properties and**  
9 **morphology of Fmoc-FRGDF hydrogels can be effectively and easily manipulated by tuning**  
10 **both the final ionic strength and the rate of pH change. The increase of ionic strength, and**  
11 **consequent increase in rate of gelation and stiffness, does not interfere with the**  
12 **underlying  $\pi$ - $\beta$  assembly of this Fmoc-protected peptide. However, by tuning the changing**  
13 **rate of the system's pH through the use of glucono- $\delta$ -lactone to form a hydrogel, as**  
14 **opposed to the previously reported HCl methodology, the morphology (nano- and**  
15 **microscale) of the scaffold can be manipulated.**

## 16 **Introduction**

17 During the last three decades, biomaterials have been widely used as scaffolds to  
18 provide the essential physical, chemical and biological support required to regenerate  
19 damaged endogenous cells and to promote the survival and/or differentiation of  
20 exogenously transplanted cells.<sup>1</sup> The utilisation of self-assembly for the engineering of  
21 functional biomaterials is a promising research area with great potential for the  
22 treatment of injury or disease.<sup>1</sup> Recently, focus has been given to self-assembling  
23 peptides (SAPs) as they can form supramolecular structures which concomitantly  
24 present biochemical and physicochemical cues to control cell behaviour, including  
25 adhesion or differentiation<sup>2,3</sup>. For example, the biologically active epitope, arginine-  
26 glycine-aspartate (RGD), has been incorporated into SAPs and was shown to interact

27 with cells *in vitro*, influencing cell behaviour such as adhesion and viability.<sup>4-6</sup>  
28 Furthermore, as they are formed of peptides, they are physiologically relevant and can  
29 be easily biodegraded *in vivo* to benign by-products.<sup>1</sup> As such, the nano- and micro-  
30 structured assembly of a promising class of SAPs incorporating the 9-  
31 fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc) group has been studied by us and others for use as  
32 biomaterials.<sup>7,8,9-14</sup>

33 Mechanical properties of the extracellular matrix (ECM) are related to various biological  
34 processes including cell proliferation, differentiation, migration, and collective cell  
35 behaviour.<sup>15</sup> Hence, the control of mechanical and morphological properties of SAP  
36 hydrogels is necessary in order to closely mimic the native ECM both for *in vitro*<sup>16</sup> and *in*  
37 *vivo*<sup>17</sup> applications. Two effective approaches to trigger hydrogelation of SAPs and  
38 regulate the mechanical properties of hydrogels are through control of pH and ionic  
39 strength.<sup>18,19</sup> Due to the zwitterionic nature of peptides, pH switch methodology has  
40 been widely used to induce hydrogelation.<sup>5,7,20</sup> The pH switch method is a facile route for  
41 hydrogel formation, but gelation can occur too rapidly leading to the formation of  
42 inhomogeneous, turbid hydrogels. Adams, *et al.* found that using glucono- $\delta$ -lactone  
43 (GdL) as the acidic component of a pH switch could slowly and controllably trigger  
44 formation of homogeneous and transparent hydrogels.<sup>21</sup> In Adams' study, gels formed  
45 using GdL were homogeneous and had much higher elastic ( $G'$ ) and viscous ( $G''$ ) moduli  
46 compared to those formed using hydrochloric acid (HCl). However, these mechanical  
47 properties described are contradictory to many previous observations; in general, an  
48 increase in the rate of gelation is proportional to an increase in the final stiffness of the  
49 hydrogel<sup>22,23</sup>. In addition, previous research has shown that by altering the ionic  
50 strength of a system, the  $G'$  of a hydrogel can be controlled. Huang *et al.*, amongst others,  
51 have shown that the mechanical properties of hydrogels can be significantly improved

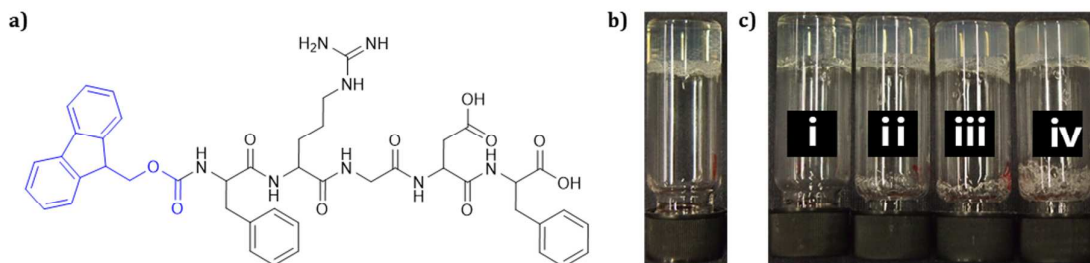
52 by the addition of salts;<sup>19,22,24</sup> also indicating that the rate of gel formation is linked to  
53 ionic strength.<sup>24</sup>

54 Previously, we have demonstrated that the designed SAP, Fmoc-FRGDF, is an effective  
55 material both *in vivo*<sup>14</sup> and *in vitro*<sup>25</sup>. Using this molecule as a platform, we demonstrate  
56 the control over the biologically relevant hydrogels using a pH switch methodology with  
57 varying ionic strength and acidic components: 0.05 M phosphate buffered saline (PBS)  
58 using GdL compared with 0.05 M PBS using HCl as potential cell culture platforms due to  
59 physiologically relevant final conditions. We explore the use of increased ionic strength  
60 to control the stiffness of the final hydrogels by controlling the ionic strength with 0.25  
61 M, 0.5 M and 0.75 M PBS, allowing their potential use for environmentally responsive  
62 hydrogels<sup>26, 27</sup>, drug delivery<sup>28</sup>, and biosensing<sup>29</sup>

## 63 Results and discussion

### 64 Peptide self-assembly

65 In order to improve the versatility of our previously reported SAP hydrogelator, Fmoc-  
66 FRGDF, we sought to investigate the mechanical and morphological properties of the  
67 hydrogel formed under variation of ionic strength, using PBS, and pH change speed  
68 through the use of GdL. Such control over mechanical and morphological properties of  
69 Fmoc-FRGDF would extend the scope of SAPs for *in vivo* and *in vitro* applications,

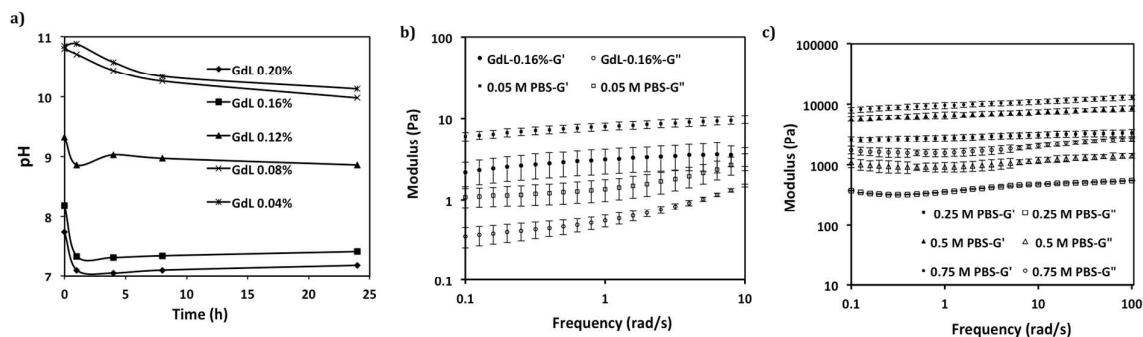


71 **Fig.1 a)** The chemical structure of Fmoc-FRGDF (Fmoc group highlighted in blue). (b) Hydrogel  
 72 formed using GdL in 0.05 M PBS and (c) Using HCl at different PBS concentration i) 0.05 M PBS, ii)  
 73 0.25 M PBS, iii) 0.5 M PBS, and iv) 0.75 M PBS.

74

75 In the current study, Fmoc-FRGDF was synthesised by traditional Fmoc-protected solid  
 76 phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) methodology and a white crystalline powder was  
 77 produced at high purity (>95%) (Fig. 1).

78 Firstly, in order to identify the correct concentration of GdL needed to equilibrate the  
 79 SAP hydrogel at pH 7.4, a series of timescale experiments were conducted (Fig. 2a). A  
 80 minimal volume of dilute Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was added to the system in order to  
 81 totally dissolve the peptide/water mixture, into which crystalline GdL was mixed. It was  
 82 shown that the pH of the system equilibrated over a period greater than 8 hours, due to  
 83 slow hydrolysis of GdL,<sup>21</sup> and it was noted that 0.16% (w/v) provided a sample with the  
 84 desired pH of 7.4. All samples were unable to form stable gels without the addition of  
 85 PBS. When applied to our target SAP sample containing PBS, 0.16% (w/v) GdL with 0.05  
 86 M PBS, a clear stable hydrogel that passed the inversion test was formed within 120  
 87 minutes. The formation of a stable gel with PBS using GdL shows the effect of ionic  
 88 strength on the gelation.



89

90 **Fig. 2 a)** The pH change over time when GdL is added to Fmoc-FRGDF. b) Dynamic moduli G' and G''  
 91 of hydrogels formed using 0.16 % GdL in 0.05 M PBS and using HCl at 0.05 M PBS and c) using HCl  
 92 at different concentration of PBS (0.25 M, 0.5 M, 0.75M).

93 The remaining gel samples were produced by a well-established pH switch  
94 methodology,<sup>7</sup> where dilute NaOH was used to solubilise the peptide/water mixture, and  
95 HCl was then added drop wise to lower the systems pH. Once the pH was reduced to 7.4,  
96 different concentrations of PBS were subsequently added in order to stabilise the pH of  
97 the hydrogels. When using HCl, the decrease in pH was instantaneous, relative to the  
98 GdL method, but required constant mixing in order to maintain a uniform pH profile. At  
99 the lowest PBS concentration (0.05 M) the peptide formed a clear hydrogel, which  
100 passed the inversion test within 120 minutes. At a higher PBS concentration of 0.25 M  
101 the SAP formed clear hydrogel within 30 minutes. At much higher concentrations of PBS,  
102 0.5 M and 0.75 M, the hydrogel was formed within 5 and 2 minutes, respectively. The  
103 same phenomenon was reported when DMEM media was used to form hydrogels using  
104 a Fmoc-FF/Fmoc-RGD mixture, where counter-ions screen charged residues decreasing  
105 molecular repulsion.<sup>5</sup> However, the clarity of hydrogels decreased at 0.5 M PBS and  
106 became opaque at 0.75 M PBS (Fig. 1b). It is possible that this opaque character was due  
107 to the increased hydrophobic interactions promoted at higher ionic strength, boosting  
108 both the co-assembly of the peptides as well as possible non-specific aggregation  
109 through the “salting out” effect, leading to a cloudy gel.<sup>30</sup> However, Feng et al. noted the  
110 opposite trend where their hydrogels became transparent with an increase in ionic  
111 strength, suggesting that this effect is gelator specific.<sup>30</sup>

#### 112 **Determination of mechanical properties**

113 With a range of hydrogels now in hand, the gels were characterised mechanically,  
114 spectroscopically and visually in order to elucidate the effects of both gelation rate and  
115 ionic strength on their structures and properties. The mechanical properties of the  
116 hydrogels were measured and compared using parallel-plate rheological analysis (Fig.  
117 2b & c). The analysis showed that the  $G'$ , at low frequencies ( $\leq 10$  rad/s), of the hydrogel

118 formed using GdL and 0.05 M PBS was lower ( $G' \sim 3.5$  Pa, 10 rad/s) than that of the  
119 hydrogel formed using HCl and 0.05 M PBS ( $G' \sim 10$  Pa, 10 rad/s). At higher sweep  
120 frequencies ( $> 10$  rad/s), the  $G'$  and  $G''$  of the hydrogel formed by GdL crossed (at 20  
121 rad/s), which indicates gel-sol transition, characteristic of poor mechanical stability. In  
122 contrast, for all gels formed using HCl, the elastic moduli were dominant over the  
123 viscous moduli at all frequencies tested, indicating that gel structure was retained  
124 throughout the experiment.

125 The rheometry data also indicated a change in stiffness in relation to ionic strength. In  
126 Fig. 2c we can see that an increase in PBS concentration from 0.05 M to 0.75 M was  
127 accompanied by a  $G'$  increase of several orders of magnitude when using HCl to tune the  
128 pH. As indicated earlier, at a PBS concentration of 0.05 M, the gel  $G'$  was small ( $\sim 10$  Pa,  
129 10 rad/s), when the PBS concentration was increased to 0.25 M, the  $G'$  increased by two  
130 orders of magnitude ( $\sim 3200$  Pa, 10 rad/s). At much higher PBS concentrations, 0.5 M  
131 and 0.75 M PBS,  $G'$  ( $\sim 7500$  Pa and  $\sim 11000$  Pa at 10 rad/s, respectively) values were  
132 also larger by several orders of magnitude in comparison to the gel formed at a  
133 concentration of 0.05 M PBS. The stiffness enhancement may be due to faster gel  
134 formation rates, which have been shown to lead to stiffer hydrogels<sup>19,22,23,30</sup> and  
135 stabilisation of hydrophobic interactions through the “salting out” effect.<sup>27</sup> Furthermore,  
136 for all PBS concentrations, the  $G'$  values are essentially independent of the frequency in  
137 the tested range, the elastic moduli were much higher than viscous moduli ( $\sim 500$  Pa,  $\sim$   
138 1200 Pa and  $\sim 2000$  Pa of 0.25, 0.5 and 0.75 M PBS at 10 rad/s, respectively).  
139 Additionally, there was no crossover point between  $G'$  and  $G''$ , which indicates a stable  
140 fibrillar network.<sup>19</sup>

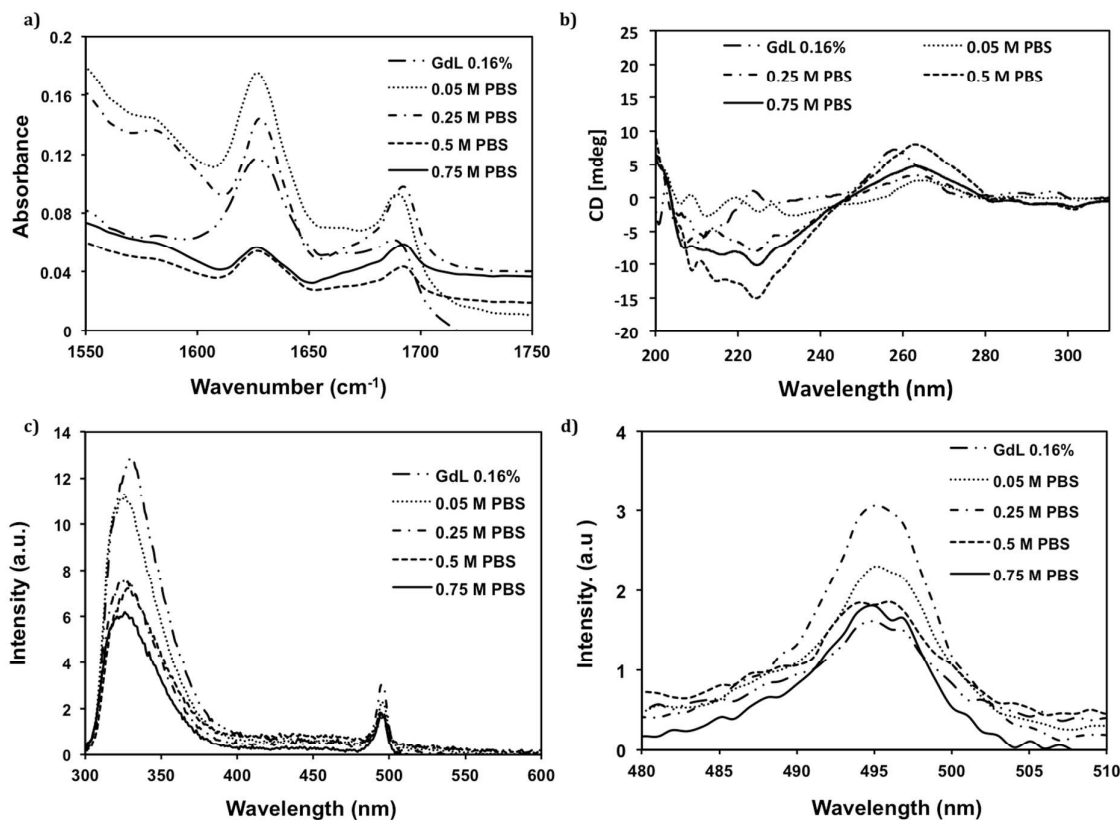
#### 141 **Confirmation of self-assembly mechanism**

142 As the stiffness was increased by several orders of magnitude, and the gel became  
143 opaque at higher PBS concentrations, we needed to verify if the supramolecular  
144 structures were still driven by a  $\pi$ - $\beta$  assembly. To confirm the assembly mode, Fourier  
145 transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and circular dichroism (CD) were used to  
146 investigate the peptide secondary structure, and fluorescence spectroscopy was used to  
147 probe the environment of the Fmoc group. Using FT-IR, the amide I region is the most  
148 widely used region to assess peptide secondary structure.<sup>31</sup> As shown in Fig. 3a, all  
149 hydrogels have a characteristic strong IR absorbance peak at  $1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a shoulder  
150 at  $1690\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which indicates that anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet structure is dominant in all  
151 samples.<sup>32</sup> However, when the PBS concentration was raised above 0.5 M, there was an  
152 increased absorbance at  $\sim 1670\text{ cm}^{-1}$  which indicates partial random coil character (the  
153 wavelength had blue shift in this case).<sup>5</sup> The appearance of the less ordered random coil  
154 structure may also contribute to the opacity of the hydrogels through increased  
155 scattering. The dominant anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet secondary structure is in agreement with  
156 previous work on this class of material.<sup>7,8,33,34</sup> CD spectroscopic analysis was then used  
157 to confirm the secondary structure of the hydrogel. As shown in Fig. 3b, the Cotton effect  
158 at  $\sim 220\text{ nm}$  induced by  $n$ - $\pi^*$  transition provides further evidence for the formation of  
159 anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet structure,<sup>35</sup> confirming the results noted in the FT-IR. Another  
160 transition at around  $260\text{ nm}$  is attributed to the bundling between fibers, analogous to  
161 the interactions between macromolecules.<sup>6,8,34</sup> Furthermore, while the shape and peak  
162 position in the spectra were retained in all samples which used HCl and varying  
163 concentrations of PBS, both the transition at  $220\text{ nm}$  and  $260\text{ nm}$  increased with the  
164 increase of PBS concentration when  $\leq 0.5\text{ M}$  PBS were used. In contrast, at the highest  
165 PBS concentration,  $0.75\text{ M}$ , these values decreased; this was either due to the opaque  
166 characteristic of the hydrogel at  $0.75\text{ M}$  PBS or an increase in non-specific aggregation of



167 peptides at the higher ionic strength. The increase of magnitude of CD ellipticity shows  
168 that self-assembly of the peptides and bundling of fibrils is favored with a small increase  
169 of ionic strength, but fibril formation is possibly disrupted if the ionic strength is raised  
170 too high. When using GdL to form the hydrogel, the overall shape of the spectra is  
171 different, the transition at 220 nm is comparable to that of 0.05 M PBS, indicating an  
172 anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet structure, but the peak at 260 nm is both larger in magnitude to  
173 that of 0.05 M PBS and the maximum is slightly shifted towards a higher energy. This  
174 shift in energy maximum may be due to a different bundling mechanism as a result of the  
175 slow rate of change in pH.

176 Fluorescence spectroscopy was used to monitor the environment of the fluorenyl group  
177 in order to monitor the effect of ionic strength on  $\pi$ -stacking interactions. The emission  
178 maximum wavelength of Fmoc-FRGDF in water (solution) is at 320 nm (Supp. Fig. 1),  
179 when a hydrogel of Fmoc-FRGDF is formed the emission peak is centred at 325 nm (Fig.  
180 3c). The red shift is consistent with excimer formation and  $\pi$ -stacking of fluorenyl rings,  
181 as observed in similar systems.<sup>5,7,36,37</sup> The intensity of the peaks at 325 nm decreased  
182 with the increase of PBS concentration, due to the increasingly opaque hydrogels.



183

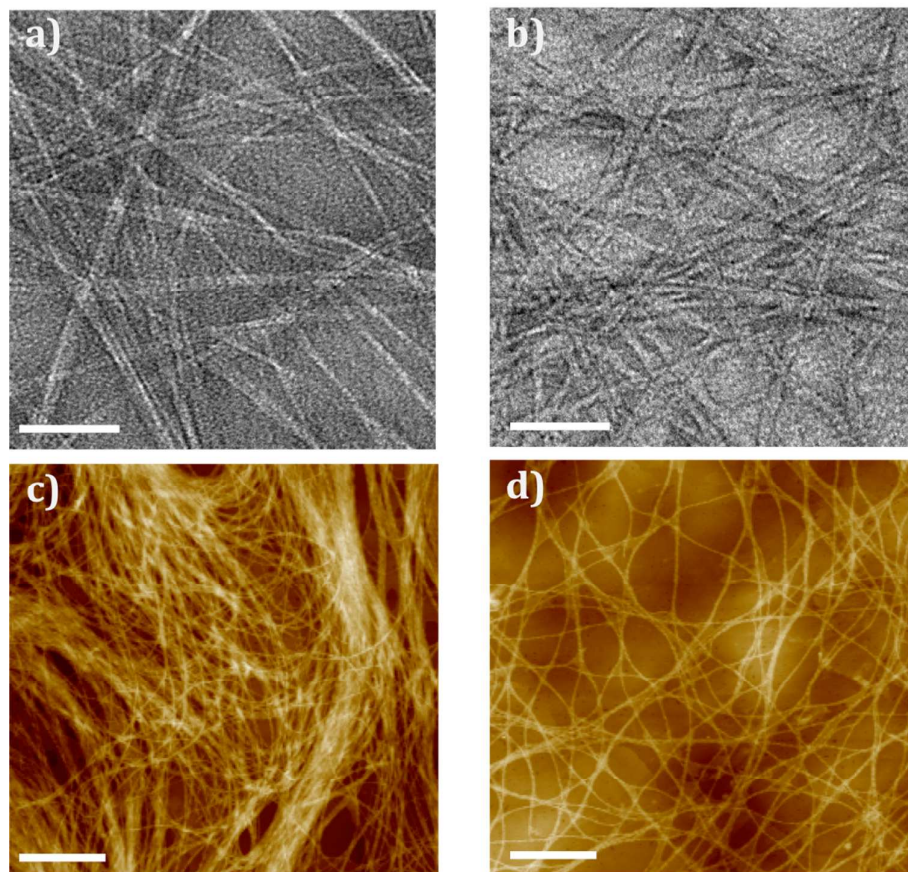
184 Fig. 3 Spectroscopic data for Fmoc-FRGDF hydrogels formed using 0.16 % GdL in 0.05 M PBS and  
 185 using HCl and different concentration of PBS (0.05 M, 0.25 M, 0.5 M and 0.75 M). a) Truncated FT-IR  
 186 spectra of amide I region; b) CD spectra; c) fluorescence spectra and d) enlargement of  
 187 fluorescence spectra in the region of 480-510 nm (J-aggregate).

188

189 A second emission peak centred at 495 nm was indicative of J-Aggregates.<sup>5,6,7,33</sup> The  
 190 intensity of the emission from the hydrogel formed using GdL was the weakest.  
 191 Furthermore, J-aggregate emission increased with the increase in PBS concentration  
 192 from 0.05 M to 0.25 M PBS, which, conversely, was suppressed at PBS concentrations 0.5  
 193 M to 0.75 M – the opaque nature likely affected the emission. These results again  
 194 support the CD and FT-IR data, in which the “salting out” effect played a role in fibril  
 195 formation.

196 **Investigation of nano- and micro- morphology**

197 As spectroscopy confirmed that the  $\pi$ - $\beta$  assembly was undisturbed by changes in ionic  
198 strength, both TEM and AFM were used to assess the nano and micro morphology of the  
199 fibres. TEM imaging was used to visualise the hydrogel nanostructure. For the hydrogel  
200 formed by GdL, the single fiber diameter was < 5 nm; and for those formed by HCl  
201 solution at different PBS concentration, the nanofibrils' diameter were all > 5 nm (Fig.4).  
202 The formation of thinner fibrils for GdL may be due to the moderate change of the  
203 system's pH. Well-ordered fibrillar networks were formed using GdL and PBS  
204 concentration  $\leq$  0.5 M. At PBS concentration 0.75 M, the networks were disordered with  
205 amorphous regions (Fig. 4e). The disorder of fibrils in comparison to the other examples  
206 helps to explain the opaque characteristic and decreased order noted in the  
207 spectroscopic data. The faster assembly speeds lead to a highly entangled structure but  
208 also favor a disordered assembly. The increased entanglement was the likely cause for  
209 the rise in hydrogel stiffness noted in the rheometry. Interestingly, thicker bundles  
210 formed by the nanofibrils when using GdL, as generally noted by this class of gelators at  
211 similar GdL concentration,<sup>38</sup> and the tubular morphology of the fibre was maintained  
212 when formed using GdL, but the bundling and flexibility of the fibrils was altered,  
213 becoming more 'ribbon like'.

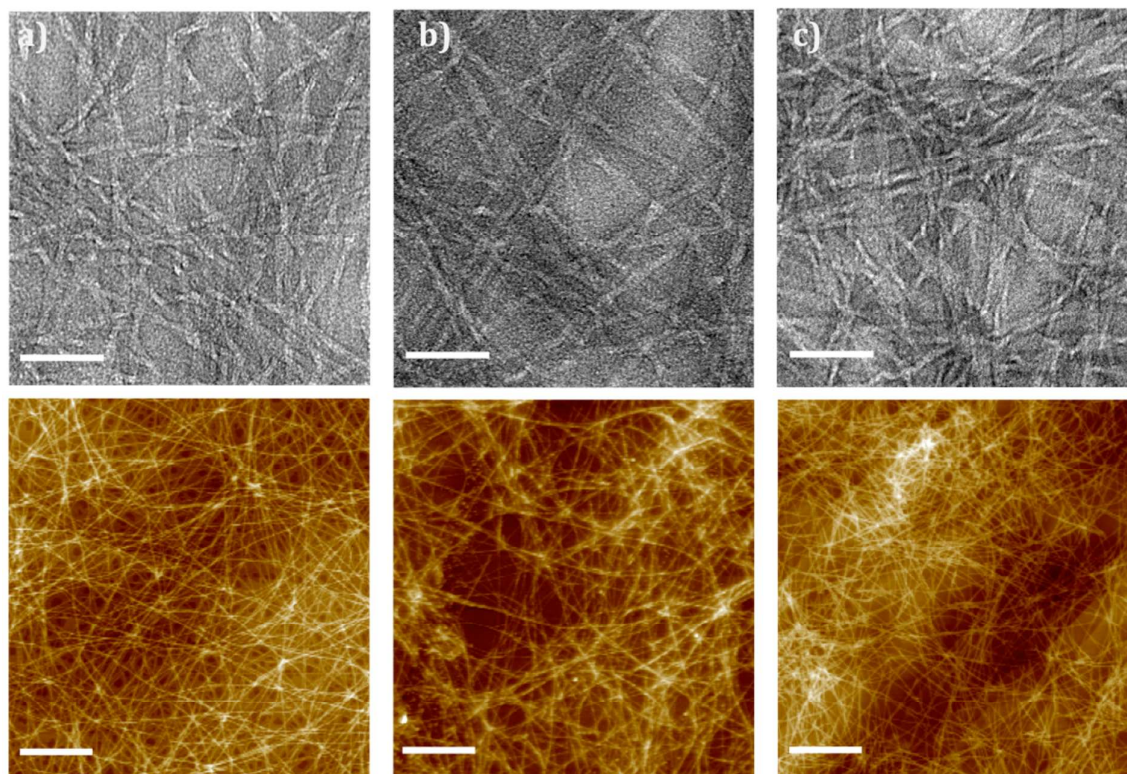


214

215 **Fig. 4 Nano and microstructure of Fmoc-FRGDF hydrogels (top panel TEM and bottom panel AFM).**  
216 **a), c) formed using 0.16 % GdL in and b), d) dropwise HCl .(scale bar represents 50 nm AFM 1  $\mu$ m)**

217 AFM images (Fig. 4) revealed the entangled networks that underpin the hydrogels. A  
218 different morphology of the hydrogel formed using GdL was observed (Fig.4a); the  
219 nanofibrils were aligned in thick bundles, this reinforced the TEM result. The bundling  
220 may also be due to the moderate pH change of the hydrogel, and explains the shift in CD  
221 spectrum at 260 nm as the bundling morphology was significantly different from the  
222 entangled networks as shown in the other examples (Fig. 4b-e). As the ionic strength  
223 was increased using HCl at different PBS concentrations to form the hydrogel, the  
224 number of fibre entanglements and aggregates also increased. These entanglements and  
225 aggregates may be due to the increased random coil component disrupting the  
226 predominantly anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet structured nanofibrils, which could again be related  
227 to the increase in  $G'$  and opacity. It should be noted, however, that there was also an

228 increase in amorphous regions that could be responsible for the increase in opacity of  
229 the final gel.



230

231 **Fig. 5 Nano and microstructure of Fmoc-FRGDF hydrogels (top panel TEM and bottom panel AFM).**  
232 **formed using using HCL and a) 0.25 M, b) 0.25 M and c) 0.75 M of PBS, respectively. (TEM scale**  
233 **bar represents 50 nm , AFM 1  $\mu$ m).**

## 234 Conclusions

235 In conclusion, GdL can be used in a slow pH switch methodology to form a clear  
236 hydrogel of Fmoc-FRGDF in a controlled fashion. Using GdL it was possible to form a  
237 microstructure where the nanofibrils were aligned with relatively few entanglements,  
238 resulting in a weaker gel. Control of PBS concentration in conjunction with an HCl based  
239 pH switch methodology can be used to efficiently tune the mechanical properties of  
240 hydrogels without altering their anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet structure and  $\pi$ - $\beta$  assembly. The  
241 stiffness of hydrogels was increased by several orders of magnitude by increasing PBS  
242 concentration. The differences in stiffness were attributed to a faster rate of gel

243 formation leading to a network of smaller highly entangled fibres. The increase in  
244 stiffness was accompanied with a decrease in gel clarity, which is of concern for  
245 applications requiring optical visualisation of the interior of the gel. Such control over  
246 gel properties will provide an effective method to imitate the different native ECM  
247 structures *in vitro* and tuning of hydrogels for three-dimensional cell cultures and *in vivo*,  
248 as well as a range of mechanical properties for of biomaterial applications.

249

## 250 **Experimental**

### 251 **Peptide synthesis**

252 The synthesis of Fmoc-FRGDF was performed as previously reported.<sup>6</sup> Purity of Fmoc-FRGDF was >  
253 95% as determined by reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography.

### 254 **GdL acidified hydrogel formation**

255 10 mg of crystalline Fmoc-FRGDF was added to a 4 mL glass vial. 285  $\mu\text{L}$  Mili-Q water (purified by  
256 Mili-Q Advantage A10 System, Merck Milipore, Australia) and 65  $\mu\text{L}$  sodium hydroxide (NaOH) 0.5  
257 M solution were added and the vial vortexed until the peptide was dissolved. 160  $\mu\text{L}$  of 10 mg/mL  
258 GdL solution was then added and finally, 490  $\mu\text{L}$  0.1 M PBS solution (pH 7.4) was added to stabilise  
259 the pH. The resulting solution was kept at room temperature for gelation (total peptide concentration 1  
260 wt%).

### 261 **HCl Acidified hydrogel formation**

262 10 mg of crystalline Fmoc-FRGDF was added to a 4 mL glass vial. 400  $\mu\text{L}$  Mili-Q water and 65  $\mu\text{L}$   
263 NaOH 0.5 M solution were added and vortexed until dissolved. The solution was then neutralised to  
264 pH 7.4 *via* drop wise addition of 0.1 M HCl (Asia Pacific Specialty Chemicals Ltd., Australia) with  
265 vortexing. Finally, PBS (pH 7.4, 0.1 M, 0.5 M, 1.0 M and 1.5 M) was added into the solution to make  
266 the total volume to 1 mL and the resulting solution kept at room temperature for gelation (total peptide  
267 concentration 1 wt%).

### 268 **GdL titration**

269 5 mg of crystalline Fmoc-FRGDF was added to a 4 mL glass vial. For the pH–time analysis of  
270 hydrogel formed by GdL method, 50  $\mu\text{L}$  Mili-Q water (purified by Mili-Q Advantage A10 System,  
271 Merck Milipore, Australia) and 25  $\mu\text{L}$  of 0.5 M NaOH were added by vortexing until the peptide was  
272 totally dissolved. 325–405  $\mu\text{L}$  Mili-Q water was then added into the solution. Finally, 20–100  $\mu\text{L}$  GdL  
273 solution (10 mg/mL) was added to make the total volume to 500  $\mu\text{L}$ . The pH was then monitored over  
274 time (total peptide concentration 1 wt%).

### 275 **Circular dichroism**

276 Spectrum of hydrogels was measured using a Jasco J-815 circular dichroism spectrometer with the  
277 bandwidth 1 nm and integrations  $2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . A 1 mm quartz cell (Starna Pty. Ltd., Australia) was used.  
278 Samples were prepared at a concentration of 0.05 wt% in order to achieve consistent loading and  
279 reduce scattering. The data were collected 3 times and average values were used for all the samples.

#### 280 **Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy**

281 A Nicolet 6700 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) was used to collect spectra using  
282 attenuated total reflection (ATR) mode. 12  $\mu\text{L}$  hydrogels were applied directly to the ATR crystal and  
283 scanned between the wavenumbers of 4000 and  $400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  over 64 scans. A background scan of PBS  
284 buffer was applied before samples.

#### 285 **Fluorescence spectrophotometer**

286 Fluorescence emission spectra were measured on a Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer  
287 (Agilent Technologies, USA) with light measured orthogonally to the excitation light. The emission  
288 bandwidth was set at 5 nm. A scanning speed of  $600 \text{ nm min}^{-1}$  was used with a data pitch of 1 nm.  
289 Excitation wavelength was at 248 nm and emission data range between 300 nm and 600 nm. Quartz  
290 cuvette (Starna Pty. Ltd., Australia) of 1 mm path length were used for scanning. Samples were  
291 prepared at a concentration of 0.5 wt%.

#### 292 **Transmission electron microscopy**

293 JEOL-2100 LaB6 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (JEOL Ltd., Japan) at an operation voltage  
294 of 100 Kv was used for TEM images. Agar lacey carbon coated films on 300 mesh copper grids  
295 (Emgrid Pty. Ltd., Australia) were used as sample holder. For sample preparation, 12  $\mu\text{L}$  of hydrogel  
296 was applied onto the grid and allowed it to absorb for 30 s, then using split Whatman filter paper  
297 (No.1) to wick off excess fluid. One drop of negative stain NanoVan (Bio-Scientific Pty. Ltd., USA)  
298 was put onto parafilm "M", then put the grid on the stain with carbon side down and allowed to stain  
299 for 5 min. Then, dried in air for 2 min with carbon side up, at last put the grids into grid box to leave it  
300 dry overnight.

#### 301 **Atom force microscopy**

302 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) images of the samples were obtained using a Multimode 8 (Bruker  
303 BioSciences Corporation, USA). The tips used were ScanAsyst-air probes with silicon tip on nitride  
304 lever (Bruker BioSciences Corporation, USA). The AFM was operated in peak force QNM.  
305 Calibration of deflection sensitivity, spring constant and tip radius of probes was done before sample  
306 imaging. Scan size was at 10  $\mu\text{m}$ . For sample preparation, hydrogels were diluted to peptide  
307 concentration at 0.05 wt%, and 15  $\mu\text{L}$  of diluted samples were applied on highly ordered pyrolytic  
308 graphite (HOPG) substrates (SPI, USA), the redundant samples were absorbed by pipette.

#### 309 **Rheometry**

310 A Discovery Hybrid Rheometers (TA Instruments, USA) was operated at constant stress with a strain  
311 of 2.83%. An amplitude sweep was performed and showed no variation in  $G'$  and  $G''$  up to a strain of  
312 60%. Frequency sweeps were performed over a range between 0.1 and 100 rad/s. Temperature was  
313 maintained at  $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  via the use of Peltier plate control. Soak time was 30 min. Hydrogels were  
314 performed on a cone-plate geometry (40 mm,  $2^\circ 1' 37''$ ) with a gap of 51  $\mu\text{m}$ . A water trap was used  
315 to minimise evaporation.

316

317 **Acknowledgements**

318 This work was funded by an Australian Research Council Discovery Project  
319 (DP130103131). DRN was supported by an NHMRC Career Development Fellowship  
320 (APP1050684). RJW was supported by an Alfred Deakin Research Fellowship. The  
321 authors wish to thank Motilal Mathesh Shanmugam for assistance with AFM, Tao Zhang,  
322 and Ping'an Song for assistance with rheometry, San Seint Seint Aye for assistance with  
323 the synthesis of Fmoc-FRGDF.

324

325 **Notes and references**

326 <sup>a</sup> Centre for Chemistry and Biotechnology, School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Deakin University, Waurn  
327 Ponds, VIC 3216, Australia,;

328 <sup>b</sup> Research School of Engineering, The Australian National University, Canberra, 2601, Australia.

329 <sup>c</sup> Coconut Research Institute of Chinese Academy of Tropical Agricultural Sciences, Wenchang 571339, Hainan,  
330 China

331 <sup>d</sup> School of Aerospace, Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering, RMIT University, Bundoora, VIC, 3083  
332 Australia. Phone: + 61 3 9925 6642, Email: richard.williams@RMIT.edu.au

333

334 \*Indicates joint authorship

335 **References**

- 336 1. N. Stephanopoulos, J. H. Ortony and S. I. Stupp, *Acta Materialia*, 2013, **61**, 912-930.  
337 2. C. J. Newcomb, S. Sur, J. H. Ortony, O.-S. Lee, J. B. Matson, J. Boekhoven, J. M. Yu, G. C.  
338 Schatz and S. I. Stupp, *Nature Communications*, 2014, **5**.  
339 3. D. R. Nisbet and R. J. Williams, *Biointerphases*, 2012, **7**, 1-14.



- 340 4. A. R. Morales, C. O. Yanez, Y. Zhang, X. Wang, S. Biswas, T. Urakami, M. Komatsu and K. D.  
341 Belfield, *Biomaterials*, 2012, **33**, 8477-8485.
- 342 5. M. Zhou, A. M. Smith, A. K. Das, N. W. Hodson, R. F. Collins, R. V. Ulijn and J. E. Gough,  
343 *Biomaterials*, 2009, **30**, 2523-2530.
- 344 6. V. N. Modepalli, A. L. Rodriguez, R. Li, S. Pavuluri, K. R. Nicholas, C. J. Barrow, D. R. Nisbet and  
345 R. J. Williams, *Peptide Science*, 2014, **102**, 197-205.
- 346 7. A. M. Smith, R. J. Williams, C. Tang, P. Coppo, R. F. Collins, M. L. Turner, A. Saiani and R. V.  
347 Ulijn, *Advanced Materials*, 2008, **20**, 37-41.
- 348 8. R. J. Williams, T. E. Hall, V. Glattauer, J. White, P. J. Pasic, A. B. Sorensen, L. Waddington, K. M.  
349 McLean, P. D. Currie and P. G. Hartley, *Biomaterials*, 2011, **32**, 5304-5310.
- 350 9. S. Toledano, R. J. Williams, V. Jayawarna and R. V. Ulijn, *Journal Of The American Chemical*  
351 *Society*, 2006, **128**, 1070-1071.
- 352 10. J. D. Hartgerink, J. R. Granja, R. A. Milligan and M. R. Ghadiri, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1996, **118**,  
353 43-50.
- 354 11. K. Kobayashi, J. R. Granja and M. R. Ghadiri, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition in*  
355 *English*, 1995, **34**, 95-98.
- 356 12. M. R. Ghadiri, J. R. Granja, R. A. Milligan, D. E. McRee and N. Khazanovich, *Nature*, 1993, **366**,  
357 324-327.
- 358 13. M. Reches and E. Gazit, *Science*, 2003, **300**, 625-627.
- 359 14. A. L. Rodriguez, T. Y. Wang, K. F. Bruggeman, C. C. Horgan, R. Li, R. J. Williams, C. L. Parish and  
360 D. R. Nisbet, *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 2014.
- 361 15. A. J. Engler, S. Sen, H. L. Sweeney and D. E. Discher, *Cell*, 2006, **126**, 677-689.
- 362 16. S. Sur, C. J. Newcomb, M. J. Webber and S. I. Stupp, *Biomaterials*, 2013, **34**, 4749-4757.
- 363 17. K. Mi, G. Wang, Z. Liu, Z. Feng, B. Huang and X. Zhao, *Macromol Biosci*, 2009, **9**, 437-443.
- 364 18. C. Tang, A. M. Smith, R. F. Collins, R. V. Ulijn and A. Saiani, *Langmuir*, 2009, **25**, 9447-9453.
- 365 19. B. Ozbas, J. Kretsinger, K. Rajagopal, J. P. Schneider and D. J. Pochan, *Macromolecules*, 2004,  
366 **37**, 7331-7337.
- 367 20. S. Y. Qin, S. S. Xu, R. X. Zhuo and X. Z. Zhang, *Langmuir*, 2012, **28**, 2083-2090.
- 368 21. D. J. Adams, M. F. Butler, W. J. Frith, M. Kirkland, L. Mullen and P. Sanderson, *Soft Matter*,  
369 2009, **5**, 1856-1862.
- 370 22. Z. Luo, Y. Yue, Y. Zhang, X. Yuan, J. Gong, L. Wang, B. He, Z. Liu, Y. Sun, J. Liu, M. Hu and J.  
371 Zheng, *Biomaterials*, 2013, **34**, 4902-4913.
- 372 23. Z. Yang, G. Liang, M. Ma, Y. Gao and B. Xu, *Small*, 2007, **3**, 558-562.
- 373 24. H. Huang, A. I. Herrera, Z. Luo, O. Prakash and X. S. Sun, *Biophysical Journal*, 2012, **103**, 979-  
374 988.
- 375 25. V. N. Modepalli, A. L. Rodriguez, R. Li, S. Pavuluri, K. R. Nicholas, C. J. Barrow, D. R. Nisbet and  
376 R. J. Williams, *Peptide Science*, 2014, **102**, 197-205.
- 377 26. Z. Hu, Y. Chen, C. Wang, Y. Zheng and Y. Li, *Nature*, 1998, **393**, 149-152.
- 378 27. K. K. Westbrook and H. J. Qi, *Journal of intelligent material systems and structures*, 2007.
- 379 28. Y. Qiu and K. Park, *Advanced drug delivery reviews*, 2001, **53**, 321-339.
- 380 29. J. H. Holtz and S. A. Asher, *Nature*, 1997, **389**, 829-832.
- 381 30. Y. Feng, M. Taraban and Y. B. Yu, *Soft Matter*, 2012, **8**, 11723-11731.
- 382 31. W. K. Surewicz, H. H. Mantsch and D. Chapman, *Biochemistry*, 1993, **32**, 389-394.
- 383 32. J. T. Pelton and L. R. McLean, *Analytical Biochemistry*, 2000, **277**, 167-176.
- 384 33. R. J. Williams, A. M. Smith, R. Collins, N. Hodson, A. K. Das and R. V. Ulijn, *Nat Nanotechnol*,  
385 2009, **4**, 19-24.
- 386 34. A. R. Hirst, S. Roy, M. Arora, A. K. Das, N. Hodson, P. Murray, S. Marshall, N. Javid, J. Sefcik, J.  
387 Boekhoven, J. H. Esch, S. Santabarbara, N. T. Hunt and R. V. Ulijn, *Nature Chemistry*, 2010, **2**,  
388 1089-1094.
- 389 35. S. M. Kelly, T. J. Jess and N. C. Price, *Biochim Biophys Acta*, 2005, **1751**, 119-139.
- 390 36. Z. Yang, H. Gu, Y. Zhang and L. Wang, *Chemical Communications*, 2004, **2004**, 208-209.

- 391 37. H. K. Kang, D. E. Kang, B. H. Boo, S. J. Yoo, J. K. Lee and E. C. Lim, *The Journal of Physical*  
392 *Chemistry A*, 2005, **109**, 6799-6804.
- 393 38. L. Chen, K. Morris, A. Laybourn, D. Elias, M. R. Hicks, A. Rodger, L. Serpell and D. J. Adams,  
394 *Langmuir*, 2010, **26**, 5232-5242.

395

396