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A Microscopically Motivated Model for Particle Penetration into Swollen Biological Networks

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Abstract: Biological gels (bio-gels) are hydrated polymer networks that serve diverse biological functions, which often lead to intentional or unintentional exposure to particulate matter. In this work, we derive a microscopically motivated framework that enables the investigation of penetration mechanisms into bio-gels. We distinguish between two types of mechanisms: spontaneous (unforced) penetration and forced penetration. Using experimental data available in literature, we exploit the proposed model to characterize and compare between the micro-structures of respiratory, intestinal, and cervicovaginal mucus and two types of biofilms. Next, we investigate the forced penetration process of spherical and ellipsoidal particles into a locally quadrilateral network. The proposed framework can be used to improve and complement the analysis of experimental findings *in vitro*, *ex vivo*, and *in vivo*. Additionally, the insights from this work pave the way towards enhanced designs of nano-medicines and allow to assess risk factors related to the nano-pollutants exposure.

Keywords: Penetration mechanisms; gels, particles; mucus, biofilms; multi-scale modeling

1. Introduction

Biological gels (bio-gels) are hydrated polymer networks that typically contain 90–99% water and serve diverse biological functions [1–3]. Broadly, bio-gels act as selective permeable barriers that regulate the passage of molecules (e.g., nutrients, drugs), supramolecular structures, and particulate matter [4]. For example, mucus is a translucent aqueous gel mainly composed of the glycoprotein mucin that lines various cavities in the body and covers the surface of internal organs [5]. Its primary role is to prevent damage from physicochemical, biological, and mechanical insults. Biofilms are another type of bio-gel that comprises a highly hydrated matrix made of exopolysaccharides, nucleic acids, extracellular proteins, phospholipids, and teichoic acid, secreted by normal and pathogenic bacteria and fungi with a porous microstructure filled with fluid and controlled permeability [6,7]. Biofilms protect microorganisms from external insults and enable metabolic cooperation, which increases cell resistance to antibiotics. Biofilms are associated with a plethora of diseases, including urinary tract infections, gingivitis, periodontitis, endocarditis, acne, middle ear infections, and biomaterials-centered infections.

Bio-gels can intentionally or unintentionally be exposed to particulate matter and thus play a central role in many biological systems. In therapeutics, the administration of mucoadhesive particles that stick to mucus or muco-penetrating particles have gained significant attention due to their potential for local drug delivery and prolonged residence time of pharmaceutical formulations which reduce systemic side effects and increases bioavailability by non-parenteral routes, respectively [8,9]. Conversely, the interaction of particle pollutants dispersed in air and water effluents with respiratory

33 and gastrointestinal mucosae may lead to toxicity [10–12]. Furthermore, different particles have been
34 designed to more efficaciously deliver antibiotics to biofilms [13].

35 Various experimental *in vitro*, *ex vivo*, and *in vivo* experiments and techniques have been proposed
36 to study the interaction between particles and bio-gels [14–18]. A challenge in these studies is that
37 owing to their dynamic nature and constant remodeling [2,4,19], bio-gels display a heterogeneous
38 structure that depends on the body site and the source. Thus, the experimental conditions are not
39 reproducible [20–22]. For example, the mucin concentration in the cervicovaginal mucus changes
40 along the menstrual cycle, leading to dramatic changes in the microstructure and viscoelasticity and
41 different particle permeability [15,23,24]. This makes the comparison between experimental data and
42 the prediction of the bio-gel/particle interactions difficult.

43 Broadly, we can distinguish between two types of penetration mechanisms - spontaneous
44 (unforced) penetrations and forced penetrations. Spontaneous penetration is a process in which
45 a particle enters a hydrated polymer network in the absence of external forces [1,2,19]. In order for
46 a particle to spontaneously enter a bio-gel, its characteristic dimensions must be smaller than the
47 inter-chain distance in the gel. It should be noted that chemical or biological interactions may alter the
48 spontaneous penetration process. Forced penetration implies the application of an external loading
49 that drives a particle into the swollen network. Here, the externally applied force is transferred from
50 the particle to the polymer chains in the bio-gel matrix. As a result, the polymer chains in the vicinity
51 of the particle stretch and the local inter-chain distance increases, thereby allowing the particle to
52 sink into the bio-gel. Examples of forced penetrations include peristalsis in the gastrointestinal tract,
53 coughing, the blinking of the eyes, and mastication [19,22].

54 With the aim of better understanding the two penetration mechanisms, we derive a methodical
55 statistical-mechanics based model that describes the local interactions between particles and bio-gels.
56 We propose that full penetration is only possible upon a sufficient increase in the inter-chain distance
57 via (1) the local stretching of chains, (2) the rupture of polymer chains, or (3) the dissociation of
58 cross-linking bonds in the network. Additionally, the model enables a quantitative measurement of the
59 changes in the network in the absence and the presence of external forces and provides a framework
60 that can be used to control the interactions between bio-gels and particulate matter.

61 The paper is organized as follows: first, we describe the penetration mechanisms and derive
62 a framework that enables to quantitatively study the penetration process. Next, we consider two
63 local chain arrangements and exploit the model to characterize the structure of several bio-gels using
64 experimental data from the literature. We follow by studying the forced penetration process of spherical
65 and ellipsoidal particles into a network with a locally quadrilateral chain arrangement. We conclude
66 with the main findings, a discussion, and the possible uses of the proposed framework. Our results
67 underline the promise of this theoretical approach to shed light into the bio-gel/particle interaction
68 mechanisms and can pave the way for their prediction in many fields including nanomedicine,
69 nanosafety and nanotoxicology.

70 2. The mechanisms behind particle penetration

71 Bio-gels are swollen polymer networks comprising chains that are made of repeating molecular
72 units that are connected by chemical or physical cross-linking bonds. The swollen network is
73 characterized by a mesh size, or an inter-chain distance, which typically quantifies the spacing between
74 neighboring chains [1,2,25,26] and depends on the degree of swelling [27,28]. The mesh size is
75 proportional to the average distance between cross-links in the gel. The penetration of particulate
76 matter into the network is enabled by the spacing between chains and therefore depends on the mesh
77 size and the ability of the chain to be stretched upon the application of a force.

78 To illustrate the process by which a particle penetrates a bio-gel, we examine a spherical particle
79 with a radius ρ that sits on the boundary layer of a polymer network as shown in the initial state of Fig.
80 (1a). In the absence of external forces, the particle sinks a depth y_0 into the network. The initial sink

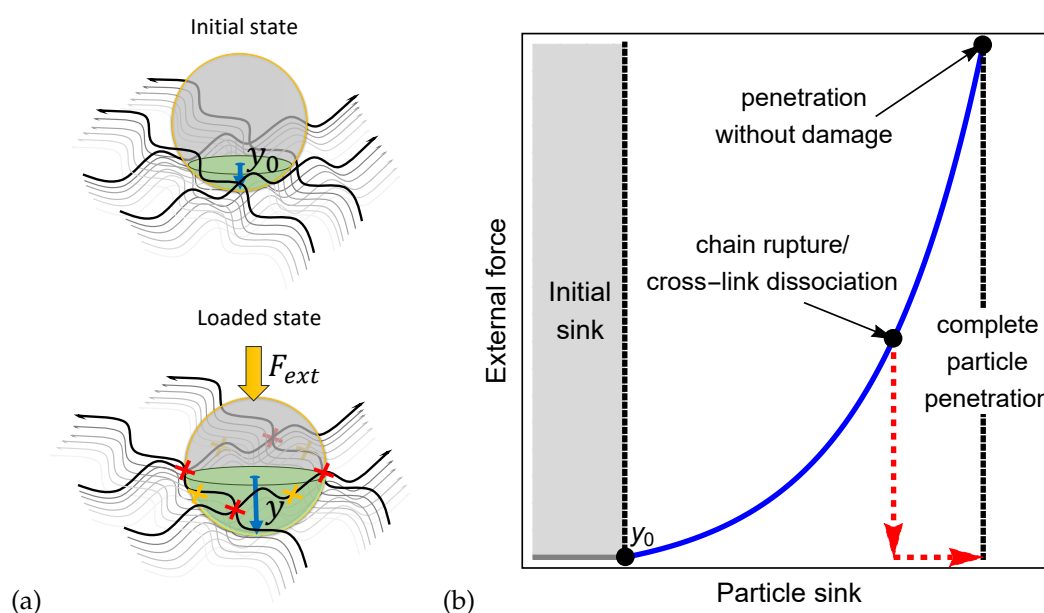


Figure 1. (a) Illustration of the initial particle sink and the sink under an external force. The yellow and the red x marks denote chain rupture and cross-link dissociation, respectively. (b) A schematic of the external force required for complete penetration of a particle into a polymer network.

81 is determined from a balance between the particle weight and the entropic stiffness of the polymer
 82 chains that prevents local deformations.

83 If the particle is small enough such that it fits in the inter-chain spacing ($y_0 > \rho$), it spontaneously
 84 penetrates the network. However, if the particle is larger than the mesh size, then $y_0 < \rho$ and an
 85 external force must be exerted to force its penetration into the bio-gel. Once applied, the external force
 86 is transferred through the particle to the network, leading to a local extension of polymer chains and
 87 the consequent increase in the local inter-chain spacing (see the loaded state in Fig. (1a)).

88 We propose that the penetration of the particle is enabled by one of three mechanisms: (1) the
 89 local inter-chain spacing increases enough such that the particle is able to enter the bio-gel, (2) the
 90 forces transferred to the polymer chains result in their rupture (as denoted by the yellow x marks in
 91 Fig. (1a)), or (3) the forces that develop lead to the dissociation of cross-linking sites (see the red x
 92 marks in Fig. (1a)). The second and the third mechanisms lead to permanent damage in the network
 93 and, as a consequence, result in a significant increase in the local mesh size that allows full particle
 94 penetration.

95 Fig. (1b) qualitatively demonstrates the dependence of the external force on the particle sink. It is
 96 shown that after the initial sink, an increase in the external force stretches the network locally around
 97 the particle, thereby allowing the particle to sink further into the gel. The non-linear dependence
 98 between the force and the sink is expected due to the non-linear response of the chains in the gel to
 99 the applied force. The first penetration mechanism is depicted by the continuous blue curve in Fig.
 100 (1b), where it is shown that the elastic response of the network allows a full penetration of the particle
 101 without damage to the network. The second and the third mechanisms, pertaining to damage that is
 102 induced by the external force, are described by the red dashed curve in Fig. (1b). Here, we show that
 103 the increase in the inter-chain distance due to the onset of damage allows a particle to fully penetrate
 104 the gel, even in the absence of external forces.

105 2.1. A microscopically motivated model

106 In the following we derive a microscopically motivated model that sheds light on the penetration
 107 mechanisms of microparticles and nanoparticles into bio-gels. To this end, we idealize the gel as a
 108 network of freely jointed chains and assume that (1) the exertion of a force on a particle gives rise to

109 local kinematic constraints on the chains, (2) the penetration process is quasi-static, (3) the particle
 110 is much stiffer than the network such that it does not deform upon penetration [1,29,30], and (4) the
 111 effect of a single particle is localized such that the interaction between different particles is negligible
 112 (i.e. dilute particle concentration).

113 Consider a spherical particle with a radius ρ that mechanically interacts with m chains, where
 114 each chain is a coiled segment comprising n repeating units of length l between two neighboring
 115 cross-linking sites. The initial end-to-end vector of the i -th chain is $\mathbf{R}_i = R \hat{\mathbf{R}}_i$, where $R = J^{1/3} \sqrt{nl}$ is
 116 the referential end-to-end length [31]. Here, J is the ratio between the volumes of the swollen and the
 117 dry networks [27,28].

As previously stated, once the particle is placed on top of the gel it sinks a depth of $y_0 < \rho$ into
 the network. Next, an external force \mathbf{F}_{ext} is applied to force the particle into the gel. As a result, the
 polymer chains in the local environment deform and the particle sink is $y > y_0$. To characterize the
 deformed state of the network under an external force, we denote the end-to-end vector of the i -th
 chain as $\mathbf{r}_i = \lambda_i R \mathbf{Q}_i \hat{\mathbf{R}}_i$, where λ_i is the ratio between the deformed and the referential end-to-end
 distance of the chain and \mathbf{Q}_i is a proper orthogonal rotation tensor accounting for the change in the
 direction $\hat{\mathbf{R}}_i$. We also recall that the force acting on the i -th freely jointed chain is $\mathbf{f}_i^c = f^c \mathbf{Q}_i \hat{\mathbf{R}}_i$, where
 [32]

$$f^c = \frac{k_b T}{l} \beta \left(\frac{\lambda R}{nl} \right) = \frac{k_b T}{l} \beta \left(\frac{\lambda J^{1/3}}{\sqrt{n}} \right). \quad (1)$$

118 Here, k_b is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, and β is determined from the Langevin
 119 function $\mathcal{L}(\beta) = \coth(\beta) - 1/\beta$. The latter can be approximated via $\beta(x) \approx x(3-x^2)/(1-x^2)$ [33].

The relation between the external force and the particle sink y is governed by the equilibrium
 equation

$$\mathbf{F}_{ext} = \mathbf{F}_b + \mathbf{F}_c(\langle f^c \rangle, y), \quad (2)$$

120 where \mathbf{F}_b is the force stemming from the bulk of the swollen network and $\mathbf{F}_c(\langle f^c \rangle, y)$ is the force
 121 associated with the chains that directly interact with the particle. Here, $\langle f^c \rangle$ is the average force acting
 122 on a chain that interacts with the particle. Eq. (2) holds as long as the network maintains its structural
 123 integrity. We emphasize that because of the experimental difficulties to measure the relation between
 124 the particle sink and the applied force, we do not explicitly model \mathbf{F}_b and \mathbf{F}_c . Rather, we emphasize
 125 that \mathbf{F}_b and \mathbf{F}_c depend on the density of the chains, the water content, and the entropic forces from
 126 the local chains that interact with the particle. The average entropic force $\langle f^c \rangle$ of these chains can be
 127 determined from Eq. (1).

Local damage can be introduced to the network if the particle does not penetrate the network
 under a sufficiently large force. This damage is localized to the area of penetration and can occur
 by one of two mechanisms: (1) the rupture of a chain or (2) the dissociation of a cross-linking site.
 To model these phenomena, we assume that a chain ruptures once $f^c > f_{rup}^c$, i.e. the tensile force
 exceeds a critical rupture force f_{rup}^c . To understand the origins of cross-link dissociation, we recall that
 a cross-link is a covalent or non-covalent bond that connects k polymer chains. The total force acting
 on a cross-link is the sum of the forces from the chains that are bound to it, i.e.

$$\mathbf{f}^{CL} = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{f}_i^c. \quad (3)$$

128 The dissociation of a cross-link occurs when $f^{CL} > f_{dis}^{CL}$, where f^{CL} is the magnitude of \mathbf{f}^{CL} and f_{dis}^{CL}
 129 is the maximum force that can be experienced by the cross-link. This quantity depends on the chemical
 130 nature of the cross-linking site. Specifically, covalent cross-linking bonds are significantly stronger
 131 than physical bonds and are thus characterized by higher f_{dis}^{CL} [34].

132 The mechanism by which the network is damaged depends on the chemical structure of the bio-gel.
 133 For example, in mucin (the main polymeric component of mucus), the bonds between monomers

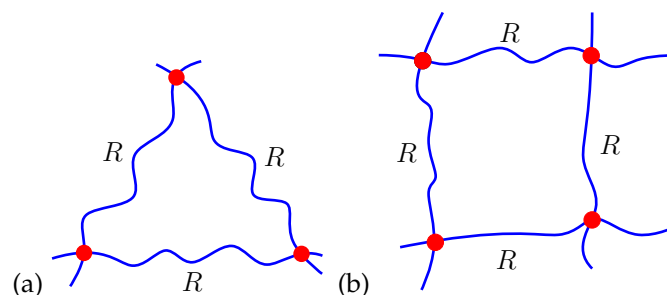


Figure 2. Schematics of (a) locally triangular ($m = 3$) and (b) locally quadrilateral ($m = 4$) chain arrangements.

134 in a chain are of a covalent nature while the cross-link sites are maintained by weak, non-covalent
 135 interactions of the mucin fibers to one another [35–38]. Thus, cross-link dissociation is more probable
 136 than the rupture of the chain [34]. On the other hand, the monomers and the cross-linking sites in
 137 synthetic polymers are often held together by covalent interactions. Hence, chain rupture may be more
 138 probable than the dissociation of a cross-link [31,39,40].

139 3. Spontaneous particle penetration

140 The penetration of particles into a gel in the absence of an external force is often driven by
 141 diffusion. If the chemical interactions between the particle and the gel are negligible, this process is
 142 spontaneous and depends on the ratio between the inter-chain distance and the dimensions of the
 143 particle [1,2,19,41].

144 In the following we employ the proposed formulation to study the spontaneous penetration of
 145 particles and, using experimental findings available in the literature, estimate the characteristics of the
 146 chains in the gel. To this end, we consider two local chain arrangements, triangular and quadrilateral,
 147 as shown in Fig. (2), and spherical particles with a diameter 2ρ .

Geometrical considerations reveal that a particle can spontaneously penetrate a gel if the local average end-to-end distance of a chain

$$R > 2\rho \tan(\pi/m), \quad (4)$$

148 where m is the number of chains around the particle. Eq. (4) reveals that increasing m or R leads to an
 149 increase in the mesh size, thereby enabling the spontaneous penetration of larger particles. The vast
 150 experimental data on particle penetration in different types of bio-gels allows to determine the average
 151 end-to-end distance via Eq. (4) under static conditions, and therefore approximate the gel mesh size [1].
 152 Additionally, a measurement of the water content and the length of a repeat unit in the gel allows to
 153 determine the number of repeat units in a chain for various bio-gels via the relation $n = (R / J^{1/3}l)^2$.

154 Table 1 lists the range and the average particle diameters that penetrate various mucus gels and
 155 biofilms from experimental data available in the literature. The reported water content $c_l = (J - 1) / J$
 156 values are also summarized and used in the determination of the volumetric deformation J . The
 157 average end-to-end distances R and the number of monomers n are calculated for triangular and
 158 quadrilateral chain arrangements based on the proposed framework. We emphasize that due to their
 159 heterogeneous structure, there is a substantial range of particle sizes that penetrate bio-gels. Our
 160 computations consider the average reported size value.

161 Typically, mucus gels contain approximately 95% water content and are characterized by repeat
 162 units with an effective length $l \approx 16 - 20$ nm [54]. Accordingly, we compute R and n and find that the
 163 chains in the respiratory mucus are shorter than those in the intestinal mucus. A possible explanation
 164 for this finding can be attributed to the fact that the mucin concentration in the lungs is 2 – 4% as
 165 opposed to the lower concentration in the gut [14,20]. It is also worth mentioning that the reported
 166 range of particles that spontaneously penetrate cervicovaginal mucus is great. The disparity between

Table 1. The structure of different bio-gels based on the penetration of particles in the absence of an external force.

Source	Reported particle diameter size range	Reported average particle diameter	c_l	$R (m = 3, m = 4)$	$n (m = 3, m = 4)$	References
Mucus gel						
Respiratory mucus	60-300 nm	140 nm	95%	(240, 140) nm	(24, 8)	[17,22,41-44]
Intestinal mucus	20-500 nm	210 nm	95%	(360, 210) nm	(54, 18)	[16,18,45]
Cervicovaginal mucus	50-1800 nm	340 nm	95%	(590, 340) nm	(146, 48)	[15,24,46]
Biofilms						
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	10-50 nm	30 nm	87-99%	(52, 30) nm	(1862, 620)	[47-52]
<i>Streptococcus mutans</i>	0.2-2.5 nm	2.0 nm	87-99%	(4, 2) nm	(11, 3)	[51-53]

$c_l = (J - 1) / J$ - percentage of liquid content in the gel;

R - the average end-to-end distance of a chain in locally triangular ($m = 3$) and quadrilateral ($m = 4$) arrangements, calculated from the model.

n - number of repeat units of length l , calculated from the model.

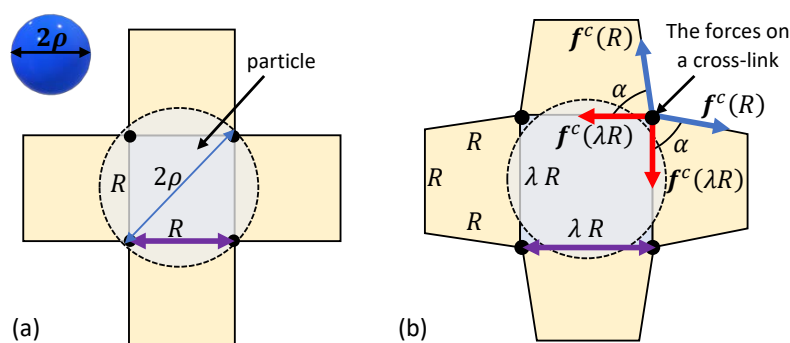


Figure 3. The penetration of a spherical particle into a network with a locally quadrilateral lattice. (a) The relaxed state and (b) the deformed configuration due to the sink of the particle.

167 experiments can stem from variations in the properties of cervicovaginal mucus throughout the
 168 menstrual cycle that lead to substantial changes in its micro-structure [15,23,24].

169 Next, we consider two types of bacterial biofilms, namely: *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and
 170 *Streptococcus mutans*. *Pseudomonas fluorescens* is a common Gram-negative, rod-shaped bacterium
 171 that can be found in water and in soil [49] while *Streptococcus mutans* is a Gram-positive round
 172 bacterium and the main constituent of dental plaque, known for its ability to form dense biofilms *in*
 173 *vivo* and *in vitro* [53]. Experimental findings using atomic force microscopy and imaging techniques
 174 approximated the effective monomer length of several common polysaccharides which represent
 175 the main component of bacterial extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) to be approximately
 176 $l \approx 0.07 - 1.5$ nm [49,51,52,55,56]. Accordingly, we find the typical chain length and the number
 177 of repeat units of the EPS in the biofilm of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Streptococcus mutans*. Since
 178 the particles that penetrate *Pseudomonas fluorescens* are two orders of magnitude larger than those in
 179 *Streptococcus mutans*, we conclude that the end-to-end distance and the number of repeat units in the
 180 former are significantly greater than the latter.

181 4. Forced particle penetration

182 Most of the experimental work reported in the literature explores the nature of the interactions
 183 between a bio-gel and a particle through various particle diffusion tracking techniques which utilize
 184 *in vitro*, *in vivo*, and *ex vivo* models [2,19,20,24,35,45,57–64]. These experiments do not account for the
 185 influence of external physiological forces and thus cannot fully capture the true response of biological
 186 gels in their native dynamic environment. Experimental *in vivo* assays conducted in humans or animals
 187 may offer broader insight into these interaction. However, such experiments are harder to carry out
 188 and present ethical challenges and are therefore less practical on a routine basis [65–67].

189 In this section, we employ the proposed framework to investigate the relations between the
 190 particle shape and the bio-gel structure under forced penetration. To this end, we consider the
 191 interactions between locally quadrilateral lattices and two particle shapes - spherical and ellipsoidal.
 192 Specifically, we investigate the force that must be exerted to push a particle into the network in a
 193 quasi-static process. We emphasize that while specific chain arrangements and particle shapes are
 194 considered, the proposed framework can be used to capture the response of other configurations and
 195 morphologies.

196 Before proceeding, we recall that it is assumed that the particle induces a local kinematic constraint
 197 on the local chains, the particle is treated as rigid, and the response of the local network is due to a
 198 single particle. We also emphasize that for simplicity, only the response of chains in the closest vicinity
 199 to the penetration site are considered.

200 First, consider the penetration of a spherical particle with a radius ρ into a locally quadrilateral
 201 chain arrangements. Fig. (3a) depicts a top view of the local chains in the vicinity of the spherical

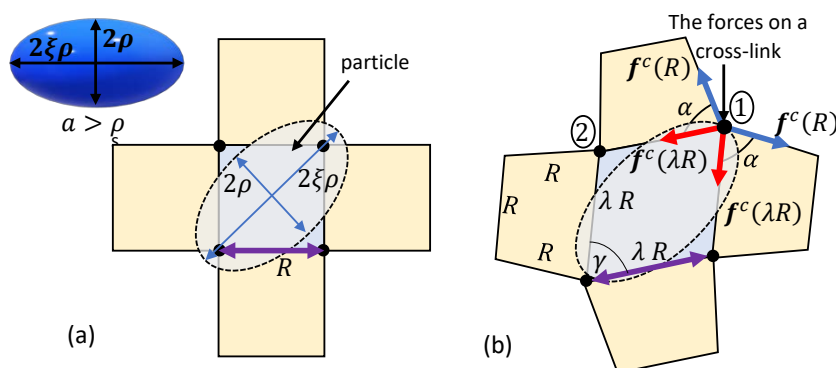


Figure 4. The penetration of an ellipsoidal particle into a network with a locally quadrilateral lattice. (a) The relaxed state and (b) the deformed configuration due to the sink of the particle.

202 particle. The initial particle sink y_0 into the network depends on the end-to-end distance R of the
 203 local chains in the relaxed state. If the diameter of the particle is larger than the inter-chain distance,
 204 i.e. $2\rho > R$, spontaneous penetration does not occur and an additional force is required to push the
 205 spherical particle into the bio-gel.

206 Owing to the spherical symmetry and the chosen arrangement of the local network, the application
 207 of a force pushes the particle in and, as a result, chains that are in direct contact with the particle stretch.
 208 To maintain the integrity of the network, neighboring chains rotate but do not stretch. We remark that
 209 such a deformation is energetically favorable under the examined local network structure. It is also
 210 important to note that the penetration of the particle may influence chains that are further away, but
 211 following the locality assumption such effects are negligible.

212 The neighboring chains form trapezoid-like shapes in the local network (see Fig. (3b)). It can be
 213 shown that the base angle of the trapezoids is $\alpha = \arccos((\lambda - 1)/2)$ such that in the reference state
 214 $\lambda = 1$ and $\alpha = 90^\circ$. Interestingly, as $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ (or $\lambda \rightarrow 3$), the trapezoid collapses and the rotation of
 215 the nearest neighboring chains is no longer possible. If the particle has yet to penetrate the network,
 216 further deformation requires the stretching of 12 additional chains (three from each side), leading to a
 217 local stiffening effect.

218 Next, we consider the penetration of an ellipsoidal particle into a locally quadrilateral network.
 219 The principal semi-axes of the ellipsoid are ρ , ρ , and $\zeta\rho$, where $\zeta > 1$. The particle is diagonally
 220 pushed into the network through its short axis, as shown in Fig. (4a), such that the contact point
 221 of the ellipsoidal particle with a chain is at a distance $\lambda R/2$ from the two ends of the chain. Here,
 222 spontaneous penetration can only occur if $2\xi\rho < R$. Otherwise, the placement of the ellipsoidal particle
 223 on the network leads to the local distortion of the chains such that a rhombus-like configuration with a
 224 vertex angle $\gamma = 2 \arctan(1/\zeta)$ is formed (see Fig. (4b)). We underscore that long-term interactions
 225 with chains that are further away may influence the local structure of the network. However, such
 226 interactions are neglected in this work.

227 Upon the exertion of an external force, we conjecture that the particle sinks further into the
 228 network by stretching the chains at a constant vertex angle γ . Note that similarly to the spherical
 229 particles, the neighboring chains are assumed to deform into a trapezoidal configuration with a base
 230 angle α . Consequently, the stiffening effect as $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ is also expected.

231 It is worth noting that the forces exerted by the chains on the cross-links marked by 1 and 2 in Fig.
 232 (4b) are not identical due to the transition of the local network into a trapezoid-like configuration. It
 233 can be shown that the resultant force on cross-link 1 is larger than that on cross-link 2. Thus, in the
 234 following we will focus on the total force exerted on cross-link 1.

235 We point out that the orientation at which the ellipsoidal particle meets the network determines
 236 the local response of the chains. For example, if the ellipsoidal particle penetrates the network along
 237 its long axis (at roughly 90° out of plane to the situation illustrated in Fig. (4a)), the interactions would

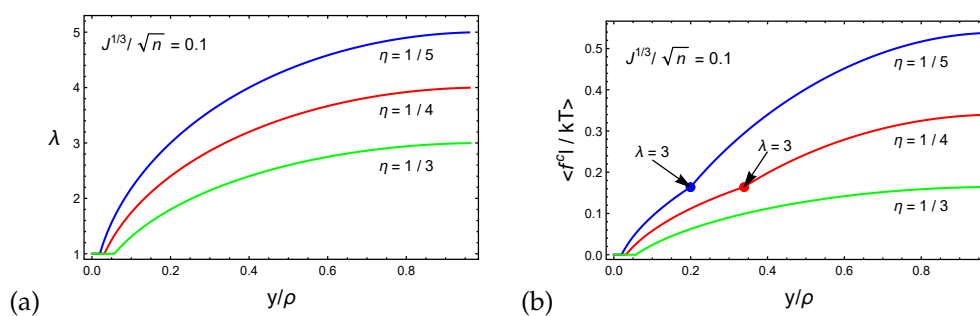


Figure 5. (a) The stretch of a chain λ and (b) the average force on a chain $\langle f^{cl}/kT \rangle$ as a function of the normalized sink y/ρ for spherical or ellipsoidal particles characterized by the ratio $J^{1/3}/\sqrt{n} = 0.1$ and three representative ratios $\eta = 1/3, 1/4, 1/5$.

238 be similar to those of a spherical particle. If the orientation of the ellipsoidal particle is such that the
 239 long axis is parallel to the end-to-end vectors that connect cross-links, the chains would experience
 240 different deformations in response to the particle sink.

241 The relation between the sink of a spherical or an ellipsoidal particle and the stretching of the
 242 local chains is given by

$$\frac{y}{\rho} = 1 - \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2 \eta^2}, \quad (5)$$

243 where $\eta^2 = R^2 / (2(\xi^2 + 1)\rho^2)$ accounts for the ratio between the inter-chain distance and the pertinent
 244 particle dimension. For a spherical particle $\xi = 1$ and therefore $\eta^2 = (R/2\rho)^2$. The initial sink of a
 245 particle is obtained by substituting $\lambda = 1$ in Eq. (5).

246 The relation between the chain stretch λ and the normalized sink y/ρ is depicted in Fig. (5a) for
 247 networks characterized by $J^{1/3}/\sqrt{n} = 0.1$ and the ratios $\eta = 1/3, 1/4$ and $1/5$. We emphasize that
 248 the local network response depends on the initial end-to-end distance of the chain R and the particle
 249 shape through ρ and ξ . Following Eq. (5), we show that the stretch of the chains varies in a non-linear
 250 manner with increasing particle sink. Additionally, we recall that η is the ratio between the end-to-end
 251 distance of the chains and the characteristics of the particle (i.e. the radius or the long axis in the case
 252 of spherical or ellipsoidal particles, respectively). Thus, deeper initial sinks are found in networks with
 253 higher η values. Consequently, we find that networks characterized by lower η values are capable of
 254 experiencing larger stretches.

255 Fig. (5b) plots the average dimensionless force on a chain $\langle f^{cl}/kT \rangle$ as a function of the
 256 normalized sink y/ρ . Once again, we consider $J^{1/3}/\sqrt{n} = 0.1$ and the ratios $\eta = 1/3, 1/4$ and $1/5$.
 257 For stretches $\lambda < 3$ the chains that are in direct contact with the spherical particle stretch while the
 258 remaining chains rotate. As a result, only the former contributes to the average chain force. If the
 259 ratio between the long axis of the particle and the initial end-to-end distances of the local chains is
 260 sufficiently small (i.e. $0 \ll \eta < 1$), the particle penetrates the network before the network stiffens, as
 261 shown by the curve marked $\eta = 1/3$.

262 However, beyond $\lambda > 3$, the neighboring chains that are not in direct contact with the particle
 263 stretch to maintain the structural integrity of the network, leading to the stiffening of the network.
 264 Specifically, further increase in the sink requires the stretching of 12 additional chains (see Fig. (3b) and
 265 Fig. (4b)). This effect can be appreciated from the increase in the steepness of the slope in the curves
 266 marked by $\eta = 1/4$ and $\eta = 1/5$.

267 Next, we investigate the forces that develop on the cross-linking sites during the forced penetration
 268 process. Figs. (6a) and (6b) plot the dimensionless magnitude of the resultant force on a cross-linking
 269 site $f^{CL}l/k_bT$ as a function of the normalized particle sink y/ρ for spherical and ellipsoidal particles,
 270 respectively. We set $\xi = 3$ such that the long axis of the ellipsoidal particle is 3ρ . The behavior of f^{CL} as
 271 a function of the normalized sink follows the trends of the average force on a chain that is shown in Fig.

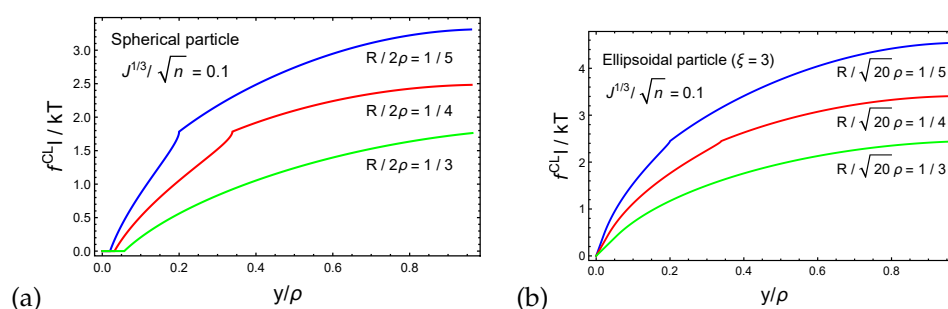


Figure 6. The force on a cross-link f^{CL} for (a) a spherical particle and (b) an ellipsoidal particle (cross-link 1) as a function of the normalized sink y/ρ . We set the ratio $J^{1/3}/\sqrt{n} = 0.1$.

272 (5b). Interestingly, we find that the forces that develop on a cross-linking site during the penetration
 273 of an ellipsoidal particle are larger than those with a spherical particle. This observation is perhaps
 274 intuitive, since damage to the network is more likely in particles with dimensions that are much larger
 275 than the local end-to-end distances of the chains.

276 5. Discussion and conclusions

277 In this work we derive a microscopically motivated and entropy-based framework that describes
 278 the penetration mechanisms of particles into bio-gels and provides a quantitative measurement of the
 279 changes in the network due to particle penetration.

280 We begin by phrasing the conditions that enable spontaneous penetration, i.e. the penetration of
 281 particles in the absence of external forces. Such a penetration is possible when the dimensions of the
 282 particle are smaller than the inter-chain distance (or the mesh-size). By using available experimental
 283 data on spontaneous particle penetration, we characterize the local micro-structure of various mucus
 284 types and biofilms. Specifically, our framework allows to estimate the end-to-end distance and the
 285 number of monomer segments in chains that make up the network of these bio-gels. Additionally, the
 286 proposed approach enables a comparison between the microstructures of different bio-gels and reveals
 287 the parameters that govern the spontaneous penetration process.

288 Next, we examine the process of forced penetration. Here, we propose that full penetration is
 289 enabled by one of three mechanisms: (1) a sufficient increase of the inter-chain distance following the
 290 stretching of the chains, (2) the rupture of polymer chains in the network, or (3) the dissociation of a
 291 cross-linking bond. Note that these three mechanisms result in an increase in the inter-chain distance.
 292 To better understand the interactions between particulate matter and bio-gels, we consider a locally
 293 quadrilateral arrangement of chains and two types of particles - spherical and ellipsoidal. We illustrate
 294 the relation between the stretch of the chains, the average force experienced by a chain, and the forces
 295 on the cross-linking sites and the particle sink.

296 Since most existing research conducted on bio-gel/particle interactions disregard the effects of
 297 an applied force on the penetration process, many open questions remain. For example, how are the
 298 physiological forces acting on the particle affect its penetration? What explains the fact that certain
 299 particles penetrate gels while others do not? The framework derived in this work attempts to answer
 300 these questions and shed light on the interactions between particle features (e.g., size, shape, and
 301 symmetry) and the response of the bio-gel network through a simple model that provides qualitative
 302 and quantitative predictions. The proposed model can be used as a preliminary tool to predict the
 303 interactions between particles of different sizes and geometries and a gel.

304 We believe that the model developed in this work provides a better understanding of these
 305 mechanisms and can be exploited to improve and complement the analysis of experimental findings *in*
 306 *vitro*, *ex vivo*, and *in vivo*. Overall, the study of these interactions is essential towards a more rational
 307 design of nano-medicines as well as the assessment of risk factors related to the unintended exposure
 308 of bio-gels to nano-pollutants [68–70].

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