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1 **Next generation protein-based materials capture and preserve**
2 **projectiles from supersonic impacts**

3

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Extreme energy dissipating materials are essential for a range of applications. The military and police
20 force require ballistic armour to ensure the safety of their personnel, while the aerospace industry
21 requires materials that enable the capture, preservation and study of hypervelocity projectiles.
22 However, current industry standards display at least one inherent limitation, such as weight,
23 breathability, stiffness, durability and failure to preserve captured projectiles. To resolve these
24 limitations we have turned to nature, utilising proteins that have evolved over millennia to enable
25 effective energy dissipation. Specifically, a recombinant form of the mechanosensitive protein talin
26 was incorporated into a monomeric unit and crosslinked, resulting in the production of the first
27 reported example of a talin shock absorbing material (TSAM). When subjected to 1.5 km/s supersonic
28 shots, TSAMs were shown not only to absorb the impact, but to capture/preserve the projectile.

29

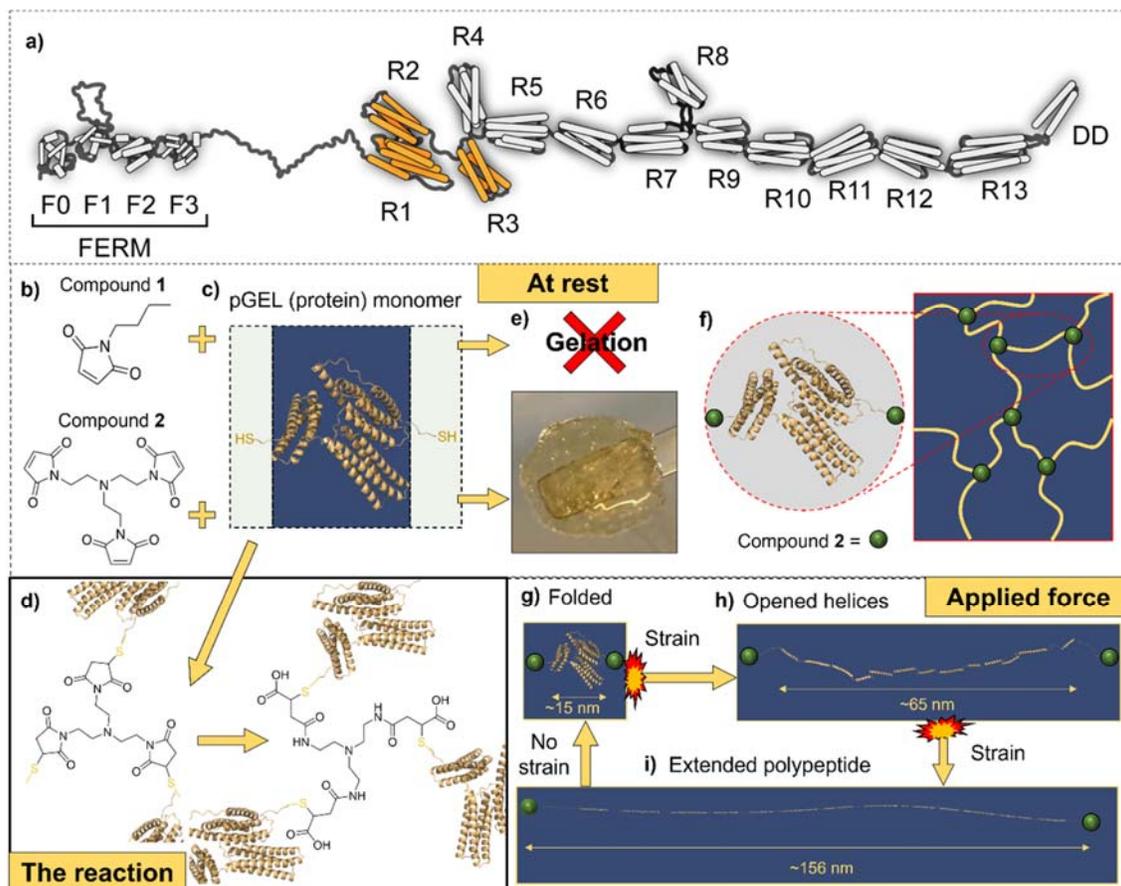
30 Main

31 When impacted by a projectile, a material is exposed to a variety of phenomena
32 simultaneously. To survive the impact a material must contend with wave propagation (elastic, shock
33 and plastic), fragmentation, perforation and spallation¹. Thus, installing a mechanism within a material
34 to enable effective energy dissipation is essential for multiple applications²⁻⁴. Body armour is
35 commonly used by military and civilian forces to protect the wearer against penetration from
36 projectiles, such as bullets or shrapnel⁴. Frequently, this armour consists of a multi-layered system,
37 commonly a ceramic face backed by a fibre-reinforced composite⁵. This multi-layered design enables
38 the hard brittle ceramic to destroy the projectile tip, in turn distributing the kinetic energy over the
39 backing which reflects the tensile wave and captures the shattered ceramic⁶. Despite the effective
40 penetration blocking of these armour systems, a remainder of the kinetic energy is still distributed to
41 the wearer, often resulting in behind armour blunt trauma⁷. Furthermore, during impacts this form of
42 armour is irreversibly damaged, compromising its structural integrity for further use. The aerospace
43 sector utilise impact energy dissipating materials for the unique task of capture and preservation of
44 space debris, space dust and micrometeoroids⁸. These captured projectiles contribute towards our
45 understanding of the local environments of aerospace equipment, including that of the international
46 space station⁹. Data from these experiments facilitate aerospace equipment design, improving the
47 safety of astronauts and the longevity of costly aerospace equipment. Aerogels are the current
48 industry standard for projectile capture and preservation, achieving energy dissipation through
49 conversion of projectile kinetic energy into both mechanical and thermal energy¹⁰. However, the
50 resulting temperature elevation, further enhanced by the remarkable insulating properties of
51 aerogel¹¹, can cause the aerogel structure to melt¹⁰. Furthermore, these elevated temperatures may
52 compromise the structure of the captured projectiles, altering its chemical composition^{10, 12}. This
53 thermal and mechanical energy, causes chemical bond breakage, rendering the aerogel irreversibly
54 damaged post-impact. It is apparent from the aforementioned examples that a material utilising an
55 energy dissipation mechanism that reforms following the removal of force would alleviate inherent
56 issues seen with the industry standard materials. Additionally, specifically for the aerospace sector,
57 energy dissipation that does not result in the conversion of kinetic to thermal energy would be
58 beneficial.

59 Within the animal kingdom, proteins that offer unique mechanical properties are rife; silk
60 fibroin displays modifiable macroscale properties in its assembled fibre form, while elastin instils
61 elasticity in animal tissues¹³. Although there are many proteins analogous to these examples, very few
62 researchers have tapped into these natural resources for development of materials with novel
63 mechanical properties¹⁴⁻¹⁶; even fewer have tested these materials for real world applications outside
64 of the biomedical sector¹³. Talin (Fig. 1a) is the epitome of a mechanical protein, mediating the
65 connection between the actin cytoskeleton and the integrin extracellular matrix receptors, acting as
66 a mechanosensor. Previous work determined that, through unfolding/refolding events of its thirteen
67 four/five helical rod domains^{17, 18, 19, 20} when stretched within the physiologically relevant range, talin
68 is able to maintain the average force experienced by the protein below 10 pN¹⁸. Furthermore, upon
69 removal of force, refolding of the talin rod domains occur with high fidelity over numerous force
70 cycles¹⁸ confirming talin as a cellular shock absorber.

71 Here, we have engineered a recombinant form of talin, termed pGEL, which comprises three
72 rod domains of talin, R1-R3, that are modified (with internal cysteine residues mutated to serine and

73 cysteine residues introduced at either end of the protein) for use as the monomer with which to form
 74 a polymer. When exposed to force, these three domains provide a stepwise unfolding, with the wild
 75 type domains exhibiting threshold unfolding forces of 20, 15 and 5 pN respectively¹⁸. We hypothesised
 76 that, upon application of force (i.e. shear strain or impact), the three rod domains within each protein
 77 monomer would unfold, dissipating energy through the endothermic process of protein unfolding²¹
 78 (Fig. 1g-i).



79

80 **Fig. 1 The design concept of TSAM.** a. Cartoon representation of the protein talin, F = FERM domain, R = rod domain, DD =
 81 dimerisation domain²⁰. The R1-R3 domains that were engineered to form the pGEL monomer are highlighted in orange. b.
 82 Chemical structure of the control compound **1** (Fig. S2 and S4) and the trivalent crosslinker **2** (Fig. S3-S4), c. pGEL in the folded
 83 state, green boxes = flexible linkers with a terminal thiol containing cysteine residue, blue box = modified R1-R3 domains of
 84 talin. d. Reaction of the pGEL monomer with compound **2** (not to scale). e. Hydrogel formed from the reaction of the pGEL
 85 monomer (200 mg/mL) with **2**. No gelation was observed with **1**. f. Hypothesised structure of network formed at the
 86 molecular level through the reaction of thiol containing cysteine residues contained within the pGEL monomer and **2** with no
 87 applied strain. g. pGEL in fully folded state presents length of ≈ 15 nm, measurements based on estimated length of R1-R3 of
 88 the wild type protein in resting state^{22, 23}. h. When exposed to strain pGEL unfolds into a linear string of helices extending to
 89 ≈ 65 nm in length, measurements based on estimated length of R1-R3 of the wild type protein^{18, 22, 24}. i. When exposed to
 90 higher strain, pGEL unfolds fully into extended polypeptide, increasing to a length of 156 nm, measurements based on
 91 estimated length of R1-R3 of the wild type protein under >25 pN²⁴. The R1-R3 rod domains refold once strain is removed²⁴.

92

93

94 Using compounds **1** (control monovalent compound) and **2** (trivalent crosslinker) (Fig. 1b,
 95 Supplementary Fig. 1-3), pGEL (Fig. 1c) was formed into a hydrogel (Fig. 1e-f) via tri-substitution of the

96 terminal cysteines with crosslinker **2** (Fig. 1d and Supplementary Fig. 4). The resulting hydrogel, which
97 we have termed TSAM (Talin Shock Absorbing Material), therefore contains monomeric units capable
98 of refolding upon removal of force, retaining its energy dissipating mechanism following any potential
99 impact events. Due to the endothermic energy dissipating mechanisms of protein unfolding²¹ in TSAM,
100 the heating of the captured projectiles seen with aerogels energy dissipating mechanism would not
101 be observed, offering a solution to several of the limitations seen with current state of the art impact
102 absorption materials. The use of compound **1** supports our conclusion that compound **2** is responsible
103 for the pGEL monomer polymerisation processes and resultant material formation (Fig. 1d).

104 **TSAM structural characterisation**

105 The R1-R3 domains of talin incorporated in the pGEL monomer were confirmed to retain alpha
106 helical folding, using circular dichroism and ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC nuclear magnetic resonance (Supplementary
107 Fig. 5-8). Following formation of TSAM, characterisation of the internal network structure was
108 conducted. Fourier Transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy²⁵ confirmed that the helical nature of the
109 talin domains was still present in the material structure (Supplementary Fig. 9). His-tagged gold
110 immunostaining of the TSAM, imaged using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), confirmed the
111 presence of pGEL in a lattice formation, displaying pore sizes of approximately 100 nm (Fig. 2a).
112 Following this, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) revealed TSAM to contain a porous like structure
113 on the micrometre scale typical of hydrogels (Fig. 2b), with long fibres of width ≈2 μm and pores of
114 ≈10 μm. Elemental dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis confirmed the observed fibres in the SEM images
115 consisted of sulphur and carbon (Fig. 2c), pGEL representing the only component of the xerogel
116 containing these atoms. Together these findings indicated pGEL molecules linked with crosslinker **2**
117 form a lattice on the nanometre scale, morphing into larger fibrillar like structures on the micrometre
118 scale. When handling TSAMs, high levels of extensibility were observed, presenting extension of >3-
119 fold when under tension, and returning to original size upon removal of force (Fig. 2d-e).

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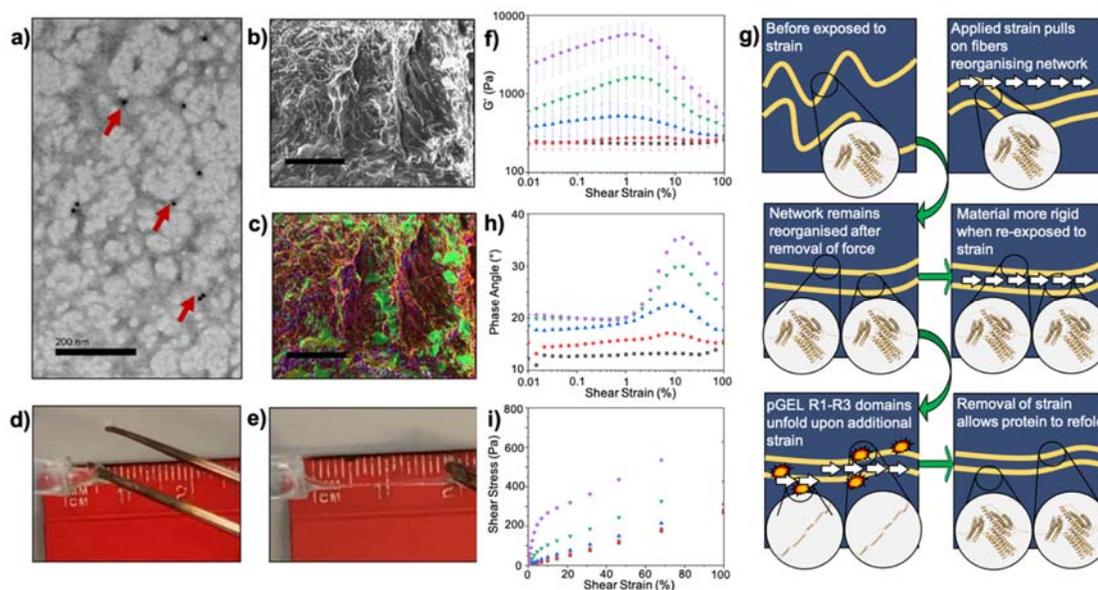
121 **Evidence for pGEL domain unfolding in TSAM**

122 Rheological characterisation of TSAMs provided strong evidence for the induced unfolding of
123 the talin domains within the material when exposed to shear strain, indicating that the energy
124 dissipating mechanisms of talin were successfully incorporated into the TSAM. Here, oscillatory shear
125 strain sweeps were conducted, whereby a sinusoidal oscillation of a pre-set shear strain was applied
126 to the TSAM at a set frequency, with the resultant shear stress measured. A total of five consecutive
127 oscillatory shear strain sweeps, with a two minute rest period between each sweep, were conducted
128 on three different TSAM samples to ensure reproducibility of results.

129 For the first applied oscillatory shear strain sweep on the TSAM, the dynamic shear storage
130 (G') and loss modulus (G''), as a product of shear strain presented a linear viscoelastic region (LVER)
131 for the full range of shear strain tested (Supplementary Fig. 10). The LVER indicates the range of shear
132 strain at which the material acts elastically²⁶, revealing the TSAMs as stable materials with high levels
133 of extensibility. Following this, four further oscillatory shear strain sweeps were conducted
134 (Supplementary Fig. 10-14, Fig. 2f). Owing to the unfolding and refolding kinetics intrinsic to R1-R3,
135 we hypothesised viscoelastic properties would be retained upon repeated exposure to shear strain.
136 As hypothesised, during all five oscillatory shear strain sweeps, the TSAMs presented $G' > G''$

137 throughout the range of shear strain tested, confirming conserved viscoelastic behaviour
138 (Supplementary Fig. 10-14). During sweeps 3-5, a positive gradient of G' occurring with increased
139 shear strain on the X-axis (Fig. 2f) was observed in place of the LVER seen with sweeps 1-2. Such an
140 observation is termed strain stiffening. Here, the peak maxima for G' occurred between 1-5% for
141 sweeps 3-5, shifting to the right and increasing in amplitude for each subsequent sweep (Fig. 2f). Strain
142 stiffening was further observed as the concomitant increase of the complex modulus (G^*) (sum of G'
143 and G'') with accumulated sweeps. The presence of strain stiffening both across and between sweeps
144 reveal TSAMs to present increased resistance to deformation upon repeated exposure to shear
145 strain²⁷. Strain stiffening as a consequence of fibre reorganisation, such as the TSAM fibres depicted
146 in Fig. 2b, is a well-documented phenomenon occurring in hydrogels formed from biopolymers²⁸,
147 causing the elastic modulus to increase with strain. We propose the strain stiffening observed here
148 results from a greater number of talin domains arranged in parallel to the axis of the fibres (Fig. 2g),
149 resulting in the overall increased network rigidity observed.

150 Following the peak maxima of G' for sweeps 3-5 displayed in Fig. 2f, G' began to decrease with
151 increasing shear strain. A decrease in G' indicates a reduction in the materials rigidity. Furthermore,
152 the phase angle across each sweep (displayed in Fig. 2h), revealed a bell shaped curve, with the peak
153 amplitude of the bell increasing for each subsequent sweep. The positive slope of the phase angle in
154 Fig. 2h corresponded to the negative gradient of G' in Fig. 2f for the same respective sweep. Thus, an
155 increase in phase angle was observed simultaneously with a decrease in rigidity. A sudden increase in
156 phase angle is caused by a lag between the applied sinusoidal shear strain and the resulting shear
157 stress, occurring from a rapid increase in viscosity. Interestingly, the phase angle reached a maxima at
158 ~10-15% shear strain, with the phase angle then declining, revealing a decrease in viscosity with the
159 further increase of shear strain. When combined, the above observations are all accounted for by the
160 induction of the pGEL monomer unfolding within TSAMs (Fig. 2g). Specifically, as a result of the
161 increased network rigidity observed as strain stiffening, strain can become imparted on the fibres
162 themselves. When a maximum fibre strain is reached, mass chain unfolding of the TSAM R1-R3
163 domains occur, reducing the materials rigidity and introducing slack into the system from the
164 extension (Fig. 1g-i) of the now unfolded pGEL monomer domains. This slack registers as the
165 decreased rigidity (decrease in G') and sudden increase in phase angle. Following application of
166 increasing shear strain, the slack from unfolded TSAM R1-R3 domains is taken up, increasing the
167 tension on the fibres and as a result the materials rigidity. This is observed as the decrease in phase
168 angle (Fig. 2h) and increase in G' (Fig. 2f). Oppositely, if the material were reaching a gelation to
169 solution transition point as a consequence of internal structure breakage, the phase angle would have
170 continued to increase above 45 degrees. Upon removal of shear strain, the unfolded R1-R3 domains
171 may then refold, and the resulting TSAM displays an enhanced rigidity (higher G^* at the start of the
172 next sweep) due to fibre network reorganisation. Shear stress vs. shear strain correlations corroborate
173 these results, revealing an exponential increase in shear modulus (G), a measure of rigidity, with
174 accumulated sweeps, further illustrating the strain stiffening within the TSAM (Fig. 2i). Furthermore,
175 sweeps 4 and 5 reach shear yield points, beginning to move into viscous stress as seen by the induction
176 of a slope, subsequently transitioning back into a linear gradient indicating the reoccurrence of elastic
177 behaviour. In summary, the linear elastic region at low shear strain is a result of reordering of the
178 network structure and gradual tension accumulating in the fibres, the following curve transition
179 indicates the sudden mass unfolding of talin rod domains, and subsequent linear region reports
180 elasticity reoccurring once tension is again applied to the fibres with increasing shear strain.



182

183 **Fig. 2 The internal fibre structure of TSAM and its macroscale characterization.** **a.** Immunogold-stained TSAM imaged with
 184 TEM showing lattice structure of connected pGEL proteins. Gold particles are observed as black dots, some of which are
 185 highlighted with red arrows (Scale bar = 200 nm). **b.** The dense fibre structure of TSAM displaying a porous network imaged
 186 with SEM on secondary electron mode (Scale bar = 50 μm). Pore sizes are on the range of a few μm . **c.** EDX analysis of SEM
 187 image in b. sulphur = yellow, carbon = red, oxygen = green, sodium = teal, phosphorus = purple. (Scale bar = 50 μm). Please
 188 note that SEM and the TEM show the overall topology of the gel, at two different resolution scales. **d.** TSAM slightly stretched.
 189 **e.** TSAM stretched to 3x its length. **f-i.** Rheological measurements of TSAM ($n = 3$). **f.** G' as a product of shear strain (error
 190 bars = SEM) for sweeps 1 (squares), 2 (circles), 3 (triangles), 4 (inverted triangles) and 5 (diamonds). **g.** Schematic summary
 191 of the events hypothesised to occur over 5 x repeated oscillatory sweeps. **h.** Phase angle against shear strain for sweeps 1-5
 192 on TSAM. **i.** Shear stress against shear strain for sweeps 1-5 on TSAM.

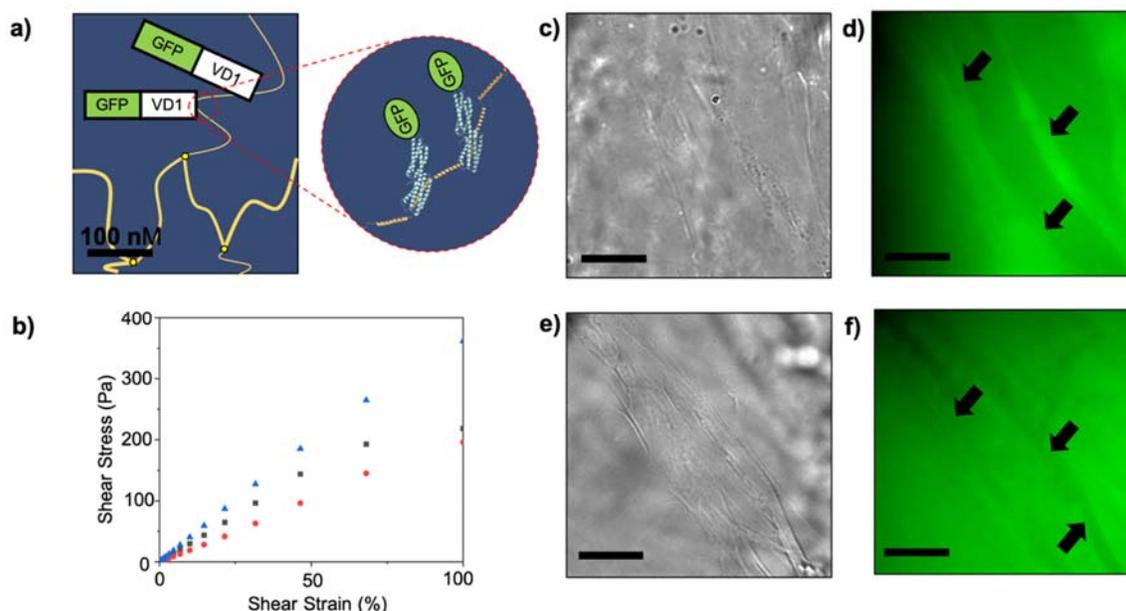
193

194 To confirm that the unfolding of the talin domains within the TSAM was directly responsible
 195 for the rheological characteristics/material properties observed, a green fluorescent protein tagged-
 196 vinculin domain 1 protein (GFP-VD1) was employed. GFP-VD1 is capable of selectively binding to the
 197 unfolded state of each of the rod domains (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Fig. 15), preventing domain
 198 refolding and 'locking' the extended conformation²⁴. Here the GFP-VD1 was introduced into the TSAM
 199 pre-amplitude sweep as a 2 mg/mL solution through a material swelling process. The rheological
 200 properties of these materials were then elucidated and compared to the results of analogous studies
 201 in which the same TSAM material underwent the same material swelling process in a solution of GFP
 202 or buffer only. The resulting G' and G'' as a product of shear strain for the three conditions tested are
 203 summarised in Supplementary Fig. 16.

204 When plotted as shear stress against shear strain (Fig. 3b) the GFP and buffer controls
 205 presented the same linear trend as obtained in the first amplitude sweep for the non-treated TSAMs,
 206 indicating purely elastic behaviour. In contrast, the TSAM treated with GFP-VD1 reached a yield point
 207 between 46-68% shear strain (Fig. 3b) as a result of VD1 binding events. To further confirm the binding
 208 of GFP-VD1 to the TSAM fibres, a series of comparative fluorescence microscopy experiments were
 209 conducted. Here, fibre like structures exhibiting the same diameter as those observed in our previous
 210 SEM studies (Fig. 2b) were found to have localised GFP-VD1 (Fig. 3c-d), confirming binding. In contrast,

211 the GFP control treated TSAM fibres appeared as darker regions, with void spaces presenting higher
212 GFP concentrations (Fig. 3e-f).

213



214

215 **Fig. 3 Effects of GFP-VD1 on TSAM.** a. Representation of GFP-VD1 binding to unfolded pGEL in TSAM fibres, with resulting
216 cartoon protein figures created in PyMOL using VD1 PDB structure 1U6H²⁹. b. Shear stress as a product of shear strain for
217 buffer (blue triangles), GFP-VD1 (black squares) and GFP (red circles), showing GFP-VD1 treated TSAM reaches its yield point
218 between 46-68% shear strain. c. Transmitted light image of GFP-VD1 localised to TSAM fibres (scale bar = 20 µm). d.
219 Maximum projection widefield fluorescent image of c. (scale bar = 20 µm) with fibres showing localised GFP-VD1 indicated
220 by arrows. e. Transmitted light image of GFP in TSAM (scale bar = 20 µm). f. Maximum projection widefield fluorescent image
221 of e. showing GFP sitting in void space, with fibres this time visible as darker structures indicated by arrows (Scale bar = 20
222 µm).

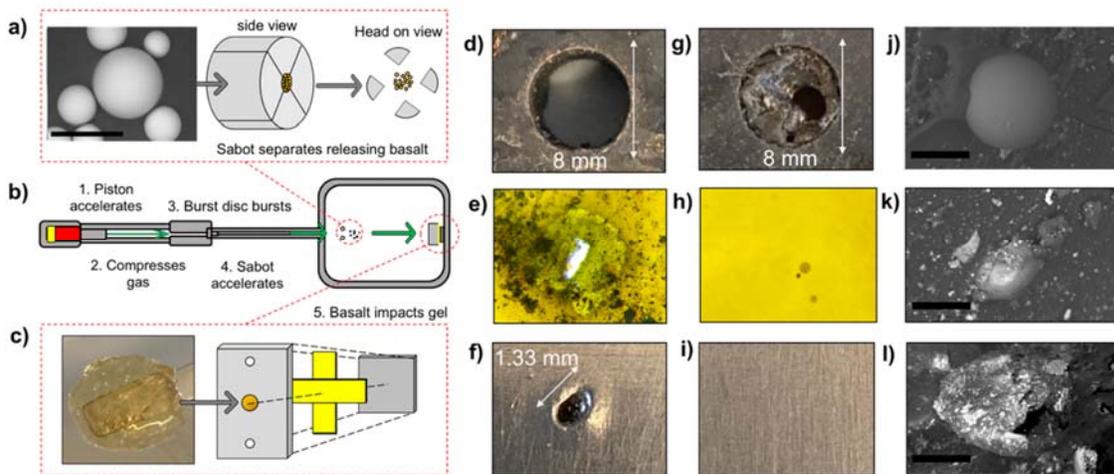
223

224 TSAMs capture and preserve projectiles from supersonic impacts

225 Following the rheological evidence for TSAMs retention of talin's endothermic energy
226 dissipation mechanism, we moved on to test the performance of the TSAM as an impact absorbing
227 material, investigating TSAM performance upon supersonic projectile impact. Specifically, velocities
228 of 1.5 km/s were tested, as this is a speed relevant to the aerospace and defence industries.^{30, 31} For
229 instance, particles in space impact both natural and human-made objects at speeds >1 km/s³⁰, while
230 muzzle velocities from firearms commonly fall between 0.4-1.0 km/s³¹. Here the TSAM, in addition to
231 a commercially available polyvinylpyrrolidone hydrogel control, were placed in the target chamber of
232 a light gas gun (LGG) and the following material properties elucidated: (1) the ability of the TSAM to
233 survive impact; (2) the ability of the TSAM to reduce the force of the projectile before impacting an
234 aluminium back plate; and (3) the ability of the TSAM to capture the projectile in a preserved state.

235 Spherical basalt particles between 20-70 µm were used as projectiles, loaded in a sabot as
236 buckshot. A schematic for this experiment is given in Fig. 4a-c. When shot at 1.5 km/s, the upper
237 ballistics limit for terrestrial based weaponry and non-meteorite impact, the control gel was destroyed
238 (Fig. 4d), with a visible hole in the tape behind the gel (Fig. 4e), and a crater of 1.33 mm in diameter

239 produced in the aluminium back plate (Fig. 4f). Therefore, this material control showed no detectable
 240 impact absorption properties. However, under analogous experimental conditions, the TSAM
 241 appeared mostly intact from the frontal perspective (Fig. 4g and Supplementary Fig. 17-19), with no
 242 projectile permeation detected to either the supporting tape (Fig. 4h) or the aluminium backplate (Fig.
 243 4i). In addition, subsequent SEM analysis identified the basalt particles embedded in the TSAM post
 244 shot (Fig. 4j and Supplementary Fig. 21), confirming that the TSAM had completely absorbed the
 245 impact of the basalt buckshot. An equivalent shot into aerogel revealed the majority of basalt particles
 246 penetrated between 5-8 mm (Supplementary Fig. 20) indicating TSAM is competitive in performance
 247 with this industrial standard, as the TSAM protected the material backing from any impact damage
 248 with 5 mm depth of material. The transparency of the TSAM shown in Fig. 4c and Supplementary Fig.
 249 17 is an additional desirable property, allowing for the easy removal of caught projectiles from the
 250 TSAMs. To conclusively determine if TSAM also enabled preservation of the captured basalt
 251 projectiles, SEM was performed on the impacted TSAM. Multiple basalt particles presenting a
 252 preserved circular shape were observed in the gel (Fig. 4j-k), confirmed as basalt with EDX analysis
 253 (Supplementary Fig. 21). Thus, supporting that TSAM enables projectile preservation. Moreover,
 254 during one of the TSAM shots, shrapnel from the aluminium (Al 7075) burst disk (Fig. 4b) struck the
 255 TSAM in combination with the basalt, as confirmed through SEM and EDX analysis (Fig. 4l and
 256 Supplementary Fig. 22). Such an impact often destroys aerogel materials used as the industrial
 257 standard within the aerospace industry for projectile capture, providing evidence that TSAMs are able
 258 to overcome this limitation.



259

260 **Fig. 4 Supersonic impact study on TSAM.** a. SEM image of a basalt particle used as the projectile and representation of how
 261 the basalt is loaded into a sabot and its release during a shot (scale bar = 60 μm). b. diagram of the light gas gun apparatus
 262 with the key stages after the shot is triggered. c. image of TSAM and how it is prepared as a target. The TSAM is loaded into
 263 a target plate constructed of steel (Blast tank exit aperture, stainless 304), with tape used to seal the back of the hole,
 264 followed by an aluminium back plate (Al 5083). d-f. Results from control gel d. Destroyed control gel after basalt impact at
 265 1.5 km/s. e. Hole formed in tape from basalt projectile. f. Crater formed in aluminium back plate. g-i results from TSAM g.
 266 Mostly intact TSAM after basalt impact at 1.5 km/s. h. Tape with no hole, containing several caught basalt particles in the
 267 transparent TSAM attached to its surface (Supplementary Fig. 21). i. Undamaged aluminium back plate. j. SEM image of
 268 intact basalt particle caught by TSAM after impact at 1.5 km/s. (scale bar = 45 μm) k. SEM image of another basalt particle
 269 caught by TSAM after impact at 1.5 km/s. (scale bar = 30 μm) l. SEM image of a fragment of the aluminium (Al 7075) burst
 270 disc that impacted TSAM during the 1.5 km/s basalt shot (scale bar = 50 μm). Results from repeat experiments and further
 271 images can be found in Supplementary Fig. 17-19.

272

273 Discussion and Outlook

274 In summary, we present the first example of a talin shock absorbing material (TSAM) known
275 to literature – a SynBio material constructed from monomeric units containing force-dependent
276 mechanical switch domains. Our previous work demonstrated that multiple talin domains in series
277 enable talin to serve as a force buffer during large strain changes¹⁸ and the TSAM material was
278 designed to capture this shock absorbing property of the monomers on a macro-scale. In addition, we
279 show that TSAMs can absorb impacts by basalt particles and larger pieces of aluminium shrapnel,
280 providing the first example of a protein material capable of absorbing supersonic projectile impacts –
281 with the exception of hydrogels produced from gelatine and recombinant telechelic proteins³², which
282 lack the intrinsic mechanosensitive properties of talin and therefore also the pGEL monomer. The
283 difference between the TSAM and gelatine systems is further supported when considering work by
284 Kokol and co-workers³⁵. Here gelatine hydrogels demonstrate significant variations in material
285 characteristics when compared to the TSAM systems. These variations in material characteristics will
286 result in differences in material properties and response to impact. These results lend the TSAMs
287 towards application within the aerospace and defence industries, e.g. as a backing for multi-layered
288 armour where shattered ceramic capture is required, and in hypervelocity impact experiments in
289 which the projectile needs to be preserved for further study. We believe this is as a consequence of
290 the endothermic energy dissipating mechanism of talin²¹. This energy dissipating mechanism was
291 confirmed using rheology, while GFP-VD1 binding experiments supported the presence of talin
292 unfolding events within these processes. Through the reversible refolding of talin domains within
293 TSAM following the removal of force, the material also demonstrates potential for iterative use.
294 Finally, as talin contains thirteen helical domains, each with unique unfolding forces, these TSAMs may
295 be tuneable by modifying the talin domains featured in the monomer unit, offering the potential for
296 tailoring toward a diverse array of mechanical properties and resulting applications.

297

298

299 Methods

300 Protein engineering

301 The genes encoding pGEL, GFP-VD1 and GFP were constructed in pET151 vectors. The proteins were
302 expressed in BL21(DE3)* *E. coli*. Protein purification was achieved using HisTrap HP columns (Cytiva)
303 for His-tag based affinity chromatography using an AKTA Start protein purification system (Cytiva).
304 Following purification, proteins were dialysed in phosphate buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.4,
305 50 mM NaCl).

306 TSAM preparation

307 Here TCEP (tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine) is used as a reducing agent. A 30:1 ratio of TCEP:cysteine
308 was slowly added to a solution of pGEL (200 mg/mL) in phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). After one hour, the
309 pGEL solution was run through PD10 desalting columns (Cytiva) twice to ensure TCEP removal.
310 Immediately following the desalting step, the pGEL solution was concentrated to the desired
311 concentration using 30 kDa MWCO concentrators (SigmaAldrich). The TSAM was then formed through
312 the addition of crosslinker **2** at 1:1 maleimide:thiol molar ratio, which is equivalent to a 2:3 crosslinker
313 **2**:pGEL monomer molar ratio. The TSAM was left to set at 4°C overnight.

314 **Scanning electron microscopy**

315 The TSAM sample was placed into a petri dish and left at 37°C until the material had completely
316 desiccated, producing a xerogel. This xerogel was then placed on a carbon tab mounted onto an
317 aluminium stub. Imaging was achieved using a Hitachi S-3400N scanning electron microscope with
318 elemental dispersive X-ray analysis and analysed using Oxford instruments AZtec software.

319 **Immuno-gold staining and transmission electron microscopy**

320 A 2 µL of sample was applied to carbon/formvar 400 mesh gold grids (Agar Scientific) and allowed to
321 settle on the grid for 5 minutes. The sample was then fixed in 2% formaldehyde and 0.5%
322 glutaraldehyde in 100 mM sodium cacodylate buffer pH 7.2 (CAB) for 15 minutes at room
323 temperature. Samples were washed 2 x 5 minutes in CAB and 2 x 5 minutes in 20 mM Tris, 500 mM
324 NaCl, 0.1% BSA and 0.5% Tween 20 (TBST). Grids were blocked in 2% BSA in TBST for 30 minutes and
325 then moved into a 20 µl drop of anti-His tag primary antibody (Sigma) diluted 1:100. Grids were
326 washed 6 x 2 minutes in drops of TBST before incubation in Goat anti-mouse IgG conjugated to 5 nm
327 gold particles (British Biocell International) diluted 1:50 for 30 minutes. Grids were washed for 6 x 2
328 minutes in TBST and 6 x 2 minutes in distilled water. Negative controls were performed as above but
329 primary antibody was replaced with TBST. Samples were then air dried and negative stained in 2%
330 aqueous uranyl acetate. Samples were viewed using a Jeol 1230 Transmission electron microscope at
331 80 kV and images were recorded on a Gatan OneView 16 MP digital camera.

332 **Rheological measurements**

333 Rheological measurements were performed on an Anton Parr modular compact rheometer (MCR302).
334 All measurements were performed at 298 K using a PP20 parallel plate. Oscillatory amplitude
335 experiments maintained a frequency of 10 rad/sec and were performed with an amplitude of
336 oscillation range of 0.01-100%. A 2 minute rest time was set between each amplitude sweep, with a
337 total of five sweeps performed on each TSAM. For the GFP-VD1, GFP and buffer swelled experiments,
338 the TSAM was left in 2 mg/mL of the respective solution overnight before rheological measurements
339 were performed. For the GFP-VD1 experiments, TSAMs were swelled with GFP, GFP-VD1 or buffer by
340 being placed in the respective solution overnight at 4°C.

341 **Fluorescence microscopy**

342 Following rheology experiments, the resulting GFP and GFP-VD1 swelled TSAMs were washed
343 overnight at 4°C in solution of buffer to reduce background fluorescence from unbound protein. GFP-
344 VD1 and GFP treated samples of TSAM from the rheology experiments were visualised using an
345 Olympus IX71 microscope employing a 1.6x magnification Optovar in combination with a PlanApo
346 100x OTIRFM-SP 1.49 NA lens mounted on a PIFOC z-axis focus drive (Physik Instrumente, Karlsruhe,
347 Germany), and illuminated using LED light sources (Cairn Research Ltd, Faversham, UK) with
348 DC/ET350/50x excitation, ET Quad Sedat dichroic, and DC/457/50m emission filters (Chroma, Bellows
349 Falls, VT). Samples were visualised using a QuantEM (Photometrics) EMCCD camera, and the system
350 was controlled with Metamorph software (Molecular Devices). Each 3D-maximum projection of
351 volume data was calculated from 31 z-plane images and the best 6 were chosen, each 0.2 µm apart,
352 and analysed using MetaMorph software.

353 **Light gas gun experiments**

354 The impact experiments were carried out using the Light Gas Gun (LGG) facility at the University of
355 Kent, Canterbury. The LGG is capable of accelerating projectiles smaller than 3.5 mm to speeds up to

356 7 km/s^{33,34}. The TSAM or control target (8 mm wide and 5 mm thick, chosen based on sample holder
357 size) was set in a blast tank exit aperture (BTEA) with a circular, 8 mm diameter aperture, sealed with
358 tape, with an aluminium (5083) back plate placed behind. Multiple 20-70 µm basalt particles were
359 loaded into a single sabot utilising the “buckshot” method and were fired at roughly 1.5 km/s, with
360 the speeds recorded via the BTEA - Muzzle laser method as described by Burchell et al.³³. The target
361 was removed prior to the air flushing procedure to reduce gun contamination of the TSAM. The
362 combination of the BTEA and target mount into a single device, allowed for minimal spreading of the
363 buckshot projectile, increasing the chance of direct impact onto the TSAM, and maximized the BTEA-
364 muzzle separation. Discussion of talin unfolding rates is provided within the Supplementary
365 information.

366 **Aerogel experiments**

367 For comparison to the industry standard material, a light gas gun shot on aerogel was performed. The
368 block of aerogel displayed an initial manufacturing density 0.092 g/cc and measured 30 x 30 x 20 mm.
369 Prior to setup the aerogel was baked overnight to remove any built up moisture in the block and
370 reweighed. The post baking density was found to be 0.09 +/- 0.01 g/cc. The block was positioned in
371 the Blast tank of the LGG and backed with an AL target plate (see Supplementary Figure 20a). The
372 projectile was prepared in exactly the same way as the TSAM and control gel shots, fired at
373 approximately 1.5 km/s. The projectile consisted of a 0.170 sabot with an Internal diameter bore of
374 0.8 mm loaded with basalt sphere of sizes 25-70 µm. Microscopy images were captured using a Leica
375 PLANAPO 1.0x microscope and images were processed using Leica Application Suite X (version
376 3.7.5.24914).

377

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