

1 **Effect of Solvent Choice on the Self-Assembly Properties of a Diphenylalanine Amphiphile**
2 **Stabilized by an Ion Pair**

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39 **ABSTRACT:**

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41 A diphenylalanine (FF) amphiphile blocked at the C terminus with a benzyl ester (OBzl) and stabilized
42 at the N terminus with a trifluoroacetate (TFA) anion was synthesized and characterized. Aggregation of
43 peptide molecules was studied by considering a peptide solution in an organic solvent and adding pure
44 water, a KCl solution, or another organic solvent as co-solvent. The choice of the organic solvent and
45 co-solvent and the solvent/ co-solvent ratio allowed the mixture to be tuned by modulating the polarity,
46 the ionic strength, and the peptide concentration. Differences in the properties of the media used to
47 dissolve the peptides resulted in the formation of different self-assembled microstructures (e.g. fibers,
48 branched-like structures, plates, and spherulites). Furthermore, crystals of TFA·FFOBzl were obtained
49 from the aqueous peptide solutions for Xray diffraction analysis. The results revealed a hydrophilic core
50 constituted by carboxylate (from TFA), ester, and amide groups, and the core was found to be
51 surrounded by a hydrophobic crown with ten aromatic rings. This segregated organization explains the
52 assemblies observed in the different solvent mixtures as a function of the environmental polarity, ionic
53 strength, and peptide concentration.

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57 1. INTRODUCTION

58

59 In their pioneering work, Reches and Gazit[1] demonstrated the formation of diphenylalanine (FF, for
60 which F=l-Phe) nanotubes in aqueous solution; these nanotubes were formed due to the directionality
61 offered by a combination of hydrogen bonding and repeated phenyl stacking interactions. In subsequent
62 studies, FF was proven as a minimal sequence that formed self-assembled peptide nanostructures,[2–8]
63 and this gave way to the development of a new class of biomaterials that are based on the addition of
64 various N- and C-terminal capping groups to aromatic FF or that are based on chemical modification of
65 the F residues.

66 The peptide amphiphile Fmoc-FF (Fmoc=9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl), which forms stable gels, is
67 among the most studied FF-based biomaterials. Thus, Fmoc-FF gels with a variety of properties have
68 been prepared by using different approaches.[9] Gazit and co-workers formed gels by dissolving Fmoc-
69 FF in an appropriate water-miscible solvent,[10, 11] whereas Ulijn and co-workers used a pH-switch
70 approach coupled with changes in the temperature to yield Fmoc-FF gels with variable properties (i.e.
71 depending on the rate of decrease in the Ph and the final pH).[12–15] The mixing method was also used
72 by other groups, and it was shown that the mechanical properties of Fmoc-FF gels depended on the final
73 ratio of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to water.[16, 17] More recently, Adams and coworkers formed
74 Fmoc-FF gels by dissolving the peptide in an organic solvent (OS) and adding water, and the rheological
75 properties depended on the choice of the OS.[18] Furthermore, gels formed by using acetone were
76 metastable and single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were collected. The structure showed
77 parallel stacking of the Fmoc-FF molecules with the neighboring molecules interacting through
78 hydrogen bonds and weak offset p–p interactions.[18] Similarly, studies on Nap-peptide, capped with
79 Fmoc and 9-fluorenylmethyl ester (OFm) groups at the N and C terminals, respectively, exhibited a
80 great variety of polymorphic microstructures (e.g. doughnut, stacked braids, dendritic, and microtubes)
81 depending on the solvents used to promote the self-assembly.[20] Notably, stacking interactions play a
82 dominant role in such highly aromatic peptides.

83 An alternative approach is the chemical modification of the F residues. Reches and Gazit[5] explored the
84 self-assembly of FF-based dipeptides in which the phenyl side chains were modified by halogen atoms,
85 additional phenyl groups, or nitro substitutions. These homoaromatic dipeptide motifs formed tubular,
86 spherical, and fibrillary structures in the nanoscale, and in some cases, nanocrystals and 2D nanoplates
87 were also detected. These results proved that the properties of FF-based biomaterials could be properly
88 tailored by engineering the F residue.

89 Another investigated strategy is the co-assembly of FFbased biomaterials with other molecules bearing
90 aromatic groups.[15, 21–23] This approach, which may provide intermolecular transfer mechanisms,[24,
91 25] was applied to the Npm-FF (Npm=naphthoxymethyl) donor/dansyl acceptor system.[21] Peptide
92 fibers based partly on aromatic stacking interactions with the dansyl component intercalated within this
93 structure exhibited a redshift in the fluorescence emission and corresponding quenching of the emission

94 associated with the donor species.[21] Besides, hydrogels derived from the co-assembly of Fmoc-FF and
95 Fmoc-diglycine[22] (Fmoc-GG) or Fmoc- Arg-Gly-Asp (Fmoc-RGD)[15] showed higher elastic moduli
96 than Fmoc-FF alone, whereas the combination of Fmoc-FF with Fmoc-Lys (Fmoc-K), Fmoc-Ser (Fmoc-
97 S), or Fmoc-Asp (Fmoc-D) resulted in significant changes in the rheological properties and fiber
98 morphology.[23]

99 Besides, solvent-induced structural transitions have been examined by different authors. Li and co-
100 workers[26] reported the transition of an organogel obtained by self-assembly of FF in toluene into a
101 lower-like microcrystal merely by introducing ethanol as a co-solvent. Huang et al.[27] reported the
102 structural transition of self-assembled FF from microtubes into nanofibers by introducing acetonitrile as
103 a co-solvent in the water phase. Kumaraswamy et al.[28] found that the dimensions of the FF nanotubes
104 were strongly influenced not only by the temperature and pH but also by the ionic strength of the
105 solution. Mba and co-workers[29] synthesized two organogelators based on a pyrene moiety linked to
106 FF that formed spherical aggregates and entangled fibrillary networks in acetonitrile and o-
107 dichlorobenzene, respectively. Wang et al.[30] used FF to prove that a trace amount of a solvent could
108 be a predominant factor to tune the self-assembly of peptides. More specifically, these authors showed
109 that the addition of very small amounts of solvents forced the formation of solvent-bridged hydrogen
110 bonds, which was a crucial interaction in directing fiber formation.

111 In this paper, we use the solvent-mixing method (i.e. dissolving the peptide in an OS and adding water
112 or another OS as a co-solvent) to examine the self-assembly of a new FF-based amphiphile. In this new
113 compound, hereafter denoted TFA·FFOBzl (Scheme 1), the C terminus is capped with a benzyl ester
114 (OBzl) group and the protonated amino group is stabilized to form an ion pair with trifluoroacetate
115 (TFA). Accordingly, the aromatic interactions are expected to be weaker than those in Fmoc-FF, Nap-
116 FF, and Fmoc-FF-OFm, whereas the dominant role played by intermolecular electrostatic interactions in
117 FF is expected to decrease considerably because of the stability provided by TFA.

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119 2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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121 The results presented in this work correspond to the conditions under which repetitive, stable, and
122 structured morphologies were observed. More specifically, assemblies were required to fulfill the
123 following conditions: one, to present a clearly defined morphology; two, to be systematically observed if
124 the same conditions are used in different and independent experiments; three, to remain formed upon
125 manipulation for optical microscopy, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and/or atomic force
126 microscopy (AFM) observations.

127

128 2.1. Peptide Synthesis and Preparation of Initial TFA·FF-OBzl Solutions

129 The synthesis of TFA·FF-OBzl was performed by following the procedure provided in Figure 1.

130 As the main aim of this study was to investigate the influence of both the polarity of the medium and the
131 peptide concentration in the assembly of TFA·FF-OBzl, a two-step procedure was used. First,
132 concentrated (5.0 mg/mL@1) stock solutions were prepared by using solvent able to dissolve the peptide
133 completely. For this purpose, four solvents with very different polarities were selected:

134 hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP), dimethylformamide (DMF), DMSO, and Milli-Q water. The dielectric
135 constants of such solvents are: $\epsilon=16.7$ (HFIP), 37.2 (DMF), 46.7 (DMSO), and 78.5 (water). Second, the
136 peptide concentration and the polarity of the medium were altered by direct addition of a co-solvent to
137 the stock solution. In addition to the abovementioned solvents, both methanol (MeOH, $\epsilon=32.6$) and
138 chloroform (CHCl₃, $\epsilon=4.7$), which are not able to dissolve the peptide completely, were considered as
139 co-solvents. This procedure allowed the peptide concentration to be varied in the prepared solvent/co-
140 solvent mixtures between 0.05 and 4.8 mg/mL@1. Both the final peptide concentration and the chemical
141 nature of the mixture will be provided for each discussed structure. For the formation of the assembled
142 structures, 10 or 20 mL aliquots of the prepared peptide solutions were placed on microscope coverslips
143 or glass slides (glass sample holders) and were kept at room temperature (21 °C) or inside a cold
144 chamber (4 °C) until dryness. The humidity was kept constant in both laboratories at 50%. Notably, no
145 thermal treatment was applied to improve the solubility of the peptide or to accelerate the evaporation of
146 the solvents. In spite of the huge number of conditions examined, the structures obtained under all of the
147 conditions were carefully examined by optical microscopy. However, only those structures that fulfilled
148 the requirements described above (i.e. well-defined morphology and reproducibility) were subsequently
149 studied by SEM and AFM for discussion in this work.

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151 2.2. Aqueous Environment

152 Dissolution of TFA·FF-OBzl into 2.0 mg/mL@1 HFIP/water (4:6) directed the self-assembly process
153 towards peptide nanofibers with a diameter (f) of about 250 nm, and these nanofibers align and pack to
154 form well-defined microfibrils that have diameters up to roughly 10 μ m (Figure 2a). At the same time,
155 such microfibrils form very dense aggregates with a spike-like morphology. As the polarity of the

156 mixture increases and the peptide concentration decreases in 0.1 mgmL@1 HFIP/water (1:49), the
157 density of the aggregated microfibers decreases, whereas a very porous mesh of randomly oriented
158 (bundled) fibers coexists that partially coats the spike-like supramolecular structure (Figure 2b). These
159 bundled fibers exhibit very different diameters (i.e. from &100 nm to &1 mm) and do not present any
160 kind of imperfection, as observed in the corresponding SEM and AFM images. The mesh is replaced by
161 small needlelike crystals emerging from the spike-like microstructures in 1.0 mgmL@1 DMF/water
162 (1:4) peptide solutions (Figure 2c). However, a remarkable difference is that such spikes are not formed
163 by long aligned nanofibers, as observed in Figure 2a for the 2.0 mgmL@1 HFIP/water (4:6) mixture, but
164 by relatively short and sometimes broken interconnected nanofibers. These results suggest that the
165 structure of the nanofibers, as well as their supramolecular organization (i.e. hierarchical self-assembly
166 of TFA·FF-OBzl), change with both the polarity of the solvent mixture and the concentration of the
167 peptide.

168 The addition of dilute KCl aqueous solutions (50 mm) to the HFIP, DMF, and DMSO peptide solutions
169 causes drastic morphological changes, which mainly consist in the apparition of branched-like structures
170 and, in some cases, ultrathin plates. Thus, poorly defined micrometric branched-like architectures
171 (Figure 3a), which coexist with peptide microfibers (Figure S1 a, the Supporting Information), grow
172 from 4.8 mgmL@1 HFIP/50 mm KCl (24:1) peptide solutions. However, microfibers coated with salt
173 and with abundant defects (Figure S1 b) are the only structures observed upon reducing the peptide
174 concentration to 1.0 mgmL@1. Furthermore, branched-like structures (Figure 3b), coexisting with
175 disordered microfiber agglomerates (Figure S2), are obtained in 1.0 mgmL@1 DMF/50 mm KCl (1:4).
176 The branching is more defined than that in Figure 3a, which suggests that this class of architecture can
177 be promoted by enhancing both the polarity of the mixture and the ionic force.

178 The large influence of polarity is corroborated in Figure 3c for the 4.8 mgmL@1 DMSO/50 mm KCl
179 (24:1) peptide mixture. In this case, well-defined branched structures, each one nucleating from a
180 spherulite and partially coated with cubic crystals of salt, are abundantly detected. Both the central
181 spherulite and the branches are made of ultrathin plates that, despite resembling lamellar crystal
182 structures, are obtained through the hierarchical assembly of nanowires. If the peptide concentration
183 decreases to 2.0 mgmL@1 and, consequently, the polarity and ionic strength of the DMSO/50 mm KCl
184 (4:6) mixture increase, branches become poorly defined and less abundant (Figure S3), even though the
185 self-assembly characteristics are similar to those described above for the concentrated peptide solution.
186 Moreover, these supramolecular structures coexist with randomly distributed micrometric crystals that
187 are oval in shape (Figure 3d). Finally, if the peptide concentration is reduced, for example, in 0.25
188 mgmL@1 DMSO/50 mm KCl (1:19), spherulitic-like microstructures surrounded by large salt crystals
189 are observed (Figure 3e). According to the micrographs displayed in Figures 3c–e and S3, the
190 combination of a polar OS (i.e. $\epsilon=46.2$ for DMSO) with an aqueous salt solution, KCl(aq), results in
191 hierarchical assembly of the amphiphilic peptide under study, even though this tendency becomes less
192 pronounced with decreasing amounts of DMSO (i.e. higher ionic strength). This feature should be

193 associated with the influence of solvent molecules and salt ions on the balance between peptide–peptide
194 and peptide–solvent interactions. The formation of branched-like structures is also considerably affected
195 by the pH. This is reflected in Figure S4, in which the pH of the corresponding OS/50 mM KCl solutions
196 was fixed at 10.5 by adding 0.5M NaOH. The poorly defined branched structures mentioned above for
197 the 4.8 mg/mL HFIP/50 mM KCl (24:1) mixture (Figure 2a) result in well-defined tree-like structures
198 of a fibrous nature at basic pH values (Figure S4 a). In contrast, the addition of NaOH transforms the
199 spherulite-nucleated branches observed in Figure 2c into dense bundles of plates that are irregularly
200 arranged (Figure S4 b). Indeed, some of these plates resemble deformed microtubes because of their
201 dimensions. This is reflected by the AFM cross-sectional profile displayed in Figure S4 b, which shows
202 that the x and y diameters for one such element are around 2.3 and 2.0 nm, respectively. These changes
203 are attributed to neutralization of the peptide by NaOH. Thus, strong and nonspecific (nondirectional)
204 electrostatic interactions associated with the charged end groups are probably replaced by weak and
205 specific (directional) hydrogen bonds after neutralization, and these hydrogen bonds affect the definition
206 of the assemblies their growing.

207 Notably, the branch- and tree-like structures obtained for TFA·FF-OBzl do not resemble the dendritic
208 structures identified for FF[31] and Fmoc-FFFF-Fmoc.[20] Kim and co-workers[31] obtained highly
209 ordered multidimensional dendritic nanoarchitectures by self-assembling FF from an acidic buffer
210 solution. More recently, stable dendritic structures made of branches growing from nucleated primary
211 frameworks were observed for Fmoc-FFFF-OFm.[20] The fractal dimension of the FF and Fmoc-FFFF-
212 OFm dendrimers was determined to be 1.7, which evidences self-similarity and two-dimensional
213 diffusion-controlled growth.[20, 31] However, the branched and tree-like structures displayed in Figures
214 3 and S4a do not exhibit a primary nucleating framework or a repetitive pattern for growth of the
215 branches, which are essential to obtain the characteristic selfsimilarity of dendritic structures.

216

217 **2.3. Single Crystal X-ray Structure of TFA·FF-OBzl**

218 The X-ray diffractograms were collected for prism-like crystals obtained by slow evaporation of a 0.415
219 mg/mL solution of TFA·FF-OBzl in Milli-Q water at 80°C. Table S1 summarizes the main
220 crystallographic data of TFA·FF-OBzl, whereas Table S2 shows the final atomic parameters (fractional
221 coordinates and thermal factors) together with the estimated standard deviations. Geometric parameters
222 are listed in Tables S3 (bond lengths and angles) and Table S4 (torsional angles).

223 The conformation of a single TFA·FF-OBzl molecule is shown in Figure 4a together with labeling of
224 atoms and the corresponding displacement ellipsoids. It is clear that the molecule adopts a folded
225 conformation, and the peptide group is practically planar (C10-N1-C1-C2 $\approx 173.38^\circ$) with ϕ
226 (C1-N1-C10-C11) and ψ ($\text{N2-C2-C1-N1/N1-C10-C11-O3}$) torsional angles of $\approx 86.6^\circ$ and
227 $127.7^\circ/54.98^\circ$, respectively. Notably, such a conformation does not fit to that expected for a
228 conventional β strand within a β sheet, which typically exhibits ϕ and ψ values around $\approx 135^\circ$ and $\approx 135^\circ$.
229 This feature is attributed to the formation of an intramolecular p–p stacking interaction between the

230 C13@C18 benzyl (Bzl) and C20@C25 phenyl (Ph) rings, which is indicated by a red arrow in Figure
231 4a. The dihedral angle between the Bzl and Ph aromatic groups is 33.68, whereas the distance between
232 the centroids of the two rings is 4.59 a.

233 TFA·FF-OBzl crystallizes in an orthorhombic unit cell containing four molecules (Figure S5) that are
234 related by binary screw axes, as is typical of chiral organic molecules. Figure 4b depicts a scheme of the
235 molecular packing (b–c projection) with two neighboring molecules. The existence of a hydrophilic
236 core, which is formed by the carboxylate (from TFA), ester, and amide groups, is particularly noticeable.
237 This hydrophilic core is surrounded by a hydrophobic crown (dashed circle) formed by ten aromatic
238 rings (i.e. six phenyl rings and four benzyl rings). Only six of these rings belong to the two represented
239 molecules, whereas the other four are associated to neighboring ones. Table S5 summarizes the
240 hydrogen-bonding interactions that can be considered and that involve ester, amide, and carboxylate
241 groups. The most relevant intermolecular hydrogen bond, which is formed along the a direction,
242 involves the N@H (amide) and C=O (ester) groups of molecules with a parallel orientation, as displayed
243 in Figure 4c. It is remarkable that the C=O bond of the amide group only forms a weak interaction with
244 terminal NH₃⁺ groups. Finally, intermolecular p–p stacking interactions involving the
245 C4@C9(Ph)···C13@C18(Bzl) and C4@C9(Ph)···C20@C25(Ph) aromatic rings are also present, and
246 the distance between the centroids is around 4.5 a.

247 Peptide···peptide intermolecular electrostatic, hydrogen bonds, and p–p stacking interactions are known
248 to be essential contributors to the formation of FF nano- and microarchitectures.[32] According to its
249 crystal structure, the importance of these intermolecular forces is maintained in the assembly of the
250 TFA·FF-OBzl amphiphile. Thus, on the basis of the morphology of the assembled structures and on the
251 positions of the molecules in the crystal structure reported in this work, as the solvent gradually
252 evaporates, the individual TFA·FF-OBzl molecules tend to form intermolecular electrostatic and p–p
253 stacking interactions, which promotes the aggregation of peptide molecules and the formation of
254 amphiphile crowns. The formation of a hydrophobic crown in the aggregates is reinforced by
255 intramolecular p–p stacking interactions. These interactions result in the formation of b-sheet structures,
256 which stack vertically through hydrogen bonds, and this results in lengthening of the peptide structure.
257 This process is similar to that reported for amyloid fibril formation, even though in that case aggregates
258 were usually formed through electrostatic and hydrogen-bonding interactions (i.e. p–p stacking
259 interactions frequently participate in lengthening of the structure).[33]

260

261 2.4. Organic Environment

262 Dissolution of the peptide in a single OS resulted in a turbid solution with white particles (flocs) in
263 suspension, and the combination of two OSs was necessary to obtain clear solutions and the subsequent
264 self-assembly processes. Different levels of organization were obtained depending on the polarity of the
265 mixture. Results are summarized in Figure 5.

266 Concentrated peptide solutions (+4 mgmL@1) in polar organic mixtures, such as DMF/MeOH, result in
267 well-defined microfibers (f ranging from 2.5 to 5.5 mm) with a smooth surface (Figure 5a), and these
268 microfibers tend to adopt a preferential alignment, crossed perpendicularly by fibers of smaller
269 diameters (f&0.7–0.9 mm). Microfibers transform into microplates if the polarity of the environment
270 decreases (+4 mgmL@1 HFIP/MeOH), whereas crossed sub-microfibers change their perpendicular
271 orientation for a tilted one (&458). Thus, the most remarkable feature caused by reducing the polarity is
272 the branched-like supramolecular organization of the peptide (Figure 5b). This feature becomes more
273 pronounced in the leastpolar environment (4.0 mgmL@1 HFIP/CHCl3), in which spherulitic-like
274 structures made of microplates are frequently identified (Figure 5c).
275 Notably, structures obtained at low peptide concentrations are disordered (i.e. without a well-defined
276 morphology) and are poorly reproducible in all cases. As a hypothesis, this can be attributed to the fact
277 that the organization of the amphiphilic molecules forming hydrophobic crowns is difficult in organic
278 solvents, which evaporate faster than water. Thus, a high amount of peptide molecules are presumably
279 required to form regular structures with well-defined morphologies, such as those displayed in Figure 5.
280 Overall, the results obtained in OSs indicate that the polarity of the environment regulates the 3D
281 arrangement of the sheets formed by the TFA·FF-OBzl molecules, and it is this 3D arrangement that
282 controls the formation of tubes or plates. On the other hand, comparison of the supramolecular
283 organizations observed in aqueous solutions and OSs reflects two general trends that are characteristic of
284 the latter environment. First, the concentration of the peptide required to obtain a well-defined self-
285 assembly process in organic environments is significantly higher (+4 mgmL@1) than that in aqueous
286 solvents. Thus, in organic environments peptide–solvent interactions are energetically favored over
287 peptide–peptide interactions. This suggests that in water-containing solutions (i.e. those with higher
288 polarity), attractive interactions between polar groups and water are far from compensating the repulsive
289 interactions between the solvent and the aromatic groups of the peptide. Second, the density of
290 supramolecular structures is considerably higher in water-containing environments than in OSs, which
291 corroborates our previous hypothesis. Thus, the interaction of the peptide with the organic solvent is less
292 repulsive than the interaction of the peptide with water, which hinders the self-assembly process in the
293 former environment.

294

295 **2.5. Influence of the Surrounding Environment in the Assembly Mechanism**

296 The single-crystal structure of TFA·FF-Bzl, which was obtained by slow evaporation from a pure water
297 solution, evidences the construction of a network of hydrogen bonds formed by parallel strands, which
298 also interact through intra- and intermolecular stacking interactions (Figure 4). Although the parallel
299 disposition of the molecules is in agreement with that observed by Adams and co-workers for single
300 crystals of Fmoc-FF collected from gels formed in acetone,[18] important differences are detected
301 between the two structures. These differences correspond to the drastic separation between the
302 hydrophilic and hydrophobic groups in TFA·FF-OBzl. Thus, TFA·FF-OBzl exhibits a hydrophobic

303 crown surrounding a hydrophilic core that contains all of the polar groups, whereas this separation is
304 much less pronounced in Fmoc-FF because of steric hindrance induced by the bulky Fmoc groups.[18]
305 The clear separation between the polar groups and the hydrophobic rings in TFA·FFOBzl facilitates
306 understanding of the influence of the solvent on the morphology of the self-assembled aggregates. Thus,
307 the crystal structure of TFA·FF-OBzl is considered representative to understand the behavior of
308 amphiphilic FF-based biomaterials in different environments.

309 The obtainment of peptide nano- and microfibers in OS/ water environments with low and very low
310 peptide concentrations (i.e. mixtures in which the high dielectric constant of water plays a dominant role
311 because of its high volume ratio with respect to the OS) is attributed to an assembly in which
312 hydrophobic and polar forces are equally important in promoting the longitudinal growth of the fiber,
313 whereas the interactions between the fiber surface and both the environment and the glass support are
314 stabilized by polar forces. Accordingly, the length of the fiber increases because of favorable
315 hydrophobic–hydrophobic and polar–polar interactions between regions with identical natures, whereas
316 polar groups remain exposed at the surface of the fibers (Figure 6a). Moreover, this simple model
317 explains that, for a given OS, the density of aggregated fibers decreases if the volume ratio of water as a
318 cosolvent increases (i.e. the polarity of the mixture increases). Thus, the favorable interactions between
319 the peptide polar groups and water molecules compensate the affinity between the surface polar groups
320 of the different fibers if the concentration of water in the solvents mixture is high enough.

321 An enhancement in the ionic strength of the OS/water peptide solution, which is achieved by replacing
322 Milli-Q water with a 50 mM KCl aqueous solution as an added co-solvent, results in the formation of
323 microstructures with branched-like architectures coexisting with continuous (nonbranched) fibers. The
324 observation of cubic KCl crystals and a reduction in continuous fibers with increasing ionic strength are
325 both consistent with the mechanism displayed in Figure 6b. Accordingly, the salt nanocrystals coating
326 the surface of the peptide fibers nucleate the branches that grow through favorable $\text{KCl} \cdots \text{TFA} \cdot \text{FF} \cdot \text{OBzl}$
327 electrostatic interactions. The frequency of this branching process increases with the ionic strength of
328 the mixture, which explains the fact that the definition of the branched-like architectures and the
329 presence of nonbranched fibers decrease with increasing volume ratios of KCl aqueous solution in the
330 OS/cosolvent mixture.

331 Microstructures derived from the combination of two OSs also depend on the polarity of the mixture.
332 Polar environments with high peptide concentrations result in the formation of microfibers by a
333 mechanism similar to that displayed in Figure 6a, and they transform into microplates if the polarity of
334 the environment decreases. To reduce access of the hydrophilic core to the surface, a mechanism such as
335 that depicted in Figure 6c is proposed. In this mechanism, the 2D growth of the microstructure and the
336 predominant hydrophobic region at the boundary favor the formation of peptide–solvent interactions.
337 Moreover, as the polarity of the environment is not drastically low, the apparition of irregularities and
338 defects with the hydrophilic core exposed to the solvent does not represent a severe thermodynamic
339 penalty for generation of the microstructure. At high peptide concentrations, the affinity between the

340 hydrophobic surface regions provokes aggregation of the plates, as is displayed in Figure 6d, which
341 gives place to spherulites.

342 Overall, the results displayed in this work in combination with the straightforward models schematized
343 in Figure 6 provide a simple rationale that explains the assembly behavior of the TFA·FF-OBzl
344 amphiphile. Accordingly, the morphology of microstructures derived from this peptide can be easily
345 regulated by controlling both the solvent and the peptide concentration. This versatility makes TFA·FF-
346 OBzl a very interesting system for applications that are mainly based on interactions with other chemical
347 species, for example, drugs. Within this context, TFA·FF-OBzl microstructures are potential candidates
348 to upload either polar or nonpolar drugs at their surface and, therefore, are potential candidates be used
349 as versatile carriers and/or delivery systems. Thus, although some peptide amphiphiles have been
350 previously suggested for delivery,[34, 35] their utility is typically restricted to the loading of polar or
351 nonpolar drugs. However, the adaptability of TFA·FF-OBzl eliminates the restrictions related to the
352 chemical nature of the used drugs, which gives a new dimension to this application.

353

354 3. CONCLUSIONS

355

356 We evidenced the remarkable control exerted by the characteristics of solvent mixtures on the
357 organization of TFA·FF-OBzl (TFA=trifluoroacetate, FF=diphenylalanine, OBzl=benzyl ester)
358 assemblies derived from the addition of a co-solvent to a peptide solution. Thus, the polarity, ionic
359 strength, and peptide concentration in the mixture were regulated by adding a selected amount of a given
360 co-solvent [i.e. pure water, 50 mm aq. KCl, or an organic solvent (OS)] to a concentrated peptide
361 solution in hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP), DMF, DMSO, or water. Although polar aqueous
362 environments tended to promote the growth of fibers, which were found to co-exist with branched-like
363 microstructures if Milli-Q water was replaced by 50 mm KCl, nonpolar environments obtained by
364 mixing two OSs preferred peptide assemblies organized in plates and spherulites.

365 The X-ray diffractograms collected for single crystals of TFA·FF-OBzl revealed a segregated
366 distribution of the hydrophilic and hydrophobic regions. More specifically, the carboxylate (from TFA),
367 amide, and ester (both from FF-OBzl) groups were separated from a highly polar core stabilized through
368 hydrogen- bonding interactions, and this core was found to be ringed by a hydrophobic crown involving
369 ten aromatic rings. This unique organization enabled us to explain the influence of the solvent mixture
370 properties on peptide assembly. Thus, growth of the peptide structure and exposure of the hydrophilic or
371 hydrophobic region were simply determined by the formation of favorable peptide–solvent interactions
372 at the surface.

373 Tuning the structure of TFA·FF-OBzl by changing the solvents used in the mixture is a very attractive
374 feature to expand the potential utility of peptide assemblies in different fields, for example, as molecular
375 carriers and delivery systems. Thus, both polar and nonpolar compounds could be easily loaded on
376 TFA·FF-OBzl microstructures by regulating the assembly through the solvents used in the mixture.

377

378 **EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

379

380 **General Methods**

381 Melting points were determined with a Gallenkamp apparatus and are uncorrected. IR spectra were
382 registered with a Nicolet Avatar 360 FTIR spectrophotometer; the ν_{\max} values are given for the main
383 absorption bands. ^1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR spectra were recorded with a Bruker AV-400 or ARX-300
384 instrument at room temperature by using the residual solvent signal as the internal standard. Chemical
385 shifts (δ) are expressed in ppm, and coupling constants (J) are expressed in Hertz. Optical rotations were
386 measured with a JASCO P-1020 polarimeter. High-resolution mass spectra were obtained with a Bruker
387 Microtof-Q spectrometer.

388 Peptide Synthesis and Characterization Boc-FF-OBzl (3): HOBt·xH₂O (1.01 g, 6.6 mmol) was added to
389 a solution of Boc-F-OH (1; 1.75 g, 6.6 mmol) in dichloromethane (15 mL) cooled to 0 °C in an ice bath,
390 and this was followed by the addition of EDC·HCl (1.27 g, 6.6 mmol). The mixture was stirred for 15
391 min, and then a solution of H-F-OR 2 (6.0 mmol) [obtained by the addition of DIPEA (1.25 mL, 7.2
392 mmol) to the TFA salt of 2] in dichloromethane (5 mL) and additional DIPEA (1.15 mL, 6.6 mmol)
393 were added. The mixture was stirred for 1 h at 0 °C and then at room temperature for 24 h. The mixture
394 was washed with 5% aq. NaHCO₃ (3×15 mL) and 5% aq. KHSO₄ (3×15 mL). The organic phase was
395 dried with anhydrous magnesium sulfate and evaporated to dryness. The resulting solid was suspended
396 in a diethyl ether/n-hexane mixture and was filtered under reduced pressure to provide 3 as a white solid.
397 Yield: 90%; m.p. 180–181 °C; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} = -17.7$ ($c=0.33$ in methanol); ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃):
398 δ =1.32 (s, 9H), 2.92–3.02 (m, 4H), 4.21–4.30 (m, 1H), 4.72–4.76 (m, 1H), 4.86 (br s, 1H), 5.02 (s, 2H),
399 6.20 (d, $J=7.6$ Hz, 1H), 6.81–6.83 (m, 2H), 7.07–7.14 (m, 5H), 7.16–7.21 (m, 5H), 7.26–7.32 ppm (m,
400 3H); ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): δ =28.36, 38.07, 38.43, 53.44, 55.82, 67.35, 80.32, 127.11, 127.19,
401 128.65, 128.67, 128.70, 128.74, 128.79, 129.41, 129.49, 135.14, 135.61, 136.62, 155.39, 170.85, 170.90
402 ppm; IR (KBr): $\tilde{\nu}$ =3332, 1741, 1696, 1681 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI): m/z : calcd for C₃₀H₃₄N₂NaO₅:
403 525.2360 [M+Na]⁺; found: 525.2375.

404 For tert-butoxycarbonyl (Boc) deprotection, a solution of the corresponding Boc-protected compound in
405 dichloromethane was treated with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA-H; 15 equiv.), and the mixture was stirred at
406 room temperature for 1 h. After evaporation of the solvent, the residue was suspended in a diethyl
407 ether/n-hexane mixture and filtered under reduced pressure to provide the corresponding TFA salt as a
408 white solid in quantitative yield.

409 TFA·FF-OBzl (4): According to the general Boc-deprotection procedure, TFA (2 mL) was added to a
410 solution of 3 (2.0 mmol) in dichloromethane (20 mL) to provide corresponding TFA salt 4 (Figure S6)
411 in quantitative yield. M.p. 290–292 °C (decomp.); $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{20} = +18.2$ ($c=0.36$ in acetic acid); ^1H NMR
412 (400 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ = 2.90 (dd, $J=14.2$ Hz, $J=8.3$ Hz, 1H), 3.02 (dd, $J=13.9$ Hz, $J=8.1$ Hz, 1H),
413 3.08–3.13 (m, 2H), 4.05–4.13 (m, 1H), 4.63–4.69 (m, 1H), 5.06–5.14 (m, 2H), 7.22–7.38 (m, 15H),
414 8.23 (br s, 2H), 9.15 ppm (d, $J=7.5$ Hz, 1H); ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ =36.79, 36.99, 53.21,

415 54.03, 66.37, 111.85, 114.77, 117.68, 120.60, 126.80, 127.19, 128.09, 128.20, 128.45, 128.54, 129.18,
416 129.59, 134.79, 135.60, 136.65, 158.05, 158.40, 158.75, 159.10, 168.43, 170.71 ppm; IR (KBr): $\tilde{\nu}$ =
417 3342, 1725, 1695, 1662 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI): m/z: calcd for C₂₅H₂₆N₂NaO₃: 425.1836 [M+Na]⁺;
418 found: 425.1821.

419

420 **Sample Preparation**

421 Peptide-containing solutions (25 or 100 mL) were prepared from 5 mgmL⁻¹ stock solutions by using
422 HFIP, DMF, DMSO, and Milli-Q water as solvents. The peptide concentration was reduced by adding
423 Milli-Q water, MeOH, or CHCl₃ as co-solvent to a given stock solution. More specifically, peptide
424 concentrations of 4.8, 4.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0.3, 0.25, and 0.1 mgmL⁻¹ were obtained by using 24:1, 4:1, 4:6,
425 1:4, 3:47, 1:19, and 1:49 solvent/co-solvent ratios, respectively. On the other hand, the 50 mm aq. KCl
426 solution was used as a co-solvent to modify the ionic strength. Finally, 10 or 20 mL aliquots were placed
427 on microscope coverslips and kept at room temperature (25 °C) or inside a cold chamber (4 °C) until
428 dryness. All organic solvents were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich, Fisher Scientific, and Scharlab.

429

430 **Optical Microscopy**

431 Morphological observations were performed by using a Zeiss Axioskop 40 microscope. Micrographs
432 were taken with a Zeiss Axios-Cam MRC5 digital camera.

433

434 **Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)**

435 SEM studies were performed with a Focussed Ion Beam Zeiss Neon 40 scanning electron microscope
436 operating at 5 kV and equipped with an EDX spectroscopy system. Samples were mounted on a double-
437 sided adhesive carbon disc and were sputter coated with a thin layer of carbon to prevent sample
438 charging problems.

439

440 **Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)**

441 Topographic AFM images were obtained by using either a Dimension 3100 Nanoman AFM or a
442 Multimode, both from Veeco (Nano- Scope IV controller), under ambient conditions in tapping mode.
443 AFM measurements were performed on various parts of the morphologies, which produced reproducible
444 images similar to those displayed in this work. Scan window sizes ranged from 5V5 to 80V80 nm².

445

446 **Crystallization and X-ray Diffraction**

447 Colorless prism-like crystals (0.010 mm V 0.020 mm V 0.100 mm) were obtained by slow evaporation
448 at 80°C of a 0.415 mgmL⁻¹ solution of TFA·FF-OBzl in MQ-grade water and were used for X-ray
449 diffraction analysis. The X-ray intensity data were measured with a D8 Venture system equipped with a
450 multilayer monochromator and a Cu microfocus (λ =1.54178 Å).

451 The frames were integrated with the Bruker SAINT software package by using a narrow-frame
452 algorithm. Integration of the data using an orthorhombic unit cell yielded a total of 13671 reflections to
453 a maximum q angle of 79.258 (0.78 \AA resolution), of which 5037 were independent (average redundancy
454 2.714, completeness= 95.0%, $R_{\text{int}}=4.97\%$, $R_{\text{sig}}=5.67\%$) and 4499 (89.32%) were greater than $2s(F_2)$.
455 The final cell constants of $a=5.8856(3)$ \AA , $b=18.5677(9)$ \AA , $c=23.0370(11)$ \AA , and volume= $2517.5(2)$ \AA^3
456 are based upon the refinement of the xyz centroids of reflections above $2q$ $s(I)$. Data were corrected for
457 absorption effects by using the multiscan method (SADABS). The calculated minimum and maximum
458 transmission coefficients (based on crystal size) are 0.6156 and 0.7461.

459 The structure was solved and refined by using the Bruker SHELXTL software package by using the
460 P212121 space group with $Z=4$ for the formula unit, $\text{C}_{27}\text{H}_{27}\text{F}_3\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$. The final anisotropic full-matrix
461 least-squares refinement on F_2 with 335 variables converged at $R_1=4.26\%$ for the observed data and
462 $wR_2=14.04\%$ for all data. The goodness-of-fit was 1.032. The largest peak in the final difference
463 electron density synthesis was 0.289 $\text{e}\text{\AA}^{-3}$, and the largest hole was -0.257 $\text{e}\text{\AA}^{-3}$ with a root-mean
464 square deviation of 0.059 $\text{e}\text{\AA}^{-3}$. On the basis of the final model, the calculated density was 1.363
465 gcm^{-3} and $F(000)$ was 1080 e.

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471
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476

477 **Keywords:** fibers · hydrophilic core · nanostructures · peptide materials · stacking interactions

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- 532

533 **Legends to figures**

534

535 **Scheme 1.** Chemical structure of TFA·FF-OBzl.

536

537 **Figure. 1** Scheme for the reactions used to obtain TFA·FF-OBzl. Reagents and conditions: a) N-[3-
538 (dimethylamino)-propyl]-N'-ethylcarbodiimide (EDC), 1-hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBt), N,N-
539 diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA), CH₂Cl₂, 0°C, 30 min, then RT, 24 h; b) TFA, CH₂Cl₂, RT, 1 h.

540

541 **Scheme 2.** Synthesis of 2-methoxy-6-oxo-1,4,5,6 tetrahydropyridin-3-carbonitriles 1a–d.

542

543 **Figure. 2** Representative SEM and AFM (height) images of the structures derived from TFA·FF-OBzl
544 solutions in a) 2.0 mgmL@1 HFIP/water (4:6) at 48°C, b) 0.1 mgmL@1 HFIP/water (1:4) at room
545 temperature, and c) 1.0 mgmL@1 DMF/water (1:4) at room temperature. The shape and hierarchical
546 self-assembly change with the polarity of the solvent mixture and the peptide concentration. Red circles
547 in panel c indicate broken nanofibers. 7a.

548

549 **Figure. 3** Representative SEM and AFM (height) images of the branched structures obtained at room
550 temperature from TFA·FF-OBzl dissolved in a) 4.8 mgmL@1 HFIP/50 mm KCl (24:1), b) 1.0
551 mgmL@1 DMF/50 mm KCl (1:4), c) 4.8 mgmL@1 DMSO/50 mm KCl (24:1), d) 2.0 mgmL@1
552 DMSO/50 mm KCl (4:6), and e) 0.25 mgmL@1 DMSO/50 mm KCl (1:19).

553

554 **Figure. 4** a) Scheme of the TFA·FF-OBzl molecule with displacement ellipsoids drawn at the 50%
555 probability level. H atoms are drawn as circles with arbitrary radii. b) View along the c axis showing the
556 packing of two molecules related by a binary screw axis. Dashed circle points out the aromatic rings that
557 are disposed around the inner hydrophilic part. H atoms are omitted for clarity. c) Scheme showing the
558 intermolecular hydrogen bonds established between neighboring chains along the a axis.

559

560 **Figure. 5** Representative SEM and AFM (height) images of the structures obtained at room temperature
561 from TFA·FF-OBzl dissolved in a) 4.0 mgmL@1 DMF/MeOH, b) 4.0 mgmL@1 HFIP/MeOH, and c)
562 4.0 mgmL@1 HFIP/CHCl₃. Fiber-like organizations evolve into plate-like organizations with
563 decreasing polarity of the medium. The dielectric constants of DMF, HFIP, MeOH, and CHCl₃ are
564 $\epsilon=37.2$, 16.7, 32.6, and 4.7, respectively.

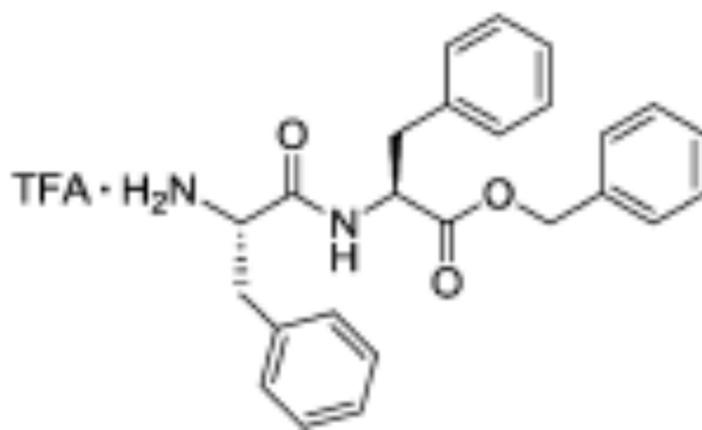
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566 **Figure. 6** Schemes explaining the self-assembly and aggregation of TFA·FFOBzl under different
567 conditions considering the hydrophilic (blue) and hydrophobic (red) regions observed in the
568 corresponding X-ray structure (Figure 4): a) fibers, b) branched fibers, c) plates, and d) spherulites.

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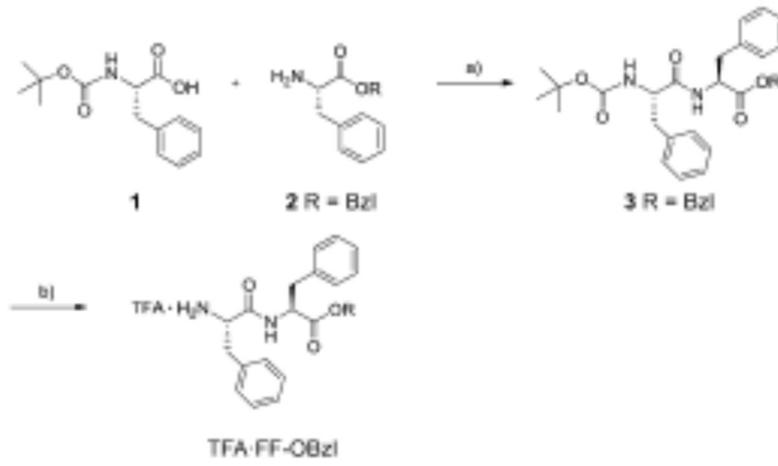
SCHEME 1



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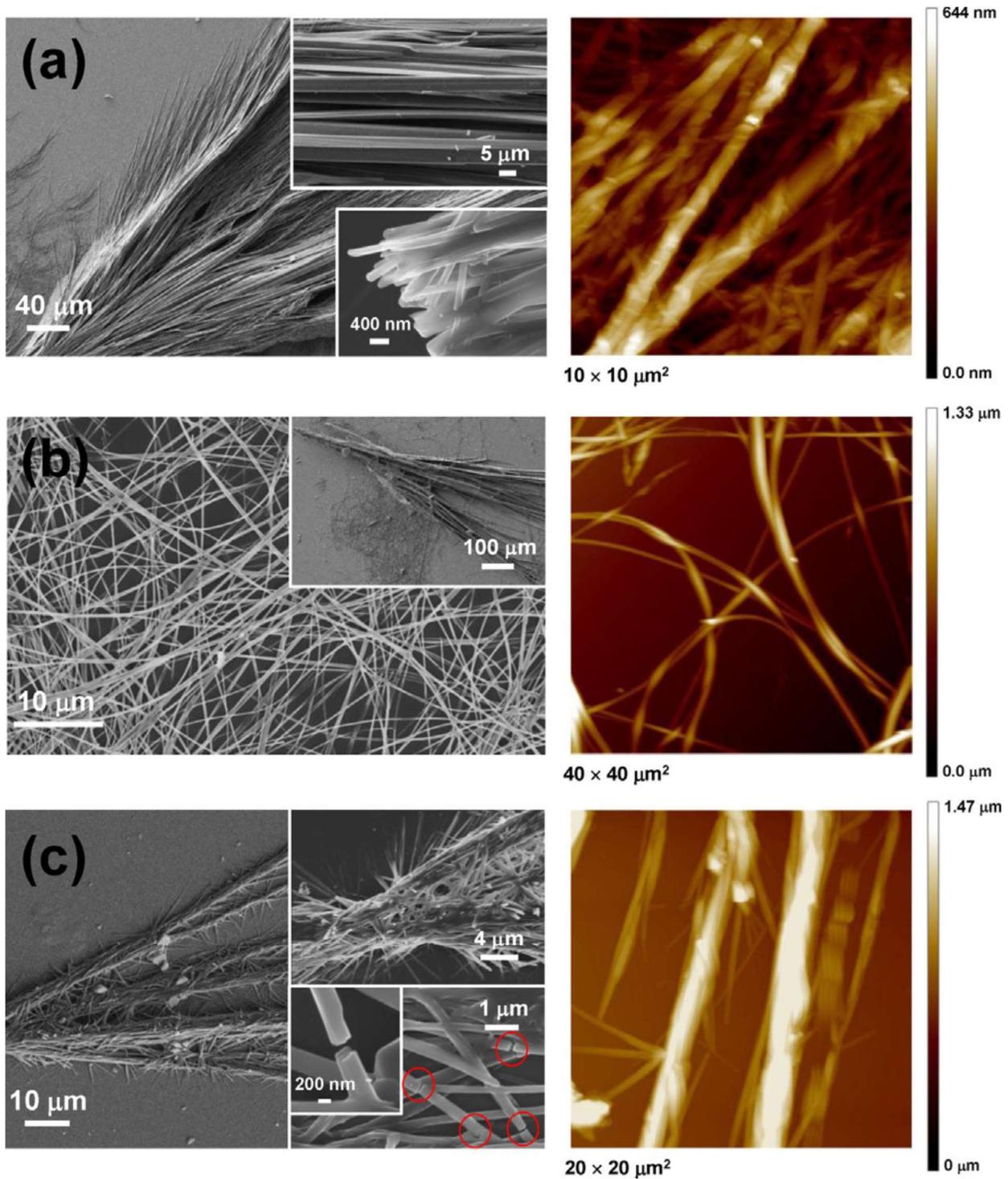
FIGURE 1



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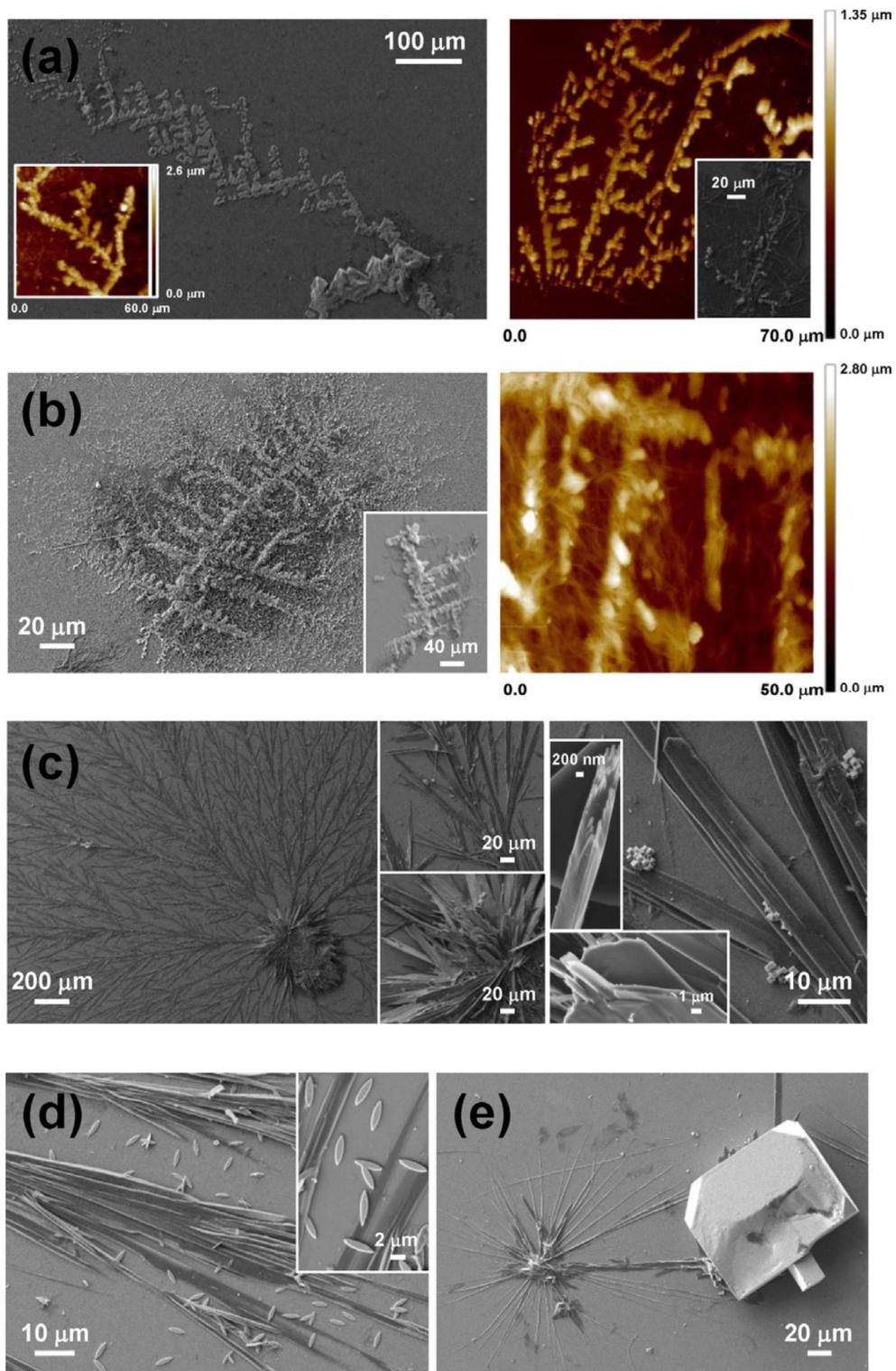
FIGURE 2



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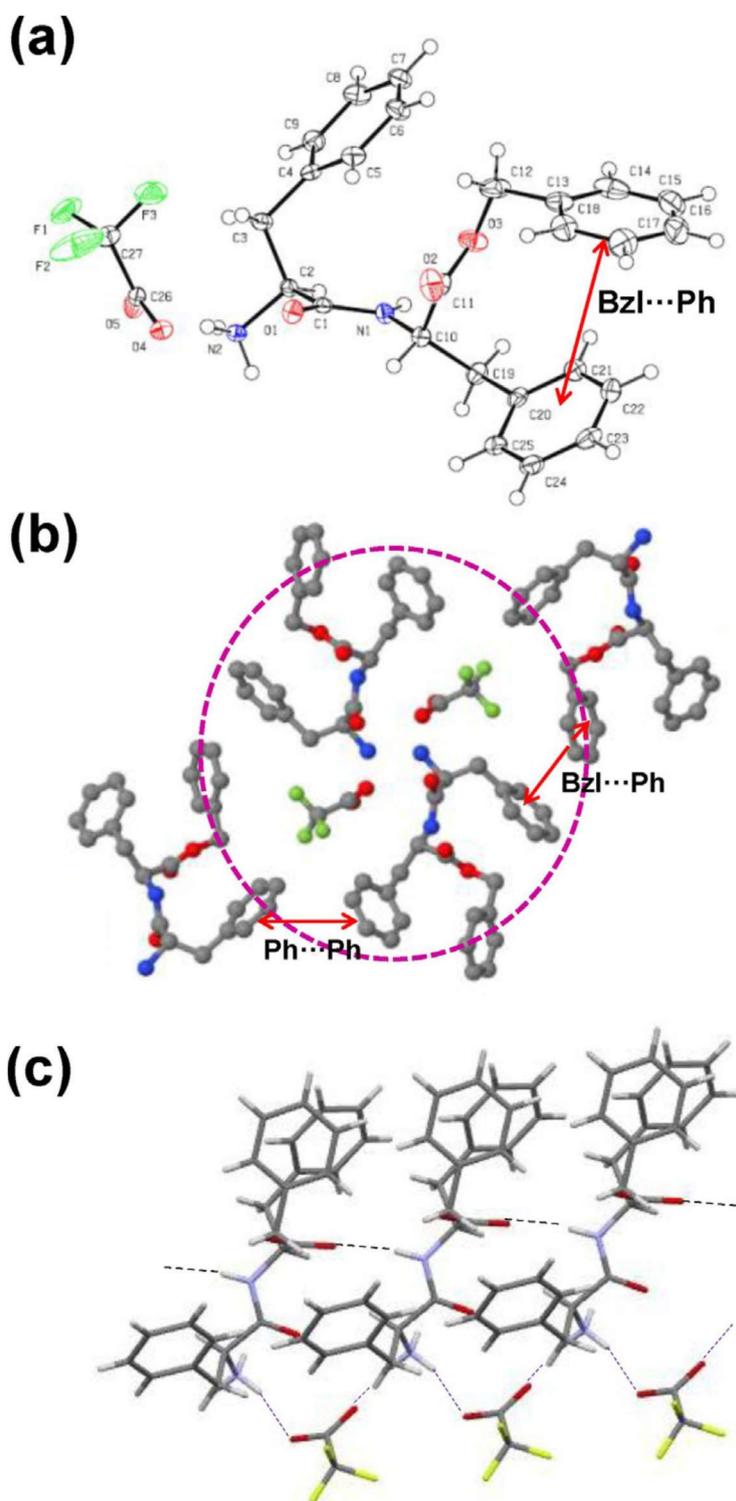
FIGURE 3



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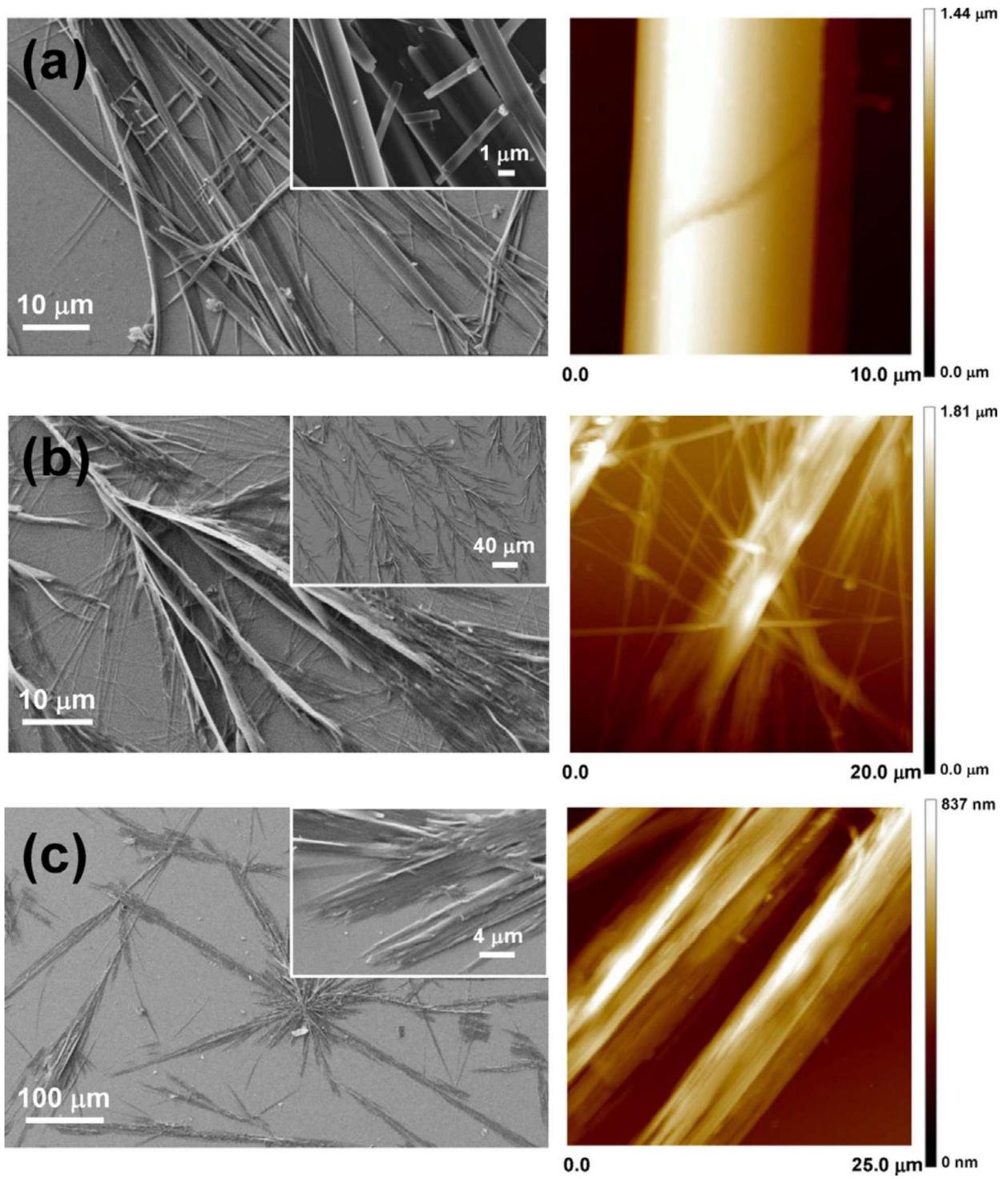
FIGURE 4



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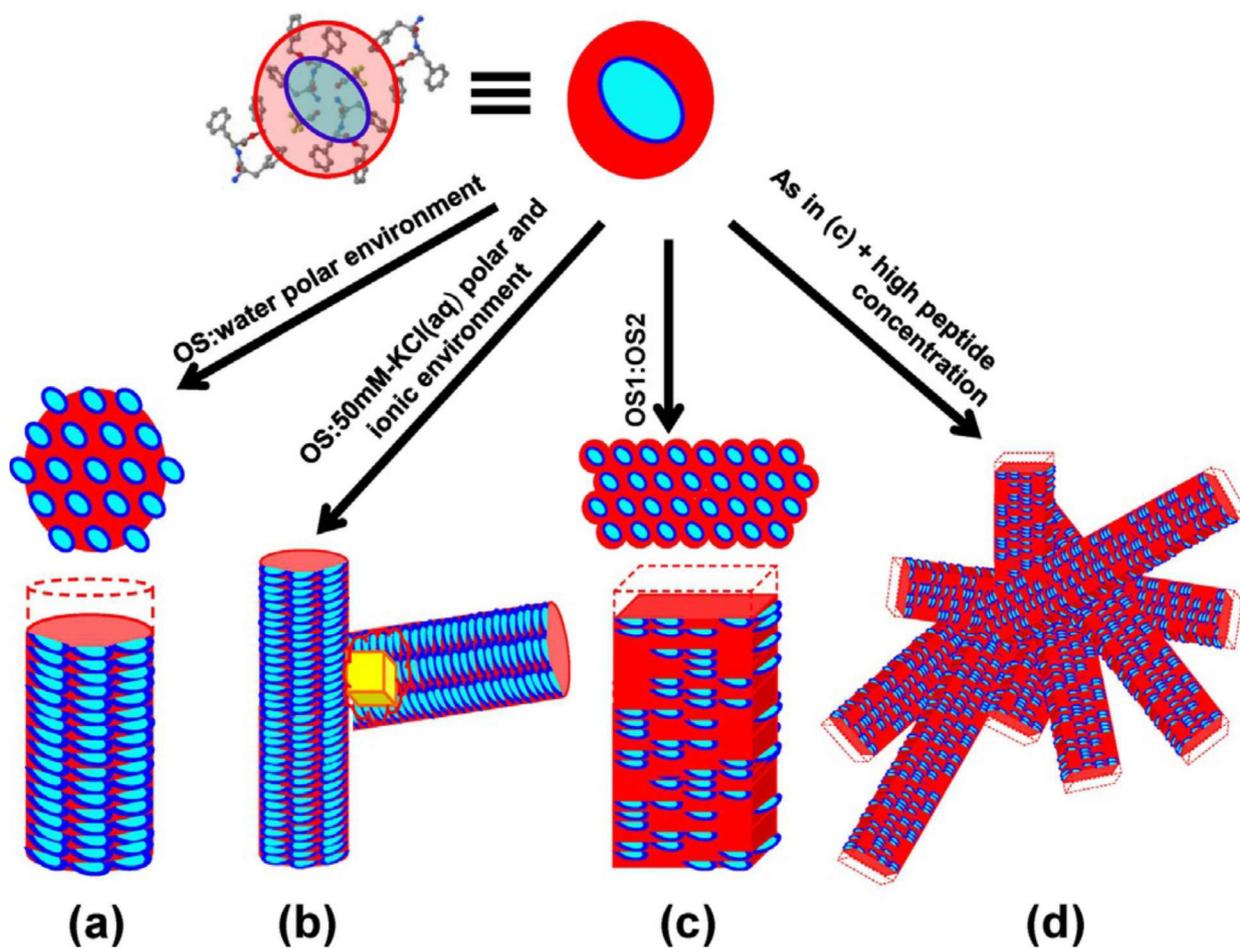
FIGURE 5



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FIGURE 6



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