1 **Fabrication of nanoscale patternable films of silk fibroin using benign solvents**

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3 Alessio Bucciarelli,[a] Ramendra K. Pal,[b] Devid Maniglio,[a] Alberto Quaranta,[a] Viviana Mulloni,[c]

4 Antonella Motta,[a] Vamsi K. Yadavalli [b,†]

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6 [a] Department of Industrial Engineering, University of Trento, Via Sommarive 9, 38123-Povo (TN),

7 Italy.

8 [b] Department of Chemical and Life Science, Virginia Commonwealth University, 601 West Main

9 St., Richmond, Virginia 23284-3028, USA.

10 [c] MicroSystems Technology Research Unit, Fondazione Bruno Kessler, Via Sommarive 18,

11 38123-Povo (TN).

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13 † Corresponding author E-mail: vyadavalli@vcu.edu

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Abstract

The silk protein fibroin is a wondrous biopolymer widely used to form structures that interface with biological entities. In addition to tissue scaffolds, sponges, and films, biochemically modified fibroins can be used in conjunction with techniques such as photolithography and soft lithography to expand their repertoire for micro and nano-fabricated systems. To date, the use of hexafluoro-2-isopropanol (HFIP) has been prevalent as a solvent for fibroin and fibroin "resists". However, high volatility, toxicity, cost, and need for specialized disposal, render the necessity for alternative solvents. In addition, for many applications such as in optics and bioelectronics, smooth, thin (~100 nm and below) fibroin films are a prerequisite, which are not easily achieved using HFIP. Here, we present the use of formic acid (FA) as a sustainable solvent for silk fibroin and fibroin "resist" materials, specifically for micro and nanoscale applications. We demonstrate the reproducible formation and characterization of stable thin films of high homogeneity, smoothness and optical transparency. Critically, these films can then be used for high-resolution photopatterning of proteins using benchtop lithographic techniques. The present study indicates that FA is a relatively benign and more optimal solvent than HFIP for forming smooth, fibroin thin films, and microscale architectures for the fabrication of next generation silk-based optical devices.

1. Introduction

Over the last two decades, the protein fibroin from silkworms has attracted the attention of the materials science community due to its remarkable intrinsic properties. Silk fibroin can be easily processed to obtain a wide range of morphologies including micro-particles, micro-needles, hydrogels, mats, membranes, sponges, and films.[1-5] According to their desired application, the obtained materials can be tuned to display remarkable optical, mechanical, and biological properties. For these reasons, silk fibroin has become one of the most widely used materials for the development of biocompatible scaffolds and devices.[6-12] In addition to macroscale structures, the possibility of creating precise patterns at the micro and nanoscales has opened up fundamental and applied applications in optical devices and bioelectronics.[13] For example, nanopatterns of fibroin can ensure the interaction with light via features on the same order of magnitude as the wavelength of light.[14] Different techniques have been used in order to obtain such micro/nanometer scale silk fibroin architectures. These include nanoimprinting,[14] soft lithography,[15] silk transfer applied micropatterning (STAMP),[16] electron-beam lithography (EBL),[17] breath figures,[18] laser ablation,[19] and photolithography.[20, 21] However, the formation of engineered structures of fibroin with controllable dimensions across multiple length scales, in a high throughput, and environmentally friendly manner continues to be an ongoing challenge.

Photolithography is a highly efficient and cost-effective technique of choice to etch patterns on flat substrates at high resolution and speed. Using photolithography, silk features with a resolution of 50 μm were demonstrated using riboflavin as a photoinitiator in a water-based fibroin solution.[20] Feature resolution closer to 1 μm was obtained by biochemically modifying regenerated fibroin to obtain a photo-crosslinkable fibroin conjugate, which was patterned using UV exposure on a

61   fibroin film through a photomask.[21] Fibroin films produced by solvent casting solutions have a β-

62   sheet conformation with short range ordered structure,[22-24] responsible for superior physical

63   properties of regenerated fibroin.[25] In most reports to date, both fibroin itself, and the fibroin resist

64   are noted to be insoluble in water. While regenerated silk fibroin (rSF) can be used to form aqueous

65   solutions,[26] it is difficult to achieve highly concentrated and stable aqueous solutions owing to self-

66   assembly induced gelation.[27] Consequently, high resolution processing involving fibroin typically

67   necessitates the use of hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP) as an organic solvent. However, HFIP is not

68   an optimal solvent owing to its acute oral, dermal and inhalation toxicity, high cost and need for

69   careful disposal.[28] As a fluorinated alcohol, HFIP needs to be handled using the same disposal

70   protocols as pesticides. Further, its high volatility makes it difficult to work with spin coating

71   processes, and to obtain a uniform film thickness.

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73   The use of alternative ("green") solvents for fibroin processing is therefore of great interest,

74   principally for forming stable films, and for micro and nanopatterning. Formic acid (FA) is the

75   simplest organic acid that is also environmentally friendly and easily disposed. While it needs to

76   be handled with similar care, the vapor pressure at 20° C (4.67 kPa) is much lower than that of

77   HFIP (16 kPa), ensuring a slower evaporation. This allows use of this solvent in film deposition

78   that require maintaining a liquid phase for longer times. FA has been previously used alone, or in

79   combination with salt for fibroin dissolution.[29] However to date, no systematic studies have been

80   conducted regarding the possibility of using FA as a solvent for photolithography, and specifically,

81   their use in forming nanoscale films, and micro and nanoscale structures.

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83   In this work, we report on the use of FA as a suitable solvent to form nanoscale films of fibroin as

well as high resolution structures. While thicker (several μm) films of fibroin may be formed using casting,[30] producing thin (100-1000 nm) and ultrathin (1-100 nm) films is challenging.[31] In microelectronics applications involving photoresists, spin coating is a well-known method to produce films with uniform and controlled thickness.[32] For instance, spin coating of fibroin in an ionic liquid was used to form a film with thickness of 480±30nm and surface roughness of 19 nm. A thickness in the range of 10-80 nm was obtained using a spin assisted layer-by-layer process (SA-LbL).[31, 33] Calibration curves for aqueous fibroin solutions showed the dependence between film thickness and spin process parameters (concentration, rpm, time).[13] Most recently, a self-standing membrane of silk nanofibrils with a thickness down to 40 nm was reported.[34] However, these techniques lack the possibility of creating complex patterns/structures following film formation.

Herein, a fibroin protein photoresist is used in combination with spin coating to obtain uniform and stable nanoscale films. Using photolithography, patterning on nanoscale films is demonstrated to obtain precise, high resolution, microscale architectures. We present characterization of the films along with a comparison between films obtained with FA vs. those using HFIP as a solvent. Both solvents result in similar film morphology, roughness and mechanical properties at the nanoscale as observed using atomic force microscopy. However, using spin-coating, FA can form more stable and uniform films with controllable thickness in comparison to HFIP. Given the low cost and environmentally friendly nature of FA, we propose the use of this solvent for high tech applications in using fibroin for optical and bioelectronics applications.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Synthesis of fibroin photocrosslinkable photoresist

Fibroin extraction from the silk worm (*Bombyx mori*) cocoon was conducted following established protocols.[26] The photocrosslinkable fibroin "photoresist" was synthesized using the method previously described.[21] Briefly, fibroin protein was completely solubilized in 1M solution of LiCl (Sigma Aldrich) in DMSO (99.9%, Fisher Scientific). After the addition of a stoichiometric quantity of 2-isocyanoethyl methacrylate (IEM, Sigma Aldrich), the solution was maintained under stirring for 5 hours at 60° C to allow the conjugation reaction. The entire procedure was conducted in an anhydrous environment under continuous nitrogen flux. The solution was poured into an excess of cold ethanol in order to precipitate the fibroin with methacrylate conjugated side groups. The collected methacrylate protein was washed and centrifuged three times in a mixture of 50% cold 200 proof ethanol (Koptec) and 50% acetone (Alfa Aesar). The final product (fibroin protein photoresist (FPP)) was obtained after 48 hours of lyophilisation. In this work, the terms FPP, fibroin, and photo-fibroin are used interchangeably as referring to the same material.[21]

2.2. Surface treatment and functionalization

Fibroin architectures were formed on silicon and glass substrates. To obtain a covalent adhesion of the protein to the surface, functionalization with acrylate groups was required. A bath of piranha solution (3 parts 98% H_2SO_4:1 part 30% H_2O_2 (v/v)) was used to clean the substrates for 30 minutes in ambient condition (*Caution: Piranha solution is highly corrosive and reacts violently with organic matter*). The functionalization with 3-(trichlorosilyl) propyl methacrylate (TPM, Sigma Aldrich) was conducted using a chemical vapor deposition in a vacuum dryer for 12 hours at 0.4 bars. Surfaces were subsequently washed with methanol (Fisher Scientific) and water in order to remove any excess TPM.

2.3. Film fabrication

Films were prepared starting from a 5% (w/v) solution of FPP in formic acid (FA, Acros Organics 98%) or in 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol (HFIP, Oakwood Chemicals). The samples were prepared by casting the solutions on silicon substrates or using a spin coating process (SPS spin 150). An angular velocity ranging from 1000-4000 rpm was used (maintaining the other condition fixed such as angular acceleration: 200 rpm/s^2, duration: 60 s). To produce thinner films suitable for ellipsometric measurement (thickness and refractive index), the concentration was reduced to 1.5% and 1.2% w/v. In this case, the spin coating process (2000 rpm, 100 rpm/s^2, 60 s) was conducted on TPM treated silicon surface.

2.4. Photolithographic process

A microscale test pattern was fabricated using contact lithography. A photoinitiator (Irgacure 2959, BASF) 1.6% (w/v) was added to the FPP/FA 5% solution and mixed. Spin coating was conducted on functionalized silicon or glass surfaces. The obtained films were stored for a few hours in a fume hood to achieve complete evaporation of the solvent. Films were also fabricated via an accelerated drying process using a hot plate at 50° C with a temperature ramp of 10° C/15 minutes to room temperature (1 hour to complete the process). The cooling ramp allows rapid formation of a dry film without temperature-induced shrinkage. The obtained films were exposed through a photomask for 2 seconds at 2 mW/cm^2 at 365 nm (Lumen Dynamics OmniCure 1000), developed in a 1M DMSO/LiCl solution for 2 hours, and washed with a large amount of water.

2.5. Film Characterization

Thickness profiles were measured using a Veeco Dektak 150 Stylus Profilometer, with the mean and standard deviation calculated over different areas on each film. Asylum MFP-3D atomic force microscope (AFM) and Zygo New View 6300 optical profilometer were used to analyze film

morphology and surface roughness. Imaging was conducted using a Nikon Eclipse LV100D optical microscope and a JEOL LV-5610 SEM instrument. The measurement of thickness for the thinner films was obtained using a SENTECH SE800 Spectroscopic Ellipsometer. Refractive index was obtained by fitting two contemporary spectra at 60° and 70° using a Cauchy absorbance model (Horiba UVISEL 460). Transmittance and absorbance measurements were conducted using a JASCO VR-570 UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Secondary structures were determined by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) in attenuated total reflectance mode (ATR) (Perkin-Elmer Spectrum One spectrophotometer equipped with Zinc Selenide crystal). High resolution spectra were obtained at one point/cm^{-1}, averaging 8 spectra for each sample to reduce the noise. Thermal analysis was conducted in a range of 30-330° C using a differential scanning calorimeter (Mettler-Toledo DSC 20) in nitrogen atmosphere with a heating rate of **10° C**/min. Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) (Mettler-Toledo TG50 thermobalance) was conducted over 35-450° C in nitrogen atmosphere with a heating rate of 10° K/min.

3. Results and Discussion

Thin films are of outstanding interest for applications such as electronics, development of MEMS components, microfluidic devices, and substrate coatings. While films may be formed by solvent casting, one of the most scalable and easy techniques to form uniform films on substrates is via spin coating. This process is widely used for commercial photoresists, and has been extensively used for the deposition of aqueous solutions of fibroin (e.g., regenerated silk fibroin (rSF) solubilized using LiBr).[26] However, this has not been suitable for forming thin (100-1000 nm) and ultrathin (1-100 nm) silk films. Aqueous solutions of fibroin are not particularly suitable for spin coating, or high resolution patterning applications at the micro and nanoscales. For optical

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180   applications, thin films of optical quality with minimal defects are highly desired. In such cases,

181   HFIP as solvent has been widely used. However, HFIP comes with a host of issues that make the

182   development of alternative solvents very attractive. The choice of the solvent is further

183   fundamental to the process of spin coating itself, as it affects the viscosity of the film and coating

184   parameters. In this study, we show how photocrosslinkable fibroin using FA as the solvent,

185   coupled with the technique of spin coating allows the formation of films of controllable thickness.

186   The films are formed with excellent surface qualities. The possibility of forming precise patterns

187   and structures can extend the use of this system over the common use of photoresists or regular

188   (unmodified) fibroin (viz. rSF) for various applications.

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3.1. Spin coating of nanoscale films

191   FA and HFIP solutions of photo-fibroin at the same concentration (5% w/v) were used to produce

192   films via spin coating using identical process conditions. To observe the effect of chuck speed on

193   film thickness, the maximum achieved rotations per minute (RPM) were set to 1000, 1500, 2000,

194   3000, 4000 with an angular acceleration of 200 rpm/s^2 for 60 seconds. On each film six thickness

195   values were measured at different locations to obtain a mean and standard deviation. The results

196   are shown in **Figure 1**. As may be observed, the use of FA as a solvent formed thinner and more

197   homogeneous films in comparison to the films produced under the same conditions using HFIP as

198   solvent (**Figure 1a**). The mean thickness of HFIP films are typically 2-4 times the thickness of FA

199   films formed under the same conditions (**Figure 1a**). The uniformity of film is proportional to the

200   mean thickness standard deviation (**Figure 1b**). This measure was calculated to quantitatively

201   determine the variance of height across different films prepared under similar conditions. The

202   higher standard deviation using HFIP shows that that the reproducibility of film thickness with FA

203   was higher. At ~3000 rpm, thin films (0.54±0.02 μm thickness) were formed with a very low

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204 deviation. To form thinner films, the concentration of the solution was reduced. Using a

205 concentration of 1.5% w/v in FA, we obtained films with a thickness of ~172 nm, and using a

206 concentration of 1.2% w/v, a thickness of ~115 nm could be consistently obtained at process

207 parameters of 2000 rpm (max speed), 100 rpm/s, 30 s (angular acceleration). The film thickness

208 was confirmed via ellipsometry (**Figure 1c, d**).

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210 **3.2. Optical characterization of nanoscale films**

211 Films using FA tend to have a higher uniformity of thickness regardless of the spin coating

212 conditions. We may hypothesize that this effect is related to the lower evaporation rate of the

213 solvent, which allows a better control over the spin coating process and a longer time for achieving

214 a stable configuration. The uniformity of the FA films can be clearly noticed comparing the films

215 made by the two different solvents (**Figure 2a**). Indeed, the standard deviation for the HFIP films

216 is on the order of hundreds of nanometers so that the film features are large enough to be seen by

217 the naked eye (**Figure 2b**). In contrast, thin, optical grade films of fibroin can therefore be easily

218 obtained using spin casting process in combination with a solution in FA with a low concentration.

219

220 The transmittance of the films was measured using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (**Figure 2c**). Over

221 the visible range (400nm-700nm), FA fibroin films tend to have flat spectra with transmittance

222 around 90%. In comparison, the films made with HFIP are not flat and their transmittance

223 monotonically decreases from 68% (700 nm) to 45% (400 nm). Absorbance spectra show the UV

224 absorption edge of both films, lying around 300 nm. No other bands indicating yellowing o

225 oxidation processes are present. The flat and high transmittance spectra ensure that fibroin films

226 made by FA are transparent and colorless. In contrast, the lower transmittance spectra of the HFIP

227 films is indicative of low transparency due to the scattering from the surface roughness evidenced

228   by the profilometry measurements discussed belowThe observed high transmittance over the

229   visible spectrum represents a potential issue in optical applications, where the light needs to be

230   transmitted inside the material. So, formic acid is preferable over HFIP as a solvent of choice for

231   fibroin for optical applications such as low loss waveguides.

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233   Interestingly,the high optical quality of these films allowed ellipsometric analysis, which is quite

234   unusual in case of protein materials due the their typical optical inhomogeneity. Solutions of

235   fibroin in FA tend to have low turbidity even in comparison to solutions in water.[23]Since the

236   electrical repulsion of the positively charged fibroin molecules in acid solution prevents

237   coagulation. On the other hand, fibroin molecules tend to aggregate in water due to hydrophobic

238   interactions.[23] Indeed, the hydrodynamic radius (R_H) calculated using Dynamic Light Scattering

239   (DLS) shows an average radius of 19 nm in FA and 139 nm in water.[24] The refractive index (RI)

240   of FA films was investigated. The value is observed to increase monotonically from 1.55 (900 nm)

241   to 1.58 (450 nm). The slightly higher value of RI at 630 nm (1.56) than the value reported in

242   literature for films of rSF (1.54) is likely due to the introduction of methacrylate groups as

243   discussed above.[35, 36] These results suggest that FA is a better choice for optical applications

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245   **3.3. Film characterization using AFM morphology and profilometry**

246   The films were characterized using various techniques to study the surface properties at the

247   nanoscale. A comparison between film morphologies using atomic force microscopy (AFM)

248   shows no significant difference between films made by HFIP and FA at the nanoscale (**Figure 3**).

249   The root mean square (RMS) roughness in both case is ~5 nm over a 25 μm^2 area. Nanoscale holes

250   are present in both sets of films as previously observed on rSF.[37] What is also interesting is that a

251   similar nanoscale morphology appears regardless of the method of film fabrication – casting vs.

252   spin coating. In these experiments, cast films were typically thick (on the order of several μm).

253

254   On the other hand, over larger areas, FA films are observed to be flatter than HFIP films. Optical

255   profilometry over a rectangular surface of 1.424 mm^2 shows a roughness of 57 nm for FA films in

256   comparison to 327 nm for HFIP films (**Figure 4a, b**). This seeming discrepancy in roughness

257   values in comparing small areas (25 μm^2) to larger areas (5 mm) may be easily understood by the

258   ~5 orders of magnitude difference from the micro to the millimeter scale. A similar result is

259   obtained by line profilometry (**Figure 4c**) with roughness value of 13 nm for FA films and 179 nm

260   for HFIP films. Both methods validate the lower roughness and more uniform nature of films made

261   by FA solution, which further ensures low surface scattering. The lower roughness of FA films at

262   the microscale can be explained considering the effect of the carboxyl group on the fibroin

263   conformation and the lower volatility of FA.[24]

264

265   **3.4. Secondary structure characterization**

266   The primary amide peak was used to evaluate the secondary structure content in FPP films made

267   using each solvent. Peaks related to the different secondary structures [38, 39] were fit inside the

268   primary amine peak and, another peak centered at 1725 cm^{-1} was fit to account for the presence of

269   methacrylate side groups introduced due to chemical functionalization.[21] **Figure 5** shows the IR

270   spectra (black line), the fitted peaks (green line), and the fitted curve (red line). Fitting was

271   performed using Voigt peaks and minimizing the χ^2 function, to calculate the percentage of content

272   of each structure. The quantitative data is reported in **Table 1**. Per this analysis, films formed using

273   FA display a higher content of β-sheet (38.0%), and lower content of random coil (18.7%), α-

274   helices (6.5%) and turns (16.6%) in comparison with films prepared using HFIP for which the

275   content of each structure is 22.6%, 36.5%, 13.0% and 23.2% respectively. This is not unexpected

276   as FA has been reported to promote the formation of β-sheets via a conformational change from

277   random coils in a variety of protein systems including fibroin and keratin.[24, 40] The greater content

278   of β-sheets in FA films may decrease its transparency due to the presence of crystallites inside the

279   amorphous structure that act as scattering centres. This effect is less important than the surface

280   effect; in fact, the highest difference in the refractive index between air and the bulk material

281   respect to crystalline and amorphous part of the bulk gives a higher scattering on the surface than

282   inside the bulk.[41] For these reasons, despite the higher content in ordered structure, FA films result

283   to have a higher transmittance than HFIP films.

284

285   **3.5. Thermal analysis**

286   DSC curves for both films are shown in **Figure 6a.** The first wide endothermic peak is present for

287   both films, and indicates the evaporation of bonded water.[30, 39, 42] In particular, for FA this peak is

288   centred at 100°C (ΔH=35.6 J.g^{-1}) whereas for HFIP, this peak is centred at 75°C (ΔH=42.8 J.g^{-1}).

289   An exothermic peak of crystallization (160.4°C, ΔH=4.8 J.g^{-1}) is present only for HFIP, and can

290   be related to the random coil–β-sheet transition. The lower temperature of this transition with

291   respect to earlier reported values,[30, 39, 42] is probably related to the presence of the functionalization

292   groups that promotes the formation of β-sheet structures. Indeed, the absence of this peak in FA

293   confirms that the β-sheet formation occurs due to drying from FA solution.[24] The degradation peak

294   is centred at 271° C (ΔH=99.1 J.g^{-1}) with a shoulder centred at 282°C in case of HFIP, and 281°

295   C (ΔH=50.1 J.g^{-1}) in case of FA. The peak at 271° C could be related to degradation of insoluble

296   helixes, [39] while the peak at 281° C to the degradation of the more stable β-sheets. The glass

297   transition temperature (T_g) is also different and can be detected at 150° C and 158° C respectively

298   for HFIP and FA. TGA curves shows an initial weight loss due to water evaporation (35-170° C

299   for HFIP, 35-135° C for FA), the higher weight loss of the sample prepared using HFIP (9% versus

300 4% of FA film) is consistent with its higher amount of amorphous phase. The evaporation of other

301 low temperature volatile components give the second weight loss (170° C-280° C weight loss

302 29.0% for HFIP, 135-300° C weight loss of 19.5% for FA).[30] At higher temperatures the fibroin

303 decomposition begins; the higher amount of remaining mass for FA (74%) vs. HFIP (66%) at the

304 start of the decomposition and, the lower slope in the decomposition region (maximum slope

305 0.0058 mg.°C^{-1} for FA vs. 0.0074 mg.°C^{-1} for HFIP) collectively demonstrate the better thermal

306 stability of films made by FA.

307

308 **3.6. Micropatterning of fibroin using formic acid as a solvent**

309 As discussed above, in this work, the biochemically modified photo-crosslinkable fibroin was used

310 for the film fabrication. As shown before by our group, this variant of fibroin is very similar in

311 properties to rSF but allows the precise patterning of microscale architectures using UV light

312 assisted photolithography,[21] wherein the material behaves as a negative tone photoresist. However,

313 in the prior work, the patterning was conducted using HFIP as solvent (Note: because of previous

314 reports by our group showing these results,[21, 43] the patterning is not shown here). Using FA as a

315 solvent does not alter the ability to form microscale architectures of similar resolution and fidelity

316 using photolithography. Films fabricated as discussed above were exposed to 365 nm UV light

317 through a chrome photomask via contact photolithography. Following development of the films to

318 remove the un-crosslinked material, the structures are attached to the underlying substrate

319 (typically silicon or glass). **Figure 7** shows the structures that can be formed via this process.

320 Microstructures with a dimension of 3-100 μm can be easily obtained over large areas with high

321 precision. As a high throughput technique, this method can be used to form large areas of precise

322 fibroin micropatterns. AFM imaging shows the high resolution lines that can be formed (**Figure**

323 **7b**). Line profiles of the patterns using AFM reveal a thickness of 100 nm, which is consistent with

324   ellipsometric measurements that gives a result of 115 nm (note that the ellipsometry values are for

325   films). Close up of the patterns shows smooth, uniform features with a surface roughness of 8.1

326   nm over 5 μm square area (**Figure 7c**). Thus, FA is a viable solvent for the process of silk

327   lithography with high resolution architectures and controllable aspect ratios.

328

329   **4. Conclusions**

330   In summary, photocrosslinkable fibroin was successfully dissolved in FA as an alternative solvent

331   to the conventionally used solvent HFIP. This vastly reduces the cost and the environmental impact

332   of using fibroin for various applications. The lower evaporation rate allows for better control of

333   the deposition process giving rise to robust, uniform films. Films that are up to four times thinner

334   than those formed using HFIP can be fabricated. This makes the technique suitable for the

335   production of thin and ultrathin films, below 100 nm by optimizing various parameters such as

336   concentration of the precursor solution and spin coating speed. Morphological and optical analyses

337   show how these films provide significant improvements in flatness and optical transparency.

338   Structural analysis reveal differences in β-sheet content of the two films and the higher thermal

339   stability of FA films. Importantly, due to the ability to form micropatterns with this material, high-

340   resolution patterning is demonstrated, opening the possibility of the use of silk fibroin in

341   applications that requires features with a smooth and uniform surface such as optical biosensors

342   and bioelectronics. Further studies are ongoing for the determination of the optical constants and

343   refractive indices of these new types of optical films and microstructures.

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Solvent	HFIP		FA	
Structure	Peak position (cm⁻¹)	% Area	Peak position (cm⁻¹)	% Area
Side chain	1610	**4.8**	1610	**16.2**
β-sheet	1619	3.3	1619	13.2
	1624	1.0	1624	8.6
	1630	16.6	1630	11.2
	1700	1.7	1700	5.0
Total		**22.6**		**38.0**
Random coil	1642	20.5	1642	11.7
	1651	16.0	1651	7.0
Total		**36.5**		**18.7**
α-helices	1659	**13**	1659	**6.5**
Turns	1667	10.5	1667	4.5
	1678	9.5	1678	11.5
	1691	3.2	1691	0.9
Total		**23.2**		**16.6**

Table 1: Quantitative data and peak assignments of the fitted peaks in the Amide I IR band for the two solvents, HFIP and FA.

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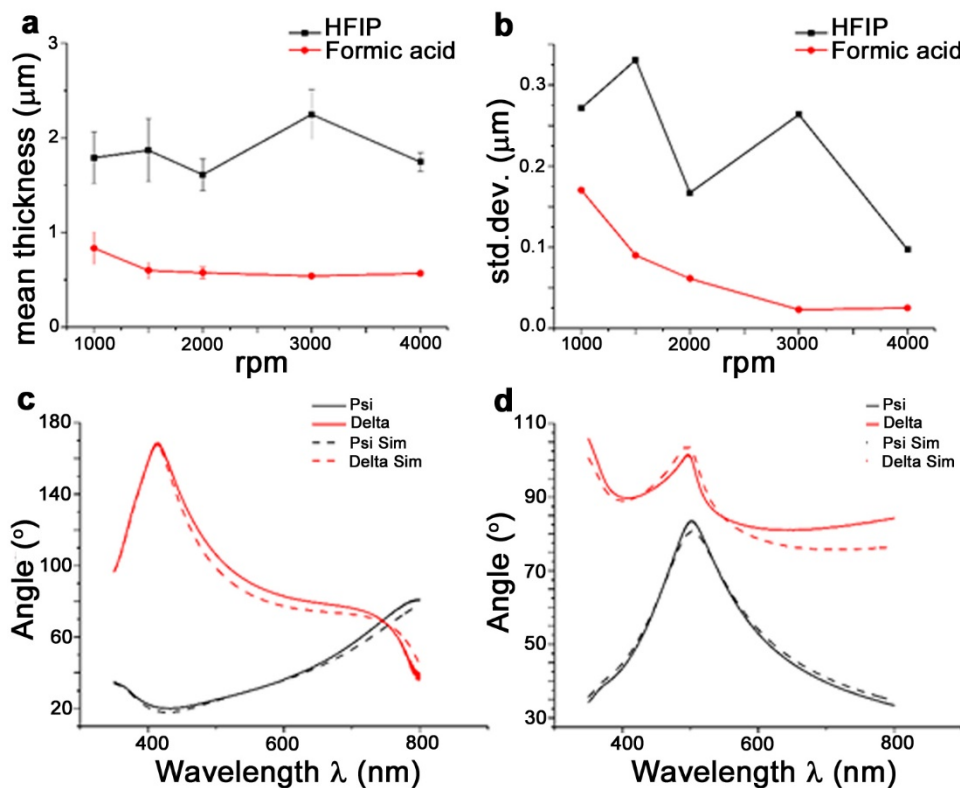
Figure 1: Film thickness data for fibroin films formed by spin coating of solution made with two different solvents - HFIP (black) and FA (red): (a) mean thickness trend over rpm, (b) standard deviation of the mean thickness trend over rpm. (c, d) Ellipsometry spectra for thickness determination of thin fibroin films made by spin coating of low concentration solutions in FA: (c) 1.7% w/v, (d) 1.2% w/v. (Psi (blue) and Delta (red) measured (solid line) and simulated (dashed line).

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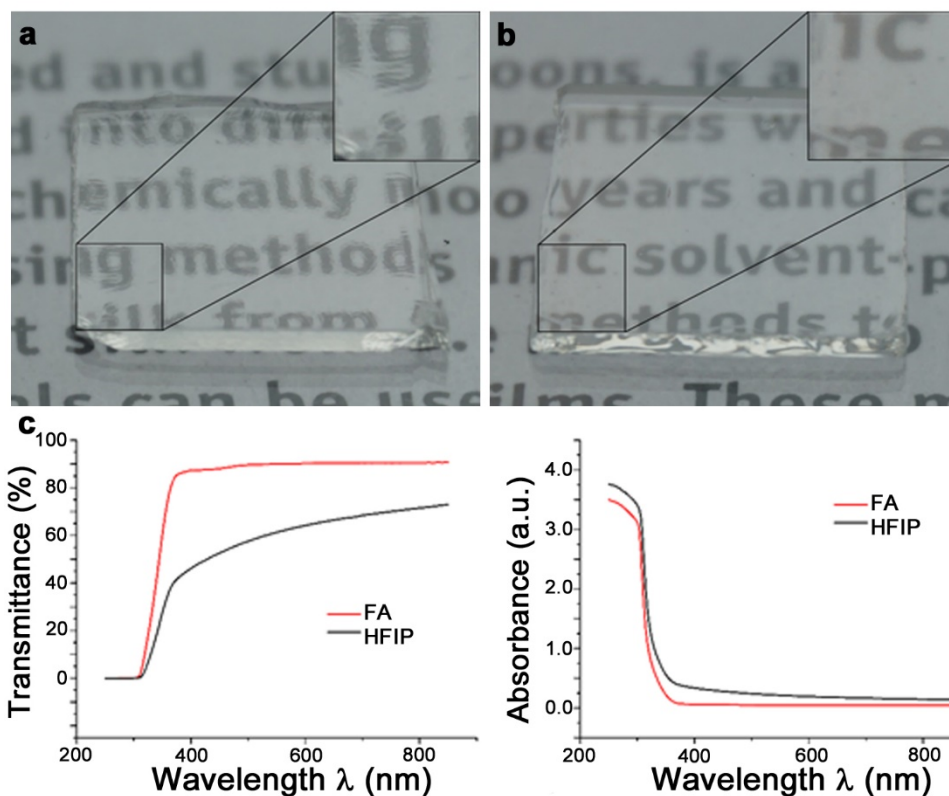
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444 **Figure 2:** Images of films obtained by solvent casting showing optical properties: produced using

445 (a) HFIP (b) FA. (c) UV-Vis spectra of films made using FA (red) and HFIP (black) showing the

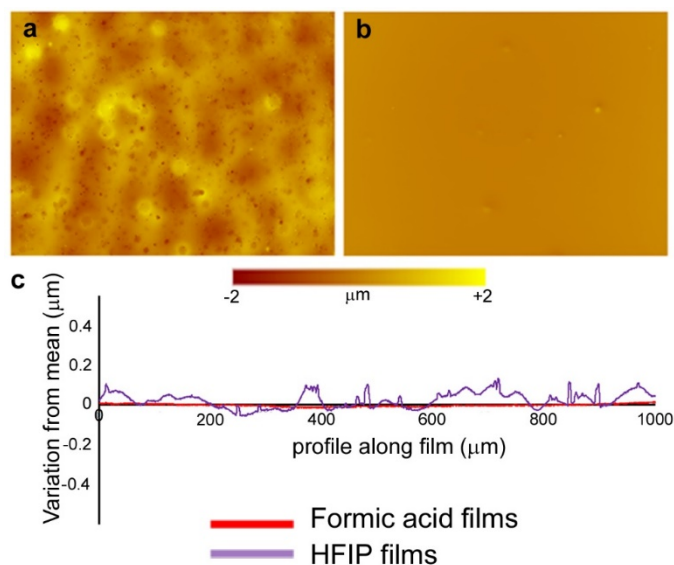446 percentage transmittance and absorbance spectra.

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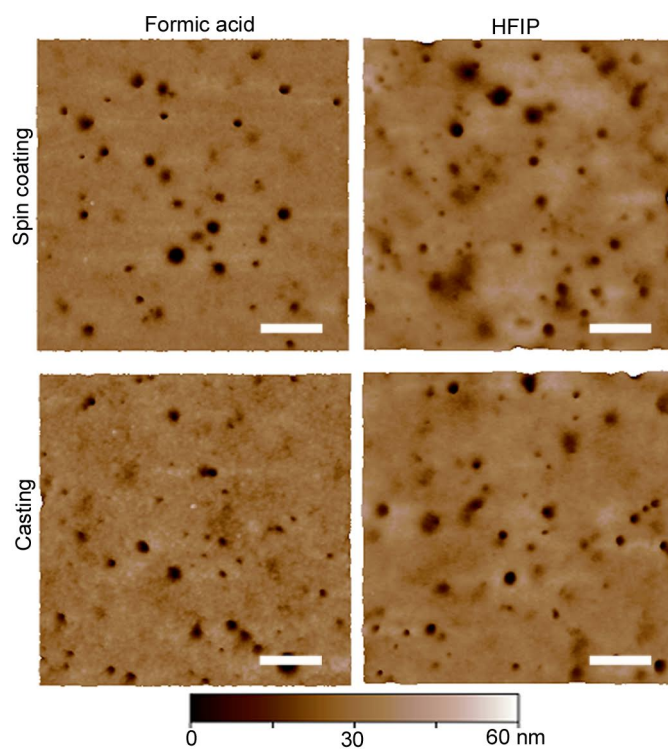
Figure 3: AFM images of films produced using different methods (Spin coating on the top, Film casting on the bottom) and different solvent ((L) FA, (R) HFIP). Scale bar=1 μm.

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Figure 4: Optical profilometry images of films produced by casting on a glass substrate using: (a)

HFIP, (b) FA. (c) Mean value of 5 line profiles performed over films made by the two solvents

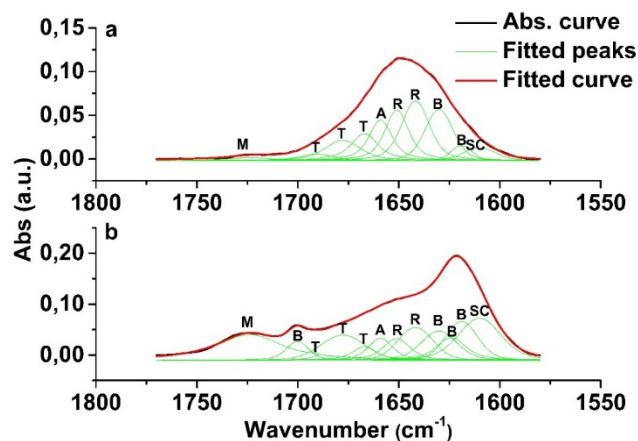(FA (red), HFIP (purple)).
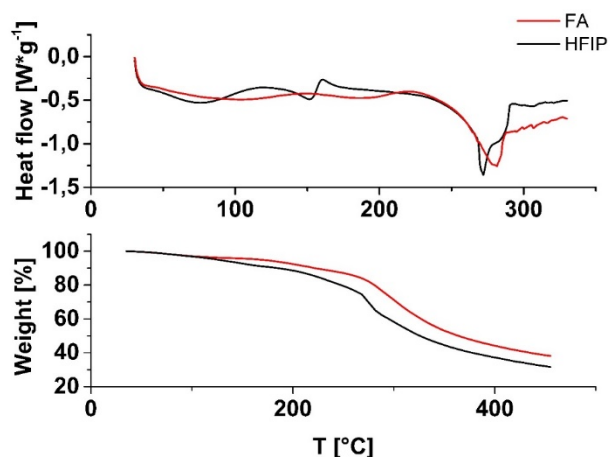
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Figure 5: FTIR-ATR spectra of the primary amide peaks of films produced using (a) HFIP (b) FA. The peak fits (green) relate to the different secondary structures and side groups (SC: side chain; B: β sheets, R: random coil, A: α-helix, T: turns; M: methacrylate group).
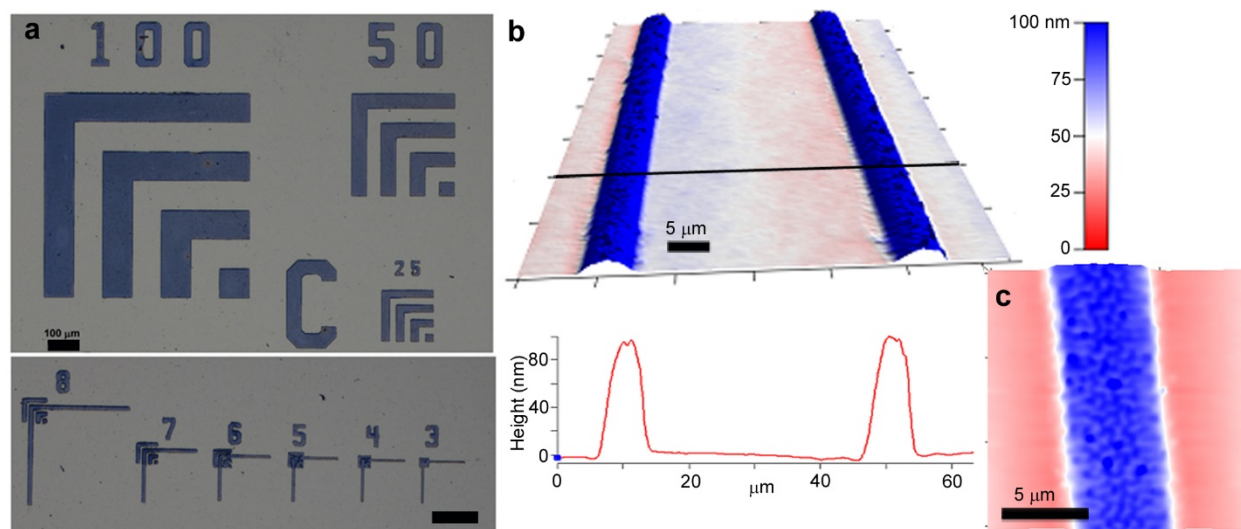
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Figure 6: (a) DSC and (b) TGA curves for films made using FA (red) and HFIP (black).

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Figure 7: (a) Optical microscopy images of fibroin micropatterns formed on a silicon surface using photolithography with FA as solvent. Coomassie brilliant blue was used to stain the patterns for easy visualization (scale bar = 100 μm). (b) AFM image of nanoscale thin films patterned with 5 μm lines. The line profile below shows that the feature height is ~100 nm. (c) Close-up of the lines shows the uniformity of the micropatterns (scale bar = 5 μm).

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