In Vivo Biocompatibility and Immunogenicity of Metal-Phenolic Gelation

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In vivo forming hydrogels are of interest for diverse biomedical applications due to their ease-of-use and minimal invasiveness and therefore high translational potential. Supramolecular hydrogels that can be assembled using metal–phenolic coordination of naturally occurring polyphenols and group IV metal ions (e.g. TiIV or ZrIV) provide a versatile and robust platform for engineering such materials. However, the in situ formation and in vivo response to this new class of materials has not yet been reported. Here, we demonstrate that metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation occurs successfully in vivo and we investigate the host response to the material over 14 weeks. The TiIV–tannic acid materials form stable gels that are well-tolerated following subcutaneous injection. Histology reveals a mild foreign body reaction, and titanium biodistribution studies show low accumulation in distal tissues. Compared to poloxamer-based hydrogels (commonly used for in vivo gelation), TiIV–tannic acid materials show substantially improved in vitro drug loading and release profile for the corticosteroid dexamethasone (from <1 day to >10 days). These results provide essential in vivo characterization for this new class of metal–phenolic hydrogels, and highlight their potential suitability for biomedical applications in areas such as drug delivery and regenerative medicine.

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In vivo biocompatibility and immunogenicity of metal-phenolic gelation

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Abstract

*In vivo* forming hydrogels are of interest for diverse biomedical applications due to their ease-of-use and minimal invasiveness and therefore high translational potential. Supramolecular hydrogels that can be assembled using metal–phenolic coordination of naturally occurring polyphenols and group IV metal ions (e.g. Ti$^{IV}$ or Zr$^{IV}$) provide a versatile and robust platform for engineering such materials. However, the *in situ* formation and *in vivo* response to this new class of materials has not yet been reported. Here, we demonstrate that metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation occurs successfully *in vivo* and we investigate the host response to the material over 14 weeks. The Ti$^{IV}$–tannic acid materials form stable gels that are well-tolerated following subcutaneous injection. Histology reveals a mild foreign body reaction, and titanium biodistribution studies show low accumulation in distal tissues. Compared to poloxamer-based hydrogels (commonly used for *in vivo* gelation), Ti$^{IV}$–tannic acid materials show substantially improved *in vitro* drug loading and release profile for the corticosteroid dexamethasone (from <1 day to >10 days). These results provide essential *in vivo* characterization for this new class of metal–phenolic hydrogels, and highlight their potential suitability for biomedical applications in areas such as drug delivery and regenerative medicine.
INTRODUCTION

Supramolecular biomaterials and hydrogels have gained great interest in biomedical engineering for applications such as drug delivery, tissue engineering, regenerative medicine and immunology.\textsuperscript{1,2} Supramolecular hydrogels are assembled by interlinking small molecules in a noncovalent fashion, for example through metal coordination.\textsuperscript{3} One such example is the coordination between metals and phenolic compounds, which has previously been used to engineer conformal coatings and thin films,\textsuperscript{4-7} as well as to stabilize hydrogels prepared using pre-synthesized macromolecular building blocks.\textsuperscript{8-10} Recently, metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation was demonstrated through the direct gelation between naturally occurring, unmodified polyphenols and group IV metal ions (Ti\textsuperscript{IV} or Zr\textsuperscript{IV}).\textsuperscript{11} This coordination-driven supramolecular assembly can be initiated by simple mixing at ambient conditions in various solvents over large concentration ranges and metal–ligand stoichiometries.\textsuperscript{11} The result is robust and adaptive gels, which can be used for controlling concurrent assembly processes (e.g., crystallization of metal–organic frameworks or pharmaceuticals), or for \textit{in situ} co-gelation of diverse dopants.\textsuperscript{11,12} While the \textit{in vitro} cytotoxicity of this new class of materials based on metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation has been studied and observed to be negligible,\textsuperscript{11} \textit{in vivo} studies are yet to be reported.

\textit{In vivo} gelation, where hydrogels form spontaneously \textit{in situ} under physiological conditions (e.g., at the site of injection), is of broad interest for biomedical applications due to its minimal invasiveness and high translational potential.\textsuperscript{13,14} Examples include thermosensitive poloxamer-based gels used for antibiotic delivery to the inner ear,\textsuperscript{15} hydrophobically modified poly(ethylene glycol) gels for ophthalmic applications,\textsuperscript{16} and cell sheet transplantation using thermosensitive gelatin-based hydrogels.\textsuperscript{17} Many biomedical applications also use gel systems such as calcium–alginate gels which are based on ionic crosslinking of the biomolecule alginate with Ca\textsuperscript{2+}. Calcium–alginate gels typically form rapidly upon mixing.\textsuperscript{18,19} While strategies to modulate the gelation kinetics exist (e.g., using calcium-releasing liposomes to trigger gelation\textsuperscript{20} or phosphate salts to slow gelation time\textsuperscript{21}), pre-formed alginate gels such as implantable beads remain the most commonly used in both pre-clinical and clinical research.\textsuperscript{22-26} In contrast, gelation times for recently introduced\textsuperscript{11} metal–phenolic gels — prepared through coordination of the biomolecule tannic acid (Figure S1 in Supporting Information) with Ti\textsuperscript{IV} — can be readily tuned from less than 1 minute to more than 1 day in a robust gelation process that is insensitive to a large range of conditions. We thus hypothesize that these Ti\textsuperscript{IV}–tannic acid gel systems (“TiTannic gels”) are suitable candidates for \textit{in vivo} gelation and future biomedical applications.

Here, we demonstrate that metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation occurs \textit{in vivo} and investigate the host response to the material over 14 weeks (Figure 1). Liquid precursors (tannic acid solution and Ti\textsuperscript{IV} solution) were prepared and filter-sterilized. The composition was tailored to achieve
a gelation time of around 15 minutes, which was deemed suitable for allowing careful injection. Prior to animal studies, the gel system was characterized using electron microscopy and Raman spectroscopy, and permeability and porosity were assessed using a glucose permeability assay and particle tracking analysis, respectively. For the animal studies, the two sterile precursors were mixed immediately prior to subcutaneous injection in the flanks of immunocompetent mice. At specified time points during the 14-week period, external and internal photographs of the injection sites were taken and histological sections were prepared. Additionally, tissue samples were collected for titanium biodistribution studies using mass spectroscopy. Titanium remained largely at basal levels for most studied tissues and time points, indicating low to negligible titanium accumulation. Finally, drug loading and elution studies were performed in vitro using the corticosteroid dexamethasone, and drug elution from the TiTannic gels was observed over a period of >10 days, which can be compared to <1 day for the Pluronic F127 hydrogels prepared as controls.

Taken together, these results demonstrate that metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation occurs in vivo, and provide essential in vivo characterization for this emerging class of materials. The in vivo response is largely comparable with conventional calcium–alginate gels. Additional benefits of the TiTannic system, including readily tuneable gelation time, robustness and adaptability, and the easy, low-cost, off-the-shelf, and scalable preparation process, make this new class of material of significant interest for diverse biomedical applications.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Electron microscopy, Raman spectroscopy and rheology of the hydrogels. Metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation occurs spontaneously upon mixing of polyphenols (e.g. tannic acid, TA) with group IV metal ions (e.g. Ti$^{IV}$). This class of material was recently introduced and has been characterized with rheological methods, optical microscopy, UV–vis spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction among other techniques.11,12 To further explore the nanostructure of the gel, we performed a freeze–fracture procedure using liquid nitrogen, followed by freeze substitution in acetone and lyophilization before scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging (Figure 2). The results show a structure with porosity on the micrometer and nanometer length scales (Figure 2a,b). It should be noted, however, that the freeze-substitution and lyophilization process may affect the pore structure compared to the pristine hydrated material.27

Raman spectroscopy has been extensively used to investigate materials prepared using coordination-driven assembly and coordination compounds.28,29 We applied a Raman spectroscopy probe with continuous spectral acquisition (with 1 second integration time) to obtain Raman spectra in situ during gelation (Figure S2), the results are shown in Figure 2c,d. When comparing Raman spectra
of the individual components (TA solution and Ti\textsuperscript{IV} solution) with that of the formed gel (TA + Ti\textsuperscript{IV}), two additional peaks, at 1361 cm\textsuperscript{-1} and at 1490 cm\textsuperscript{-1}, are readily observed (Figure 2c). These peaks increased in intensity during the first 30 seconds after mixing, and then remained largely stable during the whole experiment (1 hour), indicating that they arise due to the coordination reactions that drive gelation in this system. The TiTannic hydrogels were measured using rheology (Figure S3), displaying a storage modulus (G’ = 12.6 kPa) significantly larger than the loss modulus (G” = 0.595 kPa). An amplitude sweep was conducted to determine the linear viscoelastic region and crossover points of the hydrogels, whereas the frequency sweep showed frequency independent behavior of the hydrogels. The time sweep showed gelation occurred within 15 minutes, with the hydrogels ageing slowly over ~15 hours. Gelation, as determined using vial inversion (Figure 1a), occurred within 15 minutes and is consistent with the gelation kinetics measured by rheology (Figure S3). At earlier time points (e.g. 30 seconds after mixing) the mixture is still liquid and will not remain stationary if the vial is inverted. The Raman probe provides spectral information of a local volume (~1 mm from the probe tip) and these data therefore suggest that local coordination occurs rapidly (within 1 minute), which is in agreement with previously reported metal–phenolic nanoscale films and coatings.\textsuperscript{4} Shorter range (nanoscale) interactions in the material may thus be completed within seconds, while longer range interactions needed to form the stable gel were observed to take around 15 minutes for the composition used here. It is noted that for other compositions, gelation time can vary drastically, from <1 minute to >1 day.\textsuperscript{11}

**Hydrogel porosity and permeability.** To further investigate the porosity of the hydrated material, particle tracking analysis was used (Figure 3). In this method, microparticles are dispersed in the gel (through co-gelation) and their movement is tracked over time using optical microscopy. This information can then be used to explore the porosity and functional tortuosity of a material.\textsuperscript{30,31} We compared the movement of embedded 1 µm polystyrene particles in Pluronic F127 hydrogels and in TiTannic gels at 37 ºC. Pluronic F127 gelation is a well-established gelation system (in this study acting as comparative control samples) that is thermoresponsive and where the gelation occurs through a micellar-packing mechanism.\textsuperscript{32,33} In the Pluronic F127 gel, a particle movement of around 50 µm (median displacement distance) per minute was observed (Figure 3c). That particles can easily move around is expected as the micellar-packing structure can accommodate substantial flexibility and movement inside the gel.\textsuperscript{32,33} In contrast, for TiTannic gels the median displacement distance per minute was 10-fold lower (<5 µm; Figure 3c). The largely stationary behavior of particles embedded in the TiTannic hydrogels indicate that the effective hydrated pore size is smaller than the particle diameter (i.e., 1 µm). This difference in effective pore size between the two different gel systems may be explained by the differences in chemistry and assembly mechanism: whereas Pluronic F127 gels are composed of macromolecules (poloxamers, >10 kDa) that form micelles,\textsuperscript{34} TiTannic gels are instead
assembled through molecular coordination between metal ions and low molecular weight polyphenol (TA, 1.7 kDa).

After having established that microparticles remain largely stationary in TiTannic gels, we investigated the diffusion rate of a small molecule: glucose (0.18 kDa). Glucose-permeable hydrogels are of interest clinically, as these types of gels are being explored to encapsulate insulin-producing cells for the treatment of diabetes. In the present investigation, we developed a glucose permeability assay (Figure 4) to compare glucose permeability of the TiTannic gel system to Pluronic F127 gels, an in vivo gelation system which has previously been explored for the treatment of diabetes. In the glucose permeability assay, the gel was cast in a porous well insert (membrane with 0.4 µm pores) and PBS was added both underneath and above the gel following gelation (Figure 4a). Concentrated glucose was then added above the gel, while a glucose probe was situated underneath the gel (Figure S4). In the empty well control (i.e. free diffusion), the glucose concentration was measured as equilibrated within the first three hours, and for the TiTannic control sample (no glucose added) the signal remained low, as expected (Figure 4b). For both Pluronic F127 and TiTannic gels, retarded diffusion relative to the empty well (free diffusion) was observed. While there is a large overlap in the observed glucose concentration increase during the first few hours (Figure 4b), Pluronic F127 gels appeared to stabilize at longer time points (>10 hours) at a higher concentration than the TiTannic gels (Figure S5). Pluronic F127 gels are known to dissolve over time which may contribute to this difference. Polyphenols are known to interact with carbohydrates, and this may contribute to the observed lower glucose level detected. Nevertheless, the results demonstrate that Pluronic F127 gels and TiTannic gels are both permeable to glucose.

TiTannic gels are stable and well tolerated after subcutaneous injection in mice. For initial assessment of TiTannic gel tolerability, an individual mouse was injected subcutaneously on the right flank with 50 µL of gel precursors (precursors were always mixed immediately before injection). This was followed by a second mouse injected subcutaneously with 100 µL of gel precursors. The gels formed a solid disc-shaped mass within ~15 minutes, which was palpable underneath the skin. As no systemic or local adverse effects were observed for these first mice, a subsequent group of mice was subcutaneously injected with 100 µL of TiTannic gel precursor and culled at selected time points up to week 14 post-injection. The injection site was investigated and resected for histological assessment. Distant tissue samples were collected (including brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung and spleen) to measure systemic levels of titanium. Gross macroscopic assessment at termination showed negligible changes in external as well as internal appearance of the injection site (Figure 5a,b). The small variation in gel mass (~0.2–0.3 g) between animals is likely due to variation introduced during injection and processing for histology (Figure 5c). Gel size remained largely constant over the duration...
of the experiment (Figure 5d). These results show that TiTannic gels are stable in vivo, which is in agreement with the in vitro disassembly studies (Figure S6 and S7).

**TiTannic gels elicit a mild but persistent foreign body reaction.** After excision, gels were processed for histology and stained with haematoxylin & eosin (H&E) to assess immune cell accumulation around the gel and Picrosirius red to visualize collagen deposition and the formation of a fibrotic capsule. The entire gel underneath the skin and embedded in subcutaneous tissue is shown in Figure 6 and Figure S12. Negligible cell infiltration or collagen deposition was observed after 3 days but increased by week 1 showing a clear disorganized mononuclear infiltrate scattered with individual collagen fibers around the gel. This inflammatory reaction was then observed to follow the common course of a foreign body reaction: mononuclear cells organized into layers of epithelioid histiocytes gave the foreign body capsule a homogenous appearance. Foreign body giant cells also started to appear at the border of the gel. From week 2 onwards, areas of increasing overlap between the gels and surrounding tissue were observed. This started as small pieces of gel within the surrounding infiltrate and developed towards cells which appear to have taken up pieces of gel (based on the change in color of their cytoplasm) (Figure 6). A thin but homogenously organized fibrotic capsule was visible at later time points. As expected, most cells surrounding the gel stained positive for CD45, a pan-leukocyte marker (Figure 6c).

A quantitative time course of the development of the foreign body reaction and representative histology images are shown in Figure 7 and Figure S11, and quantification is presented in Figure 8. The thicknesses of inflammatory infiltrate (Figure 8a) and fibrotic layer (Figure 8b) follow a similar curve with an early increase and a gradual decline over time. As expected, fibrosis develops with a brief delay as a result of immune cell infiltration. On the other hand, the thickness of the overlap layer between gel and cellular infiltrate increases over time (Figure 8c), as does the number of foreign body cells (Figure 8d, Figure S13).

The above indicates that TiTannic gels are largely stable in vivo, with limited degradation observed during the experiment, which is in agreement with the in vitro results (Figure S6 and S7). However, interestingly, increasing interactions with surrounding tissue and cells over time is observed. For example, it appears that small pieces of gel break off the bulk material and are being taken up by surrounding cells, which may eventually lead to disassembly and degradation of the gel over extended periods of time. Metal–phenolic hydrogels can also be prepared by replacing titanium with zirconium as the coordinating metal.11 Exploring these zirconium-based hydrogels would be of interest for future studies as zirconium-containing materials have shown improved performance (even compared to well-performing titanium-containing materials) in some biomedical applications.37
Titanium accumulation is low in distal tissues. Coordination-driven assembly strategies are based around non-covalent interactions, which are dynamic with a stability that depends on the local environment and the time scale.\textsuperscript{2,3} For example, TiTannic hydrogels can disassemble rapidly (within minutes to hours) if exposed to extreme pH or to competing ligands (Figure S6), but remain stable for months when immersed in sterile cell culture media and PBS (Figure S7). While no large changes in gel size or mass were observed during our \textit{in vivo} studies (Figure 5), small amounts of material leakage from the TiTannic gels could still occur. Tannic acid is a naturally abundant polyphenol (found in many plants, fruits and vegetables) and is being investigated for its intrinsic therapeutic effects and its ability to enhance the delivery of drugs.\textsuperscript{38,39} The other component, titanium, is a metal commonly used in the design of implants (e.g., for dental implants and joint replacement).\textsuperscript{40-42} Detection of increased tissue levels of titanium is of interest clinically to aid in the assessment of implant status and prognosis, where increased levels of titanium may indicate increased implant wear.\textsuperscript{42} In the current study, we used mass spectroscopy to evaluate titanium levels at distal tissues to the injection site (Figure 9).

For brain, heart, kidney and lung tissues no large differences were observed in titanium concentration for tissue samples from mice which had been subcutaneously injected with TiTannic gels compared to tissue samples from mice which had not been exposed to TiTannic gels. The titanium concentration in these tissues were below 50 ng Ti per g of tissue (Figure 9). This is in agreement with previously reported results for unexposed rodents.\textsuperscript{43} A background level is expected as titanium is abundant in our environment, especially in the form of TiO\textsubscript{2} (e.g. in pigments, sunscreens, toothpaste, paints) with median daily adult intake in the UK being approximately 2.5 mg.\textsuperscript{44,45} For patients with titanium-containing implants, soft tissue Ti concentrations of around 1 \times 10\textsuperscript{6} ng Ti per g tissue have been reported directly adjacent to the implant, and concentrations around 6,500 ng Ti per g for tissues collected 3 cm from the implant.\textsuperscript{41} In the present study, increased Ti concentrations were observed for liver and spleen tissues at the longer time points (Figure 9), with concentrations of around 50–100 ng Ti per g of tissue. The overall low titanium concentrations observed is in agreement with the low gel disassembly observed both \textit{in vitro} and \textit{in vivo} (Figure 5, Figure S6 and Figure S7).

Titanium concentration in blood and urine samples collected from the animals were also determined using mass spectroscopy (Figure S8). At earlier time points (3 days and 1 week) a 5–10-fold increase in Ti concentration was observed for the blood samples obtained from animals subcutaneously injected with TiTannic gel compared to blood obtained from unexposed animals: from around 1 µg Ti per L of blood to 5–10 µg per L. Basal concentrations on the order of 1 µg Ti per L of blood is routinely reported for unexposed rodents and patients.\textsuperscript{46} Ti concentration in urine samples was low (close to limit of detection) for all samples studied (Figure S8), as expected as the metal is not readily excreted in the urine.\textsuperscript{42} Taken together with the observed Ti accumulation in the liver (Figure
9), this suggests that a possible excretion mechanism may instead be through the feces. Feces were not collected and analyzed in the current study, but may be of interest for future studies.

**TiTannic gels exhibit more sustained drug release compared to Pluronic F127 gels.**

Hydrogels that can be formed in situ under physiological conditions (i.e., in vivo gelation) are of interest for diverse biomedical applications, including in drug delivery, tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. As the results presented herein demonstrate that TiTannic gels are suitable for in vivo gelation, we hypothesized that they may be of interest for drug delivery applications. To test this, we compared the in vitro drug loading and release properties of TiTannic gels to Pluronic F127 hydrogels. Pluronic F127 gels are currently being explored as an in situ gelation system to treat otitis media (ear infection). In the current study, we loaded Pluronic F127 gels and TiTannic gels with the corticosteroid dexamethasone, and measured drug release using liquid chromatography (Figure 10). For Pluronic F127 gels, >75% of drug was released within 3 hours. In contrast, for TiTannic gels >75% of drug was released over 6 days (a >40-fold difference compared to Pluronic F127 gels). Drug release was still at a detectable level (around 1.5–2%) from the TiTannic gel even after 28 days, while for Pluronic F127 no drug release was observed after 2 days. This difference in release rate may be due to the ability of phenols to interact strongly with diverse biomolecules and pharmaceuticals, which may retard the release and enable sustained drug delivery.

**Conclusions.** In this study, we demonstrate that metal–phenolic supramolecular gelation can occur successfully in vivo, and provide essential in vivo characterization for this emerging class of hydrogels. Following characterization with optical and electron microscopy, Raman spectroscopy, and rheological methods—as well as study of hydrogel porosity and permeability—we assess biocompatibility and immunogenicity following subcutaneous injection in immunocompetent mice. We show that TiTannic gels are stable and well-tolerated, and elicit a mild but persistent foreign body reaction. Through mass spectroscopic analysis of tissue samples, we show that titanium accumulation in distal tissues remains low over the 14-week study period. Finally, we show that TiTannic gels exhibit more sustained release (from <1 day to >10 days) compared to a commonly used in vivo gelation system (i.e., Pluronic F127 hydrogels) when loaded with the clinically used corticosteroid dexamethasone. Taken together, these results provide a solid foundation for further exploration of TiTannic gels in biomedical areas such as drug delivery and regenerative medicine.

**EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

**Materials.** Tannic acid (TA; Sigma-Aldrich product #403040), Titanium(IV) bis(ammonium lactato)dihydroxide solution (Ti-BALDH; Sigma-Aldrich product #388165), sterile dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Sigma-Aldrich product #D2650), sodium hydroxide (NaOH Sigma-Aldrich product #S8045),
Pluronic F-127 (Sigma-Aldrich product #P2443), polystyrene microparticles (10% particle dispersion in aqueous solution, 1.1 µm diameter particles; Sigma-Aldrich product #LB11), dexamethasone sodium phosphate (Sigma-Aldrich product #BP108), and 12-well cell culture plates (Sigma-Aldrich product #CLS3513) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). The received DMSO was purchased pre-sterilized while other components could be filter-sterilized (0.2 µm syringe filter) after dilution but prior to mixing and usage, if needed. Sterility of DMSO and solutions following sterile-filtration was maintained by working in a biosafety cabinet using standard aseptic procedures.\textsuperscript{50} Millicell cell culture well inserts (0.4 µm pore size, 12 mm diameter; Merck Millipore product #PICM01250) were purchased from Merck Millipore (Ireland). Dulbecco’s phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), Dulbecco’s modified eagle medium (DMEM), and fetal bovine serum (FBS), were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). Absolute ethanol (>99.8%) was purchased from Honeywell (Germany). Sunflower oil was obtained from a local grocery store (Tesco, UK). Deionized and filtered (0.2 µm pore size) water was used for all experiments (unless otherwise stated) and obtained from a Triple Red water system (Avidity Science, UK). Micropipettes calibrated and certified at least annually were used for all experiments. The MIRIBEL standard\textsuperscript{51} for reporting bio-nano science research and the ARRIVE guidelines\textsuperscript{52,53} for reporting research with animals were consulted during the preparation of this manuscript.

**Preparation of TiTannic gels.** Full details of the diverse hydrogels and organogels that can be prepared using the TiTannic gel system, including under which conditions and compositions different gelation times can be achieved, has been previously described.\textsuperscript{11} Briefly, a 50 mg mL\textsuperscript{–1} TA solution was prepared in deionized water and the pH was raised to ~7 using NaOH (1 M, aq.). Separately, DMSO was added to Ti-BALDH until a final concentration of 20 vol.%, this Ti-BALDH/DMSO mixture is the Ti\textsuperscript{IV} solution. TA solution and Ti\textsuperscript{IV} solution was mixed through vortexing at a TA:Ti\textsuperscript{IV} molar ratio of around 1:2.5 for a gelation time around ~15 minutes. See Section S1 in the supporting information for additional details including a step-by-step protocol.

**Preparation of Pluronic F127 gels.** Pluronic F127 was added to cold PBS (4 °C) to reach a concentration of 18 wt. %. This solution was stored in the fridge (4 °C) to keep the solution in a liquid-like stage: at 37 °C the Pluronic F127 solution turns into a gel.\textsuperscript{54,55}

**Particle tracking analysis.** Pluronic F127 and TiTannic gels were prepared as described above to a final volume of 480 µL, which included 10 µL of 10% polystyrene microparticle dispersion which was dispersed in the gel precursor prior to gelation for homogenous distribution throughout the final gel. After gelation for 1 hour at 37 °C, microscopy videos of the particles inside the gels were acquired in bright-field mode using an Olympus BX51 microscope at 10 frames per second for 60 seconds. Particle tracking of individual particles was performed on the acquired videos using the “Particle Tracker” plugin\textsuperscript{56,57} of Fiji,\textsuperscript{58} with the output being distance (µm) travelled per individually tracked
particle during 60 seconds. The results were plotted using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, USA).

**Rheology.** Rheological measurements of the hydrogels were recorded using an Anton Paar MCR302 rheometer fitted with a 25 mm stainless steel parallel plate (PP25) and Peltier temperature controlled hood (P-PTD200/80/I). All measurements were recorded at 298 K, with water added to the Peltier hood to prevent sample evaporation. Time-sweeps were performed with frequency = 10 rad s\(^{-1}\), strain = 0.1\% and sampling rate = 5 seconds. Amplitude sweeps were performed with frequency = 10 rad s\(^{-1}\), log ramp of strain (0.01 – 100\%) and sampling rate = 33 points per decade. Frequency sweeps were performed with strain = 0.1\%, log ramp of frequency (0.1 – 100 rad s\(^{-1}\)) and sampling rate = 33 points per decade. The results were plotted using OriginPro 2017 and are presented in Figure S3.

**TiTannic gel dissolution study.** An oil bath using sunflower oil was prepared by pouring the oil into a petri dish until a height from bottom of the dish to the liquid surface of around 1 cm was obtained. TiTannic gel was prepared as described above. Immediately upon mixing and vortexing TiTannic gel components, 10 µL droplets were manually pipetted directly into the oil bath, resulting in largely spherical aqueous droplets inside the oil bath. These liquid droplets were allowed to gel for 1 hour to form TiTannic gel beads. The gel beads were then transferred into a 50 mL tube of ethanol using disposable transfer pipettes with an opening larger than the bead size. The 50 mL tubes were kept on a tube roller shaker (to ensure continuous mixing) for 1 hour, after which the ethanol was removed and replaced with fresh ethanol. This was repeated three times. During this process the gel beads were washed from oil and sterilized. This washing process was then repeated using sterile PBS (instead of ethanol). After sterilization in ethanol, tubes were only opened inside a biosafety cabinet and handled using aseptic technique and sterilized disposable transfer pipettes. After the final washing step, the beads were added into a sterile petri dish containing PBS which was placed on top of a micrometer ruler and photographs were taken from above the petri dish. The photographs were processed using Fiji,\(^{58}\) where the ruler was used to define distance in each photograph which could then be used to measure the size of each bead (~2 mm in diameter). Following this time point zero measurement, 10 gel beads were added into a 50 mL tube containing 50 mL of PBS, and 10 gel beads were added into a 50 mL tube containing 50 mL of cell culture media (DMEM) supplemented with 10% v/v fetal bovine serum. At pre-determined time intervals, the gel beads were aseptically transferred into a sterile petri dish and the size of each gel bead was again measured following the procedure outlined above. After each measurement, the gel beads were re-dispersed into 50 mL of fresh PBS or fresh DMEM to continue the incubation. During incubation the tubes were kept on a tube roller shaker. After the last time point, the results were plotted using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, USA) and the results are presented in Figure S7.
In addition to the study described above, additional gel beads were also added to vials containing PBS, 1 M NaOH, 1 M HCl, or a 0.4 g mL\(^{-1}\) aqueous solution of pyrocatechol (Figure S1b). Using pyrocatechol to initiate competing ligand-mediated gel disassembly has previously been reported.\(^{12}\) Photos of the vials were taken first with all vials containing only PBS (time point = 0 hours) and then at pre-determined time intervals (5 minutes, 1 hour and 24 hours) after replacement of PBS in three of the four vials with NaOH, HCl or pyrocatechol aqueous solutions. Results are presented in Figure S6.

**Raman spectroscopy.** Raman spectra were obtained using a custom-built Raman spectroscopy system (Figure S2) consisting of a multimodal Raman spectroscopy probe with a central excitation fiber surrounded by seven collection fibers (EmVision) connected to a 785 nm diode laser with maximum output of 500 mW (B&W TEK Inc.) for Raman excitation and collected using a fiber-coupled QEPro spectrograph with a 1200 grooves mm\(^{-1}\) grating and a 50 μm slit (OceanOptics Inc., Dundin, FL). The Raman probe has a spot size of around 500 μm and, for comparison, 785 nm light penetration through tissues (depending on the tissue) is on the order of 1 mm.\(^{59,60}\) Raman spectra were acquired continuously with a 1 second integration time and 100 mW output power using custom, in-house developed scripts (MATLAB 2017a, Mathworks, USA). Spectral processing was also performed in MATLAB and consisted of wavelength calibration using a NeAr lamp, system spectral response correction for CCD dark noise and fiber-optic probe background, fluorescence background subtraction (Whittaker filter, λ = 100,000), normalization to the area under the curve, and smoothing using a first order Savitzky-Golay filter with a frame length of 7.

**Drug loading and release.** Three samples of 100 μL Pluronic F127 solution were prepared (each in a 1.7 mL microcentrifuge tube) following the standard protocol described above and kept on ice, with the difference that 60 μg dexamethasone was mixed into each liquid Pluronic F127 sample (final concentration was 60 μg dexamethasone per 100 μL gel). The samples were then gelled for 1 hour by moving these tubes into a heating block kept at 37 °C. 500 μL of PBS (pre-warmed to 37 °C) was then added into each tube to start the elution study.

TiTannic gel was prepared following the standard protocol described above with dexamethasone added to achieve a final concentration of 60 μg dexamethasone per 100 μL TiTannic gel. 100 μL of TiTannic gel mixture was added into each of three 1.7 mL microcentrifuge tubes, this was done immediately upon mixing the TA solution (containing dexamethasone) with the Ti\(^{IV}\) solution, before gelation had occurred. The mixtures were then allowed to gel for 1 hour. 500 μL of PBS was then added into each tube to start the elution study. The elution study was also repeated for TiTannic gels but instead of 60 μg dexamethasone per 100 μL gel, 6 mg dexamethasone per 100 μL gel was used to increase the dexamethasone signal per time point to facilitate HPLC detection (as the observed release rate from TiTannic gels were much slower than for the Pluronic F127 gels). In this
repeat study, double the amount of Ti\textsuperscript{IV} solution was used as the higher concentration of dexamethasone present affected the gelation time of the TiTannic gel, as assessed with vial inversion testing.

During the elution study, all tubes were incubated in a heating block kept at 37 °C. A sample of fresh PBS (unexposed to the gels) was kept and defined as time point = 0. At each pre-determined time point, 500 µL of the PBS was aspirated from each sample and replaced with 500 µL fresh PBS (pre-warmed to 37 °C). Samples were stored at −20 °C until samples from all time points had been collected. Quantification of the dexamethasone concentration of each sample was performed using HPLC, as described below.

**High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).** HPLC samples were measured using an Agilent 1260 Infinity Quaternary LC equipped with a Phenomenex Gemini NX C18 column (150 × 4.6 mm, 5 µm pore size and 100 Å particle size). HPLC grade formic acid, water and acetonitrile were used for all analyses and were obtained from Merck. Samples were separated using an isocratic elution of 40% v/v acetonitrile in water with 0.1% v/v formic acid over 10 minutes at a flow rate of 1 mL min\textsuperscript{−1}, injection volume of 20 µL, detection wavelength of 240 nm, and a column temperature of 40 °C. The concentration of dexamethasone was determined from a linear calibration curve of the peak areas (Figure S9). Samples were analyzed using Agilent OpenLab CDS software to measure peak areas (Figure S10). The results were plotted using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, USA).

**Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).** TiTannic gels were prepared (following the standard protocol described above) in 1 mL cut-off syringe tops for easy gel-moulding and removal. Samples were cut from the bulk gels using a biopsy punch and immersed in liquid nitrogen for 1 minute until completely frozen before freeze fracturing using a scalpel. A piece approximately 2×2×2 mm in size was taken for further processing. The sample was freeze substituted using a Leica EM AFS2 (Leica Microsystems, Germany) by immersion in pure acetone precooled to −90°C and the sample was ramped to 0°C at 5°C per hour. The sample was removed from the acetone and lyophilized, mounted on a SEM stub, and sputter coated with a 10 nm layer of gold. The sample was imaged using an Auriga Zeiss Crossbeam (Carl Zeiss AG, Germany) in SEM mode at 54° sample tilt (tilt corrected) using the in-lens secondary electron detector and 1.6 kV accelerating voltage. The images were processed using Fiji.\textsuperscript{58}

**Permeability assay.** A porous well insert (membrane with 0.4 µm pores) was secured in a well of a 12-well cell culture plate filled with stirred 3.5 mL PBS solution. The well insert, containing either no gel (i.e., empty well control), or gel (either 0.2 mL of TiTannic gel or 0.2 mL of Pluronic F127 gel), was positioned so that the permeable bottom was fully immersed in the PBS solution. An in-house fabricated glucose sensor was used to monitor glucose concentration outside of the well insert (Figure
S4). After a few minutes of stabilization (as monitored by continuous read-out from the glucose sensor), 0.3 mL of either PBS (negative control) or 20 mM glucose solution (in PBS) was added on top of the well insert, i.e. on the opposite side of the gel in relation to the glucose sensor. Response of the glucose biosensor was continuously recorded over time with measurements acquired approximately once per second. Evaporation was prevented using a parafilm cover during the assay.

The glucose sensors used in this work are based on and adapted from electrochemical glucose biosensors described elsewhere.61-63 All monitoring was controlled using in-house potentiostats and a PowerLab 8/35 data acquisition device (ADinstruments, UK), controlled by LabChart Pro (ADInstruments). Data analysis was also performed using LabChart Pro. Current measurements were converted into concentration values using pre- and post-experiment glucose calibrations (by measuring known concentrations of glucose). The results were plotted using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, USA).

**Mice.** All animal procedures were performed with UK Home Office approval (UK HO PPL P6F4D9876, holder Dr Susanne Sattler) and conform to the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act, 1986, incorporating Directive 2010/63/EU of the European Parliament. Procedures for the husbandry and housing of animals follow the recommendations of the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC) and UK Code of Practice for the Housing and Care of Animals Bred, Supplied or Used for Scientific Purposes. Mice were housed in Allentown XJ individually ventilated cages, with ECO2 bedding (Datesand Group, UK) and a 12:12 light:dark cycle. RM1 and RM3 chow (Special Diet Service) were provided ad libitum for maintenance and breeders, respectively. Environmental enrichment was provided including card board tubes, wooden chewing blocks, and tissue. The maximum housing density was 5 per cage if < 25 g and 3 per cage if ≥ 25 g. No animals were involved in previous procedures. Healthy, immunocompetent, 8-10 week old, male or female mice of a previously described64 hybrid strain (C57Bl/6J x FVB/N x NOD/Shilt) were used.

**In vivo TiTannic hydrogel injection.** 100 µL of a sterile preparation of TiTannic hydrogel was injected under aseptic conditions. Mice were anaesthetized using 2% isofluorane and hair was removed from a < 1 cm² area on both flanks and treated with Betadine surgical scrub (Fisher Scientific, UK) before injection. TiTannic hydrogels were injected subcutaneously using a sterile 25-gauge hypodermic needle. Mice were maintained under general anesthesia for a total of 10 minutes to allow the gel to form homogenously. Recovery was monitored closely until the mice moved freely and were observed to start feeding again. TiTannic hydrogel with the surrounding skin and subcutaneous adipose tissue layer as well as tissue for Ti detection were isolated after schedule 1 culling of the mice at defined time points.
**Histology.** TiTannic hydrogel with surrounding tissue were weighed and measured and fixed in 10% w/v neutral buffered formalin (NBF) overnight, dehydrated in an increasing gradient of ethanol and embedded in paraffin. Five µm sections were cut, de-waxed and rehydrated in an ethanol gradient. Sections were stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Picrosirius Red/Fast Green. All reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Sections were also stained for the pan-leukocyte marker CD45 using anti-mouse CD45 antibody clone: 30-F11 (BioLegend, UK) and detection using HRP-labelled goat anti-rat IgG (Vector Laboratories, USA). The DAB substrate kit (Vector Laboratories, UK) was used according to manufacturer’s instructions. After final dehydration, slides were mounted with DPX mountant (Sigma-Aldrich) and analyzed using a Nikon Eclipse TE2000 inverted microscope or a LMD7000 microscope (Leica microsystems, UK). Measurements were obtained using Fiji and included the total area of the gel, the thickness of the layer of infiltrate and fibrosis surrounding the gel, and the thickness of the material/cell overlap layer. The number of foreign body giant cells were counted manually as shown in Figure S14.

**Titanium measurements and biodistribution.** Titanium was measured in blood, urine and tissue samples with a Thermo Element 2 magnetic sector field HR-ICP-MS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany). Calibration standards were prepared by dilution from a custom stock solution (QMX Laboratories Limited, UK) with a titanium concentration traceable to NIST SRM 3162a Lot 130925. Separate matrix-matched calibrations were prepared for each sample type to minimize matrix effects.

150 µL samples of blood or urine were mixed with 150 µL of water and 4.5 mL of assay diluent: 0.5 % (v/v) tetramethylammonium hydroxide (electronics grade, Alpha Aesar, US), 0.005 % (v/v) Triton X-100 (Romil, UK) and 2.5 µg L⁻¹ gallium (Alpha Aesar, US). Blood and urine calibrators comprised 150 µL of each standard with 4.5 mL of assay diluent and 150 µL of either defibrinated horse blood (TSC Biosciences, Buckingham, UK) or deionized water (urine calibrators and blank).

Tissue samples up to 150 mg in weight were accurately weighed (Sartorius CP124S analytical balance) and made up to 300 mg with deionized water. Tissue calibrators comprised 150 µL of each calibration standard and either 150 µL defibrinated horse blood (TSC Biosciences, UK) or deionized water (blank). 1 mL of 25% (w/w) aqueous tetramethylammonium hydroxide (electronics grade, Alpha Aesar, US) was added to the tissue samples and calibrators and incubated for 48 hours at room temperature. 1% (v/v) nitric acid containing 5 µg L⁻¹ gallium (Alpha Aesar, US) was added to partially neutralize the sample prior to analysis.

The diluted samples and calibration standards were sequentially sampled using an ESI-SC FAST autosampler (Elemental Scientific, US) and introduced to the HR-ICP-MS with a PTFE Nebulizer (Elemental Scientific, US) and cyclonic spray chamber (Thermo Scientific). Ti⁴⁷ and Ga⁷¹
were measured in medium resolution mode. The counts per second (cps) data for Ti^{47} cps were normalized to Ga^{71} cps and calibration curves plotted in Microsoft Excel.

During the period of study, the laboratory was enrolled in the Quebec Multielement External Quality Assessment Scheme for blood titanium measurement and submitted results that were close to target and well within the acceptable range.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supporting information is available online together with this paper. Code used for the Raman spectroscopy studies in this work is available online at https://github.com/conor-horgan/TiTannic-Gels

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.B. developed the overall idea and experimental design, conducted experiments and analyzed the data, prepared the first draft of the manuscript, and led the project. L.M.W. contributed to the animal research studies. J.P.W. contributed to the drug elution studies. J.P. contributed to the electron microscopy studies. C.C.H. contributed to the Raman spectroscopy studies. M.A.B. contributed to the glucose permeability assays. N.G.M. contributed to the mass spectroscopy studies. S.S. led the animal research studies in the project and contributed to overall experimental design and data analysis. M.M.S. supervised the project. All authors contributed to the preparation of the manuscript and approved its submission for publication.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

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FIGURES

**Figure 1. In vivo metal-phenolic supramolecular gelation.** (a) Photographs showing that upon mixing of TA solution with a Ti$^{IV}$ solution, a TiTannic hydrogel is formed. (b) Schematic illustrating that the gel is stabilized by metal–phenolic coordination between the polyphenol and the metal ion. (c) Photograph of a prepared gel (5 mm in thickness) in a petri dish, showing the transparency of the gel. Underneath the petri dish is the chemical structure of tannic acid (Figure S1) printed on paper. (d) Overview of *in vivo* biocompatibility and immunogenicity study.
Figure 2. SEM and Raman spectroscopy of TiTannic gels. (a,b) SEM images of internal microscopic structure of a TiTannic gel following freeze-fracture in liquid nitrogen, freeze substitution in acetone, and lyophilization. Panel b is an enlargement of the white square in panel a. Note that these images are not of hydrated gels. Scale bars are 30 µm and 2 µm for a and b, respectively. (c,d) Raman spectroscopy during gelation using an in situ Raman probe and spectral analysis. (c) Raman spectra of constituent parts and the mixture. (d) Peaks at 1361 cm\(^{-1}\) and 1490 cm\(^{-1}\) appear within 30 seconds after mixing and stabilize within 1 minute. Time = 0 is when TA solution and Ti\(^{IV}\) solution were mixed.
Figure 3. TiTannic gels have sub-micron pores. Particle tracking analysis of polystyrene particles (1 µm in diameter) in Pluronic F127 gel (a) and TiTannic gel (b). Red lines correspond to the movement of a single particle during 1 minutes. White arrows indicate red trace lines in (b); these particles remained largely stationary (<5 µm distance travelled). (c) Displacement distance measured using particle tracking analysis. Dots are individual data points and the lines indicate the median.

Figure 4. TiTannic gels are permeable to glucose. (a) Schematic of the glucose permeability assay. (b) Measured glucose permeability for a TiTannic gel and a Pluronic F127 gel. An empty well (no gel added) was used as a control, representing free diffusion of glucose through the well insert. The dotted black line corresponds to 2.0 mM glucose concentration which is the equilibrated glucose concentration on both sides of the well insert membrane (i.e. full permeability). TiTannic gels without any glucose added were used as controls to confirm that the gel itself did not induce any substantial signal with the glucose probe. Dots represent average values of duplicates and the shaded areas represent the standard deviation.
Figure 5. TiTannic gels are stable and well tolerated after subcutaneous injection in mice.

Macroscopic appearance of the TiTannic gel over time as observed (a) externally after hair removal, and (b) internally. (c) Gel weight over time measured after excision including overlaying skin area. (d) Gel size over time as measured by cross sectional area in H&E histology section. Data points in c and d indicate a sample from an individual animal (N = 2–4), and horizontal lines indicate mean value.
Figure 6. Histology of TiTannic gel underneath the skin. Representative (a) haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and (b) Picrosirius red (PSR) histology staining of paraffin embedded TiTannic gel cross
sections over time (H&E; blue nuclei, pink cytoplasm, yellow TiTannic gel. PSR; red collagen fibers, yellow TiTannic gel). (c) Example of H&E section compared to anti-CD45 immunohistochemistry staining (brown). Scale bars are 1000 µm (top rows, full gel images) and 100 µm (bottom rows, magnified views).

**Figure 7. TiTannic gels elicit a mild but persistent foreign body reaction.** Representative micrographs of infiltration layer, fibrosis layer, cell/material overlap layer thickness and number of foreign body giant cells (FBGC) over time. Infiltration, cell/material overlap thickness and number of FBGC stained using haematoxylin and eosin, and fibrosis layer thickness stained using Picrosirius red. In the FBGC row, asterisk indicates macrophage-derived FBGC and arrow indicates Langerhans cell-derived FBGC. All histology staining was performed in paraffin embedded TiTannic gel cross sections. Scale bars are 100 µm.
Figure 8. Quantifying tissue–material interactions. Measurements based on representative micrographs of infiltration layer, fibrosis layer, cell/material overlap layer thickness and number of foreign body giant cells over time. See Figure 7 for example histology micrographs. Data points indicate tissues from an individual animal (N = 3–4), and horizontal lines indicate mean value.
Figure 9. Biodistribution studies of titanium reveal low levels in most distal tissues, with some accumulation observed in liver and spleen. Quantification of titanium levels was performed using mass spectroscopy following tissue digestion. Control samples (ctrl) are from animals that were not exposed to TiTannic gels. Tissues from animals exposed to TiTannic gels were collected 3 days (d3) and 1, 10 and 14 weeks (w1, w10, w14, respectively) following subcutaneous injection of TiTannic gel. Data points indicate tissues from an individual animal (N = 2–5), and horizontal lines indicate median value.
Figure 10. TiTannic gels exhibit more sustained drug release than Pluronic F127 gels. (a)
Cumulative dexamethasone (DEX) release from hydrogels. 100% release (all drug released) is indicated with a dotted line. (b) Cumulative drug release over the first two days (same data as in panel a, but x-axis 2 days instead of 30 days). Drug release per time point (i.e., non-cumulative) over 30 days (c) and the first two days (d). The data points indicate the average of triplicates with error bars indicating standard deviation (error bars are inside the symbols for some time points).
SUPPORTING INFORMATION

In vivo biocompatibility and immunogenicity of metal-phenolic gelation

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Section 1. Step-by-step protocol for preparation of TiTannic gels

Materials

- Tannic acid (TA; Sigma-Aldrich product #403040)
- Titanium(IV) bis(ammonium lactato)dihydroxide solution (Ti-BALDH; Sigma-Aldrich product #388165)
- Sterile dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Sigma-Aldrich product #D2650)
- Sodium hydroxide (NaOH Sigma-Aldrich product #S8045), dissolved in deionized water to 1 M. Sterile filter.
- Use 1.7 mL microcentrifuge tubes (pre-sterilized by autoclaving).

Method

Preparation

1. Weigh 200 mg TA.
2. Add into 4 mL deionized water in 50 mL tube. Vortex and then leave on tube rotator until fully dissolved (ca. 15 minutes). Result is 5 wt.%, 50 mg mL\(^{-1}\) TA solution.
   a. Can be sterile filtered with a 0.2 \(\mu\)m syringe filter if needed.
   b. Note: TA solution is ideally prepared fresh as it may oxidize over time.
3. In new 1.7 mL tube: mix 400 \(\mu\)L Ti-BALDH (sterile filter first if needed) with 100 \(\mu\)L DMSO. This mixture is the Ti\(^{IV}\) solution.
   a. Note: If sterility is needed, perform this step in a biosafety cabinet using aseptic technique.

Make gel

4. In new 1.7 mL tube: Mix 400 \(\mu\)L TA solution with 50 \(\mu\)L NaOH (1 M, aq.). This raises pH to \(~7\).
5. Add Ti\(^{IV}\), vortex to mix and let stand to gel.
   a. For 1:5 molar ratio (TA:Ti) as described in the original publication\(^1\): add 43.2 \(\mu\)L Ti\(^{IV}\) solution. Gels very quickly (<1 minute).
   b. Unless otherwise stated, 17 \(\mu\)L of Ti\(^{IV}\) solution was used in the current study resulting in a \(~15\) minutes gelation time.
      i. Note: If knowing the exact gelation time is important (e.g. for animal experiments) it is recommended to test the gelation time each time after components have been freshly prepared. This can be done by simple inversion testing (see Figure 1a). For example, to test for \(~15\) minutes gelation time, add and vortex a few different amounts of Ti\(^{IV}\) solutions: e.g., 14 \(\mu\)L, 17 \(\mu\)L, and 20 \(\mu\)L of Ti\(^{IV}\) to different tubes of 450 \(\mu\)L TA solution (with NaOH already added) prepared as per step 4 above and measure the time until gelation.
   c. Note: Many compositions (with diverse gelation times) of TiTannic gels have previously been reported. For examples, see the original publication and its supporting information.\(^1\)
Figure S1. (a) Molecular structure of tannic acid. Molecular mass is 1701.2 g mol\(^{-1}\). (b) Molecular structure of pyrocatechol. Molecular mass is 110.1 g mol\(^{-1}\).
Figure S2. Annotated photograph of the in situ Raman spectroscopy probe set-up. The probe is immersed in TA solution (and remains immersed during the experiment) and set to continuously acquire spectra (1 second integration time). When Ti$^{IV}$ solution is added then this is defined as time = 0. A magnetic stir bar and stir plate is used to thoroughly mix the solution for 10 seconds and is subsequently turned off.
Figure S3. Rheological data for the TiTannic hydrogels. (a) Amplitude sweep for the TiTannic hydrogels showing a linear viscoelastic region up to $\tau_y = 4.5\%$ and a crossover point at $\tau_f = 70\%$. (b) Frequency sweep showing frequency independent behavior of the TiTannic gels. (c) Time sweep for the TiTannic hydrogels showing a plateau storage modulus $G' = 12.6 \text{ kPa}$ and a plateau loss modulus $G'' = 0.595 \text{ kPa}$. (d) Gelation kinetics ($N = 4$) within the first 30 minutes for the TiTannic hydrogels.
**Figure S4.** Schematic (a) and annotated photograph (b) of glucose probe set-up. Gel is cast inside the well insert to form on top of the permeable bottom. The glucose probe is immersed into PBS inside the multi-well plate and the well insert is added adjacent to the glucose probe. The glucose probe and the well insert are held in place using “crocodile clips”, but these are not in contact with the sample solutions. PBS containing glucose is added into the well insert and any glucose that diffuses through the gel and the permeable membrane at the bottom of the well insert can reach the glucose probe in the well of the multi-well plate. In this fashion glucose diffusion and permeability through the gel can be monitored.

**Figure S5.** Measured glucose permeability for a TiTannic gel and a Pluronic F127 gel. An empty well (no gel added) was used as a control, representing free diffusion of glucose through the well insert. The dotted black line corresponds to 2.0 mM glucose concentration which is the equilibrated glucose concentration on both sides of the well insert membrane.
(i.e. full permeability). TiTannic gel without any glucose added was used as a control to confirm that the gel itself did not induce any substantial signal with the glucose probe.

**Figure S6.** TiTannic gel beads (~2 mm diameter) disassemble under extreme pH (1 M NaOH or 1 M HCl) or in the presence of competing ligand pyrocatechol (PC; Figure S1b). Beads submerged in NaOH are largely disassembled within the first few minutes, while beads submerged in HCl or PC disassemble within a few hours. After 24 hours, all beads except for those immersed in PBS have disassembled. Gel beads immersed in PBS or cell culture media are largely stable over several months (Figure S7).
Figure S7. TiTannic gel beads (~2 mm diameter) are largely stable in sterile DMEM cell culture media and PBS over several months. Similar behavior is observed for alginate beads under sterile in vitro conditions. The diameter of each gel bead was measured with ImageJ software using calibrated micrographs taken at each time point. Gel beads can disassemble rapidly under low or high pH or in the presence of a competing ligand (Figure S6).

Figure S8. Blood titanium levels increase at early time points following subcutaneous injection of TiTannic gel, while urine levels remain low. Quantification of titanium levels was performed using mass spectroscopy. Control samples (ctrl) are from animals that were not exposed to the TiTannic gel. Tissues from animals exposed to TiTannic gels were
collected 3 days (d3) and 1, 2 and 14 weeks (w1, w2, w14, respectively) following subcutaneous injection of TiTannic gel. For ‘blood ctrl’, ‘blood w14’ and ‘urine w2’ samples were pooled to obtain sufficient material for analysis. For ‘urine ctrl’ and ‘urine w14’ insufficient material was obtained to conduct the analysis. Data points indicate individual values (N = 1–4), and horizontal lines median value.

**Figure S9.** HPLC standard curve for dexamethasone. Data points are measurements from the individually prepared duplicate dilution series. The line is a linear regression curve, and the inset shows the equation for this curve with the calculated goodness of fit ($R^2$ value).

\[
y = 29.25x + 8.12
\]

$R^2 = 0.997$
Figure S10. Example of integration settings used to determine area-under-curve of HPLC signal. Representative HPLC trace of dexamethasone-phosphate obtained for release studies. Area under the curve used to determine concentration is highlighted in blue, measured from 5–8.5 minutes. ChemStation software integration settings: slope sensitivity = 1; peak width = 0.02; area reject = 1; height reject = 1.7; shoulders = OFF.
Figure S11. Examples of haematoxylin and eosin staining (infiltration, cell/material overlap, foreign body giant cells) and Picrosirius red (fibrosis) histology micrographs over time. In the FBGC row, asterisk indicates macrophage-derived FBGC and arrow indicates Langerhans cell-derived FBGC. Scale bars are 100 µm.
Figure S12. Histology of TiTannic gels. Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) histology staining of paraffin embedded TiTannic gel cross sections over time (H&E; blue nuclei, pink cytoplasm, yellow TiTannic gel). Scale bars are 1000 µm.
Figure S13. **Foreign body giant cells.** Three representative micrographs per time point of H&E-stained histology sections showing classical foreign body giant cells (asterisk) and Langerhans giant cells (arrow) in response to TiTannic gel over time. Scale bars are 100 µm.
Figure S14. FIJI measurements for quantification of (a) thickness of infiltration and fibrotic layer (thickness = Σ / 10), (b) cell/material overlap layer (thickness = Σ / 12), (c) gel cross sectional area and (d) foreign body giant cells (FBGC) per gel circumference (FBGC = Σ / circumference). Thickness measures were taken as two measurements in each field of view representing the shortest (blue) and widest (white) distance. Scale bars in the leftmost column are 1000 µm, and the other scale bars are 200 µm.

Section S3. References
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