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## Protonics for Biological Actuation

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A central challenge for the 21st century is establishing meaningful two-way communication between biology and the powerful electronic systems developed over the past 50 years. While transducing biological signals into electronics ones, or biosensing, has been extensively developed, the other half of the feedback loop, transduction of electronic signals into biological ones, or bioactuation, demands more attention. The subset of bioactuation that uses an electrical bias to stimulate voltage responsive cells has advanced rapidly, showing how powerful well-developed communication can be. It has also highlighted the paucity of available techniques to properly actuate cells that do not respond to voltage, which includes most of nature. Actuating these cells, and even improving the actuation of neurons, requires a sophisticated system that can mimic the native cell stimuli, emitting biochemical signals with a spatial and temporal resolution that matches those of the target biological system. Such a system would advance the Navy's mission, addressing current challenges such as superior prosthetics that enable proprioception for amputees and future challenges such as synthetic immune systems that fight diseases that the body cannot, and the harnessing of highly evolved biological systems to new ends.

The requirements to advance biological actuation are straightforward: the voltage pulses currently used for nerve stimulation must be replaced by spatio-temporally controlled release of chemical signals to stimulate cells. Chemical signals contain more information than voltage pulses, can actuate essentially any cell from fungi to mammalian cells (and not just muscle and nerve cells), and should be less damaging to the cells than voltage pulses, which can degrade the cells as they do in cochlear implants. Secondly, the chemical signals need to be introduced with high spatial and temporal resolution. The required resolution depends on the application at hand, but one can say generally that they should at least address the length scale of a mammalian cell (~10  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and generate a signal within a minute. Microfabrication will be essential to achieving such resolution. Finally, the signal must be released such that it can diffuse to the target. The convective transport provided by current microfluidic techniques causes problems when it washes away all existing signaling molecules in order to deliver the desired molecule. Taken together, the goal is to generate an interface that mimics the native interface to these cells.

While several technologies have been proposed for bioactuation, one of the more promising ones is protonics, the recapitulation of electronic devices by combining biocompatible polymers that carry protons with Pd electrodes that can inject protons. Devices constructed from these materials can direct the accumulation of protons in a channel, generating protons that can either directly drive biochemical reactions or that can be translated into other chemical signals. Our initial efforts in this field have established a sound theoretical and experimental approach to understanding the proton carrier materials and new results on actuating biological materials. We have gained greater understanding of how to interface protonic devices with patterned beds of cells. Lastly we have developed tools that allow us to exchange ionic and electronic signals, demonstrated within this program for protein layers and laying the groundwork for more complex conversation between the fields.

This report presents research conducted by Shawn Mulvaney (6177), Brett Dunlap (6189), Sean Fischer (6189), Kathleen Gilpin (6352), David Kidwell (6177), Woo Kyung Lee (6177), Thomas O'Shaughnessy (6352), Keith Perkins (6876), Jeremy Pietron (6171), Jeremy Robinson (6876), and Paul Sheehan (6177).

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# PROTONICS FOR BIOLOGICAL ACTUATION

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Objective

Biology and modern electronics have in common the transfer and manipulation of enormous quantities of information via feedback loops. The profound difference between those feedback loops stems from biology speaking ions while electronics speaks...well...electrons. A major challenge for science in the 21st century will be understanding and then implementing true two-way communication between these two information systems. Electronics has already achieved much for listening to biological feedback loops. While such biosensing is important, without actuation one cannot participate fully in biological feedback loops. Some progress has been made using direct capacitive coupling to cell types such as neurons or heart muscles that respond directly to voltages, yet this is a very small subset of cell types. Even there, the standard methods used such as patch clamp disrupt cell function and cannot be scaled to access multiple feedback loops.

We seek a deeper understanding of techniques to translate between the languages of electronics and biology. Fortuitously, new methods for exchanging electrons into ions in a biocompatible way have emerged: Simon et al. built a FET with a PEDOT polymer channel to release glutamate ions, a neurotransmitter [1]. Implanting this into the ear of an anesthetized guinea pig, they could observe changes in the receptor dynamics of its auditory cells. Separately, Rolandi demonstrated biocompatible protonic structures in which the conversion of electrons into protons occurs in a manner analogous to conventional solid state electronics, enabling them to produce transistors that show gain or diodes that rectify [2]. This approach is particularly interesting in that it uses hydrogen gas to provide an endless supply of protons to the structure as opposed to Berggren's approach which had limited reservoirs [3]. These two examples demonstrate the possibility of actuating cells using electronic structures and ultimately to harmonize biological and electronic feedback loops.

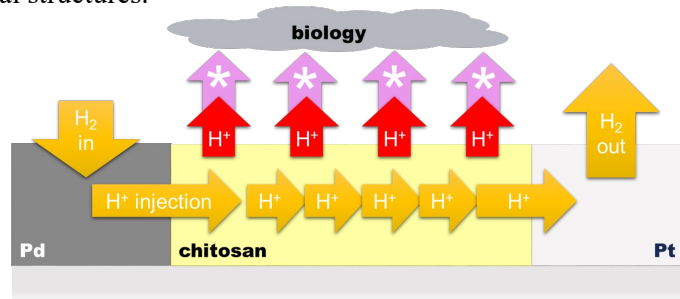
This program undertaken by researchers at NRL will establish the tools to close the feedback loop with biology. We have built protonic structures that can release ions, the native language of biology, and thereby hold meaningful, two-way conversations.

### 1.2 Motivation

Proton gradients are the primordial source of power for all cells and so are the most critical flow of ions for life [4]. They directly drive a wide range of biological processes from energy production by mitochondria to the rotation of bacterial flagella. As one progresses to more complicated life forms such as eukaryotes and multicellular organisms, other ion and small molecule concentration gradients grow in importance for communication and respiration. For instance, nearly a third of all energy generated by the mitochondria in our cells is used to maintain a gradient in  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  across the cell membrane [5]. Similar to the evolutionary path taken by nature, we will commence by establishing electronic control over the nanoscale flow of protons and then build in complexity to control the flow of other ions and signaling molecules.

These new bioprotonic conversion techniques will be the foundation for understanding cellular actuation, therefore they merit a brief description. As an example, Figure 1 depicts a protonic field effect transistor (FET). The basic components are a Pd "protode" that can absorb hydrogen gas,  $\text{H}_2$ , and then inject protons,  $\text{H}^+$ , under a potential bias. These protons may be transported through a proton conductive material, or PCM, to the drain where they accept electrons and are absorbed to complete the circuit.

Critically, a backgate can enhance or deplete the proton concentration within the channel and thus modulate conductivity. We emphasize that this structure applies an electronic voltage to establish a protonic gradient. We will use this effect to enhance the acidity of the channel and ultimately to release ions to actuate biological structures.



**Figure 1.** Cartoon depicting a protonic FET device. Hydrogen gas loads into a Pd “protode.” An applied potential, which can be modulated by the back gate, causes the protons to move through the chitosan – a proton conductive material – and the circuit is complete when the Pt electrode converts the signal back into electrons.

## 2. APPROACH

This program sought to demonstrate a generic method to actuate biological processes using protonics. For proper implementation, we needed to understand the basic nanoscale processes that control the performance of the protonic structure, demonstrate that they actuate biological processes, and ultimately interface them with cells. In some ways we recapitulated evolution in pursuing ever greater complexity but all powered by proton gradients.

### 2.1 Understanding the operation and physics of protonic devices

Protonic devices are the equivalent of electronic devices except they move protons instead of electrons. Prior to this program, the field of protonics was new. The phenomena being reported and the devices were one-off designs that were built or rigged by researchers with lab-based techniques. NRL’s protonics program brought the power of our nanoscience institute and its bevy of fabrication tools to bring rigor to the design and construction of protonic devices. Using mask sets and lithography techniques, 6 inch wafers with hundreds of protonic devices per wafer were fabricated. Protonic devices in a number of configurations, including 4 probe, 2 probe, transmission line, and interdigitated electrodes were built. Using these devices, statistically relevant numbers of data points could be generated to learn about the reliability and performance of protonic devices. NRL’s expertise in electrochemistry was also brought to bear and a fundamental understanding of the electrochemistry at every interface of a protonics device was achieved. We have published a seminal paper in the field marrying the experimental and theory work [6].

### 2.2 Ordering of the protonic conductive material (PCM)

An essential piece of the protonic FET device is the proton conductive material (PCM) present in the gate area. Chitosan is a biocompatible polymer and in some forms is known to transport protons when in a hydrated state. We sought to improve the performance of PCMs in general, and specifically chitosan, through both theoretical and experimental means.

NRL developed theory and simulations that modeled the movement of protons in what are termed “water wires.” Using density functional theory calculations and Monte Carlo simulations, the movement of protons was studied and compared with classical ideas reported in the literature. First, calculations showed the proton movement in a water wire was not as straight forward as first thought, and second, that random walk steps were common to the process. Next the presence of side groups and functionalization on the chitosan chain were studied for the interactions with water chains. This work resulted in two publications and provided greater understanding of how protonic devices operated [7,8]. Experimentally, we tried to confirm that better ordering in the polymer backbone would enhance proton movement in a PCM. Methods to order the backbone included atomic force microscopy both for deposition and post-deposition alignment by heat and shear force. In addition, we explored the use of electrospinning to deposit materials that were aligned. Success was achieved with the electrospinning approach, showing that ordering in individual wires led, in part, to higher conductivity [9]. This work also demonstrated the power of the nanoscience institute and tools available. A helium ion microscope was used to isolate and prepare individual fibers for analysis. This provided a way to create miniature protonic devices with controlled PCMs.

### 2.3 Interfacing with biology

Protonic devices offer the promise to hold meaningful, two-way conversations between biology and electronics. In addition to understanding the performance and operation of protonic devices, it was necessary to determine a biocompatible interface between the two worlds. The protonic devices made must be properly insulated from the aqueous media that cells need to live. Various materials solutions were explored, including the classic cell biology technique of over coating everything with PDL/laminin. While this was sufficient for initial experiments, the need to pattern biological materials onto areas of interest was an essential skill to be developed. A large number of patterning techniques exist, with the use of 3-D printing methods on the rise because of the new found control of design on size scales useful to biological interactions. OrmoComp, an acrylate-based polymer, is a popular choice for these types of applications and was reported to be biocompatible with very robust cell lines. However, when we used it with neurons, the cells would either not adhere or would be killed by the surface. Using Michael’s addition, we have transformed the remaining, unreacted acrylate groups of OrmoComp into pendent amine groups by reacting the polymer with diamines. This transformation makes 3-D printed OrmoComp structures appear as though they have the same surface chemistry as PDL/laminin surfaces. Importantly, the application of our surface chemistry renders surfaces amenable to orthogonal deposition meaning that we can collect cells in the areas of the device we determine and those cells can thrive [10].

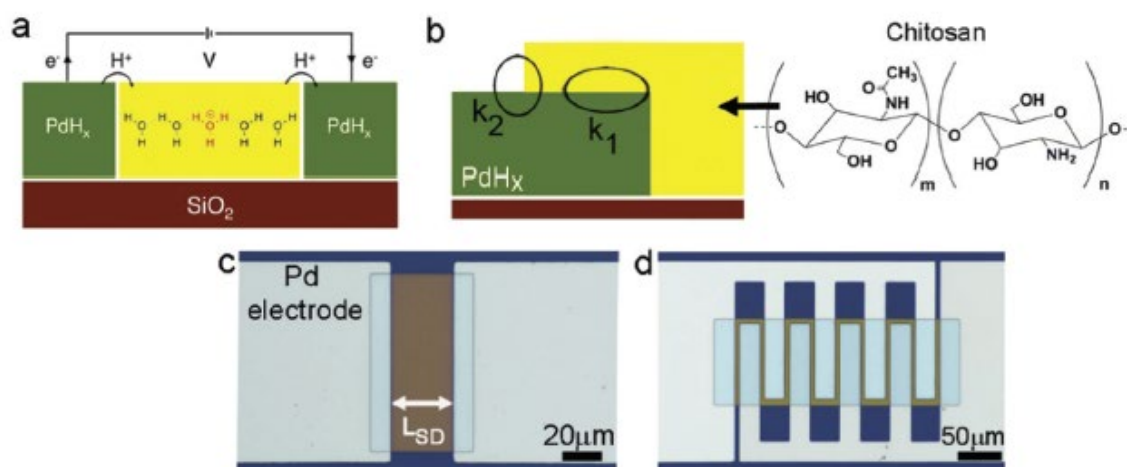
Using our new found understanding of protonic devices and interfaces between the biotic and abiotic world, we can use protonics to actuate biology. In our first demonstration, we have modulated the behavior of a cephalopod protein, reflectin. In the presence of an applied protonic gradient, the reflectin protein layer will change thickness and thus change is optical appearance [11].

## 3. EXPERIMENTS

The following sub-sections provide an overview of specific experimental efforts that led to peer-reviewed journal publications. Further details of each effort can be found within the referenced published papers.

### 3.1 Electrical and electrochemical characterization of proton transfer at the interface between chitosan and PdH<sub>x</sub> [6]

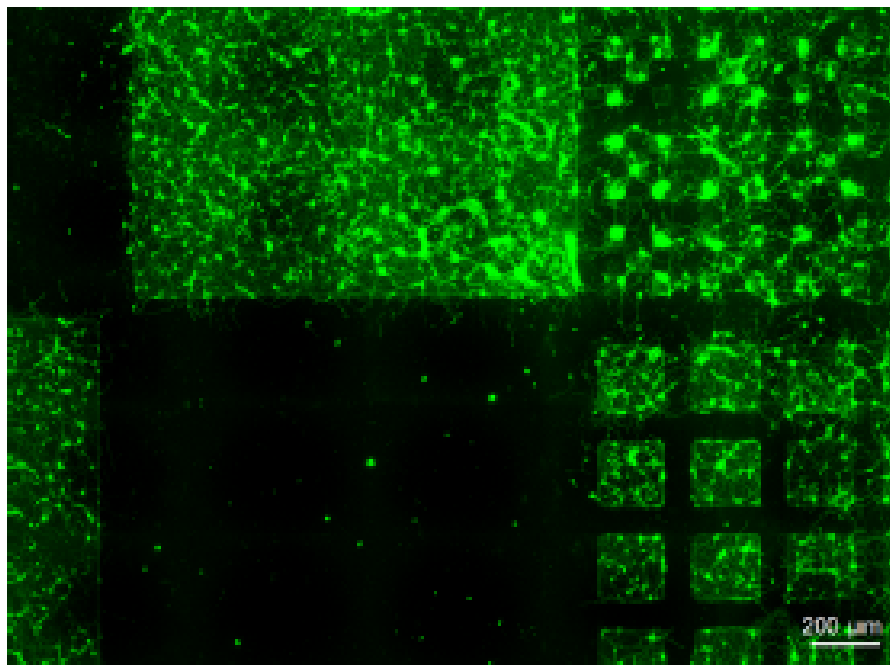
In bioelectronic medicine and electroceuticals, electronic devices that conduct electrons are used to monitor and control ion-based biochemical reactions in order to detect and treat medical conditions. Advancing these devices will require a thorough understanding of the electrochemical pathways that transduce electronic currents into the ionic currents that interact with the natural system. Here, we analyze the transduction of electronic current into a protonic current (H<sup>+</sup>) using Pd/PdH<sub>x</sub> contacts and a model proton conductor, chitosan. Linear sweep voltammetry and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy data indicate that, for Pd, limited proton injection occurs at the interface aided by water oxidation. For PdH<sub>x</sub>, hydrogen desorption and electrochemical oxidation to H<sup>+</sup> lead to sustainable proton injection and transfer to the chitosan protonic conductor. We have developed electroanalytical expressions and predictive digital simulations that match the experimental results. This work confirms that PdH<sub>x</sub> contacts integrated in DC devices, in parallel with electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, comprise a suitable means for measuring H<sup>+</sup> currents and interrogating the proton conductivity in biomaterials.



**Figure 2.** (a) Schematic of proton conduction in a two-terminal PdH<sub>x</sub> protonic device with a proton conducting polymer film as the conducting channel. (b) Schematic highlighting the 2-phase boundary (k<sub>1</sub>) and 3-phase boundary (k<sub>2</sub>) at the PdH<sub>x</sub> contact interface, along with the molecular structure of chitosan channel (not to scale). (c and d) Optical image showing devices with chitosan channels and varying Pd contact interfacial areas.

### 3.2 Chemistries for making additive nanolithography in OrmoComp permissive for cell adhesion and growth [10]

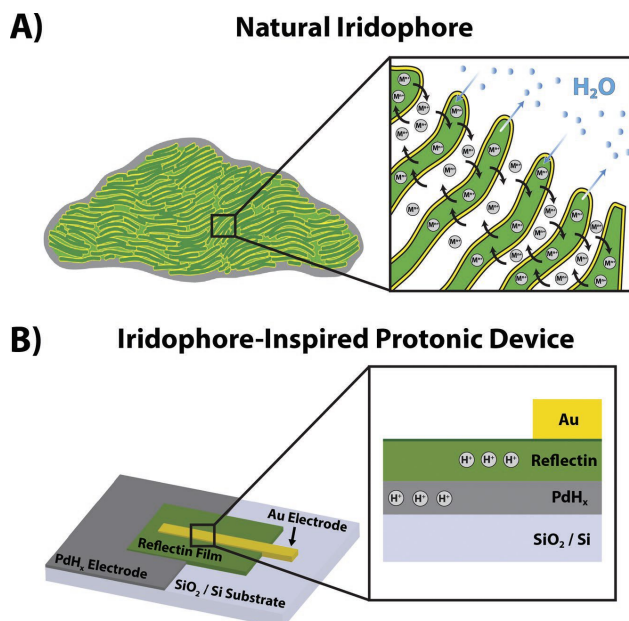
Two-photon lithography allows writing of arbitrary nanoarchitectures in photopolymers. This design flexibility opens almost limitless possibilities for biological studies, but the acrylate-based polymers frequently used do not allow for adhesion and growth of some types of cells. Indeed, we found that lithographically defined structures made from OrmoComp do not support E18 murine cortical neurons. We reacted OrmoComp structures with several diamines, thereby rendering the surfaces directly permissive for neuron attachment and growth by presenting a surface coating similar to the traditional cell biology coating achieved with poly-D-lysine (PDL) and laminin. However, in contrast to PDL-laminin coatings that cover the entire surface, the amine-terminated OrmoComp structures are orthogonally modified in deference to the surrounding glass or plastic substrate, adding yet another design element for advanced biological studies.



**Figure 3.** Orthogonal neuronal cell culture on EDA-modified OrmoComp pads. Fluorescent image of cells grown on modified EDA OrmoComp pads. The substrate was photolithographically patterned with 2800, 200, and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  squares. Note the differential growth of neurons on the treated polymer pads compared to the surrounding glass areas. Because PDL–laminin is not needed to grow cells on these surfaces, the glass being untreated has no cell adherence or growth. The slightly varying background is an artifact of the stitching process used in gathering the high-resolution images.

### 3.3 Protochromic devices from cephalopod structural protein [11]

Cephalopods possess remarkable camouflage capabilities, which are enabled by their complex innervated skin architectures and advanced nervous systems. As such, cephalopod skin constitutes an exciting model for biomimetic camouflage technologies. This study draws inspiration from the constituent components of optically active ultrastructures found in squid skin cells to help design color-changing bioelectronic devices, which consist of a proton-transporting active layer contacted by a proton-conducting actuating electrode. The devices exhibit distinct shifts in their reflectance and coloration, which are attributed to active layer thickness changes induced by the direct electrical injection/extraction of protons. The reported findings may hold relevance for developing novel color-changing technologies, understanding ion-transporting biological systems, and engineering improved bioelectronic platforms.

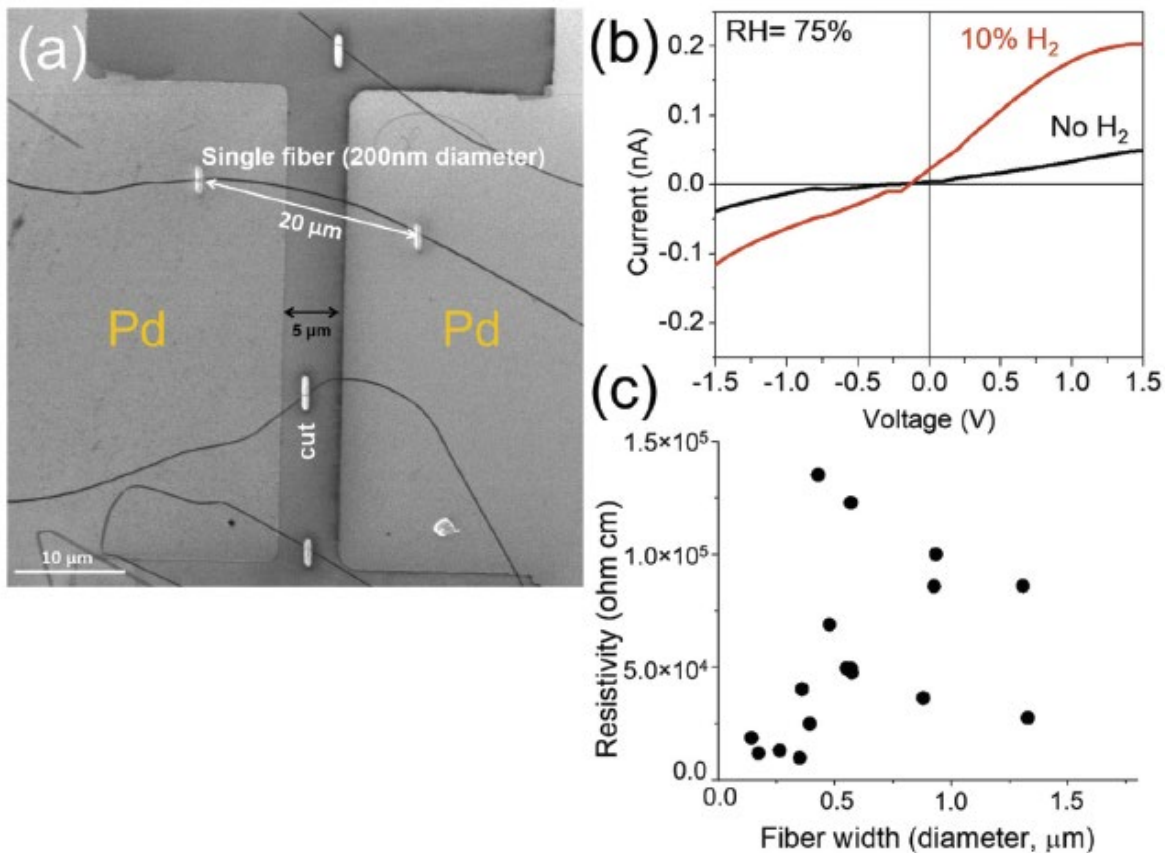


**Figure 4.** A) A simplified, general schematic of a neurally activated natural iridophore. The color of the iridophore is determined by its constituent Bragg reflector-like ultrastructures, which consist of alternating membrane-enclosed reflectin platelets and deep invaginations into the cellular interior. B) A simplified, general schematic of a protonic device that draws inspiration from the individual membrane-enclosed reflectin platelets of iridophores. The device consists of a proton-injecting PdH<sub>x</sub> actuating electrode (in analogy to an ion-permeable membrane), a proton-conducting RfA1 active layer (in analogy to a single protein platelet) and an ion-blocking Au electrode (as a stable reference).

### 3.4 Enhanced protonic conductivity and IFET behavior in individual proton-doped electrospun chitosan fibers [9]

A major challenge for biomedical science is developing materials and processing methods to enable creation of devices that can meaningfully translate signals between biology and electronics. Protonics-based devices—devices analogous to electronic devices but which use protons as charge carriers instead of electrons—are a promising strategy for such translation. Proton-conductive materials (PCMs)—the media through which protons are transported in such devices—are an element ripe for improvement, since they dominate the performance of protonic devices. We investigate protonic devices comprising sub-micrometer diameter, chitosan-fiber PCMs and palladium hydride (PdH<sub>x</sub>) protodes, the proton-injecting contact, to analyze how proton transport depends on the chemistry and ordering of the PCM. Current-voltage (I-V) measurements of single fiber-based devices under hydrogen atmospheres show that fibers electrospun from trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) solutions feature substantially higher proton conductivity, up to two orders of magnitude, compared to chitosan PCM films cast from acetic acid solutions. We further used digital simulation of the I-V data to elucidate the electrochemical and electrical processes that control device operation. The hydrogen oxidation reaction kinetics of the protode interfaces with the electrospun chitosan fibers agree well with those reported previously. Using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), we observed that single chitosan fibers spun from TFA solutions are more highly proton-doped than chitosan cast from acetic acid. Furthermore, I-V measurements on electrospun chitosan fibers vs. spin-cast chitosan films, both derived from TFA solutions, reveal that electrospun chitosan fibers yield similar to 10-fold higher proton conductivity, suggesting that local polymer ordering within the electrospun fibers further enhances proton transport for chitosan PCMs. Finally, devices fabricated from single doped chitosan fibers behave as ionic field effect transistors (IFETs) when under a contact gate bias established with a conducting probe AFM tip. Switching characteristics are tuned by the gate

bias, with proton conduction of a single fiber increasing by over an order of magnitude under negative bias. The switchable ion currents and enhanced conductivity of the chitosan fiber-based PCMs comprise a means of establishing spatiotemporal control over ionic communication between protonic devices and adjacent biological cells and membranes.



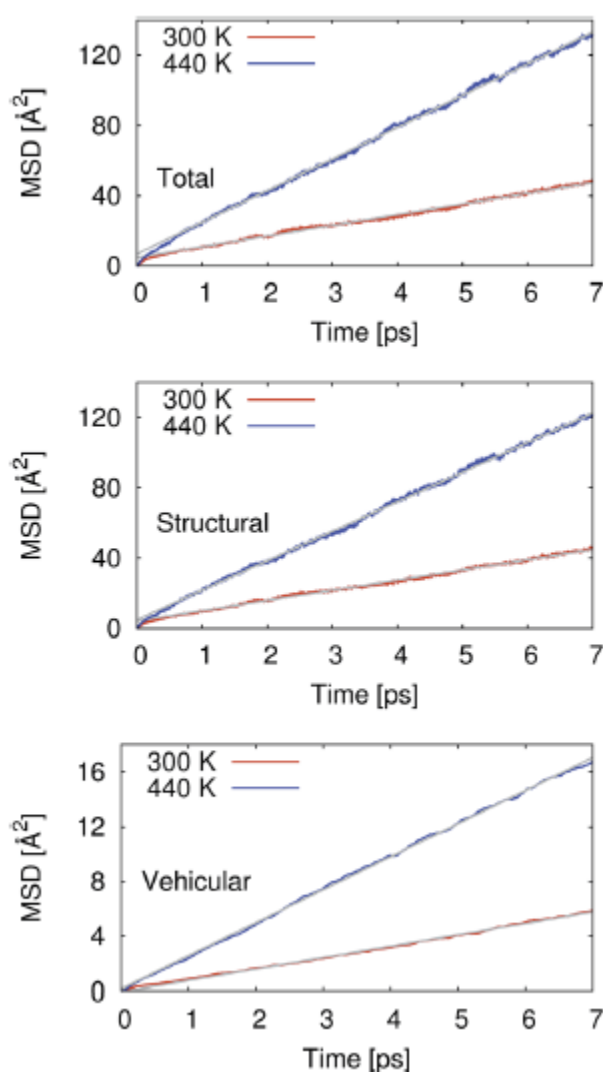
**Figure 5.** Characterization of protonic conductivity of a single chitosan fiber: (a) single chitosan fiber between Pd electrodes isolated by cutting with focused helium ion beam using the HIM; (b) current–voltage curve of a single chitosan fiber under 75% RH N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere in H<sub>2</sub>-free conditions (black curve) and with 10% H<sub>2</sub> (red curve); (c) calculated resistivities of single chitosan fibers from measured dimensions (diameter and channel length). The R-squared value from a linear regression was 0.356, suggesting that there is no clear dependence between resistivity and fiber dimensions.

#### 4. THEORETICAL MODELING

The following sub-sections provide an overview of specific theoretical modeling efforts that led to peer-reviewed journal publications. Further details of each effort can be found within the referenced published papers.

#### 4.1 Correlated dynamics in aqueous proton diffusion [7]

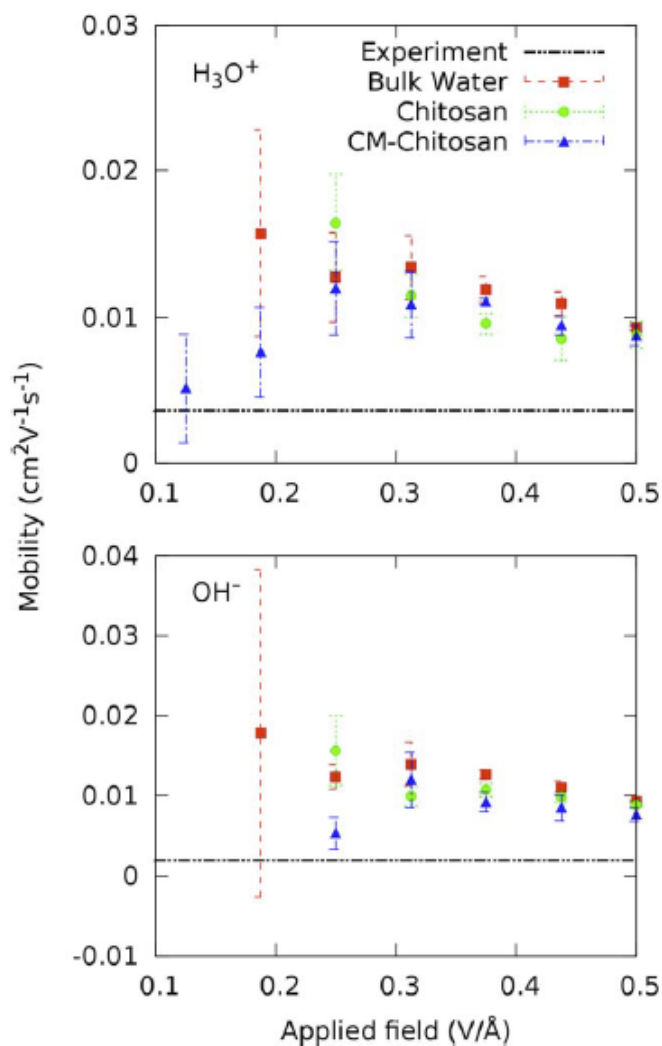
The aqueous proton displays an anomalously large diffusion coefficient that is up to 7 times that of similarly sized cations. There is general consensus that the proton achieves its high diffusion through the Grotthuss mechanism, whereby protons hop from one molecule to the next. A main assumption concerning the extraction of the timescale of the Grotthuss mechanism from experimental results has been that, on average, there is an equal probability for the proton to hop to any of its neighboring water molecules. Herein, we present *ab initio* simulations that show this assumption is not generally valid. Specifically, we observe that there is an increased probability for the proton to revert back to its previous location. These correlations indicate that the interpretation of the experimental results need to be re-examined and suggest that the timescale of the Grotthuss mechanism is significantly shorter than was previously thought.



**Figure 6.** Mean-squared displacements (MSD) as functions of time for the proton at 300 and 440 K. The gray lines represent the linear regression used for extraction of the diffusion coefficients. The linear regression was performed on the data between 1 and 7 ps. The top panel gives the total MSD, while the middle and bottom panels show the structural and vehicular components, respectively.

## 4.2 Proton transport through hydrated chitosan-based polymer membranes under electric fields [8]

Proton transport is essential in many areas of chemistry and biology and is especially important in the fields of proton exchange membrane fuel cells and biocompatible, protonic semiconductors. These devices make use of membranes to control the flow of protons for either the generation of energy or to more closely couple electronics and biology. In the present study, we make use of ab initio molecular dynamics simulations, including the effect of applied electric fields, to gain atomistic insight into the intrinsic conductivity of chitosan-based polymers and demonstrate that chitosan does not act as a significant source of friction for the transport of protons while increasing the number of free ions.



**Figure 7.** Charge carrier mobility as a function of applied electric field for hydronium (top) and hydroxide (bottom) ions. The points give the average values calculated at each field strength along with the standard deviation between trajectories. The experimental values are for hydronium/hydroxide ions in dilute acidic/basic solutions

## 5. Conclusions

Based upon the above data, we have demonstrated that protonics can be used to actuate biology. This program has built the tools necessary to more rigorously pursue the field of protonics and establish true two-way communication between electronics and biology. The understanding of protonic device performance and the materials from which they are constructed is informing the design and construction of a more capable protonics testing devices. The added understanding for how to interface these devices with biology is leading to higher order experiments where neuron beds can be probed by releasing ions and observing the frequency of the firing rates.

NRL continues to work on this program with the vision of future Naval capabilities. For example, A device that can release signals from neurotransmitters to food to antibiotics with the requisite bandwidth would be a game changer, enabling multiple new technologies to evolve:

- Advanced neural prostheses that use native signaling
- Wound healing—why is repairing tissue so much harder than the original growth
- Artificial organs—imprinting chemical information
- Artificial immune system—biosensors could trigger the release of the antidote before the immune system responds
- New biosurveillance paradigms where cells are interrogated and not just “listened” to

These types of advancements would advance the ONR framework goals of Operational Endurance, Warfighter Supremacy, and Force Health Protection.

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