Leveraging Crosslinker Diffusion to Template Stiffness Gradients in Alginate Hydrogels

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Abstract (295 words):

Mechanobiology or the response of cells to forces or mechanical properties of their environment drives many physiological and pathological processes including development, wound healing, fibrosis and cancer. A variety of cell biological behaviors are driven by local mechanical properties including stem cell differentiation and drug resistance. Furthermore, cells can sense stiffness gradients and migrate up the gradient in a process called durotaxis. The development of 3D hydrogel systems with tunable mechanical gradient patterns affords the ability to run multiple experiments at different stiffness. This is critical as some cell behavior is not monotonically dependent upon stiffness. Additionally, the creation of mechanical property gradients within 3D hydrogels may be able to guide cells to particular targets forming complex cellular structures within the hydrogel or enhancing wound healing through directed migration. In this paper, we developed an approach to spatially imprint within alginate hydrogels, gradients in mechanical properties that can be used to probe mechanobiology. Stencils were easily designed and fabricated using a common craft cutter to control the presentation of a calcium crosslinking solution to alginate gels. Different stencil shapes result in different gradients in opacity that can be imprinted into both thick and thin alginate gels of arbitrary shape. The steepness of the opacity gradient as well as the maximum opacity can be controlled based on reproducible crosslinking kinetics regulated through calcium concentration and gradient developing time. Calcium crosslinking results in both opacity changes as well as increases in elastic modulus in the bulk hydrogel. Opacity correlates with elastic modulus, allowing it to be used as a proxy for local elastic modulus. Consequently, spatial gradients in elastic modulus can also be imprinted into alginate gels using this stenciling approach. This stenciling approach represents a facile way to control stiffness gradients in alginate gels.

Graphical Abstract:

Key Words:

Abbreviations:

ECM: extracellular matrix

UV: ultraviolet

VIS: visible

PBS: phosphate buffered saline

DMEM: Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium

FBS: fetal bovine serum

APTES: aminoproplytriethoxysilane

NHS: N-hydroxysuccinimide

EDC: 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide

FTIR: Fourier transform infrared

ATR: Attenuated total reflectance

4NB: 4-nitrobenzaldeyhde

AFM: Atomic force microscopy

MES: 2-(*N*-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid

1. Introduction:

It is well-established that a wide variety of biological processes are driven by mechanobiology. These processes include development,[1] immune response,[2] wound healing[3] as well as diseases like cancer[4] and fibrosis.[5] Cells sense the stiffness of their environment, altering cell differentiation, drug sensitivity, metabolism and cell migration. Spatial gradients in stiffness formed in biomaterials allow for the study of these cell behaviors. Spatial gradients can reveal non-linear relationships between stiffness and the above cell behaviors along with the transcriptional, signaling and epigenetic signatures in ways that would be difficult to do in individual experiments.[6–9] Furthermore, the ability to control gradients in stiffness is absolutely critical for understanding and controlling durotaxis,[1,10–13] directed cell migration in response to stiffness gradients. Durotaxis drives cancer metastasis as well as stromal cell invasion of the tumor.[11] Furthermore, durotaxis drives wound healing, where stiffness gradients in the wound bed are present and can recruit fibroblasts, organize wound contraction and facilitate hair follicle development.[14] Encoding these types of mechanical property gradients within biomaterials that are provisionally placed in the wound bed will likely lead to enhanced migration and faster wound healing, particularly in traumatic or chronic wounds.

A variety of biomaterials have been used as wound dressings, but the focus of these materials has been on absorption of exudate, maintenance of wound moisture or inhibition of microbial growth.[15] Alginate hydrogels are commonly used in wound dressings.[16] Alginate is a naturally occurring polymer derived from brown algae. Due to its biocompatibility, low toxicity, and structure similarity to extracellular matrices, it is becoming more commonly used in hydrogels for advanced wound dressings.[17] The stiffness of alginate hydrogels can be tuned by crosslinking them with divalent ions like calcium, allowing one to match hydrogel stiffness with tissue stiffness.[18,19] However sophisticated hydrogels with arbitrary stiffness gradients that could direct cells to particular targets within the wound bed at a faster rate have not been developed. In order to study the cellular and molecular mechanisms of durotaxis that are present during wound healing or to generate tissue engineering constructs that can direct cells at high speed to targets, approaches for controlling gradients within hydrogels will need to be developed.

There are many ways to make biological gradients.[20] The most commonly used hydrogel system in which to generate mechanical property gradients to study mechanobiology or durotaxis is polyacrylamide. Stiffness gradients can be generated easily using designed masks and photoinitiators.[21] However, while polyacrylamide is a good model hydrogel system, cells cannot be embedded within it, making its use difficult *in vivo*. Another common system in which to generate stiffness gradients is PEG-polymer systems,[6,9] however these can be expensive. Stiffness gradients in collagen can be generated in collagen gels as well, however, these spatial gradients are usually accompanied by fiber alignment

gradients.[22] There are several examples of generating alginate gradients. Gradients in stiffness have
been generated through attachment to stiff interfaces[18,23], using dipping methods[24] or by merging
two different alginate solutions, creating a gradient between the two.[25] However, these approaches are
limited in the shape of gradients that can be generated. Bioprinting has been used to make gradients in
alginate.[26,27] However, while bioprinting is becoming much more accessible for labs, it still requires
relatively expensive equipment and optimization. Photopolymerization of alginate can be performed using
methacrylated alginate and photoinitiators[28] or photocrosslinking of alginate using embedded vesicles
that can release calcium[29]. However, while these approaches afforded very good spatial control and
even had dynamic control they either used reagents that can be cytotoxic or relatively difficult to produce.
What is needed is a system that can generate a wide variety of gradients, does not require expensive
equipment and is easy to use.
Here we develop a stenciling method that can generate unique and tunable stiffness gradients
within alginate hydrogels leveraging the controlled diffusion of calcium into the gel. The stencils are
easily designed and fabricated, producing a variety of patterns. Calcium cross-links the alginate, resulting
in an opacity change due to local polymer contraction or densification and enhanced light scattering. We
have generated different gradient patterns in both thick and thin systems and characterized the kinetics of
crosslinking. Bulk mechanical property measurements have been made and we have spatially mapped
mechanical properties to the gradient and correlated this to changes in opacity. This technique allows for
the easy design and fabrication of alginate gels with tunable stiffness gradients.

2. Materials and Methods:

2.1 Assembly of stenciled alginate hydrogels

A custom 1-inch diameter mold with a 15.4-mm diameter hole was filled with 1 ml of an alginate gel containing 20 mg/mL alginate (alginic acid sodium salt from brown algae, Sigma Aldrich, low viscosity, A1112) and 20 mM calcium sulfate ($CaSO_4$, Acros Organics, 385351000). Additional buffers were used to dissolve the alginate and $CaSO_4$ including phosphate buffer saline (PBS) lacking magnesium and calcium (Gibco, 14190144) and Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Sigma Aldrich, D6546) with 1% penicillin-streptamycin (Gibco, 15140122) and 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, A5256801). The line stencil was placed on top of the initial gel and 80 mM calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$ Fisher Scientific, C79) dissolved in either PBS, DMEM or water respectively. Images were taken every five minutes for 8 h. A custom cut stencil is placed on top of the gel and sealed to the edge of the mold with vacuum grease (Dow Corning). Stencils are cut on transparency paper (Apollo Write on Transparency Film Clear) using a Cricut Maker 3. The Cricut Maker 3 allows for creation or uploading of any custom designs, shapes and text and has a spatial resolution of 1 mm diameter for the circle design (**Supplementary Figure 1**). All stencils have an overall diameter of 1 inch to fit the diameter of the mold. The smaller circle stencil has a diameter of 2.5 mm. The larger circle stencil has a diameter of 5 mm. The line stencil has a width of 1 mm, and the S shape stencil has a width of 3 mm. On top of the stencil is a solution of 80 mM $CaCl_2$ (**Figure 1A**). Thin alginate gels were generated using a mold cut using the Cricut Maker 3. Two layers of 1 mm thick silicone attached by two-sided adhesive were stacked together to create a chamber for a thin alginate gel. Thin alginate gels were made with final concentrations of 20 mg/ml alginate and 20 mM $CaSO_4$. A stencil made from transparent cellulose acetate was placed on top of the alginate gel, and 80 mM $CaCl_2$ filled the 35 mm cell culture dish (**Figure 2A**).

2.2 Fabrication of 3D-printed imaging chambers

A 3D printed imaging chamber was fabricated and adhered directly to a glass slide. The 3D printed imaging chambers were designed in SOLIDWORKS CAD software (3DS, Paris, France) and printed using Overture PLA (polylactic acid) 1.75 mm diameter filament with the Creality Ender-3 V2 3D printer. The .stl files from SOLIDWORKS were converted to .gcodes formed for printing in the slicing software Simplify3D (Simplify3D, Cincinnati, OH, USA). Two varieties of imaging chamber were fabricated: thin and thick. Both thin and thick chambers were printed with an imaging aperture dimension of 18 mm in diameter, an interior shelf width of 4 mm, a wall thickness of 1 mm, for a total diameter of 28 mm. Thin chambers had a total wall height of 5 mm, including the interior shelf thickness of 2 mm whereas thick chambers had a total wall height of 8 mm, including the interior shelf thickness of 4 mm. After printing the imaging chambers were removed from the printer bed and adhered to a 75 mm x 25 mm

x 1 mm glass slide using vacuum grease. This forms the completed imaging chamber-slide complex that

allows for the visualization using light microscopy.

2.3 Imaging and image analysis of alginate gels

Alginate gels were imaged using a home-built system including an 8-bit video camera (Javelin CCD) over

a period of 8 h with images taken every 5 min. The initial image of the gel was taken immediately before

80 mM $CaCl_2$ was placed on top of the stencil. Using ImageJ, the change in opacity (intensity) was

measured as a change in gray value at three locations on each gel: the center of the stencil, 1 mm from the

edge of the stencil and 3 mm from the edge of the stencil. The intensity was normalized by the following

equation:

159
$$I_N = \frac{I - I_b}{I_p - I_b},$$
(1)

where I_N is the normalized brightness, I is the brightness at a particular position and time, I_b is the

background intensity, and I_p is the peak intensity. For **Figure 3**, I_b is the intensity at time equal 0 in the

center of the stencil and I_p is the peak intensity at time equal 8 h in the center of the stencil. For alginate

gels with no stencil and no $CaCl_2$, I_p values were from images taken of alginate gels with no stencil and

80 mM $CaCl_2$. For **Figure 3**, I_b is the average over the first hour between 0 and 4 mm away from the

center and I_p is the average intensity between 12 h and 13 h between 0 mm and 1 mm. The absolute

gradient is the slope of the normalized intensity as a function of radial distance (**Supplementary Figure**

4).

2.4 Measurement of the absorbance of alginate gels during polymerization

The kinetics and extent of crosslinking alginate with $CaSO_4$ and $CaCl_2$ were analyzed using a UV-Vis

Spectrophotometer (Varian Cary 50 Bio) and polystyrene disposable cuvettes (Semi-Micro, 1 cm path,

1.5 mL, 12.5 mm square x 45 mm high; Bio-Rad, 2239955). The alginate and $CaSO_4$ were mixed, and the

resulting 1 ml gel in the cuvette had a final concentration of 20 mg/mL alginate and 20 mM $CaSO_4$. A 1

ml solution of 180 mM $CaCl_2$ or 80 mM $CaCl_2$ filled the top of the cuvette. The scans were started

immediately following the mixing of the alginate and $CaSO_4$. (**Supplementary Figure 2**)

2.5 Elastic modulus measurement in bulk alginate gels

Uniaxial compression testing was used to measure elastic modulus in bulk alginate gels. The mold was

removed from around the gel and a coverslip was placed on top. Compressive force was applied by

placing individual weights on top of the coverslip until deformation was observable. The weight was

incrementally increased until failure. The alginate gels were imaged 60 frames per second. (**Figure 5A**)

Assuming a circular cross section, the engineering stress (σ) in the gel was calculated using the following

equation:

182
$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{mg}{\frac{\pi D^2}{4}} ,$$
(2)

183 where m is the mass of weight, g is acceleration due to gravity, A is the initial gel area and D is the

184 diameter of the top surface of the undeformed gel measured from the side view. The engineering strain (γ)

185 was calculated using the following equation:

186
$$\gamma = \frac{A_f - A_i}{A_i} \sim \frac{h_f - h_i}{h_i} ,$$
(3)

188 where A_f and A_i are the final and initial projected trapezoid area from the side and h_f and h_i are the

189 average heights of the final and initial trapezoid shape (**Figure 5B**). Elastic modulus was calculated using

190 the following equation:

191
$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\gamma} .$$
(4)

2.6 Functionalization of coverslips covalent attachment of alginate to coverslips

Alginate gels float in both water and NaCl solutions. To prevent any movement during mechanical

property measurements, the alginate gels were adhered to functionalized glass coverslips.[30] First, glass

coverslips were submerged in piranha solution composed of 3:1 sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4, Fisher Scientific,

A300) and 30 wt% hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2, Fisher Scientific, H325) for 1 h. Then the coverslips were

rinsed with deionized water three times before placing a solution of 1% aminoproplytriethoxysilane

(APTES, Acros Organics, 43094) in 0.174 M acetic acid (Fisher Scientific, A38) on top of the coverslips

for two hours. Afterwards the coverslips were rinsed in deionized water three times. Second, alginate was

attached to functionalized glass coverslips in the following way. A 1 wt% alginate solution was prepared

in 0.1 M 2-(N-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid buffer (MES, Sigma Aldrich, M8250). Sulfonated N-

hydroxysuccinimide (NHS, Sigma Aldrich, 130672) and 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)

carbodiimide (EDC, Thermo Scientific, 22980) were added to the alginate solution in a molar ratio of 1

alginate:30 NHS:25 EDC, and brought to a pH of 6.5 using 1 M NaOH (Fisher Scientific). To assemble

the functionalized alginate gels, a coverslip was placed in the bottom of the mold and 75-100 µL of the

functionalized alginate solution was placed on top of the functionalized coverslip so that there was a thin

layer of solution covering the entire surface area of the coverslip. The alginate gels were prepared as

described above and the initial gel was placed on top of the functionalized alginate on the coverslip.

2.7 Characterization of functional attachment of alginate to glass

Attenuated Total Reflectance-Fourier Transform InfraRed spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) was performed on

an FTIR spectrometer (Nicolet MAGNA 750, Thermo Scientific) and attached variable-angle specular

reflectance accessory (Pike VeeMax III, Pike Technologies, Madison, WI, USA). ATR-FTIR was used to

assess whether dry, wet or unfunctionalized glass coverslips contained surface amines. In addition, the

density of amines on the surface of the coverslips was quantified using UV absorbance of 4-

nitrobenzaldehyde (4-NB, Sigma Aldrich) attached to amines on functionalized coverslips as we have

reported elsewhere.[31] Calibration curves of absorbance of 4-NB were generated reading spectra from a

UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Varian Cary 50 Bio). To assess the degree of amine functionalization,

functionalized glass coverslips were immersed in a solution of 25 ml of anhydrous ethanol containing 20

µl of acetic acid and 0.4 mg/ml 4-nitrobenzaldehyde (4NB, Sigma Aldrich) at 50 ℃ for 3 h. The

coverslips were then washed with absolute ethanol and dried with air and crushed and placed in a solution

of 0.2% acetic acid for 1 h at 30 ℃. The absorbance of 4NB was measured and the calibration curve was

used to calculate the number density of 4NB and consequently amines on the surface (**Supplementary**

Figure 6).[32]

2.8 Measuring swelling of alginate gels

Due to a difference in osmotic pressure, alginate gels swell in water. To minimize the effects of swelling

on the mechanical property measurements, the alginate gels were submerged in a salt solution. Alginate

gels were made with 20 mg/mL alginate and 20 mM $CaSO_4$. No stencils or $CaCl_2$ was used in these

experiments. The weight of the initial gel was measured before a sodium chloride (NaCl, Fisher

Scientific, S271) solution was added for 12 h. Then the salt solution was removed, and the final weight of

the gel was measured. The percentage swelled is calculated by dividing the mass of the water absorbed by

the initial mass of the gel (**Supplementary Figure 7**).

2.9 Local elastic modulus measurements in alginate gels

Spatial mechanical properties were measured using Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM). Functionalized

alginate gels were prepared as described above, and 80 mM $CaCl_2$ was placed on top of the stencil for 3

hours. Images were taken before and after adding and removing the 80 mM $CaCl_2$. The brightness

measurements from the before and after images were analyzed as described above. The gels were placed

into a 60 mM NaCl solution to minimize swelling for the duration of AFM testing. The force

measurements were performed in contact mode on a commercial AFM platform (Bio-Resolve, Bruker

Nano, Inc.). The AFM cantilever was 0.03 N/m. The ramp speed (i.e., force loading speed) and ramp rate

were 100 nm/s and 0.1 Hz, respectively. To obtain elastic modulus, E, the experimental deflection, and

height data was modeled by:

242
$$F = \frac{4}{3}\frac{E}{1-v^2}\sqrt{R\delta^3} \qquad (5)$$

243 where F is the force, E is the Young's modulus (elastic modulus), v is Poisson's ratio (0.45[33]), R is the

244 radius of spherical tip (5 µm) and δ is the indentation depth. Indentation depth is defined as the height of

245   the probe minus the deflection. To calculate the elastic modulus, the force was plotted as a function of

246   adjusted area. Adjusted area is a function of indentation depth given by:

247
$$A = \frac{4}{3}\frac{1}{1-v^2}\sqrt{R\delta^3}$$
(6)

The slope of the force versus adjusted area is the elastic modulus (**Supplementary Figure 8**). Three

locations on each gel were measured with AFM. For the circle stencil the locations were the center of the

stencil, 1 mm and 3 mm from the edge of the stencil. For the uniform gels without a stencil, the locations

were the center of the gel, and 3 mm to the left and right of the center of the gel.

2.10 Statistical Analysis

The significance level is set to $p = 0.05$. Box plots: Upper and lower error bars are minimum and

maximum values, top and bottom of the box represent the 75th and 25th percentile, the line is the median

and the dashed line is the mean. The error bars shown on the figures are 95% confidence intervals.

3. Results:

3.1 Unique stencil patterns result in tunable opacity patterns

Gradients in alginate crosslinking were generated leveraging diffusion of calcium through uniquely designed stencils. Alginate (20 mg/mL) sparsely crosslinked with calcium sulfate (20 mM $CaSO_4$) was loaded into molds with a recessed shelf (**Figure 1A**). This shelf allows for the application of a clear stencil on top of the gel. The stencil contains a customizable pattern cut into cellulose acetate using a craft cutter (**Figure 1B**). This particular craft cutter is able to cut sizes as small as 1 mm (**Supplementary Figure 1**). A high concentration calcium chloride solution (80 mM $CaCl_2$) was placed on top of the stencil. Calcium diffused into the gel through the pattern, creating a gradient in opacity in the *x-y* plane (**Figure 1C**). The opacity was quantified by calculating the intensity of the alginate gel at a particular position and time. Opacity is highest underneath the pattern and increases with time. In addition to opacity gradient formation in thick alginate gels in molds, opacity gradients also formed in thin alginate gels (2 mm) fabricated in silicone wells cut to different shapes (**Figure 2A**). Thin multilayer chambers with both unique well patterns and unique stencils were assembled in petri dishes. Sparsely crosslinked alginate was loaded into these thin wells, overlaid with a stencil and submerged in high concentration calcium chloride (**Figure 2B**). This resulted in increased intensity over a period of 8 h, producing a gradient in intensity templated by the stencil pattern (**Figure 2C**). This demonstrates that opacity gradients can be imprinted into either thick or thin gels by tuning the stencil pattern and duration of gradient development, allowing for a tremendous amount of flexibility in creating opacity gradients with different shapes and gradient steepness.

3.2 Characterization of opacity gradients and kinetics of change in opacity

Given that unique gradients can be formed using different stencil patterns, the kinetics of spatial pattern formation was assessed using both absorbance of alginate gels within cuvettes and intensity of alginate gels imaged within the molds over time. Intensity from images at different positions and at different times was normalized to the maximum intensity within the alginate gel. Alginate gels sparsely crosslinked with two different concentrations of calcium sulfate and exposed to different concentrations of calcium chloride showed that above 50 mM $CaCl_2$ a maximum level of absorbance was attained, indicating that the high concentration calcium chloride solution (80 mM $CaCl_2$) used above was saturating, so this concentration will be used throughout (**Supplementary Figure 2A**). Four different stencil model patterns were used (**Figure 3A**). Sparsely crosslinked alginate gels exposed to high concentrations of calcium chloride without a stencil produced a high intensity alginate gel with no gradient (**Figure 3B**). The contraction of the alginate gel upon crosslinking can be seen as the thin black crescent between the gel and the mold. Alginate gels exposed to water instead of calcium chloride resulted in a gel with no change in intensity within the gel. To characterize the spatial kinetics of intensity changes, the normalized

intensity of these gels was calculated at the center and at 1 and 3 mm away from the edge of the stencil

between 0 and 8 h (**Figure 3C**). The alginate gels exposed to calcium chloride with no stencil had the

same rate of increase in intensity at all three locations. After 2 h, the intensity within the alginate gels

reached its maximum and remained constant for the remaining 8 h. Similar kinetics were observed when

measuring the absorbance within cuvettes of the sparsely crosslinked alginate gels exposed overtop to

high concentrations of calcium chloride (**Supplementary Figure 2B**). Interestingly, two behaviors were

observed in the cuvette absorbance experiments, one that matched the kinetics of the imaging in **Figure**

3C and one that was much slower. The slow increase in absorbance is consistent with a moving front of

opacity oriented in the downward position of the cuvette, while the fast increase is consistent with a

moving front of opacity oriented from the sides of the cuvette. Alginate gels contract after crosslinking,

resulting in an occasional pulling away from the sides of the cuvette, creating a channel along the side

that filled with high concentration calcium chloride. Indeed, a simple diffusion rate calculation based on

the diffusion coefficient of calcium (1300 $\mu m^2/s$) and different length scales (height = 3 mm vs half-width

= 1 mm) for the two scenarios predicts a lag of 1-2 h as compared to the fast kinetics. This is precisely

what is observed (**Supplementary Figure 2B**). Finally, the alginate gels that were not exposed to $CaCl_2$

produce no change in intensity at any of the locations (**Figure 3C**). These data indicate that alginate gels

crosslink over 2 h before coming to a steady-state level.

In addition to the no stencil condition, the spatial kinetics of different stencil patterns were

quantified. Sparsely crosslinked alginate gels were exposed to high calcium chloride solutions through the

circle, line and S stencil (**Figure 3B**) and intensity was measured at the center as well as 1 and 3 mm

away from the edge of the stencil (**Figure 3D-F**). The opacity pattern matched the shape of the stencil

(**Figure 3B**). In addition to water, alginate gels were assembled in a common buffer (PBS) and cell

culture media (DMEM). Intensity gradients formed in these buffers but these gradients were shallower

(**Supplementary Figure 3**). For all stencils as the distance from the center of the stencil increases, the

increase in intensity over time is slower. The center location, where the gel is directly exposed to the

calcium chloride on every stencil increases in intensity with similar kinetics to the no stencil condition.

The lag time associated with increases in intensity 3 mm from the stencil edge varied among the stencil

shape with the circle stencil being the longest, followed by the line and S stencil (**Figure 3D-F**). The

slower kinetics associated with the line stencil as compared to the S stencil is caused by the thinner width

of the line stencil compared to the S stencil (**Figure 3E&F**). Quantifying the intensity kinetics for

different stencil shapes allow for the selection of a particular time that results in a specific opacity

gradient.

Given that the line and S stencil shapes had different widths and resulted in different intensity

kinetics far from the center, the effect of the size of the stencil for one particular shape was assessed.

Circle stencils with diameters of 5 and 2.5 mm were used to form radial gradients (**Figure 4**). Radial

gradients were quantified by averaging linescans over angles between 0 and 2π and absolute gradient was

quantified by finding the local slope of the radial profile at each point (**Supplementary Figure 4**). The

circle stencils showed the characteristic decrease in intensity further from the stencil. Interestingly, these

gradients seemed stable, even when the calcium chloride solution was removed and replaced with water

(**Supplementary Figure 5**). Large circle stencils showed an increase in intensity far from the stencil for

long periods, suggesting the impact of a no flux boundary condition at the outer edge of the mold (**Figure**

4A). This effect was diminished with the smaller circle stencil, indicating that the domain in which

diffusion is occurring is essentially semi-infinite for times less than 16 h (**Figure 4B**). Using a simple

point source model, the diffusion coefficient in the alginate gel was predicted to be on the order of 160

$\mu m^2/s$, which is about 8-fold lower than that in water, likely slowed by the binding of calcium to alginate.

Absolute gradients were calculated for both large and small stencil over time, requiring about 4 h for

significant gradient establishment. Gradient steepness increased over time and similar gradients occurred

in both small and large circle stencils. Large circle stencils produce robust opacity gradients after 4 h near

the stencil edge, but these opacity gradients dramatically flatten far from the stencil. Small circle stencils

on the other hand can be treated as semi-infinite point sources that produces robust opacity gradients after

4 h throughout the gel.

3.3 Characterization of bulk mechanical properties of alginate gels

Given the effects of alginate gel crosslinking on opacity characterized above, we are were interested in

measuring the bulk mechanical properties of the alginate gels under similar crosslinking conditions. We

used compression testing to assess the compressive elastic modulus of alginate gels. Different masses

were placed on top of the alginate gel and the deformation of the alginate was quantified from images

(**Figure 5A**). The slope of the stress versus strain curve equals the elastic modulus of the gel (**Figure 5B**).

Alginate gels (20 mg/ml) were sparsely crosslinked with different calcium sulfate concentrations (10 mM,

20 mM or 40 mM) in the absence of stencils. The elastic modulus of the alginate gels increased slightly

with the concentration of $CaSO_4$ (**Figure 5C**). Under conditions used above, the median compressive

elastic modulus of the sparsely crosslinked gel is ~1.5 kPa. When these gels are exposed to high

concentrations of calcium chloride, the compressive elastic modulus increased 16-fold (**Figure 5D**). This

indicates that alginate gels crosslinked in the stencil system above span roughly 1.5-25 kPa.

3.4 Spatial patterns of stiffness can be imprinted into alginate gels

Given the ability to control spatial alginate gel crosslinking using stencils and that this crosslinking results

in increases in elastic modulus, we wondered if gradients of elastic modulus were formed and if opacity

was predictive of elastic modulus. The elastic modulus was determined at various positions on alginate

gels before and after crosslinking with high concentration calcium chloride using AFM. In order to secure

the alginate gel to the glass surface, we used EDC/NHS chemistry to attach a layer of alginate to amine

functionalized glass. This layer of alginate acted as glue to attach to the crosslinked alginate gel that was

placed over top. This attachment works well at room temperature, but the attachment is weak if the gel is

heated to 37 °C. We verified glass functionalization by identifying both C-N and –NH_2 bonds formed

after aminosilane chemistry (**Supplementary Figure 6A**). An amine-containing molecule absorbing at

around 270 nm (4-nitrobenzyaldeyde (4NB)) was coupled to the functionalized surface, washed, released

after hydrolysis and absorbance was measured at 270 nm in order to determine the amine density. Using a

calibration curve for 4NB, we determined that the number density of amines to be about 10^7 #/μm^2

(**Supplementary Figure 6B-D**). This resulted in alginate gels attached to the glass surface. Indeed, the

radial contraction of the alginate gel that is normally observed is not observed when the gel is attached to

the glass surface (**Supplementary Figure 6E**). To limit swelling of the alginate gels, gels were

submersed in a sodium chloride solution (60 mM NaCl), allowing for AFM measurements to be done in

solution (**Supplementary Figure 7**). Using AFM, a spherical probe attached to a cantilever was brought

in contact with the alginate gels and the height and deflection of the cantilever was measured

(**Supplementary Figure 8**). This allowed for the measurement of elastic modulus in solution at multiple

positions.

First, sparsely crosslinked alginate gels were exposed to a high concentration calcium chloride.

Images were taken before and after crosslinking (**Figure 6A**). The characteristic increase in opacity after

crosslinking was observed. The elastic modulus was calculated at the center of the gel and 3 mm to the

right and left of the center of the gel, yielding similar values (~40 kPa). There was not visible difference

in opacity at those three points. Second, sparsely crosslinked alginate gels were exposed to a high

concentration calcium chloride solution through a large (5 mm) circle stencil (**Figure 6B**). This yielded a

radial gradient in opacity. The elastic modulus was calculated at the center of the gel and 1 and 3 mm to

the right edge of the stencil. In the center of the gel, the elastic modulus was high (30 kPa), but further

away the elastic modulus was much lower (~10 kPa). These gels showed larger changes in opacity.

Finally, sparsely crosslinked alginate gels were exposed to 60 mM NaCl (**Figure 6C**). This yielded no

increase in opacity. The elastic modulus was calculated at the center of the gel and 3 mm to the right and

left of the center of the gel, yielding similar values (~1.5 kPa). All points both before and after addition of

the 60 mM NaCl showed no visible difference in opacity. This demonstrates that elastic modulus differs

spatially across gradients formed using stencils and that there is likely a relationship between opacity and

elastic modulus.

Given that both the elastic modulus and intensity decrease as a function of distance from the edge

of the stencil, we overlaid elastic modulus and normalized intensity (**Figure 7A**). Similar decreases are

observed for both opacity and elastic modulus. When the elastic modulus for each measurement is plotted

against the corresponding normalized intensity, the result is a sigmoidal curve where the intensity

increases with elastic modulus (**Figure 7B**). The half max for the sigmoidal fit is 8 kPa, indicating a steep

increase in opacity. It appears that while opacity indicates stiffness changes, this range only spans from 5

kPa to 15 kPa.

4. Discussion:

In this paper we created an approach to generate tunable and reproducible gradients in both thick and thin alginate gels using an easy stenciling approach. We characterized the crosslinking kinetics a number of different ways and showed that geometry and gradient development time can tune both the average opacity and opacity gradient steepness in known and reproducible ways. We measured Young's modulus in both bulk materials as well as spatially, demonstrating that the opacity gradient mapped to the stiffness gradient and quantified the range of stiffness over which opacity was a good proxy for stiffness.

Opacity changes in alginate have been observed previously. However, the mechanism for changes in opacity are obscure. Opacity changes are likely due to increases in light scattering caused by local contraction and densification of the alginate network. This is likely, given that hydrogel opacity varies with polymer molecular weight, concentration and crosslinking density and high water content hydrogels have refractive indices similar to that of water.[34] Gel contraction is likely driven by minimizing free energy due to the decrease in entropy associated with the crosslinks.[35] Interestingly, we observed flow from outer edges in areas that were not opaque towards the opaque center when using radial stencils. This flow pattern changes based on the shape of the stencil. This directed contraction could be leveraged as a way to locally stimulate cells by inducing shear or compressive stresses upon the cells. In addition, interpenetrating networks composed of alginate and fiber forming polymers like collagen or fibrin could be assembled. The spatially controlled contraction that occurs within these alginate gels could be used to align or structure the fiber network in these composite networks. Consequently, the contraction may be leveraged in interesting ways. Applications that require either cell embedding or assembly of the gradient on tissue will need to account for this contraction and if undesired, approaches to mitigate it by using a stiffer initial gel or altering ionic strength of the crosslinking gel could be used.

One potential use for these gradient gels would be in experiments exploring fundamental aspects of durotaxis. While there are many examples of creating 2D stiffness gradients to explore how signaling or the cytoskeleton regulates durotaxis, there are many fewer examples of mechanistic studies of durotaxis in 3D. The Young's modulus probed in this work (0.5-50 kPa) and in particular the Young's modulus over which opacity is a good proxy for stiffness (5-15 kPa) overlaps nicely with soft tissues and the range of mechanosensitivity of many types of cells.[36] Alginate is a relatively inert molecule and many cells do not attach to it. Consequently, there is an opportunity to attach extracellular matrix molecules to the alginate to study durotaxis across a variety of ligand-receptor pairs. Furthermore, there are opportunities to assemble interpenetrating networks composed of both alginate and collagen and create similar gradients, assessing whether cells can sense stiffness gradients in alginate through the collagen network.[37,38] After stiffness gradient imprinting, different stencils could be used to generate similar or spatially distinct gradients of soluble factor to explore how cells integrate durotactic and

chemotactic cues. Collagen fibers within the networks could be aligned using magnetic fields[39,40] or

local mechanical rotation,[41] allowing to probe competition or cooperation between contact guidance

and durotaxis. Understanding how different cells integrate these signals and leverage overlapping or

distinct intracellular signaling networks is an understudied area and is absolutely critical for the assembly

of complex tissues.

Another potential use for this system would be as an advanced wound dressing. There are other

examples of systems that have used soluble gradients to direct cell migration in the hope of enhancing

wound healing.[42,43] However, to our knowledge there are no reports of efforts using stiffness gradients

to enhance wound healing, even though stiffness gradients are features of healing wounds.[14] As

mentioned above, alginate has already been used as a wound dressing, but mainly for its ability to absorb

exudate. Either attaching extracellular matrix or assembling an interpenetrating network would allow for

its use as a provisional matrix, guiding cell movement into the provisional matrix through gradients of

stiffness. The versatility of this technique could be leveraged to generate gradients that best match the

geometry and mechanics of the wound. The ease in creating these gradients will allow non-experts the

ability to create made-to-order wound dressings.

5. Conclusions:

Stencils can be used to generate gradients in opacity within alginate gels. These stencils can be easily designed and fabricated using a common craft cutter. Different stencil shapes result in different gradients in opacity that can be imprinted into both thick and thin alginate gels of arbitrary shape. The steepness of the opacity gradient as well as the maximum opacity can be controlled based on reproducible crosslinking kinetics regulated through calcium concentration and gradient developing time. Calcium crosslinking results in both opacity changes as well as increases in elastic modulus in the bulk hydrogel. Spatial gradients in elastic modulus can also be imprinted into alginate gels using this stenciling approach. Finally, opacity correlates with elastic modulus, allowing it to be used as a proxy for local elastic modulus.

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Figure 1: Approach for stenciling opacity gradients into alginate gels. A) Schematic of approach to

fabricate alginate gels. Alginate gels (2700 - 5400 μm thick) are initially sparsely cross-linked using low

calcium concentration (20 mM $CaSO_4$) in molds (yellow). A stencil is placed above with different

geometries of openings (grey). A solution of high calcium concentration (80 mM $CaCl_2$) is placed on top

of the stencil to spatially cross-link the gel (blue). B) Images of uniquely designed stencils made of

transparency film (cellulose acetate, 10 μm thick) cut using a craft cutter. C) Images of alginate hydrogels

spatially cross-linked using stencils in B) after > 1h 20 min of incubation. Images are 25.4 mm by 25.4

mm.

Figure 2: Stencils can generate opacity gradients in thin alginate gels. A) Two–sided adhesive

silicone sheets cut with patterns were doubly stacked creating a 2 mm thick reservoir to hold sparsely

cross-linked alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate gelled with 20 mM CaSO$_4$). This reservoir was adhered to a

polystyrene cell culture dish. A stencil was adhered to the top silicone sheet and the cell culture dish was

filled with 80 mM CaCl$_2$ to crosslink alginate gel exposed to the solution. B) Image of two chambers

attached to one 35 mm polystyrene cell culture dish. The silicone well is white. C) Images were taken

before crosslinking (0 h) and after crosslinking (8 h) with 80 mM CaCl$_2$.

Figure 3: Stencil shape and exposure time determine the opacity gradient in alginate gels. A)

Schematic of the unique stencils used to create gradients in opacity within the alginate gels. B)

Representative images of alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM $CaSO_4$) before (0 h)

and after (8 h) exposure to an 80 mM $CaCl_2$ solution above the stencil. Images are 25.4 mm by 25.4 mm.

C) Normalized intensity over time with no stencil on the alginate gels and with and without 80 mM $CaCl_2$

at distances of 0 (center), 1 and 3 mm from the edge of the stencil ($N_{days} = 3$, $N_{gels} = 3$, $N_{points, center} = 3$ and

$N_{points, 1\ mm\ or\ 3\ mm} = 6$). Normalized intensity over time for the D) circle stencil ($N_{days} = 2$, $N_{gels} = 5$, $N_{points,}$

$_{center} = 5$ and $N_{points, 1\ mm\ or\ 3\ mm} = 10$), E) line stencil ($N_{days} = 5$, $N_{gels} = 5$, $N_{points, center} = 5$ and $N_{points, 1\ mm\ or\ 3\ mm}$

$= 10$) and F) S-shaped stencil ($N_{days} = 5$, $N_{gels} = 5$, $N_{points, center} = 5$ and $N_{points, 1\ mm\ or\ 3\ mm} = 10$) at distances 0

(center), 1, 3 mm from the center of the gel. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 4: Stencil shape determines the kinetics of opacity gradient development in alginate gels.

Normalized intensity within an alginate gel (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM CaSO$_4$) as a

function of radial distance from the edge of the opening in a A) 5 mm diameter stencil (N_{gels} = 8, N_{days} =

8) and a B) 2.5 mm diameter stencil (N_{gels} = 8, N_{days} = 6) after exposure to an 80 mM CaCl$_2$ solution

above the stencil. Absolute gradient calculated as the slope of the normalized intensity over radial

distance for C) the 5 and D) 2.5 mm diameter circle stencil. Error bars represent 95% confidence

intervals.

Figure 5: Increasing concentrations of calcium increase elastic modulus of alginate gels. A)

Representative images of uniaxial compression testing of alginate hydrogels with different weights. B)

Representative stress (σ) vs strain (γ) curve where the slope is equal to the elastic modulus. Elastic

modulus was calculated as follows: $\sigma = E\gamma$. C) The elastic modulus of 20 mg/mL alginate hydrogels

cross-linked with different concentrations of $CaSO_4$ and no $CaCl_2$. D) Elastic modulus of 20 mg/mL

alginate and 20 mM $CaSO_4$ hydrogels before and after (22 h) adding 80 mM $CaCl_2$. No stencils were

used. $N_{gels,\ 10\ mM} = 14$, $N_{gels,\ 20\ mM} = 22$, $N_{gels,\ 40\ mM} = 18$, $N_{gels,\ 20\ mM\ to\ 80\ mM} = 7$ independent gels. Box plots:

Upper and lower error bars are minimum and maximum values, top and bottom of the box represent the

75th and 25th percentile, the line is the median and the dashed line is the mean.

Figure 6: Stencils can create spatial mechanical property gradients in alginate gels. Imaging and mechanical property measurements were conducted on alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM $CaSO_4$) that were A) exposed to a solution of 80 mM $CaCl_2$ with no stencil, B) exposed to a solution of 80 mM $CaCl_2$ above a 5 mm circular stencil or C) 60 mM NaCl for 3 h. Images were recorded before and after exposure to the solution. Mechanical properties were assessed at different positions denoted by the crosses in the image. The 80 mM $CaCl_2$ no stencil condition mechanical properties were determined from four days of experiments on four different gels probed at least three different times (N_{left} = 12, N_{center} = 13, N_{right} = 13). The 80 mM $CaCl_2$ stencil condition mechanical properties were determined from three days of experiments on three different gels probed at least three different times (N_{center} = 14, $N_{near\ right}$ = 10, $N_{far\ right}$ = 9). The 60 mM NaCl no stencil condition mechanical properties were determined from two days of experiments on two different gels probed at least three different times (N_{left} = 12, N_{center} = 9, N_{right} = 7). Box plots: Upper and lower error bars are minimum and maximum values, top and bottom of the box represent the 75th and 25th percentile, the line is the median and the dashed line is the mean.

Figure 7: Opacity correlates with elastic modulus. A) Alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked

with 20 mM CaSO$_4$) were exposed to a solution of 80 mM CaCl$_2$ with a 5 mm diameter circular stencil

(top right) for 3 h and the opacity was measured (black squares, left) along with the elastic modulus (grey

box plot, right) at different distances from the stencil edge. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Box plots: Upper and lower error bars are minimum and maximum values, top and bottom of the box

represent the 75th and 25th percentile, the line is the median and the dashed line is the mean. B) Opacity is

plotted as a function of elastic modulus for positions in alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with

20 mM CaSO$_4$) that were exposed to a solution of 80 mM CaCl$_2$ with no stencil, exposed to a solution of

80 mM CaCl$_2$ above a 5 mm circular stencil or 60 mM NaCl for 3 h. The model is an empirical sigmoidal

fit with the half max shown.

Supplementary Figure 1: Craft cutter stencil cutting resolution. Circles of various diameters were cut

into the stencil material. Enlarged regions of selected stencils are shown.

Supplementary Figure 2: Measuring kinetics of alginate polymerization using absorbance. A) Dose

response of the absorbance at 750 nm of an alginate gel (20 mg/ml alginate) sparsely cross-linked with 20

mM $CaSO_4$ (black) or 10 mM $CaSO_4$ (grey) as a function of exposure to different concentrations of $CaCl_2$

after 16-24 h (N_{gels} = 3-5). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. B) Absorbance at 750 nm of

alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM $CaSO_4$) after exposure to 80 or 180 mM $CaCl_2$

as a function of time.

Supplementary Figure 3: Gradients in opacity produced in other buffers. A) Images of alginate gels

(20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM $CaSO_4$) in different buffers (water, 0.5X PBS, PBS and

DMEM) at various times (0, 4 and 8 h) after exposure to an 80 mM $CaCl_2$ solution in different buffers

(water, water, PBS and DMEM) above the stencil. Normalized intensity over time with a line stencil on

the alginate gels at distances of 0 (center), 1 and 3 mm from the center of the gel.

Supplementary Figure 4: Description of analysis approach to quantify the opacity radial profile. A)
Representative images of alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM $CaSO_4$) before (0 h)
and after (1 h) exposure to an 80 mM $CaCl_2$ solution above the stencil. The entire radial linescan
(magenta arrow), the radial linescan used for data analysis (blue arrow) and the direction of angle sweep
to average the radial opacity profile over all angles. B) Normalized intensity averaged over all angles as a
function of distance at various times ranging from short times (0 h, red) to long times (16 h, black).
Triangles represent where an absolute gradient is calculated for a specific position.

Supplementary Figure 5: Measuring opacity changes after removal of calcium from solution above
gels. A) Representative images of alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM CaSO$_4$) after
8 h exposure to an 80 mM CaCl$_2$ solution above the stencil (0 h) and subsequent exposure to water (8 h).
B) Normalized intensity over time at distances of 0 (center), 1 and 3 mm from the center of the gel (N_{days}
= 2, N_{gels} = 3, $N_{points, center}$ = 3, $N_{points, 1mm\ or\ 3mm}$ = 6). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Supplementary Figure 6: Characterization of functional attachment of alginate to glass. A) ATR
signal from FTIR spectroscopy of functionalized borosilicate glass kept dry or wet and unfunctionalized
glass. Probable functional groups that cause the largest peaks in the ATR are denoted above. B)
Absorbance scan of different concentrations of 4-nitrobenzaldehyde (red is 0 µM). C) Calibration curve
generated by measuring absorbance at 270 nm as a function of 4NB concentration with a linear fit. D)
Quantification of number density of amine groups as calculated by the amount of 4-nitrobenzaldehyde
(4NB) hydrolyzed from the surface. The black dots represent two independent experiments and the grey
bar is the mean. E) Representative images of alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate cross-linked with 20 mM
$CaSO_4$) after 8 h exposure to an 80 mM $CaCl_2$ solution on either unfunctionalized glass or functionalized
glass.

Supplementary Figure 7: Swelling of alginate gels in different buffers. A) Representative images for

alginate gels (20 mg/ml alginate crosslinked with 20 mM CaSO$_4$) A) after exposure to water for 12 h, B)

after exposure to 60 mM NaCl for 12h and C) initially at time 0 h. D) The average percent swelling (grey

bars) and individual sample percent swelling (black circles) calculated at the mass of additional water in

the gel divided by the initial mass of the gel X 100%.

Supplementary Figure 8: Measurement of elastic modulus using atomic force microscopy. A)

Schematic showing the deformation experiment using AFM. B) Sample graph of cantilever deflection as

a function of height. C) Sample graph of force as a function of adjusted area, where the slope is the

Young's modulus of the material.