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1 **Dopamine Induced Multiple Bonding in Hyaluronic Acid Network to**
2 **Construct Particle-free Conductive Hydrogel for Reliable Electro-**
3 **biosensing**

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17

18 **Abstract:** Conductive hydrogel (CH) as flexible electrophysiology interface has
19 become the new trend of bioelectronics, but still challenging in synergizing the
20 biocompatibility, mechanics and comprehensive electrical performance. Hyaluronic
21 acid (HA), featured with abundant active sites for personalized-modification and well-
22 known biocompatibility, is one of the alternative candidates. The obstacle lies in the
23 unstable conductivity from the ionic conduction, and the electronic conduction by
24 embedding conductive nanoparticles (NPs) is likely to result in inhomogeneous CH
25 with poor stretchability and discontinuous conductive network. Herein, inspired by

26 catechol chemistry, dopamine (DA)-modified HA was homogeneously composited
27 with DA-modified poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene):poly(styrenesulfonate)
28 (PEDOT:PSS, named PP), to produce particle-free conductive hydrogel (HA-DA-PP).
29 The DA-introduced multiple bondings in HA network and PP molecules brought
30 aqueous conductive PP into HA hydrogel to form a homogeneous crosslinking network,
31 imparted the flexible stretchability. By accurately regulation, HA-DA-PP achieved high
32 stretchability with large tensile deformation (over 470%) in the category of natural
33 polymer-based hydrogels. Moreover, the interaction between DA and PP
34 (conformational transition and charge transfer) could effectively enhance the hydrogel's
35 conductivity. Consequently, HA-DA-PP hydrogel showed high sensibility to human
36 movement, epidermal and *in vivo* electrophysiological signals monitoring. Overall,
37 DA-mediated multiple bonding is a powerful strategy for constructing CH with high
38 performance for bioelectronics.

39

40 Keywords: Conductive hydrogel, hyaluronic acid, flexible hydrogel, biocompatible
41 interface, human movement monitoring, electrophysiological electrode

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Flexible electronics get increasing attraction in personalized motion, health monitoring,
45 rehabilitation monitoring, medical diagnosis, disease therapy and human-machine
46 interface (Jia et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2022). Therein, interface materials as an
47 indispensable part and the cornerstone of these devices, are of great significance (Li,
48 Ma, & Huang, 2021). As an updating strategy of traditional metal interface with
49 mismatched tissue mechanics and possible biotoxicity, soft interfaces featured with
50 flexible stretchability, tissue-interface compliance and tight adhesion, as well as super
51 electric properties (high conductivity and low impedance) are highly expected to
52 realize precise and rapid electro-biosensing (Tang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2019).
53 Particularly, conductive hydrogels (CHs) are remarkable candidates for their desirable

54 mechanical flexibility and tunable conductivity (Sun, Agate, Salem, Lucia, & Pal, 2020;
55 Yazdi et al., 2021). Ionic conduction and electronic conduction are two main
56 representative strategies for designing CHs (Chen, Z. et al.). For ionic conduction-based
57 CHs, ions are easy to leak out under physiological environment, leading to unstable
58 conductivity (Yang et al., 2019). For electronic conduction-based CHs, the strategy of
59 embedding conductive nanoparticles (NPs) such as Mxene, Polypyrrole and Polyaniline
60 *etc.* within hydrogel is popular, and the possible inhomogeneous dispersion of NPs
61 might result in subsequent unavoidable stress concentration around NPs, leading to
62 interfacial mechanical mismatch, poor stretchability and unstable durability in practical
63 application (Park et al., 2019). Therefore, designing a particle-free homogeneous CH
64 has become an urgent front-burner problem to get satisfactory physical-chemical
65 performance (Song et al., 2021). Considering the possible applications for both
66 epidermal and *in vivo* monitoring with direct tissue surface contacting even long-term
67 implantation, such as neural probe for nerve activity stimuli/recording and brain-
68 machine interface signal recording, hydrogels based on synthetic polymers are hardly
69 to meet above mentioned requirements due to the inferior biocompatibility, bioactivity
70 and biodegradability (Hassan et al., 2022). Comparatively, biological derived polymers
71 such as hyaluronic acid (HA), alginate and gelatin are superior because of their native
72 biocompatibility and bioactivity (Shi et al., 2016).

73

74 HA, which is particularly abundant in natural extracellular matrix (ECM), has
75 remarkable biocompatibility, biodegradability, gelation property and customized
76 functional modification ability (Abatangelo, Vindigni, Avruscio, Pandis, & Brun, 2020).
77 In addition, HA is quite readily available and massive producible, which makes it
78 widely used in biomedical devices, including implantable scaffold and biomimetic
79 matrix for tissue regeneration (Chen, S.et al., 2021). Compared with other common
80 natural polymers such as collagen and alginate, HA contains many free active sites
81 (acetamide, carboxyl, hydroxyl and terminus aldehyde), feasible for various functional

82 modifications (Highley, Prestwich, & Burdick, 2016). The common strategy of
83 introducing chemical crosslinking bonding overcomes the HA hydrogels' weakness in
84 mechanical property and rapid degradation, whereas the conventional covalent-bonding
85 with high bond energy might suppress the mobility of HA molecular chains, leading to
86 poor stretchability. Introducing multiple bonding mode especially reversible dynamic
87 bonds as sacrificial bonds to dissipate stress is promising for improving the
88 aforementioned problems, particularly the stretchability of HA-based hydrogels (Lai,
89 2014).

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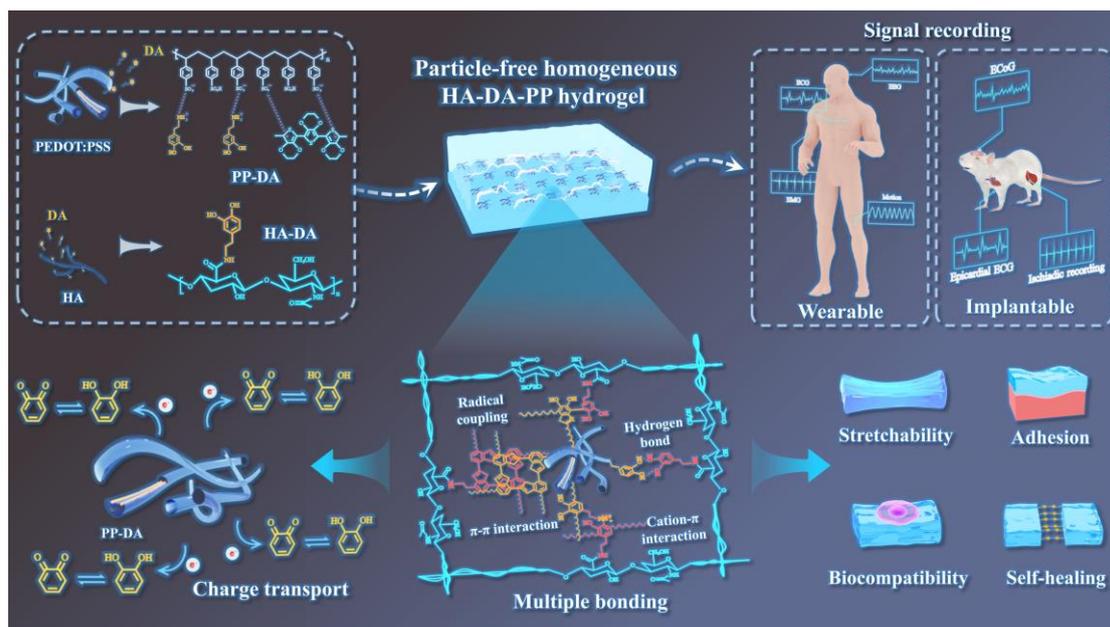
91 There have been some attempts of using HA-based CHs in flexible bioelectronics,
92 however, most of them are dependent on the incorporation of conductive NPs, facing
93 the problem mentioned above (Liang et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021). To get particle-free
94 HA-based CHs, introducing conductive polymers (CPs) such as polyaniline (PANI) and
95 polythiophene (PTh) seems alternative but that is still impeded by the inherent
96 insolubility in water (Namsheer & Rout, 2021). Poly(3,4-ethylene dioxythiophene)
97 (PEDOT), the most popular PTh-based material, stands out among all CPs due to its
98 relatively high electrical conductivity and biocompatibility (Jeong et al., 2021).
99 Especially, poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene):poly(styrenesulfonate) (PEDOT:PSS,
100 named PP) which formed by doping with hydrophilic polystyrene sulphonate (PSS),
101 successfully improved the hydrophobic of PEDOT to yield out a stable aqueous
102 dispersion (Rudd & Drew, 2022). Basing on that, a particle-free homogeneous
103 polyvinyl alcohol (PVA)-based CH has been reported (Liu et al., 2021). However, this
104 PVA-based hydrogel shows limited improvement in stretchability due to that the high
105 crystallinity of PVA leads to weak mobility of PVA chains, displaying the only
106 elongation at break of about 180.9%. In addition, the poor biocompatibility of PVA
107 hinders its further application for *in vivo* application. Hence, developing a multiple
108 bonding mode with considerable dynamic crosslinking between aqueous CPs and
109 biocompatible hydrogel matrix is highly expected.

110

111 The widely applied catechol chemistry inspires this possibility. With abundant phenolic
112 hydroxyl groups, catechol derivatives can participate in noncovalent interactions,
113 including hydrogen bonding, π - π stacking and cation- π interactions, and also undergo
114 covalent crosslinking under oxidative conditions (Liu et al., 2014). Remarkable
115 stretchability was reported by integrating dopamine (DA) into PVA hydrogel, which is
116 attributed to the DA mediated multiple dynamic bonds acting as sacrificial bonds to
117 dissipate energy (Liu et al., 2018). Moreover, literatures have reported that when DA
118 interacts with PEDOT, the low ionization energy of PEDOT can cause the charge
119 transfer from PEDOT to catechol/quinone groups. This charge transfer forms well-
120 connected electric path that can enhance the conductivity of hydrogel (Gan et al., 2020).
121 Besides, the ion replacement reaction triggered by DA doping improves the regular
122 aggregation of PEDOT backbone, which also can enhance the conductivity (Zeng et al.,
123 2020).

124

125 Hence, in this study, a novel DA-functionalized multiple bonding particle-free CH with
126 improved stretchability, tissue-interface adhesion, self-healing ability and
127 biocompatibility was proposed (**Scheme 1**). HA and PP were both modified by DA
128 firstly for outputting binding sites. After that, water-soluble PP was introduced into HA
129 to form a particle-free CH hydrogel (abbreviated as HA-DA-PP) under the oxidative
130 coupling of catechol groups catalyzed by horseradish peroxidase (HRP) / hydrogen
131 peroxide (H_2O_2) system. DA incorporation confers the hydrogel sufficient energy
132 dissipation through various non-covalent interactions. PP provides conductivity for
133 hydrogel, and the charge transfer between PEDOT and catechol/quinone groups
134 enhances the efficiency. The proposed particle-free HA-DA-PP CH demonstrates great
135 potential in bioelectronic applications.



136

137 **Scheme 1.** The strategy of designing particle-free highly conductive HA-DA-PP hydrogel with
 138 multiple bonding, which possesses favorable stretchability, biocompatibility, adhesion and self-
 139 healing performance, for epidermal and *in vivo* physiological signals monitoring.

140

141 2. Materials and methods

142 2.1. Materials

143 PP was obtained from Clevis (PH1000, Germany). The 1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-
 144 3-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochlorid (EDC), N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) and dopamine
 145 hydrochloride (DA·HCl) were purchased from Aladdin Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). HA
 146 (Mw = 700k~800k Da) was obtained from Bloomage Biotech. Co. Ltd. (Jinan, China).
 147 Fluorescein diacetate (FDA) and propidium iodide (PI) was purchased from Sigma-
 148 Aldrich (USA). HRP (activity: 248 unit/mg) was purchased from TCI (Japan). Unless
 149 otherwise specified, all other chemicals were acquired from Chengdu Kelong Chem.
 150 Co..

151

152 2.2. Preparation of PP-DA

153 PP-DA was synthesized via the ion exchange reaction between PSS and DA·HCl (Zeng
 154 et al., 2020). 20 mg DA·HCl was added to PP aqueous solution (20 mL, 10 mg/mL)

155 directly. After half an hour stirring under room temperature (RT), the rough product was
156 obtained and further dialyzed with a dialysis membrane (1000 Da, MYM Biological
157 Technology Co. Ltd., China) for removing extra inorganic salt. The pure product PP-
158 DA (10 mg/mL) was obtained and preserved at 4°C for later use.

159

160 *2.3. Synthesis of HA-DA*

161 HA-DA was synthesized via the carbodiimide coupling chemistry (Liang et al., 2019).
162 Briefly, 1 g HA was dissolved in 100 mL of deionized water (DIW). After adjusting the
163 pH to 5 with 0.1M HCl, 440 mg EDC and 288 mg NHS were added for activating the
164 carboxy groups, then, 0.47 g DA·HCl in 5 mL DIW was added, stirred overnight at RT
165 under nitrogen protection. Subsequently, the reaction solution was dialyzed against
166 DIW with a dialysis membrane (10,000 Da) for 3 days and lyophilized to obtain pure
167 product HA-DA, then analyzed by ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz, Bruker, USA).

168

169 *2.4. Preparation of HA-DA-PP hydrogel*

170 To form a series of HA-DA-PP hydrogels, HA-DA solution (2.5 wt%) and PP-DA
171 solution with various concentration (0, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 mg/mL, respectively) were mixed,
172 followed by adding 12.5 μL of H₂O₂ (0.5 mol/L) and 30 μL of HRP solutions (1mg/mL).
173 The final obtained hydrogels were noted as HA-DA (without PP-DA), HA-DA-PP0.2,
174 HA-DA-PP0.5 and HA-DA-PP1, respectively. As control, HA-DA@PP0.5 was
175 prepared by adding 0.5 mg/mL PP (without DA modification) into 2.50 wt% HA-DA
176 solution.

177

178 *2.5. Characterization of interaction between DA and PP in PP-DA*

179 The content of PEDOT and PSS domain in PP and PP-DA was analyzed using X-ray
180 photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (AXIS SUPRA, Kratos, UK). The chemical
181 structure of PP and PP-DA was analyzed with Raman spectroscopy (inVia Raman
182 microscope, Renishaw, UK). The Atomic Force Microscope (AFM) (Dimension Icon,

183 Bruker, Germany) was used to characterize the morphology. The radical character of
184 PP-DA and PP was detected using the electron spin resonance (ESR) test (JES X310,
185 JOLE, Japan). The cyclic voltammetry (CV) curve and conductivity of PP and PP-DA
186 were tested using the CHI 660E electrochemical workstation (ChenHua, China).

187

188 2.6. Physical-chemical characterization of hydrogels

189 2.6.1. *Hydrogel homogeneity*: Tunneling-AFM (TUNA) with a contact mode on
190 Dimension Icon (Bruker, Germany) was used to characterize the morphology and
191 distribution of PP-DA in composite hydrogels. As control, HA-DA@P0.5 was prepared
192 by adding 0.5 mg/mL PEDOT NPs (without PSS) into 2.50 wt% HA-DA solution.

193

194 2.6.2. *Gelation kinetics*: The rheological behavior was measured via dynamic
195 oscillatory shear rheometry (TA Instruments, USA) under a strain of 1% and 1 Hz. Five
196 parallel samples per group were tested.

197

198 2.6.3. *Swelling test*: Hydrogels (diameter = 5 mm; height = 2 mm) were lyophilized and
199 soaked in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4) at 37 °C. At predetermined time
200 intervals, the swollen hydrogels were weighted after removing excess water with filter
201 paper. The swelling ratio (SR) was calculated using the following equation 1 (Eq 1):

$$202 \quad SR = \frac{W_t - W_0}{W_0} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

203 Where W_0 and W_t represent the original dry-weight and the changed weight of the
204 hydrogel at time t , respectively.

205 Five parallel samples per group were tested.

206

207 2.6.4. *Degradation test*: Hydrogels were soaked in the medium at 37 °C and changed
208 every day. At the predetermined time, the hydrogels were taken out and weighted. The
209 mass remaining (MR) was calculated using the following equation 2 (Eq 2):

210
$$MR = \frac{W_t}{W_0} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

211 Where W_0 and W_t represent the original wet-weight and the changed weight of the
212 hydrogel at time t , respectively.

213 Five parallel samples per group were tested.

214

215 *2.6.5. Morphology characterization:* All hydrogels (diameter = 5 mm, height = 2 mm)
216 were lyophilized and exposed the cross section. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM,
217 S-4800, Hitachi, Japan) was adopted to investigate the interior morphology of the
218 hydrogels at an acceleration voltage of 3.0 kV. ImageJ software (NIH, USA) was used
219 to evaluate the pore size of hydrogels. Five parallel samples for each group were used.

220

221 *2.6.6. Mechanical characterization:* The compressive stress-strain curve of the
222 hydrogel samples (diameter = 5 mm, height = 2 mm) was obtained at a strain rate of 1
223 mm/min with a dynamic mechanical analyzer (DMA, TA Q-800, USA) under RT. The
224 compressive modulus was defined as the slope of the linear region from 0 to 10% strain.
225 For tensile strength test, the hydrogels were formed in a cube mold (5 mm × 20 mm ×
226 2 mm), then tested with DMA at an extension speed of 20 mm/min. Five parallel
227 samples per group were assessed and the resulting values were averaged.

228

229 *2.6.7. Measurement of adhesion strength:* The adhesive strength of HA-DA-PP
230 hydrogels was determined by lap-shear test using DMA. Prior to test, fresh porcine skin
231 was prepared by removing adipose tissue layer and cut into rectangular shape (length =
232 3 cm, width = 1 cm). Then, 100 μ L of precursor solution was applied to the inner surface
233 of two pieces of porcine skins to cover 1 cm × 1 cm overlapping region. After gelation,
234 adhesive-applied skin samples were measured with DMA at a loading speed of 5
235 mm/min. All measurements were repeated five times.

236

237 2.6.8. *Self-healing performance*: HA-DA-PP hydrogel was cut into halves and put
238 together without external treatments. Then we pulled the separated parts with tweezers.
239 Further, the self-healing performance was also assessed by the alternating step strain
240 scanning mode (50% and 2500% oscillation strain) during five cycles using DMA at
241 37 °C with 1 Hz frequency.

242

243 2.7. *Biocompatibility evaluation*

244 To investigate the biocompatibility, 3T3 cells were firstly inoculated to a 48-well plate
245 at a density of 5000 cells per well. After cells completely adhering, HA-DA-PP
246 hydrogels were placed in culture plate. Live/Dead staining and MTT were carried out
247 to evaluate cell viability and proliferation according to the protocol. FDA imaging was
248 observed by confocal laser scanning microscope (CLSM, Leica-TCSSP5, Germany) .
249 For *in vivo* biocompatibility, HA-DA and HA-DA-PP hydrogel (diameter of 5mm and
250 height of 2 mm) were implanted in the dorsal subcutaneous area of SD rat (female), and
251 silver wire (diameter of 0.3 mm and length of 5 mm) were implanted as control. The
252 subcutaneous area of the implant site of three groups was excised after 14 days of
253 implantation and fixed in 10 % formalin for 24 h, then followed by hematoxylin-eosin
254 (HE) staining. The experimental protocols were performed in accordance with the
255 ARRIVE guidelines, and all animal experiments were strictly performed with the
256 National Research Council's Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and
257 approved by the Sichuan Provincial Committee for Experimental Animal Management
258 (approval number: SYXK (Sichuan): 138 2019-189).

259

260 2.8. *Electrochemical properties measurement*

261 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), CV and Nyquist curve of the hydrogels
262 were carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Reference 600, Gamry
263 Instruments, USA) equipped with the linear four-pin probe (ST2558B-F01, Suzhou
264 Jingge, China). The conductivity (σ) of the hydrogels was measured with a digital

265 source meter (2612B, Keithley, USA) by two-point method, then evaluated by Eq. 3.

$$266 \quad \sigma = \frac{L}{RS} \quad (3)$$

267 Where L, R and S represent the length, electrical resistance and cross-sectional area of
268 the sample, respectively.

269

270 *2.9. Electromechanical properties measurement*

271 The electromechanical properties of hydrogels were tested via the digital source meter
272 under dynamic stretching with the uniaxial tensile tester (BioTester, Canada). Gauge
273 factor (GF) was evaluated by Eq. 4.

$$274 \quad GF = \frac{\Delta R/R_0}{\Delta \varepsilon} \quad (4)$$

275 Where ΔR , R_0 , and $\Delta \varepsilon$ were represent the changed resistance with strain, starting
276 resistance, and applied strain, respectively.

277

278 *2.10. Human motion monitoring*

279 For human motion monitoring, all related experiments had been carried out in
280 accordance with The Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of
281 Helsinki). The volunteer who participated in the experiment was obtained the informed
282 written consent prior to research, and all the experiments were approved by the Medical
283 Ethics Committee of Sichuan University (KS2022863). In detail, the HA-DA-PP1
284 hydrogels (also called as HDP in the text) were attached onto a volunteer's finger, wrist
285 and knee, respectively. The white bandages were used to fix the wires that connecting
286 the hydrogel and a digital source meter for transmitting electrical signals and the R-t
287 curves were recorded.

288

289 *2.11. Electrophysiological signals monitoring*

290 Epidermal electrophysiological signals, including electromyography (EMG),

291 electrocardiogram (ECG) and electroencephalogram (EEG) were detected. The EMG
292 signal was obtained with an EMG signal tester (TeleMyo2400 T, Noraxon, USA),
293 therein, the HDP hydrogel was filled into a commercial button-like electrode, and three
294 HDP-contained hydrogel electrodes were attached to the muscle peak of biceps brachii,
295 medial acromion and fossa cubit of a volunteer, respectively. To obtain the ECG signal,
296 two HDP-contained hydrogel electrodes were connected to the wireless Bluetooth
297 module (BMD101, Xinweilai, China) then adhered onto the mid left of a volunteer's
298 chest. To obtain the EEG signal, a 64-channel EEG-cap was used of which reference
299 and ground placing above volunteer's nose. HDP hydrogel and commercial Ten20[®]
300 Conductive Paste (control, 10-20-4, Weaver and company, USA) were filled into the
301 two channels of the EEG-cap, respectively. The EEG signals were recorded by an EEG
302 signal detector (SynAmps RT 64-channel, Neuroscan, USA). For *in vivo*
303 electrophysiological signals monitoring, a female SD rat was used as the animal model.
304 Sciatic signal, epicardial ECG and ECoG signals were recorded by a multichannel
305 neural signal recording system (BlackRock, Cereplex Direct, USA), respectively. For
306 sciatic signal, the HDP hydrogel was wrapped on sciatic nerve and the two references
307 were attached on rat's tail and gastrocnemius, respectively. For epicardial ECG, the
308 HDP hydrogel was attached on epicardium and the reference was attached on rat's tail.
309 For ECoG signal, the HDP hydrogel was attached the primary visual cortex in the left
310 hemispheres of a rat, and the reference was attached on the dura mater. The
311 experimental protocols were performed in accordance with the ARRIVE guidelines,
312 and the animal experiments were strictly performed with the National Research
313 Council's Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

314

315 *2.12. Statistical analysis*

316 Unless otherwise specified, all data are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD).
317 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to perform the statistical analysis
318 among the multiple groups. Statistically significant was indicated by * $p < 0.05$, ** $p <$

319 0.01, and ***p < 0.001.

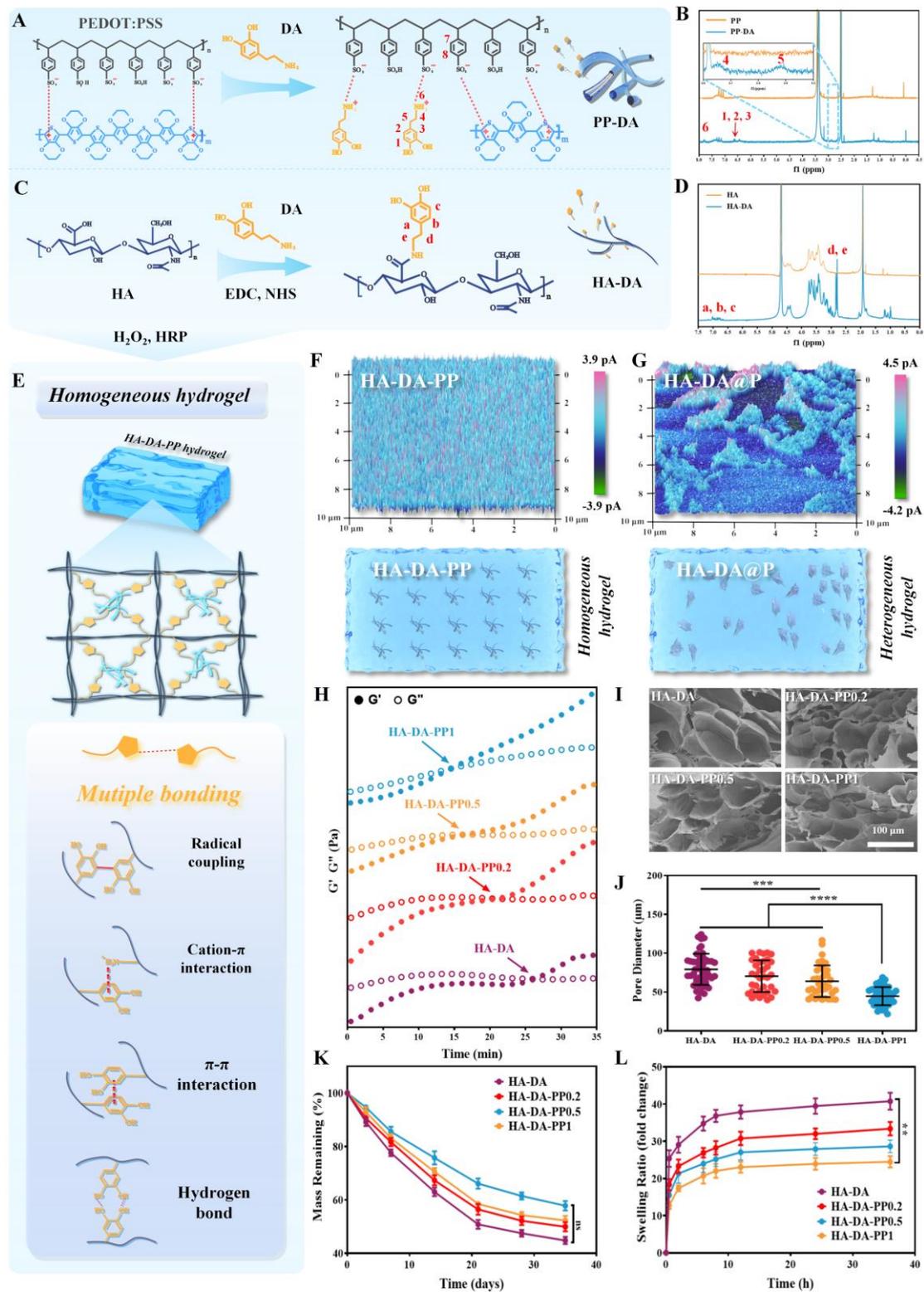
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321 **3. Results and discussion**

322 *3.1. Preparation and physical-chemical characterization of HA-DA-PP hydrogel*

323 The preparation process of particle-free conductive HA-DA-PP hydrogel is shown in
324 **Figure 1**. Firstly, DA was introduced into PP via electrostatic interaction between
325 primary amine group on DA and sulfonic acid ions on PSS to obtain PP-DA (**Figure**
326 **1A**), which can be subsequently combined into HA hydrogel network through the
327 oxidative polymerization of catechol groups. The ¹HNMR spectra of PP-DA and PP in
328 **Figure 1B** shows the successful introduction of DA by the characteristic peaks of
329 protons in the catechol ring and -CH₂- group close to the catechol ring (marked 1, 2, 3,
330 4, 5, 6) within PP-DA (Zeng et al., 2020). The absorption band at around 800 nm of
331 UV-vis absorption in **Figure S1** further confirmed the successful preparation of PP-DA
332 (Huang et al., 2017). HA-DA was synthesized by carbodiimide coupling chemistry
333 (**Figure 1C**), which was confirmed by the appearance of catechol proton peaks around
334 6.7 ppm (marked a, b, c) and proton peak of -CH₂- group close to the catechol ring at
335 2.76 ppm. (marked d,e) in ¹HNMR (**Figure 1D**) (Liang et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021).
336 According to ¹HNMR, the grafting rate of HA-DA and PP-DA were calculated to be
337 21.9% and 46.4% respectively. Homogeneous HA-DA-PP hydrogel was formed via
338 generation of catechol–catechol adducts between HA-DA and PP-DA triggered by
339 H₂O₂ and HRP under neutral conditions (**Figure 1E, S2**). Additionally, covalent
340 crosslinking between DA and amine groups, and non-covalent interactions like
341 hydrogen bonds from catechol's -OH groups, π–π electron interaction with benzenes,
342 and cation-π interaction between NH₃⁺ and benzenes also contributed to hydrogel
343 network formation. The homogeneity of HA-DA-PP hydrogel could be demonstrated
344 by the distribution of conductive phase in HA-DA hydrogel using tunneling-AFM
345 (TUNA) conductivity map at the micro-scale level (Song et al., 2021). As **Figure 1F**
346 shown, an ultra-uniform conductivity with a wide range of conductive paths was found

347 in HA-DA-PP hydrogel, which proved the successful formation of homogeneous
348 conductive hydrogel network. Contrary to that, in the control group of HA-DA@P
349 hydrogel by adding PEDOT NPs into HA-DA hydrogel, the TUNA conductivity map
350 showed obvious PEDOT NPs aggregation, which should be attributed to the lack of
351 chemical interaction within hydrogel molecular chains (**Figure 1G**). That is to say, the
352 DA-introducing helped the formation of homogeneous particle-free CH.



353

354 **Figure 1.** Preparation and characterization of HA-DA-PP hydrogels. A) Preparation of PP-DA; B)

355 the ^1H NMR spectra of PP-DA and PP; C) preparation of HA-DA; D) the ^1H NMR spectra of HA-

356 DA and HA; E) preparation of homogeneous HA-DA-PP hydrogel with multiple bonds initiated by
357 catechol chemistry; TUNA conductivity mapping (upper) and distribution schematic (bottom) of F)
358 HA-DA-PP and G) HA-DA@P hydrogel; Characteristics of HA-DA-PP hydrogels with various PP-
359 DA concentration. H) Rheological behavior; I) SEM images; J) pore size distribution (n = 5); K)
360 swelling ratio in PBS at 37 °C; L) degradation curves in culture medium at 37 °C.

361

362 We further investigated the influence of PP-DA concentration on HA-DA-PP hydrogels'
363 physicochemical properties. The gelation time of HA-DA-PP hydrogels was assessed
364 with various PP-DA concentration (0, 0.2, 0.5 and 1 mg/mL), named as HA-DA, HA-
365 DA-PP0.2, HA-DA-PP0.5 and HA-DA-PP1, respectively. As shown in **Figure 1H**,
366 pure HA-DA hydrogel took over 25 mins to reach the gelation point. While the
367 introducing of PP-DA significantly shortened the gelation time, ranged from 20.6 mins
368 of HA-DA-PP0.2 to 10.3 mins of HA-DA-PP1. Apparently, PP-DA containing catechol
369 groups accelerated the formation of hydrogel network. Compared with HA-DA, the
370 gelation time of HA-DA@PP0.5 (hydrogel with 0.5 mg/mL PP, without DA doping)
371 varied little, which should be attributed to the lack of catechol groups on PP molecule
372 (**Figure S3**). Like most polysaccharides-based hydrogels, HA-DA-PP hydrogels
373 showed the interconnected honeycomb structure (**Figure 1I**) and the pore size
374 decreased with PP content (**Figure 1J**). Moreover, the pore size in HA-DA-PP0.5 was
375 smaller than that of HA-DA@PP0.5, which also confirmed that the DA modification
376 against PP contributes to hydrogel network formation, resulting in denser interior
377 structure (**Figure S4**). **Figure 1K** and **Figure 1L** show the swelling ratio and
378 degradation ratio decreased with the increasing of PP-DA concentration, verifying that
379 PP-DA content is beneficial to generate multiple bonding within hydrogel network,
380 accompanied by the shortened gelation time and denser interior structure.

381

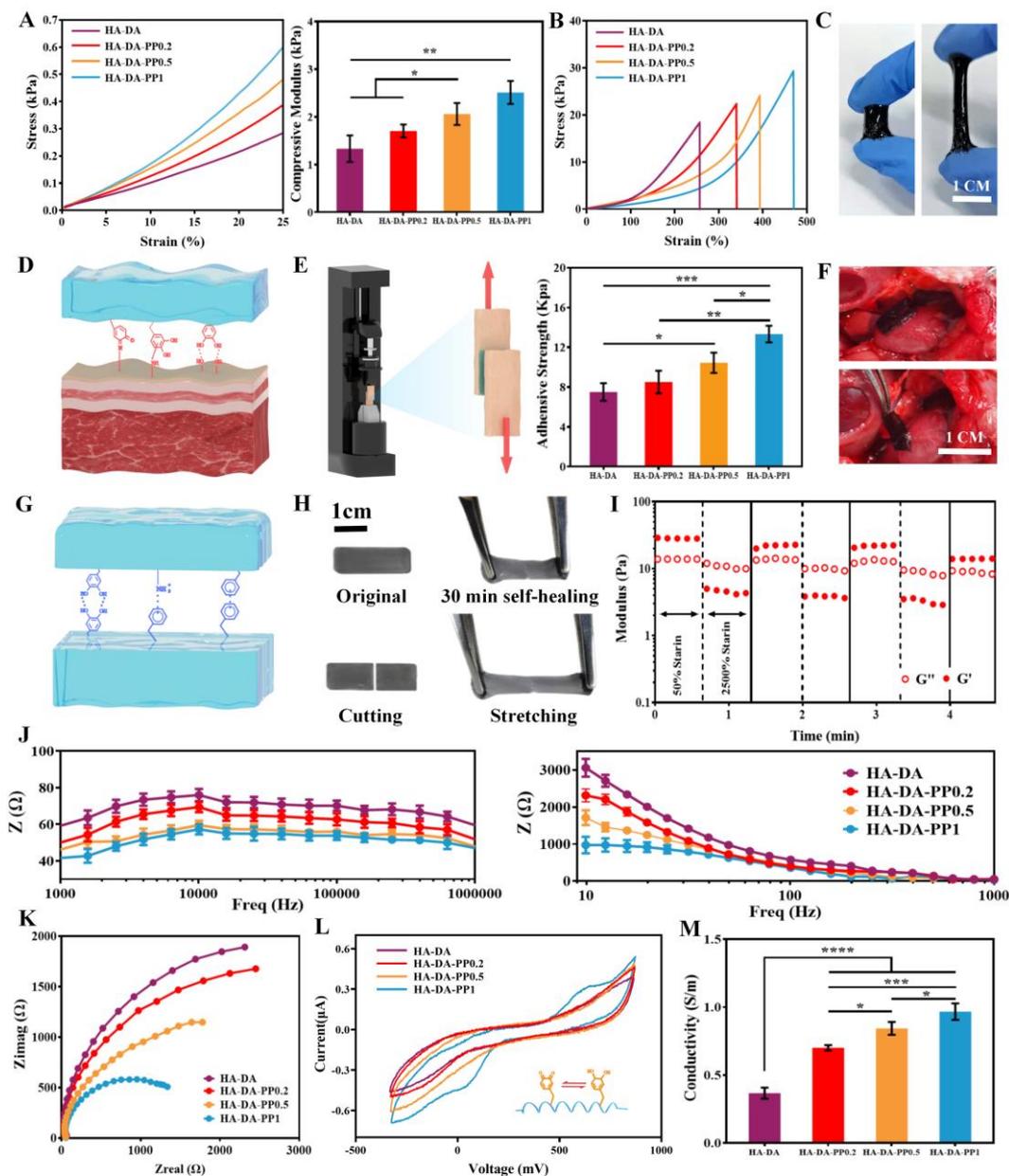
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383

3.2. Mechanical, adhesive, self-healable and electrical properties of HA-DA-PP hydrogel

384 Appropriate mechanical properties, including elastic modulus and tensile strength,
385 adhesive property and self-healing capability are prerequisites of flexible electronics to
386 prevent them falling off tissue surface during application. DA-introduced multiple
387 bonding has a crucial effect on the mechanical property. As expected, compared to HA-
388 DA hydrogel, HA-DA-PP hydrogels showed enhanced compressive modulus, which is
389 positively related to PP-DA concentration. HA-DA-PP1 possessed the highest
390 compressive modulus of 2.51 ± 0.17 kPa, nearly double that of HA-DA hydrogel (**Figure**
391 **2A**). Besides, HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel also showed a larger tensile deformation with a
392 higher breaking strength (over 470%), and the hydrogel adhered to the fingers could be
393 stretched to more than 3 times compared to its initial length along with the fingers'
394 separation, indicating the good flexible stretchability (**Figure 2B&C**). The improved
395 mechanical properties of HA-DA-PP hydrogels also can be attributed to the multiple
396 bonding formed in the hydrogel network. Owing to the presence of polar groups like
397 amine (-NH₂) and hydroxy (-OH), it was expected that the HA-DA-PP hydrogels
398 possessed excellent tissue adhesive ability (**Figure 2D**), which was confirmed by the
399 lap-shear test. As **Figure 2E** shown, the introduction of PP-DA led to improved
400 adhesion property, ranged from 7.51 ± 0.79 kPa of HA-DA to 13.3 ± 0.79 kPa of HA-
401 DA-PP1. **Figure 2F** further shows that the HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel can adhere on the
402 moist tissue surface then peel off completely without any residue, showing its *in vivo*
403 application potential. The HA-DA-PP hydrogels also showed unique self-healing
404 property due to the widely interactions including catechol–catechol adducts and
405 dynamic noncovalent interactions (**Figure 2G**). As shown in **Figure 2H**, the two-cut
406 HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel species were able to self-heal efficiently and tolerated 3 times
407 stretching after 30 minutes of contact. Rheology test evaluated the self-healing behavior
408 of HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel under 50% and 2500% strain for the cyclic testing (**Figure**
409 **2I**), which showed that the storage modulus (G') drastically reduced and was lower than
410 loss modulus (G''), suggesting the disruption of hydrogel network. When the strain
411 switched to 50%, the G' and G'' became higher and the G' was higher than G'' ,

412 indicating the recovery of hydrogel network. Even after four cycles, there was no
 413 significant variation in G' and G'' , and the self-healing hydrogel showed the similar
 414 maximum tensile deformation as the original hydrogel (**Figure S5**), confirming the
 415 excellent self-healing property of HA-DA-PP hydrogel. Moreover, the HA-DA-PP
 416 hydrogels with time-dependent viscosity endowed them good viscosity (**Figure S6**),
 417 which is helpful for *in vivo* detection.



418

419 **Figure 2.** Mechanical properties, tissue adhesion, self-healing properties and electrochemical
 420 properties of the hydrogels. A) The stress-strain curves (left) and compressive modulus (right) under

421 compression mode ($n = 5$); B) the stress-strain curves under tensile mode; C) uniaxial stretching of
422 HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel; D) schematic of hydrogel-tissue interface interaction; E) design of lap-shear
423 test and the adhesion strength of the hydrogels; F) image of HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel adhering to the
424 heart of a rat followed by easily peeling; G) schematic of multiple dynamic bonding participating
425 in hydrogel's self-healing; H) the macroscopic self-healing presentation of HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel;
426 I) alternate step strain sweep test (50% and 2500%) of HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel; J) electrical
427 impedance spectroscopy (EIS) of the hydrogels from 100 Hz to 10 MHz; K) Nyquist curves of four
428 hydrogels; L) CV curve of four hydrogels; M) conductivity of four hydrogels ($n = 5$).

429

430 Ideal electrochemical properties of CHs for reliable electrical signal recording is also
431 necessary for bioelectronics applications (Li et al., 2022). Electrical impedance
432 spectroscopy (EIS) results revealed a lower alternating current (AC) impedance of HA-
433 DA-PP hydrogels than HA-DA, ranging from 100 Hz to 10 MHz due to the introduction
434 of conductive component PP-DA, and the value was negatively correlated to PP-DA
435 concentration (**Figure 2J**). **Figure 2K** shows the Nyquist curves, in which the diameter
436 of the semicircles decreased with the increasing of PP-DA concentration, indicating the
437 decrescent impedance with higher PP-DA. The CV curves showed the enhancement of
438 oxidative and reductive peak at around 640 mV and 45mV with the increase of PP-DA
439 content, corresponding to the transition between catechols and quinones (**Figure 2L**).
440 As the electron donor and acceptor complex composed of PEDOT and DA was formed
441 in HA-DA-PP, the transition of quinones to catechols could promote the charge transfer
442 between PEDOT and catechol/quinone groups on DA (details will be discussed in the
443 next section). The charge transfer further facilitated the formation of well-connected
444 electric path in HA-DA-PP hydrogels (Zeng et al., 2020). More intuitively, the
445 conductivity of the HA-DA-PP hydrogels increased from 0.7 S/m of HA-DA-PP0.2 to
446 0.97 S/m of HA-DA-PP1, which were considerably higher than HA-DA (**Figure 2M**).
447 The improved conductivity of HA-DA-PP is attributed to the introduction of conductive
448 phase and the formed well-connected electric path via charge transfer (Gan et al., 2020).

449 The high conductivity of HA-DA-PP1 hydrogel was further proved by lighting up a
450 LED light in a 9V DC circuit (**Figure S7**). Predictably, owing to PP-DA introduction,
451 the elevated hydrogel performance (high stretchability, self-healing and adhesivity) and
452 conductivity would be beneficial for electrical signals transmission for flexible
453 bioelectronics in electro-biosensing applications.

454

455 *3.3. Interaction between DA and PP*

456 In order to investigate relationship between the enhanced electrical properties and the
457 addition of PP-DA within HA-DA-PP hydrogel, we further investigated the interaction
458 between DA and PP. Based on previous literatures, we speculated that DA was
459 introduced into PP molecule chain by the electrostatic interaction between primary
460 amine group on DA and sulfonic acid ions on PSS, which would lead to the phase
461 separation of PEDOT (conductive part) and PSS (non-conductive part). The phase
462 separation may further improve the regular aggregation of PEDOT domain and
463 benzenoid-to-quinoid conformation transition of PEDOT, which finally promoted the
464 electrical properties of PP-DA within HA-DA-PP hydrogel (Won et al., 2022) (**Figure**
465 **3A**). In addition to this conformational transition hypothesis, we also came up with
466 another hypothesis of charge transfer between DA and PEDOT part within the entire
467 PP (Huang et al., 2017) (**Figure 3B**).

468

469 The conformational transition was characterized by the structural changes of PP after
470 DA doping via XPS analysis. The XPS spectrograms of PP and PP-DA in **Figure 3C**
471 (gray line) can be separated into two peaks of PEDOT domains between 167 and 162
472 eV (blue line) and two peaks of PSS domains (the S(2p) peaks of sulfur atoms) between
473 172 to 164 eV (orange line), and decreased PSS area and increased PEDOT area was
474 observed from PP to PP-DA. The PEDOT/PSS area ratio of pure PP was 0.316 and that
475 of PP-DA was 0.389 (**Figure 3D**), which further demonstrated more regular
476 aggregation of conductive PEDOT-rich domains in PP-DA. In general, the formation

477 of PEDOT-rich domains is accompanied by the increase of PEDOT crystallinity and
478 benzenoid to quinoid transformation (Won et al., 2022). Subsequently, Raman
479 spectroscopy was performed to investigate the molecular state of PEDOT domain in PP
480 and PP-DA (**Figure 3E**). PEDOT exhibited typical quinoid structure (1410 cm^{-1}) and
481 benzoid structure (1436 cm^{-1}). By comparing the area of quinoid and benzoid structure,
482 the quinoid/benzoid ratio of PP-DA (2.188) was found significantly higher than that of
483 PP (1.137), indicating more quinoid structure in PP-DA (**Figure 3F**). The conductive
484 mechanism of PEDOT is related to the delocalization of the oxidation-prone π -electrons
485 on the thiophene ring (Le, Kim, & Yoon, 2017). Upon oxidation, π -electrons would
486 detach from the initial PEDOT chain, then form unstable delocalized electrons. To
487 stabilize extra energy form delocalized electrons, PEDOT would trigger conformational
488 transition from the benzenoid structures (low energy state) to the quinoid ones (high
489 energy state) to dissipate the extra energy. During this process, PEDOT would produce
490 polarons (with single electron) or bipolar polarons (with double electrons) to act as
491 charge carriers. Hence, PP-DA with more quinoid structure possessed higher electrical
492 conductivity, because more charge carriers favor the formation of well-connected
493 electric path. The varied morphology in AFM mapping of PP (amorphous cluster
494 structure) and PP-DA (extended linear structure) also reflected the different
495 benzenoid/quinoid composition within these two samples (**Figure 3G**) (Fan et al., 2019).
496 Above results verified benzenoid-to-quinoid conformation transition hypothesis caused
497 by DA doping, which further improves the conductivity of PP-DA.

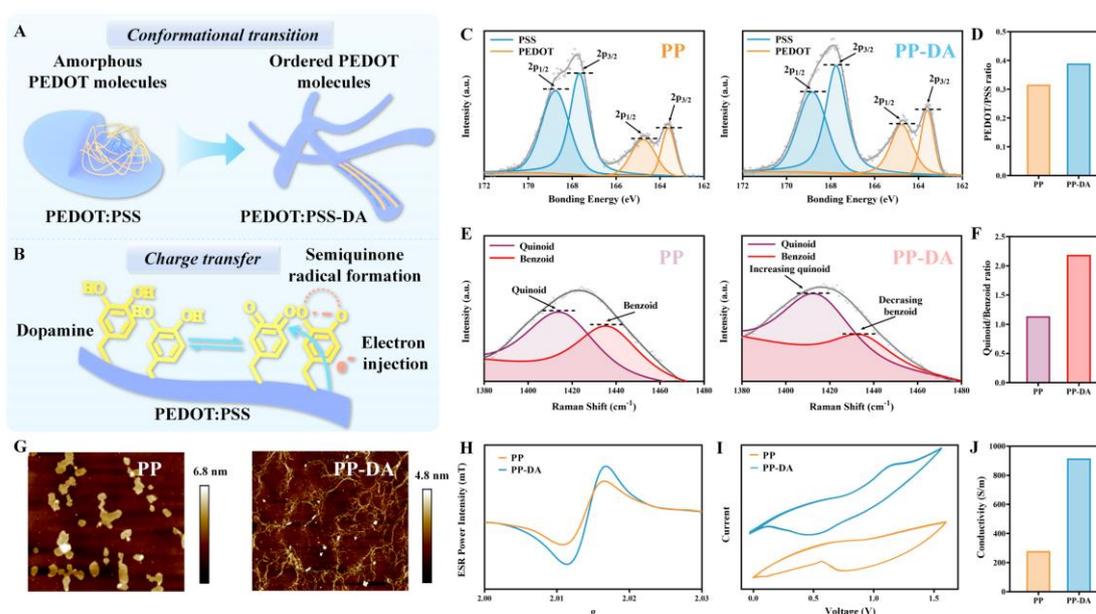
498

499 The charge transfer between DA and PEDOT was verified by the ESR test. As shown
500 in **Figure 3H**, more obvious ESR signal in PP-DA compared to PP confirmed the
501 formation of DA semiquinone radical in PP-DA. Meanwhile, the delocalized electrons,
502 which exited on the molecular skeleton of PEDOT, preferred to transfer to DA
503 semiquinone radical with electron-withdrawing property (Zeng et al., 2020). The charge
504 transferring between PEDOT and DA was further directly confirmed by CV analysis in

505 **Figure 3I**, which showed none obvious oxidation peaks in PP while a pronounced
 506 oxidation peak at a potential around 1.2 V in PP-DA. By DA doping, a quasi-reversible
 507 redox process occurred in PP-DA, which confirmed the interaction of charge transfer
 508 between PEDOT and DA. Hence, due to conformational transition and charge transfer
 509 effect, PP-DA showed higher (about 4 folds) conductivity than that of pure PP (**Figure**
 510 **3J**).

511

512 In summary, the interaction between DA and PP, including conformational transition
 513 and charge transfer effects, contributes the well-connected electric path formed in the
 514 hydrogel, leading to more electrons to move along the polymer chains and enhances the
 515 conductivity of HA-DA-PP hydrogels.



516

517 **Figure 3.** Interaction between DA and PP for enhanced conductivity. A) The schematic of
 518 conformational transition of PEDOT domains after DA doping; B) the schematic of charge transfer
 519 effect between PEDOT and DA; C) XPS results of PP and PP-DA; D) PEDOT/PSS ratio of PP and
 520 PP-DA; E) Raman spectroscopy results of PP and PP-DA; F) quinoid/benzoid ratio of PP and PP-
 521 DA; G) AFM image of PP and P-DA; H) ESR spectra of PP and PP-DA; I) CV curves of PP and
 522 PP-DA; J) conductivity of PP and PP-DA.

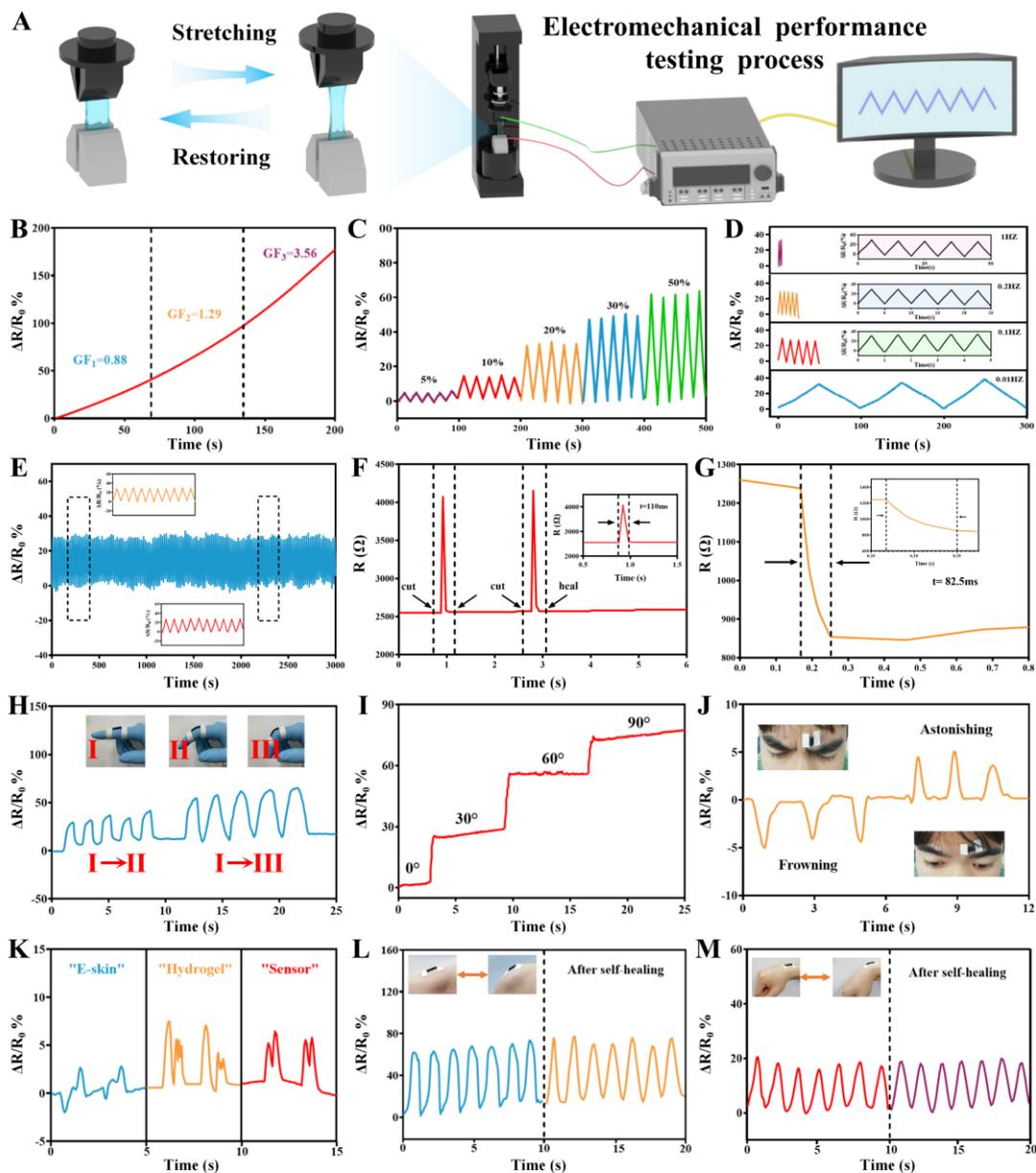
523

524 3.4. Electromechanical property and human motion monitoring

525 With superior conductivity and flexible stretchability, HA-DA-PP1 (hereinafter referred
526 to as HDP) hydrogel was selected for following human motion monitoring applications.
527 **Figure 4A** shows the flow chart of electromechanical property test of the hydrogel
528 under dynamic stretching mode. The typical trend of $\Delta R/R_0$ versus tensile strain of the
529 HDP hydrogel in **Figure 4B** showed the markedly linear rise in relative resistance,
530 indicating good electromechanical response. This trend could be explained by the
531 increased tensile strain leading to decreased contact area of PP-DA, which finally
532 reduces hydrogel conductivity as extended tunneling of electron transfer. The value of
533 $\Delta R/R_0$ increased with incremental tensile strains (**Figure 4C**), 1.86% of 5% tensile
534 strain to 39.23% of 50% tensile strain, and recovered once the tensile stress was
535 withdrawn, also indicating favourable electromechanical sensitivity of HDP. Next,
536 $\Delta R/R_0$ under different dynamic loading frequency from 0.01 to 1 Hz with a fixed 20%
537 strain was revealed (**Figure 4D**). Under all frequencies, the value of $\Delta R/R_0$ raised and
538 then descended, showing the excellent strain-sensitive electrical repeatability of HDP.
539 Moreover, this hydrogel could bear over 150 cycles under 50% strain with well-
540 preserved $\Delta R/R_0$ amplitude (**Figure 4E**). The conductivity restoration of CH was also
541 important for bioelectrical signals sensing and recording. **Figure 4F** shows the
542 resistance variation of HDP during two cutting–healing cycles. The resistance became
543 extremely high after cutting off, then dropped sharply and gradually recovered to
544 original value within only 110 ms. Such electrically self-healable property is derived
545 by the association of multiple dynamic bonds, leading to the seamlessly healing of the
546 dissected hydrogel in a relatively short time (Ge et al., 2019). When the finger gently
547 pressed the hydrogel, the resistance quickly declined within 82.5 ms (**Figure 4G**) which
548 is relatively shorter than previously reported pressure sensors (Huang et al., 2020; Pang
549 et al., 2018). The real-time accuracy of this designed hydrogel for electrical signals
550 recording is beneficial to further human motion monitoring.

551

552 As a proof of concept, we revealed the real-time human motion monitoring using HDP.
553 **Figure 4H** shows the resistance variation of HDP on the finger with repeatedly
554 bending–relaxing for 5 times, and it can be found that the resistance was precise and
555 repeatable during the entire process. Besides, the resistance variation changed in
556 accordance with the amplitude of finger’s movement (**Figure 4I**). **Figure 4J** shows that
557 making different expressions like frowning and astonishment also could trigger
558 corresponding resistance changes. Similarly, subtle and complex muscle movements
559 involved in speaking different words such as “e-skin”, “hydrogel” and “sensor” could
560 be detected along with distinguishing resistance signal changes (**Figure 4K**). Notably,
561 the HDP hydrogel could be reused for electromechanical signal recording after self-
562 healing, showing a real-time responsive $\Delta R/R_0$ changing on wrist and knee after self-
563 healing (**Figure 4L&M**). These results suggested the huge potential of HDP hydrogel
564 as strain sensors for human motion monitoring.



565

566 **Figure 4.** Electromechanical properties of HDP (HA-DA-PP1) hydrogel and human motion
 567 monitoring. A) Schematic diagram of the electromechanical performance testing process; B) $\Delta R/R_0$
 568 curve of the HDP hydrogel under applied strain; C) $\Delta R/R_0$ curve of HDP hydrogel under five cycles
 569 from low strain to high strain; D). $\Delta R/R_0$ curve of HDP hydrogel at different frequencies and fixed
 570 50% strain; E) $\Delta R/R_0$ curve of HDP hydrogel under 150 cycles; F) resistance change of HDP
 571 hydrogel during periodic cutting and self-healing; G) resistance change of HDP hydrogel when a
 572 finger pressing; time-dependent resistance variations during H) index finger bending-unbending in
 573 a cycle and I) maintaining the certain angle (0° , 30° , 60° and 90°); J) $\Delta R/R_0$ change of HDP

574 hydrogel of making expressions (frowning and astonishment) and K) speaking different words; L)
575 $\Delta R/R_0$ change of HDP hydrogel during bending the knee and M) the wrist before and after self-
576 healing.

577

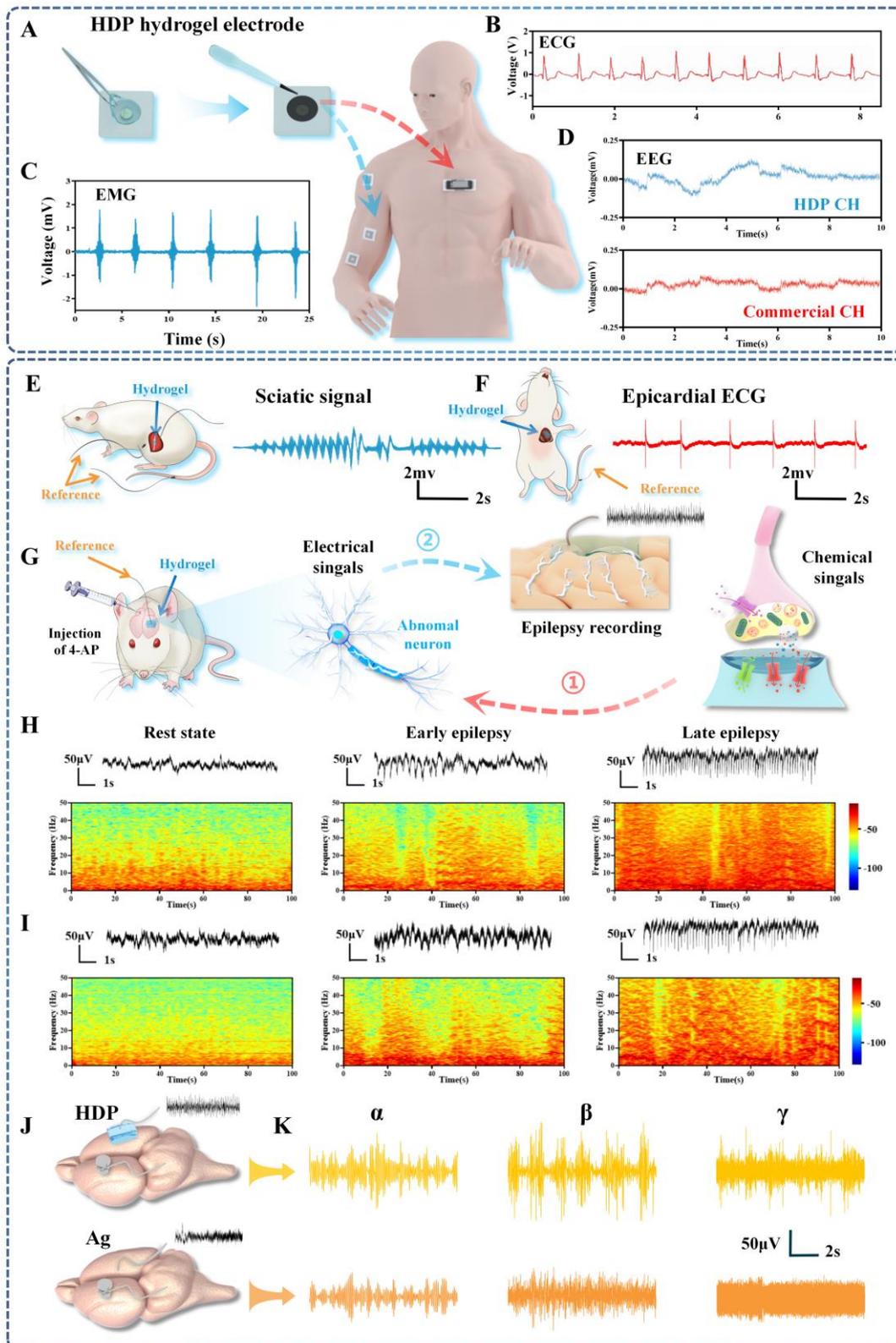
578 3.5. On-body epidermal and *in vivo* electrophysiology signals monitoring

579 To further demonstrate the potentiality of HA-DA-PP hydrogels within epidermal and
580 *in vivo* electrophysiology signals monitoring, the biocompatibility was firstly assessed
581 via co-culture with 3T3 cells in **Figure S8 & 9**. Both Live/Dead staining and MTT
582 analysis showed the good biocompatibility of HA-DA-PP hydrogels. Subsequently, the
583 epidermal signal detection performance of HDP hydrogel was evaluated by filling it
584 into a commercial button-like electrode, then adhered onto the chest of a volunteer
585 (**Figure 5A**). As expected, the ECG signals can be detected, showing clearly R, S, T, P,
586 Q peaks (**Figure 5B, S10**). **Figure 5C** illustrated the EMG signals of biceps muscle
587 during multiple static contraction. Similarly, HDP hydrogel showed a decent potential
588 for EEG signals detecting, as the EEG signals recorded by HDP hydrogel showed more
589 sensitive voltage amplitude and clearer details compared to the commercial hydrogel
590 electrode (**Figure 5D**).

591

592 The *in vivo* biocompatibility of HA-DA-PP hydrogel was further evaluated by dorsal
593 subcutaneous implantation in a SD rat model for 14 days. The histological assessments
594 based on hematoxylin and eosin staining (H&E) staining showed that a number of
595 inflammatory cells could be observed at the implantation interface of Ag group, while
596 HDP hydrogel did not cause obvious inflammatory reaction in subcutaneous tissues and
597 major organs (**Figure S11**). Coming from the excellent biocompatibility, HA-DA-PP
598 hydrogel is promising for *in vivo* application scenarios. In situ sciatic, epicardial ECG
599 and ECoG signals recording via a rat model were then performed. For sciatic signal
600 recording, HDP hydrogel was wrapped on sciatic nerve, then the paws of rats were
601 poked with tweezers, sciatic signals after stimulation were clearly recorded (**Figure 5E**).

602 For epicardial ECG signal, HDP hydrogel was attached onto the epicardial surface
603 directly which can effectively avoid the high-amplitude noise from the heartbeat, then
604 the clear curve was observed (**Figure 5F**). It's worth noting that the epicardial ECG
605 curve does not occur any observable arrhythmia signs, also demonstrating the good
606 biocompatibility of HDP hydrogel within electrically active tissues. We further
607 investigated the application of HDP hydrogel for biological electrical signal in epileptic
608 seizure model. Firstly, we constructed a rat's epileptic seizure model with 4-
609 aminopyridine (4-AP) injection. In the state of epilepsy, action potentials triggered by
610 abnormally firing neurons could synergistically generate ECoG signals which was
611 clearly recorded by our HDP hydrogel electrode (Ding et al., 2022) (**Figure 5G, S12**).
612 The ECoG signals in different stages (rest, early, and late) of epileptic seizure were
613 showed in **Figure 5H**. At rest state, ECoG amplitude maintained at a low level. After
614 an epileptic seizure, the ECoG amplitude obviously increased as epilepsy active form
615 early to late stage. At same time, the corresponding time spectrum reflected the
616 enhanced power of the spectrum resulting from the discharge of abnormal neurons. As
617 control, a silver electrode was used to record the ECoG signals in the same way (**Figure**
618 **5I**). The recorded signal amplitude and energy change trends were basically consistent
619 with those of HDP group. To further compare the quality by the HDP hydrogel and
620 silver electrode, the recorded signals were filtered into different frequency domains (α ,
621 β , γ), in which signal waves may be induced due to epilepsy. Compared to silver
622 electrode, the more obvious augmentation of ECoG signals and reduction of foundation
623 noise appeared within HDP group, owing to more close conformal contact between soft
624 adhesive hydrogel and brain interface (**Figure 5J&K**).



625

626 **Figure 5.** Application of HDP hydrogel in on-body epidermal and *in vivo* electrophysiology signals

627 monitoring. A) The preparation process of HDP-contained hydrogel electrode by filling it into a

628 commercial button-like electrode; B) ECG signal where obtained from the HDP-contained hydrogel
629 electrode adhering on the chest of a volunteer; C) EMG signals of biceps muscle during multiple
630 static contraction; D) EEG signals testing by HDP CH and the commercial CH; *in vivo* E) sciatic
631 and F) epicardial ECG recording by HDP hydrogel within a rat model; G) schematic diagram of the
632 ECoG signal recording within a 4-AP-induced epileptic rat model; ECoG signals (raw local field
633 potential, top; time-frequency spectrogram, bottom) recorded by H) HDP and I) silver wire in
634 different periods; J) schematic diagram of silver wire and HDP hydrogel as recording electrodes,
635 respectively; K) ECoG signals filtered into different frequency domains (α , β , γ) measured with
636 HDP hydrogel and silver wire during late epilepsy.

637

638 **4. Conclusion**

639 In summary, we developed a particle-free DA-introduced CH with favorable flexible
640 mechanical performances, high conductivity and good biocompatibility for human
641 motion monitoring, epidermal and *in vivo* electrophysiology signals monitoring. The
642 multiple interactions between PP-DA and HA-DA contributes not only the homogenous
643 distribution of conductive PP in HA-based hydrogel network, effectively avoids stress
644 concentration around conductive NPs, but also results in high stretchability (over
645 470%), tissue-adhesiveness and self-healing capability. Meanwhile, in addition to the
646 introducing of conductive phase, interaction between DA and PEDOT of
647 conformational transition and charge transfer effects greatly improves the conductivity
648 of HA-DA-PP hydrogel. Furthermore, profiting from the excellent conductivity and
649 biocompatibility, HA-DA-PP hydrogel realizes real-time monitoring of human
650 movements, as well as on-body epidermal and *in vivo* electrophysiology signals
651 monitoring, with augmented signals and reduced noise. Overall, this work provides a
652 universal paradigm of designing multifunctional materials for flexible epidermal
653 sensors, and reliable implantable electrophysiological monitoring.

654

655 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

656 **Ming-Ze Zeng:** Investigation, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing -
657 original draft. **Dan Wei:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Data curation, Writing -
658 review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Jie Ding:** Conceptualization, Methodology.
659 Yuan Tian: Software, Data curation. **Yuan Tian:** Visualization. **Xiao-Yang Wu:**
660 Collection of some experimental data. **Zhi-Hong Chen:** Collection of some
661 experimental data. **Cheng-Heng Wu:** Conceptualization. **Jing Sun:** Writing - review
662 & editing. **Hua-Bing Yin:** Conceptualization, Results discussion. **Hong-Song Fan:**
663 Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Funding acquisition, Project
664 administration.

665

666 **Declaration of competing interest**

667 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

668

669 **Data availability**

670 Data will be made available on request.

671

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679

680 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

681 The following is the Supplementary data to this article:

682

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